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About the Journal

The University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign School of Social Work's annual publication, *Journal of Undergraduate Social Work Research (JUSWR)*, showcases peer reviewed undergraduate research from social work and related disciplines that contribute to the advancement of social and economic justice.

Acknowledgements

We would like to express our gratitude to Dean Steven Anderson for supporting our efforts to continue publishing undergraduate student's original work in the Journal of Undergraduate Social Work Research (JUSWR). We also thank the School of Social Work faculty for the encouragement they extended to the authors of the JUSWR 5th issue. We further wish to acknowledge and extend a very special thanks to Rachel Garthe, PhD; Shongha Kim, MSW; Tara Earls Larrison, PhD; and Catherine Prendergast, PhD, for their extraordinary mentoring, guidance, and support on behalf of the student authors.

Dr. Rachel Garthe is our Undergraduate Research Program Coordinator. She brings her enthusiasm and her extensive knowledge of research to our advisory board. We are grateful for her expertise, guidance, and steady support as we published our second issue while being virtual during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Last, but far from least, the JUSWR Advisory Board and Senior Editor wish to express our pride in and gratitude for our JUSWR peer editors. These stellar students understood they were making a commitment: to participate in mandatory training, to review materials, and to offer viable, supportive recommendations to the student authors. We especially are grateful for their flexibility and dedication. Well done!

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Dear Reader:

Welcome to the fifth volume of the Journal of Undergraduate Social Work Research (JUSWR). The JUSWR is a result of a highly collaborative effort between students, faculty, and staff. Undergraduate peer editors were instrumental in the selecting, editing, and submitting recommendations for research pieces to be accepted for publication. These undergraduate peer editors worked closely with the Senior Editor, Rebecca Dohleman Hawley, who did an outstanding job providing feedback, guidance, and prowess throughout the entire publication process. In addition to the work of the undergraduate peer editors and senior editor, we added a slate of doctoral students to help with training, editing, and advising. Faculty members also generously mentored their students in the writing and publication processes, of which we are grateful for their time and energy. Fellow Advisory Board Member, Dr. Jan Carter-Black, provided the team with exceptional guidance and feedback. As the Undergraduate Research Program Coordinator for the School of Social Work and Advisory Board Member of the JUSWR, I approached my role with commitment and enthusiasm, assisting with the peer editor training and editing process. Together, this collaborative team proudly brings you the fifth volume of the JUSWR.

The JUSWR was published for the first time in the spring of 2017, and prior to the pandemic, each year we saw an increase in submissions, pieces, and readers. Last year, JUSWR Volume 4 was split into two issues to accommodate the number of excellent pieces submitted. While we only have one issue this year, we feel our submissions are excellent and reflective of the turmoil we all experienced during the last 18 months. This year's issue includes pieces from Social Work, Legal Studies, and Economics undergraduate students. Topics range from mental health, cyber-victimization and dating violence among middle school students, a review of horticultural and nature-based interventions, an examination of the veterinary community and suicidal risk, the economic impact of self-checkouts, police killings, self-reflective journaling, and an analysis of the American Disabilities Act pertaining to parking spaces.

As the Undergraduate Research Program Coordinator for the School of Social Work, I am honored to join such a remarkable editorial team and direct undergraduate research efforts. The JUSWR originated with the aim of supporting undergraduate research and scholarly work, becoming a platform for students to disseminate their findings and work. Some of the ways students can become involved in research at the School of Social Work include: 1) participating as a Research Assistant to a faculty-directed research project, or 2) leading their own area of research with an Independent Study or Project. Students can find more information about these opportunities in the Course Catalog (SOCW 310, 418, and 480). It is from these projects that many students submit posters and papers to the JUSWR or present at the University of Illinois Undergraduate Research Symposium. Other research opportunities include authoring or co-authoring research papers and presentations for peer-reviewed journals and academic conferences, serving as a peer editor for the JUSWR, or pursuing the Undergraduate Research Certificate Program offered by the Office of Undergraduate Research.

In addition to research, the JUSWR also accepts original creative pieces for publication. These creative pieces may reflect aspects of students' cultural backgrounds, experiences, or perspectives. The JUSWR also considers an array of pieces in addition to research, including policy briefs, class papers, and opinion pieces. As you flip through the current and previous issues of the JUSWR, you will see a glimpse into the knowledge, creativity, critical thinking, and thoughtfulness of the authors across these diverse platforms. Students make contributions that advance social and economic justice, further enhancing their own and their readers' appreciation toward our diverse and constantly evolving social world.

I am pleased to announce the fifth volume of the JUSWR. This publication provides clear and compelling evidence of the high quality of undergraduate social work research and creative works that contribute to knowledge permeating the School of Social Work and the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Sincerely,
Rachel Garthe, PhD
Assistant Professor &
Undergraduate Research Program Coordinator School of Social
Work



Literature Review

Unchecked Power: Police Killings of Racial Minorities and the Mentally Ill

Reese Armstrong, Nicole Cantoni MSW

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Abstract

Introduction: Police brutality has gained a great amount of attention in both mainstream and social media over the years. It has plagued the non-dominant groups of our society since the inception of the first centralized police departments in the mid to late 1800's (*History*, 2020) and continues to impact them to this day. This paper seeks to analyze and review journal articles of police homicides in relation to race and mental illness. From there, literature was reviewed that examined the impact police brutality has on the surrounding community. Finally, literature around mobile crisis teams was reviewed to examine an alternative policing model.

Methods: For this paper, the authors reviewed both journal articles examining police use of lethal force, and studies examining police use of lethal force among racial minorities and among individuals with mental illness. Although official government data is often incomplete and unreliable (Frankham, 2018), many of the sources utilize data taken from journalistic efforts to catalogue police use of force (e.g., Fatal Encounters project).

Results: Several articles were reviewed that examined police brutality and response. First, police in the United States kill 33.5 people for every 10 million people, more than three times as many as Canadian police (Jones & Sawyer, 2020). In terms of race, nearly 100 African American men are killed per 100,000, while White men are only killed at a rate of 40 per 100,000 (Edwards et al., 2019).

Looking at the statistics for those with mental illness, nearly 25% of the roughly 2,000 people shot by police in 2015-2016 exhibited signs of mental illness (Frankham, 2018). For those with severe mental illness who are unable to afford or find treatment, the risk of being killed by an officer of the law is 16 times greater than for other citizens (Fuller, et al., 2015). Research shows mental health was a leading factor in as many as one out of every two fatal police encounters (Fuller, et al., 2015).

Discussion: This review showed the pervasiveness of police brutality in the United States and the effect on surrounding communities. These studies also show that both race and mental health status are significant factors in police brutality. In response to these statistics, researchers have begun to examine alternative methods of policing. This paper examines current research on the use and effectiveness of mobile crisis teams. These teams typically pair a mental health professional with a paramedic. More research on these response teams is necessary in order to deem them as evidence based

Keywords: police brutality, racial minorities, mental illness

About the authors: Reese Armstrong is a junior at the School of Social Work and works for the Cline Center for Advanced Social Research. He anticipates receiving his BSW in 2023. His research interests are mainly in mental health and development as well as in social justice.

Nicole Cantoni, MSW, is a PhD candidate in Social Work, hoping to receive her degree in 2023. Her research interests are Animal Assisted Interventions and simulations to aid in teaching social work.

Unchecked Power: Police Killings of Racial Minorities and the Mentally Ill

One of the most hotly debated and criticized issues in the United States currently is police brutality, which is typically categorized as the excessive use of force against civilians (Moore, 2020). This can include (but is not limited to): racial profiling and abuse, violent physical attacks, unlawful murder of innocent citizens, and more. George Floyd, Breonna Taylor, Tamir Rice, and Rodney King are just a few of the well-known victims of police brutality, a horrifying crime that has left a dark, red stain on the United States. These incidents do not stand alone in a vacuum and have far reaching effects, starting within the family and spreading to the rest of the community. Those left behind by police brutality must pick up the pieces and continue with life after having lost a family and community member.

Police suspects who are Black or Brown, or are of a racial minority, have a much higher rate of police brutality than those who are White (Edwards et al., 2019). In addition, those who are suffering from mental illnesses are also victims of police brutality more often than those who are neurotypical (Fuller et al., 2015). Due to an array of factors, these minority communities typically find much less success in seeking out and receiving adequate mental healthcare (*Black*, n.d.). This pattern has emerged in numerous articles over the course of several years and needs to be investigated for the safety and well-being of those Black, Brown, or other racial minority identities, and/or persons with a mental illness.

This paper will analyze the subjects of both race and mental health in police brutality as well as the impacts on the surrounding community. The paper will also explore data from cities that utilize mobile crisis response teams as a means of addressing police fatalities in people with mental illness.

Methods

Information was gathered from a wide range of sources, such as ScienceDirect, PsycINFO, and Google Scholar, in order to form the most comprehensive picture of police use of force on minorities and those with mental illness. The bulk of the data collected originates from individual, peer-reviewed journals. Many of these journals use a combination of Federal Government data and journalist-led efforts to catalogue use of force, such as the Fatal Encounters project. Journalist data is used because in 2015, the Washington Post found the official government data regarding use of lethal force from the Federal Bureau of Investigation and the Bureau of Justice Statistics was severely lacking and did not include nearly half of the fatal police shootings the press reported that year (Frankham, 2018). Because of this, resources that solely rely on Federal Government data are inadequate. Instead, data was gathered from journals that conducted their own studies or utilized data from some of the journalistic efforts.

Results

Our research yielded two key themes as they were related to police brutality: race and mental illness. Each of the themes provides insight into how police brutality directly effects certain populations in the United States, and the ways in which those populations are impacted.

Police Brutality

Before analyzing demographic specific data, it is important to first understand police brutality statistics in the United States across the board. Larney (2015), as cited in Edwards et al (2019), showed police in the United States kill more people than law enforcement in any other advanced industrial democratic society. According to data provided by Jones and Sawyer (2020) using the most recent data available (Data for the United States, Netherlands, Iceland, England, and Wales came from 2019. Data for Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Germany, and Norway

came from 2018. Data for Canada came from 2017), 33.5 people are killed by police for every 10 million people in the United States. In comparison, the country with the second most police killings, Canada, has a far lower rate of 9.8 deaths per 10 million people, followed by Australia with 8.5, with every other nation listed below 2.5 per 10 million (Jones & Sawyer, 2020). The United States has more than three times the amount of police killings than our neighbors to the North, and an astounding 67 times more police homicides than England and Wales (Jones & Sawyer, 2020).

According to Jones (2020), U.S. police killed 1,099 people in 2019, while Canadian, Australian, German, Dutch, English, Japanese, and New Zealand police combined for just 78. The lifetime risk of being killed by the police for all people in the United States was 55 per 100,000 (Edwards et al, 2019). For reference, the yearly United States diabetes death rate is 26.7 per 100,000 (CDC, n.d.).

Race

In addition to reviewing these staggering statistics of police brutality within the United States, researchers have also examined these numbers by race and mental illness. When we first look at race, we find that African Americans seems to be most drastically impacted by police brutality. Black people make up only 13% of the country's population, yet they are killed by police at a disproportionate rate, nearly double the rate that White people are killed (WP Company, 2021).

When breaking down the data provided by Edwards et al. (2019), the differences among races paint an entirely different picture: Caucasian men are killed by police at a rate of roughly 40 per 100,000, while the number for African American men skyrocketed to nearly 100 per 100,000. Altogether, Black men are 2.5 times more likely to be killed by police than White men

are. Black women, Latinx men, and Native American/Alaskan Native men are all roughly 1.4 times more likely to be killed by police than Whites are (Edwards et al., 2019).

Looking at this data in the grand scheme of all deaths in the United States, for Black men, police homicide accounts for a little more than 1.5% of all deaths faced by that gender and race (Edwards et al., 2019). Especially for young men of color, police violence is the 6th leading cause of death, behind accidents, suicide, other homicides, heart disease, and cancer according to Ang (2020).

Mental Illness

One aspect of police homicide that is often overlooked is the victim's mental health. Using data from 2015 to 2016, police fatally shot almost 2,000 people, and about a quarter of those killed were exhibiting signs of mental illness (Frankham, 2018). People with mental illness in police encounters were also less likely to attack or otherwise provoke officers in addition to being less likely to be armed with a gun (Frankham, 2018).

Mental health is a factor in as many as one out of every two fatal police encounters (Fuller et al., 2015). For those facing mental illness without the ability to find treatment, the issue grows even more dangerous; of the estimated 7.9 million people in the United States with a severe mental illness, roughly half of them go unmedicated (Fuller et al., 2015). For these individuals, the risk of being killed during an encounter with law enforcement is 16 times greater than for other citizens stopped by law enforcement (Fuller et al., 2015).

Discussion

In review of the literature, police brutality is pervasive in the United States and is particularly high within specific racial groups and those with mental illness. The rates of mental illness across all races and ethnicities are similar; however, the long-term effects of mental

illness on minorities are greater (*Mental*, n.d.). Specifically for depression, 24.6% of African Americans, 19.6% of Hispanics, and 34.7% of White people experience depression at some point in their life. Although White people show higher rates of depression amongst the various racial groups, depression in Black people has been shown to last for longer periods of time in their lives (Budhwani, 2014). Additionally, access to mental healthcare can also be a challenge. In 2015, among adults experiencing any sort of mental illness, 48% of White people sought and received mental healthcare, whereas just 31% of Black people and 22% of Asian people received help (*Mental*, 2015.) There are many factors that determine the level of access to healthcare such as income, insurance accessibility, stigma of mental illness within minority communities, cultural presentation of mental health disorder symptoms, language differences between patient and care provider, lack of diversity in healthcare providers, and distrust in the healthcare system (*Mental*, n.d.). In 2018, 58.2% of African American young adults aged 18-25 and 50.1% of adults aged 26-49 did not receive any form of treatment for their mental health issues and nearly 90% of Black people over the age of 12 with a substance use disorder received no treatment (*Black*, n.d).

Many studies focus solely on race as a factor in police brutality cases, with even fewer focusing on mental illness. This review shows the mental health and the race of an individual may play a heavy hand in determining the outcome of an encounter with law enforcement. However, less research has focused on the intersection of mental illness and race within cases of police brutality.

Impact on Communities

It is a tragedy for any member of the community to be killed--but when the killer is a member of a law enforcement agency, the impact on the community seems to extend much

farther than just the victim and their immediate family. According to Ang (2020), high school students who live in close proximity to a police officer killing are 2.5% less likely to graduate high school and 2% less likely to enroll in college compared to high school students with no proximity to a law enforcement killing. Additionally, Ang (2020) also found students living within a half mile of a police shooting are much more likely to miss school as well as experience drops in grade point average. It should be noted, however, this issue does not impact all races and ethnicities the same. There was no significant impact on White and Asian students when a police officer killing took place in the proximity, though Black and Hispanic students took a majority of the blow academically; specifically, Black and Hispanic students had a 3% decrease in GPA (Ang, 2020).

Police killings do not only have temporary impacts on the surrounding communities but also can leave scars that last for years, and not just academically. Students who live in the areas of police shootings are 15% more likely to be diagnosed with “Emotional Disturbance”—a condition where a student’s behavior negatively impacts a student’s ability to perform academically (Ang, 2020). These students are also twice as likely to feel unsafe in their own neighborhoods (Ang, 2020). In fact, Ford (2012) found communities experiencing these forms of trauma frequently are expected to undergo challenges like depression, anxiety, and general fear. Furthermore, bystanders of these sorts of crimes are much more likely to develop Post Traumatic Stress Disorder as well (Ford et al., 2012). No case of police brutality occurs in a vacuum. There are always witnesses, people around the incident, friends and family of the victim, coworkers: people who must continue on after the violence. Police brutality casts a dark cloud over an entire community.

Although yet to be empirically examined, current research shows mental health and race may act as a sort of double jeopardy with law enforcement, as mental health disorders leave a much greater impact on people of color and minority communities have the most difficulty receiving access to high quality mental healthcare. Without proper mental healthcare, those who are struggling with mental illnesses will be much less likely to be able to thrive in society. Police killings leave substantial impacts on the surrounding communities making it extremely difficult to function and thrive. A potential solution to this epidemic of law enforcement power abuse is to limit the types of situations for which police officers are responsible. Dealing with sensitive issues such as mental health crises are too advanced for the training many police officers receive, and thus those issues could possibly be handled by mobile crisis teams made up of mental health professionals and paramedics. The funding law enforcement agencies typically would use to deal with mental health scenarios should be redistributed to mobile crisis teams.

Mobile Crisis Teams

A handful of cities across the United States have installed programs that replace armed law enforcement officers with teams of paramedics and a mental health professional, such as a social worker, on certain nonviolent dispatch calls. One such example of this is Denver, Colorado's STAR program, or Support Team Assisted Response. These teams represent the response of many city councils across the nation seeking to move away from police responses for mental health calls that rely on deescalating situations as opposed to using physical force to stop an issue. Denver's STAR program started as a six-month trial run, and after those six months, with nearly 750 calls, not a single arrest was necessary, nor did they have to call for backup (Sachs, 2021). These programs are meant to change the mental health and substance abuse calls police receive from criminal issues to public health ones. Leslie Herod, Denver's representative

in Colorado's legislature, says these types of programs will "help us to begin to break the cycle of incarceration because this is a cycle (Sachs, 2021)."

Mobile crisis teams can be more effective at handling citizens with sensitive needs than police officers because mental health professionals and paramedics are trained extensively to handle these situations non-violently. In the United States, law enforcement is not always trained in mental health issues, which is possibly why so many situations are handled in manners that end in injury or even death for the 'suspects.' The Institute for Criminal Justice Training Reform found the average basic training requirement for a law enforcement officer is 647 hours (*State Law*, n.d.). Comparing this data to the training requirements for mobile crisis teams, most mental health professionals require at least a bachelor's degree in psychology, social work, or other such fields. Paramedics are required to complete roughly 150 hours of training to be certified as an EMT-B, and from there an additional 1,200 to 1,800 hours of training to be certified as a paramedic (*What*, 2016). The Institute (n.d.) found that 37 states allow law enforcement officers to begin working before they have even attended any training.

Not only are law enforcement officers often trained less than the paramedics and mental health professionals, but they also lack necessary de-escalation and crisis intervention training. De-escalation training teaches law enforcement the tools needed to defuse dangerous and tense situations. Crisis intervention training prepares officers to deal with sensitive mental health-related crises. Due to the nature of the situations, de-escalation and crisis intervention training go hand-in-hand. Many states have little law enforcement de-escalation training requirements; in fact, 34 states have yet to mandate de-escalation training for officers (Gilbert, 2020). Even the states that *do* have this training required do not seem to place much emphasis on it. In Georgia, for example, 385 of the 582 police precincts in the state required less than one hour of de-

escalation training each year. Georgia has since mandated all officers take de-escalation training; however, they are only required to take one hour of training each year (Gilbert, 2020). The University of Memphis CIT Center (n.d.) claims there are 2,700 crisis intervention training sites across the nation, but with nearly 18,000 police departments spread across the United States, it's not as common as it could be.

Mobile crisis teams and similar programs seem to be key to a future with safe policing. Adding more mental health professionals and paramedics to response teams will have benefits for both U.S. citizens and its law enforcement. Scott (2000) analyzed the effectiveness and overall efficiency of Dekalb County, Georgia's mobile crisis team. The study found Dekalb County's crisis team handled a higher percentage of crisis situations without hospitalization compared to traditional law enforcement. The mobile crisis team were able to avoid hospitalizing those in crisis 55% of the time, compared to only 28% by regular law enforcement. Additionally, 36% of the hospitalizations by the mobile crisis team were involuntary, compared to law enforcement's 67%. The mobile crisis team in DeKalb County had much higher rates of success in assisting individuals in crisis across the board. However, not only did the team have better results than law enforcement, but they were more cost-effective too. The mobile crisis team was also 23% more cost efficient than when police officers responded to mental health calls due to the lower amount of unnecessary hospitalization (Scott, 2000). Data shows that implementation of these response teams lead to increased satisfaction from all parties involved across the board. The average satisfaction rating from the clients and their families were 27.4 and 27.7 out of maximum rating of 32 respectively. Most notable was the level of satisfaction from the officers themselves, as 75% of the officers involved in the study were satisfied with the results.

Police officers currently have a lot on their plate and little training to accommodate for it. Forcing police to perform jobs they simply are not trained for, such as handling people experiencing a mental health crisis, is a recipe for disaster – not only for the police, but for their victims and those victims’ communities as well. To make policing the safest and most efficient it can be, the role of law enforcement officers should be radically reconsidered: different responsibilities, more training, and more community collaboration.

Conclusion

In its current state, United States law enforcement does not seem to have the proper training to successfully assist individuals with severe mental illness without harm. Police in the U.S. kill far too many people, too many people of color, and too many people in a mental illness crisis. It is possible that, in order to stop the blight of police violence that many minority communities face, sensitive, non-life-threatening situations could be handled by mobile crisis teams. As it stands, more research into these response teams is necessary, as while there is information that suggests it is a possible alternative to police intervention, not enough research currently exists to solidify them as an evidence-based practice. Additionally, more training seems necessary, as the current level law enforcement must undergo does not appear adequate enough even on the base level and should be increased in order to possibly raise the quality of policing in the nation. With expanded, improved training, as well as increased use of mobile crisis teams, we believe it will be possible to reduce the number of police brutality cases over time, which is a step of utmost importance for the safety and prosperity of future generations.

