

**Chapter 1 : Alcoholics Anonymous Big Book | The 12 Steps Of AA**

*Keisler et al. () stated several aspects of social psychology that would be important to CMC, two of which are the reduced numbers of status and social cues in CMC and the social anonymity provided by CMC.*

An invasion of participants? Typically, it is not harm that we need to think about since a researcher does not intentionally go out to cause harm. Rather, it is the risk of harm that you should try to minimise. In order to minimising the risk of harm you should think about: Obtaining informed consent from participants. Protecting the anonymity and confidentiality of participants. Avoiding deceptive practices when designing your research. Providing participants with the right to withdraw from your research at any time. We discuss each of these ethical principles in the sections that follow, explaining a what they mean and b instances where they should and should not be followed. Simply put, informed consent means that participants should understand that a they are taking part in research and b what the research requires of them. Such information may include the purpose of the research, the methods being used, the possible outcomes of the research, as well as associated demands, discomforts, inconveniences and risks that the participants may face. Whilst is it not possible to know exactly what information a potential participant would or would not want to know, you should aim not to leave out any material information; that is, information that you feel would influence whether consent would or would not be granted. Another component of informed consent is the principle that participants should be volunteers, taking part without having been coerced and deceived. Where informed consent cannot be obtained from participants, you must explain why this is the case. You should also be aware that there are instances informed consent is not necessarily needed or needs to be relaxed. These include certain educational, organisational and naturalistic research settings. We discuss these in more detail under the section: After all, participants will typically only be willing to volunteer information, especially information of a private or sensitive nature, if the researcher agrees to hold such information in confidence. Whilst it is possible that research participants may be hurt in some way if the data collection methods used are somehow insensitive, there is perhaps a greater danger that harm can be caused once data has been collected. This occurs when data is not treated confidentially, whether in terms of the storage of data, its analysis, or during the publication process i. However, this does not mean that all data collected from research participants needs to be kept confidential or anonymous. It may be possible to disclose the identity and views of individuals at various stages of the research process from data collection through to publication of your dissertation. Nonetheless, permissions should be sought before such confidential information is disclosed. An alternative is to remove identifiers e. However, such a stripping of identifiable information may not always be possible to anticipate at the outset of your dissertation when thinking about issues of research ethics. This is not only a consideration for dissertations following a qualitative research design, but also a quantitative research design [for more information, see the article: Research strategy and research ethics ]. Imagine that your dissertation used a quantitative research design and a survey as your main research method. In the process of analysing your data, it is possible that when examining relationships between variables i. For instance, imagine that you were comparing responses amongst employees within an organisation based on specific age groups. There may only be a small group or just one employee within a particular age group e. Therefore, you need to consider ways of overcoming such problems, such as: A further alternative is to seek permission for access to data and analysis to be restricted to the published material, perhaps only allowing it to be viewed by those individuals marking your work. If the work is later published, adjustments would then need to be made to protect the confidentiality of participants. There are also a wide range of potential legal protections that may affect what research you can and cannot perform, how you must treated the data of research participants, and so forth. In other words, you don? Since this varies from country-to-country, you should ask your dissertation supervisor or Ethics Committee for advice or a legal professional. After all, how can participants know a that they are taking part in research and b what the research requires of them if they are being deceived? This is part of what makes the use of deceptive practices controversial. For this reason, in most circumstances, dissertation research should avoid any kinds of deceptive practices. However, this is not always the case. Deception is

sometimes a necessary component of covert research, which can be justified in some cases. Cases where you may choose to engage in covert research may include instances where: It is not feasible to let everyone in a particular research setting know what you are doing. Overt observation or knowledge of the purpose of the research may alter the particular phenomenon that is being studied. It is not feasible to let everyone in a particular research setting know what you are doing. By feasibility, we are not talking about the cost of doing research. Instead, we mean that it is not practically possible to let everyone in a particular research setting know what you are doing. This is most likely to be the case where research involves observation, rather than direct contact with participants, especially in a public or online setting. There are a number of obvious instances where this may be the case: Observing what users are doing in an Internet chat room. Observing individuals going about their business e. Clearly, in these cases, where individuals are coming and going, it may simply be impossible to let everyone know what you are doing. You may not be intentionally trying to engage in deceptive practices, but clearly participants are not giving you their informed consent. Overt observation or knowledge of the purpose of the research may alter the particular phenomenon that is being studied. Where observations or a participants? Therefore, when you think about whether to engage in covert research and possibly deceptive practices, you should think about the extent to which this could be beneficial in your dissertation, not research in general; that is, everything from the research paradigm that guides your dissertation through to the data analysis techniques you choose affect issues of research ethics in your dissertation [see the article: Imagine some of the following scenarios where covert research may be considered justifiable: Scenario A You are conducting a piece of research looking at prejudice. Whilst participants are given a questionnaire to complete that measures their prejudice, it is not obvious from the questions that this is the case. Furthermore, participants are not told that the research is about prejudice because it is felt that this could alter their responses. After all, few people would be happy if other people thought they were prejudice. As a result, if participants knew that this is the purpose of the study, they may well provide responses that they think will make them appear less prejudice. Scenario B You are interested in understanding the organisational culture in a single firm. You feel that observation would be an appropriate research method in such a naturalistic setting. However, you feel that if employees knew that you were monitoring them, they may behave in a different way. Therefore, you may have received permission to go undercover or provide a story to explain why you are there, which is not the truth. Whilst such covert research and deceptive practices, especially where used intentionally, can be viewed as controversial, it can be argued that they have a place in research. PRINCIPLE FIVE Providing the right to withdraw With the exception of those instances of covert observation where it is not feasible to let everyone that is being observed know what you are doing, research participants should always have the right to withdraw from the research process. Furthermore, participants should have the right to withdraw at any stage in the research process. When a participant chooses to withdraw from the research process, they should not be pressured or coerced in any way to try and stop them from withdrawing. Ethics consent form ]. Next Steps Now that you have read these basic principles of research ethics, you may want to understand how the research strategy you have chosen affects your approach to research ethics [see the article: You will need to understand the impact of your research strategy on your approach to research ethics when writing up the Research Ethics section of your Research Strategy chapter usually Chapter Three:

Chapter 2 : Principles of research ethics | LÃ¡rd Dissertation

*Understanding Anonymity it is clear that anonymity serves two different yet equally vital functions: if and when to share aspects of his or her recov-*

