SPP

SOCIAL PATHOLOGY & PREVENTION

CONTENTS

Dear readers,

You hold in your hands the latest issue of the journal, Social Pathology and Prevention. It is my pleasure to present its contents to you - three scientific papers, a discussion piece, an example of good practice, and a book review.

In the first of the scientific studies, Czech author Martin Knytl investigates "The Prevalence of Online High-Risk Phenomena in University Students". During adolescence, we search for an identity of our own and, due to the rapid development of information technology, the Internet is now one of the places in which we look. The empirical part of the study involves a sample of 1,742 university students. The results of the research indicate that when university students exhibit online risk behaviour at all, it is usually a one-off occurrence, with only a small percentage of respondents recurrently engaging in risk behaviours. Men are more prone to online risk behaviour than women, with the highest degree of risk in male respondents associated with addictive behaviour online, whereas risk behaviour in women is most commonly manifested in risky sexual behaviour online. The interesting results of this study should provide an impulse for much further research in this area.

Taylor Milner, from the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, submitted the second study: "Promoting Emotional Well-Being Through School Mental Health Services", focusing on the need for support of emotional and mental health in schools using Emotional Regulation Therapy (ERT). The goal of offering ERT in schools is to help students better recognize and identify complex emotions, and to teach students the skills they require to manage them. In his theoretical study, the author emphasizes the importance of emotion in its influence on the academic success of children and their ability to retain and recall the information they learn at school. Studies show that children with enhanced emotional regulation skills are better equipped to handle the novel demands of the school environment than children with poorer emotional control.

The third professional article, "Penitentiary Programs – Possibilities and Limitations in the Opinion of Penalty Officers – Methodical Guidelines", is by the Polish author Ilona Fajfer-Kruczek, and deals with the topic of prison programs. The author presents methodological advice and recommendations based on an original survey, whose respondents were employees of the prison service (officers and resocialization pedagogues). She suggests that the results of the survey can raise awareness of specific elements in the planning of resocialization programmes in prisons, and can be a motivation for thorough analysis of the formal and informal processes, resources, and difficulties connected with this issue.

As a discussion piece, the editors selected a paper by Dr. LeAnn Howell, from Brescia University in Owensboro, Kentucky, USA, in which the author throws light on the so-called "Drug Courts" that have proved a successful model for preventing recidivism in the USA. Dr. LeAnn Howell also provides us with our example of good practice, presenting the topic of "Modeling Behaviors in the Social Work Classroom to Encourage an Early Professional Stance in Students". The aim of her work is to create an engaging and supportive climate in which trust is present, allowing students to delve into material that is difficult

and distressing.

In the final contribution, our Slovak colleague Vlasta Cabanova presents a brief review of a book by the Slovak writer, Anton Lauček: "Of Wounded Birds (And More Besides)" – a work that she would recommend to all Czech, Slovak, or Polish speaking readers. Lauček writes with

humour and insight about difficult life destinies. Such books are a compelling way for us to learn more about people with disabilities, and similar problems, in an affirmative way. Finally, it remains for me to thank you for your support, and to remind you that any contributions can be sent to our email address (https://spp.slu.cz/revartsetting.php). We very much look forward to receiving your papers for the next edition.

Stay safe and healthy!

On behalf of the new editorial board of the journal,

Marta Kolaříková

ARTICLES

PROMOTING EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING THROUGH SCHOOL MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES

Taylor L. Milner
Samuel Y. Song

Abstract

The influence of emotion on thoughts, memories, behaviors and everyday decisions is currently being researched across multiple disciplines of psychology. Children and adolescents are not born with the skills needed to regulate their emotions; these skills are something learned over time. However, some children are never properly taught these skills, which can cause difficulties in the school environment because they are more likely to experience problems both academically and behaviorally. This paper explores the possible benefits of offering mental health services in schools that are focused towards promoting emotional health while also developing emotional regulation skills for children. Beginning with the ways in which children learn to express their emotions and the factors that contribute to an inability to express emotion appropriately, to the influence of emotions on academic performance, how emotional regulation skills can benefit academic success, how we can best build these emotional regulation skills in the school setting, discussion of Emotion Regulation Therapy (ERT) which is an example of a service that could be used, the importance of parental involvement when offering these types of services and concluding with possible obstacles that could interfere with the effectiveness of these services in the school setting

Keywords

emotional regulation, school mental health, youth mental health, well-being, affect, Emotional Regulation Therapy (ERT)

Promoting Emotional Well-Being Through School Mental Health Services

Being consciously aware of our emotions has been found to positively correlate with the ability to make better decisions, recognize and respond to emotion in others and overall leads to higher quality affective experiences. However, his type of emotional

awareness is not readily available to children. Children have a harder time making sense of their emotions and emotional impulses and with the added pressure of academics, social lives and the hormones that come naturally with aging; it is difficult for some students to manage their emotional health. This can lead to a decrease in motivation, poorer grades, increased behavioral problems in schools and can even impact a student's well being with an increase in internalizing disorders, anxiety, and depression. Allowing for more extensive mental health services, such as Emotion Regulation Therapy (ERT), to be available in schools would give children the opportunity to strengthen their emotion regulation skills and ultimately lead to greater self-awareness, the ability to build better relationships, enhanced communication skills, more logical decision making and an generally heightened sense of self-worth. All of which would benefit student performance, increase academic achievement and decrease both behavioral and academic issues in schools. The purpose of this paper is to explore the factors related to promoting emotional and mental health in schools and how providing services that support emotional health could lead to more positive student outcomes.

Affective Reactions and the Relation Between Awareness and Emotion

The way we assign value to the various components of our lives and our overall experiences is referred to as affective reactions (Huntsinger & Schnall, 2013). Individuals go through life making decisions and rating life experiences while simultaneously considering an imaginary spectrum between two extremes. This spectrum is used to measure the "goodness" or the "badness" of something which can externalize in many different ways neurologically, physiologically, cognitively or behaviorally based on what triggered the affective reaction. When several of these reactions occur concurrently, it is referred to as an affective-state which is represented by an emotion (Huntsinger & Schnall, 2013). Emotions, whether they be conscious or unconscious, have the ability to dictate behaviors, thought processes, recollection of memories and even personal feelings and biases towards certain people or groups.
The relation between awareness and emotion is continuously researched in the field of psychology and neuroscience today. The notion that there is a conscious awareness in our experience of emotion is something highly accepted across platforms, but experiencing an emotion implies that we are aware of it and the feelings which coincide with it (Berridge, 2018). People tend to conflate emotions with subjective feelings which would indicate that we are always consciously aware of them, however, evidence suggests that emotions can also occur unconsciously without there being any subjective feelings present (Berridge, 2018). Since there is a very intimate link between emotion, feeling, experience and awareness, the majority of people find it difficult to decipher which is influencing which during any given time (Gelder & Tamietto, 2018). So the questions remain; how much influence do our conscious minds actually have? Does being consciously aware of our emotions require a certain amount of emotional intelligence and if so, is this something that can be taught or is it innate? These are important to ask

when we consider the degree in which emotion influences our judgement and decision-making on a daily basis. This is especially prevalent when we contemplate how school-aged children recognize, control and act on their emotional impulses.

The Role of Nurture in a Child's Ability to Express Emotion

The conditions in which a child is raised varies amongst individuals. This notion implies that every child is going to witness different forms of emotional expression and emotional interpretation as they grow up. This not only influences, but reflects the way individuals express their emotions as they get older which factors into an individual's ability to consciously perceive not only their own emotions, but how they recognize certain emotions in others. Children who suffered from maltreatment or abuse might feel as though their emotions are not important or valid and in turn, may be unable to or do not feel the need to express them. Maltreatment in children has also been shown to negatively influence the development of regions associated with cognitive control during emotional regulation (Jenness et al., 2020). Not only this, but difficulties with emotional regulation can cause other severe complications during juvenescence such as eating disorders (Vajda & Lang, 2014), antisocial behaviors, delinquency (Hye-Jin et al., 2016), low levels of self-compassion and even symptoms related to post-traumatic stress (Barlow et al., 2017).

The way we express our emotions is an integral part in how we translate our needs to those around us. Children who endure difficulties with emotional regulation and emotional awareness could potentially have trouble properly recognizing and reacting to those same emotions being expressed by others. Research shows that children who suffer from past abuse or neglect have an impaired development of social cognition and could benefit from therapeutic interventions that improve their interpersonal communications (Koizumi & Takagishi, 2014). This is important to consider because a child who grew up with emotionally distant parents is not going to be able to express or interpret emotions the same way as someone who grew up in a communicative and emotionally supportive household.

The Influence of Emotion on Academic Success

Another role of emotion that is important to consider is the influence it has on the academic success of children and their ability to retain and recall the information they learn in school. Difficulties with emotional regulation could potentially be problematic throughout their school careers, but also later on in life without proper support and guidance. Studies show that children with better emotional regulation skills are better equipped to handle the novel demands of the school environment more efficiently than children with poor emotion regulation skills (Harrington et al., 2020). Recent findings in developmental science connecting social, emotional and academic growth has been able to predict

academic success based on a child's social and emotional development. It has been suggested that advances in social-emotional competencies (SEC) may be a way to promote academic growth because it focuses on the child's development as a whole rather than just teaching academic content. It can also help children acquire a sense of responsibility and knowledge that can ultimately follow them into adulthood (Oberle, 2014).

Based on what we know about emotional awareness, we can imply that being consciously aware of our emotions would suggest that we also have a better chance of being able to control the intensity in which our feelings coexist with certain emotions. This influences our behaviors and the way we react to certain emotional triggers and can also give us the ability to recognize and respond to emotions in others. However, not all children are fortunate enough to have access to the information needed to be taught these skills which diminishes their ability to be able to achieve that level of emotional intelligence. Some individuals may be unable to recognize troubles associated with emotional regulation or issues relating to emotions and even if they do, that does not suggest that they feel comfortable seeking out mental health services.