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Scanning Barcodes: Self-Checkouts' Effect on Labor Markets and Implications for Social Work

Gage Curtner

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Abstract

The self-checkout kiosk has become a prevalent form of technology that has brought up many questions of the future of jobs and employment for Americans. The COVID-19 pandemic introduced volatility in low-wage positions as well as reduced the buying power of the minimum wage (Cooper et al., 2019). Self-checkouts seem to be the next looming frontier of automation. By analyzing data from the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (2003-2019), self-checkouts do not prove to be a detriment to human jobs. Instead, they prove to be the next iteration of jobs utilizing technology to improve organizational efficiency. Changes in the labor market reveal ways social workers can adapt to assist their clients in navigating the resulting impact of self-checkouts (Anderson, 2019). As such, it is a necessity for social workers to understand the changes to the labor market in order to effectively serve their clients and improve their quality of life. Social workers may need to help clients access crucial resources, such as financial assistance, safe childcare, and job skill opportunities.

Keywords: economics, labor, automation, self-checkout, COVID-19

Gage Curtner is a senior in Economics with a minor in Psychology. He is interested in researching issues pertaining to Labor Economics and Monetary Economics. He hopes his research can be used to increase the quality of life of consumers and workers.

Introduction

Picture yourself in the checkout line, trapped behind several frustrated individuals buying more toilet paper than you have ever seen in your life. Out of the corner of your eye, you see a sweet escape; halfway across the store, there is an unanticipated opening in one of the self-checkout counters that have miraculously popped up overnight, much like the building of a fast-food chain location. As you rush over to punch in the quantity of green peppers you have just placed on the scale, have you left the overworked, single mother who would have checked you out with one less customer to deal with before her break, or one less reason she has a job?

David Humble patented his version of the self-checkout counter in 1984 due to frustration with the aforementioned queue times in supermarkets (Hamacher, 2017). While kiosks flopped at first, they made their way to the technology producing conglomerate known as IBM (Tiffany, 2018). Through IBM, the self-checkout counter blossomed, and by 2008 there were over 90,000 self-checkouts worldwide, mostly concentrated in the United States (Castro et al., 2010). The self-service kiosk is now expected to hit 325,000 units worldwide by 2021, a predicted increase of 261% in just over a decade (Hamacher, 2017). As of 2012, an estimated 15-40% of money spent in supermarkets flowed through the self-checkout (Demirci Orel, 2014). This relatively recent and high magnitude phenomenon could have several effects on the retail labor market.

Economic Theory-Based Predictions

On a more theoretical note, it could be argued this advancement fits into the framework of task replacing technological change. This model describes jobs as a series of tasks to accomplish. In this framework, a cashier position is made up of: canning items, walking the customer through the checkout process, and being friendly, among other tasks. View every

individual who goes through a self-checkout as a replaced routine manual task. The scanning of the customers' items is replaced by capital, or the objects which allow tasks to be done quicker or easier, which in this case is the self-checkout kiosk. However, one could question whether or not the task was replaced at all or displaced onto the consumer, as they are now responsible for what used to be a cashier's task. One could further presume this would lower the utility of the consumer, or the pleasure a consumer gets from their purchased goods and services, due to the introduction of checkout labor. Castro et al. (2010) respond to this by offering a model in which turning the consumer from a passive participant to an active participant saves the consumer work in the form of task participation time. In other words, asking the shopper to scan and bag their own groceries makes the checkout process faster in some cases, which is better for the busy shopper and also benefits the institution's efficiency. This could be interpreted as a partial replacement of a task due to the drastically decreased participation of the worker. That is to say, the self-checkout attendant need not scan and bag the customers' items. However, it should be addressed that there are many cases where a self-checkout is slower and harder than a manned cashier. Self-checkouts may be slower for people with disabilities, large families, or individuals who struggle using technology.

However, this does not mean there is no need for workers in the self-checkout model of retail. Instead, workers need to be available at all times to solve nonroutine analytical tasks related to technical issues with the kiosks themselves. These tasks include making sure the items scanned by customers are the ones that end up in the basket (although this is partially automated by the scale in the bagging area, overrides are needed in fringe cases), and removal of security tags or the approval of purchase on regulated goods. This would lead to decreased demand for cashier labor, but increased productivity of labor supplied by self-checkout attendants reflected

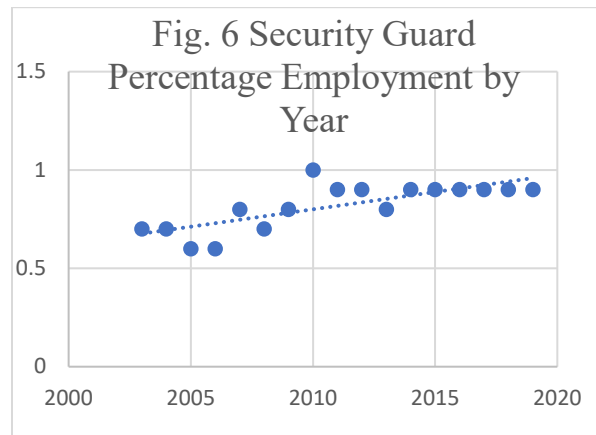
in decreased share of employment but higher wages. Further, due to increased risk (or reduced social consequences) of theft in this model, increased participation of asset protection workers, individuals hired by a store to prevent theft, is required. This could be viewed as an increase in productivity for asset protection rather than the creation of a new task. Either way, demand for and therefore wage of asset protection ought to increase.

According to the previously posited hypothesis, one would predict reduced employment share of cashiers with increased wages, as well as increased employment share or wage of asset protection agent. Therefore, those working the cashier positions would be worse off in the form of reduced wages. Those working as self-checkout attendants would be better off in the form of increased wages. It is not a stretch to believe these two groups are the same individuals leading to conflicting effects. However, on average they would be worse off due to the share of tasks replaced by kiosks, leading to fewer cashiers demanded. However, there is much debate on who works these entry level retail positions. In the United States, minimum wage work is seen as largely for teenagers and young adults as they pass into full-time careers. In reality, these positions more so represent women, those less educated, African American and Hispanic individuals, and those in poverty, not as temporary positions, but as permanent employment situations (Anderson, 2020). By using security officers as an analog, it is shown asset protections officers tend to be almost 70% men, be less than college educated, and represent races in line with national demographics (Zippia, 2020).

Analysis of Employment Trends

By analyzing raw employment data from the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, one can observe several trends. The most prominent of which is the marked increase in the percentage of total employment that security guards have experienced shown in Fig. 6 (U.S.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019). This holds with the prediction that labor demanded from security personnel would increase.

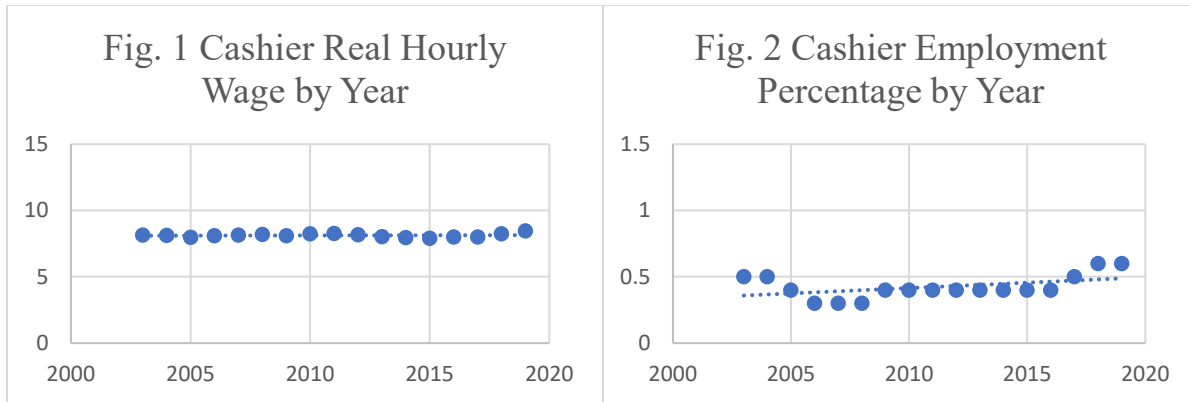


In addition to the increase in employment share, security guards also experienced an increase in real wage (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019). Real wage represents the actual buying power of the money earned in a position adjusted for inflation. This was calculated by deflating nominal, or unadjusted, wage with a manually averaged inflation rate from 2003 to 2019 of 2.06% using a base year of 2003; That is to say, the value of 2019 wages in 2003 dollars (World Bank, 2021). The results are also consistent with the hypothesis, which predicted an increase in productivity for asset protection officers shown via an increase in real wage. The increase can be seen in Fig. 5.

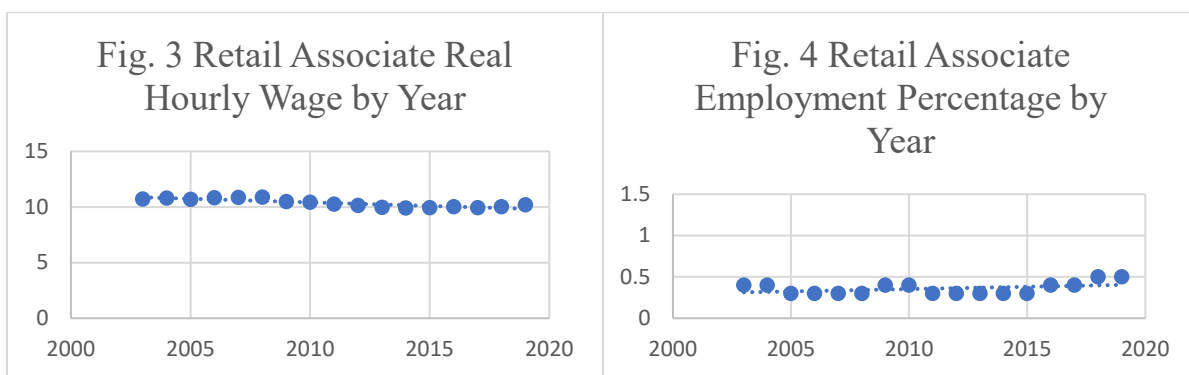


However, limitations exist in this method. A security guard is not necessarily an asset protection agent. The position of 'asset protection' goes by many names, such as loss prevention, store protection, risk specialist, or security officer. However, it is not known if this is the way the Bureau of Labor Statistics has assembled the category. Further, security guard is a broader title than just asset protection, and as such these inclusions in the data may render the analysis moot.

The next position analysis, however, is not quite so cut and dry. Cashier work has had a very small decrease in real wage over the 2003 to 2019 period (Fig. 1) but has also increased in employment percentage (Fig 2) (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019). While the small decrease in real wage is consistent with the hypothesis, it could also be due to larger shifts in the labor market as a whole. The increase in employment percentage with a simultaneous decrease in wage is also consistent with increased labor supply for the position. This could be due to many things, such as the introduction of Millennials into the labor market while older generations hold on to career positions, the erasure of middle skill professions, such as bookkeeping, causing increased supply for low-skill work, or any number of confounding factors. More than likely, this is due to the culture of paying cashiers the federal minimum wage regardless of their productivity, which has been rapidly declining in real value since it was last raised in 2009 due to inflation. While one cannot say for certain that the model of self-checkouts partially replacing the task of scanning and bagging groceries has no effect on labor markets, these data do not demonstrate such a trend.



For the third analysis, the predicted trends are dashed against the cobbles. We expected an increase in labor demand and productivity for those who watch over the self-checkout kiosks reflected in an increase in real wage and employment percentage. Instead, both measures have been relatively constant over the 2003-2019 period (Fig. 3 & 4) (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2003-2019). Here is why: self-checkout attendant is somewhat of a new job title. It is a position that was not in existence as of 2003 and is not even officially a position now. Perhaps it is included in the retail associate category nestled under the softlines workers and tech counter attendants, or maybe it is still in the cashier category. Either way, outside trends are too powerful to let the effect shine through or the hypothesis is misinformed.



Pros and Cons of Accepting or Rejecting SST Innovations

Self-service as an industry has been the subject of much academic contemplation. On the positive side, Demerci Orel & Kara (2014) found customers who used self-checkouts in Turkey

left the supermarket feeling good about their experience even compared to traditional checkout employees. Further, self-checkout service quality was found to be a significant determinant of customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (Demirci Orel & Kara, 2014). These effects were found to be disproportionately powerful in young people (Demirci Orel & Kara, 2014).

While self-checkout technologies are not outright automating the tasks of cashiers, they are a necessary part of garnering repeat business especially among young people (Demirci Orel & Kara, 2014). There could be significant costs of not introducing self-checkouts into supermarkets in the form of losses due to competition. This protection against losses is reflected in the increased employment share and wages of asset protection officers who are still necessary to prevent shoplifting.

This research also finds, however, that poorly executed self-checkout service can disproportionately discourage customers from coming back (Demirci Orel, 2014). These findings can also explain some of our findings about cashier employment trends. While market trends and innovations have led to reduced real wages, the main customer service element of the cashier position remains just as, if not more, relevant than ever.

Self-checkout kiosks are part of a much broader, more in-depth phenomenon known as self-service technology (SST). SSTs include anything from scanning your own boarding pass to catch a flight, to a self-pump gas station. Castro et al. (2010) suggest that temporary frictional unemployment, which is the unemployment period faced by a worker as they seek and train for a new position, is a consequence of the introduction of SSTs. However, they argue temporary setbacks faced by some displaced workers is hardly reason to believe SST is causing public harm (Castro et al., 2010). To the contrary, they posit the extinction of the gas jockey, the individual who used to pump gas before self-service pumps, and the introduction of the automatic teller

(ATM) has saved the public millions of dollars in both transaction costs and saved time (Castro et al., 2010). That is, as long as one does not live in New Jersey or Oregon, where pumping one's own gas is a fineable offense. The idea that once industries such as retail or banking are fully automated or self-serviced, then there will be no work opportunities is very common. Castro et al. (2010) refute this by showing that, historically, people always find some way to find employment. They then go on to state SST would be replacing low wage labor, which is historically followed by higher productivity and higher income jobs becoming available (Castro et al., 2010). Much like how the population has exploded in the past 100 years and yet there remains enough labor for everyone, if not more, one would expect tasks requiring a human touch will also be available in the future.

Policy

As for policy, it seems as though there are two options: Either fully or partially ban the implementation of SSTs, or let technology run its course and reap the rewards of increased efficiency later. One can see the effects of both by looking at previously implemented or banned SSTs. By analyzing gas prices, one can see that Oregon, a relatively rural state with a low population density and as such a low demand for gas, still ranks third highest in gas prices in the contiguous United States. For comparison, Oregon sits just behind California and Washington who account for 14.6% of the U.S. population, leading to heightened demand, and tax the commodity heavily (AAA, 2020). One can see while legislation against SST may preserve some forms of employment in the short run, the long-term costs of that preservation are passed on to the consumer. In this case the costs are manifested in disproportionately high gas prices.

On the other hand, there are real negative effects people feel when this type of frictional unemployment hits them. The financial effects can be devastating for families who rely on this

income. However, families who rely on these entry level jobs that will be replaced by SST will face low retraining costs when finding a comparable position in another industry. This situation has more in common with manual textile craftsmen finding new work in textile factories than it does with the modern drought of middle-class positions (Castro et al., 2010).

Implications for Social Work in COVID-19

COVID-19 has brought discussion about cashiers and other low wage essential workers to a head. Low-wage workers are more often than not people of color, women, and lesser educated individuals (Anderson, 2020). They now have to work with fewer coworkers in increasingly dangerous environments, demonstrated by a sharp drop in the labor force participation rate over late 2020, which has not fully recovered as of August 2021 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021b). Therefore, it is especially important that social workers understand the prevalent socioeconomic trends affecting these marginalized groups.

The leading concern for low-wage earners is the relatively out of date minimum wage. The federal minimum wage has not been adjusted in 12 years, the longest period without adjustment since the policy was introduced in 1933 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021b). This is compounded by the very high rate of inflation during the COVID-19 pandemic due to increased government spending, primarily on corporate bailouts and to a lesser extent direct COVID-19 relief payments. The inflation over this 12-year period has led to the already meager \$7.25 in 2009 to be worth 17 percent less in 2019 and perpetually devaluing further (Cooper et al., 2019) Social workers should prepare for increased rates of poverty among the already vulnerable populations who rely on these low-wage positions to survive.

The rapid degradation of the minimum wage, along with the newfound danger associated with being in public are among the causes of the 2021 labor shortage. The wages offered by

corporations are no longer enough to entice even the most disadvantaged populations to sell not only their time, but potentially their health. Social workers knowledgeable about assistance and relief programs ought to focus on outreaching to vulnerable populations, and especially single mothers who may have difficulty accessing childcare. Further federal assistance is unlikely due to exceedingly high rates of inflation in early 2021, demonstrated in a sharp 5% increase in the consumer price index from July 2020 to July 2021 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021a). Social workers may want to keep rationing in mind when assisting clients.

Social workers might also want to be aware that SSTs have become the main form of checkout systems. It is not uncommon to have no attended checkout lanes open in a big box retailer. Social workers who often aid their clients by helping them find gainful employment should understand the risks a public facing job entails now. Stores and restaurants are still in need of labor, but in forms that are less available to vulnerable populations, such as physically demanding positions stocking shelves or unloading trucks, or positions that require training or experience.

Further, there is a significant amount of trauma associated with employment as it exists in COVID-19. Beyond the health risks and seemingly insufficient wages, many individuals entering the low-wage workforce were let go from permanent positions and are dealing with the additional feelings of loss, shame, and inadequacy associated with financial struggles in the United States. If at all possible, social workers should encourage clients to acquire technology or construction-based certifications and skills in order to take advantage of the one trillion-dollar infrastructure bill passed in August of 2021 (Cochrane, 2021).

Conclusion

While self-checkouts themselves may not have negative effects on the employment and wages of cashiers (and to the contrary, may have positive effects on employment trends of asset protection personnel), there are many forms of SST that still may. That being said, the positive effects of SST on demand side labor savings and consumer savings are hard to overstate. As such, this paper would recommend not banning any form of SST that does not directly harm the public. Further, the COVID-19 pandemic has created a situation that has left low-wage earners at the heart of intersectional disenfranchisement. Social workers need to take steps not only to mitigate the economic inequalities by helping clients access benefits and services such as monetary assistance and childcare, as well as assisting clients attain the necessary skills in order to take advantage of incoming stimulus and infrastructure bills.

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All Men are Created Equal: Originalism, the Second Amendment, and Mental Disability

Joseph Lehman

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Abstract

Since the Supreme Court decided *District of Columbia v. Heller* in 2008, legal scholars, lawyers, and judges have disagreed about the classes of people to whom the Second Amendment applies. At least two federal appellate courts, in weighing in on this debate, have decided that the federal law barring those who were, at any point in their lives, and for any length of time, committed to a mental institution – 18 U.S.C. § 922(g) – does not violate the right to bear arms.

The Second Amendment prohibits this categorical exclusion. Going beyond the absence of historical support for this categorical prohibition, the common law practice of suspending – not eliminating – rights of those suffering from mental illness suggests that the Second Amendment was understood to permit only temporary suspension of rights. While at least three federal appellate courts have addressed this issue, substantive looks into the history of the right to bear arms have been relegated to either concurring or dissenting opinions. Proper protection of the rights of those who have overcome mental illness requires an originalist analysis of the relationship between rights and mental health. This analysis compels the conclusion that any categorical prohibition on a formally mentally ill individual from owning a firearm violates the Second Amendment.

Keywords: gun rights; originalism; second amendment; mental health

Definitions

(All definitions are from the Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary unless otherwise noted).

Categorical: absolute; unqualified.

Originalist: a legal philosophy that the words in documents and especially the U.S. Constitution should be interpreted as they were [publicly -JL] understood at the time they were written.

Common Law: the body of law developed in England primarily from judicial decisions based on custom and precedent, unwritten in statute or code, and constituting the basis of the English legal system and of the system in all of the U.S. except Louisiana.

Jurisprudence: the science or philosophy of law.

Abride: to reduce in scope.

About the Author: Joseph Lehman is a Senior studying English and Legal Studies at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, set to graduate in December 2021. His research interests include the American legal history, and Constitutional and statutory interpretation.

Editor's Note: Submissions to JUSWR are written in APA (American Psychological Association) Style, the preferred style for the social sciences. Mr. Lehman's submission is written in Bluebook Style, a reflection of his legal training. Headings and citations appear differently in this submission than in the others.

I. Introduction

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention calculates 50% of all Americans suffer from a mental illness at some point in their lives.¹ From depression to substance abuse, mental health crises take many forms. Mental health problems, however, are not always permanent, and those afflicted can find themselves in remission; treatment and the abolition of stigma can help to improve a person's mental health.² This ability to change allows those afflicted with mental illness to seek change: getting therapy, seeing a doctor, getting treatment. Just as modern medicine recognizes the possibility of mental health remission, English common law reflected the same understanding.

Unfortunately, modern Federal law ignores this ability to heal. 18 U.S.C. § 922(g)(4) provides that those: “who [have] been adjudicated as a mental defective or who [have] been committed to a mental institution” may not “receive any firearm or ammunition which has been shipped or transported in interstate or foreign commerce.” Accordingly, when an individual who, at one point, had been involuntarily committed to a psychiatric facility attempts to exercise their right to bear arms, the federal government is there to stop them. While some may find this law to be good public policy, it not only cements the idea of once-disabled-always-disabled into Second Amendment jurisprudence, but it also violates the Second Amendment. To apply these rights appropriately, judges must return to the original public understanding of the Second Amendment.