From the time immediately after World War II until the early s, there was a gradually developing consensus about the key ethical principles that should underlie the research endeavor. Two marker events stand out among many others as symbolic of this consensus. The Nuremberg War Crimes Trial following World War II brought to public view the ways German scientists had used captive human subjects as subjects in oftentimes gruesome experiments. In the s and s, the Tuskegee Syphilis Study involved the withholding of known effective treatment for syphilis from African-American participants who were infected. By the s, the dynamics of the situation changed. Cancer patients and persons with AIDS fought publicly with the medical research establishment about the long time needed to get approval for and complete research into potential cures for fatal diseases. After all, we would rather risk denying treatment for a while until we achieve enough confidence in a treatment, rather than run the risk of harming innocent people as in the Nuremberg and Tuskegee events. But now, those who were threatened with fatal illness were saying to the research establishment that they wanted to be test subjects, even under experimental conditions of considerable risk. You had several very vocal and articulate patient groups who wanted to be experimented on coming up against an ethical review system that was designed to protect them from being experimented on. Although the last few years in the ethics of research have been tumultuous ones, it is beginning to appear that a new consensus is evolving that involves the stakeholder groups most affected by a problem participating more actively in the formulation of guidelines for research.

Ethical Issues There are a number of key phrases that describe the system of ethical protections that the contemporary social and medical research establishment have created to try to protect better the rights of their research participants. The principle of voluntary participation requires that people not be coerced into participating in research. Closely related to the notion of voluntary participation is the requirement of informed consent. Essentially, this means that prospective research participants must be fully informed about the procedures and risks involved in research and must give their consent to participate. Ethical standards also require that researchers not put participants in a situation where they might be at risk of harm as a result of their participation. Harm can be defined as both physical and psychological. There are two standards that are applied in order to help protect the privacy of research participants. Almost all research guarantees the participants confidentiality -- they are assured that identifying information will not be made available to anyone who is not directly involved in the study. The stricter standard is the principle of anonymity which essentially means that the participant will remain anonymous throughout the study -- even to the researchers themselves. Clearly, the anonymity standard is a stronger guarantee of privacy, but it is sometimes difficult to accomplish, especially in situations where participants have to be measured at multiple time points e. Good research practice often requires the use of a no-treatment control group -- a group of participants who do not get the treatment or program that is being studied. But when that treatment or program may have beneficial effects, persons assigned to the no-treatment control may feel their rights to equal access to services are being curtailed. Even when clear ethical standards and principles exist, there will be times when the need to do accurate research runs up against the rights of potential participants. No set of standards can possibly anticipate every ethical circumstance. Furthermore, there needs to be a procedure that assures that researchers will consider all relevant ethical issues in formulating research plans. To address such needs most institutions and organizations have formulated an Institutional Review Board IRB , a panel of persons who reviews grant proposals with respect to ethical implications and decides whether additional actions need to be taken to assure the safety and rights of participants. By reviewing proposals for research, IRBs also help to protect both the organization and the researcher against potential legal implications of neglecting to address important ethical issues of participants.

### Chapter 3 : Two powerful aspects of social media Anonymity & Community (Part II) by Kay | Jobs Blog

*Anonymity on the Internet is almost never 100%, there is always a possibility to find the perpetrator, especially if the same person uses the same way to gain anonymity multiple times. In the simplest case, a person sends an e-mail or writes a Usenet news article using a falsified name.*

Anonymity means that the real author of a message is not shown. Anonymity can be implemented to make it impossible or very difficult to find out the real author of a message. A common variant of anonymity is pseudonymity, where another name than the real author is shown. The pseudonym is sometimes kept very secret, sometimes the real name behind a pseudonym is openly known, such as Marc Twain as a pseudonym for Samuel Clemens or Ed McBain as a pseudonym for Evan Hunter, whose original name was Salvatore A. A person can even use multiple different pseudonyms for different kinds of communication. An advantage with a pseudonym, compared with complete anonymity, is that it is possible to recognize that different messages are written by the same author. Sometimes, it is also possible to write a letter to a pseudonym without knowing the real person behind it and get replies back. A disadvantage, for a person who wants to be anonymous, is that combining information in many messages from the same person may make it easier to find out who the real person is behind the pseudonym. A variant of pseudonymity is deception [Donath], where a person intentionally tries to give the impression of being someone else, or of having different authority or expertise. Anonymity before the Internet Anonymity is not something which was invented with the Internet. Anonymity and pseudonymity has occurred throughout history. For example, William Shakespeare is probably a pseudonym, and the real name of this famous author is not known and will probably never be known. Anonymity has been used for many purposes. Also other people may want to hide certain information about themselves in order to achieve a more unbiased evaluation of their messages. For example, in history it has been common that women used male pseudonyms, and for Jews to use pseudonyms in societies where their religion was persecuted. Anonymity is often used to protect the privacy of people, for example when reporting results of a scientific study, when describing individual cases. Many countries even have laws which protect anonymity in certain circumstances. A person may, in many countries, consult a priest, doctor or lawyer and reveal personal information which is protected. In some cases, for example confession in catholic churches, the confession booth is specially designed to allow people to consult a priest, without seeing him face to face. If a person tells a lawyer that he plans a serious crime, some countries allow or even require that the lawyer tell the police. The decision to do so is not easy, since people who tell a priest or a psychologist that they plan a serious crime, may often do this to express their feeling more than their real intention. Many countries have laws protecting the anonymity of tip-offs to newspapers. It is regarded as important that people can give tips to newspapers about abuse, even though they are dependent on the organization they are criticizing and do not dare reveal their real name. Advertisement in personal sections in newspapers are almost always signed by a pseudonym for obvious reasons. Is Anonymity Good or Bad? In summary, anonymity and pseudonymity can be used for good and bad purposes. And anonymity can in many cases be desirable for one person and not desirable for another person. A company may, for example, not like an employee to divulge information about improper practices within the company, but society as a whole may find it important that such improper practices are publicly exposed. Good purposes of anonymity and pseudonymity: Anonymous tips can be used as an information source by newspapers, as well as by police departments, soliciting tips aimed at catching criminals. Everyone will not regard such anonymous communication as good. For example, message boards established outside companies, but for employees of such companies to vent their opinions on their employer, have sometimes been used in ways that at least the companies themselves were not happy about [Abelson]. Police use of anonymity is a complex issue, since the police often will want to know the identity of the tipper in order to get more information, evaluate the reliability or get the tipper as a witness. Is it ethical for police to identify the tipper if it has opened up an anonymous tipping hotline? Note that even in democratic countries, some people claim, rightly or wrongly, that certain political opinions are persecuted. Every country has a limit on which political opinions are allowed, and there are always people who want to