Building Emotional Regulation (ER) Skills in Schools

Schools already provide a range of mental health services such as assessment, behavior management, crisis intervention, and counseling. However, improvements still need to be made to ensure these services are accessible and beneficial to the students who need it; especially those who reside in under-developed regions. Studies have shown educators' attitudes are in favor of better resources and training to support student's mental health needs. Educators are concerned that the training and resources currently being offered are not adequate enough to manage and address the mental health needs of their students (Moon & Mendenhall, 2017).

Schools are an ideal place to provide mental health services to students because not only are they accessible to the majority of children and families, but it is also a natural setting where children feel comfort because it's a significant part of their daily routine. The school environment also allows for teachers and administration to observe students and develop close relationships with them which could help in referring those who might need access to mental health services. However, as the mental health crisis continues to grow and become more noticeably prevalent in schools, the less equipped teachers and administrators are to support student's needs.

Helping students develop a sense of emotional awareness will ultimately decrease their risk of developing internalizing disorders such as depression (Beveren et al., 2018), obsessive-compulsive phenomena (Berman et al., 2018), anxiety (Renna et al., 2017) and help to support an increase in emotional intelligence. Studies have shown that emotional regulation is a key underlying mechanism in emotional awareness which is also a basic skill required for learning adaptive emotional regulation skills. If children are unable to deploy appropriate emotional regulation strategies towards negative

emotions, the effects can appear long-term since the stressors ultimately remain unresolved (Beveren et al., 2018). These mental health demands emphasize a need for providing support in which students can learn emotional regulation skills, such as Emotion Regulation Therapy (ERT).

## What is Emotion Regulation Therapy (ERT)?

Emotion Regulation Therapy (ERT) is a manual-based therapy that utilizes various approaches and treatments such as cognitive-behavioral, mindfulness-based, experiential, acceptance and emotion focused; all of which use a framework that was created from the most relevant and translational findings in affect science. Emotion Regulation Therapy (ERT) focuses on training major emotion regulation skill groups such as attention, allowance, distancing and reframing where the skills are taught in the first half of treatment and then later on practiced by clients in an exposure or behavioral activation phase during the second half of the treatment. Emotion Regulation Therapy (ERT) has been linked to decreased measures of generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) and other symptoms associated with anxiety and depression. ERT has also shown positive correlations with an overall improved quality of life (Mennin & Fresco, 2020). The ultimate goal of offering ERT in schools would be to help students to better recognize and identify complex emotions and teach them skills they need to manage them accordingly while also having an increased acceptance of affective experiences and the ability to identify needs in oneself and others. This also would lead to an increase in student motivation towards academics, a decrease in the use of emotional avoidance strategies and an increased ability to make well thought-out decisions while also creating and managing interpersonal relationships.

The traditional model of ERT is currently a manualized intervention consisting of 16 weekly sessions that specifically target motivational mechanisms, regulatory mechanisms, behavioral responses, and contextual learning consequences that are hypothesized to negatively correlate with distress orders such as anxiety and depression (Renna et al., 2017). ERT is divided into two phases of treatment, the first phase focusing on cultivating mindful emotion regulation skills and promoting conscious and flexible responses to intense emotions experiences such as anger, anxiety and sadness. The second phase focuses on promoting behavioral "proactivity" which allows clients the ability to utilize their new skills and apply them to real-world situations which before might have promoted a sense of anxiety or depression (Renna et al., 2017).

Currently there is no single assessment device used in ERT, but throughout treatment therapists render a clinical impression to the degree in which a client endorses intense emotions, narrows their focus on security to the exclusion of reward (motivational mechanisms), engages in reactive responses in order to avoid intense emotions (regulatory mechanisms) and how it in turn diminishes their pursuit of a potentially rewarding experience (contextual learning consequences). Therapists also track and revise their impressions of what they believe to be the degree in which a client is demonstrating

mindful awareness of their emotions and motivations, the regulation of their emotions and their ability to pursue actions which are reflective of meaningful rewards or value. Clients are also required to complete a brief standardized self-report battery prior to each session so that the therapist has the ability to capture a dynamic assessment in affective changes such as worry, rumination, anxiety, depression, attention regulation, decentering, and reappraisal throughout the treatment (Renna et al., 2017).

Figure 1 Conceptual model of target mechanisms, change principles, and therapeutic processes in Emotion Regulation Therapy
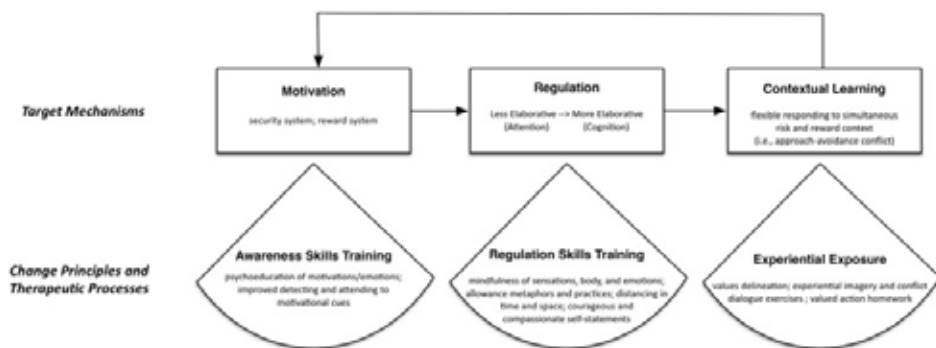
Source: Renna et al. (2017)

Parental Involvement in Emotional Support Services

In order for any service geared towards emotional well-being to be successful in the school environment, it is important that parents are on board. Emotional regulation and associated autonomic activation is developed throughout childhood and adolescence under the influence of the family environment and the effect of parental emotional socialization (Witte et al., 2016). Parental involvement in education can be viewed as a multidimensional construct consisting of multiple levels such as school involvement, home involvement and academic socialization (Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2013). Studies show that the amount of parental involvement in regards to a child's educational experience can be a predictor of not only a student's academic success, but also the state of a student's mental health (Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2013). Parental factors are also noted to have an influence on childhood depression and internalizing problems (Yap & Jorm, 2015) suggesting that parents could seemingly be unaware of how their actions are being perceived by their children and the influence those actions have on their emotional state. This type of disconnect between parents and their child's emotional well-being could be a factor in the rise of mental health crises among school-aged children. It is important that parents be involved in the child's initial diagnostic assessment and treatment.

Conclusion

There are many challenges that could be faced while implementing services geared towards emotional health in a fluctuating environment such as a school. Since schools are publically funded and costs are being cut by the year, it would be difficult to generate the money needed to deliver such services in all the public schools where it is needed. This would also require school psychologists to have the proper training and time to implement services like this and since there is currently a shortage of school psychologists and many are covering more than one school in their workday, this may prove difficult. There is also a possibility that parents do not want to actively participate in the treatment process and/ or are not supportive of these types of services being offered in schools. This could make it difficult to get acceptance from the school community.

Despite the challenges, providing services that focus on promoting emotional health as well as support children in developing proper emotional regulation skills could help students succeed both academically and socially while also resolving many behavioral and academic problems. This gives students the opportunity to evolve a more powerful sense of emotional awareness which could in turn, help them thrive in all aspects of life as they continue to grow and mature.

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THE PREVALENCE OF ONLINE HIGH-RISK PHENOMENA IN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Martin Knytl

Abstract

The following paper focuses on the phenomenon of risk behaviour, which is particularly associated with young people and is perceived as potentially damaging to the biopsychosocial health of individuals behaving in a risky fashion, or as a potential danger to the integrity of their immediate social environment. In a strict sense, the paper endeavours to characterise issues regarding risk phenomena online/in cyberspace, which have become prominent and may be viewed as analogous to real world risk phenomena. The contribution also contains the results of a pilot screening of university students' online risk behaviour, which focused primarily on general categories of risk behaviour (rather than the individual risk phenomena within these categories).

Keywords

Introduction

"Risk" – "degree of risk" – "risk behaviour" are the main terms with which psychological, social, and pedagogical sciences work. The phenomenon of risk behaviour has gained in popularity recently, particularly in research terms. Hence, there has been an increase in the professional literature and research studies on this topic.

In general terms, risk behaviour can be seen as "such behaviour of an individual or group which brings about a verifiable increase in social, psychological, health, developmental, physiological, and other risks detrimental to the individual in question, his/her environment, or to society" (Dolejš, 2010, p. 9). Such conduct is often associated with adolescence (psychological term) or, more generally, with early youth (sociological term), although, we can also encounter other risk behaviours, such as those peculiar to drivers or senior citizens.

Adolescent risk behaviour is an assemblage of external manifestations, activities, and reactions of adolescents who expose themselves to, or are exposed to, certain risks – i.e., danger, menace, or activities highly likely to result in failure or loss. Risk can be real (interrelationship of possibilities and consequences in the real-world), perceived (based on expected benefits and profits without using physical models), or observed (through analysing possibilities and consequences, using physical models). As mentioned above, risk refers to:

1. Those who are acting in a risky fashion – an individual poses a danger to himself/herself;

2. The social environment – an individual poses a danger to society (Dolejš, 2010).

"Risk behaviour" is not the only term that appears in scientific literature. We may also encounter terms such as "problem", "maladaptive", "abnormal", "dissocial", "pre-delinquent", "delinquent", or "deviant" behaviour, and many others. While such terms are all-encompassing, adolescent behaviours are particularized by what is known as the "syndrome of risk behaviour in adolescence" (Dolejš, 2010).

The syndrome of risk behaviour in adolescence is based on research by Jessor and earlier theories concerning risk behaviour (Jessor, 1997; Širučková, 2015). The syndrome of risk behaviour in adolescence provides an umbrella term for a range of socially unacceptable behaviours. According to this theory, adolescence is a significant period in psychosocial development, associated with risky experimentation. It can abate over time, or develop into a lifestyle which jeopardises the present and future health of individuals.

