



INTERNATIONAL ACADEMIC INSTITUTE

IAI ACADEMIC CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

International Virtual Academic Conference

**Education and Social Sciences
Business and Economics**

14 April 2021

IAI Academic Conference Proceedings

Editor:

Hristina Ruceva Tasev, Dr. Sci, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University, Skopje, Republic of N. Macedonia

Editorial Board:

Milena Apostolovska-Stepanoska, Dr. Sci, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University, Skopje, Republic of N. Macedonia

Vasko Naumovski, Dr. Sci, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University, Skopje, Republic of N. Macedonia

Meic Pearse, Dr. Sci, Houghton College NY, USA

Elif Uckan Dagdemir, Dr. Sci, Anadoly University, Turkey

Mary Mares-Awe, MA, Fulbright Association, Chicago, USA

Prof. Massimo Introzzi, Bococca University – Milan, Italy

Dr. Zahida Chebchoub, UAE University, Al-Ain

Dr. Benal Dikmen, Associate Professor, T.C. İstanbul Yeni Yüz Yıl University

Ass. Prof. Arthur Pantelides, American University, Bulgaria

Marija Boban, Dr. Sci, Faculty of Law, University of Split, Croatia

Gergana Radoykova, Dr. Sci Sofia University St. Kliment Ohridski, Bulgaria

Anthon Mark Jay Alguno Rivas, MA, Taguig City University, Philippines

Snezana Knezevic, Dr. Sci Faculty of Organizational Sciences, Belgrade, Serbia

Eva Pocher, Ph.D., University of Glasgow

Ass. Prof. Mariam A. Abu Alim, Yarmouk University, Jordan

Ass. Prof Aleksandra Mitrović, University in Kragujevac, Serbia

Dr. Dorjana Klosi, University of “Ismail Qemali”, Vlore, Albania

Secretary and editing:

Filip Stojkovski

International Academic Institute

Ul. Todor Aleksandrov br.85-4

Skopje, Republic of N. Macedonia

ISSN 2671-3179

TABLE OF CONTENTS:**REVIEW AND RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE MEASURES AND ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION****Hyun Sun Chung, Won-Woo Park 4****TRANSLATION, THE TRANSLATOR AND THE NEWS OUTLETS****Dorjana Klosi 20****THE EVOLUTION OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN THE REPUBLIC OF BELARUS. DEATH PENALTY****Larisa-Florentina Butnariu (Badea) 25****RISK FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR CHRONIC LYMPHOCYTIC LEUKEMIA****Gledjan Caka , Helidon Nina 35**

Review and Recommendations on the Measures and Analysis of Organizational Identification

Hyun Sun Chung¹, Won-Woo Park²

^{1*} College of Business Administration of the Seoul National University, Ph. D. Candidate at the Seoul National University, Republic of Korea

² College of Business Administration of the Seoul National University, Professor of Organizational Behavior, Republic of Korea

*Corresponding Author: Hyun Sun Chung e-mail: chunghsunny@snu.ac.kr

Abstract

Although the concept of organizational identification (OID) has received interest from both scholars and practitioners, and numerous conceptual and empirical studies of OID have been published, issues with measuring OID remain unresolved concerning data collection and data analysis. Thus, in order to provide a better understanding of OID, this study is organized into three main sections: (1) Defining OID, (2) analyzing empirical studies of OID, and (3) examining existing OID measures and suggesting a new analytical approach to OID. First, this paper aims to offer clarity of OID by comparing it to similar constructs, such as organizational commitment, organizational/work engagement, and person-organization fit. Second, this study reviews journal articles from 2011 to 2020 and analyzes how OID is measured in empirical studies and provides the recent trends of measuring and interpreting OID in the field of organizational behavior. Third, this study emphasizes the importance of OID measurement through data collection and data-analysis standpoints by examining existing OID measures from psychological and behavioral perspectives. By reviewing existing OID measures, this study analyzes how each OID measure is utilized, how the intentions and purposes of each measure are reflected, and how those measures capture employees' psychological and behavioral aspects of OID. Based on the analysis, this study argues the need to adopt new analysis approaches by analyzing one's perception and actual behavior separately to attain sound understating OID.

Keywords: Organizational Identification, Measurement, Measures, Review Paper

1. Introduction

OID is one of the critical constructs to understanding organizational members and their dynamics; thus, researchers have analyzed it for over 30 years (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Bednar et al., 2020; Dutton et al., 1994; Edwards, 2005; He & Brown, 2013; Pratt, 1998; Riketta, 2005). OID represents embracing processes related to how organizational members create meaning and relate themselves to their affiliated organizations, leading to their overall attitudes and behaviors within and about organizations. Because OID directly affects employees' satisfaction, attitudes, and behaviors toward work, it has attracted interest in the field of organizational studies (Dutton et al., 1994; Edwards, 2005; Riketta, 2005; He & Brown, 2013; Lee et al., 2015). An abundance of empirical and conceptual research has been published on OID to examine the functions and dynamics within organizations and their members (Ashforth et al., 2008; Bednar et al., 2020; Boivie et al., 2011; Dutton et al., 1994; Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Edwards, 2005; He & Brown, 2013; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Riketta, 2005; van Knippenberg et al., 2006). Even so, despite continuous efforts to expand the research to facilitate a more complete understanding of OID, issues related to its measurement and analysis remain unresolved.

One such issue is the precise definition of OID. As the research broadly discusses the potential overlap of concepts and definitions among OID and similar constructs, it is essential to differentiate OID from such constructs in the organizational behavior field as organizational or work engagement, P-O fit, and OC. Existing studies have widely discussed issues regarding the precision of OID's definition, and multiple attempts have been made to resolve such an issue by developing new measures or providing suggestions to refining the definition of OID. However, no studies have compiled similar constructs and discussed the differences among them, so it is vital to provide accurate explanations to distinguish these concepts from OID and understand the construct fully.

Moreover, in-depth study and understanding are necessary to obtain a precise definition of OID. This can be assessed by adopting appropriate measures of OID. Researchers have raised questions regarding, in particular, whether OID measures its intended dimensions accurately despite some existing explanations. Although numerous measurements have been developed and utilized since Brown introduced the OID questionnaires in 1969, debates regarding whether existing OID measures provide accurate assessments have led to the introduction of new measures and the suggestion of new dimensions and approaches. Even so, those attempts also have unresolved issues. Because OID requires further in-depth analysis, examinations are necessary to solidify the standards for measuring OID in order to enhance research for its betterment.

In addition, to obtain accurate interpretations, it is necessary to examine whether OID measures are analyzed through appropriate methods. Even when measures are used appropriately, their results can be contaminated or misleading if they are not interpreted correctly. Therefore, this paper incorporates the concepts of level issues and direct and indirect measurements to eliminate potential errors when analyzing OID measures. Although continuous efforts have been made to expand the understanding of OID, debate on the measurement and analysis of OID is still ongoing; thus, this study aims to provide a compilation of the existing measurement tools and provide suggestions for measuring and analyzing OID accurately. To examine existing measurement tools and provide a sound understanding of them, this paper first explores conceptual clarity by comparing similar constructs and differentiating among their characteristics.

Thus, this paper aims to (1) provide a better understanding of OID by reviewing existing studies of OID and adapting a framework from those studies; (2) provide a better perspective of OID with a review of current research trends by reviewing ten years of OID research in organizational behavior journals; and (3) suggest new approaches to understand OID dimensions by suggesting a newly added dimension of OID. This study is organized as follows: provide the definition of OID, compare similar constructs to OID, review existing measurements of OID, and suggest a new OID measurement with new dimensional approaches and issues to appropriately analyze OID measurement.

2. Definition and Dimensions of OID

The basic definition of OID recognizes the congruence of values or affiliations between employees and organizations (van Knippenberg et al., 2006; Mael & Ashforth, 1992). It can be interpreted as psychological relations between employees and organizations (Edwards & Peccei, 2010). OID occurs in the process when individuals process organizational identity (OI) into their own identity, and it can be explained as how organizational members view themselves according to their organizational memberships. Also, it is the process of how organizational members process and adapt “oneness” and how they determine to share congruent values and purposes between them and organizations; thus, the social identity theory (SIT) lens can be applied for improved understanding (Elsbach, 1999; Pratt, 1998). SIT explains that individuals form self-conceptions with their affiliated social groups; the basic concept can be understood as individuals identifying with a particular social group and determining those individuals’ inclinations to behave based on their memberships in social groups (Ellemers et al., 1999). Following this logic, social identification is the process of individuals’ perception of belonging to a specific group classification in social settings and those individuals behaving as members of the group. OID can be understood as a type of social identification that occurs in organizations. Dutton et al. (1994) argued that OID is a cognitive connection between individual and organizational values.

OID occurs when individuals congruently integrate their own beliefs with affiliated organizational values. As Tajfel and Turner (1979) explained, OID can be understood as individuals considering organizational belonging as a part of their self-identification. Ashforth and Mael (1989) defined OID as “a specific form of social identification” that emphasizes how organizational members define themselves with an affiliated organization in terms of their membership. OID might be initiated with a strong emphasis on how members choose to merge OI with their personal perspectives. Therefore, through OID, organizational members merge OI with their personal identities, which creates strong cohesion and a sense of belonging and membership (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Ashforth, 1995), which require more input and engagement from organizational members in their processes compared to OI.

OID originally stemmed from Patchen’s (1970) concept, which explained how OID embraces a sense of cohesiveness, support of the organization, and shared characteristics with other organizational members. Patchen explained that the similarity of values, membership, and loyalty toward the organization are three critical components of identification. The similarity of values is the extent to which employees have similar goals, beliefs, and values to those of the organization; and membership is employees’ self-concept in organizations and how they are connected to organizations. That is, employees view themselves according to their organizational memberships, and loyalty indicates how much employees support, protect, and defend their organizations. Furthermore, Ashforth and Mael (1989) explained identification as “the perception of oneness with or belongings to some human aggregate.” Thus, based on those three components of Patchen’s argument, the senses of belongingness and oneness can be added to understand OID. Based on the definitions, although one can argue that similar concepts of organizational membership, loyalty, affiliation, and sense of belongingness perhaps overlap with OID, it is vital to emphasize that OID is an amalgamated concept of those similar constructs.

The broader accepted view argues that OID refers to how organizations define themselves and their members’ perception and understanding of their organizational membership; however, Ashforth and Mael (1989) provided the narrowest definition of OID

by arguing the perception of oneness to affiliated organizations. Although there is no given a single definition of OID, both definitions share the concept of how individuals view organizations and process their perception of organizations to form OID. To understand the differentiating dimension of OID, the following section discusses similar and related constructs.

3. Comparison with Related Constructs

3.1 Organizational Commitment and OID

OC is one of the most widely discussed constructs that could have overlapping concepts to OID, and existing studies have analyzed the fact that potential overlaps exist between affective OC and OID as Riketta's (2005) meta-analysis indicated 62% shared variance between commitment and identification.

OID may have similarities and potential overlaps with OC; however, there are subtle differences between OC and OID (Ashforth & Meal, 1989; Pratt, 1998). OC describes the positive attitude toward an organization that develops from the consideration of costs and benefits that an organizational membership provides (Edwards & Peccei, 2007; van Dick, 2001; van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). The conflict between OC and OID has been continuously raised, but there are explanations for understanding the concepts separately. One issue with the overlap between OC and OID is the affective aspect of OC. Participants claimed that the effectiveness of OC measures is similar to OID by providing statements such as "I really feel as if the organization's problems are my own," which can be used to measure the OID aspect (Riketta, 2005).

Despite overlapping aspects between the two constructs, Ashforth and Mael (1989) explained that the fundamental difference is that OID is a reflection of an individual's self-definition, whereas OC is more understood as the attitudes toward organizations. OID requires a cognitive reflection process by employees to incorporate organizational values into self-concepts (Pratt, 1998). Thus, OID has a strong emphasis on self-definition, whereas OC focuses more on attitudes toward organizations.

Another difference is that OID and OC stem from different sources (Pratt, 1998). OID is a process of shared values and identities between employees and organizations, and OC is based on a social exchange perspective with three dimensions (i.e., affective, normative, and continuous). As Allen and Myer (1996) explained, affective commitment is how much employees identify and are emotionally linked and involved with their organizations, normative commitment is to what extent individuals feel a moral duty to remain at the organization, and continuance commitment considers the perceived costs of leaving the organization. Thus, unlike OID, OC does not necessarily require employees' reflections to merge two values congruently into one; instead, it focuses on evaluating the values of investing attachment to organizations.

Tajfel and Turner (1979) argued that SIT, especially self-categorization theory (Turner et al., 1987), does not allow OID to be fixed. Instead, OID can be flexible and is affected by group salience or interactions with others. In addition, OC is a type of attitude that is relatively stable once it is established (Gautam et al., 2004; Pratt, 2001; Wagner & Ward, 1993). Moreover, studies have indicated that, despite similarities between OC and OID, OID is related only to affective commitment, one of the three commitment types of OC (Riketta, 2005). OID also provides different predictions in organizational settings, including various job-related attitudes and behaviors, such as satisfaction, turnover intention, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) (Liu et al., 2011; van Dick et al., 2008). OID creates a sense that an organization and its members are part of the self; this is less applicable to OC.

When employees work alone or not necessarily as a team, they can still formulate OID. Consistent with this view, the concepts of OC and OID have been empirically different (Mael & Tetrick, 1992). Edward (2005) emphasized that despite the similarities between OC and OID, the difference in his review indicates that OC is a "broader, and more general construct" compared to OID.

3.2 Organizational/Work Engagement and OID

Empirical studies have used the constructs of work engagement and OID and literature supporting potential links between work engagement and OID (Dutton et al., 1994; Reade, 2001). However, research examining the direct link between work engagement and OID lacks. One study explained that employees with strong and positive bonds to their organizations tend to have a high level of engagement in their work; thus, they are more energized, dedicated, and satisfied with the work (Karanika-Murray et al., 2015). Another study indicated that when employees are engaged in their work, they are more willing to execute effort at work, whereas, when employees are not engaged, they have a low level of willingness to perform well at work and do not show a connection or express togetherness toward their colleagues (Xanthopoulou et al., 2008). It can be argued that employees with a high level of engagement in their affiliated organizations adapt more to organizational goals and consequently are more involved in achieving those goals by engaging more in their work. This is similar to the phenomenon of OID — that is, employees with stronger OID tend to exhibit better performance, OCBs, and work attitudes.

Despite the apparent similarities, the fundamental definition proceeds in slightly different directions. Kahn (1990) defined engagement as when "people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances." Based on Kahn's (1990) seminal study, there are various arguments and approaches to defining engagement. Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) definition of "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" is

considered an emergent definition for research (Gözükara & Şimsek, 2016). To put it simply, the concept of engagement captures how employees experience and behave at their work.

Bakker et al. (2011) explained that the research on engagement focuses more on the energy level, thereby seeing engagement as an employee's level of energy and involvement in work. Because work engagement indicates how strongly employees feel connected to their work, work engagement can serve as the employees' behaviors and attitudes toward work and the extent of their involvement (Kahn, 1990).

However, Karanika-Murray et al. (2015) pointed out a lack of studies on the direct link between engagement and OID despite the nuanced possible links in existing studies. In their research, they examined OID and the three dimensions of work engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption. The results indicated that engagement, including all three dimensions, is positively correlated with OID, and they further explained that employees with a stronger OID would be highly engaged in their work, which ultimately has a mediating effect on ensuring better job satisfaction.

The connotations of engagement and OID can be viewed as similar because these constructs often deal with similar contexts in organizations, such as work attitudes and behaviors, satisfaction, and performance. Despite the conceptual similarities, definitions, and empirical findings indicate that work engagement is more focused on employees' attitudes at work, whereas OID is focused on employees' identities with their organizations. That is, OID is how each employee deals with the relationship toward his or her affiliated organization, whereas work engagement is how employees will behave with regard to their work at the organization. Therefore, these two constructs are more sequential than comparable.

3.3 Person-Organization Fit and OID

P-O fit might seem to be intertwined with OID, yet it has its differences. With P-O fit's emphasis on having congruence between employees and organizations, and even though observing employees' perception of oneness to their affiliated organizations may seem redundant, P-O fit differs from OID because it focuses on the match between organizational members and the affiliated organizations with value and goal congruence using either complementary or supplementary fit perspectives (Piasentin & Chapman, 2006). P-O fit studies have addressed issues regarding personality, goals, skills, and abilities, and the focus is on how individual organizational members perceive how their values fit with the values of affiliated organizations (Piasentin & Chapman, 2006). P-O fit is essential because it directly affects satisfaction, well-being, self-esteem, and the sense of belonging to organizations, which can be viewed as similar to social identification and is based on the sense of belonging to an organization as a social group.

The P-O fit concept explains that organizational members will be encouraged to engage more in various organizational matters when they fulfill their needs for relatedness and that it will be easier to foster higher relatedness when their values are in accordance with organizational values (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Sultanova & Chechina, 2016). With higher relatedness, organizational members might have stronger relationships with the organization, which will encourage them to make positive contributions, such as a higher level of commitment and performance (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011; Risman et al., 2016). Studies have indicated that when members of an organization have a high P-O fit, organizations can incorporate creative ideas and implement innovations (Afsar & Badir, 2017). Thus, when there is a higher P-O fit, it can be argued that congruence exists between organizational members and the organization (or organizational identities), which can cause members to have positive attitudes (more commitment) and become more likely to accept organizational requirements (e.g., organizational changes). Considering that OID is generally viewed as how organizational members resonate with organizational characteristics, P-O fit might seem to duplicate the concept of OID.

Despite the conceptual similarity between P-O fit and OID, which is based on a strong emphasis regarding matching the values of organizational members and organizations, the focus on the research frame differentiates the two concepts. That is, OID studies emphasize the processes (mediation and moderation) in the research framework. However, P-O fit studies have often emphasized the antecedents, meaning that the existing research primarily focuses on how P-O fit generates the effect and subsequently examines the degree of P-O fit and its impact on organizational processes. Therefore, P-O fit can be understood as the general concept of leveling organizational members with shared organizational characteristics and values. Thus, empirical findings have indicated that P-O fit is a strong predictor of OID and that there is a significant relationship between P-O fit and OID in organizations (Dutton et al., 1994; Demir, 2015).

