REPRESENTATIVE ANALYSIS OF FAMILY AND SOCIAL FACTORS OF RADICALIZATION IN YOUTH IN SLOVAKIA

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Readers' note

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••• INTRODUCTION •••

In recent years, due to cultural, societal, and economic circumstances against the backdrop of societal globalization, the issue of radicalization has become increasingly pertinent. Radicalization is perceived as a long-term, multifactorial process involving the adoption of views, values, behavioural patterns, and influences by individuals or social groups, culminating in a willingness and determination to engage in specific antisocial behaviours. In this sense, we consider it a significant, albeit not synonymous, concept, alongside extremism. Extremism is characterized by the conviction and actions of individuals who support or employ violence to achieve ideological, religious, or political goals. Many texts refer to this phenomenon as violent extremism. However, we believe that extremism can also manifest covertly, in the adherence to ideas and values propagated by a violent ideology, albeit without objectively observable manifestations. Therefore, in this monograph, we use the term extremism without the connotation of violence, although we acknowledge the concept of violent extremism as referred to in the literature.

All population groups are to some extent vulnerable to the division and occurrence of this phenomenon. However, the scope of this monograph and the authors' focus is primarily on adolescents, whom we consider one of the most vulnerable groups. This corresponds with the conclusions of other theorists who view adolescents as a risky population due to their formative stage of personality development and internalization of radical values associated with uncritical adoption of various opinions and behavioural patterns. These phenomena occur as a result of multiple influencing factors, among which those stemming from social functioning and social networks, particularly factors arising from family environment and social engagement, are considered most significant.

The aim of this monograph is to elucidate the issue of radicalization and its process within the target group of adolescents, specifically analysing the social factors that the authorial collective, in line with scholarly literature, deems most significant. In addition to the broader definition of radicalization with a focus on it as a process, each chapter describes family factors and social factors related to engagement in social relationships—various types of relational bonds and social isolation. The categorization of factors follows their theoretical classification based on the "push-pull" theory of their influence. In addition to theoretical descriptions, findings are supplemented with representative research on the population of Slovak adolescents and a common methodological basis outlining procedures for methodological processing.

This monograph is the culmination of several years of scientific work by the authorial collective. The methods used to identify factors described in this monograph have undergone prior validation on smaller research samples. As the authorial collective, we believe that this work will contribute insights and information essential for theoreticians and practitioners in helping professions to consider in theoretical, preventive, and intervention contexts.

Vladimír Lichner

••• Radicalisation and its Causes in Theoretical Concepts •••

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Vladimír Lichner has worked as an Associate Professor at the Department of Social Work, Faculty of Arts, Pavol Jozef Šafárik University in Košice since 2015 when he earned PhD degree. He is also a licensed trainer of social skills and a distance counsellor. Pedagogically, he focuses on the theoretical, methodological and statistical aspects of the social work science, and also on the socio-pathological phenomena. His main research topics focus on the self-care of social workers, and the risk-taking behaviour of various client groups. Specifically, he is interested in the social aspects of modern forms of risk-taking behaviour such as the "new" addictions, cyberbullying, radicalisation and extremism among adolescents. He is also a director and a counsellor of Children's helpline in Košice.

The term 'radicalisation' is frequently used in society, often to describe behaviour exhibiting various signs of violence, a willingness to commit violence, and extreme conduct by individuals or groups, which can lead to the suppression of the rights of others. The usage of 'radicalisation' and 'extremism' (and sometimes 'terrorism') is often interchangeable in sources and everyday language. However, we disagree with this categorisation as we believe they hold significantly different meanings. We attribute the synonymous usage to attempts to simplify labelling for the public, with 'extremism' becoming a broad social category encompassing similar constructs. This perspective aligns with the theoretical framework presented by Striegher (2015), who suggests that these phenomena are rooted in a distorted interpretation of the world, often influenced by various spiritual aspects and ideologies. Furthermore, it serves to justify violent, often extreme acts to achieve individual or group objectives.

This chapter of the monograph aims to provide an introductory understanding of radicalisation, upon which subsequent discussions will be based. We align our perspective with the work of Borum (2011a, 2011b), conceptualising radicalisation as a process involving the acquisition of views, values, attitudes, and behaviours characterised by adherence to extremist ideologies. In this framework, radicalisation possesses a dynamic connotation, while extremism can be associated with an embraced ideology that rationalises violent, extremist actions as a means to fulfil individual or group objectives and interests.

EXTREMISM VS. RADICALISATION

Finding a universally accepted definition of extremism proves challenging, as professional sources do not unanimously agree on one. This difficulty primarily stems from extremism encompassing various forms of behaviour or ideological assumptions exhibited by individuals, groups, communities, or society as a whole, characterised by the advocacy and utilisation of violence, alongside other socially undesirable actions. In this context, violence serves as a tool to achieve group, ideological, religious, or political objectives (Nivette et al., 2016; Nivette et

al., 2017). A comprehensive overview of diverse definitions of extremism, particularly in the context of violent extremism, is provided by Striegher (2015). He defines extremism as the actions of individuals resorting to violence to pursue political, ideological, or religious goals, encompassing various forms of violence such as communication violence and violent advocacy. Striegher notes that the common thread among these activities is the pursuit of change achieved through intimidation, dissemination of misinformation, and violence. Similar definitions of violent extremism are put forth by other scholars as well (Bartlett, et al., 2010; Nanes & Lau, 2018), underscoring the centrality of violence as a means of self-assertion or the assertion of one's social group.

Some national authors adopt a more specific approach to defining extremism. According to Milo (2004), extremism is characterised by particular verbal, graphic, physical, or other actions that are underpinned by distinct ideological or other beliefs. These actions are typically carried out by individuals or groups whose views diverge from widely accepted social norms. The perspectives and beliefs of these actors often exhibit elements of intolerance, such as racial, religious, or national prejudice, while collectively opposing recognised democratic principles, societal order, public health, property rights, or public safety.

Danics (2012) similarly adopts a specific perspective on extremism, delineating it into three categories:

- pursuit of ostensibly humane and noble objectives through illegitimate means and mechanisms;
- endeavouring to effect changes in the social and political system and societal functioning, but exclusively through lawful means permitted by prevailing legislation;
- engaging in illicit and unlawful activities to advance inhumane, frequently racially intolerant, and segregate motives.

By comparing the actors involved in specific acts (whether organized or disorganized) with the objectives they aim to achieve, extremism can be classified into four types:

1. rigidly organized extremism involves the use of violence. This category encompasses tightly organized groups, often with a terrorist orientation;
2. less organized or unorganized extremism also employs violence. It includes less rigid groups with subcultural backgrounds and various movements;
3. unorganized non-violent extremism consists of anti-democratic intellectuals;
4. tightly organized non-violent extremism is represented by political groups and movements advocating for an extreme ideological current or deviation from the mainstream (Mares, 2003).

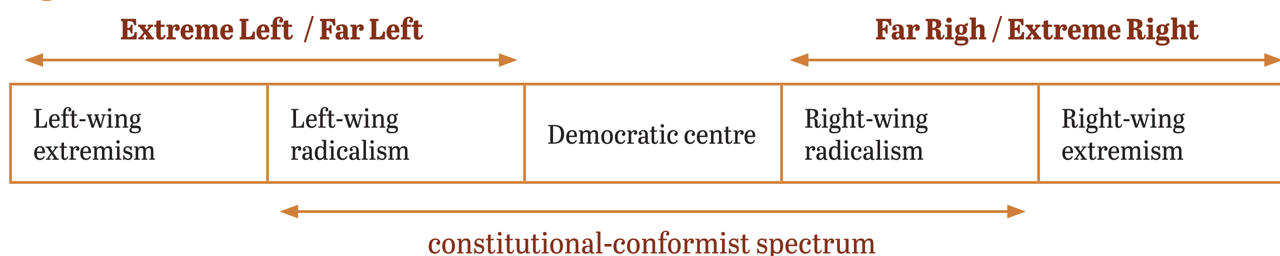
Although various approaches exist regarding the terminology of extremism, the authors of this monograph lean towards a broader definition, characterising extremism as an ideology rooted in the willingness to resort to violence and other actions aimed at suppressing the rights of diverse individuals or groups. Specific activities are viewed as direct manifestations of this ideology rather than constituting the ideology itself. The authors concur with arguments suggesting that by isolating these acts, which are mere manifestations, and delineating the ideological, attitudinal, and doctrinal principles underpinning extremism, it becomes feasible to identify the phenomenon well before such acts occur. Extremism, therefore, is perceived as an ideology endorsing the commission of socially unacceptable acts to achieve objectives with social, racial, religious, and political ramifications (Nasser-Eddine et al., 2011).

Our approach to defining extremism is grounded in the notion that extremism is not an isolated act but rather an ideological principle that advocates for individual acts as a means of expressing allegiance to such ideology. From this perspective, extremism is perceived as the outcome of a process of radicalisation. In a comparative manner, we present the perspective of Smolík

(2020), who identifies radicalism as a consequence of radicalisation and defines it as a collection of attitudes or an ideological stance situated between mainstream social ideas and extremism. Consequently, we view extremism as a precursor to radicalisation (Lichner et al., 2018).

The Report on the Security Situation in the Field of Extremism (2008) delineates a distinction between radicalisation (radicalism) and extremism. According to the Report, radicalism denotes a policy aimed at effecting changes within the democratic system by engaging with the existing social order through non-violent, lawful means. Conversely, extremism is characterized as a strategy aimed at dismantling the democratic system, with the subsequent imposition of a totalitarian or authoritarian regime (Lichner, 2020). This definition aligns with the characterization provided by Milo (2004). It is noteworthy to highlight that from this perspective, radicalism (whether right or left-wing) falls within the constitutional-conformist spectrum, being distinguished only when it evolves into extremism (whether right or left-wing) (Mareš, 2003).

Figure 1 Model of extremism and radicalism (Mareš, 2003, Lichner, 2020)



Dzhekova et al. (2016) highlight the fact that radicalisation encompasses a diverse array of definitions, some of which view it as a legitimate means of achieving left-wing or right-wing political or ideological goals. They argue against this approach, asserting that it fails to accurately capture the concept.

Radicalisation can be defined as a transformative process occurring within an individual, characterized by a gradual shift in both behaviour and ideology. This process comprises two components: cognitive and behavioural (Horgan, 2005; FBI, 2006), and their transformation may occur concurrently or sequentially. Therefore, the temporal aspect of this process is not necessarily dominant, given its individualistic nature (Heath-Kelly, 2013). Radicalisation may manifest in one or across multiple social domains within an individual. It is facilitated through the individual's engagement in social relationships, where these interactions can serve as a catalyst. Furthermore, radicalisation can be transmitted from one individual to others involved in these interactions, thereby facilitating its dissemination.

As with extremism, various approaches to defining radicalisation abound in the literature. Most of these definitions concur that radicalisation is a gradual process (FBI, 2006; Schmid, 2011). Contradictions may arise regarding whether different authors consider the commission of specific acts as a prerequisite for radicalisation (Striegher, 2015). Consequently, two types of radicalisations are recognised within professional discourse. The first type involves radicalisation leading to the perpetration of violence, while the second type entails a form of internal, subjective radicalisation that does not result in outward violent manifestations (Bartlett et al., 2010; Southers, 2013). We consider this categorisation crucial for understanding radicalisation. We assert that radicalisation is not inherently linked to the commission of specific acts of outward violence. We recognise the significance, as well as the potential danger, of subjective radicalisation, which is influenced by various social factors and can result in behaviours characterised by antipathy, social isolation, and the pursuit of problematic relationships.

Radicalisation is a multifactorial process that is perceived as highly interdisciplinary (Smolík, 2020). It involves individuals or groups influenced by a radical political or religious ideology who forsake the cultural and value system of a particular society, adopting a new value system inconsistent with the basic principles of a democratic society (Lichner et al., 2018). In the realms of social pathology and sociology, such behaviour could be described as counterculture (Yinger, 1960).

The process of adopting values, opinions, and attitudes based on a new ideology, which separates individuals from the moral and legislative norms of a democratic society, enhances the determination to advocate, promote, and implement radical ideology in one's own life, as well as within the group, community, and society, sometimes resorting to violence (Ministry of Education and Science of the Slovak Republic, 2014). It is crucial to underscore that radicalisation also encompasses a significant socialisation aspect, as highlighted by the authors in the European Commission Expert Group on Violent Radicalisation (2008, in Dzhekova et al., 2016), who characterised it as socialisation towards extremism manifested through terrorism. While the frequency of such acts in the European context is relatively low, any manifestation of violence aligning with professional definitions warrants consideration (Southers, 2013).

Radicalisation, as well as extremism, are social phenomena influenced by historical, political, social, economic, or other circumstances. These include the impact of local or society-wide social structures and policies (Norwegian Ministry of Justice). Generally, radicalisation may be shaped by the emergence and progression of horizontal inequalities within the population, exacerbated by social phenomena such as unemployment, poverty, migration, corruption, social stratification, injustice within local communities, and the absence or deficiency of social control or social inclusion (Borum, 2011a). According to some authors (Pauwels, 2014; Dingiltepe, 2015), these behaviours are further fostered through the frequent portrayal of such themes in the public sphere (via the media, literature, the press, gaming, or the prevalent use of online platforms) (Pauwels, Schills, 2014). Moreover, numerous other social circumstances related to affiliation with various social entities also play a role.

RADICALISATION AS A PROCESS AND ITS PROPERTIES

Aligned with the definitions outlined in the preceding section, we conceptualize radicalisation as a multifaceted and dynamic phenomenon. This perspective is consistent with Smolík's (2020) definition, which underscores the significance of social, political, sociological, economic, cultural, and spiritual dimensions, among others. Smolík further emphasizes that radicalisation can be viewed as a subjective journey of an individual towards radical views and ideas, which may not necessarily culminate in violence. This perspective corroborates the stance of the authors of this monograph, who assert that the peril of radicalisation extends beyond the perpetration of antisocial behaviour to encompass the enduring impact on individuals and their gradual adoption of ideas, norms, values, and behavioural patterns diverging significantly from those deemed conforming and socially acceptable. Subsequent sections of the monograph delve into radicalisation as a progressive process, elucidating its individual and societal hazards even in phases where radicalised individuals refrain from resorting to violence.

Radicalisation, as a process, is viewed as a progressive social phenomenon characterized by dynamic alternations across several stages. It is recognized that within this dynamic structure, individuals may move both forwards and backwards, thereby providing space for successful intervention by the social and behavioural sciences and helping professions. Radicalisation is an interactionist process, arising from the interplay of external social circumstances and processes with internal psychological processes, traits, and mental states. Within this interaction, cognitive patterns conducive to successful radicalisation emerge, which we denote as external and internal

dispositions in alignment with Murdz (2014). Once internalized, these dispositions become ingrained within an individual's cognitive framework, forming a complex system of values, beliefs, and attitudes referred to by some authors (e.g., Davydov & Khlomov, 2017; Davydov, 2015) as dispositions to violent extremism.

Interactionism, progressiveness, and dynamism are recognized by some authors (Smolík, 2020; Murdza, 2014) as key characteristics of radicalisation. Additionally, other notable features inherent in the radicalisation process include multidimensionality, referring to the complex and multidisciplinary nature of its causes and interacting factors, and normativity, indicating a necessary deviation from existing social norms (Murdza, 2014). Another significant aspect of the radicalisation process is the concept of collective identity that it fosters. This concept serves as a psychological and sociological basis for understanding radicalisation as a response to individual identity crises, which are resolved through the adoption of a new group or collective identity (Buzan et al., 1998). However, collective identity can exacerbate the danger of radicalisation, particularly as the most common collective identities are associated with radical and extremist ideas. This is exacerbated by the fact that radicalist ideas often offer seemingly simple solutions to individual crises within different social groups, facilitated by their easy availability, promotion through media channels close to the target audience, and their relatively straightforward presentation, such as quick guides to addressing personal problems.

As argued by Smolík (2020), radicalisation represents a process whereby individuals who may initially appear relatively problem-free become potentially dangerous to society. Smolík underscores the significant influence of the environment in which these individuals are situated, whether it be a social reference group, family, community, or any other organization, in contributing to the radicalisation process. However, instances of radicalisation can also occur in the absence of significant social environmental factors, with individuals undergoing the process alone and relying solely on modern information and communication channels, often driven by feelings of sympathy. The concept of "risk potential," as highlighted by Jusko (2020), holds importance for each individual undergoing radicalisation, irrespective of the presence or absence of social factors. This individual dimension adds complexity to the entire process, emphasizing the unique risk factors inherent to everyone's journey towards radicalisation.

In practice, alongside radicalisation, the concept of **deradicalisation** holds significant importance, particularly within the theories and practices of professionals focused on intervention and prevention methods related to radicalisation. We consider this concept particularly pertinent to the field of social work. Deradicalisation, akin to radicalisation, represents a process; however, it operates in the opposite direction. Individuals transition from behaviours, values, beliefs, and attitudes characterized by antisocial, non-conformist, or otherwise unacceptable contexts back to socially acceptable behaviour. Consequently, the overall risk associated with their behaviour, thoughts, attitudes, and values is diminished. Numerous research reports, practical guidelines, and experiences in the realm of deradicalisation have been documented (e.g., Horgan & Altier, 2012; Demant & DeGraaf, 2009). The deradicalisation process ideally commences with a gradual shift in thinking, followed by the cessation of socially unacceptable activities and behaviours. However, in practice, this progression may occur in reverse, or its trajectory may be influenced by various factors. In this context, the concept of social work, particularly through its diverse outreach, community, or group programs tailored to vulnerable populations, assumes significance (Haugstvedt, 2019; Finch et al., 2019). When considering at-risk populations, adolescents and young adults emerge as particularly vulnerable groups in this regard, as indicated by numerous research studies (Smolík, 2020). These demographics are perceived as being particularly susceptible to radicalisation, underscoring the importance of targeted interventions and support mechanisms aimed at this demographic.

OVERVIEW OF MODELS OF RADICALISATION AND RELATED FACTORS

In the literature, various models elucidate different approaches to understanding the process of radicalisation. Despite their differences, these models share commonalities in outlining several stages of the radicalisation process, ultimately leading to the emergence of a radicalised individual characterized by a readiness to engage in anti-social behaviour or adopt anti-social beliefs, values, and attitudes. It's important to note that each of these models was developed within specific social, cultural, political, and environmental contexts, which significantly influence their conceptualization. Many models are tailored to specific types of radicalisations, such as racial intolerance or violent terrorism like jihadism. Consequently, the final stages of these models typically correspond to particular forms of extremist behaviour associated with the respective ideologies. However, we contend that the earlier stages of radicalisation outlined in these models transcend ideological boundaries, reflecting shared patterns in the radicalisation process across different contexts and ideologies. This perspective aligns with scholarly viewpoints that emphasize the underlying psychological and sociological mechanisms driving radicalisation (Aly & Striegher 2012).

The radicalisation process in individuals is characterized by several elements. Firstly, it is multifactorial, typically involving the interaction of emotional, cognitive, and behavioural factors. This multifactorial nature is affirmed by other scholars, who identify social, psychological, and biological factors as common contributors (Jusko, 2020). The acquisition of patterns, values, opinions, and attitudes often involves various techniques of influence by social groups, akin to "brainwashing" techniques (Smolík, 2020). Additionally, a third element, particularly significant in modern society, is the pervasive presence of information and communication technologies throughout this process. These technologies serve as mechanisms for the dissemination of propaganda and provide a relatively 'safe' space for the discreet development of radicalisation.

FOUR-STAGE MODELS OF THE RADICALISATION PROCESS

Historically, the oldest and most frequently cited model of the radicalisation process is the four-stage model. Notably, this model stands out for its specificity compared to other models, as several similar models in the literature also utilize four factors (FBI, 2006; Silber & Bhatt, 2007). Therefore, we aim to provide a summary of these four-factor solutions, occasionally making comparisons where applicable.

The process of radicalisation is delineated into four distinct stages:

1. Pre-radicalisation encompasses the period preceding the onset of radicalisation itself, characterized by conforming behaviour and influenced by various internal or external factors (FBI, 2006; Silber & Bhatt, 2007).

2. Identification involves the adoption of radical values in the life of the individual undergoing radicalisation. During this phase, there is a tendency to critically evaluate the social system and seek out negative aspects of the previous conformist way of life (FBI, 2006). This stage is referred to as self-identification in Silber & Bhatt's (2007) four-stage model approach.

3. Indoctrination marks the phase of actively embracing, seeking, and promoting extreme ideological views, values, ideas, and beliefs (FBI, 2006; Silber & Bhatt, 2007).

4. Action, according to the FBI's (2006) model, or jihadization, as termed by Silber & Bhatt (2007), is characterized by the execution or commitment to perform specific anti-social acts. At this stage, radicalisation is complete, and the individual has fully embraced the characteristic extremist ideology.

As indicated, we have delineated two distinct four-stage models. Upon comparison, we observe that they do not fundamentally differ in the first three stages. However, the disparity arises in the fourth stage, wherein one approach posits that this stage is marked by the commission of an act of violence, while the approach defined by the FBI (2006) denotes the completion of the radicalisation process prior to the actual perpetration of violence. This latter approach resonates more closely with the perspective of the authors of the monograph, considering the social and cultural context of the Central European environment. Additionally, it is important to emphasize that the boundaries between the different phases are not clearly demarcated. As noted by Striegher (2015), each phase and the transitions between them are contingent upon individual, social, and circumstantial stimuli, making it difficult to identify a definitive timeframe. While the first three phases may span months or even years, the action phase may manifest rapidly or may not manifest at all.