A risky lifestyle may lead not only to long-term, physical harm but also to death, hence a focus on adolescent morbidity and mortality rates. The World Health Organisation, in response, has declared adolescents an independent risk population group. Not only has it acknowledged the syndrome of risk behaviour in adolescence, but it has also described the health of young people in terms of the absence of risk/problem behaviours (Hamanová, Csémy, 2014). Three main areas of risk behaviour were determined. Within each group behaviours are interconnected – they have common causes and facilitate the nascency of other behaviours within the group. The three areas are as follows:

• abuse of addictive substances – risky behaviour associated with substances such as nicotine, alcohol, and illegal drugs; at first, behaviour is socially motivated, e.g., by peer pressure; long-term abuse may result in serious addiction;

• negative phenomena in the psychosocial sphere – i.e., issues such as maladaptation (manifesting itself in cruelty towards the vulnerable, vandalism, lying, larceny, failing at school, truancy, running away, aggression, auto-aggression, suicidality, delinquency, and criminality), injuries caused by acts of aggression or risk-taking, social phobias, and behavioural disturbances;

• risky sexual behaviour – premature sexual activity, non-use of contraceptives and other protection during sexual intercourse, unwanted pregnancy, promiscuity, venereal diseases, hazardous sexual practices, etc. (Hamanová, Csémy, 2014; Nielsen Sobotková et al., 2014; Pelcák, 2015).

A multitude of adolescent activities can involve risk, including: truancy or other misdemeanours at school (particularly among minors), participation in adrenaline

and extreme sports, the taking of risks connected with transport, involvement in religious sects, and the development of behavioural addictions (for example gambling, gaming, netholism) and dietary extremes (frequent monitoring of weight due to fear of weight gain, distorted body image, and poor eating habits (Cvečková et al., 2010), which might lead to serious illnesses, such as anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa, or obesity).

The modern world, with its multifarious information technologies, has made it possible for individuals to escape from reality into the virtual world, opening up new possibilities for experimentation and exposure to risks and risky phenomena. According to Bělík and Hoferková, this online world or "cyberspace", entered through various information and communication technologies is ubiquitous. It is recommended that research programmes, and efforts focusing on prevention and increasing public awareness should be aimed at the dangers of cyberspace (Bělík, Hoferková, 2018).

Online risk phenomena
The media, information and communications technology (ICT), and cyberspace rank among the most influential aspects of social life nowadays. The author's opinion is that the state of being online may be considered a social norm, with those not online are seen as special exceptions or social outsiders. Active use and familiarity with online space is vital to young people in many ways, for example, as a way of keeping up-to-date with current affairs, as a source of material for educational assignments, such as presentations, or as a way to socialise and spend leisure time.

However, individuals can also encounter many online dangers, including violence in the media or other detrimental content characterized by intolerance, pornography, manipulation, or the endorsement of negative values (violence, egocentrism), all of which may support imprudent behaviour in cyberspace. Risk behaviour in cyberspace is abetted to a large extent by what Suler (1998) describes as the "online disinhibition effect", defined as the act of losing one's inhibitions, and the overcoming of one's embarrassment, bashfulness, and timidity. In its negative form ("toxic disinhibition") it can be marked by the infringement of laws and prohibitions. Individuals commit acts on the Internet that they would not think of committing in real-life situations. Disinhibition is characterised by anonymity (nobody knows who I am), invisibility (nobody knows what I look like), communication asynchronism (I do not have to respond straight away, I can take my time), neutralization of social status (my actual status does not matter), solipsistic introjections (individuals are inclined to create an imaginary world), and interaction effects which are related to various types of online environments (Suler, 1998; Hulanová, 2012, p. 28–33).

The most frequent online risk phenomena include: cyberbullying, child grooming, cyber-stalking, cybercrime, sexting, cybersex (a type of communication through the Internet aimed at sexual arousal), netholism, gaming, online gambling, happy slapping (an unexpected physical attack where the aggressor's accomplice records the whole act on a mobile phone or camera), hate speech, hoaxing (spreading alarm and false messages), flaming (hostile behaviour on the Internet such as insults, threats, etc.), webcam trolling (a type of fraud in which an blackmailer uses a fake video-loop

to deceive the victim), phishing (fraudulent e-mail messages that appear to have been sent from your bank's e-mail address), and pharming (a malicious computer program focusing on stealing personal data of internet banking user), all of which behaviours may be interconnected (Kopecký, 2013; Kopecký et al., 2015).

These risk phenomena are collectively referred to as forms of online risk behaviour. Dulovics, in agreement with other authors, characterizes online risk behaviour as deviant behaviour

in a virtual space by which an individual consciously or unconsciously threatens himself/herself and his/her surroundings (Dulovics, 2018).

The author places online risk behaviour on two basic levels:

1. Risky use of the Internet: searching for inappropriate content; excessive time spent on the Internet; communication with strangers; participation in risky online groups (encouraging suicidal behaviour, self-harm, extremism, drug experimentation, etc.); reckless disclosure

of personal data; reckless distribution of visual materials (photographs, videos) and information about oneself. The first level relates mainly to negative content, including images of violence (in films, series, computer games), content presenting behaviour that goes beyond social norms and values (manifestations of intolerance such as xenophobia, racism, and extremism) and pornography, which is also commonly available even to children under the age of eighteen. It also includes excessive time spent online, which can result in addictive behaviour related to time spent on the Internet, social networks, computer games, pornography, or gambling. The communication of personal data is also a problematic aspect of this level.

2. Risky behaviour in the Internet environment: dissemination of inappropriate content (alarming or misleading messages, content defaming race, nationality, or religion); all known forms of cyberbullying; inappropriate sexual behaviour that results in moral or other threats to others; all known forms of cybercrime. The second level represents the risk phenomena that individuals can participate in online. In some instances, the perpetrator/aggressor/initiator may also become a victim. Such risk phenomena include cyberbullying, child grooming, and sexting (Dulovics, 2018, p. 8).

Cyberbullying is an overarching term for a number of forms of online risk behaviour. It involves intentional, aggressive, and recurrent behaviour towards an individual or a group, which is difficult to defend against and which enslaves its victims. It makes use of particular information or communication technologies, such as computers, mobile phones, tablets, and other devices for the manipulation of its victims (cf. Kopecký et al., 2015). One of the principal attributes of cyberbullying is its repeated nature. Cyberbullying can be perceived as a development of traditional bullying, and its manifestations overlap with "real" forms. According to scientific literature, widely known manifestations include:

• posting of humiliating messages and photos;
• humiliation and slander;
• impersonation, misuse of a person's identity, stealing of passwords;
• causing of embarrassment through the creation of fake accounts and posting of false information on social networks;

• happy slapping;
• flaming (provoking and abusing users in online conversations);
• disclosure – i.e., making another's secrets public, thereby bringing discredit to the victim;
• cyber-harassment (constant, repeated sending of messages to the victim which is perceived as unpleasant or unwanted);
• cyber-stalking (misuse of the Internet, mobile phones or other information and communication technologies for stalking) (Černá et al., 2013, p. 25–27; Kopecký et al., 2015, p. 14–15).

Child grooming is another risk phenomenon encountered on the Internet. Children constitute the most critically vulnerable group. The term designates the behaviour of an Internet user who uses manipulative techniques not only to engender a sense of confidence in his/her victims, but also to persuade the victim to agree to personal meetings, which might ultimately result in sexual abuse, physical violence, or child abuse through the dissemination of pornographic material featuring the victim. Child grooming is akin to other "social engineering" techniques (a set of strategies on how to manipulate Internet users, how to obtain personal data and other sensitive materials, etc.), which use a set of manipulative psychological strategies to acquire personal or sensitive data of a chosen individual (Kopecký, 2013).

Sexting is also considered to form an integral part of online risk phenomena. It can be characterised as the "electronic sending of text messages, photographs, or videos with sexual content which occurs in a virtual electronic environment, especially on mobile phones and on the Internet" (Kopecký et al., 2015, p. 43). Sexting is a phenomenon of the young generation (Hollá, 2016). Young people perceive this phenomenon as an opportunity for enjoyable, intimate rapprochement, part of being in a relationship, or as an opportunity for self-presentation. Such consensual sexting is voluntary and can be considered a natural part of sexual behaviour (Hollá, 2016). The opposite of this is coercive or aggravated sexting – which involves putting a certain degree of pressure on an individual to share sexual content. The risk of this type of sexting lies in the unsanctioned use and dissemination of the acquired sexual content (Hollá, 2016), the consequences of which can affect the current and future life of individuals:

• sensitive data provided by the victim may be misused to harm (cyberbullying, manipulation, extortion etc);
• sensitive data may remain available on the Internet long-term;
• injury to social reputation and prestige may occur (involving insults, affronts, attacks, difficulties retaining one's job or maintaining social relations);
• health problems, in particular anxiety (suicidal thoughts) may result (Kopecký et al., 2015; Hollá, 2016).

An argument against engaging in any form of sexting is the fact that anyone, regardless of age, acquiring or publishing material of a sexual nature may unwittingly commit criminal offences, such as the production of child pornography, the possession of child pornography, or even the dissemination of child pornography.

The breaking of legal norms is a further attribute of risk behaviour. Cybercrime is analogous to criminality and delinquency in the real world. In the broader sense

of the word, cybercrime is any criminal activity that is perpetrated in cyberspace or through a computer network. Thus, information and communication technologies may serve either as the tool or subject of a cyberattack (cf. Kolouch, 2016, p. 34). Sixty-five countries, the Czech Republic included, have acted upon a document entitled "The Convention on Cybercrime" (ETS No. 185), encompassing four areas:
• crimes against confidentiality, integrity, and accessibility of computer data and systems;
• crimes concerning infringement of copyright and intellectual property;
• computer-oriented crimes;
• crimes involving the creation and dissemination of prejudicial (illegal or undesirable) content (e.g., child pornography, sexting, violence and extremism, child grooming, cyberbullying, spamming etc.) (cf. Křivna, Scheinost, Zoubková, 2014; Kolouch, 2016).
The convention reflects the fact that cyberbullying, aggravated sexting, cyber-stalking, and child grooming are considered significant in penal terms. Although Czech law does not recognise any of the aforementioned forms (with the exception of cyber-stalking). Nevertheless, there is a possibility to prosecute the above mentioned phenomena according to specific paragraphs of the Czech Criminal Law.