express forbidden opinions, like racial agitation in most democratic countries. Research shows that anonymous participants disclose significantly more information about themselves [ Joinson ]. There has always, however, also been a dark side of anonymity: The exact set of illegal acts varies from country to country, but most countries have many laws forbidding certain "informational" acts, everything from high treason to instigation of rebellion, etc. For example, some people use anonymity in order to say nasty things about other people. The border between illegal and legal but offensive use is not very sharp, and varies depending on the law in each country. Anonymity on the Internet Even though anonymity and pseudonymity is not something new with the Internet, the net has increased the ease for a person to distribute anonymous and pseudonymous messages. In the simplest case, a person sends an e-mail or writes a Usenet news article using a falsified name. Most mail and news software allows the users to specify whichever name they prefer, and makes no check of the correct identity. Using web-based mail systems like Hotmail, it is even possible to receive replies and conduct discussions using a pseudonym. The security for the anonymous user is not very high in this case. The IP number physical address of the computer used is usually logged, often also the host name logical name. Many people connect to the Internet using a temporary IP number assigned to them for a single session. But also such numbers are logged by the ISP Internet Service Provider and it is possible to find out who used a certain IP number at a certain time, provided that the ISP assists in the identification. There are also other well-known methods for breaking anonymity, for example elements can be included on a web page, which communicates information without knowledge of the person watching the web page. Some ISPs have a policy of always assisting such searches for the anonymous users. In this way they avoid tricky decisions on when to assist and not assist such searches. In the case of e-mail, the e-mail header itself contains a trace of the route of a message. This trace is not normally shown to recipients, but most mailers have a command named something like full headers to show this information. An example of such a trace list is shown in Figure 1.

**Chapter 4 : Current Issues in Research Ethics : Privacy and Confidentiality**

*1. Introduction Anonymity: 1. The quality of state of being unknown or unacknowledged. 2. One that is unknown or unacknowledged.[26] The internet community is quickly changing and evolving as more of the world comes on-line.*

AA program participants follow a set of recovery steps to achieve and maintain abstinence from alcohol. Many people use a sponsor to help them through the process. The program uses a spiritual approach that includes a belief in a higher power. Members define that higher power in their own way—it does not have to be God. Meetings are often held in public spaces such as churches or schools. Some meetings are open to anyone who wants to attend, while others are only for alcoholics or prospective AA members. Becoming a member is free. The only requirement is a desire to stop drinking. You must be an alcoholic to join AA. But anyone can attend open meetings. Learn More About Karen Read more Alcoholics Anonymous is an international organization of individuals who have struggled with drinking at some point in their lives. AA is supported and organized by its members, and it operates independently of any outside funding. It is not affiliated with any religious or political group. All AA members remain anonymous. The anonymity removes the stigma of identification and recognition and allows participants a more comfortable experience in recovery. Alcoholics Anonymous is open to all persons regardless of age, gender or ethnicity. The only requirement to become a member is the desire to stop drinking. What Are the 12 Steps of AA? Is Alcoholics Anonymous Religious? AA originally focused on religion as a means to sobriety. But the program has since adopted a more spiritual focus rather than a God-centric one. We admitted we were powerless over alcohol—that our lives had become unmanageable. Once they acknowledge that they are unable to stop on their own, the recovery process can begin. Learn more about Step 1. Came to believe that a power greater than ourselves could restore us to sanity. AA believes that people with an alcohol addiction need to look to something greater than themselves to recover. Those working the steps are free to choose whatever higher power works for them. Learn more about Step 2. Made a decision to turn our will and our lives over to the care of God as we understood Him. For this step, the alcoholic consciously decides to turn themselves over to whatever or whomever they believe their higher power to be. With this release often comes recovery. Learn more about Step 3. Made a searching and fearless moral inventory of ourselves. This step requires self-examination that can be uncomfortable, but honesty is essential in this process. The key is to identify any areas of past regret, embarrassment, guilt or anger. Learn more about Step 4. Admitted to God, to ourselves, and to another human being the exact nature of our wrongs. This step involves admitting to past poor behavior. Often, alcoholics will share what they wrote down during the previous step with their sponsor. Learn more about Step 5. Were entirely ready to have God remove all these defects of character. The alcoholic admits that they are ready to have their higher power remove the wrongs they listed in Step 4. Learn more about Step 6. Humbly asked Him to remove our shortcomings. Every person has character defects, whether they come in the form of impatience, anger, apathy, criticism or negativity. The recovering alcoholic is not strong enough to eliminate these defects on their own, so they ask their higher power to do so. Learn more about Step 7. Made a list of all persons we had harmed, and became willing to make amends to them all. Alcoholics write down all of the people they have wronged through their alcoholism. The wrongs could range from large to small—from stealing from them to buy more alcohol to talking negatively behind their backs. Learn more about Step 8. Made direct amends to such people wherever possible, except when to do so would injure them or others. Many alcoholics work with their sponsor to figure out the best way to complete this step. Making amends could include writing a letter to a person or sitting down face to face with them. Learn more about Step 9. Continued to take personal inventory and when we were wrong promptly admitted it. This step involves a commitment to monitor yourself for any behaviors that may be detrimental to yourself or others and to admit when you are wrong. Learn more about Step 10. Sought through prayer and meditation to improve our conscious contact with God, as we understood Him, praying only for knowledge of His will for us and the power to carry that out. Step 10 requires you to commit to some kind of spiritual practice. That practice could be anything from prayer, to meditation, to reading scripture. Having had a spiritual awakening

as the result of these Steps, we tried to carry this message to alcoholics, and to practice these principles in all our affairs. This step encourages members to help others in their recovery. Many members become sponsors once they have completed the 12 steps. These traditions serve as guidelines for living and working together both within AA and outside the program. AA accepts people of all faiths, even atheists and agnostics. AA welcomes non-religious people even though the program takes a spiritual approach to treatment. However, nonreligious people may find themselves more comfortable in a secular Step alcoholics support group or a nonStep addiction recovery program.

**How Did AA Start?** Alcoholics Anonymous was founded in , two years after the end of Prohibition in the United States and during the Great Depression. The co-founders, Bill Wilson and Dr. Bob Smith—both alcoholics—had a chance meeting that year.

**What Happens at an AA Meeting?** AA meetings can take place anywhere. But often they are held in public, accessible buildings with lots of parking, such as churches, schools, coffee shops and restaurants. Occasionally, members hold meetings in correctional and treatment facilities. However, public spaces are the more common setting for AA meetings.