¹ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Mental Health and Data Publications, CDC.gov, (Jan. 14, 2021), https://www.cdc.gov/mentalhealth/data_publications/index.htm.

² Christina Lengfelder, Mental Health: a Fundamental Component of Human Development, United Nations Development Programme, (Jan. 14, 2021), <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/mental-health-fundamental-component-human-development>.

II. Historical Analysis

“History is consistent with common sense: it demonstrates that legislatures have the power to prohibit dangerous people from possessing guns. But that power extends only to people who are *dangerous*.”³ The question, then, becomes to what extent does history permit the limiting of the Second Amendment rights of those who suffered from mental illness?

At the time the Framers wrote the Second Amendment, legal experts considered mental illness to be temporary. While many laws restricting the rights of felons existed around 1787, “one searches in vain through eighteenth-century records to find any laws specifically excluding the mentally ill from firearms ownership.”⁴ It is true a citizen’s rights could be restricted *while* he suffered from a mental illness. *Blackstone’s Commentaries* note, for example, the “marriage of lunatics and persons under phrenzies...before they are declared of sound mind by the lord chancellor or the majority of such trustees, shall be totally void.”⁵ Under this scheme, the suspension of rights may continue only so long as the individual is actually afflicted with a mental illness. The common law permitted the deprivation of rights from people suffering with mental illness, but those deprivations “were not once and for all. Since at least the time of Edward I, the English legal tradition provided that those who...recovered their sanity should have their rights restored.”⁶

One modern commentator notes that, in the context of firearms, “in eighteenth-century America, justices of the peace were authorized to lock up lunatics who were dangerous to be

³ *Kanter v. Barr*, 919 F.3d 437, 451 (7th Cir. 2019) (Barrett, J. dissenting) (emphasis original).

⁴ Carlton F. W. Larson, *Four Exceptions in Search of a Theory: District of Columbia v. Heller and Judicial Ipse Dixit*, 60 Hastings L.J. 1371, 1378 (2009).

⁵ 1 St. George Tucker, *Blackstone’s Commentaries*, 872 (1803).

⁶ *Tyler v. Hillsdale Cnty. Sheriff’s Dept.*, 873 F.3d 678, 706 (6th Cir. 2016) (Batchelder, J., concurring) (Citing Frederick Pollock & F. William Maitland, *The History of English Law Before the Time of Edward I*, 507-08 (1898)).

permitted to go abroad. If this significant infringement of liberty was permissible, then the lesser step of mere disarmament would likely be permissible as well.”⁷ This view of the relation between rights and mental infirmity suggests a legislature may limit firearm ownership in some cases, but must restore them when the afflicted individual “come[s] to their right mind.”⁸

When a mentally unwell citizen “[recovered] his senses,” the common law provided a number of ways to restore rights.⁹ For example, the lord chancellor or the majority of an individual’s trustees could declare an individual free from mental defect, which would then restore that individual’s rights. The petitioner could also ask the Court of Common Pleas to hear his case, and the Court would “render an account when the [restriction on rights] should be removed.”¹⁰ The American legal tradition in the 18th Century mirrored the English practices by allowing judges to restrict the rights of individuals with severe mental illness, but “only so long as such lunacy or disorder shall continue, and no longer.”¹¹ The Second Amendment surely must have been understood to protect a right that could be restricted in some cases, but must be returned eventually.

III. The 21st Century, Mental Illness, and the Right to Bear Arms

The rulings of modern courts, however, are out of step with the original understanding of the relationship between rights and mental illness. In 2005, a Pennsylvania state court involuntarily committed Bradley Beers to a psychiatric facility. The court found that, since Mr.

⁷ *Supra* note 4 at 1377 (Citing Henry Care, *English Liberties, or the Free-Born Subject’s Inheritance*, 329 (6th ed. 1774) (Internal quotation marks omitted).

⁸ *Supra* note 5 at 690.

⁹ Anthony Highmore, *A Treatise on the Law of Idiocy and Lunacy*, 104 (1807).

¹⁰ *Id.* at 105.

¹¹ *Mai v. United States*, 974 F.3d 1082, 1090 (2020) (9th Cir. Sept. 10, 2020) (Bumatay, J., dissenting from denial of rehearing *en banc*). Citing Henry Care, *English Liberties, or the Free-born Subject’s Inheritance*, 329 (6th ed. 1774) (internal quotation marks omitted).

Beers made suicidal statements and had access to a firearm, he needed to be committed for treatment. Mr. Beers successfully completed the treatment program and was discharged. In 2013, a physician determined Mr. Beers was capable of handling firearms in a responsible manner. Unfortunately, the federal government did not care about the doctor's assessment – they prevented Mr. Beers from purchasing a firearm. Mr. Beers sued, and the case ended up at the United States Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit.¹² The appellate panel determined that, since Mr. Beers suffered from mental illness 14 years earlier, precedent required the court to dismiss Beer's complaint. They went so far as to explain that "Beers cannot distinguish his circumstances by arguing that he is no longer a danger to himself or to others. Acceptance of his argument would sidestep the [rule]...that neither passage of time nor evidence of rehabilitation can restore Second Amendment rights that were forfeited."¹³

The court reached this conclusion, not through an individual neurological or psychological analysis of Mr. Beers. Instead, in determining that those formerly with mental disability were ineligible for the restoration of their rights, the court cited a previous opinion which argued that "the historical justification for disarming *felons* was because they had committed serious crimes, [and] risk of violent recidivism was irrelevant."¹⁴ While the court cursorily mentions historical prohibitions on the mentally ill, the extent of their recidivism analysis consists solely of comparing the formerly mentally ill to felons.

Beers appealed to the Supreme Court, which vacated the original opinion and remanded with instructions to dismiss: a change in Pennsylvania law mooted the case.¹⁵ Since the Supreme

¹² *Beers v. Attorney General United States*, 927 F.3d 150 (3rd Cir. 2019).

¹³ *Id.* at 152. Quoting *Binderup v. Attorney General*, 836 F.3d 336 (2016) (internal quotation marks omitted).

¹⁴ *Id.* at 156 (emphasis added).

¹⁵ *Beers v. Barr*, 140 S.Ct. 2758 (Mem. op.) (May 18, 2020).

Court vacated on the grounds the case was moot, however, that means the Third Circuit’s opinion in *Beers* is still persuasive.¹⁶

History repeated itself in 2020. Washington state resident Duy Mai sought to exercise his Second Amendment rights and purchase a firearm. The only problem was that, in 1999, a Washington State court involuntarily committed Mr. Mai to a psychiatric hospital for depression. Washington law prohibits those who have been involuntarily committed from owning a firearm but allows them to petition a state court to remove the restriction if the petitioner can demonstrate that he is no longer mentally ill.¹⁷ Mr. Mai successfully did, and could buy a firearm under state law. Unfortunately, residents of the state of Washington are not eligible for a waiver of the categorical federal prohibition.¹⁸ Mr. Mai challenged this law, but the Ninth Circuit, based on a handful of scientific studies from foreign nations, concluded there was “an ever-present increased risk of violence for those who were committed involuntarily, even well after they are released.”¹⁹

Mr. Mai, seeking to vindicate his fundamental right to bear arms,²⁰ petitioned for a rehearing, which the court denied over multiple dissents. One judge pointed out that refusing to correct the original panel’s decision allows the government to “forever deprive a person of the individual right to bear arms—if that person spends even one day committed involuntarily, even as a juvenile, and no matter the person’s current mental health soundness.”²¹

¹⁶ See e.g., *Folajtar v. Attorney Gen.*, No. 19-1687 (3rd Cir. Nov. 24, 2020) (Citing *Beers*).

¹⁷ Wash. Rev. Code § 9.41.040(2)(a)(iv) (restricting mentally ill individuals from owning firearms); Wash. Rev. Code § 9.41.047(3)(a) (providing the mechanism to eliminate restrictions on the right to bear arms).

¹⁸ *Mai v. United States*, 952 F.3d 1106, 1112 (9th Cir. Mar. 11, 2020).

¹⁹ *Supra* note 11.

²⁰ *District of Columbia v. Heller*, 554 U.S. 570, 635 (2008) (Describing how the Second Amendment “surely elevates above all other interests the right of law-abiding, responsible citizens to use arms in defense of hearth and home”).

²¹ *Supra* note 11 at 1083.

The Ninth Circuit codified the idea of once-disabled-always-disabled, and the Third Circuit decided prior mental illness status was similar enough to felon status that they failed to engage with the idea mental health can change and improve. These decisions strike at the heart of the right to bear arms. Indeed, at its core, the Second Amendment exists for individuals to defend themselves and their homes. A person who was committed to an institution 20 years ago for depression has no less a fundamental right to protect himself than a person with no history of mental health problems. The decisions also disregard the original understanding of the right itself: categorical “eighteenth century laws disarming the mentally ill...simply do not exist.”²²

IV. A Return to Original Understanding

Courts ought to reject the black-and-white disability analysis used in the above cases. A return to applying Constitutional rights according to their original public meaning allows judges to both remain faithful to the text, and to do justice for Americans who suffered from and overcame mental disability. It so happens the common law method of restoring an individual’s rights closely mirrors Mr. Mai’s request to the Ninth Circuit. Yes, this may expand court dockets, but where fundamental rights are concerned, the balance of hardships strongly favors petitioners. Recall as well some state courts already make this inquiry: a state court reinstated Mr. Mai’s right to bear arms under state law. In fact, the Sixth Circuit Court of Appeals took this route in 2016. The court reversed a district court dismissal of a complaint similar to the complaints in *Beers* and *Mai*.²³ While the case fractured the court, producing eight separate opinions, the majority nevertheless found that there was

²² *Supra* note 4.

²³ *Tyler v. Hillsdale Cnty. Sheriff’s Dept.*, 873 F.3d 678 (6th Cir. 2016).

“Scant historical evidence conclusively supporting a permanent ban on the possession of guns by anyone who has been committed to a mental institution. In the absence of such evidence, it would be odd to rely solely on *Heller* to rubber stamp the legislature’s power to permanently exclude individuals from a fundamental right based on a past involuntary commitment.”²⁴

It is true some mental health crises justify the suspension of this right. Sometimes people do need to be involuntarily committed when they pose a danger to themselves or others. Those who are involuntarily committed should not be wielding firearms in their hospital rooms, and this article does not argue that all mental health-related prohibitions violate the Second Amendment. Rather, in keeping with the meaning of the Second Amendment, courts must engage in an individualized assessment, and legitimately consider the restoration of an individual’s fundamental rights. To uphold a categorical prohibition against people like Mr. Mai from owning firearms “effectively [gives] governments carte blanche to legislate the Second Amendment away.”²⁵

Under an originalist interpretation of the Second Amendment, the right to keep and bear arms may legitimately be suspended at the point when a person is suffering from a mental illness, and until such a time as the afflicted is no longer a danger to themselves or others. In both of the majority opinions, the *Beers* and *Mai* authors paid lip service by disclaiming a once-

²⁴ *Id.* at 687.

²⁵ *Mai v. United States*, 974 F.3d 1082, 1098 (2020) (9th Cir. Sept. 10, 2020) (VanDyke, J., dissenting from denial of rehearing *en banc*).

mentally-ill-always-mentally-ill. To put this into action, they need only strike down²⁶ laws categorically prohibiting those who have recovered from a mental illness from owning firearms.

V. Conclusion

The right to bear arms in self-defense is a fundamental right, and one that applies to the People: “a class of persons who are part of a national community or who have otherwise developed sufficient connection with this country to be considered part of that community.”²⁷ “The mentally ill are [not] categorically excluded from our national community”²⁸ – they do possess the right to bear arms.

The thrust of mental health is mental illness is not always permanent. People like Mr. Beers and Mr. Mai can get better. Some courts, however, ignore this mental health spectrum. They see people as either mentally ill or not mentally ill. While the Third and Ninth Circuits may not be overtly interested in eliminating freedoms from those who suffered from mental illness, by deferring to the opinions of a select few social scientists, these courts sidestepped difficult questions posed at the intersection of disability and the law. They almost entirely avoid discussing the history of the Constitution and the common law, and instead decide to treat the rights of formerly mentally ill people as second-class rights. While legislatures may think these laws are good public policy, the responsibility lies with judges to uphold the Constitution, and to stop the government from encroaching on the rights of healthy, law-abiding citizens.

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²⁶ To the extent a court can strike down a law. An exploration of the writ of erasure is, however, beyond the scope of this article. For a good discussion of this topic, see Jonathan F. Mitchell, *The Writ-of-Erasure Fallacy*, 104 Va. L. Rev. 933 (2018).

²⁷ *Supra* note 20 at 580.

²⁸ *Supra* note 3 at 453.

The Veterinary Community: A Population At-Risk for Suicide

Krystal Newberry, CVT

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Abstract

When individuals enter the veterinary field, they discover early the profession comes with hardship and daily challenges. Additionally, it is no secret to those within the profession that the veterinary community faces a serious problem with suicide. Whether the discussion has become more prevalent from increased social media coverage or a true increase in suicide rates, the community is painfully aware of how many veterinarians take their lives every year. Between the years of 2003 and 2014, data shows a total of 202 veterinary professional deaths from suicide or of undetermined intent (Witte et al., 2019). The purpose of this literature review is to explore the rising rates of veterinary suicide and the many causes that may lead to suicide amongst veterinary professionals. Factors frequently studied and thought to contribute to veterinary professional suicide include self-stigma and social stigma in seeking psychological help or suffering from anxiety, depression, or burnout. The goal of this review is to educate mental health professionals on the importance and increased need for support in the veterinary community.

Keywords: veterinarian, veterinary student, suicide, mental health, stigma

About the author: Krystal Newberry is a Certified Veterinary Technician at the University of Illinois Veterinary Teaching Hospital, and Bachelors of Social Work Candidate. Currently a senior student with a major in Social Work. Research interests include the mental health in the veterinary community.

Stigma in Seeking Psychological Help

Veterinary school can be a challenging time for students and common stressors can lead to negative mental health outcomes. McArthur et al. (2019) examined the relationship between academic stressors and the social stigma in seeking psychological help. Recognized academic stressors in veterinary education include, but are not limited to, the fast pace and volume of expected learning material, discrepancies in time management skills, concerns about being negatively compared with peers, and acknowledging new ethical dilemmas. Stressors recognized outside of academic studies include interpersonal conflicts, health concerns, and financial concerns. These stressors are known to have a positive correlation with mental health problems such as stress, anxiety and depression.

The term stigma once was defined as a “physical mark of disgrace”, now it is defined as “a strong feeling of disapproval that most people in a society have about something, especially when this is unfair” (McArthur et al., 2019). This study identifies a strong relationship between gender and self-stigma, concluding men report higher self-stigma in seeking psychological help in comparison to women. The gender differences are attributed to women being more likely to rely on the use of instrumental and emotional support as a coping strategy, whereas men rely more commonly on humor as a dysfunctional coping strategy (McArthur et al., 2019, p. 5). In the counseling and psychology field, instrumental support is typically defined as offering help or assistance in a tangible and/or physical way, whereas emotional support involves acting as a confidant for someone. It was reported that those who were affected by mental health stigma feel embarrassment, shame, low self-esteem, and low self-confidence associated with their mental health struggles. Additionally, students report a fear that being open about their mental illness or seeking support will negatively impact their academic record. McArthur et al. (2019) concludes

greater self-stigma in seeking mental health support is associated with higher self-blame, a dysfunctional coping strategy commonly seen in veterinary students. Furthermore, 80% of the sample admitted to making a mistake that resulted in an adverse event or less than optimal outcome. This can quickly lead to veterinarians facing psychological distress, ranging from a lack of confidence to severe depression. It is recognized those who report feeling more self-blame also report higher self-stigma to seeking psychological support.

In a similar study, Karaffa and Hancock (2019b) focused on veterinary students' willingness to seek mental health support as it relates to public stigma, self-stigma, and personal attitudes. The study included 573 veterinary students currently enrolled in accredited Colleges of Veterinary Medicine (CVMs) in the United States. It was found more students were willing to seek psychological help for issues regarding substance abuse, traumatic experiences, and anxiety than they were to seek services for sleep problems, interpersonal conflicts, and career or academic concerns. Students' perceptions of their peers' willingness to seek mental health support was also studied, and it was found study participants frequently underestimated other students' willingness to seek support (2019b, p. 462). This finding demonstrates pluralistic ignorance, a phenomenon where members of a group hold a particular belief about an attitude or behavior, but they assume that others around them feel differently than they do (Karaffa & Hancock, 2019b, p. 460).

Lastly, it was determined by Karaffa and Hancock (2019b) that public stigma may be internalized as self-stigma, which in turn may minimize willingness to seek mental health support. Similar to the study performed by McArthur et al. (2019), in this study women were found to have more positive attitudes toward seeking psychological help compared to men. Additionally, the social stigma of seeking professional help can be perceived as a sign of

personal weakness or incompetence (Karaffa & Hancock, 2019b, p. 459). A survey of a veterinary school in the United Kingdom found students were less inclined to seek counseling on campus when there was a lack of anonymity due to the concern regarding the stigma of seeking care. The veterinary community is very small; therefore, the fear of lack of anonymity and social stigma is even more significant. By having more open conversations about the positive aspects of seeking help will eventually lead to a decrease in public and social stigma.

Stress and Anxiety

Research shows enrollment in higher education programs is associated with high levels of stress and anxiety. Veterinary students are no exception. Eighty-eight percent of veterinarians have found the field to be very stressful, which leads to one in 11 being diagnosed with serious psychological distress (Nett et al., 2015). Nahar et al. (2019) focuses on the influence of chronic stress on the mental health of veterinary students. The authors found stressors are commonly multifactorial and include sleep concerns, the pressure of constant evaluation, academic difficulties, poor physical health, problems fitting in with peers, and the time demands associated with veterinary school. Nahar et al. (2019) surveyed 264 veterinary students over a three-week period, asking questions about gender, race/ethnicity, current grade point average (GPA), academic class, marital status, children, employment, and living status. A four-item patient health questionnaire (PHQ-4) was administered to measure the students' stress and anxiety levels. Stress levels were found to be elevated and exceeded those when compared to a similar demographic of age and gender in the general population. There was a recognizable relationship between gender and GPA in which female students exhibited higher levels of stress with a GPA less than 3.0. Additionally, women were three times more likely to exhibit anxiety than male students. This is clinically relevant to the veterinary community being at risk for suicide due to

women being the majority of enrolled veterinary students across the United States. Along with high stress levels, veterinary students demonstrate high anxiety levels. Nahar et al. (2019) found that 52.3% of the study sample met clinical criteria for a generalized anxiety disorder.

A second study written by Karaffa and Hancock (2019a) focused on a 573-person sample and investigated the prevalence of mental health concerns among veterinary medical students. The Generalized Anxiety Disorder 7-item (GAD-7) scale was used to assess symptoms of anxiety in veterinary medical students. It was found that 36.2% (205 individuals) of the sample scored at or above the clinical cut-off score on the GAD-7 (Karaffa & Hancock, 2019a). Women also scored significantly higher for levels of anxiety when compared to men. Those with reported anxiety symptoms indicated these concerns make it “very difficult” or “extremely difficult” to participate in their work, home life, or get along with others.

Bostock et al. (2018) found mental and physical well-being are often connected. Those who exhibit high levels of mental distress may be more likely to utilize sick days, leading to losses in learning opportunities for students. Additionally, mental health concerns can lead to a decreased academic achievement, reduced self-confidence, and overall competence. It was hypothesized anxiety can have a negative effect on spatial working and long-term memory. This can impact a veterinary students’ ability to learn practical skills and retain course material. Often, veterinary students feel the need to be high achieving, dedicated individuals, which puts them at risk of imposter syndrome. Imposter syndrome, or the imposter phenomenon, refers to feelings of disingenuousness typically by high achievers (Clance & Imes, 1978). This feeling of imposter syndrome leads to a fixed mindset of the need to be a perfectionist. Impostors have a difficult time accepting their achievements and believe it is a result of their hard work, luck, or knowing the right people. They believe that they have betrayed others into believing they are something

they are not (Clance & O'Toole, 1988). Many of these fears can have debilitating effects on the individual's well-being, which can put individuals at risk for suicidal behavior (Bostock et al., 2018). Bostock et al. uses a five-point scale to categorize anxiety levels. The findings indicate higher anxiety scores are associated with lower mindset scores. Results show 60% of students attending a university teaching hospital have moderate to very severe anxiety. Anxiety is also linked to other mental health ailments such as depression.

Depression

Chronic and untreated stress and anxiety have been linked to the development of debilitating conditions such as depression. Nahar et al. (2019) reported that 22.6% of veterinary students screen positive for depression using the PHQ-4. This statistic is compared to a 14.3% and a 16.6% depression rate for medical school students and the general population, respectively. Additionally, those who identify as a non-White and those living in on-campus housing are more likely to screen positive for depression. Women exhibit higher rates of depression than men, similar to anxiety (Nahar et al., 2019).

Karaffa and Hancock (2019a) investigated veterinary student depression rates using the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9). Results show 18% of students indicate the depressive symptoms make it *very difficult* or *extremely difficult* to participate in their work, home life, or get along with others (Karaffa and Hancock, 2019a, p. 451). A similar study conducted by Killinger et al. (2017), evaluated levels of depression using the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CES-D), a 20-item inventory measuring the cognitive, affective, and behavioral symptoms of depression. This study shows that 66% of veterinary students report scores of mild to moderate depression. This result score is higher than other populations mentioned in the study: college students (41%) and human medical students (23%). Similar to

other studies mentioned in this literature review, Killinger et al. found gender plays a significant role in depression rates. Female students are shown to have higher levels of depression than male students across all four years of veterinary school. Rates of depression are also associated with training year: the mean depression score of second- and third-year veterinary students is significantly higher than fourth-year veterinary students. It is hypothesized that second and third year is found more stressful due to the start of clinical responsibilities such as involvement in surgery, diagnostic errors, patient death, and communicating with difficult or angry clients (Killinger et al., 2017). The way students learn to cope, or not cope, with this new development of stress throughout their academic years will only follow graduation.