Another online risk phenomenon is netholism, defined as an addictive behaviour involving addiction to so-called virtual drugs, i.e., activities that are in some way so rewarding to individuals that they may develop a pathological need to keep repeating the activity, examples of which might include gaming, online gambling, excessive use of the Internet (and information and communication technologies in general), and dependence on social networks. It should, however, be noted that the idea of virtual drug addiction may be disputed. Linked to this phenomenon is the so-called FOMO or "fear of missing out" syndrome. It is
a syndrome that raises an individual's fear of missing phone calls, messages and other alerts. It is also possible to speak of dependence on television, which is now perceived as a convergent medium (cf. Ševčíková et al., 2014; Blinka et al., 2015; Dulovics, 2018).

The screening of online risk phenomena in university students
In 2019, we investigated the issue of the prevalence of risk phenomena in university students in a pilot study. University students were chosen as the target group, since, as Šmahaj (2011) points out, there is a dearth of studies focusing on university students and their risk behaviour (Šmahaj, 2011). Šmahaj refers, in particular, to the risk behaviour of cyberbullying. However, we wished to extend our research to encompass other domains of risk behaviour, both in an online and actual environment.

The investigation aimed to ascertain the current prevalence of risk behaviour in an online environment with regard to the gender of respondents. Areas such as addictive behaviour, negative phenomena in the psychosocial sphere, and risky sexual behaviour were investigated.

Firstly, in terms of addictive behaviour, we focused on use of the Internet and social networks; use of mobile phones, computers and other information and communication technologies; gaming; watching programmes, films, and series on television; and online gambling. Secondly, for negative phenomena in the psychosocial sphere, we focused

on cyberbullying, cyber-stalking, manifestations of intolerance on the Internet and social networks, and cybercrime. Lastly, for risky sexual behaviour, we focused on sexting (in the form of sharing erotic content on the Internet); sending of self-created erotic material, and cybersex.

Three statistical hypotheses were determined as follows:

- H1: There is a statistically important correlation between gender and addictive behaviour in cyberspace.
- H2: There is a statistically important correlation between gender and negative phenomena in the psychosocial sphere in cyberspace.
- H3: There is a statistically important correlation between gender and risky sexual behaviour in cyberspace.

The screening of online risk phenomena was conducted using a specially designed questionnaire, consisting of a preface and four parts. The preface contained an introduction by the author, followed by the purpose and aim of the questionnaire, and the code of ethics, guaranteeing the anonymity of all respondents. The subsequent four parts related to: sociodemographic information about the research, addictive behaviour, negative phenomena in the psychosocial sphere, and risky sexual behaviour. The aforementioned aspects of risk behaviour drew upon the concept of the syndrome of risk behaviour in adolescence.

As described in details in the following paragraph (The results of the screening) the respondents indicated how frequently they had participated in the risk areas mentioned above by selecting the appropriate option on a five-point scale whereby: 1 = "never", 2 = "just once", 3 = "occasionally", 4 = "often", and 5 = "regularly". In addition to this, there were two further options – "I do not know/I do not recall" (N).

To work with the acquired data, we employed a statistical significance t-test, which "compares means of two groups of cases and shows whether the two parameters differ statistically (two population means)" (Mareš, Rabušic, Soukup, 2015, p. 214/217). The t-test is supplemented by the results of the f-test. The results are presented in the form of tables.

The results of the screening
As mentioned above, data collection was completed in 2019. We used the Google Forms tool, which allowed rapid distribution of the questionnaires and facilitated data collection. In addition, respondents were able to complete the questionnaires anonymously, at their own convenience. We deemed the online questionnaire appropriate for the target group of university students since they are accustomed to using information and communication technologies on a daily basis.

The selection of respondents was conducted by employing a snowball sampling method (also known as "chain sampling", "chain-referral sampling", or "referral-sampling").

A total of 1,853 respondents completed the online survey. After checking all collected responses, 111 respondents were excluded for not meeting inclusion criteria (e.g., not being within the required age limits) or failing to state the name of their university. We also excluded high school students or university alumni. The valid research sample

thus comprised of 1,742 respondents – 702 men (40.3 %) and 1,040 women (59.7 %). The average age of the respondents was 22, and students aged 20–23 formed the largest group.

The results of research follow, showing the current state of risk behaviour prevalence in cyberspace in relation to the gender of respondents. A t-test was applied to obtain the results, which are presented in the form of tables. The following abbreviations are used: N = absolute frequency, M = mean, and SD = standard deviation.

Table 1 The results according to sphere of online risk phenomena (whole research unit)

		Addictive behaviour	Negative phenomena in the psychosocial sphere	Risky sexual behaviour
N	Valid	1.725	1.729	1.738
	Missing	1	13	4
Mean		3.3724	1.1063	1.2244
Median		3.4000	1.0000	1.0000
Mode		3.40	1.00	1.00
Standard deviation		0.52948	0.36762	0.46707

Table 1 uses descriptive statistics to show the results according to the individual spheres of online risk phenomena concerning the whole research domain. It is immediately evident that, with minor exceptions, there is almost zero prevalence of online risk phenomena. Addictive behaviour has a mean of 3.374 and a median of 3.4, indicating that the most frequent responses were "occasionally" and "often". However, in terms of relative frequency (see table 2) we can observe that the highest number of respondents chose the response "regularly" (36.4 %), followed by "never" (23.5 %). Generally, it can be stated that the target group rarely engages in risky behaviour in cyberspace, and if so, mostly as a one-off or sporadic activity (see tables 1 & 2).

Table 2 Relative frequency according to the spheres of online risk behaviour (whole research domain)

Response	Addictive behaviour (5 risk phenomena)		Negative phenomena in the psychosocial sphere (4 risk phenomena)		Risky sexual behaviour (3 risk phenomena)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Never (1)	2.037	23.5	6.553	94.3	4.512	86.4
Just once (2)	438	5.0	169	2.4	343	6.6
Occasionally (3)	1.646	19.0	146	2.1	305	5.8
Often (4)	1.400	16.1	37	0.5	29	0.6
Regularly (5)	3.160	36.4	42	0.6	33	0.6
Total	8.681	100	6.947	100	5.222	100

Note: The table contains the absolute sums of the responses on the five-point assessment scales. Each category contains totals for individual risk phenomena (see previous text).

Table 3 The domains of online risk phenomena with regard to gender

Spheres of risk phenomena	Gender	N	M	SD
Addictive behaviour[1]	Male	696	3.4868	0.56746
	Female	1.029	3.2950	0.48745
Negative phenomena in the psychosocial sphere[2]	Male	693	1.1685	0.46014
	Female	1036	1.0647	0.28240
Risky sexual behaviour[3]	Male	696	1.2480	0.54780
	Female	1029	1.2085	0.40328

Note: t-test: sig1. ,000; sig2. ,000; sig3. ,103

Table 3 shows the differences between male and female means regarding the occurrence of given behaviours. Through the testing of H1–H3 hypotheses, it was found that:

- H1: There is a statistically important correlation between gender and addictive behaviour in cyberspace.

The F-test of the means gave a result of 0.000 sig., and the subsequent t-test gave a result of 0.000 sig., which was lower than 0.05, allowing us to reject the zero hypothesis. The zero hypothesis, having thus been rejected, the H1 hypothesis could be accepted: i.e., there was a statistically important difference between gender and addictive behaviour in cyberspace.

- H2: There is a statistically important correlation between gender and negative phenomena in the psychosocial sphere in cyberspace.

The F-test of the means gave a result of 0.000 sig., and the subsequent t-test gave a result of 0.000 sig. The zero hypothesis could thus be rejected and H2 could be accepted: i.e., there was a statistically important difference between gender and negative phenomena in the psychosocial sphere in cyberspace.

- H3: There is a statistically important correlation between gender and risky sexual behaviour in cyberspace.

The F-test of the means gave a result of 0.000 sig.; thus enabling us to reject the zero hypothesis. However, the subsequent t-test gave a result of 0.103 sig. (higher than 0.05), making it impossible to reject the zero hypothesis. In consequence, the H3 hypothesis was rejected. There was no statistically important correlation between gender and risky sexual behaviour in cyberspace.

By testing H1, we found that gender had an effect on risky behaviour in an online environment in relation to addictive behaviour. The means indicated that detrimental behaviour was exhibited more frequently by male university students, although the difference was slight. Similarly, the t-test results corroborated a statistically significant relationship between the risk sphere of the online world and gender, leading us to also accept the H2 hypothesis. However, when the t-test was applied to the H3 hypothesis, no statistically significant difference was found; hence we can state that both male and female students engaged in online risky sexual activities to the same extent.

Due to the specific nature of the evaluation, the acquired data cannot readily be compared to other research. Extensive studies focus mainly on particular items of behaviour, rather than on the behavioural domain as a whole. Nevertheless, it is possible to state that a small degree of online risk behaviour in university students was confirmed, particularly in the areas of negative phenomena in the psychosocial sphere and risky sexual behaviour. It is also important to consider that had we employed a different method of evaluation, or chosen a different set of online risk phenomena, the outcome might have been different.

Conclusion

The online risk behaviour screening tested three statistical hypotheses which aimed to confirm whether there was a significant relationship between gender and risk domain in cyberspace. The research sample consisted of 702 male and 1,040 female university students aged 19–26. Although the overwhelming majority of respondents did not behave riskily, we ascertained and proved statistically significant relationships between variables by employing the t-test of statistical significance. Two of the three statistical hypotheses indicated a statistically significant difference, indicating that the occurrence of the given risk behaviours was, to a certain extent, determined by gender.

Generally, in the research sample, male university students were more prone to risk behaviours than female students. The highest degree of risk in male respondents was associated with online addictive behaviour. Meanwhile, the least dominant aspect was that of negative psychosocial phenomena in cyberspace.

When female university students did behave riskily, it was in the same areas in which male university students exhibited risk behaviour, i.e., in addictive behaviour in cyberspace, and the area of sexual behaviour. This outcome is in the agreement with the results of H3. A negligible minority of female respondents behaved riskily in the sphere of negative psychosocial phenomena, into which cyberbullying, cyber-stalking, etc. fall.