4. Dimensions of Organizational Identification

As discussed in the previous section, despite some overlapping concepts and similarities, differences among those constructs are evident. First, OID and OC not only stem from different sources but also differ in terms of endurance and flexibility once employees form or establish them. Second, the fundamental definitions of OID and engagement present differences. Although OID focuses on how individual employees build relationships with organizations, engagement focuses on how employees act when working at organizations. Thus, the foci of their fundamental purposes differ. Third, although OID and P-O fit are conceptually similar, OID focuses on processes in organizations, whereas P-O fit focuses on how P-O fit is generated in organizations.

While these constructs are used to value organizational goals and beliefs and discuss them with a sense of attachment, they are considered generic because they emphasize goals, beliefs, and values. However, OID is exclusive to organizations: OID occurs when organizational members merge their identities with the organizational identity and see it as one identity. Thus, OID is not a mere congruence of values or goals; instead, it is a congruence between the organization's members and the organization itself.

To gain a better understanding, approaches exist with which to analyze OID more precisely. One attempt was introduced by van Dick et al. (2004), who explained that OID might be multidimensional and includes cognitive, affective, evaluative, and behavioral aspects. They also argued that those dimensions could predict OID differently in organizational settings, similar to types of commitment. Given the definition of OID as an active, reflective, and congruent process between individuals and organizations with regard to purpose, value, and belief, the idea that OID involves multidimensional aspects is unsurprising because the given definition has a connotation of convergence between employees and organizations rather than unidimensional characteristics.

Despite such approaches being used to grasp perspectives on OID in organizations, subsequent research has not continued to use these approaches. Pratt (1998) emphasized the role of identification in organizations as fulfilling individuals' holistic needs because organizations provide meaningfulness. Thus, by understanding OID as a holistic process, one can argue that rather than dividing OID into categorical groups, it should be dealt with in terms of degrees of cognitive processes and attitudes.

To understand OID in terms of the dimensions of cognition and attitudes, Kelman's (1958) framework of "three processes of attitude change" can be adopted to assess the psychological dimensions of OID. In his seminal work regarding change processes, Kelman (1958) explained the phases of how employees form their attitudes within organizations. He explained that employees are influenced in three distinct ways: compliance, identification, and internalization.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) illustrated situations in which employees comply with organizations, focus on maintaining relationships as part of their identities and internalize congruence between themselves and organizations. Congruence also shows how those dimensions and phases have significantly related roles and how the degree of commitment to an organization impacts OCBs and employee turnover. Becker et al. (1995) explained that O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) study provides a basis for explaining differences in attributes and motivations for employees to engage with and commit to organizations. Adopting Kelman's (1958) framework to assess the engagement dimensions of OID can provide a better understanding of OID's characteristics.

OID includes different dimensions of thought and behavior changes, which comprise levels of OID. Ostensibly, an employee's actions might not reflect his or her thoughts or psychological attachment and, therefore, can be grouped as complied OID—that is, when employees are performing and showing OID. Compliance occurs when employees form their attitudes, not because of their acceptance of given situations but rather to obtain specific benefits that would not be given otherwise (Bagozzi & Lee, 2002; Kelman, 1958; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) or to avoid punishment. As Kelman explained, when individuals show compliance, it is not necessarily a means to believe or trust an organization but rather hope to achieve a favorable reaction, or it is the satisfaction derived from compliance due to the social effect of accepting influence. Thus, compliance can be directed through extrinsic motivation, such as through an organization exercising power to reward employees and create compliance. However, employees' psychological engagement is only driven as a matter of compliance, which means employees show certain actions toward OID, yet their engagement is driven by an extrinsic reward or to prevent a type of punishment due to not following, or at least showing, a particular dimension of OID. Thus, low levels of both thought and behavior changes can be understood as complied-OID.

The next level is when employees have positive attitudes toward organizations or their supervisors and when their values align with the organization's values, which creates commitment and can be categorized as identified-OID. Identification occurs when employees want themselves to become identical or similar to their supervisors, whom they think of as their role models. This is a deeper form of commitment and engagement than the previous phase (i.e., compliance) (Bagozzi & Lee, 2002; Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Kelman, 1958; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Based on Kelman's theory, the identification phase is when individuals aim to establish a desirable relationship. Identification does not rely on an organization's power to provide rewards or benefits; instead, it occurs when an organization fulfills an individual's need for affiliation. This implies that employees are willing to be part of an organization as affiliated members and that their values are similar to an organization's values. Unlike complied-OID employees, these employees are not showing a certain level of OID because of a forceful mechanism or an extrinsic motivation; rather, they understand and agree with the values of their relationship with an organization. Identified-OID involves moderate levels of OID's thought and behavior change dimensions.

The final degree or phase is internalized-OID, which occurs when employee values and the organization's values are not only similar but also congruent. Internalization is the most committed behavior because it happens when employees fully accept given situations and/or values, hence resulting in unison and congruence between an individual's and the organization's values (Bagozzi & Lee, 2002; Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Kelman, 1958; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). This means employees' and the organization's values become the same—that is, there is a strong sense of oneness. In this case, unlike in the case of compliance, an employee's public and personal values are not different. An employee sees, believes, and shares the same values as the

organization. In contrast to complied-OID, which is incited by extrinsic rewards or an expectation of benefits by agreeing with an organization's ideas, an employee with internalized OID has a strong sense of connectedness with an organization and has the highest engagement levels for both thought and behavior changes, and individuals believe the values of organizations are intrinsically rewarding to them. Using different dimensions to help understand the degrees of the OID process can provide a better sense of OID rather than merely describing or measuring OID as strong or weak.

These phases of understanding how OID is functioning in organizations may illustrate how individuals accept and approach OID in a qualitative manner. It could be influenced by different antecedents to evoke such reactions from employees. In proposing such a conceptual OID dimension, existing studies regarding OID have often emphasized how and what kind of consequences result due to OID or what influences OID in general to evoke such organizational phenomena. However, it is worthwhile to point out that a different set of OID can be triggered based on different sets of antecedents. It could have significance in analyzing how organizations can utilize different dimensions of OID when organizations need to manage employees, as Kelman (1958) argued that it is vital to meet at least one of the three phases in order to initiate an actual attitude change. Thus, the proposed dimensions aim to explain how to yield actual attitudinal changes/differences in organizations rather than merely measuring individuals' strong or weak OID to understand organizational dynamics.

5. Existing Measures of OID

After conducting a literature review, 14 measures of OID became apparent and there are various approaches exist to measure OID. Brown (1969) made perhaps the first attempt. Brown proposed measuring scales for the identification of attraction to an organization and the consistency of individual and organizational goals, loyalty, and references of self to organizational membership. After Brown (1969) initiated attempts in measuring the scope of identification, Hall et al. (1970) developed a 7-item measure adapted from the job involvement scale to measure identification with an emphasis on the notion of congruence between individual and organizational values, mainly focusing on employees' feelings of connectedness or preferences toward organizations.

Despite relatively less successful attempts to measure identification, Cheney (1983) proposed an organizational identification questionnaire (OIQ) to measure an employee's OID. As Patchen (1970) explained, identification consists of three components: similarity, membership, and loyalty. This became the basis of the conceptual framework for Cheney's development of the OIQ (Cheney, 1983). Following Patchen's (1970) definition of identification, Cheney (1983) composed the OIQ addressing the dimensions of OID based on Patchen's three components: (1) similarity of values between employees and organizations; (2) organizational membership with a sense of attachment; and (3) loyalty toward the organization and how employees support the organizational goals and beliefs. The OIQ consists of 25 questions that measure employees' feelings and senses of belonging, pride, and loyalty in terms of how supportive they are in achieving organizational goals, as well as how similar employees share similar perspectives with an organization.

Another measure currently the most commonly used in the OID research, is Mael and Ashforth's (1992) 6-item measure. This measure puts a strong emphasis on measuring the cognitive process of OID and argues that it is enhanced from previous measures that focus on the affective aspect of OID. The 6-item measurement aims to grasp the perception and cognition process of oneness between employees and organizations with organizational successes and failures. Mael and Ashforth provided widely used tools for the operation and conceptualization of OID. Various researchers have employed the knowledge obtained from their paper (Cole & Bruch, 2006; Rawski & Conroy, 2020; Riketta, 2005; van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000; van Knippenberg et al., 2002).

Moreover, two measures mainly focus on the graphic representation of how one feels and recognizes oneness between their values and organizational values (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Shamir & Kark, 2004). Although those measures are not widely used in the literature, they are considered some of the most recent measures of OID. Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) emphasized the need to develop a simple and parsimonious scale for measuring OID with a visual measurement tool. They argued that the visual method encourages respondents to express their feelings and that cognitive states are directly comparable to traditional written questionnaires. It is important to note that Shamir and Kark (2004) explained that although one of the main purposes of using a graphic scale is not to restrict respondents to the choice between discrete responses categories, analysis so far has not indicated that the graphic measures are better compared to the traditional measure of OID.

Furthermore, Smidts et al. (2001) introduced a new approach. They argued that, although some literature has recognized that emotional processes are needed for OID to occur, Mael and Ashforth's (1992) measure excluded the emotional aspect of OID. Thus, Smidts et al. (2001) developed a measure that includes the emotional perspective when measuring OID.

Also, van Dick et al. (2004) have developed an OID measure to capture various dimensions of OID, such as cognitive identification, affective identification, evaluative components, and behavioral identification. This measure is unique in its focus on identification — that is, research has shown that employees' identification with their careers, work units, organizations, or occupational groups may differ depending on their foci.

Additionally, Edwards and Peccei (2007) introduced a measure of six items for OID with new subcomponents of OID: self-categorization and labeling, sharing organizational goals and values, and a sense of attachment, belonging, and membership to the organization. Although these subcomponents of OID are not new concepts and considering that existing measures of OID did

not highlight the dimensions that excluded Cheney's measure, it can bring new perspectives in measuring OID. However, it is important to note that although confirmatory factor analyses prove there is multidimensionality of OID, it is more sensible to combine three subcomponents into a single overall scale of OID because it is highly interrelated.

In addition to well-known measures of OID, additional OID measures have also been introduced via empirical research. Some of the measures are adopted from other construct and tailored to suit the needs for empirical testing for OID (e.g., Leach et al.'s (2007) measure), and some of them are variations from well-known OID measures such as Bartels et al. (2007). In the process of reviewing journals, there are two additional measures have been used; however, they are commitment scales, so they are excluded from this study. Sung et al. (2017) used Mael and Tetrick's (1992) measure to evaluate OID. However, the measure is similar to Mael and Ashforth's (1992) OID measure. It is worth noting that it was developed to measure identification with a psychological group scale, not OID. Also, Zhu et al. (2017) adopted Bartels et al.'s (2007) OID measure, which consists of 11 items, by combining the six items of Mael and Ashforth's (1992) and five items of Smidts et al.'s (2004) measure. Regarding the second measure, Greco and Kraimer (2020) introduced that of Hekman et al. (2009); however, when examined, it merely applies the five items of Mael and Ashforth's (1992) measure. Similarly, when May et al. (2015) indicated they adopted Kim et al.'s items (2010), they also modified the measure to take three items from Mael and Ashforth. Boivie et al.'s (2011) 9-item measure is a combination between Mael and Ashforth and Bergami and Bagozzi's measures and one additional item; after being introduced in Boivie et al.'s (2011) study, McDonald et al. (2018) later used it in their study measuring OID. Also, Leavitt et al.'s (2011) study indicated that when measuring OID in their study, they adopted O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) measure, even though O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) measure was adopted from Hall et al.'s (1970) OID measure; however, the scale was developed to measure commitment and is not most optimal to understanding OID.

5.1 Review of Existing Research on OID

This paper examines selected journals from the last ten years (e.g., *Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, and *Group & Organization Management*) in the field of organizational behavior to review which measures are being used to measure OID and how those measures are being utilized, as well as what alternative approaches are being used in grasping the understanding of OID if those measures are not being used. A total of 85 articles from the literature have empirically measured OID. Several articles dealing with OID in experimental settings and qualitative approaches were excluded from the review. Mael and Ashforth's (1992) measure was used most in the field of research, and a review indicated that some measures vary from the original ones and that some of the mixed and adapted scales have also been used. In the previous research has explained two existing OID measures that are most widely used and discussed: Cheney (1983) and Mael and Ashforth (1992). After reviewing journal articles from the last ten years, it is evident that Mael and Ashforth's (1992) measure is the most widely utilized in measuring OID.

5.2 Issues of OID Measures

5.2.1 Issues Already Raised in Existing Literature

Despite continuous efforts to measure OID, issues have been raised regarding the measures. When first proposed by Brown (1969), the scale was criticized for not measuring the concept properly because it lacked an explanation between concepts and operations (Edwards, 2005). Similar issues were raised for the previous approaches of measuring identification developed by Hall et al. (1970). Critics argued that, although the operational definition might have seemed proper because it emphasized the notion of congruence between individual and organizational values, the 7-item measure of Hall et al. (1970) did not state a clear reference to its operational definition of identification; rather, it broadly referred to feelings of connectedness or preferences. Thus, it had a weakness of contamination during the measuring processes (Edwards, 2005).

When Cheney developed OIQ, similar criticisms were raised, claiming that the 25 items of Cheney's (1983) measure lack analysis of the proclaimed dimensions and focus more on the psychological ideas than the cognitive processes of OID. Similarly, when Mael and Ashforth (1992) developed a 6-item measure, it was criticized for focusing too much on the public expression of OID instead of measuring the cognitive processes of employees' OID. Concerns regarding graphic representation were also raised, in that Bergami and Bagozzi's (2000) visual measure had a high risk of misinterpretation, even though it could assess the cognitive components of OID. However, Edwards (2005) also raised a concern that it could ultimately lead to assumptions among individual participants as to which researchers intended to measure OID.

Later, Shmir and Kark's (2004) measure had no indication of improved operation compared to the traditional verbal measures, and they argued that their visual measures are not better than those of the verbal scale. Relatively recent measures have received similar criticisms from previous measures—for example, Smidts et al.'s (2001) measure tends to be based on previous measures, and Edward and Peccei's (2007) measure is not differentiated from OC.

There has been criticism concerning direct measures to ask about OID and to answer on a Likert scale because the measurement items are not explicitly described or lack detailed statements (Edwards, 2005; Edwards & Peccei, 2007). Therefore, commensurate dimensions will not be included in this measure because they have not been obtained with accurate information (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996). If that is the case, the addition of open-ended questions, which can be in-depth and relate to the

behavioral OID aspects by using action verbs or situational descriptions, can supplement the survey questionnaires that are being scrutinized. For example, in Myers et al.'s (2016) research examining OID prediction, the researchers adopted Mael and Ashforth's (1992) 6-item scale and added qualitative measures to include open-ended responses to describe situations and events that either strengthened or lessened OID. However, one could argue that Mael and Ashforth's (1992) 6-item measure lacks balance in grasping accurate OID in organizations, including qualitative measures with a 6-item scale that can strengthen the process of data collection and provide a sound understanding of OID.

5.2.2 Issues Raised in This Study

With the aforementioned three dimensions of OID that reflect changes in employees' thoughts and behaviors regarding OID, it would be necessary to review the OID measures to ensure whether they are balanced on both sides: thought change and behavior change. Each item of the OID measures is analyzed and categorized into three groups: thought change, behavior change, and change that exhibits both.

As explained in the previous section, there have been various attempts to obtain a better understanding of OID by dividing it into different dimensions. van Dick et al. (2004) divided it into four aspects (i.e., cognitive, affective, evaluative, and behavioral aspects), and Johnson et al. (2012) divided it into two types (i.e., affective and cognitive). They argued that each dimension may be differently impacted by or differently impact consequences in organizations — that is, different antecedents to each dimension exist, and each dimension influences different outcomes.

With a heavy emphasis on reviewing OID in the sub-dimensional aspect, according to Henry et al.'s (1999) study, when dividing group identification into three groups (i.e., affective, cognitive, and behavioral), correlations between affective and conative sources have high overlap, and only the behavioral source has been distinct from other subscales; thus, it is difficult to maintain differentiation between affective and cognitive dimensions separately. Following this logic, this study divides each item of the OID measures into three types: thought change, behavior change, or both.

Reviewing each of Cheney's 25 OIQ questions concerning participants and OID processes, it is evident that questions are focused on a participant's thought process or willingness to take actions based on a statement. For example, "I feel that my organization cares about me" is categorized as a thought change, whereas "I tell others about projects that my organization is working on" is categorized as a behavior change. When a questioning statement describes action verbs, the item is considered a behavior; when it describes a thought process, it is categorized as a thought change. Furthermore, when a statement describes thought and action, it is categorized as both. For example, "I would describe [the organization] as a large 'family' in which most members feel a sense of belonging" is considered both.

Similar processes have been applied to 14 measures which are being used in empirical research. For example, in the case of Brown's (1969) measure, "How do you feel when you hear (or read about) someone..." is considered a thought change, whereas "... how likely would you be to choose [name of organization] as a place to work?" is categorized as both. However, in the case of Hall et al.'s (1970) measure, all 4-item sentences begin with "the feeling..."; thus, every item of Hall et al.'s (1970) measure is considered a thought change.

Furthermore, in the case of Mael and Ashforth's (1992) 6-item measure, "I am very interested ..." is considered a thought change, whereas "When I talk about this organization, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'" is categorized a behavior change. Moreover, in the case of Smidts et al.'s (2001) 5-item measure, "I feel strong ties with [the organization]" is considered a thought change, whereas "I experience a strong sense of belonging to [the organization]" is considered both. Additionally, in the case of van Dick et al.'s (2004) 7-item measure, "I think reluctantly of my career/team/school/occupation" is considered a thought change, whereas, "I like to work for my career, respectively, for team/school/occupation" is considered a behavior change. Furthermore, in the case of Edwards and Peccei's (2007) 6-item measure, "I feel strong ties with the NHS" is considered a thought change, whereas "my employment in the NHS is a big part of who I am" is considered both.