Suicide

The veterinary profession has numerous factors contributing to suicide risk. Veterinary students internalize stress, anxiety, and the pressure to appropriately diagnose and treat their patients. Along with their educational studies, students are required to learn and develop their interpersonal and communication skills and have human interactions with pet owners. Often times, it can be difficult to teach veterinary students how to appropriately empathize and communicate with pet owners who present with strong emotions of grief and anger. Another risk factor for veterinary students are the ethical dilemmas and responsibilities that come with performing a euthanasia or unnecessary procedures such as tail docking, ear cropping or feline declawing (Killinger, 2017). The last risk factor is how students face the possibility of physical harm from the animals which they are caring for through bites, kicks, scratches, and possible exposure to infectious diseases.

There is no published literature that specifically investigates veterinary student suicide. However, there is evidence demonstrating the increased suicide risk for the veterinary

community as a whole. A 2008 study, which surveyed 701 licensed veterinarians in the state of Alabama, showed 66% had been diagnosed with clinical depression since starting veterinary school. Aside from personal factors, work-related stressors can lead to job burnout. Nett et al. (2015) describes job burnout as “a prolonged psychological response to ongoing emotional and interpersonal occupational stressors associated with exhaustion, cynicism, and a sense of ineffectiveness” (p. 945). They performed a study evaluating the prevalence of risk factors for suicide among U.S. veterinarians. A survey was distributed online for which there were 11,627 respondents. Survey questions included demographics, practice setting, history of mental illness, attitudes toward seeking psychological help, and job satisfaction. It was found 31% of the sample had previous depressive episodes, 17% had suicidal ideation, and 1% had attempted suicide since graduating from veterinary school. There were a total of 19% respondents who were currently receiving treatment for a mental health condition, whereas 59% were not receiving any treatments. Evidence supports veterinarians have a more negative attitude towards seeking psychological help when compared with the general U.S. population. In the study by Nett et al. (2015), 89.4% of veterinarians believed treatment could help a person cope with a mental illness, whereas 93% of the general US population believed the same statement. Additionally, compared with 60.2% of US adults, only 31.8% of veterinarians agree that others have positive attitudes toward those with mental illness (Nett et al., 2015, p. 950). Lastly, the most common stressor found to be associated with veterinary medicine was the demands of practice.

Veterinarians are found to have lower rates of non-fatal suicide attempts when compared with the general US population (Nett et al., 2015). This is likely because of veterinarian’s access and knowledge about lethal means, or euthanasia practice. It has been determined in comparison to the general population regarding suicide, there is an increased risk of 2.1 and 3.5 percent for

male veterinarians and female veterinarians, respectively. In Witte et al. (2019), approximately 27% of the general population who died by suicide had been in contact with a mental health professional in the few months prior to their suicide. Because of the high rate of stigma surrounding mental health in the veterinary field, the authors expect the rate to be much lower for veterinarians. Of a 73-person sample size, 74% of suicides were identified as male and 26% were identified as female (Witte et al., 2019). Additionally, when investigating race and ethnicity, it was found that 97% of veterinary suicides were white or non-Hispanic. Poisonings by the means of pentobarbital, the drug used in a euthanasia process, or opioids were the most common cause of death, and most of the suicide attempts, 72%, occurred in the individual's home.

Conclusion/Discussion

In conclusion, it is undeniable the veterinary community, especially veterinary students, are an at-risk population for mental health illness and suicide. There are numerous obstacles veterinarians face daily that can lead to a negative mental health outcome. It has been proven veterinarians have higher rates of stigma surrounding seeking psychological help, decreasing the number of individuals willing to seek mental health care. Contributing factors leading to an increased risk of mental illness include academic stressors such as the fast pace and volume of expected learning material, time management, the fear of being compared to others, and experiencing new ethical dilemmas. Furthermore, non-academic stressors of interpersonal conflicts, health concerns, and financial concerns influence the risk of mental illness. In addition, it is proven veterinarians are at risk for increased anxiety and depression levels when compared to the general US population. Women are at higher risk for depression and anxiety when compared to men and make up a significant proportion of veterinary classes in the United States

today. Finally, mental illness, stress and stigma surrounding seeking help are all contributing factors leading to suicide. The veterinary community is an underserved and underrepresented population in the mental health field. Mental health professionals need to be aware of these needs when working with those in the veterinary profession. Together, we need to destigmatize mental health treatment for the veterinary community and aid in developing coping strategies for their stressful job. This community deserves and needs to be provided with more support, mental health resources, and mental health advocacy.

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Policy Analysis

ADA Subsection 208.2: A Policy Analysis
Michael Kosinski, BSW
The University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Abstract

The Americans with Disabilities Act, or the ADA, is a piece of legislation that benefits many individuals and provides protection from discrimination. This piece discusses a subsection of the ADA, 208.2, which covers the minimum amount of accessible parking spots that parking facilities are required to have. Having available accessible parking spots are a crucial to many living in the United States who have a mobility-related condition. Without access to appropriate parking, many individuals and their families are not able to access the same amenities others can. By adjusting the current law, more individuals may be able to access things others can on a daily basis. This analysis tells a short history of the ADA, strengths, and weaknesses of ADA subsection 208.2, and includes two policy proposals to increase the minimum amount of accessible parking spaces in parking facilities by adjusting the current parking spot bracket. One of the proposals includes adjusting the current bracket by calculating the number of accessible spots as a percentage of the total parking spaces in a facility. The second proposal includes adjusting the number of accessible spaces by one.

Keywords: ADA, accessible parking, minimums, policy proposal

About the Author: Michael Kosinski, BSW, is a first year MSW student in the advanced clinical specialization and focus area of health care. He anticipates graduating in December 2022. Michael's research interests lie in preventative care, hospital readmission rates, and patient outcomes when working with a social work team.

ADA Subsection 208.2: A Policy Analysis

Parking is not something people typically think about unless they cannot find their own spot at a sporting event, concert, or any other event they are attending. It is frustrating when you know you should have a spot, but you just cannot find one. Then the stress of having to park far away comes to mind. To most people, this is not a frequent occurrence. We do not tend to think about those who use those handy-dandy reserved blue spots that we all want to use.

Unfortunately, those issues, faced by some a few times a year, are faced daily by others.

Accessible parking is required by law in almost every parking lot across the country. Fortunately, the Americans with Disabilities Act, also known as the ADA, is a great piece of civil rights law for those with disabilities.

The ADA is comprised of five main sections named Title I, Title II, Title III, Title IV, and Title V. This is a federal policy, but guidelines may be adjusted by each state and local government. This policy analysis discusses a subsection that falls into Title II and Title III, which are about public services and public accommodations (ADA National Network, 2020). More specifically, it will discuss subsection 208.2 which examines the minimum number of accessible parking spaces.

In the United States, 26% of adults have some type of disability and 13.7% have a disability related to mobility (CDC, 2019). This means about 45 million Americans may have difficulty moving around. Whether an individual is in a wheelchair or has any other physical disabilities, having an accessible parking spot may be essential for their day-to-day functioning. For some, it is more difficult to walk longer distances through a parking lot, or they need physical room to be able to leave their vehicle. A lack of accessible parking spaces makes it that much harder for some people to accomplish basic tasks.

Since the ADA is such a large policy, this analysis will focus on subsection 208.2. The ADA protects any individual with a disability whether the disability is visible or not. However, this subsection is specifically about the minimum number of accessible parking spots in a “parking facility”. It is important to know “the term ‘parking facility’ is used instead of the term ‘parking lot’ so it is clear that both parking lots and parking structures are required to comply with this section” (Department of Justice, 2010).

So, who is eligible? This policy was created for those who use their own transportation like an automobile or motorcycle. However, to be allowed to park in an accessible spot, you are required to have a disabled parking placard (permanent or temporary) or disability license plate. Each state has different requirements to be eligible for a placard. In Illinois, the form for placards asks whether the individual cannot “walk 200 feet without stopping to rest” because of a condition (Cyber Drive Illinois, n.d.). The benefits of this are the creation of accessible parking spaces to those who need it. There are many different regulations on the size of the space, distance to an entryway, and markings. These benefits are delivered by the state sending individuals an accessible parking placard and by parking spaces being available at different parking facilities. This is funded federally; however, each state and local government may create any necessary adjustments.

Strengths

Having accessible parking is very important in terms of equity and equality. Having equality ensures all individuals get to have the same thing. The Tennessee Department of Health writes “with equality, all individuals are able to join and participate in all aspects of life”. (Tennessee Department of Health, n.d.). With accessible parking, everyone gets to have their

own spot. For example, having accessible parking enables all people to be able to have access to any building or event. The Accessible Parking Coalition argues having these accessible spots also help business. They write having more accessible spots enables more customers to visit stores and purchase items. Without this, “people may not have access without proper parking” (APC, 2019). Having accessible parking is also important for the equity of people. If everyone has a spot, that does not mean they are all on a level playing field. Accessible parking enables individuals with disabilities to properly access different stores, restaurants, or events. Having an adequate number of accessible spots is also an important part of this policy. Although there is a belief that this policy can be improved, the law already requires a minimum number of accessible spots, which may vary state to state. Without having a minimum, businesses would be able to leave out accessible; therefore, access to stores would not be equal to all.

Weaknesses

Even though this policy has very good intentions, in some places around the country, maintaining accessible parking has been difficult. Unfortunately, the city of Denver is an example of poor maintenance. Denver Auditor Timothy M. O’Brien was responsible for evaluating multiple city operations, and in 2016, and he wrote about the Disability Parking Enforcement Program in Denver. Even though policy is written and created for cities to follow, in this report, O’Brien writes how it has been poorly enforced. He writes the “audit found that 65 percent of the 20-surface parking lots we reviewed are not fully compliant with the standards for accessible parking spaces as established” by the ADA (O’Brien, 2016). With poor enforcement of the policy, many individuals are not able to access services in their communities thus creating an unequal balance of equity.

There are many issues with accessible parking policy including poor enforcement, lack of adequate space for those who use vans with van accessible parking, poor space placement, and even the idea of physicians handing out too many placards too easily (APC, 2019). Hopefully increasing the minimum number of accessible spots may help a little to let more people access different spots.

Having a set minimum number of accessible spaces also means some businesses will only require minimums. According to subsection 208.2, in a parking lot up of to 25 spaces, only one space is required to be accessible. It is good there is a minimum, but what happens when more than one person needs to access that space? It would not be fair to prioritize one disability over another. Having a set minimum can reduce the number of individuals who can access something. If adequate parking is not available for individual, they are then not able to access the resource (store, restaurant, or events), they want. This throws off the equality of everyone being able to participate. Even if there are other spots open, some individuals with disabilities may not be able to use that spot for different reasons. There may not be adequate space for them to exit their own vehicle, they may not be able to walk such a long distance, or they could have any one of several conditions making mobility difficult.

Alternate Approaches

Subsection 208.2 has a set minimum for different brackets of number of parking spaces. To start off, it is great there is a set minimum. This way, at least one person is guaranteed access. However, that in itself is a problem. Only one individual may be able to use that spot. I have created two different approaches of varying degrees that may help this problem.

One new proposal could be to look at this bracket (Table 1) already created by the ADA and change the number of minimum required spaces using the highest number in each bracket.

Total Number of Parking Spaces Provided in Parking Facility	Minimum Number of Required Accessible Parking Spaces
1 to 25	1
26 to 50	2
51 to 75	3
76 to 100	4
101 to 150	5
151 to 200	6
201 to 300	7
301 to 400	8
401 to 500	9
501 to 1000	2 percent of total
1001 and over	20, plus 1 for each 100, or fraction thereof, over 1000

Table 1
(Department of Justice, 2010)

Total Number of Parking Spaces Provided in Parking Facility	Minimum Number of Required Accessible Parking Spaces
1 to 25	8% of 25 = 2
26 to 50	8% of 50 = 4
51 to 75	8% of 75 = 6
76 to 100	8% of 100 = 8
101 to 150	8% of 150 = 12
151 to 200	7% of 200 = 14
201 to 300	7% of 300 = 21
301 to 400	21
401 to 500	21
501 to 1000	21
1001 and over	3% of total (round down if not a whole number)

Table 2: Percentage Idea

In this proposal shown on table 2, there should be a standard set to a minimum of two spots in the bracket of 1 to 25 spaces, this is why 8% was selected to be the percentage to start with. When looking at the first row of spaces, 8% of 25 came out to be 2 spots. For this proposal, this “8% rule” was continually applied up until the 150 spot mark. Comparing the 5th number bracket in Table 2 to Table 1, there was a large difference in the number of spots. Table 1 had a minimum of 5 spots, while Table 2 had 12. The percentage was then lowered until reaching the 301-400, as 21 seemed like such a large number compared to the ADA minimum. Then 1%

higher was placed for the remainder of the bracket to make sure that the minimum for 1001+ had more spots than 501 to 1000. Although a percent may be a good idea to calculate an adequate number of accessible spots, there needs to be research done to see how many accessible spaces are actually used on an average day at different sites, as well as at special events. Some of the percentages may be too high and some spaces may never be used, which may seem like a waste of space at some point. Although the idea is to give everyone an equal opportunity, realistically at some point, there may be a number of unused spaces

Total Number of Parking Spaces Provided in Parking Facility	Minimum Number of Required Accessible Parking Spaces
1 to 25	2
26 to 50	3
51 to 75	4
76 to 100	5
101 to 150	6
151 to 200	7
201 to 300	8
301 to 400	9
401 to 500	10
501 to 1000	3% of total
1001 and over	30, plus 1 for each 100

Table 3: One Up Idea

This second proposal may be simpler one. Here the numbers from Table 1 are taken and the minimum number of accessible spaces is increased by one in each bracket. Having a singular spot seems low as there is always a chance that more than one individual may need an accessible spot. This proposal may seem more realistic as the changes are not as drastic as the first proposal. It is hard however to decide the numbers when there are less than 25 spaces. For example, if there are only 10 parking spaces, having 2 accessible spaces may seem like a lot, as one accessible spot uses the same amount of 2 regular spots. So in this example, it would seem that you would go from 10 spaces to 6.

With both proposals, this may increase the amount of equity. As stated before, making sure everyone has a spot may put everyone on a level playing field, but in reality, we are not all at the same level. Some individuals just need a little more help so they have an equal opportunity to access different services. Having an adequate amount of spaces ensures all people have that same opportunity. If the required minimum is set too low, some will not be able to participate in normal day-to-day activities like everyone else.

Conclusion

Making sure subsection 208.2 is followed is a necessity to achieve equity and equality for those with compromised mobility abilities. When individuals are not given the opportunity to access to businesses and other services due to lack of parking, this creates a large gap in equality. Enforcing 208.2 enhances the equity of people as they get the assistance they need to have the same opportunities of all people. Inconsistencies and poor enforcement contribute to these obstacles that many people face. Looking at the ADA as a whole is a daunting task. There are so many moving pieces to it that it is almost impossible to make one change without taking look at another part of the policy. Just looking at subsection 208.2 was difficult as there are so many factors that play into accessible parking. Some accessible spots have spots striped off on both sides of the vehicle, while other spots only have one side striped off. There are instances where the width of the space matters so individuals are able to exit out of their van in van accessible spots.

Putting all logistics aside, it is important for us to know that raising the required minimum is important. This gives more individuals the opportunity to do more in their life. Simply put, everyone has the right to be able to visit the mall or go to the park. Sometimes,

parking spaces may be full and access to a place or event should not be denied because it is physically impossible for a person to enter. But if something is available and ability is the only barrier, these daily activities seem more like a privilege than a right.

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Research-Based Poster Presentations

The Impact of COVID-19 on Cyber-victimization Experiences Among Middle School Students

Jessica Baltierra, Sarah Aronson, Madisyn Welsh

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Abstract

Adolescents' frequent use of social media and other forms of electronic communication has skyrocketed during the COVID-19 pandemic, and adolescents are using these platforms for schoolwork and socialization. Researchers have yet to explore a possible consequence of this increased usage: an increase in cyber-victimization among adolescents. To date, most research has examined adolescent cyber-victimization in international spaces during the pandemic, but not as much research has been conducted in the United States. Additionally, it is nearly impossible to find research that focuses on cyber-victimization rates in the United States before and during the COVID-19 pandemic, which is what this research aims to address.

Participants were two cohorts of 6th, 7th, and 8th grade students from an urban middle school. Both cohorts' self-reported rates of cyber-victimization were examined before (spring and fall 2019, early spring 2020) and during the pandemic (spring of 2021). Results indicated a large number of adolescents experienced cyber-victimization, but these rates were similar before the pandemic to current rates of cyber-victimization. This research aims to inform those working and living with adolescents of the risks associated with excessive social media use, including experiencing cyber-victimization. These results can be used to support students who have experienced cyber-victimization before and during the pandemic, and to help practitioners strategize ways to inform and enhance future prevention programs. It is crucial to understand the

consequences of this digital world during a global pandemic, and future researchers should consider the associations between cyber-victimization and adolescent mental health concerns.

Keywords: cyber-victimization, middle school, COVID-19 pandemic, social media

About the Authors: Jessica Baltierra is a junior majoring in Social Work and minoring in Psychology. She plans to graduate in December 2022. She is interested in research involving the foster care system, child welfare, and child abuse and neglect.

Sarah Aronson anticipates graduating in Spring, 2022. Her major is Social Work, with a minor in Anthropology. Her research interests revolve around children and schools.

Madisyn Welsh is a Senior majoring in Social Work with a minor in Criminology, Law, and Society, graduating in May 2022. Her research interests include violence prevention, criminal justice, and juvenile social-emotional well-being. Specifically, she is interested in learning more about the experiences of juveniles within the criminal justice system as well as programming available for adolescents and families affected by the criminal justice system.

The Impact of COVID-19 on Cyber-victimization Experiences Among Middle School Students

Jessica Baltierra, Sarah Aronson, Madisyn Welsh

Mentors: Shongha Kim, MSW, Rachel C. Garthe, Ph.D

School of Social Work, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

INTRODUCTION

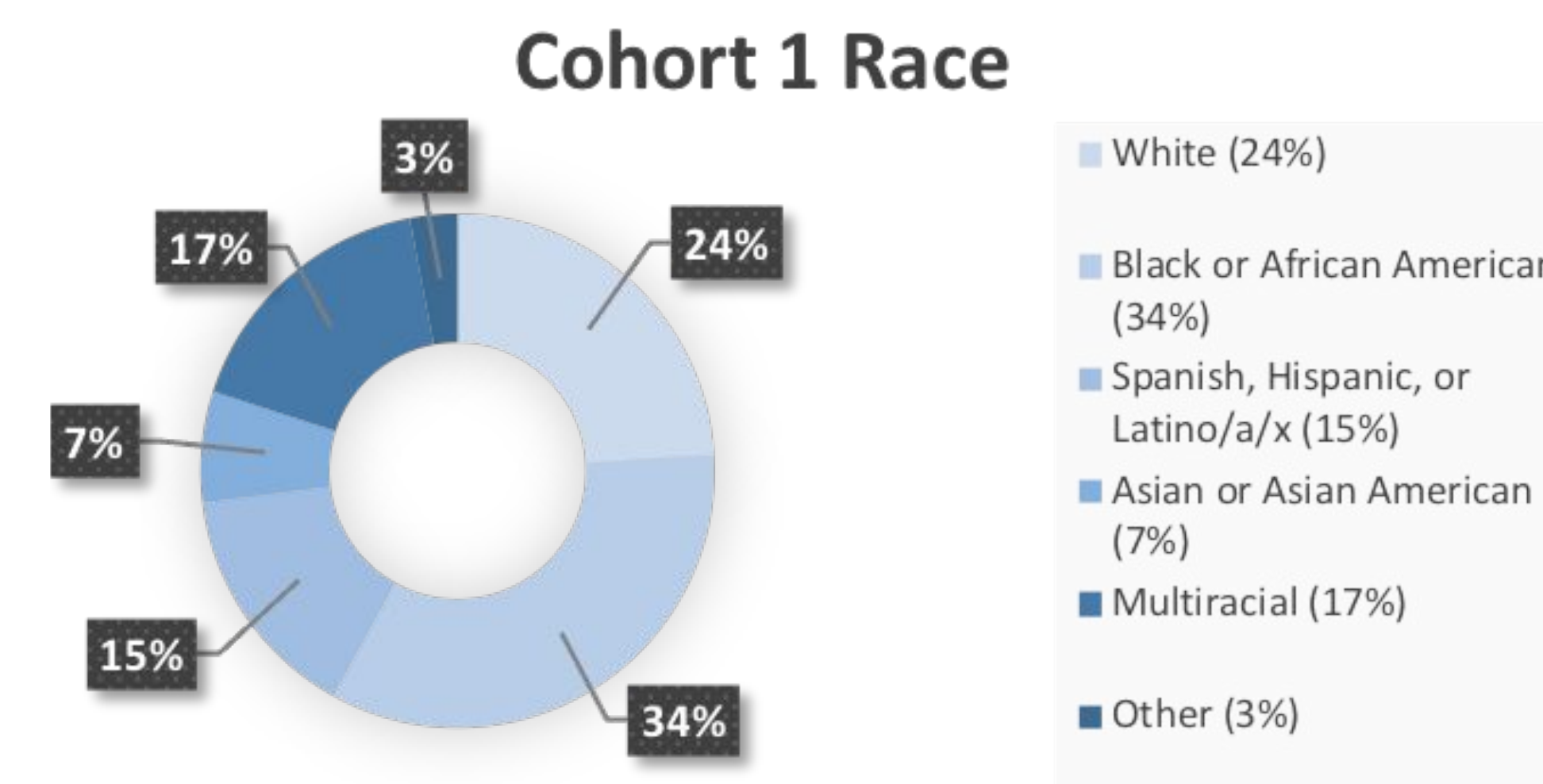
- ❖ Cyber-victimization is defined as any type of bullying or harm done using electronic sources (Snakenborg, Van Acker, & Gable, 2011).
- ❖ This type of bullying is more volatile and harmful due to the protection of anonymity, limited adult supervision, and larger possible audiences to victimize (Dempsey et. al., 2009).
- ❖ In 2017, 23% of youth in middle school had experienced some form of cyber-victimization (CDC, 2017).
- ❖ 32.7% of cyber-victimization victims stated the perpetrator was someone that they thought was a friend.
- ❖ 27.7% of cyber-victimization victims stated the perpetrator was someone from their school (Waasdorp and Bradshaw, 2015).
- ❖ Previous studies have focused on the relationship between traditional bullying and cyber-victimization (Kowalski and Limber, 2007).