As mentioned above, the rejected hypothesis related to the statistical significance of risky sexual behaviour online. In this area, the difference in frequency between male and female university students was negligible. Our results resemble, to a certain extent, the findings of other research in the field of risk behaviour phenomena in the Czech Republic. Young men are initiators of risk behaviours more frequently than women, although the frequency levels are converging. Our research indicated a comparatively high occurrence of online addictive behaviour; however, we cannot state conclusively that respondents were "addicted" to the Internet and social networks etc. (see Table 1). The author is aware of the fact that the choice of items for this category may have contained different aspects aimed at forms of addictive behaviour.

In general, the sample did not exhibit a high level of risk behaviour in absolute terms. Risk behaviour in the university students usually occurred as a one-off incident, or, if recurrent, only in a small group of respondents. One of the main limits to the study might be the choice of items for individual risk domains represented in the questionnaire. Had we opted for a different array of risk phenomena, or if the risk areas had not been investigated as a group but in their individual forms, we may have achieved different results.

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PENITENTIARY PROGRAMS - POSSIBILITIES AND LIMITATIONS IN THE OPINION OF PENAL OFFICERS - METHODICAL GUIDELINES

Ilona Fajfer-Kruczek

Abstract

Correctional-penitentiary programs are nowadays a basis for the impact of social rehabilitation in penal institutions. The article presents the sense and assumptions of the creation and implementation of correctional programs, as well as some selected opinions of officers on the implementation and effectiveness of the programs. The final part of the article includes methodical and didactic guidelines

Keywords

penal institution, readaptation, social rehabilitation, prison

Introduction

Interactions with incarcerated individuals, called the social rehabilitation interactions, are heterogeneous in their specificity, theoretical assumptions, methods, and used techniques. However, those various methodological actions have the same goals – a change in behavior, personality, approaches, motivation and habits of the incarcerated individuals so that they would not commit further criminal offences. As stated by (Majcherczyk 2013, p. 195) "imprisonment without elements of rehabilitation does not make any sense." On the one hand, actions of social rehabilitation nature, determining the manner of the punishment in the Polish administration of justice, have a utilitarian significance and therefore may affect its measure, whereas on the other hand, they relate to individual prevention and criminological prognosis. By referring to the function of imprisonment, A. Jaworska indicates that a legislation assumption saying that the penalty of absolute imprisonment gives optimal opportunities for the social rehabilitation of the incarcerated individuals is not reflected in the study results, although the isolation itself, without social rehabilitation interactions, would constitute a departure from penitentiary work with the incarcerated in general.

The legal basis determining the rules and procedures of implementing correctional and therapeutical interactions is defined in The Executive Penal Code (Journal of Laws no. 90, item 557, Art. 95–96, Art. 249a) and particularly The Regulation no. 19/16 of the Director-General of the Prison Service dated on 14th April 2016 concerning the detailed rules of conducting and organizing penitentiary work and the scope of activities of officers and employees of penitentiary and therapeutic departments and penitentiary divisions.

This article says about the basic theoretical assumptions to create and implement correctional programs, their conditions and provides the review on opinions of managers and correctional educators about their implementation as well as methodological guidelines for certain elements of a correctional program.

Terminological assumptions

Criminogenic and social maladjustment factors are most often indicated as passive and dynamic. The former comprise some kind of a fact that cannot be changed but which may serve for the purpose of explaining the mechanism of a certain, undesirable behavior – as the example one may give a process of growing up in a dysfunctional family. Understanding and identification of criminogenic factors in the history of life of certain incarcerated individuals seem to be essential and even necessary for adequate and effective social rehabilitation interactions. It is then not sufficient to be aware of their existence but also about their manner and the dynamics with which they directly or indirectly affect people subject to penalization. All the more some static and dynamic factors are related with each other, where the latter may result from the former. There are various reasons for coming into conflict with the law, but one should bear in mind that the incarceration in the correctional system fulfills a few functions at the same time (insulating, deterrent, retaliatory, compensatory, corrective) (Ciosek, 2001, p. 176–178), and its main goal is of a primary nature: counteracting return to crime, return to society and proper functioning (social readaptation) and protection of society against crime (Tadla, 2003, p. 176).

Criminogenic factors, type of the committed crime, as well as the specific features of the incarcerated individuals shall be taken into account when constructing a principle related to the appropriate system of serving the sentence of imprisonment, as well as the methods of rehabilitation, therapy and preventive actions (Kwieciński, 2013). And although in the correctional practice the concept of "penitentiary interaction" is abandoned and replaced with a term 'program' (Jaworska, 2008, p.100), one should bear in mind that the former refers to professional actions taken both in the scope of the program and beyond it, i.e. a personal impact (motivating conversation) and others. The literature defines the social rehabilitation program as '(...) the social rehabilitation program which is focused on the change in dynamic criminogenic factors and thus it directly serves the implementation of a superior goal of the imprisonment, i.e. preventing the return of the incarcerated person to a crime (Majcherczyk, 2013, p. 195). This definition is very consistent and the same as the purpose of imprisonment.

The common understanding of social rehabilitation, as institutional, one-sided action raises the argument that responsibility for success and failure lies with the social rehabilitators,

not the subjects of their influence. Therefore I suggest to adopt a working definition of a program, which is a methodically designed set of tasks creating situations (in certain time and space), in order to evoke specific inter – and intra – interactions, reactions, and inter – and intrapersonal processes. Creation of optimal conditions and opportunities to induce and consolidate the desired behavior and properties of inmates.

One should also pay attention to the specific factors of success or the failure of correctional social rehabilitation programs which A. Majcherczyk founds as 'the features of the program itself, properties of the interveners (change agents), personality of the incarcerated included in the program, type of the problem subject to the remedy, a manner of the program implementation into practice, features of the institution in which the program is used, etc. Factors of effective social rehabilitation according to D.A. Andres (1995) and J. Bont (1997) based on the following programs (for: Ciosek, 2009, p. 333–334; Jaworska, 2008, p. 96–98):

- a degree of hazard related to the return to crime – correctional programs should be directed to the incarcerated at a middle and high level of risk within returning to criminal activity;
- individual criminogenic factors which determine the needs of social rehabilitation – attitudes, cognitive deficits, deficits in emotional, social and intellectual development;
- adapting the program to the capabilities of the incarcerated individuals and motivating them to participation and change;
- freedom of action of penitentiary staff – possibility of making decisions on the basis of one's own competences, assessment of the situation without the interference of superiors;
- program integrity – programs should be implemented in accordance with theoretical assumptions of multidimensional and individualized, flexible character.

One of the most general conclusions which one may draw when trying to sum up the knowledge on penitentiary social rehabilitation conditions, is they care about the program quality (reference to the theory, accuracy of the assumed goals and effects, schedule, staged structure of actions, idea), the quality of its implementation into practice (staff potential – qualifications and scope of activity (especially as it results from the assumption and practice where the authors of most programs are penitentiary officers (Froelich, 2008, p. 70–71), selection of participants, preparation of appropriate background, flexibility, financing, external support) and creation of appropriate institutional conditions, cooperation of various divisions (institution's climate, institutional resources). As stated by (Froelich, 2008, p. 75), "(...) implementation of programs does not meet all social rehabilitation expectations". (Dubiel, 2008, p. 107) in turn indicates in his works that some present penitentiary interactions are not of a social rehabilitation character and serve only to the 'reduction of the tense among the incarcerated and creation of the system safety valves'. In his considerations, (Górny, 1996, p. 69) indicated the awareness of contradiction lying in the concept of imprisonment itself and in manners of its performance as well as the factors hindering or even preventing the achievement of social rehabilitation purposes which are included in the provisions of criminal law. The negative effects of penitentiary isolation are dominant, however, as stated by (Poklek, 2010, p. 71–73), there are also some positive effects, like e.g.

satisfying the most important needs among the incarcerated, possibility of healthcare, rehabilitation, abstinence and actions of a therapeutical and social character which are included in the programs.

Methodological assumptions
The aim of the study was to determine the feeling of competence within creating and implementing penitentiary programs among correctional educators, as well as a diagnosis of methodological support needs and the opinion on the conditions for effectiveness. The main research problem was contained in the question. What are the experiences and opinions of educators penitentiary in implementing programs penitentiary? The study was conducted in cooperation with the Regional Directorate Prison Service in Katowice in subordinate units in 2018 during two trainings and methodological conferences at the University of Silesia – Faculty of Ethnology and Educational Sciences in Cieszyn. At this time a diagnostic survey has been used (survey – educators, penitentiary managers). In total, 56, completely fulfilled survey questionaries were collected. The study conducted among officers from the Regional Inspectorate of the Prison Service in Katowice included mostly men (50); there were only 6 women subjected to the study. The study sample has been shown in the table 1, in juxtaposition with regard to sex, average age of respondents, length of service and average number of implemented correctional programs. Unfortunately, due to a clear disproportion in terms of gender, there is no basis for comparison and formation of unequivocal statements as to the degree of involvement in the implementation of programs by women and men. Opinions of correctional educators and managers on the programs' subject matter.

The specificity of working in a penitentiary unit and direct passage of the provisions on the requirement to implement programs prompts each respondent to implement at least one program. In the questionnaires, some respondents also indicated the total number of programs implemented, as well as the number of programs currently implemented by them in person. The opinion shows that one educator carries out from 1 to 8 programs simultaneously. It is difficult to guess whether the number of the conducted programs is reflected in their effectiveness as there is no such information resulting from data, yet we may assume that this situation requires both good organization of work and a range of specialistic qualifications within the program conduction and management.