Another four-stage model is proposed by Borum (2011b), who delineates radicalisation within the context of contingencies and individual-specific causes. These stages culminate in the adoption of extremist ideology, yet unlike previous models, they underscore more intrinsic motivation. The process of radicalisation is thus segmented into four phases:

a.) harm - entails a sense of wrongness within the prevailing social order or worldview, stemming from an unsatisfactory event experienced by the individual;

b.) injustice - builds upon the preceding phase, where the sense of injustice arising from the experienced harm is compounded, intensifying the resolve to progress to the subsequent stage;

c.) responsibility - involves the quest to identify a responsible entity, be it an individual, group, ideology, or society at large. This search is bolstered by the ideological concepts accessible to the individual during this period, or actively sought out as a foundational starting point;

d.) justification - following the identification of the responsible entity or ideology in the preceding phase, the radicalising individual may justify the perpetration of violence or other acts based on recurring feelings of injustice and inequity, aligning with the tenets of the newly embraced ideology.

THE STAIRCASE MODEL TO RADICALISATION

Another model that offers insight into the radicalisation process and is noteworthy for its theoretical emphasis is the staircase model (Moghaddam, 2005; Borum, 2011b). In this model, radicalisation is conceptualised as a tapered staircase comprising a ground floor and five ascending floors. At each stage, the individual undergoing radicalisation faces the choice of progressing to the next level. However, it is crucial to acknowledge that as the individual ascends the hierarchy, their options diminish. This reduction in choices also limits the potential for reversal or alternative pathways. While the staircase model was initially developed to understand the development of the terrorist personality and explicitly references acts of terrorism, we contend that its applicability extends beyond terrorism-related contexts. Therefore, we consider it relevant to our framework, where radicalisation encompasses a spectrum of behaviours beyond those associated with terrorism.

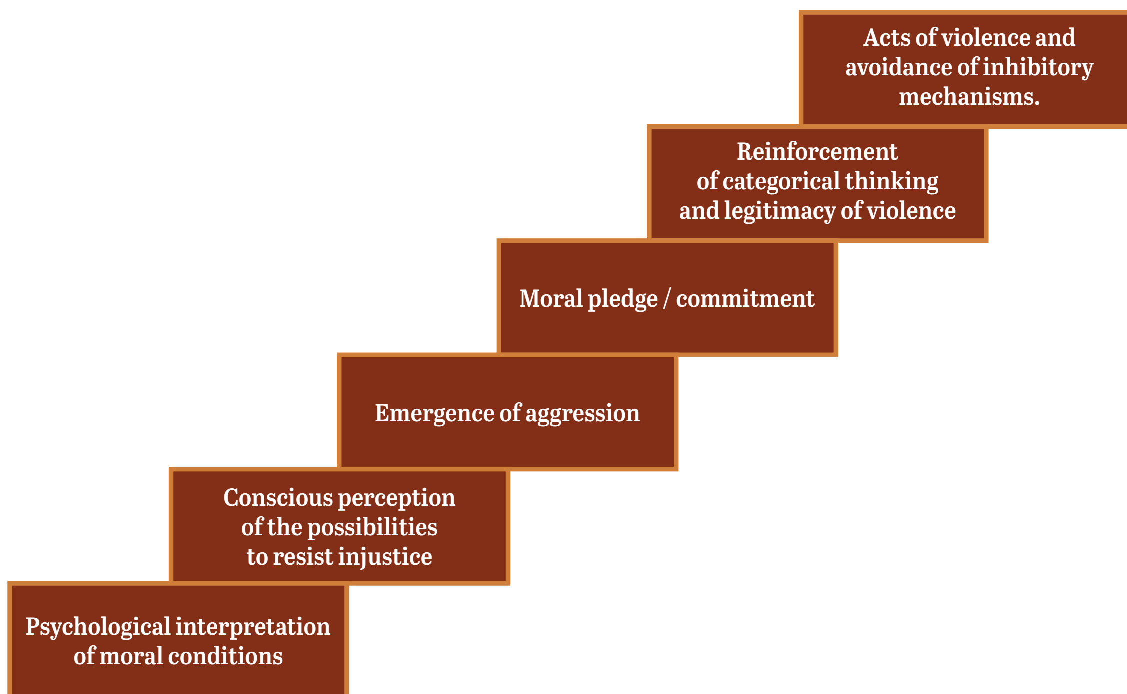


Figure 2 Radicalisation process through the staircase model

On the ground floor, the individual has the most opportunities to take different paths but is marked by the perception of particularly unfair material conditions. While this rigid interpretation according to the original author suggests that radicalisation is mainly associated with material or political conditions for living, we find this explanation insufficient for our understanding. Therefore, in our analysis, we expand this materialist-political conception and discuss several potential factors contributing to its emergence, including social factors such as group dynamics and community influences. We acknowledge that social factors may be partially intertwined with material conditions, but we believe it is necessary to distinguish them thoroughly. In identifying the breadth of factors, we concur with Smolík (2020) in identifying related elements directly, namely friendship, family relationships, ideology, and religion. All these contribute to social networks that may support violence as a means of addressing perceived injustices.

The perception of the possibilities of resisting injustice through a change in worldview characterizes the second level of the radicalisation process according to this model. At this stage, individuals become aware of the need for change and begin to search for ways to bring it about. If the options available are not deemed acceptable for addressing the perceived injustices, frustration deepens. This leads individuals to gravitate towards more radical ideas, marking the entry into the third level, characterized by heightened frustration and anger. During this stage, individuals begin to accept and reinforce aggression as a method for problem-solving. It is here that various radical organizations or recruiters often come into play, acting as catalysts for individuals to diverge from mainstream societal norms and construct a new, radical identity.

The fourth level is marked by the accumulation of information, experiences, and the commitment to a radical strategy for addressing injustice. This may involve specific manifestations or commitments to adopt the ideology as their own. In the context of terrorist groups, individuals at this stage are considered candidates for terrorist acts or members of terrorist organizations. The subsequent stage is identified with indoctrination, where individuals unquestioningly accept and enforce the norms, values, and beliefs of the ideology.

The final stage is associated with the completion of the radicalisation process, where individuals, driven by the newly adopted ideology and worldview, carry out violent acts and activities. In the

case of terrorism, this may involve preparing for attacks, disregarding the social consequences, and successfully suppressing all inhibitory processes.

MODELS OF RISK AND PROTECTIVE FACTORS OF THE RADICALISATION PROCESS

The next section explores another approach within the model, which delineates factors acting as risk factors and factors acting as protective factors in the radicalisation process. Broadly speaking, risk factors exert negative influences on the process of radicalisation, serving as catalysts for its initiation and development. Conversely, protective factors leverage potential at the individual, group, community, or other levels to prevent the emergence or exacerbation of this socio-pathological phenomenon. Numerous analogous approaches can be discerned in the literature, and the subsequent section will focus on the most prominent ones.

The initial concept derives from the traditional model proposed by Boehnke et al. (1998), which, drawing on theoretical analysis and their own empirical research, presents an explanatory model built upon several assumptions.

a.) The process of radicalisation is regarded as a facet of youth delinquency, a notion supported by other studies (Simi et al., 2016).

b.) Radicalisation is heavily influenced by individuals' involvement in deviant peer group culture, as later underscored by Erwin (2016).

c.) Radicalisation is influenced by individuals' anomic efforts based on social assumptions such as stratification, social order, and enforcement of norms, with the theory of group membership being subsequently incorporated (Bates, 2011).

d.) Positive experiences in the school environment can impact the radicalisation process positively. Schools and education, in general, have been found to play a protective role in radicalisation, as suggested by another research (Sas et al., 2020).

e.) Positive experiences with parents and within the family environment also influence the radicalisation process, a factor later confirmed by studies (Sikkens et al., 2017; Kapetanovic et al., 2019).

f.) The radicalisation process may vary among individuals based on factors such as age, gender, social, and cultural status. These factors can act as moderating variables and have been partially addressed in other research, which demonstrates the influence of gender (Rippl & Seipel, 1999) and environment (Davydov, 2015). Age has also been identified as a risk factor, with young men aged 15-25 being the most susceptible to radicalisation (Bakker, 2006).

However, it's important to note that the original model was developed within a German context, specifically focusing on the capital city of Berlin. The authors considered the significant factor of the social environment, anticipating differences between respondents from the East and West parts of the city. This was justified by the distinct cultural, value, and opinion orientations influenced by the historical experience, political, and social situations in the two regions. We refer to this factor, simplistically, as the environment. The model of risk and protective factors proposed by these authors can theoretically be represented graphically through a diagram (in a Figure). Following its empirical validation, the authors supplemented the factors with variables such as academic achievement (replacing the school environment variable) and school vandalism (replacing the factor of contacts with deviant peers). They also observed that the environmental factor gained significance due to the identification of notable differences between residents of East and West Berlin. For instance, on the xenophobia scale, higher scores were observed in East Berlin, while right-wing attitudes were more prevalent in East Berlin. Conversely, instances of vandalism at school were more frequent in West Berlin, while parental control tended to be higher in East Berlin, along with academic success (Boehnke et al., 1998).

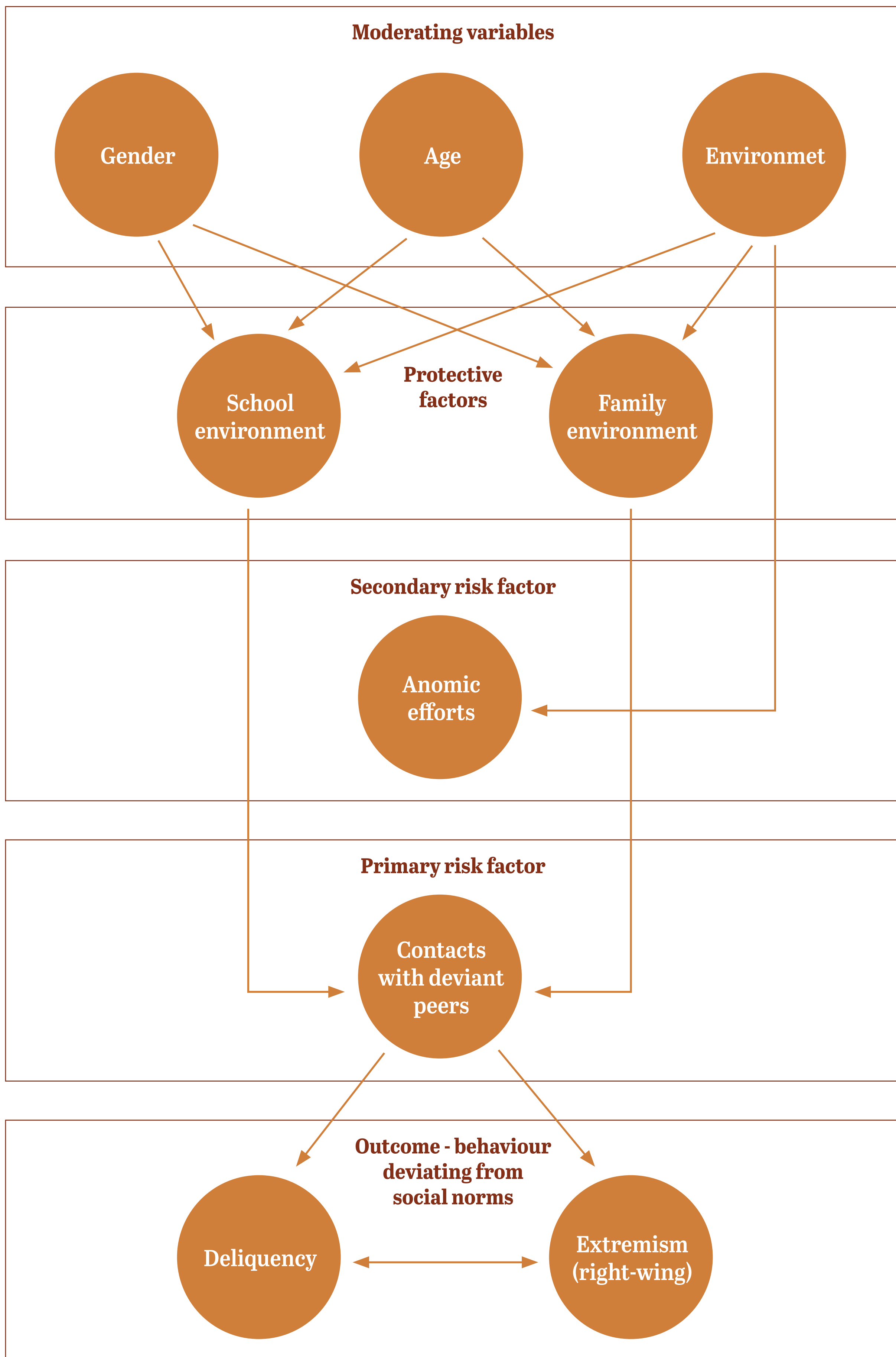


Figure 3 Model of risk and protective factors of radicalisation (Boehnke et al., 1998)

Another approach to examining risk factors, which we find useful, is the risk factor model presented by the authors at CeSID (2016). They conceptualise extremism as a consequence of radical viewpoints and attitudes, which are shaped by past experiences, namely:

- exposure to violence (within the family, in the surrounding environment, or through media sources);
- perceived injustices (experienced by the group, disparities in social status, or arising from societal corruption);
- lack of engagement (stemming from discontent, unemployment, or apathy);
- social detachment (resulting from factors such as ethnic background, social status, or individual identity).

MODEL OF MICRO AND MACRO LEVEL FACTORS OF THE RADICALISATION PROCESS

The final model we will consider regarding the existence of specific factors influencing the radicalisation process is the concept of micro and macro-level factors, as introduced by Veldhuis & Staun (2009) through the analysis of several models.

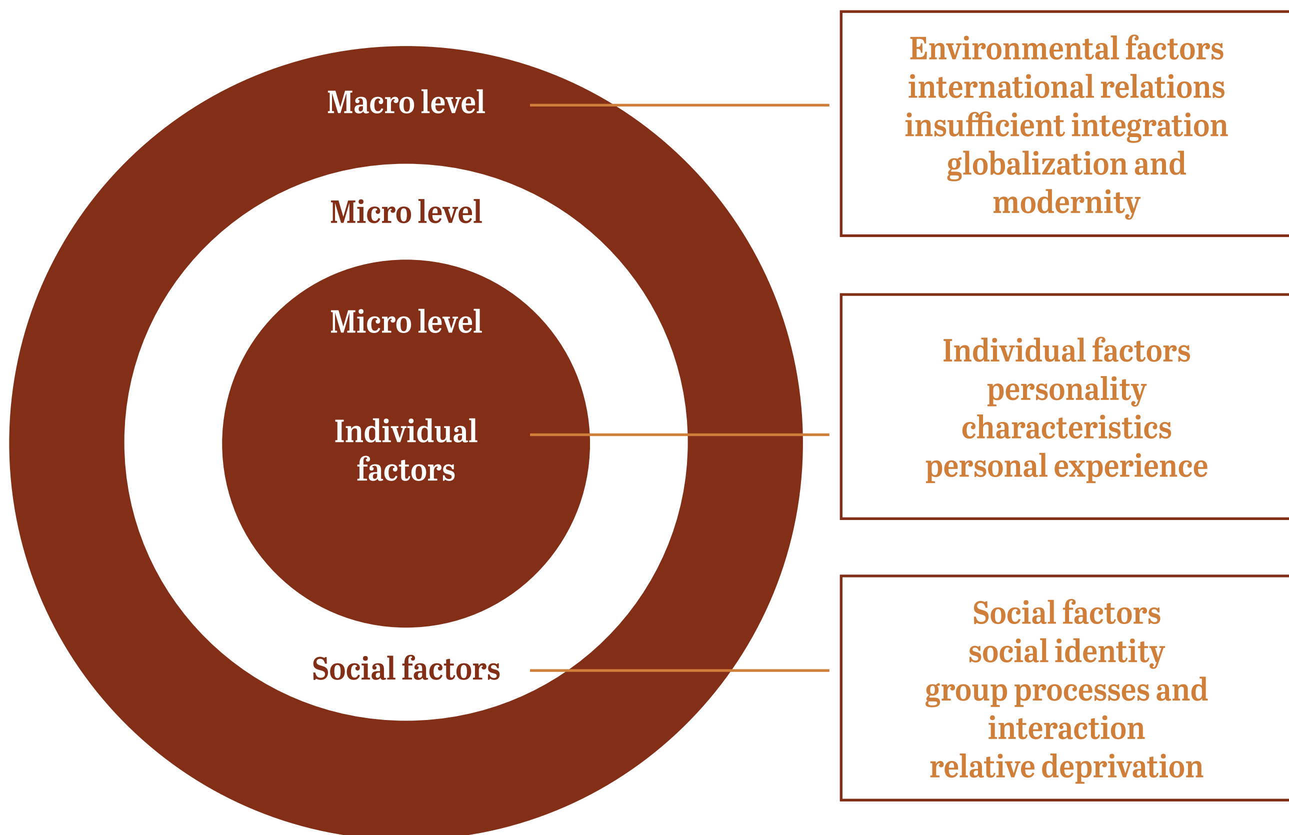


Figure 4 Factors of the radicalisation process of the micro and the macro levels (Veldhuis & Staun, 2009)

Macro and micro-level factors delineate a complex of theoretically influential variables that serve as causal factors for initiating the radicalisation process itself, but also later elucidate the pathways of radicalisation development leading to the propensity to commit violent acts. It is important to underscore that the original model stemmed from an analysis of the causes specifically related to religiously (Islamist) oriented acts of terrorism. However, by drawing on other theoretical frameworks (e.g., Fahey & Simi, 2018), the individual causal factors, once adapted, may also be applicable to non-religious forms of radicalisation.

At the macro level, environmental factors exert influence on the development of the radicalisation process. These factors are shaped by group dynamics, whether within religious or other social groups, and are further influenced by the political culture, attitudes, and values of society towards these groups, in line with previously defined models and other theoretical concepts (Chakrabarti 2008). International relations contribute to the overall societal atmosphere, metaphorically representing social coercion and punishment in response to efforts of non-conformity. Integration efforts by society, often enforced through violence, reflect attempts to compel conforming behaviour. However, when sufficient conditions for the integration of diverse population groups are not created, radicalisation becomes a natural path of resistance for them (Feldman & Gidley, 2013). Globalisation and modernity, as components of the "new world," signify societal transformations in economic, social, and political spheres resulting from efforts towards internalisation supported by advancements in knowledge and technology. The consequences of these globalisation efforts include changes in societal culture, presenting challenges for social groups unable to fulfil their needs, as well as those opposing globalisation due to their professed ideologies (Brahm 2002). Macroenvironmental factors serve as a social and political framework for the development of the radicalisation process, representing complex social conditions that support the radicalisation process itself. From a social work perspective, these factors must be considered within the context of the radicalisation process, although they are not directly related to the practice of social work. Nonetheless, they are significant as relatively immutable constants (Payne 2015). Specific external factors can be categorised as political (e.g., poor integration, perceived marginalisation, discrimination), economic (e.g., poverty, deprivation), and cultural (e.g., globalisation, clash of identities between moderate religious groups in the Western world and radical cultures in native countries). Against this backdrop of triggers, often instigated by recruiters or various social groups encouraging action, the process of radicalisation begins (Dzhekova et al., 2016).

Social factors and individual factors constitute the micro level of influences, which are intertwined with the individual's functioning within their social environment, social network dynamics, and delinquent behaviour within reference groups. These factors are informed by experiences of injustice and deprivation in satisfying both group and individual needs, set against the backdrop of macro factors. The work of authors such as Dzhekova et al. (2016) elucidates specific social factors, including social identification (such as group identity crisis and feelings of group threat), group dynamics (involving social norms, formation of friendships, and commitments), relative deprivation, and the role of the Internet as a networking tool and platform for diverse viewpoints. Social factors are reinforced by individual factors, particularly negative experiences in social interactions, which contribute to the emergence of radicalisation at the individual level (Veldhuis & Staun, 2009). Individual factors encompass psychological aspects (such as depression, anxiety, aggressiveness, search for identity and belonging, impulsivity, and sensitivity), personal experiences leading to consideration of adopting an ideology, and rational considerations, aligned with sociological rational choice theory (Dzhekova et al., 2016). These factors manifest within various contexts such as reference groups, school, family environments, and through psychological and behavioural dimensions.

THE PUSH-PULL MODEL OF THE INDIVIDUAL FACTORS

In several sections of this monograph, we posit that a variety of specific factors contribute to individual radicalisation and the emergence of extremist behaviour. These factors can function as catalysts or moderating variables. Subsequent chapters of the monograph will aim to elucidate individual factors and empirically verify their impact. The push-pull model addresses the role of individual factors, originally conceptualised within the realm of marketing communication but applicable across diverse disciplines, including social work. Previous research has extended the push-pull theory to domains such as migration motivation and various forms of risky or non-risky behaviour. The theory posits two domains of motivational factors: "push" factors, rooted in the current situation and environment, which propel individuals outward (such as social and family environment factors), and "pull" factors, based on the target destination, group, or behaviour (e.g., radical ideas, ideologies, groups), which draw individuals towards specific behaviours, including the initiation of radicalisation (Zmud, 1984; McAulay et al., 2006).