Brown's (1969) measure indicated that only one item is reflected as both, whereas three other items are considered thought change. Meanwhile, Hall et al.'s (1970) measure showed all four items are regarded as thought change. Cheney's (1983) measure indicated that three items are considered behavior changes, 18 items are considered thought changes, and four items are considered both. In comparison, five of the six items of Mael and Ashforth's (1992) measure reflect thought change, and only one item reflects a behavior change. Mael and Tetrick's (1992) measure, which is similar to Mael and Ashforth's (1992) indicates seven thought change and three behavior changes. Bergami and Bagozzi's (2000) measure indicates that both of two items are solely dedicated to measure thought change. Interestingly, Smidts et al.'s (2001) 5-item measure indicated three items considered as thought changes and two items considered as both. van Dick et al.'s (2004) measure indicated four items considered as thought changes, one item considered as behavior change, and two items considered as both. Edwards and Peccei's (2007) 6-item measure indicated four items considered as thought change and two items considered as both. Additionally, Leach et al.'s (2008) in-group measure illustrates all of 12 items to be reflecting thought change; whereas Hekman et al.'s (2009) measure shows four items to be thought change and one item are considered as both. Similarly, Kim et al.'s (2010) measure shows two items as thought change and one item as both. Lastly, Boivie et al.'s (2011) measure indicates eight items as thought change, and one item is considered as both thought and behavior changes.

By definition, OID processes are cognitive and emotional (Bednar et al., 2020; Dutton et al., 1994; Edwards, 2005; Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Johnson et al., 2012), meaning that behavioral aspects might not be required in their measures. However, it is also vital to point out that if employees are only attached psychologically — and that no type of action reflects those thoughts — no significant meaning is created. As Levitt (2002) explained, “ideas are useless unless used,” and creativity is needed for generating ideas; however, unless those ideas are implemented through action, they are insignificant. Similar concepts can be applied in OID. It is worthwhile to note that “behaviors” do not refer to belligerent attitudes; rather, they refer to actions that are reflected by psychologically engaged attitudes. It is important to argue that OID is considered a link between employees and employing organizations, as it requires more than employees’ mere thoughts and psychological engagement. In addition, OID can spur different dynamics in an organization.

The initial purpose of reviewing existing measures was to determine which measure was well balanced and more appropriate. However, both measures heavily focus on thought change rather than how those thought changes reflect an employee’s behavior changes. Hence, these two measures, which are the most commonly used in OID research, strongly emphasize the thought change process. Although OID refers to the cognitive and emotional processes of employees’ values and their congruence with and reflection of organizations, the behavioral aspect issues must be considered to grasp the idea more accurately.

Current analysis has indicated that both measures, which are widely used by scholars, are not adequately balanced between the thought and behavioral aspects of an employee’s OID. Furthermore, this evokes the question of whether measurement items should be revised to ensure an ultimate balance or if it would be better to add an additional measurement perspective, such as interviews or open-ended questions, to supplement existing measurement tools. A review of empirical studies has indicated there are six studies involving qualitative (interviews, archival data, and experiments) approaches in measuring OID. In reviewing studies regarding OID, this study was able to identify the researchers who measured OID by interviewing participants. Some of the interviews are indicated as semi-structured, and some of them are devoid of any indication. Although it can be more beneficial to fully understand individuals’ OID without a rigid rubric/guideline, it can also be skewed during measurement or imbalanced.

Although researchers have widely adopted and used the two aforementioned measurements, and other researchers have developed new measures to improve the accuracy of measuring OID, they have not reached an agreement about the concept of OID and its measurement. Debates are still ongoing as to whether OID measurement attains and analyzes appropriate perspectives (Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Edwards, 2005; van Dick, 2001). This emphasizes the importance of appropriately measuring and analyzing OID in empirical research settings. However, no clear directions exist for OID measurement, and analyses have been combined to provide unified directions in analyzing OID measurement.

By raising the abovementioned issues regarding existing measures, the next section will explain how to measure OID properly to overcome those issues. This will be followed by a section discussing how to analyze the result of OID measures and proposing an optimal path for appropriate analysis by examining level issues and issues of direct and indirect measurements.

6. Proper Measurement and Analysis of OID

6.1 What and How to Measure in OID Measurement

Among the three dimensions of OID—complied-, identified-, and internalized-OID, an internalized-OID is truly the most desirable OID through which peak satisfaction and performance can be achieved. Thus, a good measurement tool should differentiate the extent to which thought and behavior changes have occurred.

One of the questions to examine, in terms of an OID measure and its meaning, is how an OID measurement captures the mechanism of how employees think and act—the importance of “talking the talk and walking the walk” must be recognized. As OID emphasizes an employee’s oneness and belongingness to organizational identity, it is vital to review how measurement items capture holistic dimensions and degrees regarding its process. How well do employees psychologically consider and accept what their thought processes reflect in their actions? Thus, examining dimensions of OID measures, whether they reflect psychological changes or behaviors accordingly, is vital to fully understand the aspects and degrees of OID.

It is necessary to conduct in-depth examinations to understand OID better. Though agreement exists on OID and its process, in terms of how individual employees recognize, view, and congruently accept their values and goals and their organizational values, the concept should be questioned and analyzed further to capture accurate OID measures fully. To obtain an accurate measure of OID and its processes, it is essential to not only understand the levels of employees’ psychological engagement with their organizational values for purposes of OID processes but also to capture whether the employees’ cognitive processes are conveyed in their behaviors. It may also be interesting to see how employee buy-in levels make a difference in organizational outcomes — whether employees are acting because they need to, want to, or believe they have different impacts in organizational settings. That is, differences in the levels of OID and organizational outcomes can be predicted.

By reviewing existing measures of OID and addressing potential issues of the measures, this study returns to the fundamental question of how to measure OID properly, as the measures initially intended.

As mentioned, some researchers have engaged in different methods to measure OID. Some researchers have engaged two OID measures to measure OID. When introducing new measures, it was also explained that those newly introduced measures are

not developed from scratch; rather, those measures are combining and adjusting existing measures to better suit empirical settings. Given that relatively newly developed and/or introduced OID measures are combinations of existing measures, the current measures may be stable and achieve consensus among researchers, in terms of capturing what researchers intended to capture; this may be comforting to note. However, it is also necessary to point out that the remaining concerns must be addressed.

Empirical studies revealed that OID measures are being used to measure perceived organizational prestige, team identification, shared team identification, identification with coworkers in a group, etc. When reading those studies, it is easy to understand the sense that why researchers decided to use an OID measure to measure certain constructs; however, it is meaningful to consider that, as separate and/or independent measures have been developed, it may not be necessary to use OID measures to measure other constructs. More simply, is it appropriate to use an OC measurement to measure OID and use an OID measure to measure other constructs?

Although utilizing multiple measures may strengthen a given research's processes, it does not improve the fundamental basis. For example, Boivie et al.'s (2011) measure is the sum of measures from Mael and Ashforth (1992) and Bergami and Bagozzi (2002) with one additional item, but it still lacks the capacity to measure behavior change. Thus, it is vital to revisit the existing measures to identify potential improvements for multiple measures.

Furthermore, items of both Brown (1969) and Hall et al.'s (1970) measures are heavily focused on the feeling aspect of OID. Although these measures were developed to understand how individual employees feel attached to affiliated organizations, it does not include perspectives of cognitive processes. Mael and Ashforth's (1992) measure was further developed from Cheney's measure by emphasizing the cognitive processes of OID rather than the affective perspective. However, each item — excluding the third statement — failed to adopt action verbs. Measures indicate the affective and cognitive aspect at maximum, yet it does not much touch upon their actions or behaviors. Similarly, Mael and Tetrick's (1992) measure also focused more on feelings; however, they engaged one more verb than Mael and Ashforth's (1992), which is the act.

Bergami and Bagozzi's (2000), the measure is solely focused on thought process; whereas, a measure of Smidts et al. (2001) presented a relatively balanced measure, compared to that of Cheney (1983) and Mael and Ashforth (1992), because it adopted action verbs and did not focus merely on the affective or feeling aspects when measuring OID. However, the items still place a strong emphasis on the feelings of individual employees.

Further, the analysis of van Dick et al.'s (2004) illustrated a relatively balanced measure, and it indicated that differential correlations between foci and dimensions of identification were supported. However, as foci and dimensions were divided to suit certain research frameworks, this measure was not popularly adopted by other researchers; it was used mostly by van Dick's (2004) studies. Bartel et al.'s (2007) measure aims to have more balance by asking, "I experience a strong sense..." however, those items are not fully reflecting both aspects.

Edwards and Peccei's (2007) measure shows a relatively good balance between thought and behavior changes. Although Edwards and Peccei (2007) put strong efforts toward developing new measures and covering each subcomponent of OID, statements of each item may address issues in a broad sense, such as "what the [organization] stands for is important to me" and "my membership of the [organization] is important to me." Although those statements refer to the value of congruence and a sense of belonging to an organization, statements that are too broad or general can mislead respondents. Although Boivie et al.'s (2011) measure ties to have more optimal balance by combining existing two measures, it still fails to understand the behavioral aspect of OID fully.

A review of the strengths and weaknesses of existing measures suggest that two points on how to measure OID accurately must be highlighted: (1) the use of focused and specific statements on items of the measure and (2) the use of active or engaging verbs on each item of the measure.

When each item of the OID measures and knowing what those items are intended to measure, such as a sense of belonging, identity, or value congruence, the measure made enough sense to allow a response. However, when measuring the OID of employees in organizations, it is unfair to expect all participants to know OID beforehand and answer accordingly. The statement "my membership of the [organization] is important to me" is intended to measure a sense of belonging; however, when the statement is written broadly, without a specific context, respondents may be misled and wrongly emphasize issues of employment or a general sense of belonging, rather than specific or affiliated organizations. Another example from Mael and Ashforth (1992) is "I am very interested in what others think about [organization]," because it did not necessarily convey congruence between individual employees and the organization. Rather, it may be viewed in terms of how individual employees care about the public images or reputations of organizations. The caring aspects still may be considered as employees' caring about affiliated organizations; however, it may be viewed as reputation management. A review of items of the measures makes it evident that specific and focused statements of measures are needed to put researchers and participants on the same page for measuring OID.

Although van Dick et al.'s (2004) measure shows rigid categorical divisions of foci and dimensions of OID, as items of measure are developed with careful calibrations based on affective, cognitive, and behavioral aspects of identification, it may hinder other researchers from adopting this measure, because it may require a certain setting to utilize the measure. Thus, it is important to note that measures must use focused and specific statements on items, and it should be possible to use the measure without issues of generalizability.

Another point relates to using appropriate words or verbs when developing OID measures. As explained, OID is defined as the cognitive and emotional processes engaged when employees perceive oneness with organizations, emphasizing the congruence of organizational and personal values.

Mael and Ashforth (1992) and Smidt et al. (2001) argued the importance of measuring emotional aspects. Mael and Ashforth (1992) argued that their measure captured the perception and cognition processes of oneness between employees and organizations with organizational successes and failures, and Smidt et al. (2001) argued that a measure of emotional aspects is needed for the emotional processes of OID. Moreover, a debate is ongoing over how to appropriately distinguish between affective and cognitive states when measuring OID (Johnson et al., 2012). However, it is important to note that cognition is not limited to feeling or thinking. As the definition of cognition is “of, relating to, being, or involving conscious intellectual activity,” it should not be limited to the feelings of individuals; rather, it must include verbs that trigger feelings and behaviors. However, existing measures often use verbs of “feeling” and “being” and seldom use verbs that express behavior, such as “experience,” “share,” or “talk.” It may seem less critical because, arguably, the intended meaning can be well conveyed notwithstanding the choice of verb. However, it is essential to ensure that the intended meaning includes those behavioral aspects of OID. That is, OID does not only count how individual employees feel or think but also how those employees behave, act, or show willingness. To capture the balanced perspectives of OID from employees, items of measures must engage behavioral statements in questionnaires. Thus, it seems essential to have both in-depth (three dimensions of OID; complied-, identified-, and internalized-OID) and categorization of item analysis of OID measurement, so that it is utilized most effectively to understand OID in organizations.

6.2 Issues and Recommendations in the Analysis of OID

There are two issues of analysis that need to be addressed: direct and indirect measurement and the internal dynamics of OID.

P-O fit, a construct similar to OID, deals with issues of direct and indirect measurement. As there are conceptual similarities, the same analysis approach could be applied to OID analysis. Thus, this paper seeks to review the direct and indirect measurement issues and provide recommendations for the analysis of OID measurement. In a P-O fit study, Kristof (1996) explained two approaches in assessing P-O fit — adopting direct measure, which considers the person and organization as one construct that has the same content dimension, and adopting indirect measure by separately and differently measuring the person and organizations and analyzing those two distinct measures to understand P-O fit. She further explained that direct measures are appropriate when the measuring construct has subjective or perceived values. This means, for example, that a good relationship exists when it is perceived to exist, regardless of other conditions or factors. Hence, she argues that direct measures are appropriate when a construct intends to measure subjective or perceived values. Direct measures are used when assessing a question by directly asking employees about their thoughts and opinions. In her research, Kristof (1996) used Posner et al.’s (1985) findings that, when it comes to measuring value congruence, a direct measure can be used by asking managers how compatible their values are with their affiliated organizations and how often managers need to compromise personal values to meet organizational needs. There are empirical studies indicating that since fit is the concept of perception that direct measures are more relevant than indirect measures. However, it is worth considering how to assess OID directly and indirectly to fully understand OID. To answer that question, it is necessary to revisit the arguments on direct and indirect measurements. As argued, direct measurement is more suitable for measuring subjective or perceived values. As OID is a cognition process of oneness between employees and affiliated organizations, the direct measure is arguably appropriate for measuring OID. However, measuring OID indirectly is also needed, as OID, a cognition process, does not bear on subjective opinions only; instead, it requires multidimensional approaches to obtain cognitive processes of OID more than feelings of individuals.

Since OID is focused on individuals’ oneness and belongingness to affiliated organizations, it portrays differences compared to P-O fit and its methodology of indirect assessment. However, the concept of indirect measure can be adopted. For example, in this study, we emphasized the importance of in-depth and internalized identification, rather than superficial or compliance-level identification; the importance of full engagement and internalization when forming OID and of how OID changes individuals’ attitudes, performance, and organizational dynamics.

Since the indirect measure of a P-O fit is being assessed by separately measuring the person and organization, the indirect measure of OID can be analyzed by measuring individual employees and their managers or colleagues separately as distinct constructs. As we mentioned in relation to different dimensions of thought and behavioral changes, it may be essential to compare how individuals consider their level of OID and how others in that organization view or experience those levels of OID. In other words, one may consider him or herself to have strong OID yet portray a low level of OID in their behavior in organizations. If that is the case, the links between OID and organizational performance cannot be validated. On the contrary, it may also be possible for one not to recognize his or her level of OID yet to have exerted strong OID behavior in the workplace. We are not arguing that direct measures and perceptions are less important; however, it may be worthwhile to compare how individuals feel and think and how those actions are being actualized and exercised; the gap between perception and actualization may exist or may be congruent. Having components of indirect measures of OID is not only more substantial for analyzing OID but also prevents issues of common method bias by having two different sources of data. When data points become diverse, the measurement calculation can be adopted from the P-O fit and its frameworks from indirect and direct calculations.

The second issue of OID analysis is in considering the dynamics of organizations. Forming OID requires changes in thought and behavior that emphasize value congruence between employees and organizations. As aforementioned, how individual employees independently decide based on belief to build their thoughts and behaviors is critical to forming OID. Given that organizations cannot force OID upon employees, relational factors may be dynamic within organizations. These relational factors are worth examining because more organizations need employees to work interdependently, which requires more team processes for higher and better effectiveness. For example, although existing OID measures do not address questions regarding organizational climate, perhaps these factors may influence the forming of OID in the sense that if employees have conflicts among team members or managers, these conflicts might influence the forming of OID. Or, similar to the current environment, where people need to take serious social distancing measures, organizations that require telecommuting or physical isolation may also impact the forming of OID. Bartel et al. (2012) illustrate the negative impact of a remote work environment on OID. We do not argue in this study that environments are greatly impacting or changing OID but that timeframe or organizational climate may play a role in forming OID, and existing OID measures do not address these supplemental perspectives. To understand the internal dynamics of OID, as well as its meaning and directions, these relational factors are critical aspects that explain integrated organizational phenomena.

Based on the existing conditions, four recommendations may be adopted in a relatively uncomplicated manner. One recommendation is to adopt different existing measures to balance out the weaknesses of the measures and maximize their synergy.

As explained, existing measures for OID have a different emphasis. Some measures emphasize affective and emotional perspectives (Smidts et al., 2001), whereas other measures aim to capture holistic perspectives (Edward & Peccei, 2007; Smidts et al., 2001; van Dick et al., 2004). Mael and Ashforth's measure, the most widely used, focused on measuring cognitive perspectives excluding emotions. This focus returns to the fundamental question of which existing measures most fulfill the definition of OID, and considering that the existing OID has a different emphasis, it is difficult to recommend a single measure as a panacea for all. Some published research has adopted two existing measures of OID. For example, Bartels et al. (2007) utilized both Mael and Ashforth's (1992) and Smidts et al.'s (2001) measures, while Boivie et al. (2011) adopted measures from Mael and Ashforth (1992) and Bergami and Bagozzi (2000). Adopting two measures that emphasize different perspectives can strengthen and enrich how OID is measured and captured in a research setting.

Another option is to include subjective responses from employees and use existing measures of OID. Some researchers have included open-ended questions to supplement existing OID measures by asking about specific incidents or searching for subsurface information from individual employees, rather than merely measuring responses of given statements to the existing measures (Meyers et al., 2016). Adding subjective and in-depth responses from employees (answers to open-ended questions) can strengthen OID measurement. Empirical studies show that there are certain cases in which researchers conduct qualitative approaches when measuring OID. Those approaches could create synergy when conducted with existing OID measures.

Similarly, as mentioned in an earlier section, analyzing different data could also be an option for attaining an accurate read of employees' OID by measuring individual employees for their cognitive understanding of OID and their managers or colleagues for exerting the attitudes and behaviors of OID. As argued, direct measurement is more suitable for measuring subjective or perceived values. As OID is a cognition process of oneness between employees and affiliated organizations, the direct measure is arguably appropriate for measuring OID. However, it is also necessary to indirectly measure OID because OID, a cognition process, does not involve subjective opinions; instead, multidimensional approaches are required for obtaining OI's cognitive processes, which is more than is required to obtain the feelings of individuals. Having components of indirect measurement of OID not only makes data collection and analysis more substantial but also prevents issues of common method bias with two different sources for data. Though items for indirect measurement need to be developed, consideration of measuring the attitudes and behaviors of OID could broaden the understanding of OID and its actualization in organizations.