Table 1

Sex	The average age (in years)	The average length of work in the Prison Service (in years)	The average number of programs conducted by 1 person
Women (Nk=6)	34	5.6	3
Men (Nm=50)	37	10.7	8

Source: the author's own study

The most frequently indicated obstacles/difficulties in the effective implementation and efficiency of the penitentiary programs, indicated by the surveyed correctional educators and managers, have been shown in the Table 2. The respondents' task was to indicate obstacles and difficulties in their own words, the statements were grouped thematically and cited as examples. As it results from the collected data, the surveyed officers refer to their own limits, which in their opinion result mostly from the lack of time and being burdened with obligations and procedures, which is certainly reflected in the time spent on preparation, implementation, and evaluation of the implemented programs. Another important issue presented by the surveyed is the insufficient financing of programs and insufficient infrastructure, certainly one may say that some interactions do not require any additional measures to be taken as the penitentiary staff consists of mainly qualified pedagogues, although both infrastructure and methodological preparation are significant in terms of motivating the incarcerated and any insufficiencies may prove the apparent professionalization of activities. Other, no less important, but less frequently mentioned difficulties are those related to motivating the incarcerated to changes and generally to their participation in the programs, as well as issues related to the rotation of the incarcerated, difficulties in the programs implementation in pre-trial detention centers, long waiting for addiction therapies. In view of the above, the officers treat the interactions through the programs as an additional obligation, jeopardized by the risk of effectiveness in the absence of sufficient time for preparation and implementation and resulting from the non-adaption of the penitentiary system in the scope of financing and infrastructure to the real effectiveness of such activities.

Table 2

Obstacles and difficulties in the implementation and effectiveness of the social rehabilitation programs in the opinions of the Prison Service representatives.	Number of indications
Lack of time	53
Educators being burdened with paperwork (bureaucracy)	42
Insufficient financial means (for remuneration, new employees, materials for the implementation of the programs, inadequacy of means designed for the program assumptions)	40
Insufficient infrastructure (lack of premises, lack of base, architectural limitations, equipment, etc.)	38
Protection procedures (difficulties in possibility to use props, didactic help, individualization of interactions, time of classes, etc.)	13
Lack of involvement among the incarcerated (apparent voluntariness, doubtful motivation to implement program classes and others).	12
Others: lack of understanding among the incarcerated, apparent program implementation, incomplete program cycle, no specialistic courses finished by the educators; length of waiting for the addiction therapy programs, insufficient cooperation with the art. 38, rotation of the incarcerated and others	11

Source: the author's own study

Among different types and forms of social rehabilitation interactions, the respondents indicated the following types as the most effective: paid and unpaid work (57 persons), addiction therapy programs (40 persons), programs about handling stress and anger and programs of work with perpetrators of domestic violence (23 persons); as well as other types and forms of social rehabilitation interactions implemented as a part of cultural and educational classes, programs based on sport, religious meetings, talks based on a motivational dialogue, programs orientated for relations with family and volunteering. It is assumed that such a perception of effectiveness is the result of social beliefs about the natural activity of adults through paid work or as an activity in action in general, as well as standardized observations and unified programs, although most of the implemented programs are of an original character, in particular under the assumption that the program is dedicated to particular group. It is worth noting that 12 people have indicated again that the participation in the correctional programs is often apparently voluntary, and the participants' motivation is sometimes non-substantive and instrumental.

Another issue related with the implementation of programs is the evaluation, often identified with estimation of the effectiveness. According to the assumptions of the social

rehabilitation and the program goals, the effects prove the effectiveness. However, it is difficult to determine in conditions of isolation how the person previously subject to penalty will behave in conditions of freedom and what kind of choice they will eventually make. Internalization of norms and values, apart from gaining a binding knowledge about mechanisms of undesirable phenomena, the causality of events, the effects of crime, as well as building social competences are mostly beyond external influences. However, formal actions should have a raison d'être (reason for existence) and should be monitored in order to be effective. The surveyed group was asked to precise in what way they evaluate programs, the vast majority indicated that they use a survey as a tool to do it (43 respondents), tests – including tests on knowledge – 6 respondents, 2 respondents indicated the work results. It points out to a real possibility of reference to measurable indicators, but rather to the opinions of the program participants, not to the assessment of knowledge or skills. 42 officers working in the region of Katowice indicated their need for methodological and substantive support in the creation and realization of penitentiary programs, among others: exemplary, sample programs, methodological guidelines, manuals, substantive consultations, bibliographic lists, external partners, workshops and trainings. What is more, 34 respondents have estimated their own competencies to create original programs as sufficient, 12 – as insufficient, 7 respondents have estimated their own competencies in this field as very strong, 2 respondents have given the answer 'I don't know'.

Instead of conclusion – selected elements of the correctional program – methodological hints

Below, general guidelines for the methodical preparation of correctional programs are presented, from the indication of didactic principles to practical guidelines.

1. The program manager should be clearly identified – especially the coordinator. The program should be carried out individually, e.g. by an educator or by a team. Important people who may be partners or managers.

2. Subject matter of the program along with a brief justification of the importance of the actions taken. Short description of theoretical background for the planned activities along with indication the program type and role.

3. Characteristics of the population of incarcerated individuals, which may be determined by:
   - categories of the incarcerated; juveniles, individuals serving a sentence for the first time, penitentiary recidivists;
   - criteria and rules based on: negative diagnosis of deficits (who can and who cannot participate in the program), the Individual Program of Interactions (indications), length of the sentence still to be served, the educator's opinion, the psychologist's opinion, positive diagnosis (certain skills, motivation, qualifications); qualification of participants – the Penitentiary Commission;
   - number of participants; for logistical and organizational reasons as well as the substantive premises, the number of participants should be indicated – total, in a group, in the edition (minimum-maximum).

It is worth referring to the rule of a voluntary act. The expressed willingness to participate is binding, as is the written request of the inmate, although, as indicated by the opinions of officers of the penitentiary division, the motivation to join is sometimes non – substantive.

4. The penitentiary program description should include in a more or less complex way the main goal, place of performance, period of duration, methods

5. and techniques of interactions, materials and educational measures that are necessary for the program implementation. Within the social rehabilitation interaction it is preferred to define long-term goals (in particular: to reduce the risk of returning to crime, bad habits, risk and destructive behaviors, change in social identity, social reintegration, elimination of criminogenic factors)

6. and short-term goals – verification in the course of and after the completion of the program in an unit: behavior modification, emotional reconstruction, shaping correct social attitudes) (Jaworska, 2012).

The main aim should be real, measurable and should refer to the subject matter of the correctional program and the effect to be achieved.

Specific objectives should refer to the detailed operational effects that make up the achievement of the specific objective. They should be formulated in accordance with the assumed and verified effects in the scope of knowledge, skills and attitudes/competences.

Place of performance is usually a penitentiary unit (taking into account e.g. specific departments, a space where the planned activities may take place: common-room, lecture, computer, therapeutical halls, study rooms, social premises, workshops, open-air space and other); and/or e.g. an institution (the place where a program or its part is carried out outside the unit, i.e. hospice, animal shelter, etc.).

Duration is specified by a schedule which determines the total length of the program implementation together with evaluation, including certain stages and frequency and the time of duration of certain activities.

Methods and techniques of interactions should be formulated according to the conceptual terminology, e.g. assimilating, emotional or operative methods; or anthropotechnics, social engineering, culture engineering; or one's own work - individual and teamwork – work in groups (free, random, purposeful).

Educational materials and measures necessary for the purpose of the program implementation, are used to determine the resources and direct costs of the program, as well for the purpose of its effective implementation.

The most frequently used **methods and techniques**: lecture, talk, reading, show, presentation, audiovisual methods, projection and/or recording of a film, music, group work, role-playing, training, professional workshops, creative workshops, activating methods, methods in recreational and sports activities. Materials, didactic aids worth thinking about when planning and verifying the unit's resources and budget include – content sources, literature, script, props, multimedia presentation, computer hardware, software, audio, video, photo equipment, dictaphone, course scenarios (instructions), solution sheets, teaching materials – teaching aids, demonstration models, specialist equipment, sports equipment, games, instructions.

7. Manner of implementation – the proper program is a description of the course and the idea. This part may be formulated by indicating e.g. **the modules** – a series of classes reflecting the next level of involvement, skills, knowledge: **stages** – a series of classes for one or more groups, particularly facilitating the description and organization of the program of which effect is to obtain certificates, degrees of improvement, creation of work, implementation of system: **meetings** – chronologically ordered, e.g. numbered descriptions of successive meetings in a series of the program together with the description of the course – they do not have to be related to each other by the participation in the previous ones.

Another way to present the correct assumptions of the program is **a manner of implementation according to groups**, e.g. educational and training group (language groups – educational program level description), therapeutical group: psychotherapeutic – description of activities, sociotherapeutical group – description of activities, support group – description of activities.

Another possibility to present the form of the program implementation is the **manner of interactions** - e.g. – preventive classes, therapeutical classes, educational classes, sport/recreation activities (tournaments, competitions), stages of advancement, artistic classes, e.g. rehearsals, play, animation, exhibition, concert, recording, individual consultancies for participants. Other types of the program implementation form: competition, visit, trip, etc.

It is important to attach scenarios/synopses for certain stages, classes.

8. **Evaluation process outline.** "Evaluation is the process of systematical gathering of information about actions, properties and effects of the programs, staff and products which are used by specialist to reduce uncertainty around the program and improve its efficiency, and help make decisions about what the programs, personnel or products do and what they relate to (Robson, 1997, p. 152).

9. Evaluation of the penitentiary program may be – **internal**, conducted by the program managers (at every stage, individually by every manager, coordinator) or other staff, including in particular the penitentiary manager, the Penitentiary Commission. **External** evaluation – allows to objectively determine the course and effectiveness of the program. The evaluation should not be any form of control, it should serve as a support for managers, modification or creation of new programs which take into account the resources and hindering factors (Marczak, Pawełek, 2009). In the process of evaluation, it is difficult to determine the effectiveness of the program when participants simultaneously participate in the programs with similar purposes at the same time or they have participated in such programs in the other units in a short-time period. A list of goals should be formed already at the stage of planning – effects and possibilities of their verification, evaluation, documentation with considering the time, measures and human resources appointed for these tasks. **Methods of evaluation**: surveys, tests, rating scales, verification interviews, observations, notes and protocols, attendance sheets, documentation; moving to the next module/stage/level, obtaining a certificate, statistics: number of people trained, number of people who completed skill training, therapy series; results of work, artistic works, opinion of educators, psychologists and others.