**Types of Meetings** The basic meeting format and rules depend on the type of meeting. AA members share their experiences with alcohol abuse, how they found the program, and about their recovery through the program. This type of meeting focuses more on sharing and listening than interaction. One member speaks briefly about their own struggles with alcohol, then leads a discussion about recovery with AA and any drinking-related issue that another person brings up. This type of meeting is much more interactive than a speaker meeting. Everyone discusses one of the AA 12 steps. Watch this video on what happens at a typical AA meeting.

**Closed Meetings** AA meetings can be open or closed. Open meetings mean that anyone is welcome: This is the best way to learn more about AA—what it is, what it does, and whether or not this recovery program is for you. Speaker meetings are often open, and discussion meetings are sometimes open. Closed meetings are only for alcoholics or prospective AA members. Discussion meetings are sometimes closed, and Step meetings are usually closed. This ensures a tight-knit support community specifically for alcohol abuse recovery. AA programs want members to feel comfortable with sharing and growing together. But they also recognize that everyone does this at his or her own pace. The program focuses on abstinence. This means resisting the urge to drink and take other psychoactive or illicit substances. However, prescribed drugs such as antidepressants and other medications are permitted while in the AA program. A sponsor is a fellow AA member who has made some progress in the recovery process. The sponsor shares his or her experience in the recovery program on a person-to-person basis with another alcoholic who is working on sobriety through AA. The sponsorship aspect of the program can provide continuous, individual support for both the sponsor and the person being sponsored.

**Chapter 5 : Alcoholics Anonymous | Learn About The 12 Steps of AA**

*The Dual Aspect of Anonymity Destructions and Liberations in the New Realism The "Animal Ideal"--The Sentiment of Nature Part 5: Dissolution of Consciousness and Relativism*

Vehicle identifiers and serial numbers, including license plate numbers Device identifiers and serial numbers Web Universal Resource Locators URLs Internet Protocol IP address numbers Biometric identifiers, including finger and voice prints Full-face photographic images and any comparable images Any other unique identifying number, characteristic, or code, unless otherwise permitted by the Privacy Rule for re-identification. A Limited Data Set is similar to the de-identified data set but has fewer of the 18 identifiers removed. The Limited Data Set is health information that may include city, state, zip code, elements of date, and other numbers, characteristics, or codes not listed as direct identifiers. Limited data sets are often utilized in multi-center studies when using fully de-identified data is not useful. The use of a Limited Data Set allows a researcher and others to have access to dates of admission and discharge, birth and death, and five-digit zip codes or other geographic subdivisions other than street address. It requires that the researcher neither re-identify the data nor contact the research participant and contains assurances that appropriate safeguards will be used to prevent improper use or disclosure of the Limited Data Set. It may, therefore, be necessary for covered entities to properly use and disclose individually identifiable health information in compliance with both sets of regulations. It is mandatory to report positive HIV test data to state health departments. Depending on the state where the research is conducted, Waivers of Authorization may not be permitted with fully identified HIV data. However, different institutions vary in their policies concerning decedent research. To use or disclose PHI of deceased persons for research, covered entities are not required to obtain an Authorization, a Waiver, an Alteration of the Authorization, or a Data Use Agreement from the personal representative or next of kin. Department of Health and Human Services Obviously, Public Health services provide important essential public health protections. Consequently, various federal and state laws, as well as the policies of various medical and healthcare professional organizations and institutions, provide confidentiality protections for adolescents. Some institutions have developed policies that would require disclosing information to parents in certain circumstances, such as in suicide research if there are threats of suicide by children, adolescents, or college students. Civil penalties usually involve monetary fines. Covered entities and individuals e. Research participants must be given fair, clear, honest explanations of what will be done with information that has been gathered about them and the extent to which confidentiality of records will be maintained. However, the promise of confidentiality cannot be absolute. Under court order or subpoena for example, there may be legal reasons for compelling a researcher to disclose the identity of, or information about, a research participant. In some instances, a researcher may be mandated to report information to government agencies as in cases of child abuse or elder abuse, certain communicable diseases, illegal drug use, and other situations such as gunshot wounds. When research is conducted across multiple sites, review how the information is being protected. Identify and limit the number of people having access to the data, particularly when data are being transferred across locations, and be aware of when data are reproduced in other formats, such as faxes or computer files. Make sure that duplicated information is properly destroyed when transferring data. Review confidentiality procedures during the continuing review of protocols by reexamining the protection of sensitive information and the success of the protection efforts. Educate researchers, research coordinators, and IRB staff on data management and data protection. Also perplexing, are situations in which the IRB must determine which safeguards should be in place to protect past participants who need to be contacted to sign a new Informed Consent Form. Behavioral and social sciences research conducted at a university that is not a covered entity may not fall under the HIPAA regulations. Protections could include the encryption of the data, authentication, and authorization of passwords for those who have access to the data, software security, and electronic and physical security of data storage devices and networks. Designing study-specific protections for confidentiality requires planning, diligence, time, and knowledge of privacy and confidentiality strategies and procedures. It is important to develop a specific Data Protection Plan. A plan would include: A key that

deciphers the code allows re-associating or linking the coded information with the identity of the participant. If applicable, codes may need to be protected by an outside agency or third party. It is important that a clear policy be defined for re-identification. Generally researchers themselves should not be able to re-identify the data but might ask a third party to trace identifiers back to the individual. Various states have laws governing the privacy of such information. Generally, state laws that provide additional privacy protections in a specific area will supercede the HIPAA regulations in those areas. State laws that require reporting of disease or injury, child abuse, elder abuse, birth, death, or public health surveillance, are not overridden by the Privacy Rule.