The fourth recommendation is to modify existing measures. Although such measures must be explored further before development, potential modifications of existing measures can also be considered, ranging from "this school's successes are my successes" to "when I work for [organization], I consider the successes as being not just for myself but for the organization's success." Also, rather than asking participants about "feelings," it is perhaps more appropriate to incorporate words like "experiences," "learned," and "argue" so that employees are not merely feeling or thinking but are engaging in some level of action or behavior.

Having supplementary measures and responses compensates for the weaknesses and issues of existing measures; however, it raises another question. Is the inclusion of supplementary questions enough to strengthen existing measures and overcome the primary issues that have been raised? Importantly, neither adopting two existing OID measures nor merely adding open-ended questions to research will resolve the fundamental issues. Thus, it seems necessary to engage further by using cognitive- and behavioral-driven vocabulary in the statements of OID measures and by developing questionnaires to address the holistic perspectives of the cognitive processes of OID, which not only include feelings but also consider employees' behavioral and evaluative perspectives on OID, to capture reactions to OID, as well as engagement in and proactive insights about OID.

The approaches to developing OID measurements should embrace steps beyond mere value congruence between an individual and an organization. A measurement of OID seeks a general sense of attachment, relatedness, and engagement by asking participants how they feel about working at organizations, how much it means to them, and how they feel about the opinions of others regarding their organizations (Demir, 2015). Despite the importance of the construct, the methodology to examine OID has yet to be researched and requires an in-depth review of development and considerations. Nevertheless, a deeper investigation into the methodology of measurement analysis is needed.

7. Conclusion

This review aims to organize similar constructs to better understand OID and to review existing OID measures, along with the current research stream and a discussion of how OID is being measured in the field of organizational behavior. Previous studies have taken action by combining existing OID measures to obtain accurate OID measures in empirical testing to strengthen the measure and eliminate the measure's weakness; however, without a single solidified measure or definition, it is impossible to eliminate all confusion in measuring and understanding OID. This study provides levels of OID and categorizing items of OID measures to grasp better the formation of a universal operating definition of OID, and it also suggests new analysis perspectives by adopting methodology from a similar construct, P-O fit and its direct and indirect measures. These new perspectives may advance the discourse on understanding OID better.

References

- Afsar, B., & Badir, Y. (2017). Workplace spirituality, perceived organizational support and innovative work behavior. *Journal of Workplace Learning, 29*(2), 95-109.
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1996) Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 49*(3), 252-276.
- Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(1), 20-39.
- Ashforth, B. E., Harrison, S. H., & Corley, K. G. (2008). Identification in organizations: An examination of four fundamental questions. *Journal of Management, 34*(3), 325-374.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Lee, K. H. (2002). Multiple routes for social influence: The role of compliance, internalization, and social identity. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 65*(3), 226-247.
- Bakker, A. B., Albrecht, S. L., & Leiter, M. P. (2011). Work engagement: Further reflections on the state of play. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 20*(1), 74-88.
- Bartel, C. A., Wrzesniewski, A., & Wiesenfeld, B. M. (2012). Knowing where you stand: Physical isolation, perceived respect, and organizational identification among virtual employees. *Organization Science, 23*(3), 743-757.
- Bartels, J., Pruyn, A., De Jong, M., & Joustra, I. (2007). Multiple organizational identification levels and the impact of perceived external prestige and communication climate. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 28*(2), 173-190.
- Bednar, J. S., Galvin, B. M., Ashforth, B. E., & Hafermalz, E. (2020). Putting identification in motion: A dynamic view of organizational identification. *Organization Science, 31*(1), 200-222.
- Bergami, M., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2000). Self-categorization, affective commitment and group self-esteem as distinct aspects of social identity in the organization. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 39*(4), 555-577.
- Boivie, S., Lange, D., McDonald, M. L., & Westphal, J. D. (2011). Me or we: The effects of CEO organizational identification on agency costs. *Academy of Management Journal, 54*(3), 551-576.
- Brown, M. E. (1969). Identification and some conditions of organizational involvement. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 14*(3), 346-355.

- Cheney, G. (1983). On the various and changing meanings of organizational membership: A field study of organizational identification. *Communications Monographs*, 50(4), 342-362.
- Cole, M. S., & Bruch, H. (2006). Organizational identity strength, identification, and commitment and their relationships to turnover intention: Does organizational hierarchy matter?. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27(5), 585-605.
- Demir, K. (2015). Teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational identification in public and private preschools. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 174: 1176-1182.
- Dutton, J. E., Dukerich, J. M., & Harquail, C. V. (1994). Organizational images and member identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 39, 239-263.
- Edwards, M. R. (2005). Organizational identification: A conceptual and operational review. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 7(4), 207-230.
- Edwards, M. R., & Peccei, R. (2007). Organizational identification: Development and testing of a conceptually grounded measure. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 16(1), 25-57.
- Ellemers, N., Kortekaas, P., & Ouwerkerk, J. W. (1999). Self-categorisation, commitment to the group and group self-esteem as related but distinct aspects of social identity. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 29, 371-389.
- Elsbach, K. D. (1999). An expanded model of organizational identification. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 21, 163-200.
- Gautam, T., van Dick, R., & Wagner, U. (2004). Organizational identification and organizational commitment: Distinct aspects of two related concepts. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 7(3), 301-315.
- Greco, L. M., & Kraimer, M. L. (2020). Goal-setting in the career management process: An identity theory perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 105(1), 40-57.
- Greguras, G. J., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2009). Different fits satisfy different needs: Linking person-environment fit to employee commitment and performance using self-determination theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(2), 465-477.
- Hall, D. T., Schneider, B., & Nygren, H. T. (1970). Personal factors in organizational identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15(2), 176-190.
- He, H., & Brown, A. D. (2013). Organizational identity and organizational identification: A review of the literature and suggestions for future research. *Group & Organization Management*, 38(1), 3-35.
- Hekman, D. R., Steensma, H. K., Bigley, G. A., & Hereford, J. F. (2009). Effects of organizational and professional identification on the relationship between administrators' social influence and professional employees' adoption of new work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(5), 1325-1335.
- Henry, K. B., Arrow, H., & Carini, B. (1999). A tripartite model of group identification: Theory and measurement. *Small Group Research*, 30(5), 558-581.
- Johnson, M. D., Morgeson, F. P., & Hekman, D. R. (2012). Cognitive and affective identification: Exploring the links between different forms of social identification and personality with work attitudes and behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33(8), 1142-1167.
- Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4), 692-724.
- Karanika-Murray, M., Duncan, N., Pontes, H. M., & Griffiths, M. D. (2015). Organizational identification, work engagement, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 30(8), 1019-1033.

- Kelman, H. C. (1958). Compliance, identification, and internalization three processes of attitude change. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 2(1), 51-60.
- Kim, H. R., Lee, M., Lee, H. T., & Kim, N. M. (2010). Corporate social responsibility and employee–company identification. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 95(4), 557-569.
- Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel psychology*, 49(1), 1-49.
- Leach, C. W., Van Zomeren, M., Zebel, S., Vliek, M. L., Pennekamp, S. F., Doosje, B., & Spears, R. (2008). Group-level self-definition and self-investment: A hierarchical (multicomponent) model of in-group identification. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 95(1), 144-165.
- Leavitt, K., Fong, C. T., & Greenwald, A. G. (2011). Asking about well-being gets you half an answer: Intra-individual processes of implicit and explicit job attitudes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(4), 672–687.
- Lee, E. S., Park, T. Y., & Koo, B. (2015). Identifying organizational identification as a basis for attitudes and behaviors: A meta-analytic review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 141(5), 1049-1080.
- Mael, F. A., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13(2), 103-123.
- Mael, F. A., & Ashforth, B. E. (1995). Loyal from day one: Biodata, organizational identification, and turnover among newcomers. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(2), 309-333.
- Mael, F. A., & Tetrick, L. E. (1992). Identifying organizational identification. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 52(4), 813-824.
- May, D. R., Chang, Y. K., & Shao, R. (2015). Does Ethical Membership Matter? Moral Identification and Its Organizational Implications. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(3), 681–694.
- McDonald, M. L., Keeves, G. D., & Westphal, J. D. (2018). One step forward, one step back: white male top manager organizational identification and helping behavior toward other executives following the appointment of a female or racial minority CEO. *Academy of Management Journal*, 61(2), 405–439.
- Myers, K. K., Davis, C. W., Schreuder, E. R., & Seibold, D. R. (2016). Organizational identification: A mixed methods study exploring students’ relationship with their university. *Communication Quarterly*, 64(2), 210-231.
- O’Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 492-499.
- Patchen, M. (1970). Participation, achievement, and involvement on the job. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Piasentin, K. A., & Chapman, D. S. (2006). Subjective person–organization fit: Bridging the gap between conceptualization and measurement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(2), 202-221.
- Posner, B. Z., Kouzes, J. M., & Schmidt, W. H. (1985). Shared values make a difference: An empirical test of corporate culture. *Human Resource Management*, 24(3), 293-309.
- Pratt, M. G. (1998). To be or not to be: Central questions in organizational identification. In D. A. Whetten & P. C. Godfrey (Eds.), *Foundations for organizational science. Identity in organizations: Building theory through conversations* (pp. 171-207). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Pratt, M. G. (2001). Social identity dynamics in modern organizations: An organizational psychology/ organizational behavior perspective. In M. A. Hogg & D. J. Terry (Eds.) *Social Identity Processes in Organizational Contexts* (pp. 13-30). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.
- Rawski, S. L., & Conroy, S. A. (2020). Beyond demographic identities and motivation to learn: The effect of organizational identification on diversity training outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 41*(5), 461-478.
- Reade, C. (2001). Antecedents of organizational identification in multinational corporations: Fostering psychological attachment to the local subsidiary and the global organization. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 12*(8), 1269-1291.
- Riketta, M. (2005). Organizational identification: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational behavior, 66*(2), 358-384.
- Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., González-Romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 3*(1), 71-92.
- Shamir, B., & Kark, R. (2004). A single-item graphic scale for the measurement of organizational identification. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 77*(1), 115-123.
- Smidts, A., Pruyn, A. T. H., & van Riel, C. B. M. (2001). The impact of employee communication and perceived external prestige on organizational identification. *Academy of Management Journal, 49*(5), 1051-1062.
- Sultanova, A. V., & Chechina, O. S. (2016). Human capital as a key factor of economic growth in crisis. *European Research Studies, XIX*(2), 71-78.
- Sung, W., Woehler, M. L., Fagan, J. M., Floyd, T. M., Grosser, T. J., & Labianca, G. (2017) Employees' responses to an organizational merger: Intraindividual change in organizational identification, attachment, and turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 102*(6), 910-934.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of inter-group conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The Social Psychology of Inter-Group Relations* (pp. 33-47). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Turner, J. C., Hogg, M. A., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S. D., & Wetherell, M. S. (1987). Rediscovering the social group: A self-categorization theory. Oxford, England: Blackwell.
- van Dick, R., Wagner, U., Stellmacher, J., & Christ, O. (2004). The utility of a broader conceptualization of organizational identification: Which aspects really matter?. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 77*(2), 171-191.
- van Knippenberg, B., Martin, L., & Tyler, T. (2006). Process-orientation versus outcome-orientation during organizational change: the role of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27*(6), 685-704.
- van Knippenberg, D., & van Schie, E. C. (2000). Foci and correlates of organizational identification. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 73*(2), 137-147.
- van Knippenberg, D., van Knippenberg, B., Monden, L., & de Lima, F. (2002). Organizational identification after a merger: A social identity perspective. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 41*(2), 233-252.
- Wagner, U. & Ward, P. L. (1993). Variation of out-group presence and evaluation of the in group. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 32*, 241-251.
- Xanthopoulou, D., Baker, A. B., Heuven, E., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Working in the sky: A diary study on work engagement among flight attendants. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 13*(4), 345-356.
- Zhu, J., Tatachari, S., & Chattopadhyay, P. (2017). Newcomer identification: Trends, antecedents, moderators, and consequences. *Academy of Management Journal, 60*(3), 855-879.

Translation, the translator and the news outlets

Dorjana Klosi, Ph.D.

Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Humanities, Albania
dorianaklosi@gmail.com

Abstract

News translation uses a variety of linguistic means, including both simple and complex patterns and structures. The context of news translation has no boundaries regarding shades of meaning; while polysemic words and connotations are manipulated according to the purpose of the writer and the message to be delivered. The influence of rhetoric and its instruments is highly observed in providing the news with a complete meaning as well. Hence, no news can be translated without first having a total grasp of its meaning and implicatures. The meaning is the pre-translational stage.

Translation combines closely together the logical and aesthetic senses of the translator. Figuratively speaking, it urges the translator to detach himself from the influence of the social and psychological conditions of the original text and to reconstruct the meaning by relying on aforementioned way of logic. Mastering excellent linguistic competence is one prerequisite to make a good translator. Another one is to be aware of the cultural differences that exist between the source and target language. Therefore, before being an author, the translator is the sender of the message, which has to be linguistically expressed.

The real problem, nowadays, is the fact that there is no proper journalistic translation, but adaptation to the social, economic or cultural context of the target language. To translate or adapt news, the translator must be aware of the characteristics of that type of text. The journalistic text is not written by chance: more than any other text, it is subject to certain specific obligations. The translator must, in principle, be a journalist or have a good command of media text editing.

Keywords: news translation, linguistics, translator, meaning outcomes.

1. Introduction

Many linguists have conducted several studies with the purpose to define, explore and analyze the numerous facets of translation. For study purposes, we will confine ourselves to a few definitions given by the Oxford Dictionary¹ to the word "translation."

1. *"The process of translating words or text from one language into another".*
2. *"A written or spoken rendering of the meaning of a word or text in another language."*
3. *"The conversion of something from one form or medium into another."*

Since translation is a polysemantic notion, in addition to these definitions, there are given other meanings referring to the field of study such as in biology, technology and mathematics. Nevertheless, we are mostly interested in the definition of translation from the linguistic point of view. We are interested in the translation of specialties and more specifically in the news and media translation².

2. Translation and the translator

Media translation and other types of translations have in common the linguistic background which includes components from the simplest to the most developed: words, sentences and texts. It operates in a context that blurs the boundaries of nuances and maneuvers polysemies and connotations. Rhetoric intervenes there with all its procedures and the necessity of giving meaning in all its integrity. Thus, we cannot translate without understanding the meaning, the meaning. Meaning is the pre-translational stage³.

Translation combines together the logical and aesthetic senses of the translator, due to their closely connection. During the process of translation, the translator detaches himself from the influence of the social and psychological conditions of the original so that to reconstruct the meaning by relying on its own logic.

¹ <https://www.lexico.com/definition/translation>

² Baker (Mona), Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies, second edition, edited by Mona

³ Durieux (Christine), *Fondement didactique de la traduction technique*, La maison du dictionnaire, Paris, 2010, 181 p.

The objectivity and subjectivity of the translator are other important professional abilities to be taken into consideration. It is up to the translator to understand and interpret the original text, these two stages are totally subjective.

Although the translator prefers to address the practical aspect of language rather than the theoretical aspect, language remains his only means of expression. It is not merely a means of communication or a simple system of signs⁴. It is a medium, an environment of all communications although it is not communication itself. Translation is the only means of preserving language, of protecting it as an essential medium of human experience and existence. From this, to play well this preserving role of language, the translator must be familiar with the system in which it operates. He must know its graphic meanings, its morphology and be familiar with the various modes operatories in order to bring functional equivalences⁵.

To succeed in translation a piece of news, the translator must have in-depth knowledge of both the syntax of the language and its lexicon. Since the syntax is limited in its norms and rules, it does not pose any difficulty in translation. While it is the lexicon that poses the problem as words are part of a set of open systems⁶. These words and lexical units are not limited in number. Moreover, they constantly undergo additions and carry various references and connotations.

The translator must have a deeper knowledge of the applied language rather than the theoretical one. The linguist is interested in the word or sentence used in the language; the translator is interested in the word or sentence used in the discourse. The linguist is interested in the smallest linguistic unit and not in the sentence (even when he is interested in the meaning of the sentence, he separates it, takes it out of context before analyzing it); meanwhile the translator is interested in the sentence which is the most unit small significant.

In addition to linguistic knowledge, the translator should be aware of the deviations that exist in the culture of the source language and that of the target. Before being an author, the translator is the expeditor of a message which (the message) must be linguistically expressed with all its specifics.

3. Types of translations

To think that the translator simply translates a text from one language to another, we are wrong. The profession of the translator is actually much more complex than it seems. To understand it is enough to look at the different types of translation⁷.

- *Technical translation*: this term can mean two different things. When an interpreter translates a way of using an apparatus for example, he is performing a technical translation. However we also call technical translation the fact of translating a text that is directly related to the fields of industry, electronics or informatics. To perform an accurate job, the translator must have the necessary knowledge in various fields. A technical translator translates engineering texts, technical announcements, liability blocks, usage methods, diplomas, certificates, manuals, nomenclature, protocols, research projects, internal enterprise records, minutes⁸, etc.
- *Legal translation*: includes the translation of legal texts, of a contract of sale or lease, of the general terms of sale, of a regulation, of orders, of control mandates, of expertise reports, of judgments, etc. To perform such a translation, the translator must have a suitable education and a good experience in this field⁹.
- *Sworn translation*: is close to legal translation. It consists in the authenticity of official translations (marriage contracts, wills, etc.)
- *Medical translation*: to be a good medical translator, a professional must have a good medical knowledge in order to be able to cope with different medical terminology. This translation requires a lot of accuracy. The documents that a medical translator translates are: pharmaceutical documents, medical reports and files, textbooks, tests and clinical analysis, etc.
- *Literary translation*: the translation of literary texts where the translator is required to respect the melody of the text, the special style of the author by revealing the secret meaning of the words used. Literary translation includes the translation of novels, short stories, prose and poetry, etc¹⁰.
- *Financial translation*: the translation of balance sheets and annual reports, etc. The financial interpreter must have special skills in numbers and figures.

⁴ Jakobson Roman, 1959, « *On Linguistic Aspects of Translation* » <https://web.stanford.edu/~eckert/PDF/jakobson.pdf>

⁵ Berman (Antoine), L'Age de la traduction, « *La tâche du traducteur* » de Walter Benjamin, un commentaire, Intempestives, Presses Universitaires de Vincennes, Paris, 2008, p 181.

⁶ Meertens René, *La traduction des textes journalistiques*, <http://www.foreignword.com>.