CURRENT STUDY

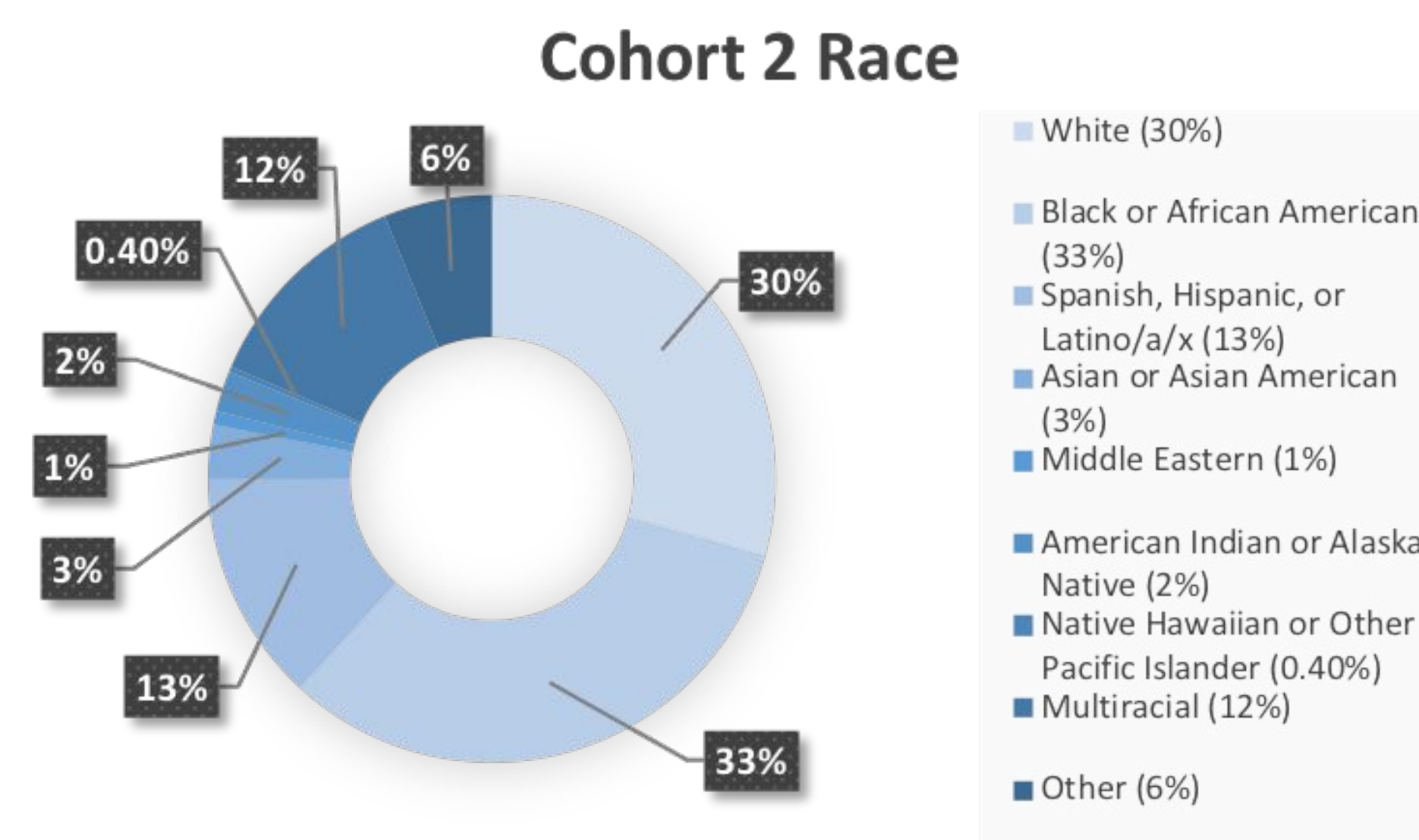
- ❖ Research to date has focused on cyber-victimization pre-pandemic
- ❖ Studies have not examined the impact of increased electronic and social media usage due to COVID-19
- ❖ Our study aims to change this as we are comparing cyber-victimization rates among middle schoolers from before the pandemic to current rates in 2021
- ❖ Our study has specified the different types of perpetrators of cyber-victimization among students
 - There have not been many studies that have done this
 - Breakdown of cyber-victimization from friend, dating partner, someone at school, stranger, family, or other

METHOD

- ❖ Participants included two cohorts of sixth-, seventh-, and eighth-grade students from an urban middle school
 - Cohort 1 followed sixth graders through eighth grade
 - Spring 2019
 - Fall 2019
 - Spring 2021
 - 45% identified as male, 53% identified as female, 1% identified as transgender, and 1% identified as other



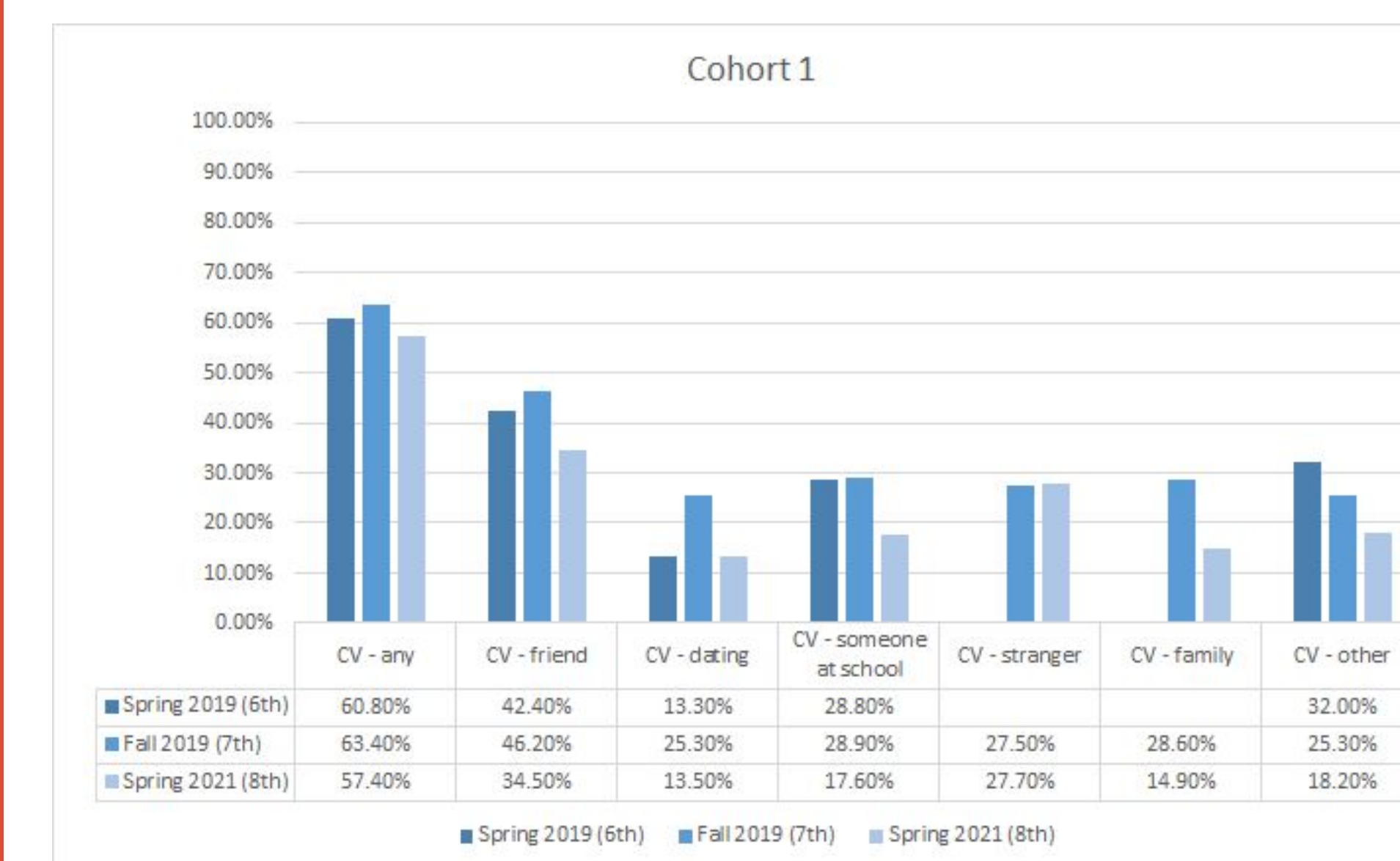
- Cohort 2 followed sixth graders through seventh grade
 - Fall 2019
 - Spring 2020
 - Spring 2021
- 50% identified as male, 48% identified as female, 4% identified as transgender, and 1% identified as other



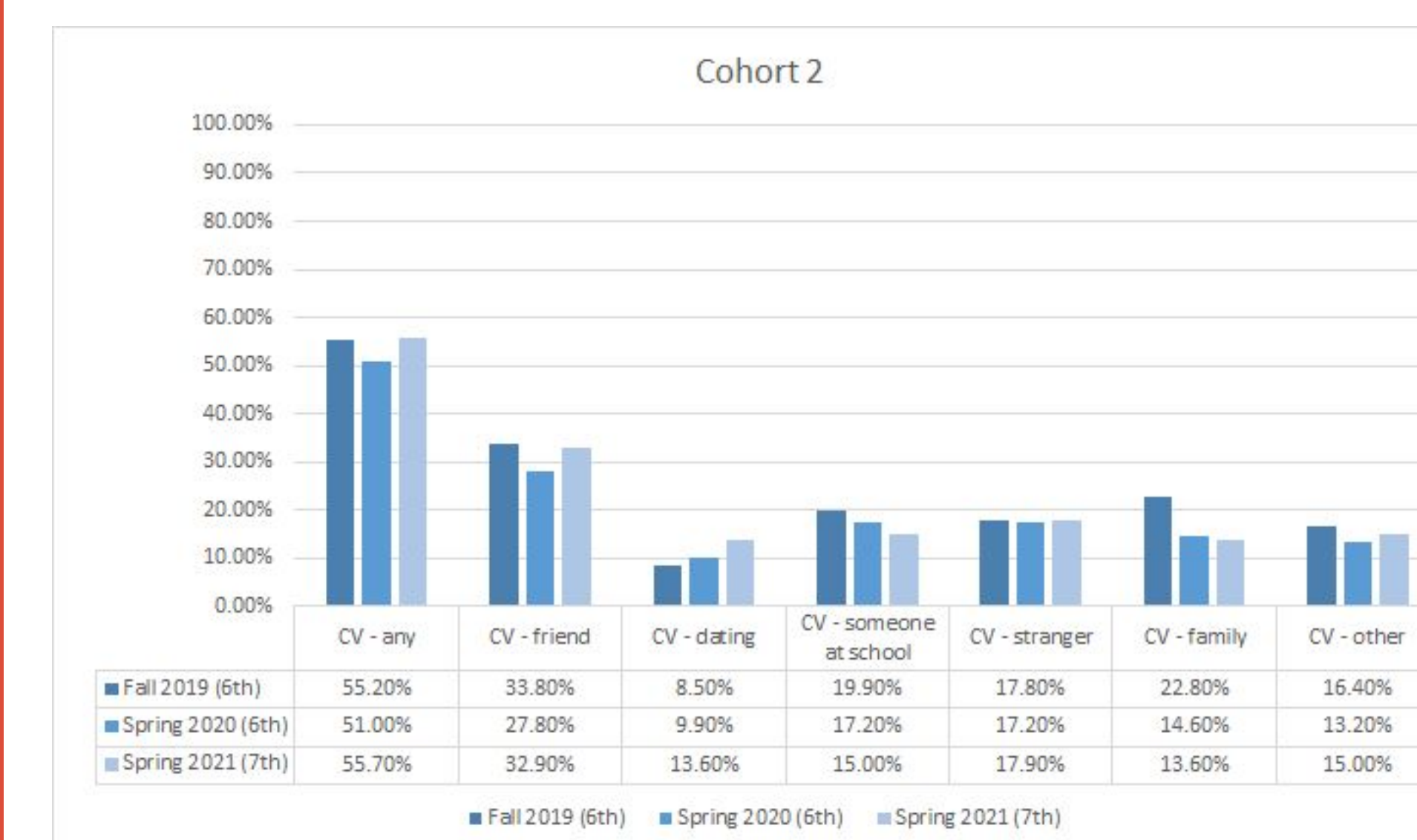
- ❖ Participants completed a self-reported questionnaire about relationships with peers and experiences with cyber-victimization before and during COVID-19 (Bennett, Guran, Ramos, & Margolin, 2011)

RESULTS

- ❖ Cohort 1 results
 - No statistical change in cyber-victimization overall in the most recent wave
 - Decrease in cyber-victimization from a dating partner, someone at school, and family



- ❖ Cohort 2 results
 - No statistical change in cyber-victimization overall in the most recent wave
 - Increase in cyber-victimization from a dating partner, but decrease from someone at school and family



- ❖ Both cohorts experienced a decrease in cyber-victimization from someone at school and family (likely related to COVID-19)
- ❖ Important to note how high cyber-victimization was from a stranger from both cohorts, but specifically Cohort 1
 - Stayed relatively constant throughout all waves of data collected

DISCUSSION

- Results show there was not a statistical increase in cyber-victimization from the impact of COVID-19.
- ❖ There may not have been an increase because:
 - Students matured as they moved up in age and grade level.
 - They may have experienced more intimate friendships and relationships.
 - There was a lack of face-to-face interaction, or they were not able to connect/meet with peers.
 - Parents/guardians may have been more aware of what happens online and had more restrictions on their child's internet use.
 - ❖ It is important for schools to understand the impact that COVID-19 has had on its students.

LIMITATIONS

- ❖ Conducted in a mid-size urban area; results may be different in other communities and schools
- ❖ There were less students surveyed this year compared to past years
 - Due to the pandemic, there was a decline in how much data could be collected
- ❖ The latest wave of data was collected virtually whereas it is usually done in person
 - Students may have had a lack of concentration or willingness to participate

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

References are available upon request

For more information on our research contact:
 Jessica Baltierra: jlb9@illinois.edu
 Sarah Aronson: sarahba3@illinois.edu
 Madisyn Welsh: madisyn4@illinois.edu

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An Investigation into the Potential of Horticultural and Nature-Based Interventions for Change

Mary-Elizabeth (Liz) Guenther

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Abstract

The majority of the planet's inhabitants live in urban areas, and vulnerable populations are much more likely to live in urban environments with many barriers preventing wellness promotion (Africa et al., 2014). Marginalized communities are significantly more likely to have limited access to natural environments, leading to detrimental and life-threatening impacts on community wellbeing (Africa et al., 2014). Previous research has shown how horticultural therapy possesses the power to reduce stress and anxiety symptoms, bolster productivity, establish community connectedness, and promote resilience (Hall & Knuth, 2019). Horticultural therapy could include walks through nature or gardening to accomplish its powerful effects (Meredith et al., 2020). Although these findings about nature-based interventions are promising, there are still gaps in the literature researching horticultural therapy interventions. In addition, the horticultural therapy field lacks research about the evaluation of programs that utilize several disciplines to deliver multifaceted horticultural community programs. In the current study, a systematic literature review of horticultural interventions will assess the potential impacts of horticultural therapy and community interventions. Additionally, foundational and innovative measures will be gathered to evaluate the impact of a current Cook County program empowering

high school students. The literature will highlight how interdisciplinary horticultural programs can be utilized to promote community change, and how these programs can be evaluated.

Keywords: horticultural therapy, health equity, and nature-based therapy

About the author: Liz Guenther is a senior BSW student minoring in Community-Based Art Education. She hopes to graduate in Spring 2022. She is passionate about researching alternative social work interventions to promote social change, such as art therapy and horticultural therapy.

An Investigation into the Potential of Horticultural and Nature-Based Interventions for Well-Being and the Methods to Evaluate Their Effects

Liz Guenther

Mentor: Rachel Garthe, PhD

School of Social Work, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

INTRODUCTION

- 50% of the planet's populations live in urban environments, and this percentage is projected to increase due to the trend of urbanization.¹
- Many green and nature-based spaces are often disproportionately located in White neighborhoods with socioeconomic privilege.¹
- Living in urban areas with fewer green spaces has been linked to higher rates of mental health issues, such as depression and anxiety (Shanahan et al., 2019). Students represent a vulnerable group with more mental health issues than ever before with suicide and self-harm on the rise.²
- Marginalized communities in urban areas with fewer green spaces often are at higher risks for diseases such as cancer, heart disease, and diabetes.¹

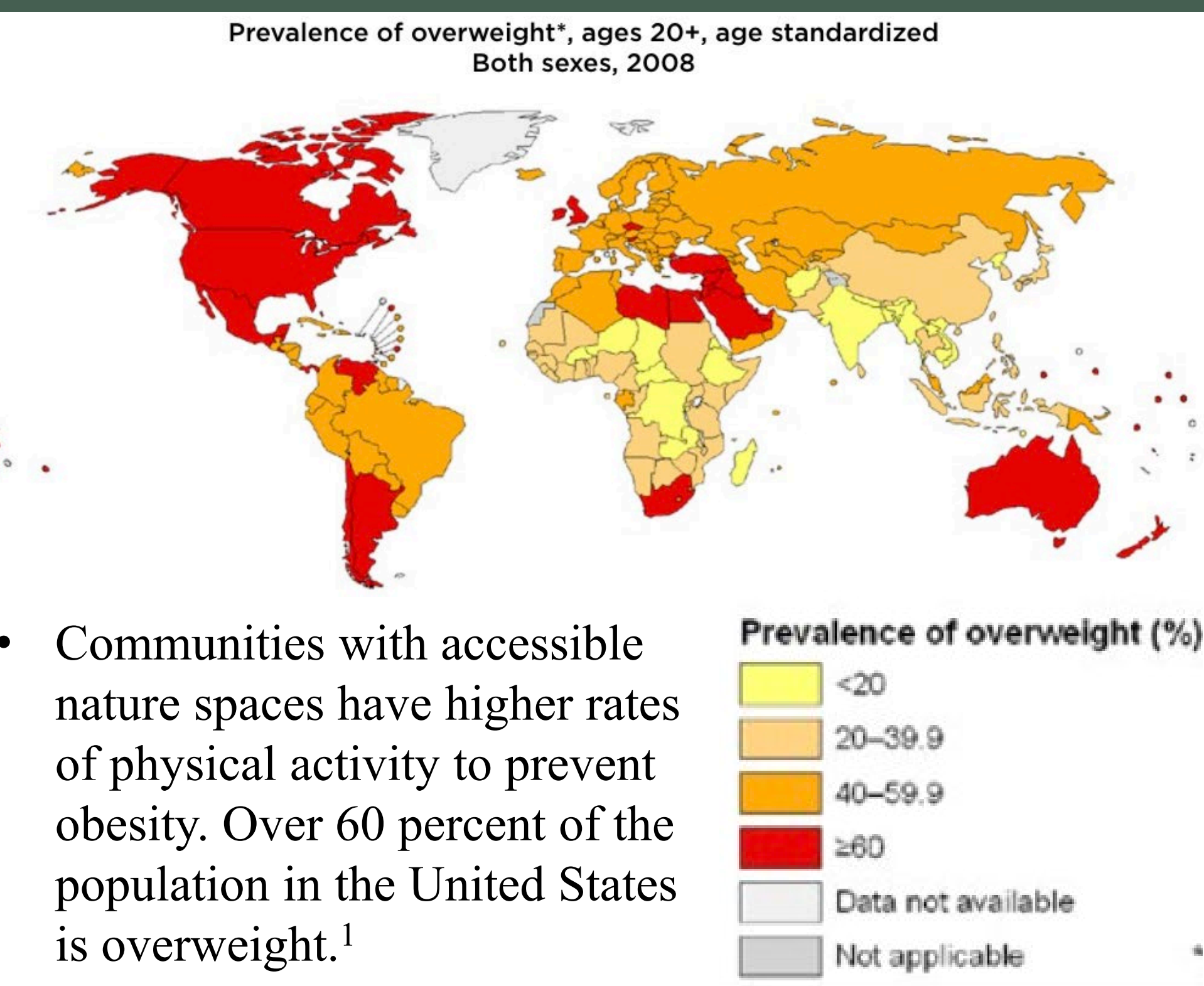
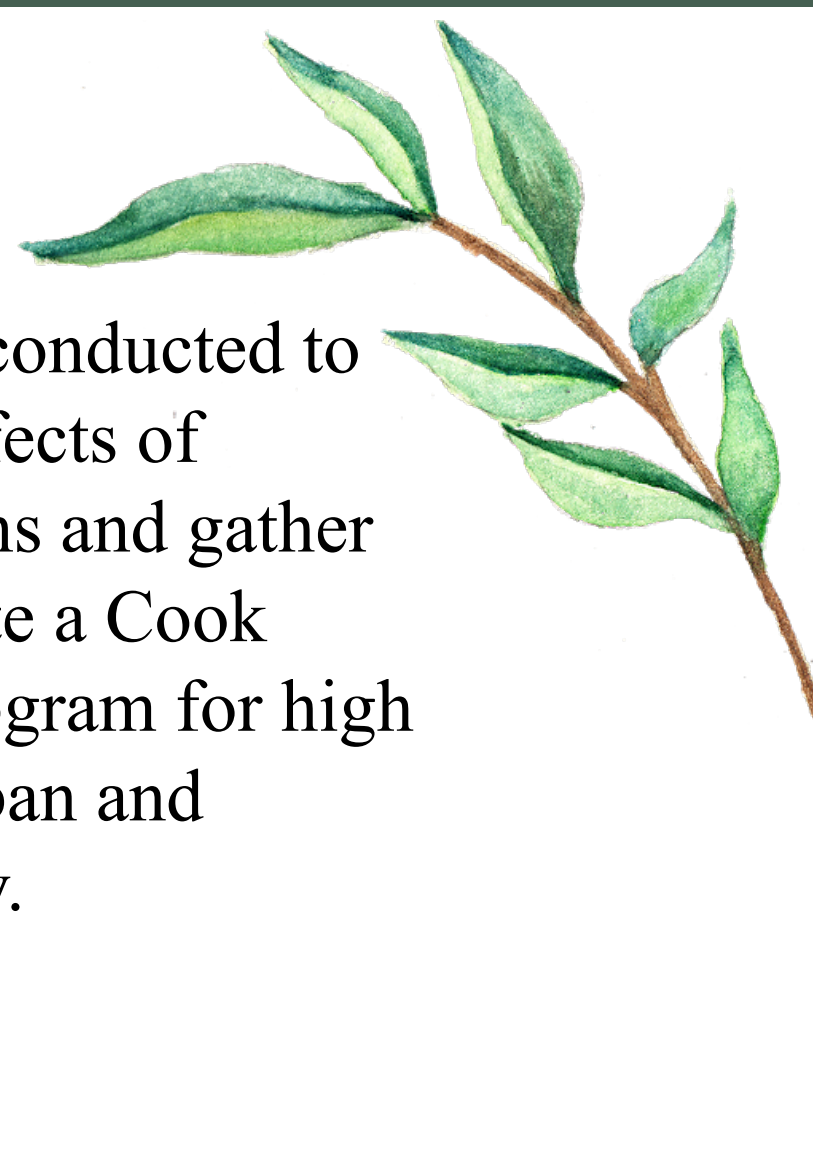