The models, approaches, and factors discussed thus far have largely been grounded in empirical research and the theoretical insights of various experts. Figuratively speaking, these factors can be likened to those operating within the framework of the push-pull theory. However, we also perceive these factors through the lens of risk and protective factors, akin to traditional models of radicalisation.

SCIENTIFIC IDENTIFICATION OF RADICALISATION IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC

To identify radicalisation, the authors of the monograph first tried to summarise the research conducted so far in the Slovak environment. In most cases, the authors (Mlýnek, 2012; Tomková, 2016; Pétiová, 2018; Moravčík & Struhár, 2018; Pétiová, 2019) focused on inquiring about the respondents' attitudes and values, but it was mainly a mediated inquiry (how do the respondents see the values of their peers, what they perceive as the activities in their environment, what their views on these activities are). However, they mainly capture already developed or observable behaviours. If these questions are oriented towards values and views towards radicalisation or extremism, they are directly related to some national minorities (e.g. directly to Roma, etc.), which in our opinion does not capture the whole breadth of the issue and reveals equally quite clearly observable manifestations and views of misanthropy. Equally, the issues in this research varied considerably. From this perspective, we perceived an absence of a coherent research instrument that did not directly inquire into specific manifestations of radicalisation and extremism, but that directed questions towards different attitudinal, value, and attitudinal issues that could identify dispositions to perpetrate these phenomena. In this context, the foreign methodology VEDS /Violent Extremism Dispositions Scales/ (Davydov & Khlomov, 2017), for example, is an inspiration. This methodology identifies the degree of radicalisation and extremist manifestations in adolescents. Respondents answer 58 items through Likert-type scales (1=completely disagree; 5=completely agree). The questionnaire allows to categorise the degree of radicalisation and susceptibility to extremist manifestations through the identification of 10 factors: (cult of power, admission of aggression, intolerance, social pessimism, mysticism, destructivism and cynicism, passion for change, normative nihilism, anti-introspection, conformity).

The absence of a methodology for identifying the process of radicalisation prompted the authors to adopt the REPTSA (Radical and Extremist Attitudes and Tendencies in Adolescent Behaviour) methodology, developed by the author of this chapter, which was first employed in 2019. The formulation of individual questions was based on an analysis of Slovak and foreign research concerning the identification of radicalisation and extremism in various target groups, particularly adolescents and young people (Pressman, 2009; Mlýnek, 2012; Tomková, 2016; Pétiová, 2018; Moravčík & Struhár, 2018; Pétiová, 2019; CeSID, 2016), while also considering the specific

conditions of Slovakia. In the development of this methodology, the theoretical categorisation of the individual questions into two areas was established: 1. personal values, opinions, and beliefs; 2. general values, opinions supporting radicalisation and extremism. These considerations have been validated, and the different areas can be identified accordingly in empirical investigations.

As part of our own empirical research, we sought to assess the level of radicalisation among adolescents, specifically secondary school students in Slovakia. Table 1 provides the basic descriptive characteristics of each factor. In interpreting these findings, we can focus on explaining the level of radicalisation among respondents based on their answers or the average scores. The scale used in the individual items indicates that values of 4 and 5 express agreement with the statement, suggesting a positive perception of the statement. However, we must also consider the answer option 3 - neither agree nor disagree, which indicates a certain sensitivity towards the statement but may also reflect social inhibitions towards a clear-cut positive answer. The intention of this section of the monograph is not to analyse each question separately. Instead, we will examine the average score of each factor. In terms of the scale used, we will consider a score above 2.5 as indicative of a risk, and a score above 3 as indicating an imminent threat to values, attitudes, and tendencies in behaviour that may lead to radicalisation and extremism.

Table 1 Descriptive values of the REPTSA radicalisation questionnaire factors

	N	X	SD	Med	Mod	Skewness	Kurtosis	Min	Max
F1*	641	1,73	0,65	1,53	1,21	1,46	2,61	1	5
F2*	641	2,60	0,66	2,57	3,00	0,29	0,18	1	5

* F1: personal values, attitudes and beliefs leading to radicalisation and extremism; F2: general values and beliefs supporting radicalisation

Based on the interpretation, we observe that for factor F1, which pertains to general values, attitudes, and beliefs tending towards radicalisation and extremism, the average level is X=2.6. This level is concerning, indicating an increased risk of internalising these values. This is further evidenced by the average score for factor F2, which stands at X=1.73, suggesting that internalisation of these values is indeed occurring, albeit to a lesser extent. It's worth noting that the modal values highlight the prevalence of agreement with values supporting radical ideas, particularly for F2, where Mod=3. This underscores the importance of addressing these trends to mitigate the risk of radicalisation and extremism.

Analyzing the frequencies of the mean scores, we depict a simplified representation using histograms. For the personal values (F1), which reflect internalised beliefs, up to 87.5% of respondents fall within the range of mean scores up to X=2.5, and up to 94% up to X=3. This indicates that approximately 6% of respondents demonstrate risky internalisation tendencies.

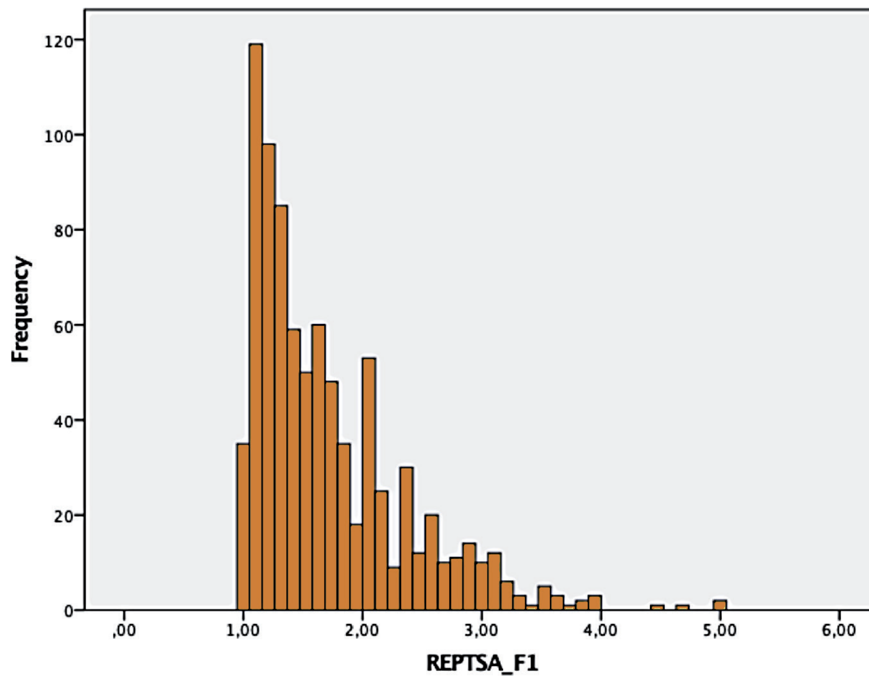


Figure 5 Histogram F1 - personal values, attitudes and beliefs towards radicalisation and extremism

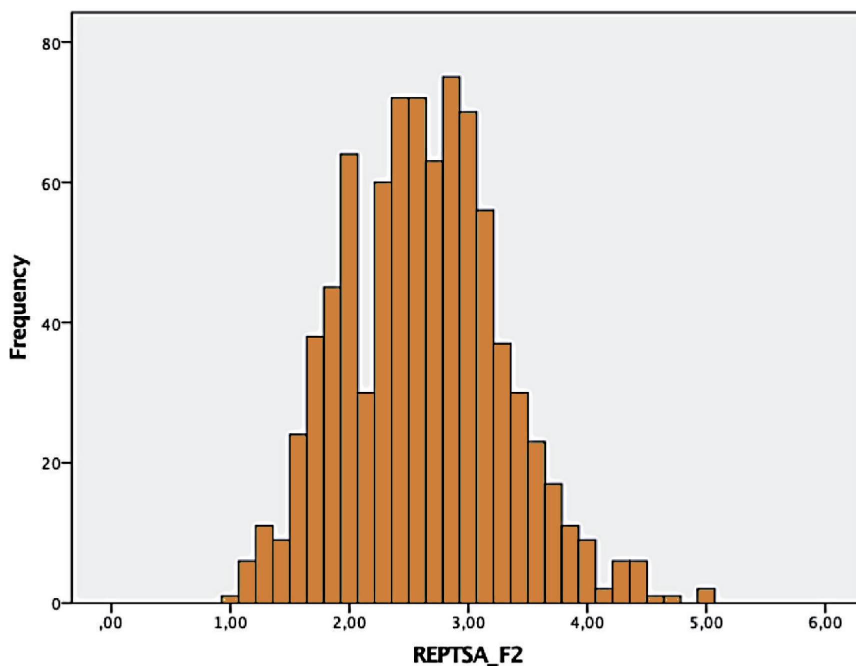


Figure 6 Histogram F2 - general values and opinions supporting radicalisation

However, for factor F2, the descriptive results indicate that only 42.8% of the respondents score X<=2.5, and 70.9% score X<=3. Thus, almost 30% of the respondents are in the zone of increased risk of adopting radical values and views prevalent in society. This is considered a significant result, suggesting the beginning of radicalisation at its early stages as per the defined models.

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••• Research Design and Schema of Pull and Push Factors of Adolescent Radicalisation •••

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RESEARCH PROBLEM

Radicalization represents a transformative process that occurs within an individual, characterized by a gradual change in behavior and ideology. It comprises both cognitive and behavioral components. The transformation of these components can occur simultaneously or sequentially. Radicalization can be observed in one or more social domains of an individual. It is supported through the interaction of the radicalizing individual within social relationships, which can act as a reinforcing factor. Moreover, through social interactions, radicalization can be transmitted from the individual to other participants in the interaction, thereby promoting its spread.

Adolescents are considered one of the groups most at risk of radicalization. This is related to their developmental stage, which is marked by emerging independence, curiosity about the unknown, boundary testing, exploration of identity, spirituality, and the search for a sense of belonging.

Various research studies have been conducted in the context of adolescent radicalization, highlighting the nature of this phenomenon. However, it is evident that radicalization is strongly

influenced by the social, cultural, and political context of the country in which it is studied. For this research, conducted within the conditions of the Slovak Republic, the main variables examined were selected social and family factors, which are detailed in separate chapters of this monograph. These factors were chosen with an emphasis on the preventive and interventive competencies of social work.

The influence of the family in the process of radicalization largely depends on a multitude of factors, such as social and socio-demographic context, the parent-child relationship, and the severity and type of radicalization. It can be said that it is a complex and multi-layered phenomenon that requires a thorough understanding of the various determinants contributing to it.

In the area of family factors, the following were examined:

- Risk Factors within the Family:
  - Leisure activities within the family
  - Incidence of CAN syndrome (Child Abuse and Neglect)
  - Trust within the family
  - Family norms
  - Support for radicalization within the family
- Positive relationships with parents
- Family typology

Social Factors:
The study selected two constructs: social isolation and attachment relationships. Both constructs relate to how adolescents perceive themselves and the world around them, which can contribute to their vulnerability to radicalizing influences. A secure attachment provides a child with a sense of safety, trust, and support, contributing to healthy emotional and social development. Social isolation, on the other hand, refers to a state where individuals have limited contact and support from others, which can lead to feelings of loneliness, alienation, and despair. Therefore, those who feel socially isolated may be more vulnerable to radicalization. The social factors under consideration share the assumption that individuals have an innate need to belong to a group or be accepted, which can help explain human behavior and the motivation to join a group. These principles apply particularly to adolescents.

The social factors examined included:

- Attachment relationships
- Social isolation.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The primary objective of the research presented in this monograph is to verify selected family and social factors in relation to the degree of radicalization among adolescents.

To enhance clarity, the research objective was divided into several areas:

What are the relationships between radicalization and family factors?

A positive relationship was hypothesized between:

- Radicalization and the CAN syndrome factor within risky family factors
- Radicalization and the Support for radicalization factor within risky family factors

A negative relationship was hypothesized between:

- Radicalization and the Leisure time factor within risky family factors
- Radicalization and the Norms factor within risky family factors

- Radicalization and the Trust factor within risky family factors
- Radicalization and positive relationships with parents

What are the relationships between radicalization and social factors?

A negative relationship was hypothesized between:

- Radicalization and insecure attachment
- Radicalization and preoccupied attachment

A positive relationship was hypothesized between:

- Radicalization and social isolation

In addition to these basic relationships that were verified, readers will find detailed correlation findings between radicalization and the individual factors studied, in the context of comparisons across:

- Family type
- Gender
- Age groups
- Type of school
- Number of siblings

RESEARCH SAMPLE

The theoretical population for the conducted research consisted of adolescents attending secondary schools in the Slovak Republic. Many experts have delved into defining the boundaries of the adolescent period. For instance, Juhásová and Gatial (2019) provide an overview of Slovak and Czech authors such as Langmeier and Krejčířová, Kuric, Matějček, Vagnerová, and Thorová. Several definitions align in characterizing adolescence as the second decade of an individual's life, approximately delineated from around the age of 11. The upper boundary exhibits more variability, ranging up to 20-22 years. The World Health Organization (2016) notes that the periodization closely correlates with societal culture and its socio-economic conditions, with the upper boundary generally extending further. Consequently, it speaks of an age range of 10-24 years, dividing it into two phases: adolescence from 10-19 and youth from 15-24. Both groups are collectively referred to as "young people." Sawyer, Azzopardi and Wickremarathne et al. (2018) concur with this categorization, asserting that the transitional period from childhood to adulthood now occupies a larger portion of the life cycle than ever before. According to them, this is influenced by extraordinary changes in society, marketing, and digital media that impact the decision-making, physical and mental health, and well-being of young people in this life stage. They argue that an expanded and more inclusive definition of adolescence is necessary for appropriate legal frameworks, social policies, and service systems tailored to this target group. For the purposes of the research, students in the second and third year of high school were selected as the accessible population, corresponding to the age category of 15-19 years. The research sample showed the highest representation in the age group of 17-18 years.

Table 2 Frequency of Responses by Age

Age	15	16	17	18	19
Frequency	1	55	323	245	16

Research involved 641 respondents from grammar schools (n=249) and vocational schools (n=392), with a gender representation of 253 men and 388 women. The selection of the research

sample was random and stratified. A list was created from the complete list of secondary schools in the Slovak Republic, and schools were divided by type. A certain number of schools from each type were randomly selected from each self-governing region.

DATA COLLECTION

The data collection was conducted in person by the authors of the research. It took place within a designated space during class hours without the presence of the teacher (students were in the classroom only with the researcher while completing the questionnaires). Participation was voluntary, students had the option to decline participation in the research.

METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted based on a nomothetic approach within a quantitative design through personal data collection using a battery of questionnaires. The deductive-hypothetical approach allowed for the creation of a new perspective on the studied topic based on existing knowledge. The battery consisted of methodologies that assessed the degree of radicalization, verified selected social and family factors, and included socio-demographic items.

REPTSA Methodology - Radical and extremist attitudes and tendencies in adolescent behaviour

(Lichner, 2020)

The methodology aims to identify the level of the Radicalisation process and includes 33 items that identify the process in two factors. F1 – personal values, attitudes, and beliefs (e.g., items like "I have a problem seeing foreigners in the city where I live," "I mind that minorities can live according to their own customs and traditions"); F2 – general values and opinions supporting Radicalisation and extremism (e.g., items like "High state functions should be held only by native Slovaks," "Nothing is as important as the nation, and if necessary, an individual must be willing to sacrifice for it"). The assumption for identifying a certain degree of Radicalisation is the recognition of general values in the population and the subsequent personalization of these values. Respondents express their agreement with individual items through a 5-point scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). The methodology does not include reverse items, and higher scores in individual factors indicate an increased perception or level of personalization of these values. The methodology achieves sufficient consistency values through the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the original methodology (F1 = 0.927; F2 = 0.849), as well as in the research presented in this monograph.

Table 3 Reliability of factors within the REPTSA questionnaire

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
F1 Personal Values	0,911	19
F2 General Values	0,823	14

RSQ Questionnaire – Relationship Attachment
(Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991)

The RSQ questionnaire comprises 30 short statements, where respondents rate, on a 5-point scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree), to what extent each statement best captures their characteristic style in close relationships or the extent to which they believe each statement best represents their feelings about close relationships. Importantly, the RSQ questionnaire explores attachment to current social relationships.

The questionnaire provides information on scores in four styles of relationship behaviour: secure, fearful, dismissive, and preoccupied (Bartholomew, Horowitz, 1991). It also allows the calculation of a composite variable for all styles of insecure attachment (fearful, dismissive, and preoccupied) as insecure relationship attachment (Wolt, Halama, 2017). Scores for each attachment style are derived from the average of corresponding items representing that attachment style.

Table 4 Reliability of factors within the RSQ questionnaire

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Secure Relationship Attachment	0,355	5
Insecure Relationship Attachment	0,467	13
Fearful Relationship Attachment	0,412	4
Preoccupied Relationship Attachment	0,525	4
Dismissive Relationship Attachment	0,490	5
RSQ Questionnaire	0,755	30

Questionnaire on Family Risk Factors in the Context of Radicalisation (RFR-R)
(Hovanová)

The questionnaire consisted of five domains (risk factors) related to the family environment of adolescents, which emerged from literature associated with the process of their Radicalisation (Leisure Time, CAN, Trust, Norms, Support for Radicalisation). The questionnaire comprised 29 items, where respondents had the opportunity to choose their response on a five-point Likert scale (from 1, the statement does not reflect the respondent at all, to 5, the statement completely reflects the respondent). The questionnaire underwent analysis of the histogram, normality tests, and distribution verification through kurtosis tests (indicating non-normal distribution).

Table 5 Reliability of factors within the RFR-R questionnaire

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Leisure Time	0,830	5
CAN (Child Abuse and Neglect)	0,692	13
Trust	0,783	4
Norms	0,702	4
Support for Radicalisation	0,812	5

Positive Relationships with Parents
(National Survey of Children's Health, 2003)

This refers to a six-item scale, PRPT (Positive Relationship with Parents – Teen Survey), with a 5-point response option ranging from 1-never to 5-always. The scale is based on identification with the parent, affective connection between the adolescent and the parent, positive interactions, and constructive communication. The scale was developed by the organization Child Trends for the National Survey of Children's Health, 2003. The analysis is conducted with the overall score.

Table 6 Reliability of factors within the Positive Relationships with Parents questionnaire

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Positive Relationships with Parents	0,860	6

Social Isolation - Social Isolation Scale
(Sushant & Yadav, 2019)

Methodology: A ten-item scale, SIS (Social Isolation Scale), designed to measure social isolation, with response options on a 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1 point) to strongly agree (5 points). The analysis is conducted with the overall score.

Table 7 Reliability of factors within the SIS questionnaire

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Positive Relationships with Parents	0,893	5

Demographic Questions

A set of questions aimed at gathering basic information about respondents, such as age and gender. Other questions within the research served as variables, including the type of school, grade level, number of siblings, and family type. These variables were examined in relation to Radicalisation across the various factors studied.

SCHEMA OF PULL AND PUSH FACTORS IN THE RADICALIZATION OF ADOLESCENTS

The objective of the research project was to attempt to create a schema outlining the pull and push factors of adolescent radicalization. The schema itself is presented herein, while detailed explanations of the relationships between the factors and radicalization can be found in subsequent chapters that delve into each individual factor.

The factors were examined through the lens of the push-pull theory. As a result, there was a concerted effort to categorize factors into those that attract adolescents to radicalization – pull factors; and those that push them towards radicalization by displacing them from their environment – push factors. Within the realm of family factors, risk factors within the family, family typology, and positive relationships with parents were investigated. From the social factor's perspective, social isolation and the type of relational bonds were examined.

Within the scope of family factors, positive relationships with parents, spending leisure time together as a family, family trust, and adherence to norms within the family have emerged as pull factors. On the other hand, an insecure relational bond, specifically addressing relationship attachment, was identified as a push factor. This bond represents a type of relationship that an individual is interested in but constantly grapples with uncertainties about its adequacy, constituting the instability of this relational attachment. In cases where an insecure relational bond is present concerning parents or peer groups, it can function as a push factor for radicalization – propelling the adolescent away from their social environment towards radicalized groups.

Pull Factors	Radicalisation	Push Factors
• Positive relationships with parents • Radicalization support in the family • Manner and extent of leisure time spent in the family • Trust level in the family • **Adherence to norms in the family**		• Insecure relationship attachment, specifically preoccupied attachment

Figure 7 Schema of pull and push factors of adolescent radicalisation

Detailed research results are organized in individual chapters, each focusing on the examined factors. The subsequent section of the monograph is therefore structured according to the factors under investigation. Family factors take precedence as the initial focus, followed by a chapter dedicated to social factors. Each chapter comprises a theoretical delineation of the studied factor in relation to radicalization within the context of the target group, presenting results, interpretations, and a summary.

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••• FAMILY FACTORS INFLUENCING THE LEVEL OF RADICALISATION IN ADOLESCENTS •••

The influence of the family in the process of radicalization largely depends on a multitude of factors, such as social and socio-demographic context, parent-child relationship, and the severity and type of radicalization. It can be described as a complex and multi-layered phenomenon that necessitates a thorough understanding of the various determinants contributing to it.

Numerous studies have explored the family as a factor that can influence the degree of radicalization (in both attitudinal and behavioral constructs) in adolescents (Schils & Verhage, 2017; Ventriglio & Bhugra, 2019; Zych et al., 2020). Traditionally, discussions focus on risk and protective factors within the family. Risk factors typically include limited resources, undesirable ideological influence, and family violence, while protective factors generally encompass parental/educational styles, parental warmth, and relationships with parents, as well as family status (Zych & Nasaescu, 2021). However, the function of these factors can vary from family to family (Spalek, 2015).