⁷ Baker (Mona), Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies, second edition, edited by Mona

⁸ Włodarczyk Aleksandra, 2017, *Le titre et le chapeau : un espace pour la manipulation dans la traduction journalistique*, Mémoire de maîtrise préparé sous la direction de Tomaszkie-ëicz Teresa à l'Université Adam Mickieëicz de Poznań

⁹ Jakobson Roman, 1959, « *On Linguistic Aspects of Translation* » <https://web.stanford.edu/~eckert/PDF/jakobson.pdf>

¹⁰ Jakobson Roman, 1959, « *On Linguistic Aspects of Translation* » <https://web.stanford.edu/~eckert/PDF/jakobson.pdf>

- *Classic translation*: as the name implies, is the translation of texts that do not have special features.
- *Journalistic (media) translation*: the translation of newspapers, magazines, news and everything else related to this power and this field¹¹.

As the news and media translation is probably one of the least discussed areas from the point of view of translation, in our paper we have focused precisely on media translation¹².

3. 1 News and media translation

The press text is one of the least discussed and studied fields from the translation point of view¹³. This is due to various reasons but the main ones are the invisibility (translation) in journalism, the complexity of translation in this field and the fact that this discipline is relatively recent. However, there are authors who have written about news translation on radio, television, the Internet or in newspapers. As far as the print media is concerned, the research refers either to the field as a whole or to the translation of news within the press agencies exclusively¹⁴. In fact, translation is present in the production and transmission of national and international information. In order to disseminate information to a wider audience, it is necessary to communicate in many languages as people prefer to have access to information in their own language. The media know this and have already started to translate the information into many languages.

In the broad field of communication, journalists and translators are professionals who produce discourses, the first based on events and facts and the second based on texts. Translators start from the text to convey its meaning, while the journalist reports and comments on the event which is often the subject of other texts on which he relies, even when these are written in a language other than his own¹⁵.

But in journalism there is no simple connection between the original text and the translated text. The supporting pillars to consider when translating / adapting this type of text are the following:

- Actuality of the transmitted information,
- Adaption of the information to the needs and understanding skills of an average mass media audience,
- Considering the communicative and cultural situation of the original and that (ie the situation) translated,
- Usage of language tools that serve to attract the interest of the target audience,
- Adaptation of linguistic and stylistic conventions according to the character of the media type in which the text will be published.

Thus, news and media translation is an act of communication oriented towards the culture of the target text. Researchers agree that during journalistic translation many changes to the original text may occur such as:

- Title and subtitle changes,
- Avoidance of inappropriate information for the target audience,
- Introduction of supplementary information, necessary to complete the meaning of the whole, etc.

The real problem, nowadays, is the fact that there is no proper journalistic translation, but adaptation to the social, economic or cultural context of the target language¹⁶. To translate or adapt a news text, the translator must be aware of the characteristics of the type of text. The journalistic text is not constructed by chance: more than any other text, it is subject to certain specific obligations. The translator must, in principle, be a journalist or have a good command of media text editing.

Translators are mainly faced with two types of journalistic texts: press releases and articles. As for press releases, their translation ensures a wider spread of the messages they carry¹⁷. The translator should also be aware that international organizations

¹¹ Durieux (Christine), *Fondement didactique de la traduction technique*, La maison du dictionnaire, Paris, 2010, 181 p.

¹² Jakobson Roman, 1959, « *On Linguistic Aspects of Translation* » <https://web.stanford.edu/~eckert/PDF/jakobson.pdf>

¹³ Baker and Gabrielle Saldanha, Routledge, 2009, p 674 .

¹⁴ Berman (Antoine), L'Age de la traduction, « *La tâche du traducteur* » de Walter Benjamin, un commentaire, Intempêtes, Presses Universitaires de Vincennes, Paris, 2008, p 181.

¹⁵ Włodarczyk Aleksandra, 2017, *Le titre et le chapeau : un espace pour la manipulation dans la traduction journalistique*, Mémoire de maîtrise préparé sous la direction de Tomaszkie-ëicz Teresa à l'Université Adam Mickieëicz de Poznań

¹⁶ Durieux (Christine), *Fondement didactique de la traduction technique*, La maison du dictionnaire, Paris, 2010, 181 p.

¹⁷ Włodarczyk Aleksandra, 2017, *Le titre et le chapeau : un espace pour la manipulation dans la traduction journalistique*, Mémoire de maîtrise préparé sous la direction de Tomaszkie-ëicz Teresa à l'Université Adam Mickieëicz de Poznań

usually publish press releases in their official languages. Press releases contain more precise information and of a higher degree of importance, as they contain very recent and current facts that interest everyone¹⁸.

As for the articles, they are translated daily, from one language to another, in order to provide the public with information about current events, general or those that belong to different fields of activity. From a translation point of view, the problem is that there are rarely people who are specialized in the translation of such texts, which requires both the competencies of a translator and the talent of a particular journalist. As the case of the translator-journalist is quite rare, one who translates a journalistic text should know, and if possible, follow the rules imposed on journalists¹⁹. The most frequent case is the adaptation of the original text, if the author of this text has violated the rules, which happens often.

In fact, a news outlet is a news item that contains information. A news story is a recent fact, presented in its context and that attracts the reader. The goal is to keep the news fresh; hence, for this purpose, the translator must have good information regarding the news. But, especially, the essential task is to arouse and keep alive the interest of the reader using specific techniques.

Clarity and simplicity are the essential features of the media text. Every journalistic text should be understandable and interesting²⁰. What is vague and obscure is forbidden. The form must also be taken into account: the translator's mission is to present particularly dry information in an explicit and vivid style (which in translation is called adaptation au contexte de la langue-cible²¹).

To do this, the receivers of the text must be considered. If the information is intended for an informed public, appropriate style and terminology should be used. The accuracy of the terminology gives authority to the information being translated. But it happens that the text receivers are profane, they are people who are not very familiar with the field in question. Therefore, in order for the text to be assimilated by as many readers as possible, the journalist avoids very specific terms, while the translator must, during the translation, respect the terminology of the source text. A scientific article, even if it is in print, will be translated appropriately; any adaptation would alter the original informative content. Any statement that lacks clarity confuses the reader. The translator has the obligation to document or consult the author to clarify confusing points. Clarity often transcends simplicity. For example, a translation containing the slogans is unclear to the target language reader, so the translator must make the word clear and understandable to the target audience²². However, clarity does not mean abusive simplicity; one should not think that the reader is unaware. The translator of the media text must find a balance between simplicity and increasing the cultural level of an ordinary audience.

Sometimes in translation it is difficult to be clear and concise and to bring the information in an accurate and complete way, especially when this (translation) is very technical and when the translator has to give explanations. Then, it is best to make a selection between different translation methods.

4. The language of translator and the information of the journalist

In a globalized world, translators and interpreters are not the only ones operating in the transition process of exchange information from one language-culture to another. They are joined by other bodies of professionals such as journalists, e.g. Translation in press agencies is very important, but these agencies do not employ translators but it is the journalist, equip with good knowledge of foreign languages, who does the work²³. These journalists do not consider themselves translators, although they adapt texts from one language to another on a daily basis. So we can talk more about "language transfer" than "translation".

There are journalists who are also translators who are journalists translators as well as. The translator work is very similar to the journalist's especially when he translates the news outlet. Just as a literary translator is inherently a silent writer, similarly, a news translator uses the journalistic style that corresponds to the media or audience to which he translates²⁴. It is up to him to recreate an attractive title, to explain an initials or a cultural reality, thus to adapt the text to his reader, as the journalist does when he writes the original text.

There are times when journalists are more concerned to attract the reader, shocking him rather than by the willingness to translate words and text accurately²⁵. There are other cases where the lack of accuracy is due to the lack of knowledge of foreign cultural realities.

¹⁸ Baker and Gabrielle Saldanha, Routledge, 2009, p 674 .

¹⁹ Jakobson Roman, 1959, « *On Linguistic Aspects of Translation* » <https://web.stanford.edu/~eckert/PDF/jakobson.pdf>

²⁰ Meertens René, *La traduction des textes journalistiques*, <http://www.foreignword.com>,

²¹ Berman (Antoine), L'Age de la traduction, « *La tâche du traducteur* » de Walter Benjamin, un commentaire, Intempestives, Presses Universitaires de Vincennes, Paris, 2008, p 181.

²² Włodarczyk Aleksandra, 2017, *Le titre et le chapeau : un espace pour la manipulation dans la traduction journalistique*, Mémoire de maîtrise préparé sous la direction de Tomaszkie-ëicz Teresa à l'Université Adam Mickieëicz de Poznań

²³ Durieux (Christine), *Fondement didactique de la traduction technique*, La maison du dictionnaire, Paris, 2010, 181 p.

²⁴ Meertens René, *La traduction des textes journalistiques*, <http://www.foreignword.com>,

²⁵ Włodarczyk Aleksandra, 2017, *Le titre et le chapeau : un espace pour la manipulation dans la traduction journalistique*, Mémoire de maîtrise préparé sous la direction de Tomaszkie-ëicz Teresa à l'Université Adam Mickieëicz de Poznań.

5. Conclusions

The professional journalist has the duty to verify the information, while the translator must verify the translated language. It is sometimes believed that we understand a language very well and are able to translate it because we communicate quite well in that language. But it is important to remember that translation is a profession that needs extensive and deep linguistic and cultural knowledge as well as skills acquired from a specific education that journalists do not have²⁶.

There are cases when journalists intentionally makes a translation so that to dramatize or emphasize a feature, choosing the most sensational wording possible²⁷. This is because journalists focuses some things and not others and have their own interpretation and perception of the news. They have a selection principle: the search for the spectacular.

The translator does not face the challenge of competition in journalism. He has the chance to maintain some relative autonomy²⁸. In the face of the same event, his approach is more measured and more neutral to the whole of the message: without making literature and keeping in mind the receiver of the message and the function of the text, the translator narrower the limits on his interpretive possibilities. He will fulfill the customer's request by explaining or adapting if necessary, reformulating, rewriting, correcting the original if there is any error, but generally he will resist deformation. As the journalist relates more to the effect and allows himself more freedom to present the event in terms of his beliefs or the needs of the media about which he writes²⁹.

These approaches reflect the divergent language concepts and priorities too, due to the connection that the translator has with the language and what it represents.

On the other hand, by consolidating and expanding the spontaneous usages of language, journalists become responsible for the evolution of the language. Nevertheless, translators themselves often face new realities and terminologies and are forced to carry out or transfer the information. As mediators between spontaneous uses and language norms, they contribute rationally to the enrichment and evolution of language³⁰.

References

- Baker (Mona), *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies*, second edition, edited by Mona Baker and Gabrielle Saldanha, Routledge, 2009, p 674 .
- Berman (Antoine), *L'Age de la traduction*, « *La tâche du traducteur* » de Walter Benjamin, un commentaire, Intempestives, Presses Universitaires de Vincennes, Paris, 2008, p 181.
- Durieux (Christine), *Fondement didactique de la traduction technique*, La maison du dictionnaire, Paris, 2010, 181 p.
- Jakobson Roman, 1959, « *On Linguistic Aspects of Translation* » <https://web.stanford.edu/~eckert/PDF/jakobson.pdf>
- Meertens René, *La traduction des textes journalistiques*, <http://www.foreignword.com>,
- Robinson (Douglas), *Becoming A Translator, An Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Translation*, second edition, Routledge, 2003, 301 p
- Włodarczyk Aleksandra, 2017, *Le titre et le chapeau : un espace pour la manipulation dans la traduction journalistique*, Mémoire de maîtrise préparé sous la direction de Tomaszkie-ëicz Teresa à l'Université Adam Mickieëicz de Poznań. [file:///Users/eragjika/Downloads/These_FLEYFEL_Mimi_2017%20\(4\).pdf](file:///Users/eragjika/Downloads/These_FLEYFEL_Mimi_2017%20(4).pdf)
<https://www.erudit.org/fr/revues/meta/2008-v53-n3-meta2400/019248ar.pdf>
<http://cediscor.revues.org/319>
<https://www.invisibletranslation.com/fr/services/traduction/communiquer/communiquer-mediatique/>

²⁶ Baker and Gabrielle Saldanha, Routledge, 2009, p 674 .

²⁷ Meertens René, *La traduction des textes journalistiques*, <http://www.foreignword.com>,

²⁸ Berman (Antoine), *L'Age de la traduction*, « *La tâche du traducteur* » de Walter Benjamin, un commentaire, Intempestives, Presses Universitaires de Vincennes, Paris, 2008, p 181.

²⁹ Baker (Mona), *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies*, second edition, edited by Mona

³⁰ Durieux (Christine), *Fondement didactique de la traduction technique*, La maison du dictionnaire, Paris, 2010, 181 p.

The evolution of human rights in the Republic of Belarus. Death penalty³¹

Butnariu (Badea) Larisa-Florentina, PhD student¹

^{1*} Department of Administrative Sciences, National School of Political and Administrative Studies SNSPA, Romania

*Corresponding Author: badea_larisa.florentina@yahoo.com

Abstract

Above all the fundamental human rights and freedoms that every state must guarantee to all its citizens equally is the right to life. Even though one of the most important European values is the protection of the right to life, the European countries used the death penalty to sanction serious crimes. Despite the fact that most European states have decided to abolish the death penalty, the Republic of Belarus remains the only state that still continues to use this method. This paper first explores the main reasons and features of using this method, the categories of people sentenced to death and their rights. Moreover, the paper examines some of the cases of execution between 2010-2018 in order to prove the fact that this practice is misused by the Republic of Belarus, without respecting the benefit of doubt. Furthermore, by analyzing the Reports of The Human Rights Watch between 2017-2021, I will display the main rights violated by being sentenced to death. Not least, the involvement of the main international organizations like The United Nations, The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe and The European Council represented failed attempts to persuade Belarus to abolish the death penalty. Fortunately, there are some signs of easing the execution of the death sentences of some prisoners starting 2018.

Keywords: human rights, evolution, death penalty, abolition, abuse

1. Introduction

Above all the fundamental human rights and freedoms that every state must guarantee to all its citizens equally is the right to life. Even though one of the most important European values is the protection of the right to life, the European countries used the death penalty to sanction serious crimes. Despite the fact that most of the European states have decided to abolish the death penalty, the Republic of Belarus remains the only state that still continues to use this method.

This study will examine the evolution of human rights in the former Soviet state of Belarus between 2015-2020 regarding the main violations and the death penalty sentences and executions. Despite its form of government (democratic republic), Belarus can be considered the last European dictatorship, led by President Alexander Lukashenko, a regime characterized by the suppression of the opposition and serious human rights abuses.

2. Death penalty origins and features

The death penalty was regulated by the Criminal Code of the Republic of Belarus, adopted on 9 July 1999 and entered into force on 1 January 2001, as *an exceptional measure of conviction for serious crimes associated with deliberate deprivation of life with aggravating circumstances* (Art.59) and is applied for the following offenses:

- „Art. 122, part 2 – preparation and conduct of a war of aggression;
- Art 124, part 2 – murder of a representative of a foreign state or an international organization for the purpose of provoking international tension or war;
- Art. 126– an act of international terrorism;
- Art. 127– genocide;

³¹ This paper was financially supported by the **Human Capital Operational Program 2014-2020**, co-financed by the European Social Fund, under the project **POCU/380/6/13/124708 no. 37141/23.05.2019**, with the title **“Researcher-Entrepreneur on Labour Market in the Fields of Intelligent Specialization (CERT-ANTREP)”**, coordinated by the National University of Political Studies and Public Administration

- Art. 128– crimes against the security of mankind;
- Art. 134– the use of weapons of mass destruction;
- Art. 135, part 2 – violation of the laws and customs of war (wilful homicide);
- Art. 139, part 2 – murder;
- Art. 289, part 3 – an act of terrorism;
- Art. 356, part 2 – high treason accompanied by murder;
- Art. 357, part 3 – conspiracy or other acts committed to seize the state power;
- Art. 359– an act of terrorism against a public figure or a statesman;
- Art. 360, part 2 – diversion and
- Art. 362– the murder of a police officer”.(Paluda, Stsepanenka and Hushtyn, 2016)

Moreover, a person who had been sentenced to death has the following rights:

- ”to file a petition for clemency in conformity with the procedure established by the law;
- to meet with lawyers and other persons entitled to render legal assistance, without limitation of the number and duration of meetings;
- to receive and send letters without restriction;
- to have one short visit with close relatives every month;
- to receive one parcel or transfer every three months in the order established by the administration of the correctional institution; to purchase foodstuffs and essentials every month in cashless transactions, using the money that are put on his personal account, including those received by mail transfer, within the limits established for the persons who are held in maximum security prisons;
- to register the necessary civil, legal and family relations in accordance with the law;
- to have meetings with a priest and
- to receive necessary medical assistance.”(Paluda, Stsepanenka and Hushtyn, 2016)

The death penalty is carried out by shooting behind the head the detainees forced to kneel. Furthermore there are some exceptions of death sentences like **the citizens under the age of 18, women, the mentally ill and the elderly aged at least 65**, which cannot be convicted and executed. The main violations of human rights in this case are the refusal to release the dead body of detainees to be buried by relatives and the late announcement of relatives about the date of execution.(*Republic of Belarus*, 2014)

As shown in Table 1, the number of death penalty sentences and executions during the period 2002-2016 fluctuated annually from 0 cases to 9.

Table 1. Death penalty between 2002-2016

Number of sentences	Number of executions
3 in 2016 (October)	1 in 2016 (October)
2 in 2015	0 in 2015
0 in 2014	3 in 2014
3 in 2013	0 in 2013
0 in 2012	3 in 2012
2 in 2011	2 in 2011
2 in 2010	2 in 2010
2 in 2009	0 in 2009
2 in 2008	4 in 2008
4 in 2007	1 in 2007
9 in 2006	Unknown
2 in 2005	Unknown
2 in 2004	5 in 2004
4 in 2003	7 in 2003
4 in 2002	7 in 2002

Source: *Death Penalty in Belarus: Murder on (Un)lawful Grounds*, Visana Human Rights Centre, FIDH, October 2016, No. 683a

2.1. Cases of death penalty sentences

Further, I am going to analyze some of the cases of death penalty sentences executed so far in order to observe the correctness of its application, but also the rights violated.