Figure 1: retrieved from Africa, & Logan, & Mitchell, & Korpela, Kalevi & Allen, Diana & Tyrvaänen, Liisa & Nisbet, Elizabeth & Li, & Tsunetsugu, & Miyazaki, Yoshifumi & Spengler, & Group, on. (2014). The Natural Environments Initiative: Illustrative Review and Workshop Statement.

CURRENT STUDY

- A literature review was conducted to evaluate the potential effects of horticultural interventions and gather measurements to evaluate a Cook County nature-based program for high school students in an urban and marginalized community.



¹ (Africa et al., 2014).

² (Meredith et al., 2020).

POTENTIAL OF NATURE-BASED INTERVENTIONS

Mental Health Benefits

- Nature-based interventions have been shown to decrease anxiety and depression symptoms (Bloomfield, 2017).
- “Mental health engagement with, access to, and interventions within nature” can offer an alternative approach to mental health (Bloomfield, 2017, p. 82).
- A study evaluating the impact of horticultural interventions on veterans with PTSD concluded nature-based methods led to decreases in PTSD symptoms, increases in community connection, and a greater sense of fulfillment (Poulsen et al., 2015).

Self-Esteem

- Horticultural interventions also have been shown to influence self-esteem, and the improvements of self-esteem can beneficially impact other areas of concern, such as mental health (de Seixas et al., 2017).
- Participants in a nature-based program in a mental health clinic highlighted many beneficial effects (de Seixas et al., 2017).
 - They felt a greater connection to community and felt less isolated (de Seixas et al., 2017).
 - They were proud of their progress and successes in the program (de Seixas et al., 2017).

Attention and Behavior Benefits

- In nine studies using the “Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire” to assess the impact of horticultural interventions, children were most impacted in their hyperactivity and attention (Vanaken & Danckaerts, 2018, p. 4).
- Nature interventions also improved children’s connection to their peers, improved their emotions, and bolstered their social skills overall (Vanaken & Danckaerts, 2018).



Figure 2: retrieved from Mangadu, T., Kelly, M., Orezzoli, M. C. E., Gallegos, R., & Matharasi, P. (2017). Best practices for community gardening in a US-Mexico border community. *Health Promotion International*, 32(6), 1001–1014. <https://doi-org.proxy2.library.illinois.edu/10.1093/heapro/daw025>

METHODS OF EVALUATION FOR MENTAL HEALTH

Mental Health Measurements

- Goodman’s “Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire” (1997)
 - The rating categorizations are not true, somewhat true, and certainly true.
 - 5 subscales:
 - “Emotional Symptoms, Conduct Problems, Hyperactivity, Peer Relationship Problems, and Prosocial Behavior” (Goodman, 1997, p. 1-2)
- Lovibond & Lovibond’s “Depression Anxiety Scale” (1995)
 - This measures the frequency that participants experienced stress, anxiety, and depression scenarios.
 - 42 items on a 4-point Likert scale
- Terry et al.’s “Profile of Mood States—Adolescents” (1999)
 - 24 items
 - 4-point Likert scale
 - Several adjectives are used to describe how individuals feel at the moment of the evaluation.
- Derogatis et al.’s “Symptom Checklist--90 Revised” (1977)
 - This foundational measurement has been used in several horticultural research studies.
 - 90 items on a 5-point Likert scale
 - 9 subscales:
 - “Somatization, Obsessive-Compulsive, Interpersonal Sensitivity, Depression, Anxiety, Hostility, Phobic Anxiety, Paranoid Ideation, Psychotism” (Derogatis et al., 1977, p. 1-3).



Figure 3: retrieved from Mangadu, T., Kelly, M., Orezzoli, M. C. E., Gallegos, R., & Matharasi, P. (2017). Best practices for community gardening in a US-Mexico border community. *Health Promotion International*, 32(6), 1001–1014. <https://doi-org.proxy2.library.illinois.edu/10.1093/heapro/daw025>

METHODS OF EVALUATION FOR LEADERSHIP AND PHYSIOLOGICAL EFFECTS

Leadership Measurement

- Xirasagar et al.’s “Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire—Adapted Version” (2005)
 - 43 items on a 5-point Likert scale
 - This evaluation method considers the frequency that individuals take part in the characteristics of “transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership” (Xirasagar et al., 2005, p. 1-3).

Physiological Effects

- Meredith et al. (2020) Physiological Measurement Suggestions
 - Salivary Cortisol Levels
 - Heart Rate
 - Blood Pressure

CONCLUSION

- Horticultural and nature-based interventions have been shown to significantly impact overall wellness, mental health, self-esteem, and attention.
- There are several possibilities in the future evaluation methods of horticultural interventions. It could be significant to explore impacts on self-esteem, confidence, resilience, and community connection.
- By utilizing multiple methods of evaluation, the transformational effects of nature-based interventions can be depicted.

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References are available upon request.

For more information, please contact:
Liz Guenther at
meg5@illinois.edu

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An Exploration of Dating Violence Norms Among Early Adolescents

Alexis Krones, Sarah Aronson, Amanda Yeazel

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Abstract

Early adolescence is a significant time of development, as many middle schoolers begin to explore dating and relationships, and unfortunately, may experience violence from dating partners. Not only may issues of violence arise, but gender roles and norms may also influence adolescents in a detrimental way. Thus, it is imperative to find preventative programs that educate adolescents about dating violence and healthy dating behaviors and norms. During the 2020-2021 school year, 7th-grade students at a midwestern semi-urban school district participated in a dating violence prevention program. Surveys were conducted before and after the program. The group found two dating violence norms showed negative changes: 1) more students agreed sometimes boys have to hit their partner to get them back under control, and 2) it is okay for a girl to hit someone they are dating if she is hit first. We will explore reasons why these adolescents continue to believe violent dating behaviors are acceptable, even after participating in a prevention program. This exploration has the potential to bring awareness as to why students believe dating violence is justifiable and provide prevention programs with suggestions on strengthening their dating violence prevention programs.

Keywords: dating violence, adolescents, prevention programs

About the authors: Alexis Krones is a Social Work student who anticipates graduating in Spring, 2020. Her research interests include gender non-conforming youth, and the mental health of adolescents and women.

Sarah Aronson, also anticipates graduating in Spring, 2022. Her major is Social Work, with a minor in Anthropology. Her research interests revolve around children and schools.

Amanda Yeazel, BSW, currently is an MSW student at UIUC with a concentration in mental health. Her research interests are in mental health as well.

An Exploration of Dating Violence Norms among Early Adolescents

Alexis Kroner, BSW Student | Sarah Aronson, BSW Student | Amanda Yeazel, BSW Student

Mentors: Rachel Garthe, PhD, and Shongha Kim, MSW
School of Social Work, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

PROGRAM OVERVIEW

Dating Violence Norms

Controlling behaviors one partner uses to gain power and control over another in a relationship

Early Adolescents

Students between the ages of 11 and 13

- This study reviews a program that focuses on middle school students
- Early adolescence is a time where peers are crucial in shaping behavior norms

Dating Violence Prevention Program

Designed to educate and inform teens about dating violence and encourage healthy relationships

- Types of abuse discussed: emotional, verbal, financial, sexual, digital, spiritual, and physical

Current Study

Examine and assess a dating violence prevention program based on the following characteristics:

- 5 sessions, approximately 25 minutes each
- Delivered virtually through Zoom
- Conducted by one facilitator

Discussion Topics:

Week 1: defined domestic violence, discussed different types of domestic violence, & explored domestic violence scenarios

Week 2: reviewed 6 types of abuse, discussed power and control and equality wheel, viewed role-play videos and beginning scene of "Up", briefly discussed resources

Week 3: reviewed six types of abuse, discussed bystander intervention, discussed handling specific dating violence situations, discussed services the program provides

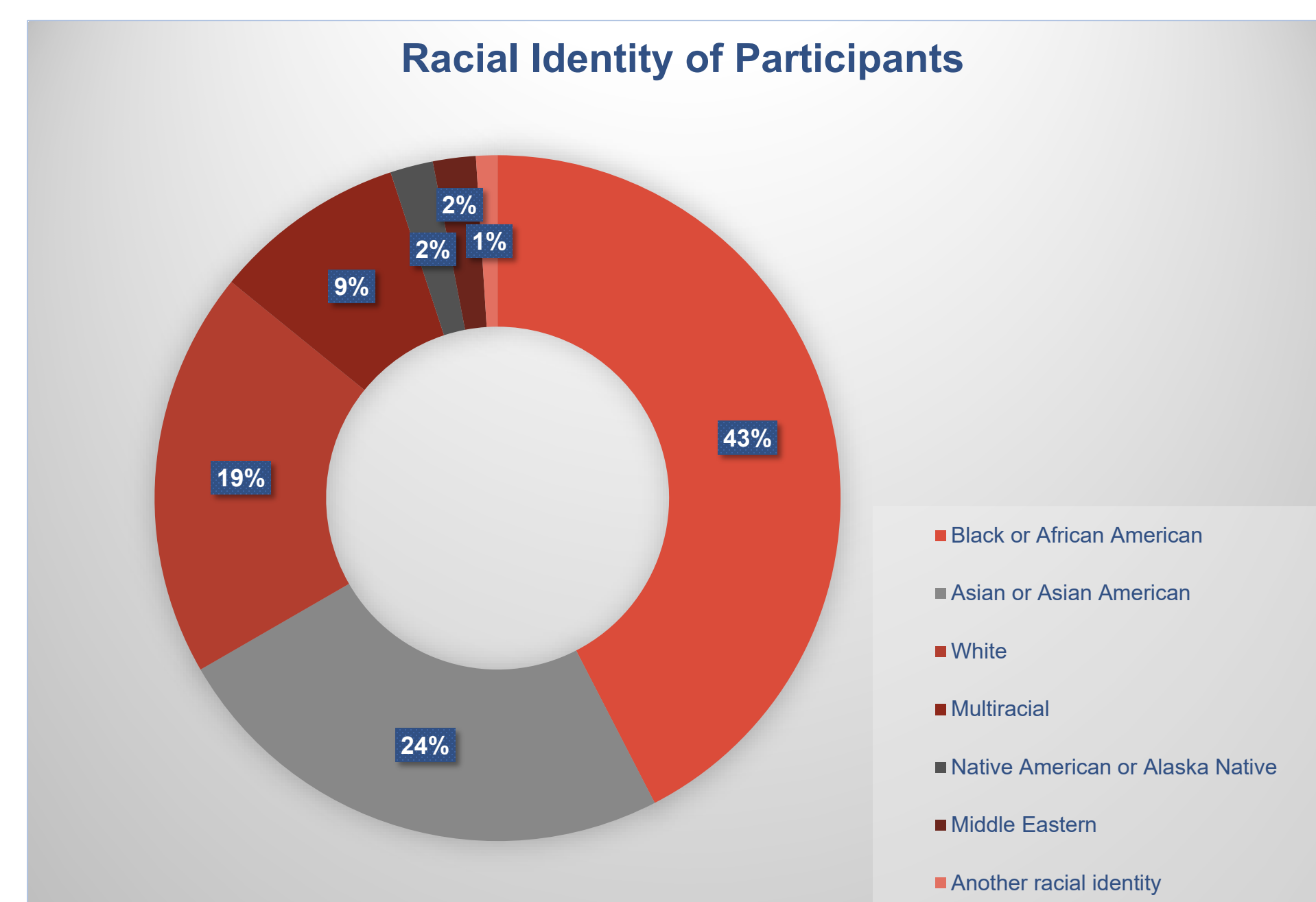
Week 4: reviewed six types of abuse, viewed a dating violence scene from "What Would You Do?", briefly discussed resources

Week 5: reviewed six types of abuse, discussed reactions to different dating violence situations as a victim and as a bystander, briefly discussed resources

METHOD & RESULTS

Participants

- 97 seventh-grade students were included in this study across Quarter 1 (n = 55) and Quarter 2 (n = 42)
- Ages ranged from 11-13 (M = 12.14, SD = 0.39)
- About half (51%) of participants identified as female



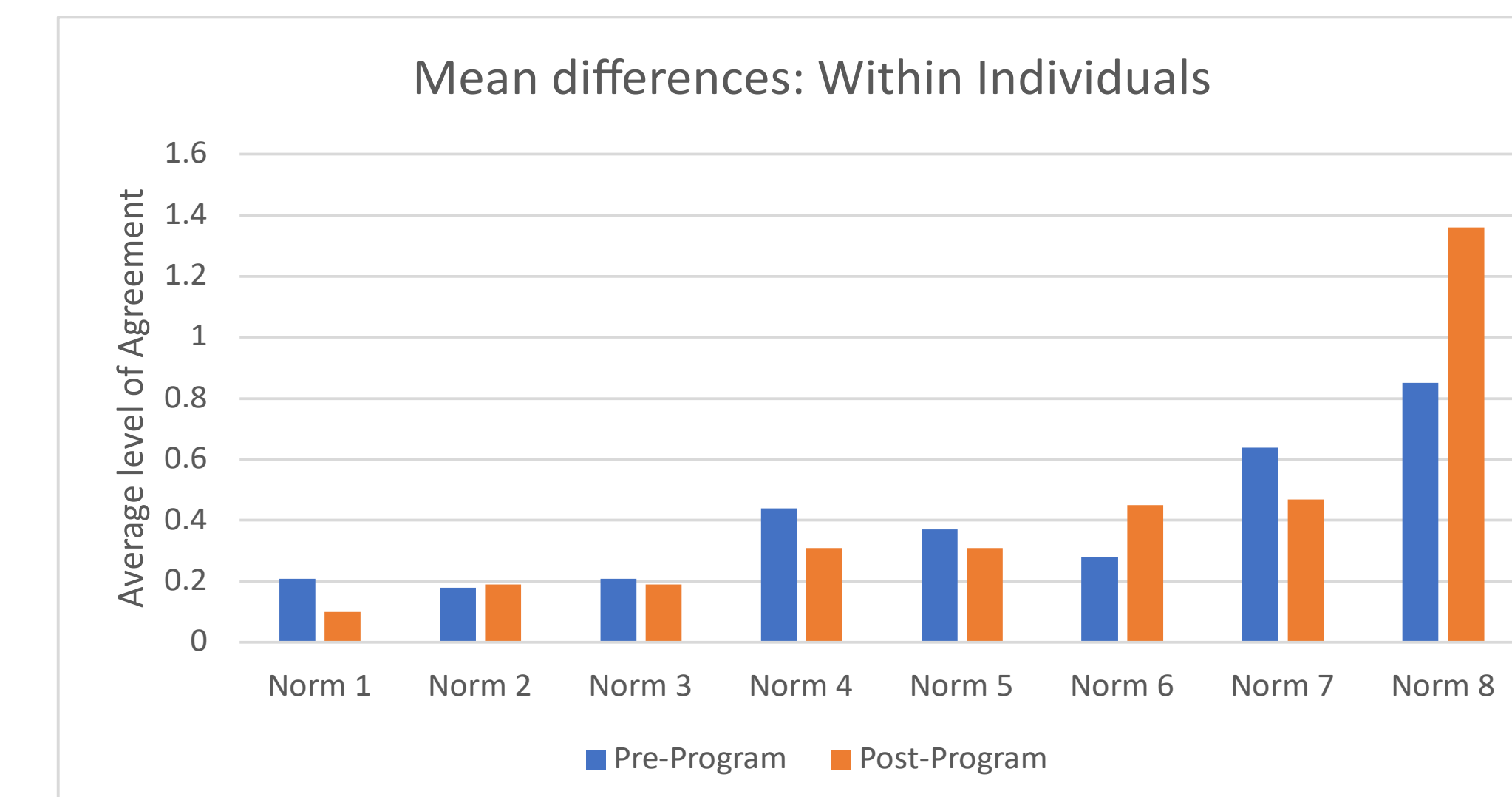
Procedure

- Surveys were administered through a Google form before students started the program (pretest) and after they finished the program (posttest).

Measurements	Pretest	Posttest
<i>Slightly Agree or Strongly Agree...</i>	%	%
1. It is okay for a boy to hit his girlfriend, boyfriend, or partner if they did something to make him mad.	7%	2%
2. It is okay for a boy to hit his girlfriend, boyfriend, or partner if they insulted him in front of friends.	5%	5%
3. Girls sometimes deserve to be hit by the people they date.	3%	3%
4. A girl who makes her boyfriend, girlfriend, or partner jealous on purpose deserves to be hit.	11%	5%
5. Boys sometimes deserve to be hit by the people they date.	12%	5%
6. Sometimes boys have to hit their girlfriend, boyfriend, or partner to get them back under control.	9%	11%
7. It is okay for a boy to hit someone they're dating if they hit him first.	19%	9%
8. It is okay for a girl to hit someone they're dating if they hit her first.	29%	46%

Data Analysis

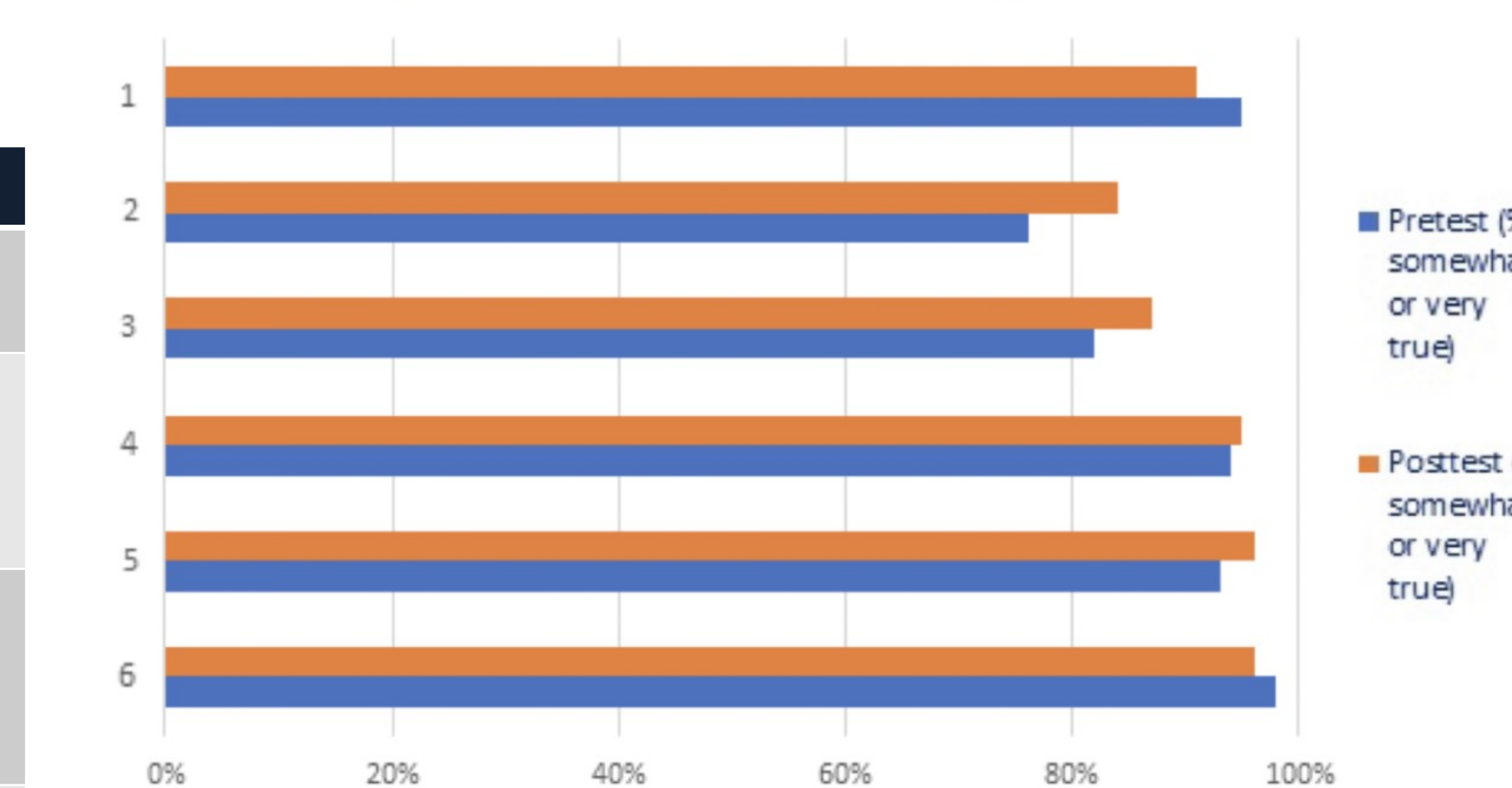
- A series of paired sample t-tests were conducted to assess for mean level differences in dating violence norms within individuals from pretest to posttest.