**The Uniqueness of Genetic Information** There are differences of opinion about the significance of genetic information for individuals and their families. What makes genetic information unique is that it reveals information not just about the individual from whom it was collected, but also about his or her family members who may not even be aware that genetic information was gathered. It may also reveal information about the larger population of which the individual is a member. Genetic information also can be revealed about individuals and their families and populations simply from a tissue sample or database. Consequently, the decoding of the human genome makes privacy and confidentiality issues extremely acute. Medical research centers and other health care organizations will need to revise current protection procedures to avoid dignitary harms, such as stigmatization and discrimination associated with violations of genetic privacy. Policies must address challenging questions such as: This will present a significant challenge to protecting privacy and maintaining confidentiality in the collection and storage of DNA samples for pharmacogenomic research. Participants in genetic studies may not want family members to know that they carry a specific trait fearing that they will be ostracized or blamed. Furthermore, they may not want to disclose to family members the results of their genetics tests because of potential discrimination by insurance companies and concerns that test results may make the family uninsurable. Many have encouraged the U. Congress to pass a Genetic Information Nondiscrimination Bill. Researchers interested in the possibility of studying genetic markers for diseases or treatments need to learn how to plan appropriately to collect data and how to contact participants for future research and follow-up. Other considerations should include: What length of time is specified for protecting data that include linkages with names and other identifiers? What are the risks to individuals who contribute their DNA to a data repository? Who has access to a data repository? How will the genetic information be used? What are the issues in association studies and how meaningful are they? What are the appropriate safeguards for genetic information? What are the implications of state laws? How will unexpected findings e. The authors of the study concluded that genetic privacy concerns present strong deterrents to genetic counseling and testing research. Include in the Informed Consent Form any possible commercial application resulting from their genetic material for which they will not realize any profit. Protect the interlinking of databases that could reveal personal identities. Establish confidentiality and data security safeguards. Devise sound data access, ownership, and intellectual property policies. Be clear about whether and how study participants will be informed of findings that might be medically helpful to them. Arrange review and oversight by research ethics and privacy protection bodies. Many states have passed genetic privacy laws that provide protections in addition to the protections provided by federal privacy laws. Some states require informed consent and the offer of genetic counseling before performing a genetic test. Some states explicitly define genetic information as personal property; some consider DNA samples as personal property, and some states have penalties for violating genetic privacy laws. The National Conference of State Legislatures publishes information on the specific laws passed by each state. In addition, many states have passed genetic and health discrimination laws. Ethical issues in pedigree research are complicated because there can be potential conflicts between the rights and responsibilities of an individual and of a group. The privacy and autonomy of one family member can conflict with the privacy and autonomy of another individual or a family. Pedigree research relies on an accurate determination of family history, therefore, it is important to get full family participation. When publishing the family pedigree, care must be taken to protect families, especially in instances of rare diseases because these families are uniquely identifiable by the nature of their branches. There are strategies to protect identities in published pedigree diagrams such as omitting gender information in unaffected family members, collapsing unaffected children into a single icon, and including

only a portion of the family. Accessing DNA data banks and the medical histories of many people will be required to determine how genetic variation affects disease incidence, and to determine pharmacologic effects of various treatments. Finding the appropriate balance between privacy and genetic research should be continually considered as genomic medicine progresses. Ethical or IRB review of the circumstances is needed to ensure that the risks are minimized and that proper safeguards for confidentiality will be used. Researchers should consider getting informed consent in advance if there is any possibility of future use of the genetic sample. There may be instances in which prior consent for future studies is advantageous because the risk level of the future study precludes a waiver of informed consent. A brief review of some of these additional challenges is presented below to provide a more comprehensive picture of considerations needed to protect research participants. The types of mandatory reporting, and the agencies that must be reported to, vary by locality. Social and behavioral research may present dilemmas for researchers when data resulting from a behavioral study such as the use of a personality scale or depression inventory suggest that a participant might be at risk of harming himself or herself. There may be an obligation to provide ancillary care when certain diagnostic insights are realized during research. The researcher should consider that participants entrust only specific aspects of their health to the researcher, not necessarily their health in general. The researcher should consider the scope of what is entrusted to him or her by the participants, and what is his or her duty to care for their well-being. Especially in epidemiological studies, researchers often collect data from the proband the affected individual who led to the research done on their family about family members even though informed consent is provided only by the proband. When this occurs, the Common Rule applies and requires the informed consent of the third party. Generally in these situations, whenever informed consent can be sought, it is best to obtain it from the third party, depending on the urgency, practicability, and cost of obtaining it. In designing protocols, researchers must consider whether any third party may be adversely affected by the research. Several specific populations have been defined as vulnerable e. However, it is important to remember that vulnerability may apply to populations that are otherwise not viewed as vulnerable but are considered vulnerable depending on the particular research conditions. Sensitivity to being vulnerable is relative. Data considered sensitive by one person or group may not be considered sensitive by another. In addition, attitudes and vulnerabilities change over time. Many African-Americans are less trusting of medical research, given their fears of discrimination based in part on past experiences e. Gay men and lesbians also may be particularly concerned about their privacy and wary of medical research.

### Chapter 6 : Two powerful aspects of social media Anonymity & Community (Part I) by Kay | Jobs Blog

*Anonymity. Social media allows a certain amount of anonymity, which can act as a powerful buffer against "groupthink." An example of this could be found in a working group that uses an online meeting system that allows users to contribute their thoughts anonymously.*

Margaret Mead and other anthropologists have demonstrated the ways various cultures protect privacy through concealment, seclusion or by restricting access to secret ceremonies Mead, Alan Westin has surveyed studies of animals demonstrating that a desire for privacy is not restricted to humans. However, what is termed private in these multiple contexts varies. Privacy can refer to a sphere separate from government, a domain inappropriate for governmental interference, forbidden views and knowledge, solitude, or restricted access, to list just a few. They suggested that limitations of the right could be determined by analogy with the law of slander and libel, and would not prevent publication of information about public officials running for office, for example. Warren and Brandeis thus laid the foundation for a concept of privacy that has come to be known as control over information about oneself. Although the first cases after the publication of their paper did not recognize a privacy right, soon the public and both state and federal courts were endorsing and expanding the right to privacy. In an attempt to systematize and more clearly describe and define the new right of privacy being upheld in tort law, William Prosser wrote in that what had emerged were four different interests in privacy. Public disclosure of embarrassing private facts about an individual. Publicity placing one in a false light in the public eye. Prosser noted that the intrusion in the first privacy right had expanded beyond physical intrusion, and pointed out that Warren and Brandeis had been concerned primarily with the second privacy right. Nevertheless, Prosser felt that both real abuses and public demand had led to general acceptance of these four types of privacy invasions. On his view, answers to three main questions were at the time as yet unclear: Note that Warren and Brandeis were writing their normative views about what they felt should be protected under the rubric of privacy, whereas Prosser was describing what courts had in fact protected in the 70 years following publication of the Warren and Brandeis paper. Thus it is not surprising that their descriptions of privacy differ. Thomas Nagel gives a more contemporary discussion of privacy, concealment, publicity and exposure. Despite the well-established protection of tort privacy to control information about oneself in the courts, and the almost universal acceptance of the value of informational privacy by philosophers and the populace, Abraham L. Newman and others have persuasively argued that the United States US , and multiple countries in Asia, has developed a limited system of privacy protection that focuses on self-regulation within industry and government so that personal information is often readily available. In contrast, the European Union EU and others have adopted an alternative vision highlighting consumer protection and individual privacy against the economic interests of firms and public officials. European-style privacy protection regulations have spread rapidly across the industrial world, with the United States as a major exception, and have transformed and led the global privacy debate, while the US has relied on a more laissez-faire mentality about protection of personal information and a patchwork of privacy guidelines. The European Union empowered individual privacy commissioners or group agencies that had technical expertise, were given governmental authority, and were able to form political coalitions to lobby successfully for enhanced individual privacy protection, requiring that personal information not be collected or used for purposes other than those initially intended without individual consent, and so on. This contrasts sharply with the American approach allowing entities such as insurance companies and employers ample access to personal information not covered by the separate privacy guidelines, given a lack of governmental support for more comprehensive privacy legislation and a more fragmented political system. The US has generally stood behind efficiency arguments that business and government need unfettered access to personal data to guarantee economic growth and national security, whereas the EU has sent a coherent signal that privacy has critical value in a robust information society because citizens will only participate in an online environment if they feel their privacy is guaranteed against ubiquitous business and government surveillance. It is now commonly called the constitutional right to privacy. The right was first announced in the *Griswold v. The constitutional right to*