☒ Anton Bandarenka

Anton Bandarenka was sentenced to death in June 1998 for illegally getting into a private property at the age of 19, alongside Vaskaboinikau (who was under age) in order to take their valuables from the safe and murder of the owners of the house, an elderly woman and her nephew. Even though he tried to prove his innocence (his friend killed the elder by stabbing her multiple times and pushing her down the stairs), he was punished for the crimes of his friend (Anton stabbed the kid just two times and his friend continued until he died). Unfortunately, Anton Bandarenka's mother, Natallia Shedzko, was not informed of the date of her son execution until the last day, nor about the place he was buried. (Paluda, Stsepanenka and Hushtyn, 2016)

☒ Andrei Zhuk

Andrei Zhuk (age 25) was sentenced to death on July 17 2009 by the Minsk Regional Court for organizing an attack on a car that was carrying wages for farm employees, alongside two accomplices and murder of the man and woman who were carrying it. Although during his arrest, Andrei was under the influence of drugs, he wasn't sent for a medical examination and interrogated day and night. Even though his mother's complaint to the United Nations Human Rights Committee showed a violation of the benefit of the doubt, he was held in a cage and handcuffed and executed in March 2010. (Paluda, Stsepanenka and Hushtyn, 2016)

☒ Vasil Yuzepchuk

Vasil Yuzepchuk (age 34) was sentenced to death on June 29 2009 for the murder of elderly women, theft and robbery and detained in prison for 15 months before his case was tried in court. The complaint filed by his representative with the United Nations Human Rights Committee noted that he had been regularly subjected to physical violence and forced to take unknown pills and alcohol. Despite the fact that he was illiterate, his conviction was based on his testimony during the preliminary investigation and the testimony of another participant in the case obtained through torture. Unfortunately, Vasil was executed in March 2010. (Paluda, Stsepanenka and Hushtyn, 2016)

☒ Andrei Burdyka and Aleh Hryshkautsou

Andrei Burdyka (age 28) was sentenced to death by the Hrodna Regional Court on May 14 2010 for aggravated murder, kidnapping, robbery and attempted theft. According to the Court, on 14 October 2009, investigators who were called to an apartment due to a fire found the bodies of the owner, their daughter-in-law and their friend with multiple injuries. Burdyka was detained in the apartment of his acquaintance Aleh Hryshkavets, who became the defendant in the case. Burdyka and Hryshkavets were subjected to physical violence in order to extract the necessary evidence and deprived of the right to defense in the early stages of the investigation. Unfortunately, they were executed on July 19, 2011. (Paluda, Stsepanenka and Hushtyn, 2016)

☒ Ihar Mialik

Ihar Mialik was sentenced to death on September 14 2010 by the Mahiliou Regional Court for a series of crimes, robberies and thefts that he committed as a member of a criminal group, as well as for illegal actions with firearms and ammunition. In his appeal against the verdict, he reported the use of torture against him, saying the beating began immediately after his arrest. Although he admitted that he was a murderer and asked to commute the death penalty to life imprisonment, the court rejected his request and he was executed in 2011. (Paluda, Stsepanenka and Hushtyn, 2016)

To sum up, the main rights of people sentenced to death that are frequently violated are: **the right to life** (by convicting innocent people), **the doubt of benefit** (some detainees are executed for the crimes committed by others), **the right to medical care** (ill

detainees did not received treatment), **the right to communicate with the relatives** and **the right to file a petition for clemency**. Also, their relatives are not informed about the date of the execution nor about the place their body is buried.

3. Human rights violations. Where it begun?

The first case of violation of human rights in the Republic of Belarus occurred in the 2010 after the presidential elections. Thus, according to the December 2010 presidential election reports, an intimidation campaign took place on 19 December against the opposition and civic activists by arresting and detaining 700 people including protesters, opposition activists and journalists (43 were charged with criminal offenses and tried in the Minsk Court) and convicting 5 of the 10 candidates: Andrei Sannikov (five years), Dzmitry Us (five and a half years), Mikalai Statkevich (six years), Uladzimir Niakliayeu and Vital Rymasheuski. (*December 19th, 2010 in Minsk: A report by the Foundation for Legal Technologies Development*, 2011)

In this regard, the detained citizens were tortured both physically and mentally by the masked security agents of the regime through cruel beatings, refusal of medical treatment, ban of the access to the toilet for several hours, forcing them to stay naked in the cold weather outside, the compulsion to sit on a wooden bed and carrying weights on their hands. In addition, they have been threatened with endangering their family members, wives and children, denial of health care in cases of serious health problems (the case of Zmitser Bondarenko) and threats to life (the case of Andrei Sannikov). (*Conservation of the Systemic Human Rights Crisis in Belarus: A Worthwhile Price for Lukashenko's "Peace-making"?*, 2015)

In other words, innocent citizens who publicly express their opinion and dissatisfaction of the leadership of the state are abused by violating a number of their rights and freedoms such as the right to freedom of expression, the benefit of the doubt and the right not to be subjected to torture and degrading.

The main example of this kind of abuse is the case of Ales Bialiatski, head of the Viasna Center for Human Rights and vice president of the International Federation for Human Rights (FIDH), arrested in 2012 for tax evasion and sentenced to four and a half years on political grounds (released in June 2014 after the entry into force of the Amnesty Law). During his detention, he was tortured by having cancelled the visits of his family members, restricting his lunch hours and the permission to receive parcels and banning communication with other detainees. (*Conservation of the Systemic Human Rights Crisis in Belarus: A Worthwhile Price for Lukashenko's "Peace-making"?*, 2015)

On the other hand, according to the OSCE/ODIHR Report on the Monitoring of Persons Arrested on 19 December 2010, the main violation of human rights consists in restriction of access to counseling, the presence of the KGB staff at trials and the denial of the benefit of the doubt until proven otherwise. Moreover, defense attorneys like Hanna Bakhtina, Daria Lipkina Aleh Ahejeu, Tatstsiana Ahejeu Uladzimir Toustsik, Tamara Harajeva, Paval Sapelka and Andrei Varvashevich faced harassment, intimidation and were excluded from the bar for representing candidates in the December 2010 presidential elections. (*Report: Trial Monitoring in Belarus March-July 2011*, 2011)

In this regard, according to the Report of the Visana Human Rights Center in 2014, 38 activists were subjected to arbitrary detention and arrest, most of whom were detained by the police at their place of residence and charged with two administrative offenses - Articles 17.1 (irregular behavior) and 23.4 (disobedience to police) and isolated for 25 days. In 2014 there were 253 cases of administrative detention, an increase from 172 in 2013, amid local council elections and the World Ice Hockey Championship in Minsk. (*Human rights situation in 2014: Trends and Evaluation*, 2014)

In the end these events brought the problem of human rights violation in the Republic of Belarus in the spotlight. Thus, we must approach this issue from two points of view: the opinion of citizens on human rights and the evolution of their violation over the years (the period 2015-2020).

4. Citizens opinion on human rights

In order to examine the evolution regarding the degree of compliance and violation of the fundamental human rights and freedoms in the Republic of Belarus we should take into account also the vision of the citizens of the state of Belarus on the human rights.

According to Figure 1, the citizens of Belarus consider that **the most violated rights** are *the freedom to strike, the freedom of assembly, the right to fair working conditions and equality before the law*, and **the least** are *the right to free movement and the freedom of conscience and religion*. (Belarus: Public Opinion about Human Rights and Advocacy, 2016)

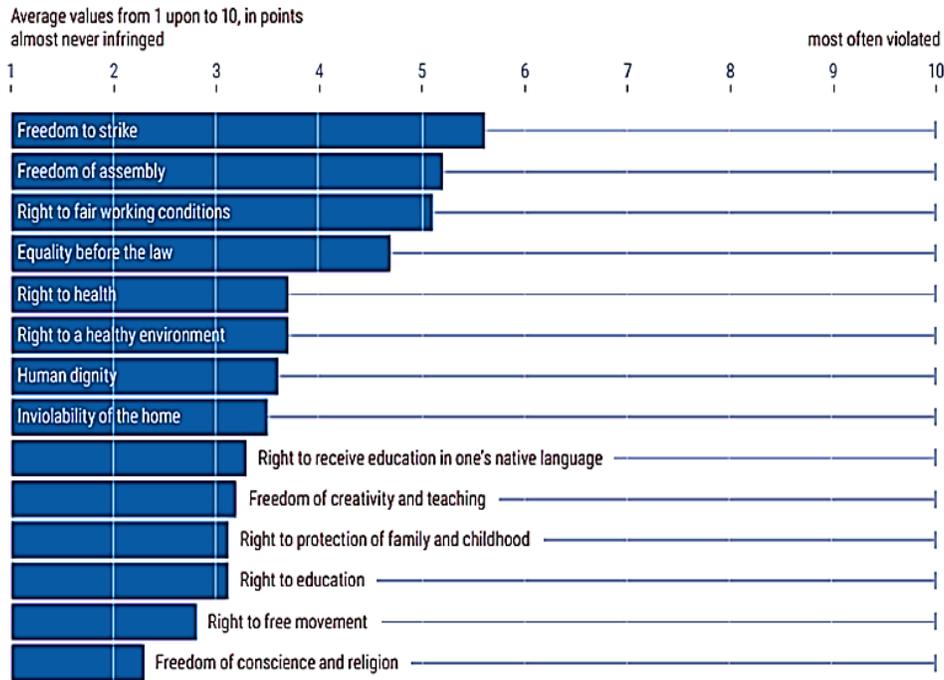


Figure 1. The opinion of Belarusian citizens on violations of rights (Source: Belarus: Public Opinion about Human Rights and Advocacy, p.8)

Futhermore, the citizens (Figure 2) consider that **the most respected rights** are *freedom of religion, the right to choose a partner to start a family (even of the same sex) and the right to life* and **the least respected** are *the right to a well-paid job, the freedom of speech, the right to a guaranteed minimum subsistence level and the right to elect and control authorities*.

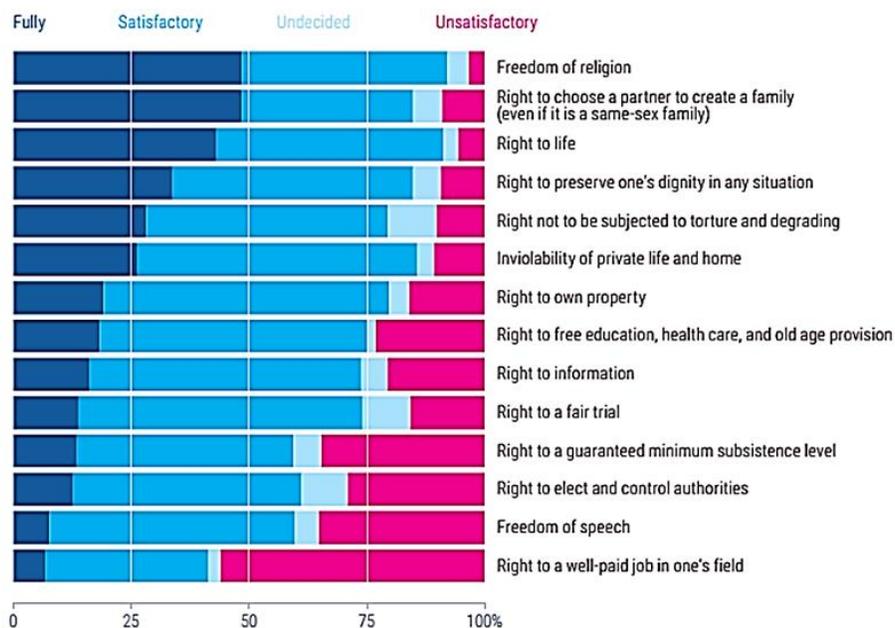


Figure 2. Belarusian citizens' opinion on respect of human rights (Source: *Belarus: Public Opinion about Human Rights and Advocacy*, p.9)

Unfortunately, as shown in Figure 3, most of the citizens do not know what institution to turn to in case of human rights violations (63.8%).

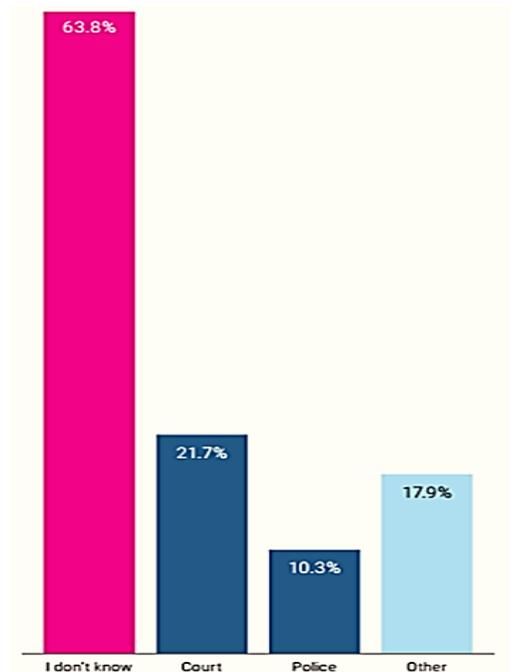


Figure 3. The opinion of Belarusian citizens on the institutions they turn to in case of violation of their rights (Source: *Belarus: Public Opinion about Human Rights and Advocacy*, p.19)

To sum up, citizens do not have the rights to express their opinion and dissatisfaction respected, neither they know what public institution to turn to in order to have their rights respected.

5. The evolution of human rights between 2015-2020

In order to establish the present state of the human rights of belarusian citizens, we should examine the violations that occurred during the period 2015-2020.

First of all, according to the 2017 Human Rights Watch Report, between 2015-2016, the situation regarding the observance of human rights is characterized by **law enforcement and the deprivation of freedom of expression of citizens who did not support Lukashenko's regime** as shown by the following cases:

- “ Despite the pardon in 2015 of six politically convicted men, their criminal cases were not eliminated in order to prevent them from holding government office or running in elections and they were frequently interrogated by the police and prevented from travelling outside the country;
- Human rights lawyer and president of the Center for Legal Transformation, Elena Tonkacheva, was forcibly expelled in February 2015 with a three-year entry ban, and her requests for reduced sentences were denied in January and October 2016;
- The founder of the Platform Innovation engineers group, Mikhail Zhamchuzhny, was sentenced in 2015 to six and a half years in prison for revealing official secrets after publishing information about police abuses, that he received from a police officer. Prison officials denied him access to necessary medical care and interfered with his filing an appeal against his sentence;
- Aliaksandr Lapitski (80 years old) was sentenced in April 2016 to forced treatment in a closed psychiatric institution for

one year by a Minsk tribunal for insulting President Lukashenko in letters appealing against his son's conviction by accusing him of organizing the 2011 Minsk metro bombing;

- Pavel Dabravolsky was assaulted and detained by the Minsk police in January 2016 because he filmed the moment when the police detained two activists protesting in front of a court through placards with the message "No to the political prosecutor's office!" and
- In August 2016, the Ministry of Information blocked at least six sites for distributing information about illegal narcotics and was able to block the sites without judicial review and none of the site owners received any warnings." (*2017 Human Rights Watch Report, 2017*)

Second of all, the year 2017 signaled **the containment of peaceful protests and the abusive detention of citizens by law enforcement** as illustrated by the next cases:

- "Following the peaceful protests between February and March 2017 against the introduction of a new tax on the unemployed, the police detained and assaulted at least 700 participants, 100 journalists and 60 human rights activists. In addition, at least 177 people were charged with fabricated crimes such as hooliganism, participating in illegal protests and were fined and sentenced to 25 days in detention without being given access to defense lawyers or witnesses;
- In April 2017, a court in Minsk overturned the suspension of a previous prison sentence against activist Dzmitry Paliyenka and sentenced him to another 18 months. He was detained in 2016 for participating in the apolitical Mass-Critical Cycling protest and sentenced by the court for two years in prison on charges of spreading pornography and violence against a police officer and
- In December 2016, authorities arrested three bloggers who owned the Russian-language websites Regnum, Lenta.ru and EADaily on charges of instigating extremism and social discord between Russia and Belarus, and they were arrested." (*2018 Human Rights Watch Report, 2018*)

Furthermore in 2018 **civil society activists, lawyers, rights groups, and independent media continued to face government harassment, pressure and prosecution on arbitrary grounds** such as:

- "According to the Belarusian Association of Journalists, between January and August, authorities arbitrarily detained 29 journalists while covering Freedom Day protests;
- In February 2018, the police beat Belsat cameraman Andrus Koziel for live-streaming vote counting during local elections and jailed him for one night and in March a court fined him 735 Belarusian rubles (US\$338) for disobeying police;
- In April 2018, authorities arrested Dzmitri Halko, editor of Belarussian Partisan on dubious charges of assaulting police officers in November 2017 in an incident when police interrupted his son's birthday party. In July, he was sentenced to four years in prison and a fine of 930 Belarusian rubles (US\$430);
- In June 2018, authorities began investigating Ales Lipai, head of the independent BelaPAN news agency, on criminal tax evasion charges and banned him from leaving Belarus and after his death in August, they closed the case;
- Authorities pressured lawyers working on politicized cases. As a result, in September the Justice Ministry suspended the license of Anna Bakhtina, a defense lawyer with more than 38-years' experience, alleging that she was "insufficiently competent" to practice law;
- Police arbitrarily detained at least 110 people in connection with peaceful protests held in Minsk and other cities on March 25, traditionally celebrated by the opposition as Freedom Day;
- Authorities continued to deny registration to independent groups and opposition parties on arbitrary pretexts and
- In August 2018 a court in Minsk sentenced the head of the Belarusian Radio and Electronics Workers Union and its accountant to a five-year curfew and other restrictions on dubious tax evasion charges." (*2019 Human Rights Watch Report, 2019*)

Moreover in 2019 **the harassment of civil society activists and independent media continued and also authorities denied access to journalists at government events, arbitrarily prosecuted them and arrested peaceful environmental protesters** as shown by the following cases:

- "Siarhei Piatrukhin, a popular critical blogger, was repeatedly detained and fined throughout 2019 for coverage of protests against the battery plant construction near Brest. In April, he was convicted of criminal slander for a series of videos he had uploaded to YouTube alleging police abuses;
- In April 2019, police arrested 18 activists and fined three for their involvement in the peaceful protests. Also in April, police searched the car of activist Maisey Mazko, allegedly found cartridges and a briquette of an unknown substance,

and opened a criminal case into alleged possession of ammunition. Moreover, another activist present during the search said the evidence was fabricated;