Finally, it is worth pointing out to the triad of the social rehabilitation program that determines its effectiveness – the idea and preparation of the program, implementation and involvement of its participants.

The methodological recommendations themselves, in reference to the preparation of the penitentiary program, are not a warrant for its effectiveness, yet the awareness of certain elements in the process of planning makes it possible to achieve goals, motivates the officers to draft lists of human and material resources as well as of formal and procedural difficulties, time limits. What is more, the involvement of educators increases a chance for the program interaction success as it enables interaction between staff and participants, particularly in the aspect of motivating to create one's own image, change of attitudes, influencing one's current well-being.

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DISCUSSION

DRUG COURT: A SUCCESSFUL PREVENTION FOR RECIDIVISM

LeAnn Howell

Abstract

With the effects of the War on Drugs still evident in the number of drug addicted offenders committed to the prison system in the U.S., the need for effective prevention of recidivism is apparent. Drug Treatment Courts (Drug Court Programs) are an increasingly popular alternate sentencing option for offenders charged with non-violent drug related crimes. Current research and judicial experience indicate that Drug Court Programs are successful in reducing/preventing re-offense of drug related crimes for those participants who complete the program.

Keywords

Often when we consider prevention, we assume the goal is to stop something before it starts. However, in the case of social pathologies such as drug abuse and related crimes, prevention can be initiated at various points of the addictive process. Communities rocked by substance abuse issues, and the myriad of ills that follow, may be left wondering what they could have done to prevent the problem. Unfortunately, for persons suffering from substance abuse disorders, early intervention and prevention efforts to address drug use and abuse, if any, appear to have failed, and these persons may find themselves behind bars as a direct result of their drug use. As difficult as prevention may be prior to addiction or entanglement with the criminal justice system, there is hope for treating addictive disorders and preventing reoffence of drug-related crimes. Drug Court is one such model of recidivism prevention that appears to be successful. Before looking at that success, it is best to understand the magnitude of the drug problem in the United States, and various measures undertaken to address it.

In the 1970's, with drug-related crimes drastically rising, the United States passed laws and legislation bringing about the "War on Drugs", which changed the face of our prison systems, and brought to light the dire need to address the obvious problem of drug addiction. This War on Drugs was intended to reduce drug use and the subsequent related crimes. To date, however, these extreme measures have failed (Patterson, 2020). Nevertheless, with the institution of these harsher penalties, drug related crimes continued to rise. As stated by Schmalleger (2020, p. 54), "Today, the total number of drug arrests

in the United States exceeds the annual number of arrests for any other crime, (including Driving Under the Influence) and helps explain why arrest rates in this country are not declining with anywhere near the speed of declines in official crime rates".

Rather than dealing with the underlying issue of substance abuse and dependence, the War on Drugs was aimed at heightening punishment as a deterrent, and resulted in harsher penalties, mandatory minimum sentences, and nearly tripled the average number of persons incarcerated for drug-related offenses. Between 1970 and 1989, for example, drug-related arrests resulting in incarceration increased from 415,000 to 1.3 million, with total prison populations exploding from roughly 200,000 persons incarcerated to over 2 million (Stemen, 2017). There is no evidence that these high numbers of arrests and incarceration had any positive impact on the offender's substance use or abuse, and in fact, it is known that most persons incarcerated for drug offenses are in need of treatment. It has been estimated in 2010 that 85% of persons serving time for drug-related crimes needed substance abuse treatment (Behind Bars II, 2010). Unfortunately, those released without benefit of treatment will, more than likely, reoffend. Despite the stiffer penalties and mass incarcerations, drug related crimes and arrests continued to grow, rising at record pace. As stated by retired District Judge, Michael J. Haley, (2016, p. 187) "Even to the casual observer, it is apparent that we cannot incarcerate our way out of the "drug problem" – not that we haven't tried.".

As a result of the ever-growing problem of drug abuse and the ensuing War on Drugs, various early prevention models and campaigns made their way onto the scene. These efforts were primarily aimed at youth, and the majority of which used guilt or fear as the main tool of determent. Public service campaigns such as "Just Say No", a morality campaign headed by then first lady, Nancy Reagan, aimed to reduce drug use and was directed to children. These PSAs were aired multiple times throughout any given day on prime-time television, and oversimplified the problem of peer pressure by indicating that abstinence is as easy as "just saying no".

The most well-known of the drug use deterrent models was D.A.R.E. (Drug Abuse Resistance Education). D.A.R.E. was originated in 1983 and operated under the "Just Say No" philosophy. D.A.R.E was the largest school-based drug prevention program, and by 2007, 26 million American children had participated, with nearly 36 million children world-wide. Despite these numbers, teens participating in the program were equally likely to use drugs as those with no intervention (Pan & Bai, 2009). Dennis Rosenbaum (2007, p. 815) went so far as to say: "In light of consistent evidence of ineffectiveness from multiple studies with high validity, public funding of the core D.A.R.E program should be eliminated or greatly reduced.".

In addition to "moral campaigns" such as Just Say No and D.A.R.E., approaches intend to scare youth from using drugs also surfaced, and were also ineffective. Commercials using visual imaging of an egg frying in hot grease, followed by a somber announcer claiming "this is your brain on drugs" also made the airwaves. Another "scare tactic" that found brief popularity was the "Scared Straight" movement, followed by the A&E reality T.V. series, "Beyond Scared Straight", which took at-risk youth from their homes and classrooms and introduced them to life behind prison bars. Little evidence supports

the effectiveness of these scare tactics, and in fact, many view them as doing more harm than good (Petrosino, et al, 2013).

In spite of the plethora of interventions taking shape, by the late 1980s and early 1990s the entire U.S. criminal justice system was inundated with drug-addicted offenders. For anyone who has worked in the criminal justice system, as has this author, the "revolving door" of offenders is apparent. The same persons arrested multiple times for the same offenses makes clear the need to address the issues behind the crimes. Efforts to address the growing problem resulted in the institution of multiple community-based treatment programs, one of which was Drug Treatment Courts in their various forms. The first Drug Court was developed in Dade County, Florida in 1989. Unlike the punitive measures highlighted in the War on Drugs, Drug Court offered substance abuse treatment, and emphasized recovery and rehabilitation rather than punishment. Based on the principle of therapeutic jurisprudence, a paradigm that assists in directing court interventions toward improving the lives of clients, Drug Court addressed addiction according to the disease concept. Dade County's Drug Court became the "prototype" for future drug treatment courts. (The First 20 Years, 2009; Patterson, 2020).

Drug Court is considered an alternate form of sentencing, as it offers defendants who have been charged with non-violent drug related crimes an alternative to incarceration as long as certain conditions and requirements are met. Drug Court is a prevention model aimed at preventing re-offense, thereby reducing recidivism, and continues to show promise as a community-based intervention that helps keep participating individuals out of the criminal justice system (Shannon, et al, 2018). Drug Court philosophies reject the outdated notions holding that persons who abuse drugs and alcohol are morally flawed and view the defendant as a person suffering from the illness of addiction. This includes a team-oriented collaborative approach to treatment, requiring court personnel such as judges, prosecutors and defense attorneys, as well as community mental health care providers and co-participants, to work together for the goal of sobriety (The First 20 Years,). As stated by Belenko, (2019, p.12), "Drug Court is one of the few extant criminal justice models in which staff actively support treatment and recovery".

The following key elements of Drug Court have been identified by the National Association of Drug Court Professionals:

• Prompt identification of clients and their immediate placement in treatment;

• Non-adversarial court proceedings enacted by a team of judges, attorneys, and treatment providers and designed to protect community safety as well as defendants' and offenders' due process rights;

• Regular contact between clients and judges in judicial status hearings or other types of court sessions;

• Intensive supervision practices that include close monitoring and frequent, random drug testing of clients;

• Treatment interventions that are delivered on a continuum of care, evidence-based, comprehensive, and integrated for individuals with co-occurring psychiatric disorders;

• Contingencies of rewards and punishments that encourage compliance with treatment and other conditions of program participation;

- Ongoing evaluations to monitor program implementation and measure the accomplishment of program objectives and goals;
- Close working relationships with a wide range of community service providers and public agencies; and Interdisciplinary educational opportunities to help program staff stay current with the latest advances in offender drug treatment and case management strategies (The First 20 Years, 2009, p. 4-5).

Drug Courts are based on voluntary participation, are very structured, and require a high degree of interaction with participants. As of 2009, there were 2140 active Drug Courts in the U.S., with 284 new Drug Court programs in various stages of development. Most courts do not provide the actual treatment, as they often lack the expertise, and therefore treatment services are referred out to community professionals. (Patterson, 2020)

The efficacy of Drug Courts has been documented in many ways. Jewell, et al (2016) undertook to measure recidivism from multiple perspectives and time periods, noting success both short and long term. Specific long-term success was noted when comparing Drug Court graduates to those who were terminated from the program and those who voluntarily declined participation. Many variables were considered such as age, gender, education, and race, but regardless of these variables, findings overwhelmingly indicate Drug Court as an effective prevention for recidivism. Weinrath, et al (2019), in one of the few Canadian studies examining Drug Court efficacy, highlighted graduation from Drug Court as the single greatest predictor of success and noted Drug Court as an effective prevention for recidivism. As further evidence of Drug Court graduation being highly predictive of success, one researcher found that Drug Court graduates were 11 times more likely not to reoffend than those terminated from the program (Gallagher, 2014). Gallagher (2014) also indicated that Drug Court efficacy may be enhanced by focusing on retention through increasing drug testing and supervision during the first 30 days. One researcher who included concrete numbers in his findings stated "[Drug Court] Participants have lower recidivism than nonparticipants with the average effect of participation being analogous to a drip in recidivism from 50% to 38%" (Mitchell, et al, 2012, p. 60).