Two norms saw statistically significant changes in a negative direction:

- Norm 6:** more students agreed or strongly agreed sometimes boys have to hit their girlfriend, boyfriend, or partner to get them back under control
- Norm 8:** more students agreed or strongly agreed it is okay for a girl to hit someone they're dating if they hit her first

Social Support: How true are the following statements?



Social Support

- If something bad happened to me, I would feel safe talking to one of my parents.
- If something bad happened to me, I would feel safe talking to a teacher or another adult at school.
- If something bad happened to me, I would feel safe calling the police.
- There are people I can count on in an emergency.
- There is a trustworthy adult I could turn to for advice if I were having problems.
- There are people I can depend on to help me if I really need it.

- slight increase in the number of students who felt they could talk to a teacher or another adult at school from pretest (76%) to posttest (84%)
- slight decrease in the number of students who would feel safe talking to one of their parents from pretest (95%) to posttest (91%)
- slight decrease in the number of students who feel they can depend on someone to help them if they really needed it from pretest (98%) to posttest (96%)

DISCUSSION & IMPLICATIONS

Results show we need to see adjustments to the program: statistically significant increase in norm #8 (it is okay for a girl to hit someone they're dating if they hit her first) from before and after the program

- need to discover why students continue to believe this after completion of the program

Recommendations on Improving the Program

- Early intervention
- Incorporate parents and community members
- Be sure program materials are developmentally appropriate
- Expand program duration and number of sessions
- Create an entire lesson on community resources for dating violence prevention and include trusted adults who students can talk with if they are experiencing dating violence
- Incorporate discussion on gender roles in dating violence and incorporate examples across gender identities
- Connect these results to school social workers
- Expand program with suggested adjustments to all schools (urban and rural)

Limitations

- Small sample size (n = 97)
- Provides a glimpse of what dating violence looks like both pretest and posttest for this specific program and school, but is not generalizable because it only views one school and one group of students
- Conducted in a mid-size urban area, characteristics and norms may be different in rural and suburban communities
- Delivered during COVID-19 pandemic: implication of norms could have been affected by this; it is important to compare these results when students are back to in-person instruction

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For more information on our research, contact:

Alexis Kroner at akroner2@illinois.edu

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Associations between Parenting Practices and Acceptance of Dating Abuse Norms Among 7th Grade Students

Amanda Yeazel, BSW, Alexis Krones, Sarah Aronson

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Dating violence, including physical and psychological forms of abuse, is highly prevalent.

Dating violence in early adolescence can have a lifelong impact, for this period is critical for a child's development of a framework for future relationships. Therefore, research needs to understand what variables may be influencing unhealthy and abusive norms about dating.

Previous research has indicated parenting practices are associated with early adolescent's norms and behaviors. Therefore, we hypothesized positive parenting practices will be associated with less acceptance of dating abuse norms. Study participants include 59 7th-grade students from an Illinois urban area. They completed surveys to evaluate the impact of an intervention cultivated to prevent dating violence. Analyses were conducted in SPSS software to examine 1) how early adolescent's norms about dating relationships change from before to after the intervention, and 2) how parenting practices are associated with the acceptance of these dating abuse norms.

Findings are intended to address gaps within this literature, including better understanding the role parents can play in dating violence prevention. With this information, practitioners can use this research to implement interventions and programming to better address dating violence.

Keywords: norms, violence, messages

About the authors: Amanda Yeazel, BSW, currently is an MSW student at UIUC with a concentration in mental health. Her research interests are in mental health as well.

Alexis Krones is a Social Work student who anticipates graduating in Spring, 2020. Her research interests include gender non-conforming youth, and the mental health of adolescents and women.

Sarah Aronson, also anticipates graduating in Spring, 2022. Her major is Social Work, with a minor in Anthropology. Her research interests revolve around children and schools.

Associations Between Parenting Practices and Acceptance of Dating Abuse Norms Among 7th Grade Students

Amanda Yeazel, BSW, Alexis Kronos, & Sarah Aronson Mentors: Rachel Garthe, PhD & Shongha Kim, MSW
School of Social Work, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

INTRODUCTION

General Concern of Dating Violence

- Dating violence, including physical and psychological forms of abuse within dating relationships, is highly prevalent (CDC, 2021).
- Dating violence can begin in early adolescence (ages 11-14) and it can have a lifelong impact.
- This period is critical for a child's development of a framework for future relationships.
- Research needs to understand what variables may be influencing unhealthy and abusive norms about dating.

Dating Violence Prevention Program

This program is intended to target middle school students and help prevent dating violence. The program aims to defy negative relationship norms and overall improve the quality of the relationships in which students engage.

During this program, the agency discussed a multitude of things such as: 1) what is dating violence, 2) what it looks like, and 3) what a healthy relationship looks like and why everyone is deserving of one.

Previous Research

Several studies have indicated parenting practices are associated with early adolescent's norms and behaviors (Garthe et al., 2019; Korucu et al., 2020).

Hypothesis:

We hypothesized positive parenting practices will be associated with less acceptance of dating abuse norms after youth participate in a dating violence prevention program.

Current Study

This study examines pre and post-test data from middle school students.

Research Question:

Is there a relationship between parental messages about how to handle conflict (e.g., violently or nonviolent) and adolescents' dating violence norms?

This study is intended to address gaps within this literature, including better understanding the role parents can play in dating violence prevention.

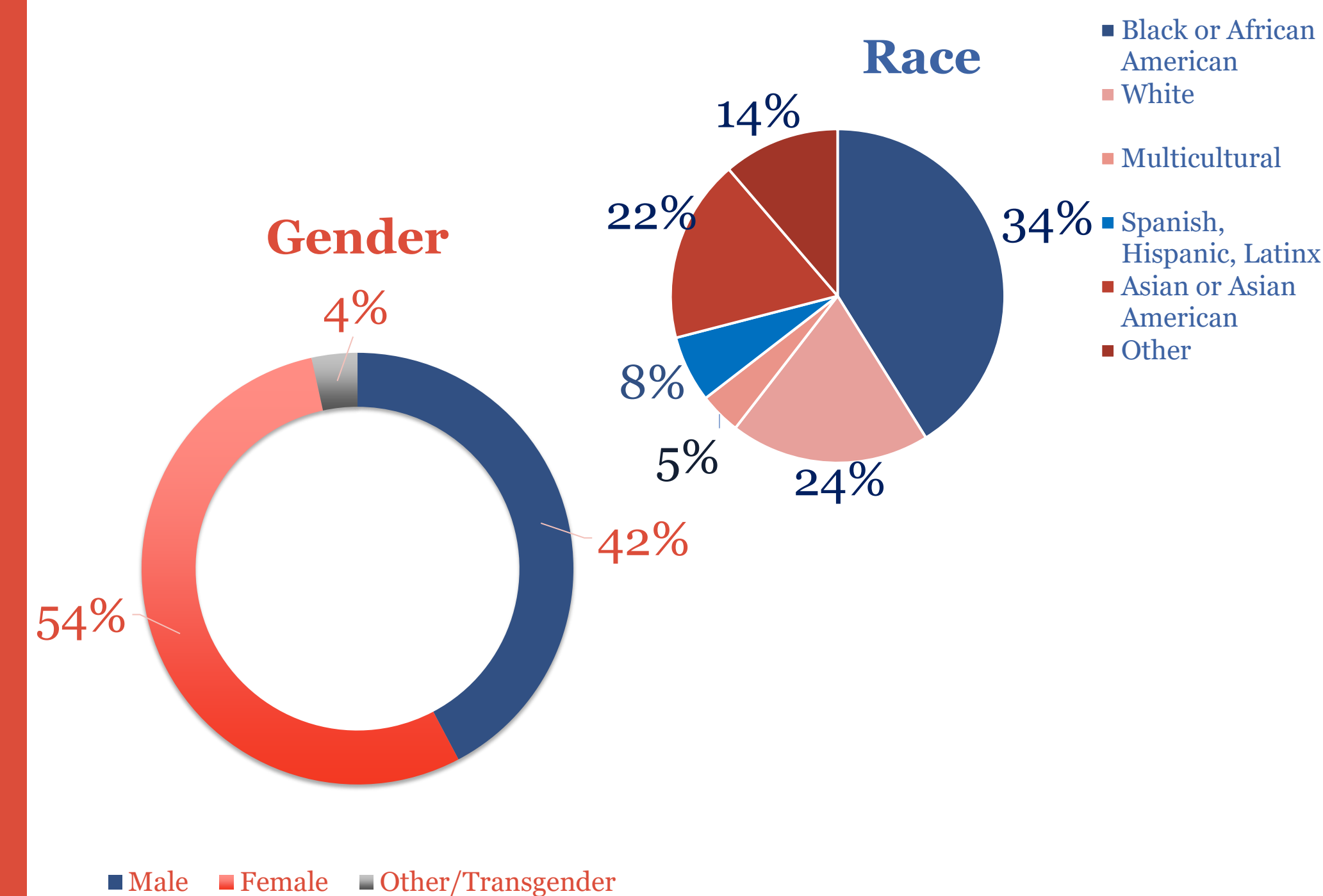
With this information, practitioners can use this research to implement interventions and programming to better address dating violence.

METHOD

Participants

Participants in this study included 59 (N=59) 7th-grade students from an urban area in Illinois.

Ages varied between 12 (67%), 13 (30.5%), and 14 (1.7%).



Procedure

Students participated in surveys to evaluate the impact of an intervention cultivated to prevent dating violence. The five-week program was during health class.

Students completed a pre and post-test survey.

They were surveyed about dating violence norms (Foshee et al., 1998) and parental messages supporting violent and nonviolent responses to conflict (Orpinas et al.).

This research focuses on two variables that were examined within these surveys.

1. dating violence norms (before and after programming)
2. parental messages

Example items include:

Dating Violence Norms:

- "It is okay for a boy to hit his girlfriend if she did something to make him mad."
- "Girls sometimes deserve to be hit by the boys they date."

Parental Messages:

How to Respond to Conflict:

- If someone wants to fight you – walk away.
- It's okay to fight if someone else starts it.

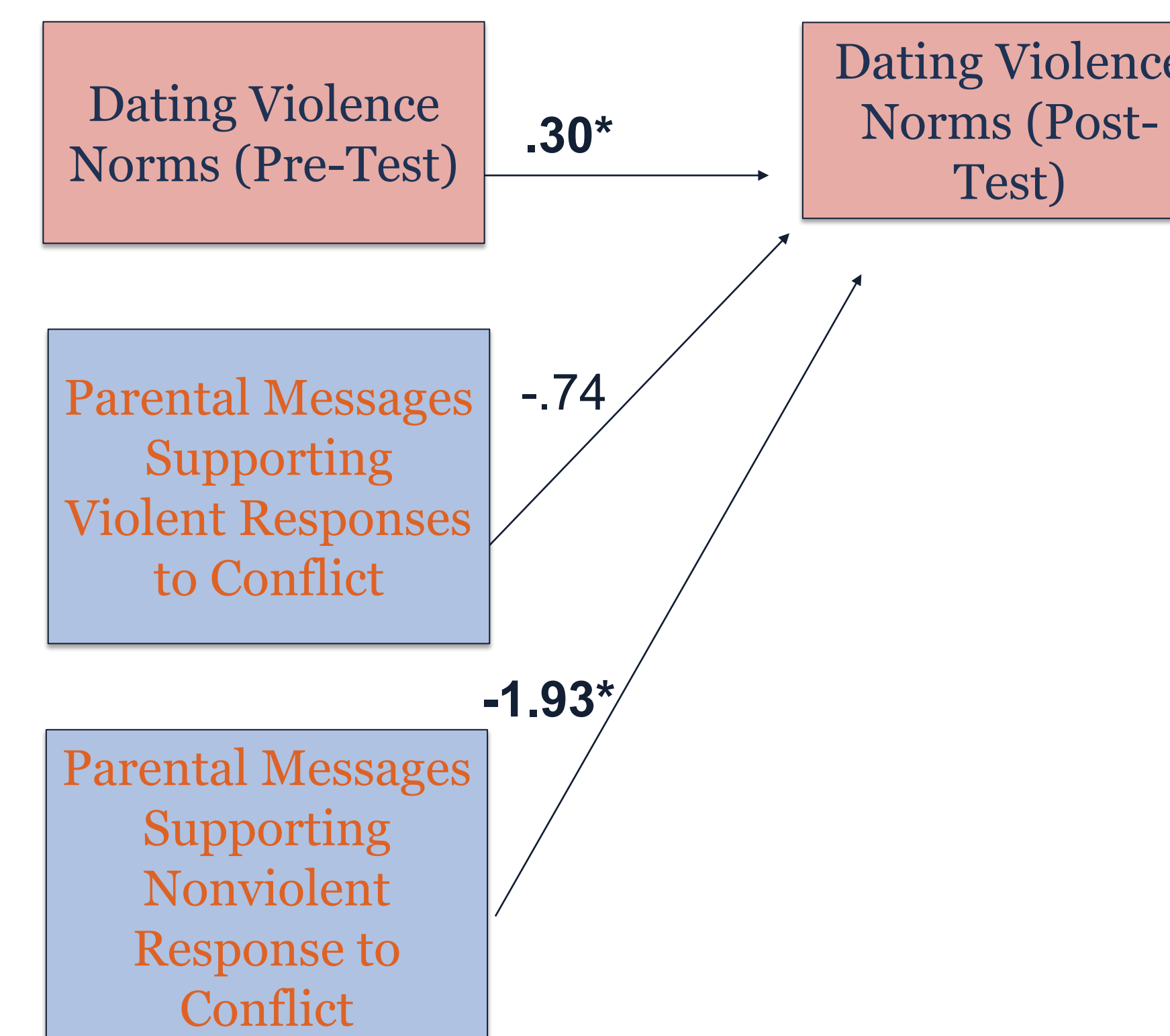
Data Analysis

Multiple regression analyses were conducted in SPSS:

1. How early adolescent's norms about dating relationships change from before and after the intervention.
2. How parental messages are associated with the acceptance of these dating abuse norms.

RESULTS

- No statistical significance was found within parental messages supporting violent responses to conflict and dating violence norms post-test.
- Statistical significance was found within parental messages supporting nonviolent response to conflict and dating violence norms post-test.



- Perceptions that their parents supported nonviolent responses to conflict was associated with fewer norms of dating violence at post-test.
- Perceptions that their parents supported violent responses to conflict was not associated with changes in dating violence norms at post-test.

Discussion

Parental Messages Supporting Nonviolent Responses to Conflict, Dating Violence Norms (Post-Test):

- These findings indicate the parental messages for nonviolent responses to conflict have a significant impact on children's perspectives about this issue.
- This may be an important topic to include in future trainings to prevent physical violence within relationships.
- Importance of including parents within dating violence prevention programs:
 - Youth are listening to what their parents suggest.
 - If parents suggest nonviolent solutions to conflict, youth are less likely to accept dating violence norms after programming.

Parental Messages Supporting Violent Response to Conflict, Dating Violence Norms (Post-Test):

- These messages were not associated with changes in dating violence norms.
- These findings invite future researchers to investigate parental messages to better understand how to prevent violent responses to conflict when kids deem these behaviors to be normal based off situations they may have witnessed.

Limitations

- Small sample size
- Different countries and areas such as rural vs. urban may differ in results
- Results may not be generalizable to all middle school students
- Other variables may exist (mediators) that impact the relationships found such as peer messages, student teacher relationships, self esteem etc.

Implications

The organization using this program can use these findings to implement more effective training on dating violence for middle schoolers.

- **Include parents in the program**
- **Messages from parents supporting nonviolent responses to conflict may further protect youth from dating violence**

Social workers can use this research to broaden their knowledge and implement new skills, ideas and resources for dating violence.

It is important to teach middle school students about this information and to provide support in order to prevent dating violence in their current and future relationships.

References and Contact Information

References are available upon request.

For more information on this study, contact:
Amanda Yeazel
ayeazel2@Illinois.edu

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It's not a Book. It's a BoK: Ruminating in the Margins on the Role of Self-Reflective Journaling in Fostering Personal and Professional Socialization

Paige Saddler & Dr. Tara Earls Larrison

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Abstract

This presentation offers a case study approach to rethink the contemporary understandings and implementations of journaling in higher education. Drawing on educational theory and lived experience, the author presents the Book of Ken (BoK) as a tool for self-reflection, critical thinking, and transformative learning. Through unrestricted creative processes, the BoK served as a method of discovery for students within an undergraduate social work course that emphasized the role of the individual throughout the learning process. Using page entries as data, the author demonstrates what creative journaling looks like in both substance and style and its relativity to personal and professional socialization in teaching and learning environments. From adopting reflective processing methodology, the author details a newfound comprehensive awareness about oneself and the various intersectionalities that make up the self. Such realizations exhibit the effectiveness of the BoK in fostering critical consciousness and personal and professional development. A recommendation follows for increased application of self-reflective journaling in professional education contexts, with the BoK as the means to do so.

Keywords: self-reflection, journaling, Book of Ken, BoK, personal socialization, professional socialization

About the Author: Paige Saddler is a 2021 graduate from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Having graduated with a Bachelors of Social Work and minor in Business, she is now attending the University of Louisville to complete her Masters of Social Work. Her interests lie in macro-practice advocacy and social justice.

It's Not a Book. It's a BoK.

Ruminating in the Margins on the Role of Self-Reflective Journaling in Fostering Personal and Professional Socialization

Paige Saddler & Dr. Tara Earls Larrison

School of Social Work, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

1 REFLEXIVITY: MOTIVATION

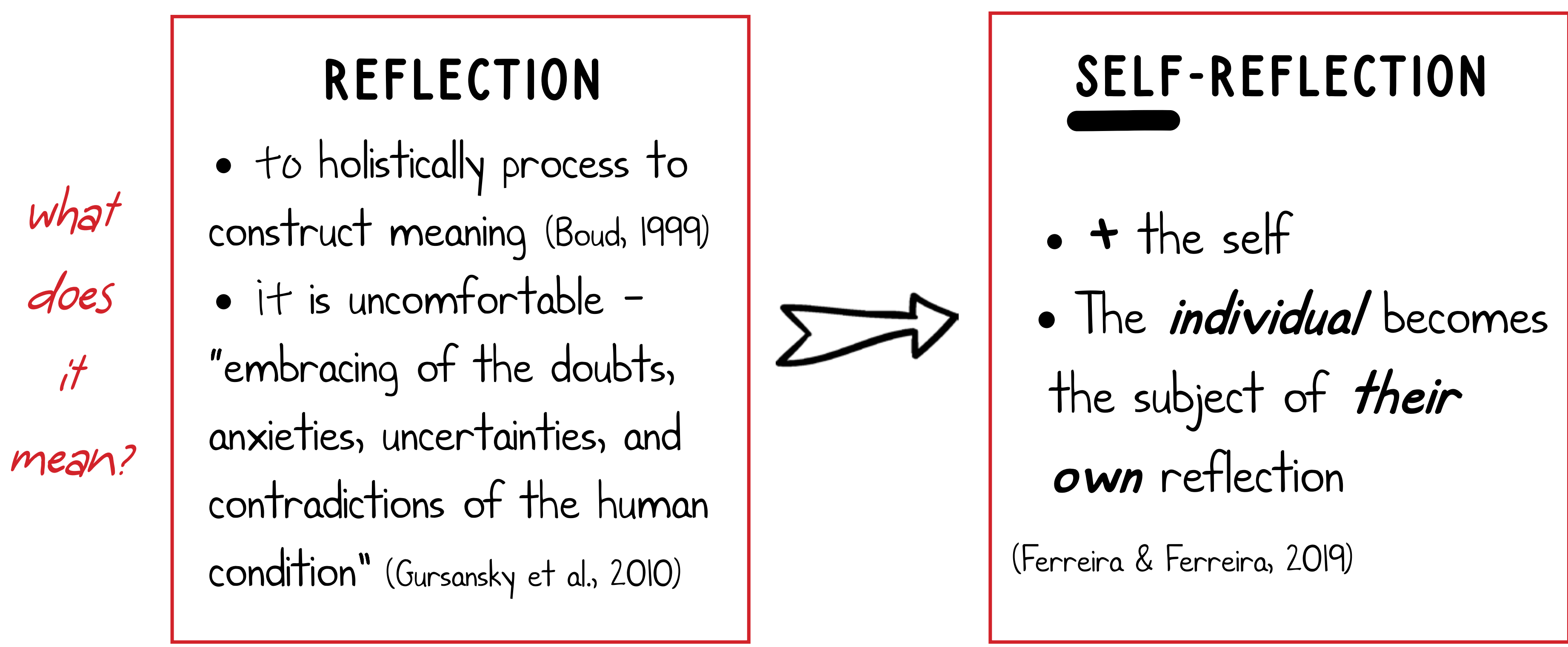
- lived experience ~ change from within
- began as an emerging social work student
- *Full Circle*: "I honestly feel as though I have come into my own" (Saddler, 2019).

why am I here?