- Between May and August, authorities arrested and charged with administrative offenses at least 15 other activists involved in the peaceful protests in Brest and
- In May 2019, approximately 100 Roma in Mahilioŭ were detained for supposed disorderly conduct during the investigation of a policeman's alleged murder. Viasna reported that the detentions were ethnicity-based and involved violence, threats, and intimidation. Police held over 50 men in custody for three days, allegedly humiliating and beating them and released the men without charge, threatening them with rearrest if they spoke to media.“ (2020 Human Rights Watch Report, 2020)

Last but not least, in 2020 **the harassment of civil society activists, independent media and peaceful protesters continued** as illustrated by the next cases:

- “In May 2020, the Central Electoral Commission (CEC) refused to register the nomination for Siarhei Tsikhanousky, a popular blogger who at the time was serving a sentence for the administrative offense of organizing an unauthorized protest, on the grounds that he had not signed the registration papers personally. Sviatlana Tsikhanouskaya, his spouse, advanced her candidacy and in mid-June received an anonymous call threatening her children's safety unless she dropped out of the race. Tsikhanouskaya remained in the race but sent her children to a safe country;
- Police violently dispersed protests on August 9-12 in Minsk and other large cities by using excessive force and resorting to rubber bullets, stun grenades, and tear gas. As a result, almost 7,000 protesters and bystanders were detained in four days, subjected to torture and other ill-treatment and held in inhuman and degrading conditions. Unfortunately, at least four protesters died;
- On August 9, Nasha Niva journalist Natalia Lubnevskaya was hospitalized with a rubber bullet leg wound in Minsk. When the newspaper's editorial office tried to claim insurance compensation, authorities informed them that they were liable for “untimely reporting of a work-related injury,” although such charges were not brought. On the same day, NRC journalist Emilie van Outeren was wounded by stun grenade fragments;
- Police violently detained TUT.by portal's reporter Nikita Bystryk on August 10 while he was filming the protests and beat him, causing kidney damage and rib fractures and
- Authorities also brought criminal defamation charges against journalists covering the protests. In September, police detained Nasha Niva editor-in-chief, Yavor Martsinovich, and interrogated him for publishing an interview with a former detainee who claimed that a top Interior Ministry official had beaten him in custody. Police searched Martsinovich's apartment and seized his data-carrying devices.“ (2021 Human Rights Watch Report, 2021)

Regarding the death penalty, despite the fact that it has continued to be applied over the years (people were sentenced and executed yearly), a major change has taken place in 2020. Fortunately, in June 2020 the Supreme Court vacated the death sentence of Victor Skrandzio because of the lack of evidence gathered through a coerced confession and remanded the case to the Minsk regional court. (2021 Human Rights Watch Report, 2021) As a result, detainees received a chance to a fair sentence and they would not be executed until proving to the court if they are guilty or innocent.

5.1. The involvement of international organizations

Beside these cases of human rights violations we should take in account the involvement of international organizations in order to make a change in the Republic of Belarus. For instance, the European Union tried to ensure the compliance of the European values regarding the human rights and freedoms in Belarus through adopting a Joint Resolution on Belarus on 18 April 2018. As a result, the European Parliament:

- “calls on the authorities to resume the elaboration of comprehensive electoral reforms, within the process of democratization and cooperation with international partners;
- urges the Belarussian authorities to immediately and unconditionally lift the blockade on the independent news site Charter97.org, to drop the amendments to the Media Law which, if adopted, would threaten freedom of expression, and to end the persecution of bloggers independent;
- calls for the removal of restrictions and the facilitation of registration procedures for political parties in Belarus; stresses that all political parties must have the right to unrestricted political activities, especially during election campaigns;
- calls for the release of Mikhail Zhamchuzhny and Dzmitry Paliyenka, two civil society activists currently in political detention, the rehabilitation of all former political detainees and the restoration of their civil and political rights;

- urges the Belarussian authorities to engage in an open and constructive dialogue with the democratic opposition and civil society organizations, in order to guarantee the freedoms and rights of citizens, in particular the right of association, peaceful assembly and expression, and to provide a framework for a free and independent media and
- urges the Government of Belarus to ensure civic participation in local and national policy-making processes, drawing on the guidelines adopted by the Council of Europe on 27 November 2017." (*Joint motion for a resolution*, 2018)

Moreover, The Republic of Belarus refuses to cooperate with international human rights mechanisms - the United Nations, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe and the Council of Europe - despite their attempts to make recommendations to align their legislation, policies and practices under international human rights law. Thus, in March 2011 the OSCE office in Minsk was closed and in April Belarus did not recognize the decision to invoke the OSCE Mechanism in Moscow and refused to cooperate with its rapporteur, Emmanuel Decaux. In addition, Belarus rejected resolutions on the human rights situation in Belarus of the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly and the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe. (*Conservation of the Systemic Human Rights Crisis in Belarus: A Worthwhile Price for Lukashenko's "Peace-making"?*, 2015)

In addition, Belarus does not comply with its obligation to send timely reports to the UN and has continued the execution of several people sentenced to death, despite the fact that their individual complaints were under examination by the UN Human Rights Committee at the time. (*Conservation of the Systemic Human Rights Crisis in Belarus: A Worthwhile Price for Lukashenko's "Peace-making"?*, 2015) As a result, the death penalty in the Republic of Belarus will never be abolished despite the involvement of the international organizations.

6. Conclusion

Over the time, human rights and freedoms were violated in the Republic of Belarus. Most of the people affected by these violations are peaceful protesters, journalists, civil society activists and political candidates who publicly express their opinion and dissatisfaction of the leadership.

Consequently, the *human rights that continued to be violated* between 2015-2020 shown through the cases presented in the paper consist in: **the freedom of expresion** (by harassing the people that peaceful express their opinion), **the right not to be subjected to torture and degrading** (by using violence and torture against innocent protesters), **the freedom to strike, the freedom of assembly** (by violently dispersing the peaceful protests) and **the right to life** (by sentencing to death innocent people).

As for, the death penalty the first important change consists in the unprecedented decision of the Supreme Court of Justice of Belarus took a decision without 2018 by suspending and reviewing the death sentences of detainees Ihar Hershankou and Siamion Berazhnoy. The two were sentenced to death on December 20, 2017 by the Mahiliou Regional Court in eastern Belarus on July 21, 2017 for killing 6 people in 2009-2015 in order to take possession of their property. As a result, Amnesty International launched a campaign to postpone the two's sentences and draw attention to the abolition of the death penalty. (Amnesty International, 2018)

Even though they were executed in 2019, this is the first step in belarusian death sentences of investigating thoroughly the case of death penalty before the execution (Before the detainees were executed shortly after they received the sentence). Moreover, the decision of the Supreme Court in June 2020 according the sentence of Viktor Skrundzik represented an important step in improving the situation of human rights violations by promoting fair trials and avoiding the execution of innocent people accused on political grounds.

Moreover, the refusal to cooperate with international organizations and implement their recommendations in the field of guaranteeing and respecting fundamental human rights and freedoms attests to the fact that Belarus will never give up the use of the death penalty.

In conclusion, the evolution of human rights in the Republic of Belarus cannot be considered a positive one due to the fact that from to year to year there were reported violations of the same rights. Due to the fact that there were changes in sentencing to death penalty there is still hope that the rights of the innocent will be respected.

Nomenclature

OSCE - Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe

UN – United Nations

References

- Paluda, Andrei, Stsepanenka, Palina, Hushtyn, Adarya, *The Death Penalty in Belarus* prepared for the campaign Human Rights Defenders against the Death Penalty in Belarus, Vilnius, 2016, pp.53-66. Retrieved from <https://spring96.org/files/book/en/2016-death-penalty-belarus-en.pdf>
- Republic of Belarus*, Cornell Database, 20 September 2014. Retrieved from <https://www.deathpenaltyworldwide.org/country-search-post.cfm?country=Belarus>
- December 19th, 2010 in Minsk: A report by the Foundation for Legal Technologies Development*, International Observation Mission of the Committee on International Control over the Situation with Human Rights in Belarus and the Legal Transformation Center, May 2011. Retrieved from http://hrwatch-by.org/sites/default/files/IOM_Analytical_Review_N4-1_ENG_0.pdf
- Conservation of the Systemic Human Rights Crisis in Belarus: A Worthwhile Price for Lukashenko's "Peace-making"?*, A Report by Freedom Files and the Working Group on Investment of the Committee of International Control over the Human Rights Situation in Belarus with support of the Civic Solidarity Platform, April 2015, pp.5-18. Retrieved from https://civicsolidarity.org/sites/default/files/belarus_report_2015_cic-ff-csp_april_2015.pdf
- Report: Trial Monitoring in Belarus March-July 2011*, OSCE/ODIHR, 10 November 2011. Retrieved from <http://www.osce.org/odihr/84873?download=true>
- Human rights situation in 2014: Trends and Evaluation*, A report by Human Rights Centre "Viasna", 2014. Retrieved from <http://spring96.org/en/news/75286/print>
- Belarus: Public Opinion about Human Rights and Advocacy*, Freedom House, December 2016, p.8. Retrieved from https://freedomhouse.org/sites/default/files/FH_Belarus_HR_Sociology_Report_ENG_PRINT.pdf
- 2017 Human Rights Watch Report*, Human Rights Watch, 2017. Retrieved from <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2017/country-chapters/belarus#699e6e>
- 2018 Human Rights Watch Report*, Human Rights Watch, 2018. Retrieved from <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2018/country-chapters/belarus>
- 2019 Human Rights Watch Report*, Human Rights Watch, 2019. Retrieved from <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2019/country-chapters/belarus#>
- 2020 Human Rights Watch Report*, Human Rights Watch, 2020. Retrieved from <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2020/country-chapters/belarus>
- 2021 Human Rights Watch Report*, Human Rights Watch, 2021. Retrieved from <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2021/country-chapters/belarus>
- Joint motion for a resolution*, European Parliament, 14 April 2018. Retrieved from https://www.europarl.europa.eu/doceo/document/RC-8-2018-0197_EN.html
- Amnesty International, 2018. Retrieved from <https://www.amnesty.org/en/latest/news/2018/06/belarus-unprecedented-supreme-court-decision-to-suspend-death-sentences/>

Risk factor analysis for chronic lymphocytic leukemia

Gledjan Caka¹, Helidon Nina²

¹*Department of Biotechnology, Faculty of Natural Sciences, Albania*

²*Department of Surgery, Faculty of Medicine, Albania*

**Corresponding Author: e-mail: gledjan.caka@fshn.edu.al*

Abstract

Leukemia has always been a disease affecting an ever increasing number of people. Patients diagnosed with leukemia have been characterized with abnormal blood cells that affect both the blood and the bone marrow. One of the types of leukemia that has generally affected adults by producing a great number of lymphocytes is chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL). Survival and proliferation of these abnormal cells has been dependent on the microenvironment of tissues. Mutations of the BCR protein have been shown to directly lead to the development of CLL. Our study was focused on the risk factors pertaining to chronic lymphocytic leukemia. Our group was comprised of 1637 patients suffering or relapsing from CLL who were or still are being treated and hospitalized at the University Hospital “Nënë Tereza”, Albania. Their age ranged from newborns to 90 years old. Double cases were checked but not eliminated from the data because of ongoing treatment or recurrence of the disease. Two major factors were taken into consideration for the study, age and gender. A two-way Anova test was conducted to achieve any significance and the results showed that both these factors must be taken into consideration for CLL. P values for both factors were ≤ 0.05 expressing the final results for our expectations. The study was in accordance with similar studies in different countries showing that male individuals of 50 years and older are more prone to be affected by this disease.

Keywords: chronic lymphocytic leukemia, age, gender, analysis.

1. Introduction

Incidence of chronic lymphocytic leukemia has been reported of 4.1/100000 inhabitants in USA and ranging between 3.6 – 6.9/100000 in Europe (Hallek. M, 2019, Jeyakumaran D. et al., 2016). The number of cases has been on the rise and in the USA the number of diagnosed people was more than 21000 and around 4300 deaths (American Cancer Society, 2020). CLL affects males more than females according to Morton LM., 2006 and Watson L., 2008. The median age of affected people is 65-70 (SEER 2019). The rising trend of the disease has prompted us to conduct a survey of the number of affected people in order to compare and analyze the risk factors in regards to this deadly disease.

Chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) has been part of the chronic lymphoproliferative disorders for a long time and is the most common leukemia subtype in the world. This disease has been characterized by the abnormal growth and progressive accumulation of mutated lymphocytic B cells in the bone marrow, blood forming components, spleen, or lymph nodes. (Shang-Ju Wu, et al., 2010). There are two types of chronic lymphocytic leukemia: CLL and SLL (small lymphocytic lymphoma). The term CLL is used when the disease becomes apparent in the blood and SLL is used when the disease is presented in the lymph nodes (Santors F.P. 2012). Despite the fact that molecular diagnoses for this disease is known, no signs of a cure are in sight. CLL has been shown to lead to the formation of clonal B cells, which studies have found to be an acquired characteristic from the hematopoietic stem cells (HSC) (Kikushige Y. et al., 2011). This has given rise to the hypothesis that leukemogenesis of CLL is linked to the formation of new HSCs (Kikushige Y. et al., 2011; Alizadeh A. et al., 2011).

Understanding the pathogenesis of CLL

Patients afflicted by CLL can be categorized in two groups which are dependent by the mutation which they contracted and established by different molecular techniques. The genomic studies of CLL have determined that the disease may occur because of the deletion or the addition of genetic material (chromosomes), and then later followed by more mutations that could lead to a more aggressive form of CLL (Puigross, A. et al., 2014; Grygalewicz, B. et al., 2016)

Deletions of the 13q14 region of the chromosome are known to be the most common, found in 50-55% of the cases, and have shown the best prognosis for the disease (Dohner H. et al., 2000). These deletions can be homozygous or heterozygous. Studies have shown that heterozygous deletions happen early in the disease, whereas homozygous deletions are found at a later stage (Stilgenbauer S. et al., 2007).

Deletions of the chromosome 11 (del 11q) were found in approximately 25% of CLL patients. Those affected by this subtype of CLL are known to have an aggressive clinical course. They have a short remission, rapid progression of the disease and a low overall survival (OS) compared to the other types of CLL (Thomas J. et al., 2106). Despite the overall poor prognosis of del 11q, chemoimmunotherapy has given some good results in overcoming these shortcomings (Hallek M. et al., 2010)

Deletions of chromosome 17p are found in 5-8% of CLL patients that require immediate treatment. It has been characterized by rapid progression and a low response to medical treatment leading to a low OS of 2-3 years after the patient has started treatment (Bagacean C. et al., 2019). This low prognosis has been ascribed to the role of the mutated gene TP53 that does not give enough time to the DNA to repair the afflicted area (Aitken MJL. Et al., 2019)

Trisomy 12 in CLL patients has been observed in approximately 20% of cases. They have demonstrated aberrant morphology and phenotypic traits (Matutes E. 1996). Very little is known about the pathophysiology of trisomy 12 and its prognosis is still being debated because of many unknown factors (Abruzzo L. 2018).

Purpose of the study

The aim of our study was to analyze the high number of CLL patients in Albania and determine the risk factors and most affected age groups and genders.

Methodology

Source of data

Our study group was comprised of individuals who were diagnosed and treated for CLL at the University Hospital “Nënë Tereza”, Tirana, Albania. The University Hospital is the biggest and most specialized hospital in Albania that takes care of a high number of leukemia patients and collects information from existing and newly diagnosed individuals.

Data collection categorization

Data was categorized into eighteen 5 year age groups (ranging from newborns to 90 year olds) and three 5 year old period groups (2005-2010 to 2016-2020). Another category was the place of habitation of the patients because of possible correlation with the disease. The total number of patients was 1636, from which 1201 were males and 435 were females. The number of repeating cases were high because of monthly or bimonthly check-ups but they were filtered to the year of diagnose or in some other cases to the year of relapse.

Data was analyzed with Graph Pad Prism software by conducting a 2-way ANOVA test in order to determine the variables taken into account.

Results

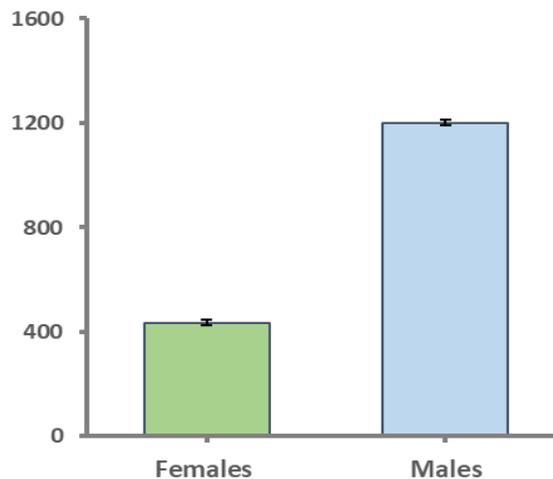


Figure 1: Total number of CLL affected females and males.

Figure 1 shows the total number of affected patients with CLL. Females comprised approximately 26% (435) of all CLL patients, whereas the rest were males (1201). The ratio based on gender was 1:3 females to males, which corresponds with studies by Cantu E. (2013) and Catovsky D. (2014). The genetic reasons why males are more affected by CLL than females are still unknown but studies are still ongoing (Falchi L. et al., 2016; Strati P. et al., 2018). Mean age of females was 61.4 and standard deviation 13.6. Mean age for males was found to be 63.4 and the standard deviation was 11.4. P values were ≤ 0.001 and gender is a very high risk factor when discussing CLL.

One other aspect we took into consideration was the time period for CLL patients. We plotted for 5 year intervals and the results were a bit different from the normal world trend. As shown in figure 2 we see that there is a small decline of CLL cases as years go. The decline is less than 5% from the first period taken into account but this can be attributed to a number of factors. One factor that needs to be taken into consideration is that the University Hospital “Nënë Tereza” is the biggest hospital, but not the only one that is treating CLL patients. Another reason for this decline is that the number of people of people being misdiagnosed for CLL in Albania is increasing. A third contributing factor is the low culture for medical examinations in Albania which has led to an ever increasing trend of people not getting a check-up and never being diagnosed. And a very recent reason why the trend of CLL patients seems to be going down is because of the Covid-19 pandemic outbreak which put the whole country in lockdown, thus limiting the services of the hospital only for corona virus related medical issues.