This chapter addresses selected family factors in the context of adolescent radicalization from the perspective of push-pull theory. It presents intriguing findings indicating that adolescents in families with strong relationships, where family members actively spend leisure time together and adhere to established norms, are more susceptible to radicalization. This highlights the need for a comprehensive approach to understanding radicalization that considers not only risk factors but also seemingly protective influences that may paradoxically have the opposite effect. The chapter is formally divided into two sections. The first section deals with the family as a protective factor, describing and examining the significance of positive relationships between adolescents and their parents. The second section discusses risk factors within the family.

••• Positive Relationships with Parents and Family Typology in Relation to the Radicalisation of Adolescents •••

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Radicalisation can be perceived as a transitional process influenced by various life experiences and factors. Sikkens et al. (2018) regard it as a process accompanying a sequence of changes from childhood to adulthood and their management. During adolescence and emerging adulthood, young people go through developmental stages where they grapple with questions of their own identity, independence from parents, worldview, or religion. Development involves the cultivation of moral principles that guide decision-making in everyday life. Within this process, adolescents may also encounter other difficulties inherent in real life: financial problems, conflicts with parents, social exclusion, cultural humiliation, feelings of insignificance, all of which demand the ability to cope with burdens. These difficulties are considered fundamental causes of Radicalisation and are described as "push factors," propelling adolescents towards radical groups. However, young people are also drawn to radical groups by positive traits and membership benefits, known as "pull factors." For instance, young people experiencing uncertainty are attracted to well-structured, supportive groups with clear boundaries they can identify with.

Under the Radicalisation of youth, many people envision radical groups recruiting their members among innocent high school students. Although recruiting new members into existing radical groups can pose a significant threat, the danger of leaning towards radical attitudes may be present among adolescents in their immediate social environment – within their family. While in many studies, the family is considered a protective factor in relation to various negative phenomena, including Radicalisation, under certain circumstances, it may act as a pull factor. Thus, it serves as a factor that attracts adolescents towards Radicalisation.

According to Arnett (Sikkens et al., 2018), while young adults strive to develop their identity independently of their parents to become autonomous, parents can indeed influence whether their development will or will not lead to Radicalisation.

Adolescents are considered one of the groups most vulnerable to Radicalisation. This is associated with the developmental period they are in, characterized by independence, curiosity about the unknown, pushing boundaries, exploring their identity, spirituality, and seeking a sense of belonging.

Möller (2021) summarized the most prominent research findings on the process of Radicalisation during adolescence into five factors:

1. Identification of some studies that consider the family, especially parents and sometimes grandparents, as a transferable means for the intergenerational transmission of authoritative, nationalist, xenophobic, or otherwise right-wing extremist attitudes. This significantly explains manifest political socialization.

2. Parenting styles, such as authoritarian parenting, the transmission of degrading attitudes, and defensive attitudes towards 'outsiders,' with an increase in the value of the 'in-group.' Providing traditional images of gender roles, inconsistent and/or excessive sanctions, and the use of violence towards children (or even among parents), as well as uncontrolled consumption of violent media and borderless liberalism.

3. The formation of right-wing extremist attitudes in children and youth in connection with lacking communication, uncertain relational bonds, and insufficient emotional ties in high-risk families. Victims in childhood experienced little love and safety but often felt indifference and rejection from their parents. These experiences may not always lead to anger, rejection, and condemnation of their own parents but can also manifest in idealizing parents.

4. Family structure factors, with incomplete families, especially for boys growing up without their biological fathers, being a significant burden. These boys often conflict with their stepfathers or their mother's current partners.

5. Problematic connections between experiences of family socialization and other life areas, particularly in school and peer relationships. Unsatisfactory and conflicting relationships with parents may subjectively be perceived as a substitute for the family by peer risk groups, strongly oriented towards unconditional solidarity instead of an internally and externally effective discursive communication culture.

Authors Zych and Nasaescu (2021) conducted a systematic review of studies examining risk and protective factors of Radicalisation. In preparing the review, they proceeded from the assumption that family factors can be decisive for Radicalisation based on various theories and research. Within the review, they present several findings:

- Family and social support networks can be significant in increasing Radicalisation, explained by potential group influence on individual actions, a phenomenon well-described in social psychology.
- Parents influence their children's behaviour and explain standards of behaviour they consider appropriate.
- Parental induction of moral disengagement, where children are told that immoral acts can be justified, is linked to violent behaviour in children.
- Intergenerational transmission of antisocial behaviour has been confirmed in multiple studies, explained by social learning theories, where children mimic the behaviour patterns of their parents and close relatives, and this may apply to relationships with other family members as well.
- Low parental support, supervision, inconsistent parenting, or contact with family members with radical views increase the vulnerability of young people to Radicalisation.

These findings suggest that certain parenting practices and the expression of radical thoughts by parents could lead their children to adopt radical attitudes and behaviours. Oepke (2005) confirms the significance of right-wing extremist orientations of parents for corresponding political attitudes of their children based on research findings on intra-family transmissions of right-wing extremist attitudes. He discovered a positive correlation between political preference, xenophobia, and the national authoritarian orientation of parents and the development of these orientations in their children. The influence of parents on children was greater when political values were more general.

Becker (Sikkens et al., 2018) has delved into family and familial relationships in his works, exploring the dynamics of the family in the process of Radicalisation. He was interested in the interactions between young individuals adopting extreme right-wing ideals and their parents. Based on these interactions and communication within families, he distinguished four types of so-called "right-wing families." "Right-wing" families are considered those where the child comes with a preference for radicalized views:

1. Protective ("geschützte") family - parents frequently discuss their ideology with the child, providing support without denying it.
2. Endangered ("gefährdete") family - parents and the child discuss politics and ideology, but communication is mainly one-sided, as the child tries to convince the parent of their ideals.
3. Accepting ("eingerichtete") family - parents agree to some extent with the child's right-wing ideology and do not intervene. Discussions about politics and ideology are not detailed, but parents may try to moderate the ideology when right-wing behaviour becomes too apparent.
4. Abandoned ("verlassene") family - political and ideological issues are not discussed, parents are indifferent, and they struggle to control their children's behaviour.

In this monograph, we examine family factors from the perspective of push and pull theory. This allows us to look at family factors in different contexts, bringing a new perspective to the issue – the push and pull factors in the family environment can arise from a combination of risk and protective factors. In conjunction with the current sentiment in the country, it can reveal specific combinations of risk and protective factors that need to be considered in understanding the process of adolescent Radicalisation and in planning preventive and intervention strategies.

ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS WITH PARENTS AND RADICALISATION

Adolescence is a period of significant changes in a person's life, involving not only physical but also psychological and social changes. An individual searches for oneself, and their behaviour and experiences gradually take shape. Numerous factors influence these changes (Wilde & Swartz, 2012), with family playing a crucial role in a person's life. The family is the primary social group for an individual, tasked with satisfying the needs of its members. The family environment should be a place of safety, security, love, and comfort. If the family fails to provide favourable conditions, it can impact the emergence of negative phenomena in an individual's life. On the other hand, if the family holds pathological views but maintains good relationships, adolescents may uncritically adopt the opinions of parents and close relatives.

Within individual families, it is possible to distinguish family relationships, communication styles, cooperation, and parenting styles. Parenting style represents the interaction and communication between parents and children directed towards shaping the behaviour and experiences of the individual (Čáp, 1996). In a person's life, the family environment and appropriate parenting undeniably play a crucial role in each developmental stage. An especially important aspect during adolescence, a period characterized by significant life changes, is a good relationship with parents and an appropriate parenting style that fosters mutual trust. Despite adolescents' potentially rejecting attitude toward their families and inclination towards peers, the family and parenting during this period play a vital role.

In addition to facing physical and psychological changes during adolescence, there is a formation of social relationships (Turček, 2003). Changes also occur in thinking, as abstract thinking begins to emerge. Adolescents start pondering abstract matters, seeking answers to questions primarily about the direction their lives will take (Halama, 2016).

Peer relationships have a significant impact on shaping one's identity and satisfying psychological needs (Vágnerová, 2008). For adolescents, peer relationships offer an opportunity to gain

experience with their social environment (Končeková, 2014). In comparison with the stability of relationships in previous developmental stages, friendships in adolescence are much more stable, deeper, and more confidential (Vágnerová, 2008). In this period, the influence of peer relationships begins to outweigh the influence of adults, especially parents (Gállová & Balážová, 2015). Vágnerová (2008) also notes that, apart from friendships, individuals in this period form bonds with the opposite gender to satisfy the need for love, trust, sympathy, or the opportunity to confide in someone about their problems. Individuals lay the foundations for building future relationships in adulthood.

The family plays a crucial role in adolescence despite changes in an individual's attitude toward it. These changes are driven by adolescents' need for more independence, which is associated with increasing rights and responsibilities (Končeková, 2014). Toward the end of this developmental period, relationships with parents start improving as parents strive to respect and tolerate adolescents. Positive relationships with parents, even though adolescents may have a rejecting attitude, become especially important at this stage (Vágnerová, 2008).

In addition to these developments, parenting roles change over the course of adolescence, with support from parents becoming more important than control and supervision in late adolescence and early adulthood. Although the independence of young people increases with age, those with positive relationships with their parents remain connected to them. Emotional attachment to parents remains important and has a positive impact on the development of identity and the overall well-being of young adults (Sikkens et al., 2018).

An interesting situation in the family, concerning the issue of Radicalisation, may arise when parents are radicalized. At that moment, a protective factor, such as a high level of positive relationships with parents or an appropriate parenting style, acts as a "pull" factor, as parents attract their child to radicalized attitudes.

The strength of the transgenerational transmission of attitudes increases when the family provides a positive family environment, stimuli, and is emotionally important for the child. However, the lower the strength of transgenerational influence, the more the influence of peer groups grows (Doepke & Zilobotti, 2014).

The relationship with parents is also related to whether the family functions as a whole, whether both parents or other people (e.g., a new partner, step-siblings) are part of the family.

TYPOLOGY OF FAMILIES IN CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY

For nearly two decades, experts have been addressing the changes in the so-called traditional family, a topic explored by various researchers. An interesting overview of its changes is provided, for example, by Mendelová (2014). A compilation of family definitions and their evolution is offered by Selická (2019), who posits that the contemporary family primarily becomes a space for interpersonal relationships and the physical cohabitation of partners who democratically decide about their lives. This trend has been observable in some countries for a long time and is associated with changes in traditional family typologies based on kinship and bonds among its members. One fundamental division, particularly according to Czech and Slovak traditions, is the categorization into complete and incomplete families (Gabura, 2006). However, this only speaks of a few family types – families with biological parents and their children (encompassing both traditional families and families where couples live without formal marriage), and single-parent families. Therefore, it was crucial within the research to identify a family typology that would consider current real forms of family cohabitation. Hudecová and Brozmanová Gregorová (2009) mention nuclear, reconstituted, aggregate, and extended families. Even in this classification, some forms of cohabitation deemed significant by the authors for the investigated topics are missing.

Beier, Hofäcker, Marchese et al. (2010) present a very detailed current structure, distinguishing the following types alongside nuclear families (defined as a married couple with their own children):

- Lone parent families;
- Step-families – can include various types:
    - Stepparent families;
    - Complex stepfamilies, where both parents enter into a union with their own children;
    - Blended families, where, in addition to stepchildren, the couple has a common child;
- Cohabiting families – biological parents with a child/children without a formal marriage;
- Foster and adoptive families;
- "Rainbow families" – defined as families where a same-sex couple raises a child, or at least one of the adults is of lesbian or gay orientation; there are significant differences in the acceptance and legitimization of these families across countries; two types are distinguished – the entry of one of the partners into a relationship with a biological child/children and the entry of a child into the family through reproductive medicine, adoption, or guardianship.
- In the conditions of Slovakia, the division mainly applied in research is based on the findings of Tinson, Nancarrow, and Brace (2008), who identify three basic types of families with possible variations:
- Nuclear family – biological parents with children, regardless of whether the partners are in a marital union;
- Step/blended family – one or both partners entering into a union with a child/children;
- Single-parent family.

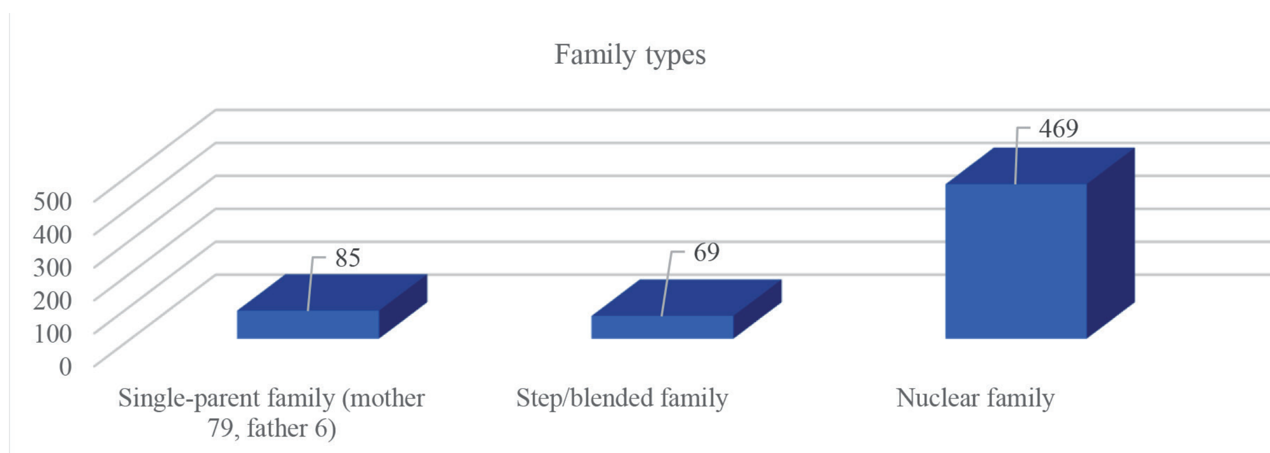

Figure 8 Family types

In terms of the provided typology, the research sample consisted of 85 respondents living in single-parent families, with 79 living with their mothers and 6 cases where respondents live with their fathers. 69 respondents live in blended families, and 469 respondents live in nuclear/complete families, with no investigation into whether parents are in a marital union.

Primarily German authors (Möller, 2021) highlight differences in the degree of Radicalisation and risky behaviour based on family type. However, these differences were not confirmed in this research sample, although one significant finding is presented in the following text.

RESEARCH RESULTS: POSITIVE RELATIONSHIPS WITH PARENTS AND RADICALISATION

In this section of the chapter, the research results are analysed, focusing on the relationship between positive relationships with parents and Radicalisation.

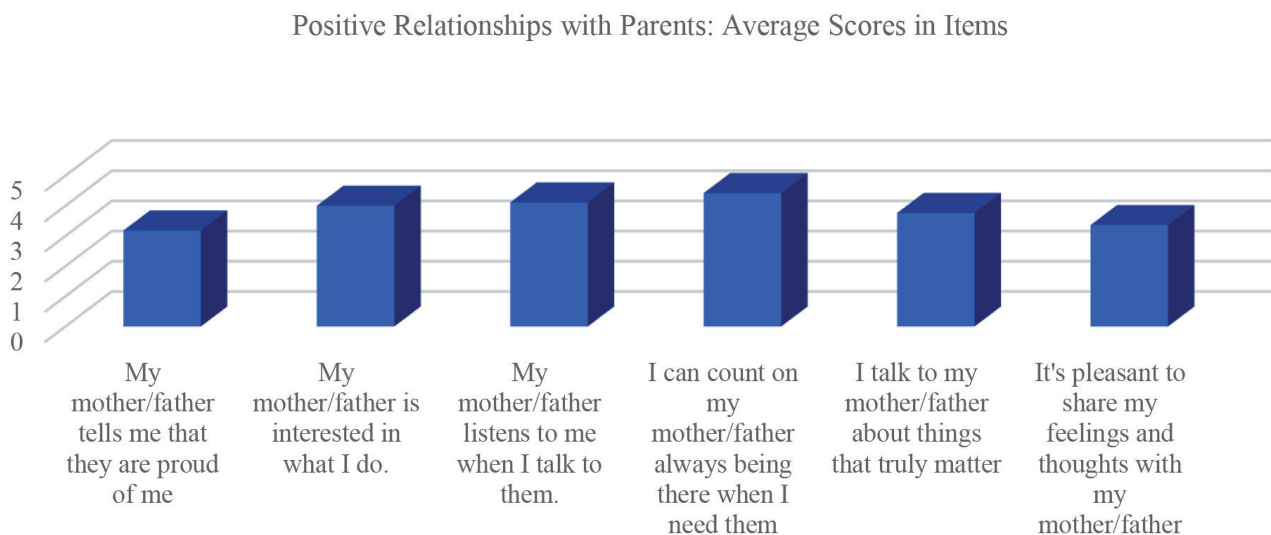

Figure 9 Positive Relationships with Parents: Average Scores in Items

The scores are based on the response scale, which was frequency-based: 1 indicated never, 5 indicated always. The highest average score of 4.42 was achieved for the item "I can always count on my mother/father when I need them," while the lowest score was recorded for the item "My mother/father tells me they are proud of me." Another item, "It is pleasant to share my feelings and thoughts with my mother/father," received a lower score of 3.36. Overall, it can be stated that adolescents attained scores leaning towards higher frequency, which is positive.

Regarding family typology, differences in the level of positive relationships with parents were examined among different family types. A statistically significant difference between family types was found. When examining the average scores, it is evident that single-parent families scored the lowest, followed by blended families, while complete families scored the highest. This indicates that family type plays a role in the level of positive relationships with parents.

Table 8 Types of families and positive relationships with parents

	Single-parent family n=85 (mean)	Step/blended family n=69 (mean)	Nuclear family n=469 (mean)	Kruskal-Wallis H	p
Positive Relationships with Parents	3,62	3,70	3,87	7,095	0,029*

**p < 0,01; *p < 0,05

Further investigation focused on positive relationships with parents in relation to the level of Radicalisation in adolescents. Consistent with other findings on family factors, it was confirmed that in families with stronger relationships between parents and adolescents, adolescents achieve higher scores in the General Values factor. This factor of Radicalisation reflects general values and opinions supporting Radicalisation and extremism. This suggests that these young

individuals may uncritically adopt opinions on various phenomena and situations from their parents and close ones. The "uncritical" nature is supported by the fact that in the Personal Values factor, no correlation was demonstrated. This indicates that these general opinions do not manifest in the actions and behaviours of these young individuals, meaning the conative component of the attitude remains unfulfilled.

Table 9 Spearman correlation coefficient of Radicalisation factors and positive parent-adolescent relationships

Spearmen coefficient	Positive Relationships with Parents
REPTSA General Values	r = 0,117 p = 0,003**
REPTSA Personal Values	r = 0,013 p = 0,742

REPTSA - General values and opinions supporting Radicalisation and extremism; Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs

**p < 0,01; *p < 0,05

As part of a deeper exploration of correlations between Radicalisation and parent-adolescent relationships, associations were investigated in several areas:

- Radicalisation in relation to gender
- Radicalisation in relation to age
- Radicalisation in relation to school type
- Radicalisation in relation to the number of siblings
- Radicalisation in relation to family type

Table 10 Spearman correlation coefficient of Radicalisation factors and positive parent-adolescent relationships - comparison based on gender

		REPTSA General Values		**REPTSA Personal Values**	
		Women (n=388)	**Men** (n=253)	**Women** (n=388)	**Men** (n=253)
Positive Relationships with Parents	r	0,167**	0,052	0,087	-0,070
	p(α)	0,001	0,406	0,087	0,271

REPTSA - General values and opinions supporting Radicalisation and extremism; Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs
** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05

When comparing gender correlations with Radicalisation, it was found that in the case of girls, there is a weak positive correlation between the General Values factor and positive relationships with parents. In the Personal Values factor, the correlation was not confirmed. An explanation for these gender differences may be that girls in adolescence tend to be more oriented towards interpersonal relationships and social recognition (Kroneman et al., 2009). In combination with a low level of critical thinking, which has been a long-term issue in Slovakia (EECD PISA 2022, OECD PISA 2018), there may be a higher tendency for uncritical adoption of opinions from parents and close ones among girls than boys.

Table 11 Spearman correlation coefficient of Radicalisation factors and positive parent relationships - age-based comparison

		REPTSA General Values				REPTSA Personal Values			
		16 (n=55)	17 (n=323)	18 (n=245)	19 (n=16)	16 (n=55)	17 (n=323)	18 (n=245)	19 (n=16)
Positive Relationships with Parents	r	0,116	0,097	0,120	0,428	- 0,029	-0,025	0,044	0,104
	p(α)	0,398	0,083	0,060	0,098	0,836	0,657	0,488	0,701

REPTSA - General values and opinions supporting Radicalisation and extremism; Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs
** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$

When comparing correlations between Radicalisation and positive parent relationships based on age, no significant relationships were found. However, it is possible to highlight the value of the Spearman correlation coefficient for 19-year-old respondents in the General Values factor, which suggests a possible correlation. The results are distorted by the low representation of 19-year-old respondents in the entire research sample, but they indicate that these older respondents may be in a different dimension of parent relationships and may adopt their opinions to a greater extent than younger respondents.