RESEARCH QUESTION

How does self-reflective journaling facilitate the processes of personal and professional socialization?

what am I doing?



SELF-REFLECTIVE LEARNING

- Reflection is intrinsic to learning; serves as a bridging of theory, practice, and personal experience (Boud, 1999; Van Breda & Agherdien, 2012).
- Students "gain the ability to connect their internal processes with external realities" ~ aids in the ongoing development of self-awareness and critical consciousness (Furman et al., 2008; Hubbs & Brand, 2005; Van Breda & Agherdien, 2012).

what is the purpose?

SELF-REFLECTIVE TEACHING

- Although difficult, reflection is an acquired skill that must be taught (Gursansky et al., 2010).

The Reflective Learning Model employs the *didactic-facilitative continuum* of initial instructor supervision to promote *eventual* student autonomy (Davys & Beddoe, 2009).

how is it achieved?

2 WRITING AS THE METHOD; JOURNALING AS THE TOOL

- The writing process is known to facilitate self-reflection = method of discovery about the self and the world (Furman, 2008; Hubbs & Brand, 2005).
- Reflective journals provide a structured way to track and examine thinking patterns and conceptual and perceptual changes (Dunlap, 2006; Hubbs & Brand, 2005).
- Rooted in theory:

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING THEORY	ADULT-LEARNING THEORY
DEEP LEARNING THEORY	TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING THEORY

 (Damianakis et al., 2019; Hubbs & Brand, 2005; Van Breda & Agherdien, 2012)

does it actually work?

"BOKING" AS THE TRANSCENDENCE (SEE PAGES 3 & 4)

BoK (Book of Ken) =

- (1) *noun* : rethinking / reconceptualization of conventional journaling
- (2) *verb* : to BoK; BoKing

how is the BoK different?

PERSONAL SOCIALIZATION

- Increasing importance is being placed on the "**person**" of the student ~ reflective journaling allows "learners [to be] the experts in their own learning" (Sage & Sele, 2015).
- Traditional academia is surpassed to foster *individual* awareness and growth, personally, spiritually, morally, and emotionally (Hubbs & Brand, 2005; Van Breda & Agherdien, 2012).

it does this?

PROFESSIONAL SOCIALIZATION

- "A goal of higher education is to develop professionals capable of analysis and self-reflection" ~ it is essential to *know thyself* (Ferreira & Ferreira, 2019; Hubbs & Brand, 2010).
- In many professional disciplines, effective practice calls for "the integration of theory, application of skills, logical insights, and the attitudes, beliefs, and philosophy unique to each practitioner" -- reflective journals provide the prime forum (Hubbs & Brand, 2010).

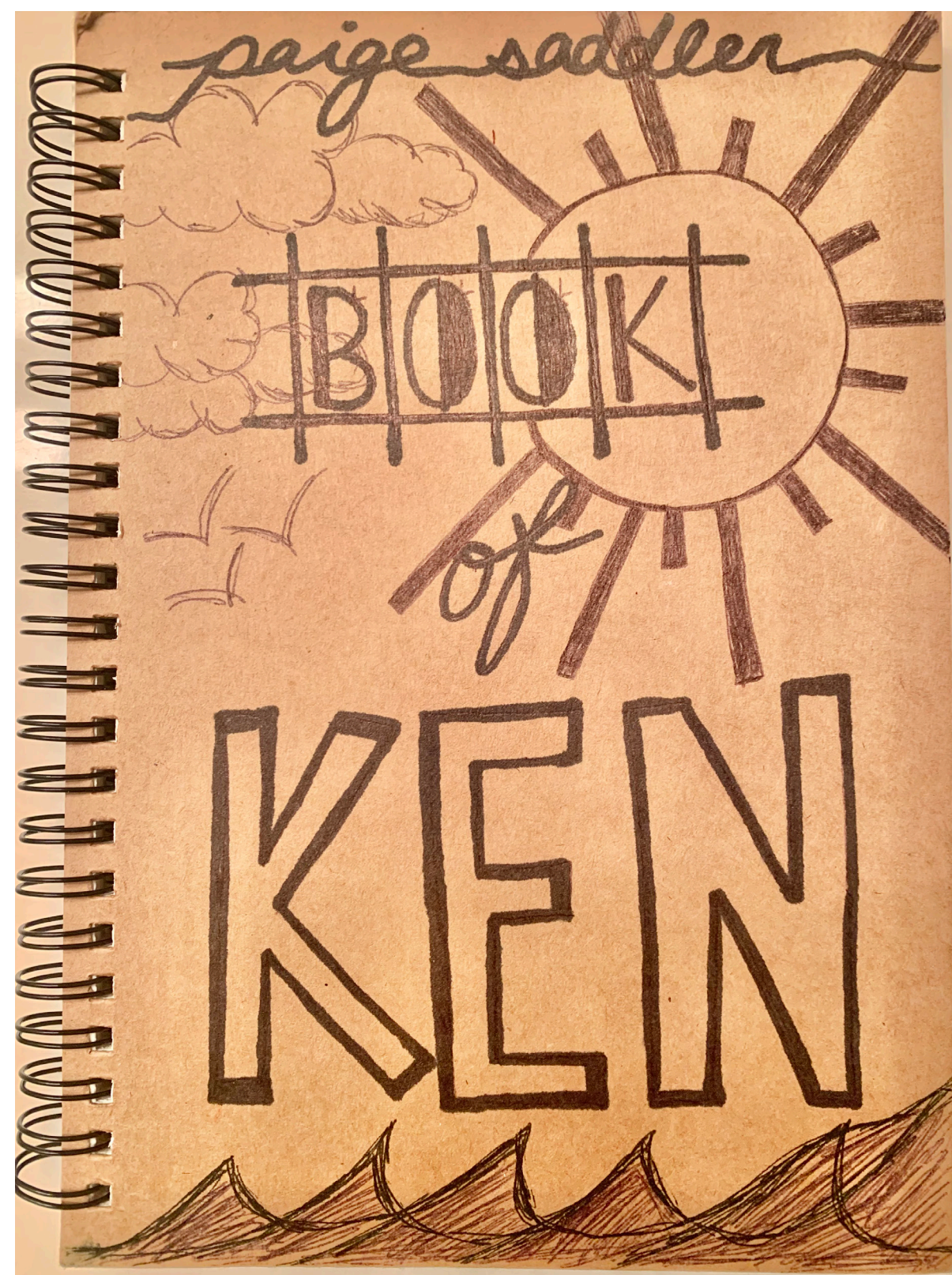
it does this too?

CONCLUSION

- Without action, reflection does not yield anything ~ Journaling is the action.
- "The value of journaling as a learning tool and its place in reflective practice has long been recognized" (Gursansky et al., 2010).
- **The Recommendation:** more implementation of self-reflective journaling.
 - The BoK persists as a successful means.

what is the recommendation?

ALL ABOUT THE BOK

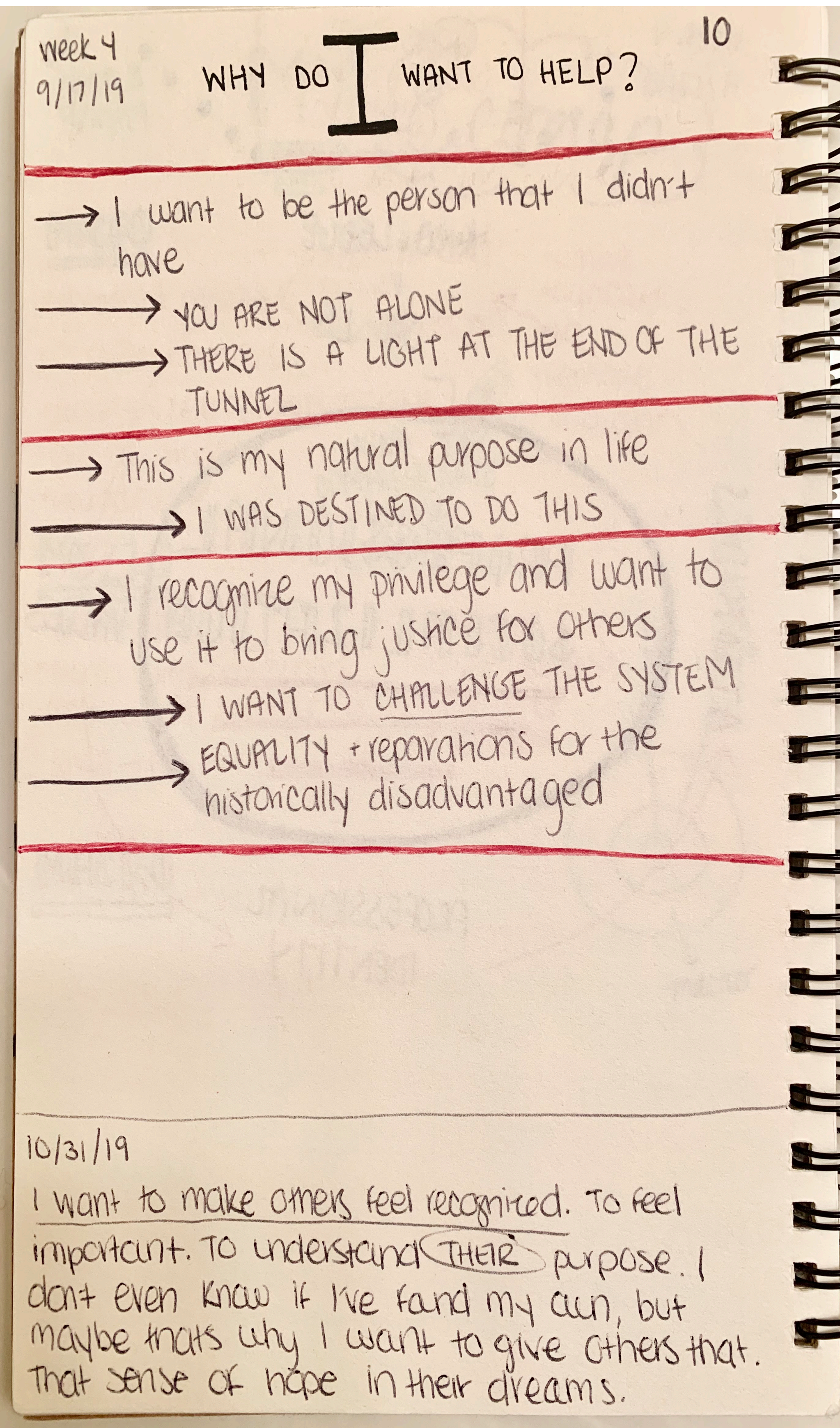
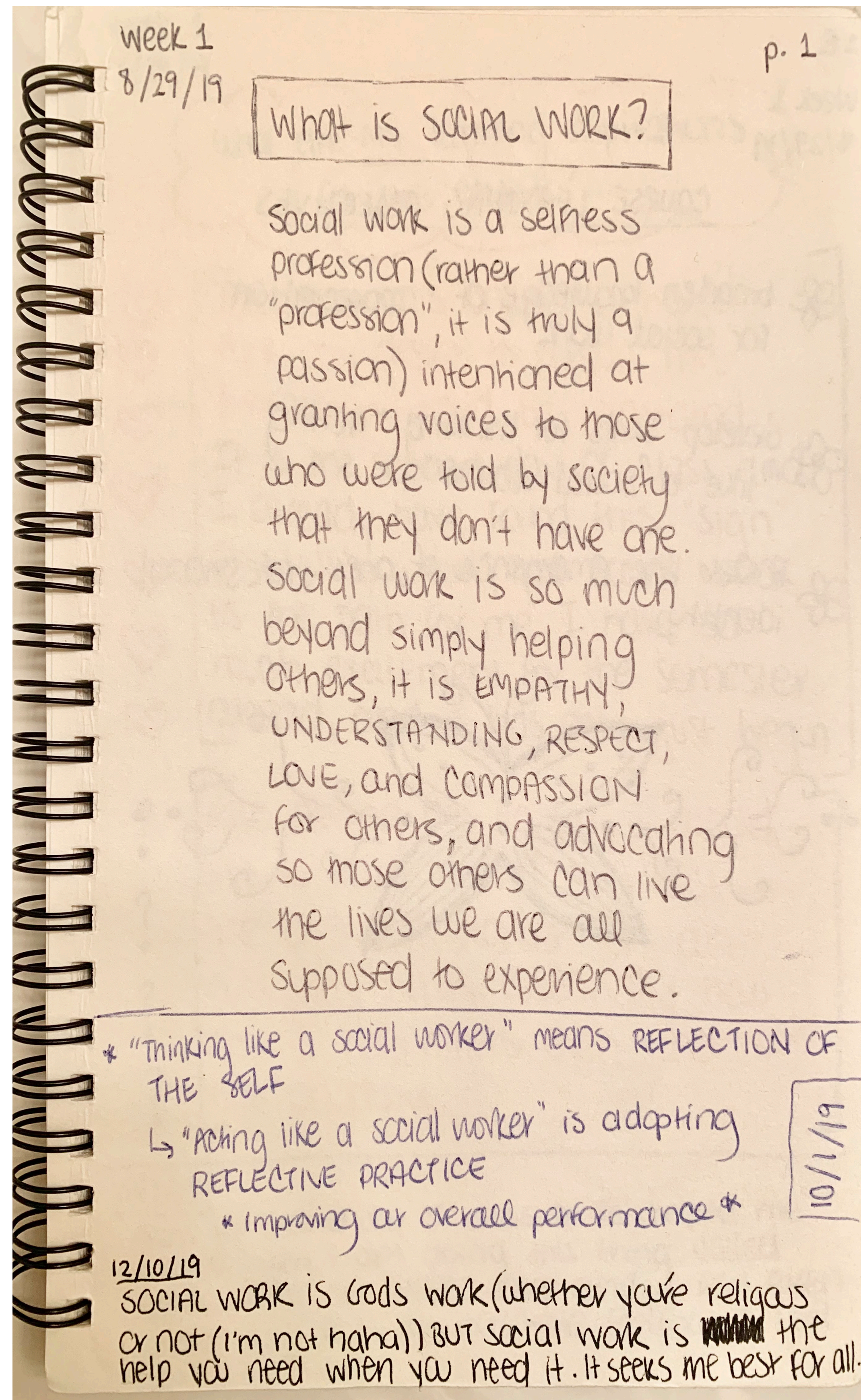


WHAT IS IT?

- o inspired by *The Sound of Music*
- o "Ken" = "one's range of perspective, knowledge, or insight" (Earls Larrison, 2020)
- o objective: move *beyond* one's Ken

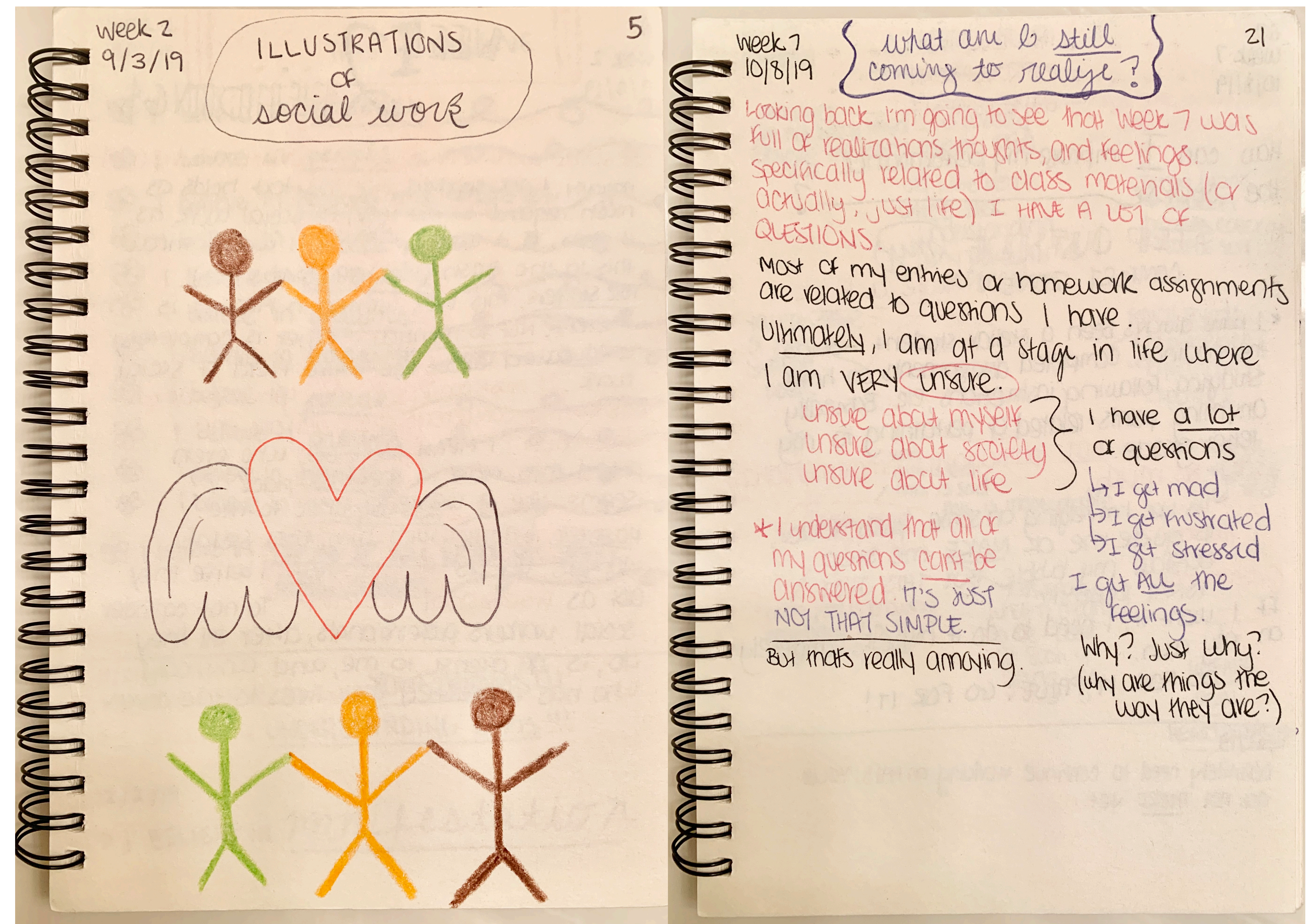
WHAT DOES IT DO?

- **Personal-Professional Intersectionality** : The Bok serves as a vessel to process and sift ideas, feelings, and thoughts throughout learning and living experiences.
 - o "The Bok allows students to explore different sides of themselves with absolutely zero constraint." (Saddler, 2019).



HOW DOES IT DO THAT?

- Freeing and self-directed: the Bok is an "informal, unrestrained, unencumbered, and creative approach to learning-growing processes" (Earls Larrison, 2020).
 - o **NOT** limited to words on a page ~ the student decides what *their* Bok will be (illustrative, poetic, narrative, etc.)
 - o "After a couple weeks I realized that the Bok is not 'supposed' to be anything. Everyone's Bok is different, unique to them, personal to their story, and that's how it should be" (Saddler, 2019).



WHAT HAS IT DONE FOR ME?

- I am a testament to its efficacy... I *have changed* and I *have evolved*.
 - o *Why?* ... Because I did the work and I embraced it. ~ I forced myself to think deeper.
 - work = ongoing Reflective Processing on integration of knowledge and self
- **Pages About Paige** "There is a piece of me on every single one of those pages" (Saddler, 2019).
 - o "I 'experienced disorienting dilemmas, felt conflicted and displaced, and had to reevaluate [my] sense of self in relation to social work' (Damianakis et al., 2019, p. 7). But I reemerged stronger." (Saddler, 2019).
- **Completing the Circle**: Now, I am Paige Saddler, the social worker.
 - o New obtained sense of self as a knower, learner, student, social worker, and scholar.

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