privacy was described by Justice William O. Douglas as protecting a zone of privacy covering the social institution of marriage and the sexual relations of married persons. The most famous application of this right to privacy was as one justification of abortion rights defended in *Roe v. Wade*. Which personal decisions have been protected by this privacy right has varied depending on the makeup of the Court. In *Bowers v. Hardwick*, criticism of the constitutional right to privacy has continued, particularly in the popular press, *Roe v. Wade* may be in jeopardy, and many viewed the *Bowers* decision as evidence of the demise of the constitutional right to privacy. Yet in *Lawrence v. Texas*, Cohen gives a theoretical defense of this inclusive view of the constitutional right to privacy. She defends a constructivist approach to privacy rights and intimacy, arguing that privacy rights protect personal autonomy and that a constitutionally protected right to privacy is indispensable for a modern conception of reason and her interpretation of autonomy. Currently many non U.S. For example, constitutional privacy has been used in the U.S. In Europe many countries now protect same sex marriage, such as the Netherlands for over 10 years and more recently Germany since *Coherentism* One way of understanding the growing literature on privacy is to view it as divided into two main categories, which we may call reductionism and coherentism. Reductionists are generally critical of privacy, while coherentists defend the coherent fundamental value of privacy interests. Ferdinand Schoeman introduced somewhat different terminology which makes it easier to understand this distinction. Others have argued that when privacy claims are to be defended morally, the justifications must allude ultimately to principles which can be characterized quite independently of any concern with privacy. Consequently, the argument continues, there is nothing morally distinctive about privacy. The thrust of this complex position is that we could do quite well if we eliminated all talk of privacy and simply defended our concerns in terms of standard moral and legal categories Schoeman, 5. They deny that there is anything useful in considering privacy as a separate concept. They conclude, then, that there is nothing coherent, distinctive or illuminating about privacy interests. On the other side, more theorists have argued that there is something fundamental and distinctive and coherent about the various claims that have been called privacy interests. On this view, privacy has value as a coherent and fundamental concept, and most individuals recognize it as a useful concept as well. Those who endorse this view may be called coherentists. Nevertheless, it is important to recognize that coherentists have quite diverse, and sometimes overlapping, views on what it is that is distinctive about privacy and what links diverse privacy claims. Noting that there is little agreement on what privacy is, Thomson examines a number of cases that have been thought to be violations of the right to privacy. On closer inspection, however, Thomson believes all those cases can be adequately and equally well explained in terms of violations of property rights or rights over the person, such as a right not to be listened to. Those rights in the cluster are always overlapped by, and can be fully explained by, property rights or rights to bodily security. Privacy is derivative in its importance and justification, according to Thomson, as any privacy violation is better understood as the violation of a more basic right. Moreover, his account is unique because he argues that privacy is protected in ways that are economically inefficient. Focusing on privacy as control over information about oneself, Posner argues that concealment or selective disclosure of information is usually to mislead or manipulate others, or for private economic gain, and thus protection of individual privacy is less defensible than others have thought because it does not maximize wealth. In sum, Posner defends organizational or corporate privacy as more important than personal privacy, because the former is likely to enhance the economy. Bork views the *Griswold v. Connecticut* decision as an attempt by the Supreme Court to take a side on a social and cultural issue, and as an example of bad constitutional law. Douglas and his majority opinion in *Griswold*. Douglas had argued, however, that the right to privacy could be seen to be based on guarantees from the First, Third, Fourth, Fifth, and Ninth Amendments. Taken together, the protections afforded by these Amendments showed that a basic zone of privacy was protected for citizens, and that it covered their ability to make personal decisions about their home and family life. In contrast, Bork argues i that none of the Amendments cited covered the case before the Court, ii that the Supreme Court never articulated or clarified what the right to privacy was or how far it extended, and he charges iii that the privacy right merely protected what a majority of justices personally wanted it to cover. In sum, he accuses Douglas and the Court majority of inventing a new right, and thus overstepping their bounds as judges by making new law, not interpreting the law. Theorists including William