In an interview with the Honorable John McCarty, District Judge presiding over the 38th Judicial District of Kentucky, and a founding developer of that district's first Drug Court program, both success and limitations were discussed. He views the Drug Court program as a successful prevention for recidivism. In his experience of 20 years working with Drug Court, many changes have taken place. One in particular is that in the beginning, Drug Court practitioners were averse to using medical interventions, more than likely a carry over from historical views of addiction and substance use being symptoms of a flawed personality. In his view, as Drug Court personnel began to work in earnest toward helping defendants repair their lives, it became necessary to understand addiction as a medical condition, and not a character flaw. He compared the beginning substance use that grows into abuse and dependence to the over consumption of sweets by the person who develops diabetes. This understanding led to the realization that before treatment could be successful, several questions must be addressed such as "What made the person use drugs in the first place?"; "How can the courts deal with cooccurring mental

illness?"; and "How can we help defendants modify behaviors?". These questions led to the development of the current Drug Court approach using both court personnel and outside mental health professionals. (J.M. McCarty, personal communication, January 21, 2021). (As the interviewer it should be noted that this author was employed by the Kentucky State Prosecutor's Advisory Council and worked closely with Judge McCarty for nearly eight years).

In the Ohio County Drug Court Program, defendants meet in the court room a minimum of twice weekly. In these meetings, "homework" assigned the week before is presented, the defendant's progress with outside therapy or counseling is discussed, and the defendant may be drug tested. Participants are encouraged to discuss events throughout the previous week that may have been either encouraging, or a stumbling block. When a participant starts the Drug Court Program, they are informed that they are subject to random drug testing, and that any refusal of testing is considered as a "positive" drug test. The combination of counseling and accountability through testing may be one of the many reasons for success. While intensive supervision practices may be viewed as having elements of social control; i.e. the imposition of curfews, random drug testing, and even the possibility of home visits, when paired with the support network provided, Drug Court can be viewed as a multi-system, person-centered intervention, and it works (Belenko, 2019).

In Judge McCarty's experience, one possible limitation to success is the age of the defendant. He states that younger participants (18 – 24 years of age) are at a disadvantage because they are still developing as individuals, not to mention that it is now widely accepted that prefrontal cortex development in the brain takes place well into the 20s. While he has noted successes in these younger participants, he believes that the over 25 age group has been the most successful at continuing sobriety, and thus lowering recidivism. Another limitation may be in the treatment services provided. Since most courts refer defendants for substance abuse treatment services outside the court system, but within the community, outcomes can be adversely impacted if the quality of services provided is sub-standard (Belenko, 2019). It should be made clear that Judge McCarty believes the outside services provided by community professionals in the 38th Judicial District are exemplar.

In conclusion, research would indicate that Drug Courts are successful in reducing recidivism and may be more effective with the 25 and over age group. Some considerations for increasing efficacy may include focusing on retention for the first 30 days by increasing contact between the participant and Drug Court personnel, and the increase of drug testing through this period. In addition, the qualifications and quality of available community mental health practitioners should be taken into consideration. Overall, in reviewing the available research and literature on Drug Court efficacy, it is evident that there is a preponderance of evidence holding Drug Court as a successful model for recidivism prevention.

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REPORTS ON LITERATURE

OF WOUNDED BIRDS (AND MORE BESIDES)

Vlasta Cabanová

Lauček, A. (2020). *O ranených vtáčatách (nie iba tak) [Of Wounded Birds (And More Besides)]*. Námestovo: Kubík.

Much has already been written about integration and social inclusion in professional pedagogical, psychological, and psychopathological literature. But how to raise awareness and acceptance of "otherness" in the public at large?

2020 saw the publication, by Námestovo, of a very interesting and stimulating book – the twelfth in the "Just Like That" series, already well-known to readers. It is a slim volume, bearing the title *"Of Wounded Birds (And More Besides)"*. This artistically worked narrative tackles a burning issue that deserves to occupy far more space in professional and artistic literature – the lives of handicapped children and their parents today. Children with special needs are the "wounded birds", beset by obstacles and pitfalls. In terms of its difficult subject matter, it is almost unique among the many new books published in Slovak (and probably not only in Slovak).

The book takes the form of a collection of (fictionalized) journalistic works: micro-stories, features, reminiscences and reflections. In the preface, author Anton Lauček tells how he based the book on "the events and experiences lived through and acquired by the parents of children with special needs, and their therapists", which are sensitively recounted and rounded out by Lauček. The various stories are a mirror of our times, largely reflecting the moral state of contemporary society – a society formed increasingly of self-interested individuals who put their own needs above those of others. Often, indifference, selfishness – even ruthlessness – are evident in their decisions and actions, taken with little regard for the impact on others.

At the end of the book is the true account of a father who cares for a disabled child, in which we learn of their hardships and struggles – a never-ending hill which the family must climb anew each day. The father goes to work to provide for his wife and dependants, to keep up the mortgage payments so the family does not end up on the streets. In addition, he takes his son to physiotherapy, and exercises with him at home every day. Meanwhile, society offers little to families in such a position. Living on the brink of poverty, he is left to find whatever help he can get, since the costs of physiotherapy and quality mobility aids can amount to thousands of euros.

The stories in the book are divided into two parts. The first: *"To Think About"*, presents the (mostly negative) experiences of parents, detailing how they contend with the barriers that life with a disabled child throws up in our society *(The Soccer player, Ave Maria, In their own hands, Smile, Hand Surgery, A Mother's Statement ...)*. The second part: *"For a Smile"*, consists of tales with a touch of humour, offering the reader some respite – after all, even lives such as these have their funny side *(Gift, Baptism, Ink, On the Carpet to Paradise, The Most Beautiful Word...)*, and, according to Anton Lauček, "a smile is free and is sometimes more help than anything else".

Lauček also writes about other people – about us – because commonly, in our pursuit of money, property, titles, success, and plaudits, we forget about handicapped children. He reminds us that if we wish to act nobly, first and foremost we must help those most in need, like "wounded birds".

The cover by Jaroslav Magu, suggesting a child's face, is wonderfully eloquent: on one side of a wooden scales are stones, on the other side only a feather. Yet the lighter load can gradually outweigh the heavier, with just a helping touch...

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EXAMPLE OF GOOD PRACTICE

MODELING BEHAVIORS IN THE SOCIAL WORK CLASSROOM TO ENCOURAGE AN EARLY PROFESSIONAL STANCE IN STUDENTS

Greta McDonough

I came to teaching social work classes slowly and in mid-career. I had never aspired to teach, and, if I am honest, I never thought of myself as a teacher. I had worked as a college counselor and a trainer for business and industry, but not as a full-time professor. In the early days of teaching, I struggled because my orientation differed from the traditional format of college teaching. My philosophy was rooted in the concepts of andragogy, the field of adult learning, as espoused by the late Malcolm Knowles.

From the beginning I viewed myself as a partner in my student's education, a colleague, in fact. Perhaps I was a more learned colleague than they at the moment and they were very young, very inexperienced colleagues, but still, our job was to work together. I was to impart theory and knowledge and help them develop discernment and compassion for their work with clients. Their goal was to come prepared to learn, to question, to master the material in order to help their cli-ents competently and ethically. My goal was to show them how.

In essence, I saw it as my goal to create in them colleagues I would want to work with in a few years.

Because I taught lower level classes, and they were learning the foundations of helping, it seemed imperative that I begin demonstrating the professional stance of an ethical and competent social worker from the first class. I decided to put into practice in the classroom the values and ethics of our field. I felt strongly that to teach competent and ethical practice, I must personally model it – every day with every interaction with my students. In effect, I set about interacting with students in the same ways their textbooks instructed them to interact with clients.

I turned to the National Association of Social Work's Code of Ethics and the values listed there, as a place to start. One guiding principle is this: Social workers respect the inherent dignity and worth of the person. (NASW Ethical Principle Three.) So often I overheard students discussing experiences in other classes, classes where professors belittled or embarrassed them, classes where they were treated, not as equals worthy of respect, but objects for the professor's ego, anger, or frustration. Imagine this treatment in a social work classroom. Who can teach students about positive regard and the dignity of all people, while demonstrating in the treatment of the student, the exact opposite?

By viewing my students as future colleagues at the beginning of their training, the relationship developed quite naturally into one of mentor and protege, and therefore helped ease the atmos-phere in the classroom into one trust, openness, safety and mutual

positive regard.

Another value in the NASW Code of Ethics is integrity. (NASW Ethical Principle Five.) I worked to demonstrate that by always being truthful, kind, perhaps, but truthful. If they all did poorly on an exam or project, we talked about it as a group. I didn't sugar-coat the results, and I usually asked on the dread day I turned back bad papers, "What happened?" And almost always they would tell me. I would then ask, "Was there something I might have done differently to have helped improve your grade?" And they told me that, too. Students will be amazingly honest if they have no fear of reprisal or ridicule.

I honored the rules established in class. In US colleges the syllabus is the contract between the faculty member and student. I followed the calendar I presented to students, did not veer from the grading scale, did not blindside them with unexpected assignments. If changes had to be made, they were made with full awareness and accommodation of students, and well in advance of the due dates.

One of the first ethical standards in the NASW Code of Ethics is the client's right to self-determination. (NASW Code of Ethics Standard 1.02). In the classroom, this was an overarching standard of ethical practice. The student has a right to determine if, or if not, they will do the work. Of course we are available to them for additional help if they struggle with the material or concepts. But assuming we have given clear instructions and expectations, the student now has the ball and takes it from here.

I will confess to you here, before I fully embraced this concept as a working tenet of my class-room, I took it personally, at least just a little, when students did not perform well on assign-ments. But, in truth, my students are adults, even the younger ones, and they have the right to do or not do. My class may or may not be the most important concern in their life right now. I have provided what is expected of me. If a students fails to honor his or her end of the contract, the student, makes the decision. The professor is not part of the decision-making equation.

One of the most positive outcomes of adjusting my teaching philosophy to align with specific social work values is this. The classroom atmosphere seemed charged each day with collegiality between students and professor and between the students themselves. There is an engaged and supportive climate, there is a trust that allows for students to delve into upsetting and difficult material. Students begin to deepen their passion for the work, feeling as they do, however subtly, the respect and mutual support of the professor as fellow colleague.

Works Cited

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