Table 12 Spearman correlation coefficient of Radicalisation factors and positive parent relationships - comparison based on the type of attended school

		REPTSA General Values		REPTSA Personal Values	
		Grammar schools (n=249)	Vocational schools (n=392)	Grammar schools (n=249)	Vocational schools (n=392)
Positive Relationships with Parents	r	0,027	0,183**	-0,043	0,062
	p(α)	0,666	<0,001	0,498	0,218

REPTSA - General values and opinions supporting Radicalisation and extremism; Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs
** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$

When comparing the relationships between positive relationships with parents and Radicalisation based on the type of school, it was found that among vocational school students, there is a weak correlation between the General Values factor and positive relationships with parents. This confirms the assumption of uncritically adopting opinions from parents, presupposing that critical thinking is at a higher level among grammar school students than among vocational school students (Burjan et al., 2017).

Table 13 Spearman correlation coefficient of factors of Radicalisation and positive relationships with parents - comparison based on the number of siblings of respondents

		REPTSA General Values				REPTSA Personal Values			
		0 (n=69)	1 (n=345)	2 (n=144)	3 (n=53)	0 (n=69)	1 (n=345)	2 (n=144)	3 (n=53)
Positive Relationships with Parents	r	0,080	0,123*	0,004	0,463**	0,050	0,029	-0,041	0,058
	p(α)	0,512	0,022	0,966	<0,001	0,684	0,591	0,626	0,678

REPTSA - General values and opinions supporting Radicalisation and extremism; Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs
** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$

Within the compared relationships, several statistically significant findings were identified. These pertained once again to the General Values factor and involved positive relationships in the case of respondents with one sibling and in the case of respondents with three siblings. Since these findings can influence various other factors, such as sibling relationships, sibling constellation, etc., it can be stated that there are factors here that may increase the level of Radicalisation, and it would be appropriate to pay higher attention to them within family factors.

Table 14 Spearman correlation coefficient of factors of Radicalisation and positive relationships with parents - comparison based on family type

		REPTSA General Values			**REPTSA Personal Values**		
		Single-parent family (n=85)	**Step/blended family** (n=69)	**Nuclear family** (n=469)	**Single-parent family** (n=85)	**Step/blended family** (n=69)	**Nuclear family** (n=469)
Positive Relationships with Parents	r	0,357**	-0,042	0,090	0,122	-0,054	-0,008
	p(α)	0,001	0,735	0,051	0,267	0,660	0,869

REPTSA - General values and opinions supporting Radicalisation and extremism; Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs
** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$

In relation to the family type, a positive, moderately strong correlation was confirmed between the degree of Radicalisation and the level of positive relationships with parents. This relationship supports the theory outlined above, which is related to the political and social situation in the country. It is possible that parents, predominantly mothers in this case, who live as single parents, are more radicalized due to their social situation (Botek, 2009). Their radical views, through a positive relationship with the respective parent, are also shared by their children – adolescents.

SUMMARY

The research was initiated with the assumption that a functional family, appropriate parenting styles, or positive relationships with parents should act as protectors against Radicalisation in adolescents. There was an expectation that peer groups, particularly those at risk of Radicalisation, would function as pull factors, while the family would act as a protector. Based on the research results, which did not confirm these assumptions and instead indicated that families leaning towards radical views may act as pull factors in the case of Radicalisation, it is necessary to reflect on these findings and consider other factors that could explain them.

This phenomenon is supported by numerous findings that indicate the potential for strong transgenerational transmission, particularly in the sharing of radical views and ideas within the family environment. In cases where a parent holds radical orientations, a positive relationship with their child may unintentionally lead the child towards radical thinking.

One possible explanation is the societal situation in the country. Studies suggest that society as a whole is significantly radicalizing. This is confirmed by the results of the CSES and ISSP Slovakia 2016 survey, which indicates that Slovakia has become a country that tolerates radical views above the average. Negative developments in opinions on Radicalisation and its tolerance are also reflected in the results of other studies comparing opinions from the beginning of the new millennium with current opinions of Slovak citizens (Bútorová & Gyarfášová 2017).

Another factor that may explain the obtained results is the absence of critical thinking and education in this regard in the country. Comparative studies conducted within European countries reveal that the level of mathematics and reading proficiency in Slovakia is below

average (EECD PISA 2022, OECD PISA 2018). Other research studies also confirm the low level of critical thinking (Kosturková 2014; Burjan et al. 2017).

Adolescence is a period when children begin to make their own decisions and become actors in the production of human capital. During the process of maturation in adolescence, individuals become responsible for their actions and decisions, which start to depend not only on family and close relationships or peer influences but also on their own choices (DelBoca et al., 2017). Despite this, it is evident that parents can significantly influence the opinions and attitudes of adolescents in certain areas. It can be assumed that this primarily pertains to areas where adolescents may lack sufficient relevant information or struggle to critically evaluate such information.

Smith et al. (2011) found that young adults often suffer from a lack of moral formation because parents and teachers avoid discussing controversial moral issues. They recommend schools to provide classes in basic moral reasoning to help young people address moral questions and challenges.

Serbin and Carp (2003) also emphasize that education proves to be a strong protective mechanism against problematic upbringing and the transfer of risk to the next generation, even in vulnerable populations.

An important finding comes from Kerr et al. (2009), who found that parents often do not know how to deal with a child who is radicalizing. Instead of increasing control and supervision while maintaining emotional support, they often avoid solutions when their adolescent begins to exhibit problematic behaviour. Instead of increasing supervision over their child, they provide the child with more autonomy. The reason may be that they are frightened by their child's behaviour or because their child emotionally "cuts them off." Parents become less supportive and controlling towards their children because they are frightened by their aggressive behaviour.

The results of some studies also emphasize the significance of parenting styles when working with young individuals in the context of Radicalisation. So-called warm parenting styles, which combine an adequate level of love and support on one hand, and control and supervision on the other, appear to be most suitable. Although it is known that as children grow older, relationships with parents' function better when the level of supervision decreases and the level of support increases, it is precisely among radicalized young individuals that an increased level of control and supervision proves to be a necessity for managing this situation and working towards the potential de Radicalisation of the adolescent.

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••• Risk Factors in the Family in the Context of Adolescent Radicalisation •••

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Magdaléna Hovanová completed all levels of her studies at the Department of Social Work, Faculty of Arts, Pavol Jozef Šafárik University in Košice, where she continues to work as an assistant professor and researcher. Her research primarily focuses on adolescents as a target group in terms of various types of risky behavior, particularly in the areas of radicalization and online risky behavior. Within the scope of research on helping professions, she is also interested in the construct of self-care.

Many factors contribute to the process of radicalisation among adolescents, ranging from mental health to social isolation, through to the socio-political conditions of the country in which they live. One of them includes the family background, which may act as a 'pull' factor that can prevent the emergence of radicalisation, but at the same time it should also be considered as a 'push' factor that clearly increases the risk of the emergence of a radicalisation process among adolescents.

During adolescence, it is important for a young person to feel respect, recognition, and support from his or her family and, above all, parents, while gradually becoming independent from them. The stronger the position of the family in his/her life, the more open the atmosphere there is. (Vašutová & Panáček, 2013) Parents, in the framework of upbringing, try to help their children to cope with current problems or stresses (Bryant, 2012), and at the same time, through long-term socialisation, they pass on to them the necessary skills in establishing sound relationships with peers, authority figures, so that they can integrate into society. Adolescents' stability in the family background, positive relationships with parents and siblings, and sufficient social support from them are good prerequisites for sound development. Having strong relationships is a motivation, an aid in integration and guidance. (Almášiová & Kohútová, 2019; Marković et al. 2021; Mičková, 2014) Conflicting relationships between parents and adolescents cause many problems on the personal level (neuroses, depressive thoughts, feelings of inferiority, low self-esteem, overestimation of their strength), in the social sphere (tightness, conflicting relationships, troubled behaviour, passivity, social isolation, forms of behaviour directed against people or away from people) (Čerešníková, 2014). A functional family system can overcome and learn from adversity so that the family can adapt and overcome difficult situations together. Family resilience is built through three key components that form the basis for sustenance: belief system, family organizational processes, communication, and problem solving (Arfaizar et al., 2022; Vaska, 2015).

The impact of the family in the context of radicalisation largely depends on several factors such as socio-demographic context, parent-child relationship, severity and type of radicalisation (e.g. left-wing, right-wing, Islamist) (Jämte & Ellefsen, 2020; Patyi, 2023). Families may play an important role in adolescent Radicalisation by being complicit in the radicalisation process or intervening to try to prevent it (Morris 2016). Early family intervention is probably the most effective preventive measure against radicalisation (Ellefsen & Sandberg, 2022), as it is parents

who know their children best and can thus notice changes in adolescents' interests and behaviour (Siegel et al., 2019). However, it is also important to create an infrastructure for parents to seek help if they detect tendencies toward radical ideas in their child (Gielen, 2015; Koehler, 2013).

Authors Sikkens et al. (2018) illustrated the differences in parents' responses to their children's radicalisation (Figure 1). This included rejection, ignoring, applauding, and discussing. Parents rejecting their child's extremist views did not support this ideological orientation and tried to control it. That is, they did not provide support for their children's radical ideas and sought to change them and eliminate them by controlling them. Parents ignoring their child's radical ideology did not support their child's beliefs or place any restrictions on their child's behaviour, i.e., they did not pay attention to their child's radical ideology. The "applauding" parents were in cases where they purposely supported their child's extreme ideas and placed no limits on them. It can be said that they actively supported radical ideologies. Parents who took a debating response to radicalisation actively sought to understand and communicate views with their children; they also sought joint solutions and compromises to resolve the situation.

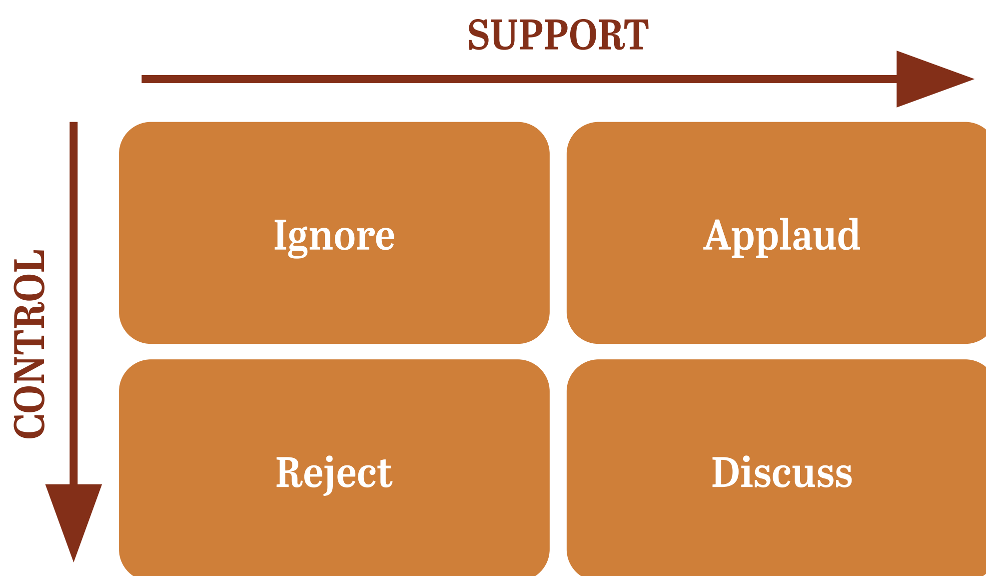

Figure 10 Model on parental reactions towards radicalisation (Sikkens et al., 2017)

From the above premises regarding the irreplaceable importance of the family, five areas (risk factors) related to the family environment of adolescents were identified from the literature as related to the process of their radicalisation.

Spending time together - in families where, also through spending time together, adolescents feel important and accepted, radicalisation occurs at a lower rate (Sieckelinck et al., 2017). Because adolescents who lack parental attention and support resort to rebelliousness, stubbornness, and ultimately may identify with a risky radical group that can accept them and meet their needs. (Aeni et al., 2021) Family time spent together can also have a positive impact on the thinking and actions of individuals who might otherwise engage in violent activities. The family regulates the amount of free time available to engage in other activities and changes adolescents' priorities and worldview. (Arfaizar et al., 2022; Harris-Hogan, 2014)

Experiences of maltreatment, abuse, and neglect - reflects the experience of abuse, maltreatment, or neglect in the family, also exposure to violence or family dysfunction, trauma, which can predispose adolescents to violent tendencies and radicalisation (Campelo et al., 2018). This also includes poverty, hardship, deprivation, and neglect of physical, emotional development, and frustration with the environment (Dhumad et al., 2019; Malečková, 2003; Krueger Koehler, 2013; Silke, 2008). An unstable family situation can reinforce the radicalisation process (Bigo et al., 2014). Neglect, lack

of nurturing, social support, supervision, and harsh parenting may increase the chances of children becoming delinquent. Socioeconomic status is also a major contributing factor (Hoeve et al., 2008; Sieckelinck et al., 2017), as confirmed by Bazex and Bénézech's (2017) study of 112 individuals under judicial review for radicalisation, where they report a high proportion of individuals who experienced childhoods marked by significant parental difficulties, a father who was often absent and a mother whose integrity was frequently challenged (depression, suicide attempt).

Children's trust in their parents - in this case, it is about the extent to which children tell their parents truthfully and voluntarily, on a trusting basis, who they are seeing, where they are seeing them, how they spend their leisure time. A trusting relationship with parents through which adolescents resolve their problems and difficulties (Parker & Benson, 2004) is essential for sound development. People with higher levels of quality social support come from families with good, trusting relationships (Křivohlavý, 2009). The parental role changes, of course; in late adolescence and early adulthood, parental support is more important than control and supervision. These contexts are also associated with lower delinquency in young adulthood (Johnson et al., 2011).

Adherence to family norms - The family is where the values of democracy, equality, justice, and human rights should be instilled in children. It acts as a mediator of culture for its members and can play an important role in shaping attitudes towards norms and non-violence. Peers in general, on the other hand, play an important role in facilitating and promoting processes of radicalisation to violence. Functional family systems are therefore important in reinforcing nonviolent norms and resilience to the emergence of radicalisation processes (Arfaizar et al., 2022; The Global Counterterrorism Forum, 2015).

The family background that supports radicalisation - it talks about how tolerance, ethnic socialisation, and fear towards certain groups of people is set within the adolescent's family. It assumes that intergenerational transmission of culture can significantly interfere in the process of radicalisation of adolescents, where in the context of radicalisation it is the transmission of preferences, value orientation of the family reflecting mainly xenophobia, racism, and intolerance. Every parent wants to pass on their own values and preferences to their children. Therefore, by determining the true social characteristics of the family, parents influence the choices their children make when they grow up. (Epstein, 2007) Parental role models are significant for adolescents because they adopt and share their values, which may include anti-immigration and xenophobic ideas (Pels & De Ruyter, 2012). Thus, the influence of family relationships is often used to mediate extreme thinking and behaviour (Harris-Hogan, 2014; Sikkens et al., 2017). Therefore, the family environment may also represent a 'pull' factor for the emergence of radicalisation (Abbas, 2018), as it is more important than other types of social relationships in shaping an individual's worldview.

On the other hand, it should be added that the "push" factor can also be represented by the family, which is also an important key area in the efforts to deradicalise and reintegrate the individual into society. Ties to the family may be an important motive for disengagement from violent extremism. In the deradicalisation process, family ties emerge as an important aspect in shaping outcomes and creating 'cognitive openings' through which formerly radicalised adolescents can reassess their commitments. (The Global Counterterrorism Forum, 2015) Parental influence is particularly important because where parents have less influence over their children's decision-making, adolescents are less able to resist radicalisation to violence.

RESEARCH RESULTS: RISK FACTORS IN THE FAMILY AND RADICALISATION

The author's *Risk Factors in the Family in the Context of Radicalisation Questionnaire* (RFR-R) was used for the research. It consisted of five domains (risk factors) related to adolescents' family background that emerged from the literature as related to their radicalisation process. Leisure time - talks about spending leisure time together in the family (e.g. different trips, sports activities, cultural events, ...), higher scores indicate more intensive leisure time together within the family. CAN - reflects the experience of different types of abuse, exploitation, or neglect in the family. A higher score

corresponds to the respondent having experienced some form of abuse, exploitation, and neglect more frequently at home. *Confidence* - tells the extent to which children tell their parents who they are seeing, where they are seeing them, how they spend their leisure time, and whether parents know what they are spending their money on. The higher the score on this factor, the more they trust their parents in this area and share this personal information with them. It is built explicitly on trust and not on undue parental control. *Norms* - this factor indicates the extent to which norms are observed and set within the family (whether rules are set, division of duties within the family, observance of family rituals, ...). Higher scores indicate a higher degree of family orientation towards setting and following the rules. *Support for radicalisation* - talks about how tolerance, ethnic socialisation, and fear towards certain groups of people are set within the adolescent's family. It deliberately works with the label "certain group of people" in the items to capture as broad a picture as possible. Higher scores represent a family background highly supportive of radicalisation. The individual descriptors of the factors themselves are represented in Table 15.

Table 15 Descriptive indicators for relevant questionnaires and factors in the authors' research

	RFR-R				
Factor	*Leisure*	*CAN*	*Trust*	*Norms*	*Support for radicalisation*
Alpha	0,830	0,692	0,783	0,702	0,812
M	3,588	1,694	3,808	3,424	2,676
item	6	6	4	6	7
min.	1	1	1	1	1
max.	5	3,83	5	5	5
SD	0,898	0,656	0,875	0,748	0,837

alpha – Cronbach's alpha coefficient, M - mean, SD - standard deviation

To answer the question what the relationship is between radicalisation and risk factors in the family, correlations between the different factors were implemented, which may be seen in Table 16.

Table 16 Spearman's correlation coefficient of radicalisation factors and risk factors in the family of adolescents

		REPTSA *General values*	**REPTSA** *Personal values*
RFR-R *Leisure*	r	0,444**	-0,052
	p(α)	<0,001	0,188
RFR-R *CAN*	r	0,089*	-0,003
	p(α)	0,025	0,935
RFR-R *Trust*	r	0,314**	-0,186*
	p(α)	<0,001	0,030
RFR-R *Norms*	r	0,473**	-0,004
	p(α)	<0,001	0,927
RFR-R *Support for radicalisation*	r	0,367**	0,311**
	p(α)	<0,001	<0,001

REPTSA - *Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.*
**p < 0,01; *p < 0,05

Calculations showed that the factor *General Values and Beliefs Supporting Radicalisation and Extremism* showed statistically significant correlations with all the family risk factors examined, with predominantly moderate positive correlations. For the *Personal Values and Beliefs* factor,

significant correlations were demonstrated only with the *Support for Radicalisation* factor (positive moderate correlation) and *Trust* (positive weak correlation).

Then it was proceeded to describe the individual socio-demographic variables such as gender, age, type of school attended, and the number of siblings.

Table 17 Spearman's correlation coefficient of radicalisation factors and risk factors in the family of adolescents - comparison based on gender

		REPTSA *General values*		**REPTSA** *Personal values*	
		Women (n=388)	**Men** (n=253)	**Women** (n=388)	**Men** (n=253)
RFR-R *Leisure*	r	0,035	0,359**	0,035	-0,132*
	p(α)	0,492	<0,001	0,492	0,036
RFR-R *CAN*	r	-0,059	0,220**	-0,059	0,127*
	p(α)	0,249	<0,001	0,249	0,043
RFR-R *Trust*	r	-0,032	0,268**	-0,032	-0,061
	p(α)	0,536	<0,001	0,536	0,337
RFR-R *Norms*	r	0,016	0,512**	0,016	-0,019
	p(α)	0,960	<0,001	0,960	0,762
RFR-R *Support for radicalisation*	r	0,314**	0,431**	0,314**	0,319**
	p(α)	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001

REPTSA - *Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.*
$^{**}p < 0{,}01$; $^{*}p < 0{,}05$

Table 17 represents the results where the radicalisation factor *General values and beliefs* supporting radicalisation and extremism were again shown to have statistically significant correlations with family risk factors. For males, these ranged from positive weak correlations (CAN factors, *Trust*) to positive moderate correlations (*Leisure, Support for Radicalisation* factors) to positive strong correlations with the *Norms* factor. For women, there were positive moderate correlations (factors *Trust, Support for Radicalisation, Norms, and Leisure*).

Fewer statistically significant correlations were shown for the radicalisation factor *Personal Values, Attitudes and Beliefs*. For males, a negative weak correlation was demonstrated with the *Leisure* factor and a positive weak correlation with the CAN factor. For females, only the *Support for Radicalisation* factor showed a statistically significant positive, moderate correlation.

Table 18 Spearman's correlation coefficient of radicalisation and risk factors in the family of adolescents - comparison based on age

		REPTSA *General values*				**REPTSA** *Personal values*			
		16 (n=55)	**17** (n=323)	**18** (n=245)	**19** (n=16)	**16** (n=55)	**17** (n=323)	**18** (n=245)	**19** (n=16)
RFR-R *Leisure*	r	0,438**	0,434**	0,448**	0,589*	- 0,029	-0,064	-0,049	-0,215
	p(α)	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001	0,016	0,836	0,249	0,446	0,423
RFR-R *CAN*	r	0,313*	0,087	0,040	-0,030	-0,103	0,063	-0,058	-0,024
	p(α)	0,020	0,118	0,536	0,913	0,455	0,257	0,370	0,930
RFR-R *Trust*	r	0,326*	0,291**	0,323**	0,445	-0,124	-0,136*	-0,035	0,094
	p(α)	0,015	<0,001	<0,001	0,084	0,366	0,014	0,588	0,729
RFR-R *Norms*	r	0,435**	0,487**	0,474**	0,680**	-0,086	0,003	0,008	-0,225
	p(α)	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001	0,004	0,531	0,962	0,899	0,401
RFR-R *Support for radicalisation*	r	0,455**	0,332**	0,382**	0,460	0,174	0,327**	0,297**	0,270
	p(α)	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001	0,073	0,204	<0,001	<0,001	0,313

REPTSA - *Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism*
**p < 0,01; *p < 0,05

Table 18 shows the results of the research under the variable of age of the respondents. Although a calculation is offered for nineteen-year-old respondents, it cannot be considered statistically significant as there are only 16 respondents in this group and the calculations are for illustrative purposes only. As in previous research results, statistically significant correlations may be observed primarily in the radicalisation factor *General Values and Opinions Supporting Radicalisation and Extremism* at all ages studied. For the category of sixteen-year-olds, positive, moderate correlations were measured in all the family risk factors. In the seventeen-year-old category, a positive weak correlation was measured in the *Trust* factor. Moderately strong correlations were in the factors Support for *Radicalisation, Leisure and Norms*. For eighteen-year-olds, there were positive, moderate correlations in all the risk factors occurring in the family except the CAN factor.

In the adolescent radicalisation factor *Personal Values, Attitudes and Beliefs*, there was a statistically significant negative correlation and a weak correlation in the seventeen-year-old age group with the *Trust* factor. A positive and moderate correlation was measured with the factor *Support for Radicalisation*. In the eighteen-year-old category, a statistically significant positive weak correlation was measured only in the family risk factor *Support for Radicalisation*.

Table 19 Spearman's correlation coefficient of radicalisation factors and risk factors in the family of adolescents - comparison based on the type of school attended

		REPTSA *General values*		**REPTSA** *Personal values*	
		Grammar (n=249)	**Vocational schools** (n=392)	**Grammar** (n=249)	**Vocational schools** (n=392)
RFR-R *Leisure*	r	0,419**	0,458**	-0,096	-0,013
	p(α)	<0,001	<0,001	0,131	0,793
RFR-R *CAN*	r	0,139*	0,064	0,075	-0,050
	p(α)	0,029	0,205	0,237	0,323
RFR-R *Trust*	r	0,253**	0,353**	-0,056	-0,074
	p(α)	<0,001	<0,001	0,383	0,143
RFR-R *Normy*	r	0,469**	0,476**	0,080	-0,027
	p(α)	<0,001	<0,001	0,207	0,595
RFR-R *Support for radicalisation*	r	0,421**	0,333**	0,358**	0,259**
	p(α)	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001

REPTSA - *Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.*
**p < 0,01; *p < 0,05

When examining school types, again several statistically significant correlations were measured in the factor *General values and views supporting radicalisation and extremism*. For respondents attending gymnasia, positive weak correlations were found in the factors CAN and *Trust*. Positive, moderate correlations were measured in the other factors (*Leisure, Support for Radicalisation, Norms*). For respondents attending vocational schools, statistically significant positive correlations were measured in all the family risk factors examined except for the CAN factor, where a statistical relationship was not confirmed.

Within the radicalisation factor *Personal values, attitudes and beliefs*, statistically significant correlations were measured only with the factor *Support for radicalisation* for gymnasia with a positive moderate correlation and for vocational schools with a positive weak correlation.

Table 20 Spearman's correlation coefficient of radicalisation factors and risk factors in the family of adolescents - comparison on the number of siblings of the respondents

		REPTSA *General values*				**REPTSA** *Personal values*			
		0 (n=69)	**1** (n=345)	**2** (n=144)	**3** (n=53)	**0** (n=69)	**1** (n=345)	**2** (n=144)	**3** (n=53)
RFR-R *Leisure*	r	0,345**	0,461**	0,398**	0,503*	0,045	-0,067	-0,044	0,102
	p(α)	0,004	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001	0,711	0,213	0,604	0,468
RFR-R *CAN*	r	-0,055	0,104	0,137	0,035	-0,108	0,031	-0,127	0,0093
	p(α)	0,652	0,054	0,103	0,805	0,377	0,562	0,128	0,509
RFR-R *Trust*	r	0,120	0,332**	0,377**	0,296*	-0,102	-0,138*	0,065	-0,079
	p(α)	0,325	<0,001	<0,001	0,031	0,403	0,010	0,440	0,574
RFR-R *Normy*	r	0,209	0,500**	0,492**	0,483**	0,029	-0,050	0,055	0,164
	p(α)	0,085	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001	0,811	0,352	0,516	0,241
RFR-R *Support for radicalisation*	r	0,269*	0,397**	0,361**	0,493**	0,243*	0,330**	0,293**	0,164
	p(α)	0,026	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001	0,044	<0,001	<0,001	0,240

REPTSA - *Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism*
**p < 0,01; *p < 0,05

The last variable examined, focusing on the number of siblings of the respondents involved in the research, again showed more statistically significant correlations in the radicalisation factor *General Values and Opinions Supporting Radicalisation and Extremism*. For respondents with no siblings, correlations were measured in the family risk factors *Support for Radicalisation* (positive, weak correlation) and *Leisure* (positive, moderate correlation). For respondents with one sibling, no correlation was measured in the CAN factor. The *Trust, Support for Radicalisation, and Leisure* factors recorded positive, moderate correlations and the *Norms* factor even recorded a positive, strong correlation. For the group of respondents with two siblings, positive, moderate correlations were measured in all the Family Risk Factors except for the CAN factor. The last group consisted of respondents with three siblings, where the relationship was not shown with the CAN factor. Positive, moderate correlations were measured in the factors *Norms and Support for Radicalisation*. A positive, strong correlation was measured with the *Leisure* factor.

For the radicalisation factor *Personal Values, Attitudes and Beliefs*, a positive, weak correlation was measured for respondents with no siblings with the factor *Support for Radicalisation*. For respondents with one sibling, a statistically significant negative, weak correlation was confirmed for the Trust factor and a positive, moderate correlation was confirmed for the *Support for Radicalisation* factor. In the group of respondents with two siblings, only a positive, weak correlation was measured with the *Support for Radicalisation* factor. No statistically significant correlations were found for respondents with three siblings.

SUMMARY

The results of the present research suggest that it is in families with good relationships, where leisure time is spent together and family norms are set, that adolescents are more prone to radicalisation. However, the results cannot be interpreted unilaterally, and their background is much more complex, so it is essential that these contexts are explored more widely in future research. Without these follow-up findings, it is not possible to gain deeper insights into the issues under study. The chapter offers only a kind of insight into selected family risk factors.

Spending leisure time together - Overall, parents' leisure time with adolescents is positively correlated with their radicalisation rates. This is probably along the lines that the more time they spend together with their parents, the higher their risk of radicalisation within the general values and beliefs that support radicalisation. The results also reflect the value settings of the families themselves, where even spending quality time together can support the process of radicalisation of adolescents, as it is the values of the families themselves that may be set xenophobic, racist, intolerant of others, and the children adopt these general values from their parents. However, the conclusions do not relate to personal values, attitudes, and beliefs, which are not affected by such family settings. Within gender differences, correlations were confirmed only for males, with no differences in other variables. These research findings are partially confirmed by a study which found that adolescents voting for the right-wing extremist party had no better, but also no worse, relationships with their parents in terms of time spent together and conflicts in everyday life (Kuhn, 2004).

Experience of abuse and neglect - The factor reflecting the experience of different types of maltreatment, abuse, or neglect in the family proved to be not very significant within the research sample, as only weak correlations were confirmed, with a maximum of moderate correlations in the 16-year-old category for the factor of radicalisation General values and views supporting radicalisation and extremism. This is reflected in the fact that the mean score was 1,694 out of a possible five.

Children's trust in their parents - This factor talked about the extent to which children volunteer to their parents, who they meet, where they meet, how they spend their free time, and whether their parents know what they spend their money on. Predominantly positive, weak to moderate correlations were measured, primarily within adolescent radicalisation, in the factor General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism. Also, in this area of risk factors within the research, it can be concluded that the more information adolescents share with their parents,

the greater their risk of radicalisation. Again, however, it is necessary to consider these results in the context of the family's overall family setting and value orientation, because even open relationships in a family that creates a safe setting, but itself professes radical views, transmits them to its members. Gender differences were not confirmed in this factor, and slightly lower correlations were measured for students of gymnasia than for students at other vocational schools.

Adherence to norms within the family - Refers to the degree of adherence to and setting of norms within the family. No statistically significant correlation was confirmed for the radicalisation factor Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs, so it can be concluded that adolescents' level of personal beliefs in the area of radicalisation is not influenced by adherence to norms within the family. However, different results were measured just for the domain concerning General Values and Beliefs Supporting Radicalisation and Extremism, as moderate to strong correlations were measured here. Particularly between men and women, differences were shown, as no correlation was measured for women and a positive, strong correlation was measured for men. It might be interesting in the future to investigate the radicalisation of adolescents also in the context of types of parenting styles. Because here it appears for males that the more rules are set and compliance is required, the more prone they are to behave radically (in the area of general values). Strictly requiring adherence to rules may be related to an authoritarian and autonomous style of upbringing, but this may act as a 'push' factor for the radicalisation of adolescents. This conclusion contradicts a study by Coffé & Voorpostel (2010), where they describe that it is precisely when gender differences in the adoption of radical views from parents are present that males (boys) show more independence in political socialisation. This, they argue, stems from the fact that women (girls) are more likely to adopt these views and identify with their parents' political partisanship. In contrast, our findings are supported by a study where they examined the relationship between parenting style and adolescents' delinquency trajectories. It found that harsh parenting may increase the chances that boys will become delinquent (Hoeve et al., 2008). Research on adolescent risk and protective factors against delinquency and right-wing extremism among German youth from East and West Berlin has also shown that parental monitoring is not a protective factor (Boehnke et al., 2007).

The family background supporting radicalisation - This factor has been shown to affect both the General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism and the Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs of adolescents. It achieved mostly positive, moderate correlations for both factors and for all the variables examined. This means that the more supportive the family background is of radicalisation, the more adolescents tend to adopt these values, attitudes, and beliefs and thus behave in a more radical way. This is confirmed by the interpretations of the research results presented above, where it has been shown that it is the value setting of the family that is the riskiest factor for adolescent radicalisation. All these findings are confirmed by research where, for example, it has been shown that it is the violent and radical behaviour of parents that is related to the radicalisation of their children (Anwar & Wildan, 2018). Similarly, in research on the Australian jihadist scene, the influence of close relationships with family played a significant role in their decision-making process (Harris-Hogan, 2014). Participants in research by Sikkens et al. (2017) cited the presence of radical groups among family members or friends as 'pull' factors. Pels & De Ruyter (2012) also argue that parents who hold radicalised or extremist beliefs aim to pass on these ideals and values to their children because it is their beliefs about the (moral or religious) truth of their ideals and values that they want to pass on to their children, so that they will be just as strongly convinced.

Conclusions may be drawn from the very model of parental responses to radicalisation described in the theoretical section (Sikkens et al., 2018), where when parents themselves actively support their children's radical ideology, children are naturally inclined towards radical ideas. This intergenerational transmission of culture within the family plays a significant role in the process of radicalisation and extremism in adolescents. It is not possible to clearly establish 'push-pull' factors within family risk factors, because what is a 'push' factor for some may be a 'pull' factor for others. This finding is supported by Zych & Nasaescu (2022), who examined 33 studies focusing on family risk and protective factors and concluded that it is not possible to establish a causal link between family-related risk and protective factors in the context of radicalisation.

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••• SOCIAL FACTORS INFLUENCING THE LEVEL OF RADICALISATION IN ADOLESCENTS •••

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of selected social factors influencing the level of radicalization in adolescents. It has been confirmed that these factors can significantly impact the radicalization process in adolescents (Beelmann, 2020; Doosje et al., 2016; Wolfowicz et al., 2021). The authors specifically focused on attachment relationships and social isolation. Both constructs are related to how adolescents perceive themselves and the world around them, which can contribute to their vulnerability to radicalizing influences.

A secure attachment provides a child with a sense of safety, trust, and support, contributing to healthy emotional and social development. Adolescents with secure attachments are expected to be more resilient to radicalizing influences because they have strong emotional foundations and healthy relationships that provide support and a sense of identity (Delgado et al., 2022). On the other hand, social isolation refers to a state where individuals have limited contact and support from others, which can lead to feelings of loneliness, alienation, and despair. Those who feel socially isolated may be more vulnerable to radicalization as they seek ways to feel accepted and valued, lacking the resources that provide emotional support and diverse perspectives (Alivernini & Manganelli, 2016; Copeland et al., 2018).

The addressed social factors share the assumption that individuals have an inherent need to belong to a group or be accepted, a desire for interpersonal relationships, which can help explain human behavior and the motivation to join a group (whether legitimate or radical/extremist) (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Attachment theory emphasizes the need to form and maintain interpersonal bonds, and social isolation also relates to interpersonal connections. Therefore, we believe that attachment relationships and social isolation may be key factors in the radicalization process of adolescents.

In the context of the Slovak Republic, these factors have not been sufficiently analyzed concerning radicalization and extremism. Thus, the authors aim to fill this gap by building knowledge based on empirical results. Understanding these mechanisms will help formulate and implement effective preventive measures, thereby contributing to the fight against the radicalization of young people.

••• Attachment in the Context of Adolescent Radicalisation •••

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Lucia Tóthová completed all levels of her studies at the Department of Social Work, Faculty of Arts, Pavol Jozef Šafárik University in Košice, where she continues to serve as an assistant professor. For many years, her research focus has been on risky behavior, including radicalization and extremism as one of its forms. Her research activities also encompass topics in social work within healthcare, particularly focusing on people with disabilities as clients of social work.

Attachment theory is based on the pioneering work of John Bowlby who argued that human beings are biologically motivated to seek relationships that provide security. He argued that the most critical relationship is that between the primary caregiver (typically the mother) and the child, in which the primary caregiver creates a sense of protection for the child through a series of mutual interactions (Bowlby 1969, 1980, 1988; Bretherton, 1990).

The attachment figure should provide physical safety and comfort to the otherwise helpless child (Glazebrook et al., 2015). The formation of attachment is thus influenced by physical contact, emotional closeness, and responsiveness (Thorova, 2015). Children whose primary caregivers are sensitive and respond appropriately to their needs, being available and responsive in times of stress, establish a secure attachment and consequently foster a fundamental attitude of trust towards others (Bosquet et al., 2006; Glazebrook et al., 2015; O'Connor et al., 2018). If caregivers are unresponsive, insensitive, or unavailable, the result may be a higher degree of insecure attachment (Mathews et al., 2016). Attachment therefore concerns an emotional bond that plays a crucial role in stress regulation during times of anxiety or illness during childhood (van Ijzendoorn, 2007), involving the ability to seek comfort from the primary caregiver when the child is in need (Benoit, 2004). This emotional connection is one of the most important responsibilities that a parent, or primary caregiver, has towards the child (Wambua et al., 2018).

The everyday interactions between young children and their primary caregivers are subsequently internalised into 'internal working models', including representations of self, others, and relationships. These affect the anticipation of parental behaviour, as well as the child's behaviour towards parents and potentially others (Kerns & Brumariu, 2014), guiding expectations in subsequent relationships (Bretherton, 1990), and reflecting in lifelong attachment-related experiences (Waters et al., 2000). Thus, attachment style evolves as a result of the child's first experiences with the primary caregiver (Bowlby 1969, 1982).

Over the past few decades, the concept of attachment has expanded from the attachment between primary caregiver and child formed during childhood to one that can be applied across the lifespan (Ainsworth, 1989). The formation of attachment is considered a developmental that extends far beyond early childhood. During middle to late childhood, the child's cognitive and social abilities improve, their knowledge base expands, and he or she interacts with peers at an increasing rate (Richaud, 2006). Parents are expected to provide their children with greater

autonomy (Collins et al., 2002). A challenge in terms of attachment is for individuals to learn to deactivate their attachment system and instead activate other social and behavioural systems (Dwyer, 2005; Dwyer 2005). It is assumed that a child's primary attachment style will remains essentially stable despite developmental changes (Waters et al., 2000). Adolescent attachment is the result of the ability of both the adolescent and the parent to redefine the attachment by considering a process of individuation involving developmental changes at the social, cognitive, and emotional levels (Rosenblum & Lewis, 2006).

A notable aspect of the individuation process is the increasing need for adolescents to distance themselves from their parents. Time spent with the parent becomes less important because physical proximity is no longer necessary to provide protection and comfort (Larson et al., 1996). Parents remain available at a longer physical distance. This supports adolescents' exploration beyond their relationship with primary caregivers and the development of new social relationships with peers and/or romantic partners (Markiewicz et al., 2006). Due to the more symbolic rather than physical presence of parents, attachment during adolescence becomes more of a state of mind, influencing adolescents' behaviour and thinking, and stress regulation strategies (Allen, 2008).

As children grow, some of the need of attachment can also be fulfilled by others outside of primary caregivers (Dubois-Comtois et al., 2013). A review of the literature indicates that the importance of parental attachment gradually declines as adolescents age (Theisen et al., 2018). During adolescence, relationships with other family members, friends, and romantic partners may develop. Attachment with secondary attachment figures, resembling those with primary caregivers, emerge (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). There are assumptions that during adolescence, peers may completely replace parents as the primary source of attachment (Ainsworth, 1989; Rothbart & Shaver, 1994; Weiss, 1991). According to Freeman and Brown (2001), the process of relinquishing parents as attached figures begins early in adolescence and is mostly completed by the time the adolescent leaves high school. However, according to other authors (Allen et al., 2018; Monaco et al., 2019), even at this stage, young people become more autonomous and focus on their peer group, the relationship with parents remains an equally important factor. Freeman and Brown's (2001) research revealed attachment hierarchies based on types of adolescent attachment. Securely attached adolescents considered their mother as their primary attachment figure and best friends as secondary sources of attachment. Insecurely attached adolescents considered romantic partners as primary attachment figures and best friends as secondary sources. The results support variability in attachment figures, highlighting adolescents' primary attachment to both parents and peers, as well as distributed attachment across multiple close relationships (between parents and peers).

According to Shumaker et al. (2009), each adolescent has a stable relational attachment style and can even be considered as a personality trait that influences how a person regulates his or her emotions, how he or she interacts with the people in their lives, his or her thinking and behaviour (Allen, 2008). Four attachment styles (secure type, fearful type, preoccupied type, dismissing type) arise from the intersection of two dimensions – positivity of self-model and positivity of other-model. Self-model positivity indicates the extent to which individuals internalize a sense of self-worth and expect positive responses from others toward them. Other-model positivity indicates the extent to which the availability and support of others are expected (Wolt & Halama, 2015).

Adolescents with a secure attachment style perceive themselves positively and consider themselves worthy of attention and care from attached figures. They willingly seek comfort whenever they need it (Chow et al., 2017). They feel secure, comfortable, and autonomous in relationships, value their relationships, and can form relationships with others. The positive

self-esteem and positive evaluation of others are characteristic (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Mathews et al., 2014; Wolt & Halama, 2015).

Individuals with a preoccupied attachment style feel unloved and unworthy of attention and care (Chow et al., 2017). They have high levels of anxiety and uncertainty about the availability of attached figures. They fear rejection or abandonment (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). They may exaggerate their emotions to attract the attention of attached figures (Sheinbaum et al., 2015). The preoccupied attachment style is characterized by excessive preoccupation with relationships and other people. Individuals are confused or overwhelmed by past and present relationship bonds and are either too passive or overly aggressive in clarifying their relationship bonds. Low self-esteem and positive evaluation of others are characteristic (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Wolt & Halama, 2015).

Individuals with a dismissing attachment style have positive self-esteem. However, due to unsatisfactory relationships with caregivers, they adopt a deactivating strategy, suppressing their emotions and striving to be emotionally independent (Chow et al., 2017; Sheinbaum et al., 2015). They lack motivation to form intimate relationships because they doubt the reliability or trustworthiness of people (Chow et al., 2017). The dismissing style is characterized by the need and effort to maintain distance in relationships to preserve independence and invulnerability. Individuals seek to deny, reject, devalue, or idealize their past and present relationship bonds and are unable to support existing relationship bonds with specific memories. A combination of positive self-esteem and negative perception of others is characteristic (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Wolt & Halama, 2015).

Individuals with a fearful attachment style crave attention and acceptance from attached figures as a source of self-validation. However, they do not trust attached figures and expect their offers of intimacy to be met with rejection or hostility (Erozkan, 2011). The fearful attachment style is characterized by low self-esteem and a negative view of others as untrustworthy and rejecting. Therefore, they protect themselves from anticipated rejection by avoiding close contact with people. Fear of intimacy characterizes the fearful attachment style (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Wolt & Halama, 2015).

ATTACHMENT – RELATIONSHIP TO ADOLESCENT RADICALISATION

Attachment has important implications for how adolescents cope with challenging transitions during adolescence (Allen, 2008). Adolescents undergo various changes, such as transitioning to new schools (Shaw & Dallos, 2005; Goldstein et al., 2015), forming new friendships and breaking existing ones (Furman, 1982), increasingly focusing on peer relationships (Brown & Larson, 2009), developing intimate relationships and sexuality (Shaw & Dallos, 2005), and adapting to new social norms and expectations placed upon them (Allen et al., 2005).

This period of rapid and substantial developmental changes (Moretti & Peled, 2004; Ndugwa et al., 2011) may lead to the emergence or consolidation of psychopathology (Dubois-Comtois et al., 2013). From a developmental perspective, adolescents are perceived as the most vulnerable group (Lichner & Šlosár, 2017), engaging in risky behaviour to a greater extent compared to other developmental stages (e.g., Steinberg, 2004). Despite many adolescents being exposed to various negative experiences, inappropriate behaviour only develops in some. Attachment significantly prepares the growing child to be more resilient or vulnerable to such influences (Demuth & Brown, 2004; Sroufe et al., 1999; Wambua et al., 2018). It has been shown that adolescents who have a less secure attachment to their parents are more likely to engage in risky behaviour (Holt et al., 2018; Karavasilis et al., 2003; Keresteš et al., 2019; Moretti & Peled, 2004). Studies suggest

that more than half of adolescents have an insecure attachment style (Freeman & Brown, 2001), which sets the child on a difficult trajectory throughout life (Malekpour, 2007). Attachment theory provides a framework for understanding both normative and pathological functioning in adolescents, as well as relevant intervention models supporting the development of individual and interpersonal skills (Dubois-Comtois et al., 2013).

Empirical evidence has demonstrated correlations between attachment and various forms of risky behaviour. Authors Mohammadzadeh et al. (2020) point out the correlation between an insecure attachment style to both mother and father and smoking. Anderson et al. (2019) highlight the correlation between peer attachment and alcohol use. According to research results, anxious attachment significantly predicted increased alcohol use. A lower prevalence of substance abuse risk was also observed in relation to high scores of secure attachment (Cornellà-Font et al., 2020). Correlations were found between attachment and eating disorders (Bäck, 2011; Tereno et al., 2008), peer attachment and online gaming (Kim & Chun, 2022), as well as peer attachment and cyberbullying (Wright et al., 2015). A significant correlation was confirmed between an insecure attachment style to both mother and father and bullying (Mohammadzadeh et al., 2020), as well as between a preoccupied style and delinquent behaviour in adolescents (Yilmaz & Traş, 2019). Both preoccupied and secure attachment styles had predictive effects on risky sexual behaviour. A preoccupied attachment style predicted greater involvement in risky sexual behaviour, thus creating vulnerability to risky sexual behaviour, while secure attachment predicted less risky sexual behaviour and protected against risky sexual behaviour (Owino et al., 2021). Insecure attachment is also associated with self-harming behaviour in clinical samples of adolescents (Adam et al., 1996), and prospective long-term research has shown that insecure attachment is a significant risk factor for self-harm in adolescent research samples (Fergusson et al., 2000; Salzinger et al., 2007). Insecure attachment is empirically linked to extremist attitudes (Ozer & Bertelsen, 2019; Ozer et al., 2020). People seek out extremist groups associated with insecure attachment (Trip et al., 2019), and Counted (2021) argues that Radicalisation is rooted in experiences of disrupted attachment to religion, places, or people perceived as sources of security. Campelo et al. (2022) consider attachment as one of the main characteristics of adolescents who exhibit radical behaviour.

RESEARCH RESULTS: ATTACHMENT STYLES AND RADICALISATION

In the following section of the chapter, the results of research focusing on the attachment relationships of adolescents in the context of selected socio-demographic variables (gender, age, type of school attended, and number of siblings) and Radicalisation and extremism are presented. Descriptive statistics were used for processing and analysing the obtained data in combination with analytical statistics.

Table 21 provides an overview of the assessment of individual attachment styles for the entire sample of respondents. The average scores of the factors indicate a prevailing insecure attachment among adolescents, which is more pronounced compared to secure attachment. Within the individual styles constituting insecure attachment (fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing attachment styles), the research sample shows the highest proportion of dismissive attachment. Začiatok formulára

Table 21 Descriptive evaluation of individual attachment styles among adolescents

	RSQ				
Factor	*secure*	*insecure*	*fearful*	*preoccupied*	*dismissing*
Alpha	0,355	0,467	0,412	0,525	0,490
M	2,953	**3,234**	2,857	3,304	**3,479**
item	5	13	4	4	5
min.	1	1,62	1	1	1
max.	5	4,38	5	5	5
SD	0,024	0,017	0,027	0,031	0,025

alpha – Cronbach's alpha coefficient, M - mean, SD - standard deviation

In the next section, the focus was on examining the relationship between attachment style and a selected type of risky behaviour, Radicalisation, and extremism. Using Spearman's correlation coefficient, the correlation between secure attachment did not manifest with either of the two areas of examined Radicalisation and extremism (General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism; Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs). However, insecure attachment correlated with the factor of Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs, which fuels the commitment to activities exhibiting signs of Radicalisation and extremism (Lichner, 2020). The obtained data indicate a negative correlation, with a weak strength, and the significance value indicates statistical significance. The lower the demonstrated insecure attachment style in social relationships, the higher the degree of Radicalisation, and vice versa. When the overall insecure attachment was categorized into individual styles of insecure attachment (fearful, dismissive, and preoccupied), the correlation manifested between the preoccupied attachment and the factor of Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs (Table 22). Based on the obtained results, the author can conclude that the correlation is negative, with weak strength, and statistically significant.

Table 22 Spearman's correlation coefficient of Radicalisation factors and attachment styles among adolescents

		REPTSA *General values*	**REPTSA** *Personal values*
RSQ *Secure*	r	-0,015	-0,011
	p(α)	0,781	0,702
RSQ *Insecure*	r	0,002	-0,126**
	p(α)	0,956	<0,001
RSQ *Fearful*	r	0,057	-0,011
	p(α)	0,775	0,153
RSQ *Preoccupied*	r	-0,040	-0,116**
	p(α)	0,315	0,003
RSQ *Dismissing*	r	0,002	-0,065
	p(α)	0,967	0,098

REPTSA - Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.
$^{**}p < 0{,}01$; $^{*}p < 0{,}05$

Table 23 presents the results concerning the correlations between factors of Radicalisation and attachment styles, compared based on gender. A statistically significant correlation was demonstrated between fearful attachment in men and the factor of General values and beliefs supporting Radicalisation and extremism. A statistically significant correlation was also observed between insecurely attached women and the factor of Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs, with a negative correlation.

Table 23 Spearman's correlation coefficient of Radicalisation factors and attachment styles among adolescents - comparison based on gender

		REPTSA *General values*		REPTSA *Personal values*	
		Women (n=388)	**Men** (n=253)	**Women** (n=388)	**Men** (n=253)
RSQ *Secure*	r	-0,028	-0,013	-0,020	-0,083
	p(α)	0,587	0,835	0,691	0,189
RSQ *Insecure*	r	0,015	0,035	-0,111*	-0,054
	p(α)	0,768	0,581	0,029	0,388
RSQ *Fearful*	r	0,038	0,134*	-0,008	0,077
	p(α)	0,450	0,033	0,874	0,224
RSQ *Preoccupied*	r	-0,014	-0,015	-0,080	-0,049
	p(α)	0,783	0,811	0,115	0,438
RSQ *Dismissing*	r	0,021	-0,040	-0,068	-0,080
	p(α)	0,687	0,526	0,184	0,205

REPTSA - Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.
$**p < 0,01$; $*p < 0,05$

Using Spearman's correlation coefficient, the relationship between attachment and Radicalisation and extremism factors manifested only in the group of adolescents aged 17 years, specifically in relation to insecure attachment style and the factor of Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs, as well as in relation to preoccupied attachment style and the factor of Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs, with these correlations being negative.

Table 24 Spearman's correlation coefficient of Radicalisation factors and attachment styles among adolescents - comparison based on age

		REPTSA *General values*			REPTSA *Personal values*				
		16 (n=55)	**17** (n=323)	**18** (n=245)	**19** (n=16)	**16** (n=55)	**17** (n=323)	**18** (n=245)	**19** (n=16)
RSQ *Secure*	r	0,013	-0,009	-0,003	-0,286	0,029	-0,015	0,010	-0,417
	p(α)	0,923	0,868	0,959	0,283	0,832	0,787	0,871	0,108
RSQ *Insecure*	r	-0,145	-0,003	0,068	-0,293	-0,220	-0,132*	-0,076	-0,446
	p(α)	0,290	0,959	0,286	0,271	0,106	0,018	0,238	0,083
RSQ *Fearful*	r	-0,200	0,038	0,116	0,315	-0,215	0,768	0,045	-0,107
	p(α)	0,143	0,490	0,070	0,234	0,115	0,324	0,479	0,694
RSQ *Preoccupied*	r	0,063	-0,044	-0,010	-0,397	0,004	-0,122*	-0,110	-0,424
	p(α)	0,647	0,432	0,874	0,128	0,976	0,028	0,085	0,102
RSQ *Dismissing*	r	-0,132	-0,007	0,038	-0,089	-0,237	-0,068	-0,032	-0,171
	p(α)	0,337	0,896	0,550	0,742	0,082	0,220	0,622	0,527

REPTSA - Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.
$**p < 0,01$; $*p < 0,05$

The results of the research, as illustrated in Table 24, demonstrate statistically significant correlations between the insecure attachment style of adolescents and the factor of Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs, as well as between the preoccupied attachment style of adolescents and the factor of Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs, among those attending grammar schools. However, no such statistically significant correlations were observed among adolescents attending gymnasia.

Table 25 Spearman's correlation coefficient of Radicalisation factors and attachment styles among adolescents - comparison based on the type of school attended

		REPTSA *General values*		**REPTSA** *Personal values*	
		Gymnasia (n=249)	**Grammar schools** (n=392)	**Gymnasia** (n=249)	**Grammar schools** (n=392)
RSQ *Secure*	r	-0,045	0,018	-0,075	0,037
	p(α)	0,479	0,716	0,241	0,463
RSQ *Insecure*	r	0,008	-0,003	-0,053	-0,174**
	p(α)	0,899	0,959	0,408	<0,001
RSQ *Fearful*	r	0,024	0,075	0,008	-0,035
	p(α)	0,710	0,140	0,905	0,493
RSQ *Preoccupied*	r	0,000	-0,067	-0,027	-0,177**
	p(α)	0,997	0,185	0,669	<0,001
RSQ *Dismissing*	r	0,013	-0,004	-0,027	-0,076
	p(α)	0,839	0,943	0,673	0,134

REPTSA - Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.
***p < 0,01; *p < 0,05*

The calculations revealed certain statistically significant correlations between the type of attachment and factors of Radicalisation and extremism based on a comparison according to the number of siblings of the respondents. These correlations were observed between insecure attachment and the factor of Personal values, opinions, and beliefs among adolescents without siblings and adolescents with one sibling. Correlations were also observed between preoccupied attachment, and both examined factors of Radicalisation and extremism, namely the factor of General values and beliefs supporting Radicalisation and extremism (adolescents without siblings) as well as the factor of Personal values, opinions, and beliefs (group of adolescents with one sibling).

Table 26 Spearman's correlation coefficient of Radicalisation factors and attachment styles among adolescents - comparison based on the number of siblings of respondents

		REPTSA *General values*				**REPTSA** *Personal values*			
		0 (n=69)	**1** (n=345)	**2** (n=144)	**3** (n=53)	**0** (n=69)	**1** (n=345)	**2** (n=144)	**3** (n=53)
RSQ *Secure*	r	0,096	-0,046	-0,033	0,023	0,011	-0,005	-0,070	0,076
	p(α)	0,431	0,397	0,695	0,097	0,927	0,932	0,407	0,589
RSQ *Insecure*	r	-0,137	-0,029	0,092	-0,080	-0,238*	-0,165**	-0,049	-0,058
	p(α)	0,262	0,593	0,274	0,569	0,049	0,002	0,557	0,679
RSQ *Fearful*	r	-0,003	0,015	0,154	-0,083	-0,056	-0,048	0,041	-0,007
	p(α)	0,983	0,776	0,065	0,556	0,645	0,376	0,629	0,958
RSQ *Preoccupied*	r	-0,250*	-0,011	-0,042	-0,001	-0,128	-0,130*	-0,131	-0,049
	p(α)	0,038	0,844	0,615	0,995	0,294	0,015	0,116	0,729
RSQ *Dismissing*	r	0,223	-0,047	0,077	0,070	-0,176	-0,063	0,026	-0,093
	p(α)	0,066	0,382	0,361	0,620	0,149	0,246	0,753	0,507

REPTSA - Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.
***p < 0,01; *p < 0,05*

SUMMARY

Research findings indicate a prevalence of an insecure attachment style in the surveyed sample of adolescents. Results concerning attachment styles in academic literature are not consistent, though the majority point to securely attached individuals predominanting (e.g., Bakermans-Kranenburg et al., 2003; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; van Ijzendoorn, 2009). According to expert sources, approximately 50–60% to 60–65% of adults can form secure attachments, while insecure attachment pertains to about 35–40% of adults (ATTACh, 2012; Brisch, 2011; Dubayová, 2016). In the general population, according to Vrtbovská (2009, in: Hybenová, 2010), approximately 50–75% of individuals have secure attachment relationships, with Hazan and Shaver (1987) suggesting it's around 60% of adults with secure attachment, with the remainder evenly distributed among insecure attachment types. Despite researchers reporting over the past 40 years that most individuals, regardless of age, are securely attached (Scharfe, 2016), Freeman and Brown (2001) suggest that more than half of adolescents have an insecure attachment style, with Akhtar (2012) indicating a preference among adolescents for an avoidant attachment style. This inconsistency may be attributed to the specificity of the research sample, its geographical context, and the characteristics of contemporary lifestyle or the COVID pandemic.

The obtained data also highlighted the association between insecure attachment and the Personal Values, Attitudes, and Beliefs factor, which encompasses personal opinions on certain population groups as well as the commitment to actively suppress human and civil rights, thereby fostering a commitment to activities exhibiting signs of Radicalisation and extremism (Lichner, 2020). Although Rekker et al. (2015) state that personal attitudes are generally not stable during adolescence, extremist attitudes are prevalent among adolescents (e.g., Cherney et al., 2020; Muxel, 2020). Youth who feel disconnected from the broader community often experience a sense of alienation and meaninglessness. As a result, they may turn to extremism to feel respected, important, and valued. Membership in an extremist group can provide the companionship young people crave (Gereluk, 2023).

The results of the author's research are congruent. As the demonstrated correlation was negative, indicating that the less insecure attachment style was demonstrated in social relationships, the higher the degree of Radicalisation. Based on this result and given that the methodology used, the RSQ questionnaire, examines attachment to current social relationships and does not account for the hierarchy of attachment sources, we can assume that:

- secure attachment, which adolescents are less attached to, is associated with the primary social group. If needs are met through such a group, individuals have no reason to seek satisfaction in alternative groups, such as radical ones (Tóthová, 2023);
- insecure attachment, which prevails among adolescents, acts as a push factor, where a lack of security in interpersonal relationships can lead to the creation of symbolic attachments to groups to feel protected and safe (Smith et al., 1999);
- insecure attachment acts as a push factor when associated with primary attachment to peers, indicating unhealthy or inappropriate attachment patterns, as peers may not provide the full function of mutual attachment. As a result, they tend to seek additional feelings of security and protection (Kirkpatrick, 2005);
- insecure attachment as a push factor thus pushes adolescents and forces them to seek alternatives;
- insecure attachment acts as a pull factor in its opposite, as the so-called "certain attachment" (Tóthová, 2023), which attracts adolescents to the alternative. In this case, we're not talking about the safety fulfilled by secure attachment but about the "certainty," the benefits offered by radical groups that adolescents lack within other social groups, and according to research results, adolescents who were "certain" in their current social relationships were associated with Radicalisation.

The chapter also highlights results regarding the associations between Radicalisation factors and attachment styles, compared based on defined sociodemographic variables. Although most studies do not consider gender and suggest that other factors may have greater explanatory power regarding radical and extremist attitudes (Schröder et al., 2022), the author's results demonstrated an association between attachment and Radicalisation factors and extremism based on gender. It was demonstrated in men with fearful attachment and women with insecure attachment. The association between attachment and Radicalisation factors and extremism was demonstrated in the author's research only in the group of 17-year-old adolescents. The collective of authors Nivette et al. (2022) attempted to explain changes in support for violent extremism during the transition to early adulthood, considering the age of 17 as one of the time points of this transition. According to the authors, this period may increase uncertainty and vulnerability to Radicalisation, potentially leading to maturation, prosocial bonds, and subsequently less support for violent extremism. According to the research results, if this age is associated with insecure or preoccupied attachment styles as one of the styles of insecure attachment, it shows an association with personal beliefs, attitudes, and opinions, including the commitment to activities exhibiting signs of Radicalisation and extremism. Biological factors of gender and age, according to Beršnak and Prezelj (2020), can be used as indicators for early warning of youth Radicalisation. Regarding another selected sociodemographic factor, the type of school attended, it is necessary to mention that there is no comprehensive view on the relationship between the level of education of young individuals and their radical beliefs or involvement in terrorist acts (Sas et al., 2020), and the level of education can vary (Gill, 2007). Additionally, radical and extremist groups consider the school environment attractive recruitment grounds (Bloom, 2017). The author's research demonstrated an association between insecure attachment of adolescents and the examined factors of Radicalisation and extremism, as well as between preoccupied attachment of adolescents and Radicalisation and extremism among adolescents attending vocational schools. This result is significant. According to Beršnak and Prezelj (2020), by recognizing the problem and taking appropriate measures, school staff can prevent the continuation of the Radicalisation process. If properly informed and trained, they could identify Radicalisation, but the authors' thesis is that the overall lack of awareness among school staff about youth Radicalisation risks failing to recognize early signs and respond correctly to prevent further Radicalisation. Zych and Nasaescu (2022) state that a larger family size is among protective factors, which could correspond to the results of the author's research, indicating an association with Radicalisation among adolescents without siblings or with only one sibling.

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••• Social Isolation in the Context of Adolescent Radicalisation •••

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Radicalisation is generally seen as a process that is characterised by a complex interplay of individual, social, and societal factors, and manifests itself in ideas, attitudes, and behaviours that are inconsistent with a democratic context (Beelmann, 2020). This paper focuses specifically on the factor of social isolation as one of the risk factors influencing the process of adolescent radicalisation, both theoretically and through empirical investigation.

The need for social belonging, social interaction, is part of human existence. And although this may vary from individual to individual, and some may have higher social needs than others, in principle all the individuals have certain social needs. (Elichová et al., 2016; Site et al., 2022; Slaný et al., 2017) Forming friendships, developing loyalty, showing empathy and solidarity, all the components of everyday life that are so important to the individual, would not be possible without social interactions. Likewise, the already less appealing, but also common components of human life, such as feeling antipathy, blame, rivalry, or the existence of conflicts. On the one hand, social interactions can foster cohesive bonds between people, but on the other hand, they can create or accentuate differences between us and those who do not belong to our group (Haji et al., 2016).

By disrupting social interaction, social belonging, engagement with others, and reducing the number of social contacts and satisfying quality relationships, social isolation can result (Nicholson, 2012). And although there is a body of research exploring social isolation in older people that suggests that social isolation may become more common as people age (Cornwell & Waite, 2009), it is important to recognise that adolescents are also vulnerable by the nature of the complex developmental period in which they find themselves. Adolescence is the developmental period when bonding with peers and peer acceptance becomes increasingly important, therefore experiencing social isolation can be a significant risk factor. (Almeida et al., 2022; Holdoš et al., 2022; London & Ingram, 2018; Orben et al., 2020) Equally, due to the importance of the aforementioned processes of normative identity-seeking and belonging (including political socialisation), this period of life is characterised by high vulnerability to radicalisation processes. It is not just a relevant period for the development of identity, norms, and value systems, a period when adolescents seek belonging, recognition and identity (Botek, 2009; Greve, 2007), but also a period when adventure-seeking, thrill-seeking, and provocation occur (Benslama, 2017). The beginnings of radicalisation are often observed at a young age, when attitudes are developed that generally remain stable throughout life. Radicalisation is understood as a process from its

early origins (e.g. prejudice) to terrorist acts. (Cherney, 2020; Cherney et al., 2020; Schröder et al., 2022) Social isolation has many definitions, ranging from the simpler ones referring to the absence of contact to more complex constructs composed of two or more dimensions (Fiordelli et al., 2020). It is defined not just by the lack of number, but also by the lack of quality of the individual's relationships. It has a broad context and includes a lack of support and connections from the environment. It can be defined as a state of disengagement from society or avoidance of participation in social interactions. Loneliness is a similar construct, but it represents the affective and emotional side of social isolation. (Fine & Spencer, 2009; Jong-Gierveld et al., 2006; Tomaka et al., 2006; Zavaleta et al., 2017) Loneliness is synonymous with perceived social isolation (subjective), but not with objective social isolation - we speak of the bi-dimensional nature of the construct (Cacioppo & Cacioppo, 2014). Objective social isolation describes a quantifiable aspect of social relationships. Its features include, for example, limited social contact with others and weak ties to social networks. On the other hand, social isolation can be a major reason for perceived loneliness. Both aspects - feelings of loneliness and social isolation - are interrelated. Although the World Health Organization (WHO) has for almost 40 years pointed to the need to prevent social isolation as essential for good health (Lubben et al., 2006), the last decade has seen an increasing trend. Some refer to the current era as an epidemic of loneliness and social isolation (Tung et al., 2019). Several factors contribute to this, starting with the recent pandemic caused by Covid 19, which has led to an increase in objective social isolation in the form of social distancing and fewer organised social events (Site et al., 2022). Since 2019, there has been an increase in the number of children and young people reporting feelings of isolation and loneliness (Hards et al., 2022).

There are many factors that contribute to feelings of loneliness and social isolation (e.g., lack of contact with family, lack of friendships, low participation in social and community life, living in unsafe, vulnerable communities, geographic separation from family and friends, social media abuse, health disadvantage, and others) (Alsadoun et al., 2023; Fine & Spencer, 2009).

Social isolation is considered a psychosocial risk factor for ill health (House, 2001). Individuals who are socially isolated are dissatisfied with their lives, have low levels of well-being (Chen & Feeley, 2014; Ranjan & Yadav, 2019). Adults who experienced social isolation during childhood or adolescence are at higher risk of developing various diseases, risk of impaired recovery, and the risk of premature death (Berkman & Glass, 2000; Berkman et al., 2000; Findlay, 2003; Hawkley, 2019; Holt-Lunstadt et al., 2015; Seeman et al., 2002; Stuck et al., 2002). The World Health Organization (WHO, 2021) even identifies experiencing social isolation as a priority public health issue (defined, for example, in the UN Decade of Healthy Ageing 2021-2030). Thus, experiencing social isolation in adolescence has both current and long-term impacts (with manifestations in adulthood) (London & Ingram, 2018). Drawing on studies, it might be summarised that adolescents' experiences of social isolation may have an impact on the following areas:

- emotional (e.g., experiencing emotional instability, developing depression and anxiety) (Alsadoun et al., 2023; Johnston & Wanat, 2022),
- social (e.g. difficulties in social relationships, inability to acquire social competence, inability to form healthy relationships with peers, lack of social support) (Orben et al., 2020; Santini et al., 2021),
- cognitive (limitation of the possibility to learn from experience, from experiential learning, from problem solving, absence of social contacts causes stagnation in the development of critical thinking, and perception of different perspectives) (Almeida et al., 2022; Calvo et al., 2017),
- physical (impaired health (adverse effects on cardiovascular, immune, and neuroendocrine systems) and fitness (because of non-inclusion in healthy lifestyle habits or sports, threatened by the so-called sedentary lifestyle)) (He & Qiu, 2022; Shankar, 2023),
- identity and self-worth (social isolation contributes to identity formation problems as adolescents do not have the opportunity to compare themselves with others) (Almeida et al., 2022; Crewe et al., 2023)

  Studies also point to associations between adolescents' experience of social isolation and the occurrence of socially risky behaviours or the increase in so-called problematic externalising behaviours (Alivernini & Manganelli, 2016; Copeland et al., 2018; Heinrich

& Gullone, 2006; Tung et al., 2019), which may also be considered as the emergence and development of the radicalisation process in adolescents (Gómez et al., 2021). The authors Copeland et al. (2018) offer a division of socially isolated adolescents into:

- the unliked ones (those who are excluded, unnoticed by their peers from school),
- the disengaged ones (those who have disconnected themselves from peers at school, are disengaged, do not see their place in the peer network, perceive themselves as detached, reject peers of the same age); and
- the outside-oriented ones (those who orient their social energy outside the typical context of school peer friends, to peers outside their class and/or school).

Each dimension of social isolation may then be related to risk behaviour in a different way. For example, social isolation of the unliked ones is associated with lower alcohol use in adolescents, whereas the disengagement isolation and the outside-orientation isolation is associated with higher use of addictive substances such as cigarettes, alcohol, and marijuana.

Unliked Disengaged Outside-oriented

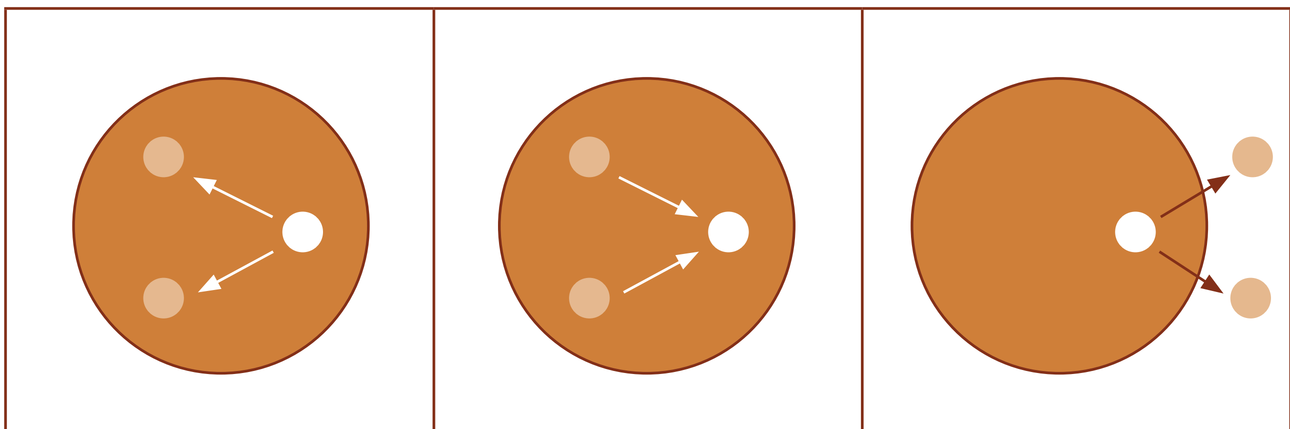

Figure 11 Dimensions of isolation by Copeland et al. (2018)

The experiencing of social isolation and its impact is a highly individual issue, depending on the personal disposition of the adolescent, the conditions of social isolation, or the availability of social support (e.g. from the family, but also from educational or other social institutions). For example, higher levels of social isolation may be experienced by adolescents from disadvantaged backgrounds, with a history of bullying/cyberbullying, with a disability, or with a different sexual orientation (Alsadoun et al., 2023; London & Ingram, 2018). Also, the process of radicalisation depends on many factors. For example, Herding (2013) argues that radicalisation processes are best explained by a model of cumulative or interacting contingent factors, and that the pathways to radicalisation can be very different. Social isolation may be one such factor. Some scholars, such as Schröder et al. (2022), argue that adolescents with specific vulnerability to right-wing attitudes may include adolescents (especially young males) with a high sense of relative disadvantage and social deprivation. However, social isolation does not necessarily lead to radicalisation. Both phenomena, social isolation, and radicalisation, may interact in different ways and the link between them may be influenced by different factors and mechanisms. Not all the socially isolated individuals become radicalised and, conversely, not all the radicalised individuals are socially isolated. However, it is interesting to note the following contexts in different areas that may influence social isolation to act as a 'push' factor that will increase the risk for adolescents to develop and progress in the process of radicalisation:

- the area of identity search (socially isolated adolescents may feel excluded from society, abandoned, and membership in a radicalisation group offers a false sense of identity and

belonging, while group radicalisation is highly likely to precede individual radicalisation) (Berger, 2018; Borum, 2012; Schröder et al., 2022),

- the impact of online media (socially isolated adolescents may escape into virtual online space, the rapid development of various digital electronic services and applications provides a venue for online socialisation, thus reducing social isolation per se. (Orben et al., 2020; Site et al., 2022; Suchomelová et al., 2023; Vaska & Vrťová, 2022) However, even this trend comes with its risks. Social media offers a venue in which people from different backgrounds, with different worldviews, can share their views in an open and unstructured manner. This has revolutionised extremist groups for the lightning-fast spread of hate speech and a unique opportunity to radicalise the masses. Fake news and misinformation mislead the public, but especially adolescents. It is easier and quicker for them to encounter extremist views and ideas; it is the virtual community that can offer radical ideologies to adolescents, and in an attractive way. (Akram & Nasar, 2023; Gallacher et al., 2021; Kruglova, 2020; Marcks & Pawelz, 2020),
- manipulation and coercion (socially isolated adolescents may be more susceptible to manipulation and coercion by radical groups who take advantage of their vulnerability and need to belong to peers/group) (Bloom & Horgan, 2019; Gonzáles et al., 2022),
- reactions to helplessness, insecurity, frustration, feelings of injustice (socially isolated adolescents experience feelings of frustration and insecurity, or moral indignation and anger, while radical ideologies often offer answers, simplistic explanations, or solutions, so they may subsequently join groups of like-minded individuals or groups (Böckler & Zick, 2015),
- lack of diversity of opinion (through social interactions we find out what is right and wrong, what is true and false, what is still acceptable and what is no longer acceptable, what is beyond the boundaries of acceptability, interactions with others allow us to share experiences, discussing ideas, developing worldviews, transforming individual aspirations into collective goals, etc., so socially isolated adolescents may lack a diversity of views and perspectives, which can lead to a closed-mindedness towards alternative views and consequently to the reinforcement of radical views) (Haji et al., 2016; Stridberg, 2020).

However, as we have already defined above, it is also possible that due to social isolation the adolescent will not be exposed to peer or other groups professing radicalising ideologies, and thus it is paradoxically possible that social isolation will act as a so-called "pull" factor. Empirical testing of social isolation is still not sufficiently covered. There is a lack of methodology to measure social isolation in its entirety. In the words of Fiordelli et al. (2020), a so-called gold standard for measuring social isolation does not yet exist. Moreover, to the best of our knowledge, there is no validated methodology to measure the extent of objective and subjective social isolation in adolescence. For example, we document the existence of a methodology called The Classmates Social Isolation Questionnaire for Adolescents (CSIQ-A) by Cavicchiolo et al. (2019). It is based on The Classmates Social Isolation Questionnaire (CSIQ) methodology by Alivernini & Manganelli (2016), validated on a sample of school-aged children. The CSIQ-A examines adolescents' social isolation specifically in the school environment of the class they attend. It looks at two dimensions: the dimension of classmates with whom adolescents interacts in the classroom (Peer Acceptance, PA) and the dimension of classmates with whom adolescents socialise and spend their free time outside the school milieu (Peer Friendship, PF). However, it is undoubtedly also important to investigate those social interactions of adolescents that are not directly related to the school environment (e.g. taking place in the neighbourhood where the adolescent lives (Svensson et al., 2011)). For example, the Lubben Social Network Scale (LSNS), which measures the size, proximity, and frequency of contacts of a respondent's social network, is widely used globally. It contains questions on two subscales - the respondents' family environment and friends; one of the revised versions additionally includes a subscale examining perceived support from neighbours. Both the original and the revised methodologies have been validated on the older adult target group. (Lubben, 1988; Lubben et al., 2006) A comprehensive proposal for a methodology to measure adult social isolation (SIQ) by Zavaleta et al.

(2017) is suggestive, but their conceptual design has not yet been empirically validated. According to current methodologies and several studies, we observe that more attention has been paid to the social isolation of older people. We still register a lack of information on the consequences of social isolation on adolescents. In doing so, the changes taking place in adolescence make adolescence one of the most important but also the most difficult periods in a person's life.

RESEARCH RESULTS: SOCIAL ISOLATION AND RADICALISATION

A questionnaire called the Social Isolation Scale (SIS) was used in the research (Ranjan & Yadav, 2019). It is a ten-item scale aimed at measuring the level of social isolation. Although the methodology was not originally developed to measure social isolation in adolescents, the construction of the questions seemed to us to be also well suited for use in this target group.

Table 27 Descriptive indicators for respective questionnaires in the authors' research

	SIS
alpha	0.889
M	2.047
item	10
min.	1
max.	5
SD	0.853

alpha – Cronbach's alpha coefficient, M - mean, SD - standard deviation

Table 28 Spearman's correlation coefficient of radicalisation factors and social isolation rates

		REPTSA General values	**REPTSA** Personal values
SIS	*r*	*0.028*	*0.055*
	p(α)	*0.484*	*0.166*

REPTSA - *Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.*
**p < 0,01; *p < 0,05

The calculations have not shown statistically significant correlations between the factor of *General Values and Beliefs Supporting Radicalisation and Extremism* and the *level of social isolation*, nor between the factor of *Personal Values and Beliefs* and the *level of social isolation*.

In the next section, the paper presents descriptions of individual socio-demographic variables such as gender, age, type of school attended, and number of siblings.

Table 29 Spearman's correlation coefficient of radicalisation factors and social isolation rates - comparison based on gender

Women (n=388)		**REPTSA** *General values*		**REPTSA** *Personal values*	
		Men (n=253)	**Women** (n=388)	**Men** (n=253)	
SIS	r	0.004	0.069	0.065	0.064
	p(α)	0.938	0.271	0.198	0.313

REPTSA - *Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.*
**p < 0,01; *p < 0,05

The calculations have not shown statistically significant correlations between the factor of *General Values and Beliefs Supporting Radicalisation and Extremism*, and the rate of social isolation based on gender, nor between the factor of *Personal Values and Beliefs* and the rate of social isolation based on gender.

Table 30 Spearman's Correlation Coefficient of Radicalisation Factors and Social Isolation Rates - comparison based on age

16 (n=55)		**REPTSA** *General values*				**REPTSA** *Personal values*			
		17 (n=323)	**18** (n=245)	**19** (n=16)	**16** (n=55)	**17** (n=323)	**18** (n=245)	**19** (n=16)	
SIS	r	0.066	0.018	0.028	0.094	0.147	0.043	0.647	0.137
	p(α)	0.634	0.754	0.666	0.729	0.283	0.442	0.462	0.613

REPTSA - *Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.*
**p < 0,01; *p < 0,05

The calculations did not show statistically significant correlations between the factor of *General values and beliefs Supporting Radicalisation and Extremism*, and the *rate of social isolation based on age*, nor between the factor of *Personal Values and Beliefs* and the *rate of social isolation based on age*.

Table 31 Spearman's Correlation Coefficient of Radicalisation Factors and Social Isolation Rates - Comparison based on the type of school attended

		REPTSA *General values*		**REPTSA** *Personal values*	
		Gymnasiums (n=249)	**Vocational schools** (n=392)	**Gymnasiums** (n=249)	**Vocational schools** (n=392)
SIS	r	0.083	-0.015	0.080	0.031
	p(α)	0.192	0.771	0.207	0.546

REPTSA - *Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.*
**p < 0,01; *p < 0,05

The calculations have not shown any statistically significant correlations between the factor of *General Values and Beliefs Supporting Radicalisation and Extremism*, and the level of *social isolation based on the type of school attended*, nor between the factor of *Personal Values and Beliefs* and the *level of social isolation based on the type of school attended*.

Table 32 Spearman's correlation coefficient of radicalisation factors and the degree of social isolation - comparison based on the number of siblings of the respondents

		REPTSA *General values*				**REPTSA** *Personal values*			
		0 (n=69)	**1** (n=345)	**2** (n=144)	**3** (n=53)	**0** (n=69)	**1** (n=345)	**2** (n=144)	**3** (n=53)
SIS	r	0.058	0.023	0.065	-0.279*	0.086	0.010	0.087	0.110
	p(α)	0.637	0.664	0.436	0.043	0.855	0.855	0.297	0.434

REPTSA - *Personal values, attitudes, and beliefs; General values and beliefs supporting radicalisation and extremism.*
$^{**}p < 0{,}01$; $^{*}p < 0{,}05$

The factor of *General Values and Beliefs Supporting Radicalisation and Extremism* showed statistically significant correlations with the level of social isolation based on the number of siblings of the respondents for those with three siblings (negative weak correlation). Based on the other categories of number of siblings of respondents, there were no statistically significant correlations between the factor of *General Values and Beliefs Supporting Radicalisation and Extremism* and the *level of social isolation*. There were also no statistically significant correlations between the *Personal Values and Beliefs* factor and the *level of social isolation based on the number of siblings of the respondents*.

SUMMARY

The results of our research have not confirmed statistically significant associations between the experience of social isolation and the process of radicalisation in adolescents. Because the adolescents completed the questionnaire autonomously, the answers may have been biased for reasons of social appropriateness. Also, there are obviously broader contexts that merit more detailed investigation in further research, even with the use of multiple methodologies. Experiencing social isolation is a specific phenomenon, dependent on many factors. Each adolescent is unique and so is his/her experience. We have tried to outline possible directions and areas of influence of social isolation on the process of radicalisation of adolescents. Adolescence represents a complicated and turbulent developmental period. It is in the interest of all of us, of the whole society, to take care of the well-being of adolescents. There is no doubt that social isolation undermines adolescents' well-being, so helping professionals should be able to identify adolescents prone to social isolation and then select and apply appropriate interventions (e.g. providing counselling, social support, creating space for the emergence and progression of interactions that reduce feelings of alienation, creating a positive school atmosphere, etc.). It is our task to take proactive steps in favour of adolescents that will also lead to alleviating social isolation and developing socially inclusive relationships among adolescents. The process of radicalisation is complex and depends on many factors, of which social isolation can be one. However, it does not necessarily lead to radicalisation. The overall context needs to be considered. Preventive approaches that target all the groups are generally not effective. Large-scale media campaigns are not successful. Particularly in the adolescent group, the attractiveness and timeliness of the communication channel needs to be considered. Prevention objectives at different levels should be different and adapted to the target group of adolescents (considering, for example, gender specificities, or the type of social or another disadvantage). The right choice of place for the implementation of prevention activities is also important (in school, outside school, in the online space...). Examples of good practice from other countries can certainly be inspiring, but their use needs to be adapted to the local context. Preventing radicalisation and promoting deradicalisation will probably only be achieved by in-depth insights into the causes and trajectories of the radicalisation process, followed by tailored and effective prevention methods. This should undoubtedly include strengthening appropriate social interactions, promoting adolescent health in the broadest possible context, and education aimed at critical thinking and resilience to extremism, ideally using participatory processes involving adolescents themselves.

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••• CONCLUSION •••

The presented monograph aims to familiarize the reader with the issue of radicalization and its process within the target group of adolescents. Adolescents, in particular, appear to be a high-risk group for adopting unverified opinions, new theories, and even values and behavior patterns. This is to some extent naturally conditioned by the developmental period they are in. Adolescence represents a time full of changes, a phase of gaining independence, searching for one's identity, and seeking intimacy and spirituality. However, it is also a period of uncertainty, fear of acceptance by others, and despite distancing from the primary family, a time when the desire for support from close ones remains strong. These are precisely the reasons why the developmental period of adolescence is considered particularly risky in the context of radicalization.

As experts in the field of social work, in examining the process of radicalization in adolescence, we focused on factors that could be corrected through social work intervention. We viewed the factors from the perspective of the push-pull theory. In the end, we tried to categorize the factors into those that attract adolescents to radicalization – pull factors; and those that push them towards radicalization from their environment – push factors. For the study, we selected certain social and family factors. In terms of family factors, these included risk factors in the family, family typology, and positive relationships with parents. From the social factors, we chose social isolation and the type of relationship attachment. We relied on findings from other countries where these factors are shown to be significant and influencing the process of radicalization in young people. It turned out that not all factors play the expected role in the process of radicalization among young people in Slovakia.

In terms of family factors, we identified positive relationships with parents, spending leisure time together, trust, and adherence to norms in the family as pull factors. However, we consider support for radicalization in the family as a key factor, which obtained an average score of 2.676 on a scale of 1-5 with the verbalization not reflecting me at all – completely reflecting me and strongly correlated with the level of radicalization. We explained the relationships between family factors, which should act protectively, and radicalization through current social events in Slovakia and the overall growing orientation towards radical attitudes in the country. This situation is reflected in the transgenerational transmission of views, attitudes, and behaviour in otherwise functional families.

As a push factor, an insecure relationship attachment, specifically preoccupied attachment, was generated. This attachment represents a type of relationship that a person is interested in but constantly wonders if they are good enough for this relationship, creating uncertainty in this relationship attachment. If an insecure relationship attachment is present in the relationship with parents or with a peer group, it can serve as a push factor for radicalization – pushing the adolescent away from their social environment towards radicalized groups.

The monograph is divided into four parts. The chapter on radicalization is introductory and explains radicalization and its process, primarily in the adolescent period. The chapter on research design describes the chosen research methods, tools, and the research sample. The results are presented along with the theoretical background and interpretation in individual chapters on specific studied factors.

The insights and findings presented in this monograph suggest directions for further empirical efforts to thoroughly understand the process of radicalization in high-risk target groups, among which adolescents are clearly included. The factors identified in this monograph are focused on the primary social groups to which adolescents belong and individual social factors. However, as the authors of this monograph, we also recognize the research potential in identifying the influence of secondary social groups, school and peer environments, larger social entities, communities,

as well as the overall socio-social climate. We perceive that the process of radicalization can be viewed significantly from an interdisciplinary perspective, and therefore subsequent studies could adopt this dimension. It is equally possible to address this topic in terms of consequences, not only at the level of specific violent acts but also in terms of the impacts on social groups and the global consequences for society as a whole.

Despite the significant empirical impact of the research results presented in this monograph, we perceive them as having practical potential for helping professionals, particularly social workers, who may play a key role. When working with families, whether in the context of child social and legal protection, addressing educational and social issues of children and families, or other areas of social work practice, it is crucial to consider the family environment anamnestically and identify tendencies towards antisocial behavior at this level, where preventive measures can be most effectively implemented. We also find it important to mention the practice of deradicalization, which in many countries is carried out by social workers in collaboration with other helping professions. This practice is based on thorough work with individuals, families, as well as communities and peer groups. From our perspective, the results presented in this monograph indicate the necessity of such work by social workers, as the individual tendencies towards radical opinions and the strength of various factors are clearly evident from the presented findings.

As the authors of this publication, we express our confidence that the obtained results will contribute to the field of helping professions – researchers to expand knowledge and indicate possible directions for further studies; professionals in creating and implementing preventive and intervention measures and policies.

Soňa Lovašová, Editor

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