Parent and Judith Thomson argue that the constitutional right to privacy is not really a privacy right, but is more aptly described as a right to liberty. If so, then liberty is a broader concept than privacy and privacy issues and claims are a subset of claims to liberty. In support of this view, philosophical and legal commentators have urged that privacy protects liberty, and that privacy protection gains for us the freedom to define ourselves and our relations to others Allen, ; DeCew, ; Reiman, ; Schoeman, . A moving account supporting this view—“understanding privacy as a necessary and an indispensable condition for freedom”—comes from literature, here a quotation from Milan Kundera. But one day in or , with the intent to discredit Prochazka, the police began to broadcast these conversations [with Professor Vaclav Cerny, with whom he liked to drink and talk] as a radio serial. For the police it was an audacious, unprecedented act. And because the curtain-rippers were serving a hated regime, they were unanimously held to be particularly contemptible criminals. There is more detailed evidence that privacy and liberty are distinct concepts, that liberty is a broader notion, and that privacy is essential for protecting liberty. We have many forms of liberty that do not appear to have anything to do with what we might value as private and inappropriate for government intervention for personal reasons. It is clear that the U. Many tend to focus on the private as opposed to the public, rather than merely informational or constitutional privacy. If distinguishing public and private realms leaves the private domain free from any scrutiny, then these feminists such as Catharine MacKinnon are correct that privacy can be dangerous for women when it is used to cover up repression and physical harm to them by perpetuating the subjection of women in the domestic sphere and encouraging nonintervention by the state. But, Elshtain points out, this alternative seems too extreme. A more reasonable view, according to Anita Allen , is to recognize that while privacy can be a shield for abuse, it is unacceptable to reject privacy completely based on harm done in private. A total rejection of privacy makes everything public, and leaves the domestic sphere open to complete scrutiny and intrusion by the state. Yet women surely have an interest in privacy that can protect them from state imposed sterilization programs or government imposed drug tests for pregnant women mandating results sent to police, for instance, and that can provide reasonable regulations such as granting rights against marital rape. In addition, Alan Westin describes privacy as the ability to determine for ourselves when, how, and to what extent information about us is communicated to others Westin, . Perhaps the best example of a contemporary defense of this view is put forth by William Parent. Parent explains that he proposes to defend a view of privacy that is consistent with ordinary language and does not overlap or confuse the basic meanings of other fundamental terms. He defines privacy as the condition of not having undocumented personal information known or possessed by others. Parent stresses that he is defining the condition of privacy, as a moral value for people who prize individuality and freedom, and not a moral or legal right to privacy. Personal information is characterized by Parent as factual otherwise it would be covered by libel, slander or defamation , and these are facts that most persons choose not to reveal about themselves, such as facts about health, salary, weight, sexual orientation, etc. Thus, once information becomes part of a public record, there is no privacy invasion in future releases of the information, even years later or to a wide audience, nor does snooping or surveillance intrude on privacy if no undocumented information is gained. In cases where no new information is acquired, Parent views the intrusion as irrelevant to privacy, and better understood as an abridgment of anonymity, trespass, or harassment. Furthermore, what has been described above as the constitutional right to privacy, is viewed by Parent as better understood as an interest in liberty, not privacy. It is too narrow an account because he only allows for a descriptive and not a normative use of the term. As another example, if personal information is part of the public record, even the most insidious snooping to attain it does not constitute a privacy invasion. Bloustein argues that there is a common thread in the diverse legal cases protecting privacy. Respect for these values is what grounds and unifies the concept of privacy. Using this analysis, Bloustein explicitly links the privacy rights in tort law described by Prosser with privacy protection under the Fourth Amendment. The common conceptual thread linking diverse privacy cases prohibiting dissemination of confidential information, eavesdropping, surveillance, and wiretapping, to name a few, is the value of protection against injury to individual freedom and human dignity. Invasion of privacy is best understood, in sum, as affront to human dignity. Although Bloustein admits the terms are somewhat vague, he defends this analysis as conceptually coherent and

illuminating. On one account, privacy is valuable because intimacy would be impossible without it Fried, ; Gerety ; Gerstein, ; Cohen, Fried, for example, defines privacy narrowly as control over information about oneself.

## Chapter 7 : Dual Diagnosis Treatment

*Alcoholics Anonymous was founded in , two years after the end of Prohibition in the United States and during the Great Depression. The co-founders, Bill Wilson and Dr. Bob Smithâ€”both alcoholicsâ€”had a chance meeting that year.*

These red flags may indicate that someone in your life has a problem with addiction: Abandoning friends or family in favor of new activities or a new crowd Struggling to keep up with school or work Lying or stealing in order to continue an addictive behavior Staying up late at night and sleeping during the day Trying to quit using drugs, drinking, gambling or having unsafe sex, but relapsing repeatedly Expressing feelings of guilt or regret about a compulsive behavior Seeking out larger doses of drugs, more alcoholic beverages or more extreme high-risk behavior in order to get the same high Experiencing withdrawal symptoms after trying to quit a harmful substance or cutting down the dose The symptoms of mental illness vary greatly, but you might suspect that a loved one has a psychiatric disorder if he or she: At Dual Diagnosis rehabilitation facilities, intake counselors and evaluation specialists will review your psychiatric history and evaluate your substance use patterns before helping you develop an individualized treatment plan. Reaching out for help may be the hardest part of getting the support you need to begin the recovery process. Treatment Options There is no single treatment option that works for everyone with a Dual Diagnosis. The range of mental health disorders is broad, and the relationship between your psychiatric condition and your substance abuse is complicated. People who seek treatment for addiction and mental illness may be diagnosed with: A mood disorder, such as major depression or bipolar disorder An anxiety disorder, such as generalized anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder or obsessive-compulsive disorder A personality disorder, such as borderline personality disorder or antisocial disorder An eating disorder, such as bulimia, binge eating disorder or anorexia In order to be effective, your recovery plan must address your specific disorder as well as your personal history of addictive behavior. The level of care you need will be based on the extent of your substance abuse and the severity of your psychiatric condition. Clients who have recently been using drugs or alcohol heavily or who have had severe signs of mental illness, such as psychotic episodes or suicidal thoughts, may benefit from a residential treatment program that provides intensive, round-the-clock monitoring and care. Clients who are physically and mentally stable may be referred to an outpatient treatment program, where they can continue to live at home, go to work and take care of family members while they go through rehab. In order to reap the benefits of outpatient care, you must be strongly dedicated to your recovery. Outpatient therapy requires a high level of motivation in order to reap the benefits of minimally supervised care. Pharmacological therapy is a key component of treatment when it comes to Dual Diagnosis rehabilitation. Medications are often prescribed to stabilize moods, reduce anxiety and agitation, prevent flashbacks to traumatic events or prevent hallucinations. Although psychiatric medication was once discouraged in substance abuse treatment programs, Dual Diagnosis care providers understand the importance of continuing pharmacotherapy throughout drug or alcohol rehab. Educating spouses, partners, children and siblings about addiction and mental health is another important part of your recovery. The more informed your loved ones are about the nature of your condition, the more likely they are to support you in your recovery journey. Family counseling, step meetings and peer support groups are available for friends and loved ones who want to help you meet your recovery goals. Understanding the Need for Treatment Denial is a common behavior in people who have a Dual Diagnosis. The symptoms of mental illness can be so disturbing that alcohol or drug abuse may seem like the only way to cope. Getting your life back on track requires help, hope and trust. We understand how difficult it is to extend your trust to others, but relying on the members of your treatment team will make rehabilitation easier and more rewarding. We encourage you to call us at for referrals and advice if you or someone you love is struggling with a Dual Diagnosis. You May Also Like:

**Chapter 8 : Step Drug Treatment Pros and Cons - The Recovery Village**

*Dual Aspect Concept, also known as Duality Principle, is a fundamental convention of accounting that necessitates the recognition of all aspects of an accounting transaction. Dual aspect concept is the underlying basis for double entry accounting system.*