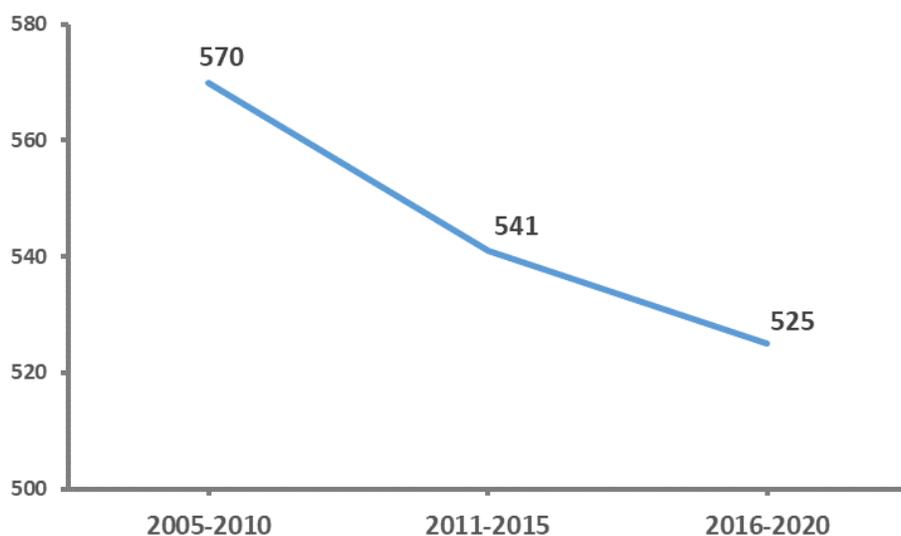


Figure 2: Time frame of CLL patients during three 5 year periods

The next factor that was analyzed was age. We categorized the patients into eighteen 5 year old groups in order avoid miscalculations because of large intervals and also because the longest time for the disease to relapse is 5 years. Multiple studies and literature have stated that the median age is 65-70, but this is not always the case. Other analysis has shown that the average age is between 60-65 or 67-72. Our pool of patients resulted to have a median age of 61-65, but this is most probably related to the current lifestyle and country of origin of the patient (Slager S. et al., 2014). According to the WHO, Albania has an average life expectancy of 78 years, but CLL patients have a low overall survival rate after contracting the disease and being older than 60 years old. As shown in figure 3 we have a steady increase of the number of CLL patients after the age of 40, peaking at 61-65 and then there is a decline the older the individuals get. This correlates to the known literature that usually people contract the disease after their forties and fifties, and in Albania's case the number starts decreasing after the average because of poor prognosis of CLL, or late diagnosis which most of the times is terminal. The age groups between newborns and 35-40 year old could have been omitted because they did not show any significance and did not affect the final result, but they are shown nonetheless to demonstrate the rising trend of the disease as people get older. Age groups after analysis showed a consistent significance and a $p \leq 0.003$.

The last variable we analyzed was the place of habitation. According to Slager S. in 2014 habitation serves a risk factor for contracting chronic lymphocytic leukemia. Districts that had less than ten male cases were excluded from the data because the numbers were too few and a hypothesis could not be followed in these cases. Figure 4 shows the distribution of CLL patients by their place of habitation. Data shows that the cities of Tirana, Fier and Vlora have the highest number of cases, followed closely by

the cities of Durrës, Elbasan and Korça. All these cities were expected to have high number of leukemia patients because of the high population they have. Tirana, as the capital of Albania, boasts a population of nearly 1 million inhabitants which also leads to the highest number of cases. The other cities have low number of cases, usually around 30-40 cases in total. Apart from the high population a number of reasons are taken into consideration when discussing habitation as a factor. The district of Fier has been affected by the nitrogen industry (shut down in 1997), because the high concentration of chemical wastes in the land from nitrogen and superphosphate have been linked to increasing risk of contracting leukemia (Yiin JH. 2017; Ward M. 2009; Fluegge K. 2017). Another factor that has contributed to an increase of CLL patients in Fier is the high amount of phenolic compounds found in the land and drinkable water. According to previous studies there have been correlations between the high concentrations of phenolic compounds and leukemia (MacDonald T. 2001). High exposure to benzene has been shown that leads to excessive damage of the bone marrow, thus resulting in aberrant blood cells count and in the end to leukemia (Snyder Robert, 2012). The district of Elbasan has always been dependent on the metallurgical plant that resides on the outskirts of the city of Elbasan. The high number of workers in the plant have been diagnosed with different severe types of diseases which are induced by the melting of a series of metals, including nickel and steel. According to Cameron KS, 2011 there is proof that excessive and prolonged exposure to nickel can lead to DNA damage and oxidative stress which result in leukemia. The last district that we considered important because of the cases of CLL was the district of Skrapar. The number of cases was low (10 in total), but the reason we took it in consideration is that all the patients lived or worked in the city of Polican. The reason why this is important is related to the fact that Polican has been dependent of the munition factory which used to supply all of Albania. The high concentrations of chemicals that personnel were exposed at the factory has led to increased risk and ultimately to leukemia (Sanderson H. 2017; Clapp R. 2008; Maser E. 2021).

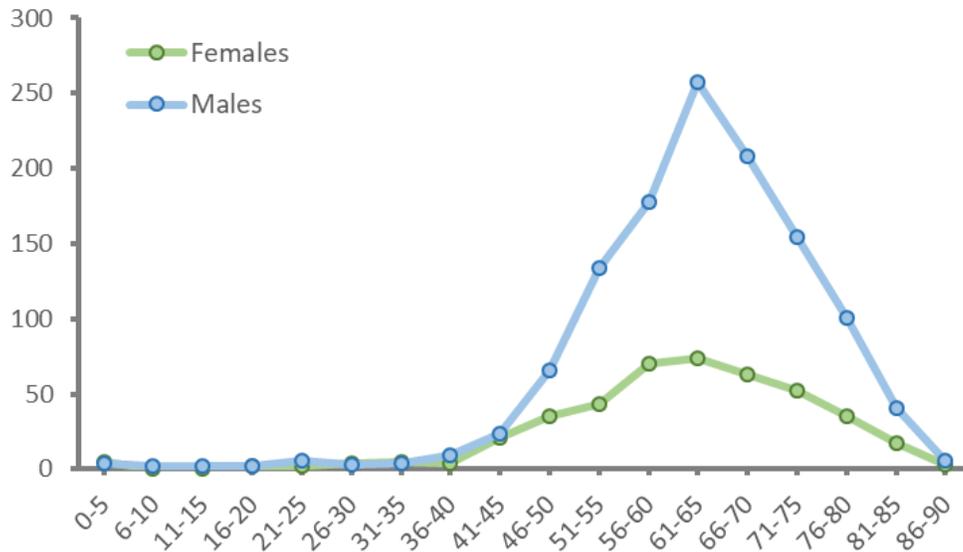


Figure 3: Distribution of CLL patients by age and gender

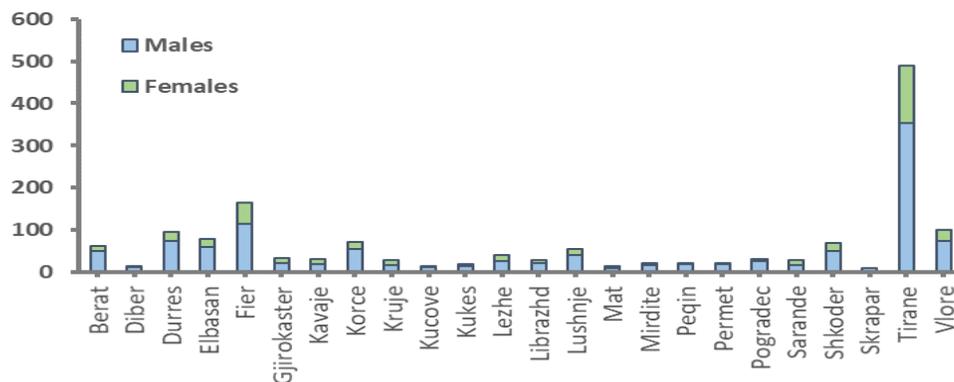


Figure 4: Distribution of CLL patients by habitation.

Although there are disparities with other studies, nonetheless our data shows that there is a uniformity between Albania and the rest of Europe regarding incidence for CLL. We are in the ballpark with an incidence of 3.4/100000 inhabitants. Even though the amount of data for CLL patients is quite high there still are limitations that arise to conduct a thorough investigation for all factors. Some of the problems we found was the fact that the number of repeating patients was quite high. Another thing to be taken in consideration was the accuracy of all the data because sometimes there were discrepancies between the data. Another thing included in the equation is the fact that there is underreporting or misdiagnosing of CLL cases related to the criteria set by the oncologist.

Conclusions

Data from the University Hospital at the moment showed a decrease in the number of cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia patients, but world trend is showing that this is not the case. Limitations in the registry of leukemia patients may affect the total trend line, but still we showed there was consistency and reliability in the data presented. Gender was still a dominant factor for leukemia patients (males are the most affected), followed closely by the difference in age (61-65 being the highest affected age group). All these showed that there are strong correlations in our data and previous studies and literature. Nonetheless, more work is needed in order to avoid or nullify the limitations imposed on leukemia patients data for a more complete and thorough approach to all factors.

References

- Michael Hallek, Chronic lymphocytic leukemia: 2020 update on diagnosis, risk stratification and treatment, American Journal of Hematology, Volume 94, Issue 11 p. 1266-1287, <https://doi.org/10.1002/ajh.25595>
- Jeyakumaran, D et al , An Assessment of The Number of Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia (CLL) Patients Eligible For Front-Line Treatment But Unsuitable For Full-Dose Fludarabine Across The European Union, Value in Health, Volume 19, Issue 7, A574 - A575
- American Cancer Society, Key Statistics for Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia, Jan 12, 2021, <https://www.cancer.org/cancer/about/key-statistics>
- Morton LM, Wang SS, Devesa SS, Hartge P, Weisenburger DD, Linet MS. Lymphoma incidence patterns by WHO subtype in the United States, 1992-2001. Blood. 2006;107:265-276
- Watson L, Wyld P, Catovsky D. Disease burden of chronic lymphocytic leukemia within the European Union. Eur J Haematol. 2008;81:253-258
- Chronic lymphocytic leukemia - Cancer Stat Facts [Internet]. [cited 2019 Nov 17]. Available from: <https://seer.cancer.gov/statfacts/html/clyl.html>.
- Shang-Ju Wu, Shang-Yi Huang, Chien-Ting Lin, Yu-Jr Lin, Chee-Jen Chang, Hwei-Fang Tien, The incidence of chronic lymphocytic leukemia in Taiwan, 1986-2005: a distinct increasing trend with birth-cohort effect, Blood, Volume 116, Issue 22, 2010, Pages 4430-4435, ISSN 0006-4971, <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2010-05-285221>.
- Santos FP, O'Brien S. Small lymphocytic lymphoma and chronic lymphocytic leukemia: are they the same disease? Cancer J. 2012 Sep-Oct;18(5):396-403. doi: 10.1097/PPO.0b013e31826cda2d. PMID: 23006943.
- Kikushige Y, Ishikawa F, Miyamoto T, et al. Self-renewing hematopoietic stem cell is the primary target in pathogenesis of human chronic lymphocytic leukemia. Cancer Cell. 2011;20:246-259.
- Alizadeh AA, Majeti R. Surprise! HSC are aberrant in chronic lymphocytic leukemia. Cancer Cell. 2011 Aug 16;20(2):135-6. doi: 10.1016/j.ccr.2011.08.001. PMID: 21840478.
- Anna Puiggros, Gonzalo Blanco and Blanca Espinet, Genetic Abnormalities in Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia: Where We Are and Where We Go, Hindawi Publishing Corporation BioMed Research International Volume 2014, Article ID 435983, 13 pages <http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2014/435983>
- Grygalewicz, B., Woroniecka, R., Rygiel, J., Borkowska, K., Rzepecka, I., Łukasik, M., Budziłowska, A., Rymkiewicz, G., Błachnio, K., Nowakowska, B., Bartnik, M., Gos, M., & Pięnkowska-Grela, B. (2016). Monoallelic and biallelic deletions of 13q14 in a group of CLL/SLL patients investigated by CGH Haematological Cancer and SNP array (8x60K). Molecular cytogenetics, 9, 1. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13039-015-0212-x>
- Dohner H, Stilgenbauer S, Benner A, Leupolt E, Kröber A, Bullinger L, et al. Genomic aberrations and survival in chronic lymphocytic leukemia. N Engl J Med. 2000;343:1910–6. doi: 10.1056/NEJM200012283432602

- Stilgenbauer S, Sander S, Bullinger L, Benner A, Leupolt E, Winkler D, et al. Clonal evolution in chronic lymphocytic leukemia: acquisition of high-risk genomic aberrations associated with unmutated VH, resistance to therapy, and short survival. *Haematologica*. 2007;92:1242–5. doi: 10.3324/haematol.10720
- Thomas J. Kipps, Peter Hillmen, Fatih Demirkan, Sebastian Grosicki, 11q Deletion (del11q) Is Not a Prognostic Factor for Adverse Outcomes for Patients with Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia/Small Lymphocytic Lymphoma (CLL/SLL) Treated with Ibrutinib: Pooled Data from 3 Randomized Phase 3 Studies, *Blood* (2016) 128 (22) : 2042.
<https://doi.org/10.1182/blood.V128.22.2042.2042>
- Hallek M, Fischer K, Fingerle-Rowson G, et al. Addition of rituximab to fludarabine and cyclophosphamide in patients with chronic lymphocytic leukaemia: a randomised, open-label, phase 3 trial. *Lancet*. 2010; 376:1164-1174
- Bagacean, C., Tempescul, A., Ternant, D. et al. 17p deletion strongly influences rituximab elimination in chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *j. immunotherapy cancer* 7, 22 (2019). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40425-019-0509-0>
- Aitken MJL, Lee HJ, Post SM. Emerging treatment options for patients with p53-pathway-deficient CLL. *Ther Adv Hematol*. 2019;10:2040620719891356. Published 2019 Dec 5. doi:10.1177/2040620719891356
- Matutes E, Oscier D, Garcia-Marco J, et al. Trisomy 12 defines a group of CLL with atypical morphology: correlation between cytogenetic, clinical and laboratory features in 544 patients. *Br J Haematol*. 1996; 92(2):382-388
- Lynne V. Abruzzo, Carmen D. Herling George A. Calin, Christopher Oakes, Lynn L. Barron, Haley E. Banks, Vikram Katju, Michael J. Keating and Kevin R. Coombes, Trisomy 12 chronic lymphocytic leukemia expresses a unique set of activated and targetable pathways, *Haematologica* 2018 Volume 103(12):2069-2078
- Cantú ES, McGill JR, Stephenson CF, et al. Male-to-female sex ratios of abnormalities detected by fluorescence in situ hybridization in a population of chronic lymphocytic leukemia patients. *Hematol Rep*. 2013;5(1):13-17. Published 2013 Feb 11. doi:10.4081/hr.2013.e4
- Catovsky D, Wade R, Else M. The clinical significance of patients' sex in chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Haematologica*. 2014;99(6):1088-1094. doi:10.3324/haematol.2013.101378
- L. Falchi, C. Vitale, M.J. Keating, S. Lerner, X. Wang, K.Y. Elhor Gbito, S. Strom, W.G. Wierda, A. Ferrajoli, Incidence and prognostic impact of other cancers in a population of long-term survivors of chronic lymphocytic leukemia, *Annals of Oncology*, Elsevier, June 2016
- Paolo Strati, Nitin Jain, Susan O'Brien, Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia: Diagnosis and Treatment, *Mayo Clinic Proceedings*, Elsevier, May 2018
- Slager, Susan L et al. “Medical history, lifestyle, family history, and occupational risk factors for chronic lymphocytic leukemia/small lymphocytic lymphoma: the InterLymph Non-Hodgkin Lymphoma Subtypes Project.” *Journal of the National Cancer Institute. Monographs* vol. 2014, 48 (2014): 41-51. doi:10.1093/jncimonographs/igu001
- Yiin JH, Daniels RD, Kubale TL, Dunn KL, Stayner LT. A study update of mortality in workers at a phosphate fertilizer production facility. *Am J Ind Med*. 2016;59(1):12-22. doi:10.1002/ajim.22542
- Ward MH. Too much of a good thing? Nitrate from nitrogen fertilizers and cancer. *Rev Environ Health*. 2009;24(4):357-363. doi:10.1515/reveh.2009.24.4.357
- Fluegge K, Fluegge K. Exploring the potential confounder of nitrogen fertilizers in the relationship between pesticide exposures and risk of leukemia: a Poisson regression with two-way fixed-effects analysis. *Chin J Cancer*. 2017;36(1):58. Published 2017 Jul 14. doi:10.1186/s40880-017-0225-4
- McDonald TA, Holland NT, Skibola C, Duramad P, Smith MT. Hypothesis: phenol and hydroquinone derived mainly from diet and gastrointestinal flora activity are causal factors in leukemia. *Leukemia*. 2001 Jan;15(1):10-20. doi: 10.1038/sj.leu.2401981. PMID: 11243376.
- Snyder R. Leukemia and benzene. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2012;9(8):2875-2893. doi:10.3390/ijerph9082875
- Cameron KS, Buchner V, Tchounwou PB. Exploring the molecular mechanisms of nickel-induced genotoxicity and carcinogenicity: a literature review. *Rev Environ Health*. 2011;26(2):81-92. doi:10.1515/reveh.2011.012
- Hans Sanderson, Patrik Fauser, Ricky Steven Stauber, Jesper Christensen, Per Løfstrøm & Thomas Becker (2017) Civilian exposure to munitions-specific carcinogens and resulting cancer risks for civilians on the Puerto Rican island of Vieques following military exercises from 1947 to 1998, *Global Security: Health, Science and Policy*, 2:1, 39-60, DOI: 10.1080/23779497.2017.1369358
- Clapp RW, Jacobs MM, Loechler EL. Environmental and occupational causes of cancer: new evidence 2005-2007. *Rev Environ Health*. 2008;23(1):1-37. doi:10.1515/reveh.2008.23.1.1
- Maser, E., Strehse, J.S. Can seafood from marine sites of dumped World War relicts be eaten?. *Arch Toxicol* (2021). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00204-021-03045-9>