Ethics Rounds, 35 1 , Privilege and confidentiality in step self-help programs: The Journal of Legal Medicine, 26 4 , Redmond , U. The Challenges for Social Workers in Recovery. Journal of Addictive Disorders. Handbook for SAA Groups. Retrieved July 05, , from [http: Sex Addicts Anonymous Sex Addicts Anonymous, 3rd Edition. Multiple Relationships in Recovery Communities. Multiple Relationships in Psychotherapy and Counseling: Not all multiple relationships are created equal: Mapping the Maze of 26 Types of Multiple Relationships. The Independent Practitioner, 34 1 , The Counselor, 14 3 , Ethics for addiction professionals. Implications for the Ethical Issue of Dual Relationships. Therapeutic applications of adventure programming. Beliefs of board certified substance abuse counselors regarding multiple relationships. J Mental Health Counseling; Analyzing the pros and cons of multiple relationships between chemical addiction therapists and their clients. Alcoholism Treatment Quarterly 14 2: Ethical issues in substance abuse prevention and treatment.](http://www.sexaddictsanonymous.org/)

**Chapter 9 : Topics in Computer Ethics**

*In the philosophy of mind, double-aspect theory is the view that the mental and the physical are two aspects of, or perspectives on, the same substance. It is also called dual-aspect monism.*

At the same time, computers are often far more efficient than humans in performing many tasks. Therefore, economic incentives to replace humans with computerized devices are very high. Indeed, in the industrialized world many workers already have been replaced by computerized devices -- bank tellers, auto workers, telephone operators, typists, graphic artists, security guards, assembly-line workers, and on and on. In addition, even professionals like medical doctors, lawyers, teachers, accountants and psychologists are finding that computers can perform many of their traditional professional duties quite effectively. The employment outlook, however, is not all bad. Consider, for example, the fact that the computer industry already has generated a wide variety of new jobs: Thus it appears that, in the short run, computer-generated unemployment will be an important social problem; but in the long run, information technology will create many more jobs than it eliminates. Even when a job is not eliminated by computers, it can be radically altered. For example, airline pilots still sit at the controls of commercial airplanes; but during much of a flight the pilot simply watches as a computer flies the plane. Similarly, those who prepare food in restaurants or make products in factories may still have jobs; but often they simply push buttons and watch as computerized devices actually perform the needed tasks. In this way, it is possible for computers to cause "de-skilling" of workers, turning them into passive observers and button pushers. Again, however, the picture is not all bad because computers also have generated new jobs which require new sophisticated skills to perform -- for example, "computer assisted drafting" and "keyhole" surgery. The problem is not so much the physical security of the hardware protecting it from theft, fire, flood, etc. Privacy and confidentiality Integrity -- assuring that data and programs are not modified without proper authority Unimpaired service Consistency -- ensuring that the data and behavior we see today will be the same tomorrow Controlling access to resources Malicious kinds of software, or "programmed threats", provide a significant challenge to computer security. Computer crimes, such as embezzlement or planting of logic bombs, are normally committed by trusted personnel who have permission to use the computer system. Computer security, therefore, must also be concerned with the actions of trusted computer users. Some hackers intentionally steal data or commit vandalism, while others merely "explore" the system to see how it works and what files it contains. These "explorers" often claim to be benevolent defenders of freedom and fighters against rip-offs by major corporations or spying by government agents. These self-appointed vigilantes of cyberspace say they do no harm, and claim to be helpful to society by exposing security risks. However every act of hacking is harmful, because any known successful penetration of a computer system requires the owner to thoroughly check for damaged or lost data and programs. For example, in the mids the American government already had created large databases of information about private citizens census data, tax records, military service records, welfare records, and so on. A public outcry about "big-brother government" caused Congress to scrap this plan and led the US President to appoint committees to recommend privacy legislation. In the early s, major computer privacy laws were passed in the USA. Ever since then, computer-threatened privacy has remained as a topic of public concern. The ease and efficiency with which computers and computer networks can be used to gather, store, search, compare, retrieve and share personal information make computer technology especially threatening to anyone who wishes to keep various kinds of "sensitive" information e. During the past decade, commercialization and rapid growth of the internet; the rise of the world-wide-web; increasing "user-friendliness" and processing power of computers; and decreasing costs of computer technology have led to new privacy issues, such as data-mining, data matching, recording of "click trails" on the web, and so on [see Tavani, ]. The variety of privacy-related issues generated by computer technology has led philosophers and other thinkers to re-examine the concept of privacy itself. Since the mids, for example, a number of scholars have elaborated a theory of privacy defined as "control over personal information". On the other hand, philosophers Moor and Tavani have argued that control of personal information is insufficient to

establish or protect privacy, and "the concept of privacy itself is best defined in terms of restricted access, not control" [Tavani and Moor, ] see also [Moor, ]. Questions of anonymity on the internet are sometimes discussed in the same context with questions of privacy and the internet, because anonymity can provide many of the same benefits as privacy. For example, if someone is using the internet to obtain medical or psychological counseling, or to discuss sensitive topics for example, AIDS, abortion, gay rights, venereal disease, political dissent , anonymity can afford protection similar to that of privacy. Similarly, both anonymity and privacy on the internet can be helpful in preserving human values such as security, mental health, self-fulfillment and peace of mind. Unfortunately, privacy and anonymity also can be exploited to facilitate unwanted and undesirable computer-aided activities in cyberspace, such as money laundering, drug trading, terrorism, or preying upon the vulnerable see [Marx, ] and [Nissenbaum, ]. Some people, like Richard Stallman who started the Free Software Foundation, believe that software ownership should not be allowed at all. He claims that all information should be free, and all programs should be available for copying, studying and modifying by anyone who wishes to do so [Stallman, ]. Others argue that software companies or programmers would not invest weeks and months of work and significant funds in the development of software if they could not get the investment back in the form of license fees or sales [Johnson, ]. The software industry claims that millions of dollars in sales are lost because of such copying. Ownership is a complex matter, since there are several different aspects of software that can be owned and three different types of ownership: One can own the following aspects of a program: The "object code", which is a machine-language translation of the source code. The "algorithm", which is the sequence of machine commands that the source code and object code represent. The "look and feel" of a program, which is the way the program appears on the screen and interfaces with users. A very controversial issue today is owning a patent on a computer algorithm. A patent provides an exclusive monopoly on the use of the patented item, so the owner of an algorithm can deny others use of the mathematical formulas that are part of the algorithm. Mathematicians and scientists are outraged, claiming that algorithm patents effectively remove parts of mathematics from the public domain, and thereby threaten to cripple science. As a result, only very large companies with big budgets can afford to run such a search. This effectively eliminates many small software companies, stifling competition and decreasing the variety of programs available to the society [The League for Programming Freedom, ]. For this reason, they are able to have a significant impact upon the world, including many of the things that people value. Along with such power to change the world comes the duty to exercise that power responsibly [Gotterbarn, ]. Computer professionals find themselves in a variety of professional relationships with other people [Johnson, ], including: