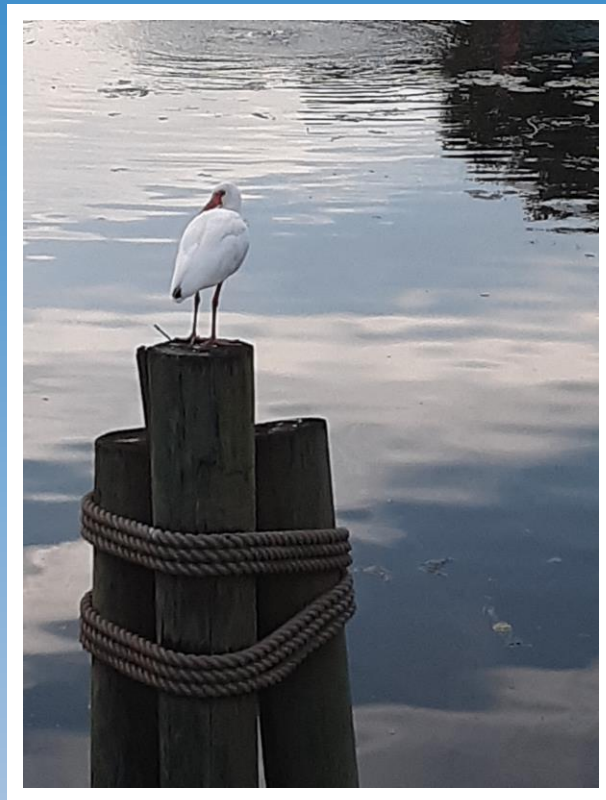


Volume 10 ♦ Issue 2 ♦ Summer 2020

eHearsay



Spelling, Supervision & Sarcasm



TABLE OF CONTENTS

<i>Who we are: OSLHA and eHearsay</i>	2
<i>In this Issue</i>	3
<i>Clinical Focus:</i>	
<i>SLPs, Teachers, and Spelling: Current Knowledge, Practices, and Beliefs</i> Emily Ciesielski, Lesley Raisor-Becker, & Nancy A. Creaghead	4
<i>Visionary Supervision</i> Amy Vaughn, Amy Tepper, & Charlie Hughes	23
<i>Sarcastic Kids are my Favorite: A case study for sarcasm intervention</i> Leah Beekman & Angela Ciccio	32
<i>Issues in Human Trafficking:</i>	
<i>Critical Linkages: Opiate Addiction and Elevated Risk of Human Trafficking</i> Amy Thompson, Joan Duggan, & Jamie Dowling	46
<i>Potential Indicators of Human Trafficking within Migrant Farmworker Communities in Western Michigan</i> Jeremy S. Norwood	53
<i>CEU Questions (directions & worksheet for earning online CEU's)</i>	71
<i>Guidelines for Submission to eHearsay</i>	74
<i>Open Call for Papers</i>	75
<i>In the Next Issue</i>	76

Ohio Speech-Language-Hearing Association (OSLHA)

MISSION:

Empowering our members by providing opportunities for professional development, advocacy, and leadership development necessary to foster excellence in the services provided to individuals with communication and related disorders.

HISTORY:

Founded in 1945, the Ohio Speech-Language-Hearing Association (OSLHA) is a professional association representing speech-language pathologists and audiologists throughout Ohio. OSLHA is recognized by the national American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) as the official professional organization for Ohio. OSLHA members provide services for the evaluation and rehabilitation of communicative disorders. Members work in a variety of settings including; clinics, health care facilities, hospitals, private practice, schools, and universities. Members must abide by the OSLHA Code of Ethics.



eHearsay: Statement of Purpose

eHearsay, the electronic journal of the Ohio Speech- Language- Hearing Association, is designed to address the professional development needs of the state association.

Issues are developed around specific themes and can include invited papers, research articles, review, tutorial, research forum, letter to the editor, clinical focus/forum or viewpoints.

eHearsay is published as a web journal annually. Continuing education credits will be available for each issue.

STAFF

Journal Editor:

Laurie M. Sheehy

Issue Editor:

Laurie M. Sheehy

Vice President of Continuing Education:

Colleen F. Visconti (outgoing)

Jennifer Brello (incoming)

OSLHA Association Manager:

Chelsea Bailey

Editorial Review Board:

Sandi Grether

Susan Grogan Johnson

Peer Reviewers:

Jamie Dowling

Kelly Farquharson

Monica Gordon-Pershey

Matt Hall

Marianne LaRosa

Christie Needham

Denise Rogers

Laura Schrock

OSLHA Executive Council:

President: Carol Hofbauer

Vice President/President Elect: Katie Bochi

Past President: Laurie Sheehy

Secretary: Laura Schrock

Treasurer: Amy Vaughn

Ohio Speech-Language-Hearing Association (OSLHA)

PO BOX 309

Germantown, OH 45327

Phone: 937.855.4337

Fax: 937.855.4338

Toll Free: 1.800.866.OSHA

Email: oslhaoffice@ohioslha.org

In this Issue:

Spelling, Supervision & Sarcasm

This issue is a diverse one with no overarching theme. The first three articles focus on spelling, supervision and sarcasm.

Speech-language pathologists (SLP) should play an active role in literacy and language, especially when it comes to spelling. Spelling is critical and is interconnected to all other features of language (morphology, syntax, phonemes and semantics). Improvements of a child's spelling skills can have a positive impact on other areas of language and literacy, which contributes to better therapy outcomes. The school based SLP is an integral member of the school faculty working to accomplish performance standards that reflects the student's mastery of language. Emily Ciesielski, Lesley Raisor-Becker and Nancy Creaghead report on a study to investigate SLP and teachers' knowledge of spelling's linguistic underpinnings. They found a discrepancy in linguistic knowledge that can impact the SLPs (or teachers) competency.

Clinical supervision is a distinct area of expertise and practice. Professionals must receive education to gain competence before engaging in the activity and they should continue to maintain that competence through additional training. The article by Amy Vaughn, Amy Tepper and Charlie Hughes provides information regarding various models of supervision. They also describe specific ways for readers to advance their comprehension and knowledge of supervision to better serve the person they are supervising.

Leah Beekman and Angela Ciccia discussing the benefits of explicit training in sarcasm. Sarcasm is an ironic or satirical remark tempered by humor. Children with language disorders can exhibit difficulty understanding the extralinguistic markers (e.g., tone of voice, facial expressions). Beekman and Ciccia developed an intervention that explicitly teaches children how to identify and respond to sarcastic interactions. The results of the study demonstrated not only an increase in the student's ability to identify and appropriately respond to sarcasm, but also in the student's ability to define the other forms of ambiguous language.

The last two articles focus on human trafficking. The empowerment of workers and protecting their rights is a fundamental part of the fight against human trafficking. Jeremy Norwood discussed potential indicators of human trafficking within migrant farmworker communities. Migrant workers across our nation are targets of human trafficking and forced labor due to worker rights violations, lack of labor standards and worker protections (e.g., wage/hour fraud, unsafe working conditions, substandard housing, and the potential for illegal recruitment fees). There is also pressure on migrant workers to remain silent. They have impoverished families, who they have to provide for and others who won't complain can easily replace the migrant workers. Some of the employers count on the fact that most of us ignore the visitors among us. Authors Amy Thompson, Joan Duggan and Jamie Dowling also discussed how opiate addictions can lead to an increase the risk of human trafficking. Addition is a powerful hook that human traffickers utilize to coerce, manipulate and exploit their victims.

Thank you for taking time to read OSLHA's eHearsay. We know that with the international public health crises (e.g., coronavirus pandemic, police brutality, social inequalities, and tragedies affecting our black communities) you have a lot to handle. OSLHA recognizes the value and importance of diversity as well as equity, justice and dignitary of life. OSLHA remains committed against racism, injustice, oppression and discrimination in all forms (including but not limited to age, disability, ethnicity, gender, marital status, national origin, physical features, race, religion, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status).

SLPs, Teachers, and Spelling: Current Knowledge, Practices, and Beliefs

Emily Ciesielski, Lesley Raisor-Becker, & Nancy A. Creaghead

Abstract

Purpose: The purpose of this study was to investigate speech-language pathologists (SLP) and teachers' knowledge of spelling's linguistic underpinnings, current practices and beliefs.

Method: We surveyed four groups of educators including SLPs and teachers, with and without a special interest in spelling. The general interest groups of teachers ($n = 20$) and SLPs ($n = 61$), were recruited via the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association and social media. The special interest groups of teachers ($n = 20$) and SLPs-S ($n = 42$), were members of the spelling-related listserv, and SPELLTalk. Participants were asked how often they engaged in spelling related activities, to rate their confidence in teaching various linguistic skills, and to complete a knowledge assessment.

Results: The teachers with a general interest in spelling scored significantly lower than all other groups on the spelling knowledge assessment, but there was not a significant difference between the SLPs and teachers with a special interest. Teachers with a general interest in spelling rated themselves significantly less confident in teaching the linguistic underpinnings yet were confident in teaching spelling. The frequency of engaging in spelling activities did not correlate well with either knowledge or confidence.

Conclusions: The implications of the discrepancy in linguistic knowledge and confidence for teachers with a general interest are considered. Findings are discussed in relationship to the importance of knowledge and confidence in teaching efficacy.

Emily J.M. Ciesielski M.S. is a doctoral candidate at University of Cincinnati.

Financial – Owns private practice Language & Literacy Connections in Mason Ohio where she works part time while completing her doctorate.

Nonfinancial – No relevant nonfinancial relationship exists.

Lesley Raisor-Becker Ph.D. is employed by the University of Cincinnati.

Financial – Is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Communication Sciences & Disorder at the University of Cincinnati as a researcher, educator and practicing clinician specializing in the language and literacy development of infants, toddlers, and preschoolers.

Nonfinancial – No relevant nonfinancial relationship exists.

Nancy A. Creaghead Ph.D. is employed at the University of Cincinnati.

Financial – is a Professor in the Department of Communication Sciences & Disorder at the University of Cincinnati.

Nonfinancial – No relevant nonfinancial relationship exists.

Learning Objectives

- 1) List the linguistic skills that are involved in proficient spelling
- 2) Describe the importance of spelling
- 3) Explain why SLPs' involvement with spelling is important

Spelling is a key, but often underestimated, literacy skill. Accurate spelling allows for greater readability; whereas, poor spelling may provide the impression of a lower education level or a lack of intelligence (Moats, 2005). Beason (2001) found that the readers in his study perceived writers with spelling errors negatively, including as being hasty, careless, and uninformed. The National Commission on Writing: For America's Families, School and Colleges (National Commission on Writing, 2005) reported that a poorly written or misspelled job application is discarded 80% of the time.

Children are expected to learn to spell in school and to demonstrate this skill on spelling tests and in their writing. Proficient spelling has the potential to improve numerous academic skills, including reading. It is thought that when a child knows the spelling of a word, its mental representation is sturdy and accessible for fluent reading and writing (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005). Spelling instruction has repeatedly been shown to enhance reading skills (Conrad, 2008; Ehri & Wilce, 1987; Graham & Hebert, 2011; Graham & Santangelo, 2014), although reading instruction does not necessarily improve spelling (Shahar-Yames & Share, 2008). Specifically, in their meta-analysis, Graham and Hebert (2011) found that the reading fluency of typical learners in grades 1-7 and the word reading skills of typical students and weaker spellers in grades 1-5 improved following spelling instruction.

While proficient spelling can enhance a child's academic achievement, poor spelling has substantial potential negative consequences. Graham, Harris, and Hebert (2011) found that teachers graded papers with spelling errors more severely than those without spelling errors, even when controlling for other variables. Poor spelling can also interfere with the overall writing process due to the demands on a child's working memory during composition (Graham et al., 2011). The consequences of spelling difficulties in children may include avoidance of difficult-to-spell words, curtailment of other writing skills, or even a "failure" mindset in regard to writing (Berninger, Mizokawa, & Bragg, 1991; Berninger, 1999; Graham, Harris, & Chorzempa, 2002). While advances in technology have helped many of these students, notably, Montgomery, Karlan, and Coutinho (2001) found that spell check is not a reliable solution as poor spellers do not spell well enough to adequately use the technology; thus it corrected only 53% of a child's errors.

Even with the importance of spelling for academic success, it is rarely taught strategically in school. In a study by Graham et al. (2008), almost all teachers indicated that they teach spelling, but through direct observations. Foorman et al. (2006) showed that only 4-11% of the literacy block was actually devoted to spelling instruction in first and second grade classrooms. Even then, spelling "instruction" is typically limited to memorization of words through drill and practice for the traditional "Friday spelling test" (Schlagal, 2013).

Theoretical Models of Spelling Development

The concept that spelling is not taught, but "caught", either implicitly or through memorization is one of three models in which spelling is theorized to develop. The validity of this "sight word" model is challenged by the fact that we do not have to memorize the spelling of every word we come across in order to spell it correctly. A second model is that spelling develops in stages. For instance, an early emergent speller scribbles "words" on a page while a later emergent speller is able to write the beginning consonant of the word (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2008). An advantage of this model is that it allows teachers to evaluate the quality of the error and determine when it is developmentally appropriate to intervene (Reed, 2012). While some students' spelling errors line up consistently with this stage model (Young, 2007); it does not fully account for the interplay of the necessary linguistic skills. Current research suggests that spelling develops in a nonlinear manner with phonology, morphology and orthography interplaying throughout the process (e.g., Daffern, 2017; Richards et al., 2006). This third model denotes that the underlying linguistic skills are used by spellers of every age and development (Wolter, Stevens-Dominguez, & Oetter, 2009). Accurate spelling, therefore, relies more on the number of times a child comes into contact with the pattern than the age or stage of the child, helping to explain why children might correctly spell phonetically irregular words (e.g., great) early on (Foorman & Petscher, 2010).

Spelling, being a complex language skill, requires proficiency in several linguistic skills. If instructors are able to recognize the particular linguistic deficit revealed by a child's spelling error, they are able to more effectively and efficiently intervene. Linguistic-based spelling research is typically concerned with four main skill areas: phonological awareness, orthographical knowledge, morphological awareness, and semantics (Ehri, 2000; Treiman & Kessler, 2006). Phonological awareness is the ability to hear the individual sounds in a word. This skill is especially important when a child is first learning to spell and relying on sound-symbol correspondence to spell phonetically. Orthographical knowledge provides the rules for translating spoken language into written form (Apel, 2011). With strong orthographical knowledge, children know, at least implicitly, rules to improve their spelling. For instance, if a speller was asked to spell "cat", he or she would use orthographical knowledge and know that the word might start with a 'c' or a 'k', but not with 'ck' as that

letter combination does not occur at the beginning of words in English. Once a child has a clear and sturdy orthographical image of a word, it is said that they have developed a mental graphemic representation (MGR). These MGRs are what allow us to read quickly, “by sight.” The third skill, morphological awareness, allows writers to use morphemes, the smallest part of a word that contains meaning, to change the meaning of words (e.g., adding an “s” to a word indicating plurality). Finally, we use semantic knowledge to know if we have spelled the correct word. Semantic knowledge is used consistently when deciphering homophones such as “you’re” versus “your” (Masterson & Apel, 2010).

This complexity of strategic spelling intervention requires that instructors be knowledgeable about the linguistic components. Moats stated that “spelling will have to be taught by well-informed teachers” (Apel et al., 2000, p. 86). Teachers are the professionals traditionally responsible for spelling instruction, but they often do not have the necessary linguistic background provided in their training program (Moats, 2014). The linguistic knowledge intrinsic to spelling is a core component of speech-language pathologists’ (SLPs) training, and, therefore, SLPs may offer a substantial contribution to spelling instruction (Apel et al., 2000; Joshi et al., 2009; Moats, 2014; Treiman & Kessler, 2006). However, little research is available regarding current spelling instructional practices or the spelling-related linguistic knowledge of SLPs and teachers. Blood, Mamett, Gordon, and Blood (2010) surveyed 599 SLPs regarding their satisfaction with their education and confidence in their skills in regard to written language including, albeit briefly, spelling. They reported that SLPs rated both their knowledge and confidence in addressing spelling as substantially lower than their knowledge and confidence related to general language. Spencer, Schuele, Guillot, and Lee (2008) analyzed the phonological awareness skills (i.e., phoneme segmentation, phoneme identification, and phoneme isolation) of SLPs, classroom teachers, reading teachers, and special education teachers and found that the SLPs’ skill level was significantly higher than the other groups’ levels. Finally, Joshi et al. (2009) surveyed 78 college and university instructors of reading on their knowledge of language constructs. They found a lack of knowledge regarding several concepts, including phonological awareness, morphological awareness, and orthographical knowledge among those instructors of reading. Indeed, Moats and Lyon (1996) state that teachers have “insufficiently developed concepts about language and pervasive conceptual weaknesses in the very skills that are needed for direct, systematic, language-focused reading instruction” (p. 79). SLPs may be in the position to help support their colleagues, but we do not have enough information about either’s knowledge or current practices.

Given that teachers and SLPs are investing very little time in strategic spelling intervention despite the benefits (Foorman et al., 2006) and the importance of self-confidence, also known as self-efficacy in teaching effectiveness (Dembo & Gibson, 1985), the purpose of this study is to gain information regarding SLPs’ and teachers’ knowledge, confidence, and current instructional practices in spelling intervention. Specifically, this study was designed to explore the following research questions:

1. Do special- vs general-interest teachers and SLPs differ in:
 - a. their accuracy on a knowledge assessment regarding spelling’s linguistic underpinnings?
 - b. how they rate their confidence teaching spelling’s linguistic underpinnings?
 - c. how frequently they engage in spelling intervention?
 - d. how frequently they collaborate in the area of spelling?
2. Is there a relationship between:
 - a. a special- vs general-interest teacher’s/SLP’s accuracy on a knowledge assessment and their confidence in their ability to teach spelling’s linguistic underpinnings?
 - b. a special- vs general-interest teacher’s/SLP’s accuracy on a knowledge assessment and their frequency of involvement in spelling intervention?
 - c. a teacher’s/SLP’s confidence in their ability to teach spelling’s linguistic underpinnings and their frequency of involvement in spelling intervention?

Method

Survey

A 43-question survey was developed to obtain information regarding SLPs' and teachers' knowledge, confidence and participation in spelling intervention. The survey was adapted from previously used knowledge, confidence, and participation surveys in the fields of education/SLP (Blood et al., 2010; Plumb & Plexico, 2013). It consisted of two parts: 22 questions regarding demographic information, confidence, and training, and a 21-question spelling knowledge assessment (see appendix).

Participants

Human subjects approval was granted by a university Institutional Review Board, and a link to the web-based survey using the surveymonkey.com web platform was distributed via social media outlets and professional listservs. A total of 201 surveys were received. Specifically, 113 responses were received via survey links that were shared on the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association's (ASHA) Special Interest Group 1 (Language Learning and Education) discussion board, various Facebook groups, and personal communication. Additionally, 88 responses were received from a survey link that was shared via a "listserv discussion group for researchers, educators, and other professionals dedicated to improving literacy through discussion of research and evidence-based best practices for the assessment and teaching of spelling, reading, and writing" (SPELLTalk, n.d.).

Study participants included 143 respondents who identified themselves as a) regular education classroom teacher, b) special education classroom teacher (e.g., self-contained), c) special educator (e.g., resource room teacher), d) speech-language pathologist or e) other. Participants were asked to specify their profession if they had selected "other". Nineteen (19) respondents selected "other" and identified themselves as a reading specialist (including reading interventionist, reading teacher, dyslexia therapist, dyslexia practitioner, or private tutor).

Missing data.

Only fully completed surveys were used for analysis; therefore, if a respondent did not provide an answer for every question on the survey all of their data were excluded from the analysis. Thirty-one (31) respondents (13 teachers, 15 SLPs, and 3 "other") did not answer any of the knowledge assessment questions. Additionally, 11 respondents (5 teachers and 6 SLPs) discontinued the survey after the initial six knowledge questions. Data from a total of 143 respondents, 40 teachers and 103 SLPs, was analyzed.

Procedure

Data were downloaded from Survey Monkey into an Excel file and then coded into variables. For the purposes of coding, all respondents who identified as regular education, special education, or reading specialist were coded as teachers. All respondents who identified as an SLP, even if he or she identified as having an additional role (such as reading specialist or English Language Learner teacher) were coded as an SLP. Respondents who reported their professional role as administration, higher education, or other teachers (e.g., math or music teacher) were excluded from the analysis.

Results

As we were primarily interested in the differences between teachers and SLPs, we report only the comparisons of special interest (i.e., those participants involved in the SPELLTalk listserv) versus general interest (i.e., those participants who responded via social media) and teachers versus SLPs. For the purposes of this report, the four groups will be referred to in the following manner: teachers with a general interest (Teachers-G), SLPs with a general interest (SLPs-G), teachers with a special interest in spelling (Teachers-S), and SLPs with a special interest in spelling (SLPs-S).

Differences in Knowledge Assessment Scores

The differences between scores on the knowledge assessment were analyzed with a one-way, between-subjects ANOVA. Group membership was the independent variable with four groups of participants: Teachers-G, SLPs-G, Teachers-S, and SLPs-S. The number correct on the knowledge assessment was the dependent variable. Data were normally distributed for each group and void of severe outliers, as assessed by visual inspection. There was homogeneity

of variances, as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances ($p = .679$). There was a significant effect of group membership on knowledge assessment scores, $F(3, 139) = 28.88, p < .001$. Both groups of SLPs scored higher than Teachers-G but there was not a significant difference between SLPs-S and Teachers-S. Specifically, the mean differences between the knowledge assessment scores of Teachers-G compared to SLPs-G (5.96, 95% CI [3.54, 8.39], $p < .001$), Teachers-S (7.65, 95% CI [4.67, 10.63], $p < .001$) and SLPs-S (8.68, 95% CI [6.20, 11.17], $p < .001$) were statistically significant. Additionally, the mean difference between SLPs-G compared to SLPs-S (2.72, 95% CI [0.83, 4.61]) was statistically significant ($p = .001$), but the mean difference between the scores for SLPs-G compared to Teachers-S (1.69, 95% CI [0.74, 4.11], $p = .390$) and Teachers-S compared to SLPs-S (1.03, 95% CI [1.53, 3.59], $p = 1.000$) were not statistically significant. The means and standard deviations are provided in Table 1. The mean differences and significance for the post hoc testing are provided in Table 2.

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations for Knowledge Assessment Scores by Group Membership

Group	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Teachers- General Interest	20	7.20	3.04
SLPs- General Interest	61	13.16	3.69
Teachers- Special Interest	20	14.85	3.60
SLPs- Special Interest	42	15.88	3.42

Note. Maximum score possible = 21.

Table 2. Post Hoc Comparisons with Bonferroni Correction for Knowledge Assessment Scores by Group Membership

Group	Comparison Group	Mean Difference	<i>p</i>
Teachers- General Interest	SLPs- General Interest	-5.96	<.001
	Teachers- Special Interest	-7.65	<.001
	SLPs- Special Interest	-8.68	<.001
SLPs- General Interest	Teachers- General Interest	5.96	<.001
	Teachers- Special Interest	-1.69	.390
	SLPs- Special Interest	-2.72	.001
Teachers- Special Interest	Teachers- General Interest	7.65	<.001
	SLPs- General Interest	1.69	.390
	SLPs- Special Interest	-1.03	1.000
SLPs- Special Interest	Teachers- General Interest	8.68	<.001
	SLPs- General Interest	2.72	.001
	Teachers- Special Interest	1.03	1.000

Note. Differences that are statistically significant are bolded.

Differences in Confidence Levels

The confidence ratings for ability to teach phonological awareness, morphological awareness, orthographical awareness, semantics, and spelling were averaged across each respondent to determine an average confidence score. Kruskal-Wallis H tests were then used to determine if there was a difference among the confidence ratings for the averaged confidence score, the four separate linguistic underpinnings (phonological awareness, morphological awareness, orthographical awareness, and semantics), and for spelling across the four groups of participants. Distributions of most of the ability ratings were not similar as assessed by visual inspection of a boxplot; therefore, comparison of mean ranks was used rather than medians. A higher mean rank indicates a higher mean in comparison to other group means. Means, standard deviations, and test statistics are in Table 3. The mean ranks for the confidence in ability ratings of the four participant groups were all statistically significant. Subsequently, pairwise comparisons were performed using Dunn's (1964) procedure with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. Adjusted p -values are presented.

Averaged confidence. The difference between the mean ranks for the averaged confidence of the four participant groups was significant for Teachers-G (mean rank = 47.80) compared to SLPs-S (mean rank = 82.49) ($p = .012$), for Teachers-G compared to Teachers-S (mean rank = 95.50) ($p = .002$), and for SLPs-G (mean rank = 65.01) compared to Teachers-S ($p = .025$), indicating Teachers-G were less confident than both SLPs-S and Teachers-S and SLPs-G were less confident than Teachers-S. There were no significant differences between any other groups.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics and Kruskal-Wallis Test Results for Participants' Confidence in Teaching Linguistic Underpinnings

Linguistic Underpinning	Teacher-G		SLP-G		Teacher-S		SLP-S		Chi-square	df(n)	p
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Phonological awareness	3.25	1.16	3.93	0.86	4.40	0.68	4.26	0.80	18.14	3(143)	.001
Morphological awareness	2.65	1.31	3.75	0.93	3.85	0.81	3.98	0.84	17.23	3(143)	.001
Orthographical knowledge	2.30	1.34	2.69	1.15	3.80	1.15	3.14	1.34	16.50	3(143)	.001
Semantic	3.70	0.87	4.15	0.65	4.15	0.45	4.38	0.66	11.11	3(143)	.011
Spelling	3.10	0.97	2.56	1.18	4.05	1.00	3.19	1.19	23.06	3(143)	.001
Averaged confidence score	3.00	0.93	3.42	0.75	4.05	0.71	3.79	0.82	17.80	3(143)	.001

Note. The Likert scale ratings are: 1 = *Minimal*, 2 = *Moderate*, 3 = *Good*, 4 = *Very good*, and 5 = *Expert*. Averaged confidence score contains phonological awareness, morphological awareness, orthographical knowledge, and semantic scores.

Phonological awareness. The difference between the mean ranks for confidence in phonological awareness of the four participants groups was significant for Teachers-G (mean rank = 44.93) compared to Teachers-S (mean rank = 88.85; $p = .002$) and for Teachers-G compared to SLPs-S (mean rank = 83.36; $p = .001$), indicating Teachers-G were less confident than Teachers-S and SLPs-S. There were no significant differences between any other groups.

Morphological awareness. The difference between the mean ranks for confidence in morphological awareness of the four participant groups was significant for Teachers-G (mean rank = 39.68) compared to SLPs-G (mean rank = 74.25; $p = .003$), for Teachers-G compared to Teachers-S (mean rank = 76.15; $p = .017$), and for Teachers-G compared to SLPs-S (mean rank = 82.15; $p < .001$), indicating Teachers-G were less confident than SLPs-G, SLPs-S, and Teachers-S. There were no significant differences between any other groups.

Orthographical knowledge. The difference between the mean ranks for confidence in orthographical knowledge of the four participant groups was significant for Teachers-G (mean rank = 53.05) compared to Teachers-S (mean rank = 99.40; $p = .002$) and for SLPs-G (mean rank = 64.84) compared to Teachers-S ($p = .006$), indicating that Teachers-G were less confident than Teachers-S and SLPs-G were less confident than Teachers-S. There were no significant differences between any other groups.

Semantics. The difference between the mean ranks for confidence in semantics of the four participant groups was significant for Teachers-G (mean rank = 51.15) compared to SLPs-S (mean rank = 84.61; $p = .006$), indicating that Teachers-G were less confident than SLPs-S. There were no significant differences between any other groups.

Spelling. The difference between the mean ranks for confidence in spelling of the four participant groups was significant for SLPs-G (mean rank = 56.75) compared to Teachers-S (mean rank = 105.20; $p < .001$), indicating that SLPs-G were less confident than Teachers-S. There were no significant differences between any other groups.

Differences in Frequency of Spelling Instruction and Collaboration

A Kruskal-Wallis H test was used to determine if there was a difference among the frequency of engagement in spelling activities (i.e., intervention and collaboration) of the four groups of participants. Distributions of scores were not similar for all groups, as assessed by visual inspection of a boxplot; thus, mean ranks rather than medians were compared. Means, standard deviations, and test statistics are in Table 4. The mean ranks for the frequency of engagement ratings of the four participant groups were all statistically significant. Subsequently, pairwise comparisons were performed using Dunn's (1964) procedure with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. Adjusted p -values are presented.

Intervention. The difference between the mean ranks for frequency of engagement in spelling intervention of the four participant groups was significant for SLPs-G (mean rank = 49.21) compared to Teachers-S (mean rank = 110.15; $p < .013$). There were no significant differences between any other groups.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics and Kruskal-Wallis Test Results for Participants' Engagement in Spelling Activities

Engagement Activity	Teacher-G		SLPs-G		Teachers-S		SLPs-S		Chi-square	df(n)	p
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Teaching	3.70	1.53	2.18	1.80	4.85	0.37	3.76	1.38	42.06	3(143)	.001
Collaboration	1.21	1.54	1.11	1.32	2.30	1.53	1.76	1.51	12.95	3(143)	.005

Note. The Likert scale ratings are 0 = *Never*, 1 = *Less than once a month*, 2 = *Twice a month*, 3 = *Once a week*, 4 = *2-3 times per week*, and 5 = *Every day or nearly every day*.

Collaboration. The difference between the mean ranks for frequency of engagement in collaboration of the four participant groups was significant for Teachers-G (mean rank = 62.03) compared to SLPs-G (mean rank = 62.08; $p = .010$), for SLPs-G compared to SLPs-S (mean rank = 80.80; $p < .001$), and for SLPs-G compared to Teachers-S (mean rank = 93.75; $p < .001$). There were no significant differences between any other groups.

Relationship between Knowledge and Confidence Assessment

A Spearman's rank-order correlation was used to assess the relationship between the scores on the knowledge assessment and the averaged confidence ratings (composed of the ratings from the four separate linguistic underpinnings) for all four groups. There was a statistically significant, positive correlation between knowledge scores and the averaged confidence ratings for each group, however, the strength of correlation varied across groups. The SLPs-S ($r_s(40) = .359$, $p = .02$) had the weakest correlation while the Teachers-S ($r_s(18) = .650$, $p = .002$) had the strongest correlation. The correlation for Teachers-G was $r_s(18) = .558$, $p = .011$, while the correlation for SLPs-G was $r_s(59) = .388$, $p = .002$. The correlation between the knowledge assessment score and the averaged confidence ratings was weak-to-moderate for both groups of SLPs and moderate for Teachers-G. Teachers-S' knowledge assessment scores were moderately-to-strongly correlated with their averaged confidence ratings.

A Spearman's rank-order correlation was used to assess the relationship between the scores on the knowledge assessment and teaching confidence ratings in each linguistic area (i.e., phonological awareness, morphological awareness, orthographical awareness, semantics, and spelling) for all four groups. There was a statistically significant, positive correlation between confidence rating and knowledge score for most linguistic areas for all groups.

However, the correlation between knowledge score and confidence in teaching semantics was significant only for Teachers-S. There was a strong positive correlation between the knowledge score and confidence in teaching morphological awareness for both Teachers-G and Teachers-S, but the correlation was not significant for SLPs-G nor SLPs-S. In general, the correlations were the weakest for both SLP groups (i.e., SLPs-G and SLPs-S) and the strongest for the Teachers-S. The knowledge assessment scores for both teacher groups (Teachers-G and Teachers-S) were moderately correlated with the confidence rating for every linguistic area with the exception of semantics, which was not statistically significant for Teachers-G. Both SLP groups' knowledge assessment scores were weakly correlated with their confidence ratings in phonological awareness and orthographical awareness and were not statistically significant for morphological awareness or semantics. The correlation between the knowledge assessment scores and the confidence rating for spelling were weakly-to-moderately correlated in both SLP groups. See Table 5 for detailed information.

Table 5. Correlations of confidence ratings, frequency of teaching spelling, and knowledge assessment score

Measure	Teachers								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Phonological awareness	—	0.57**	0.78**	0.55*	0.86**	0.85**	0.08	0.42	0.50*
2. Morphological awareness	0.63**	—	0.65**	0.68**	0.80**	0.64**	0.12	0.17	0.54*
3. Orthographical awareness	0.75**	0.87**	—	0.41	0.93**	0.91**	0.14	0.61**	0.60**
4. Semantics	0.30	0.45*	0.39	—	0.64**	0.50*	0.12	0.26	0.54*
5. Averaged confidence	0.87**	0.84**	0.93**	0.54*	—	0.95**	0.07	0.49*	0.65**
6. Spelling	0.77**	0.43	0.57**	0.58**	0.79**	—	0.12	0.60**	0.57**
7. Teaching frequency	0.56*	0.09	0.14	0.09	0.30	0.35	—	0.47*	0.10
8. Collaboration frequency	0.44	0.43	0.38	0.40	0.47*	0.51*	0.30	—	0.42
9. Knowledge score	0.49*	0.59**	0.48*	0.30	0.56*	0.46*	0.09	0.65**	—

Measure	SLPs								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Phonological awareness	—	0.68**	0.72**	0.56**	0.84**	0.66**	0.59**	0.20	0.33*
2. Morphological awareness	0.76**	—	0.61**	0.66**	0.80**	0.62**	0.36*	0.30	0.10
3. Orthographical awareness	0.52**	0.42**	—	0.47**	0.92**	0.85**	0.71**	0.36*	0.35*
4. Semantics	0.54**	0.59**	0.23	—	0.66**	0.46**	0.28	0.31*	0.20
5. Averaged confidence	0.87**	0.77**	0.79**	0.60**	—	0.91**	0.67**	0.39*	0.36*
6. Spelling	0.68**	0.48**	0.71**	0.35**	0.86**	—	0.65**	0.37*	0.39*
7. Teaching frequency	0.39**	0.15	0.34**	0.09	0.45**	0.61**	—	0.52**	0.22
8. Collaboration frequency	0.26*	0.11	0.47**	0.11	0.38**	0.40**	0.55**	—	0.24
9. Knowledge score	0.34**	0.24	0.31**	0.42	0.39**	0.38**	0.33**	0.13	—

Note. Correlations for special interest groups are presented above the diagonal, and correlations for general interest groups are presented below the diagonal. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Relationship between Knowledge Assessment and Frequency of Spelling Instruction

Using a 5-point Likert scale, participants were asked to indicate how often they addressed spelling with their students and how often they collaborated with other professionals regarding spelling. Participants indicating that they addressed spelling with students or collaborated with others regarding spelling either "two or three times per week" or "every day or nearly every day" were considered to practice spelling frequently. Frequency counts and percentages are provided in Table 6.

A Spearman's rank-order correlation was used to assess the relationship between frequency of involvement in spelling intervention and the score on the knowledge assessment for all four groups. The only statistically significant correlation between frequency of spelling involvement and knowledge score was for the SLPs-G group, which had a weak correlation ($r_s(59) = .334, p = .008$).

Relationship between Confidence and Frequency of Spelling Instruction

A Spearman's rank-order correlation was used to assess the relationship between the participant's averaged rating of confidence in teaching and frequency of engagement in spelling intervention for all four groups. The correlations were statistically significant for both of the SLP groups, but were not significant for either of the teacher groups. The correlation for SLPs-G was moderate ($r_s(59) = .454, p < .001$) and the correlation for SLPs-S was moderate-to-strong ($r_s(40) = .666, p < .001$). The correlation for Teachers-G was $r_s(18) = .295, p = .207$, while the correlation for Teachers-S was $r_s(18) = .073, p = .758$.

Discussion

The importance and linguistic nature of spelling has been recognized in the literature (e.g., Berninger et al., 1991; Graham & Santangelo, 2014; Moats, 2005), but has not yet seemingly gained recognition in the schools (Graham et al., 2008). Spelling experts have repeatedly stated that those tasked with the role of teaching spelling need to be well-versed in the area of language (Moats, 2014; Moats & Lyon, 1996). Our results do not indicate that this goal has been achieved.

Table 6. Percentages and Descriptive Statistics of Frequency Ratings by Group

Teaching spelling								
Frequency	General Interest				Special Interest			
	Teachers		SLPs		Teachers		SLPs	
	<i>n</i> = 20		<i>n</i> = 61		<i>n</i> = 20		<i>n</i> = 42	
	<i>M</i> = 3.70 <i>SD</i> = 1.53		<i>M</i> = 2.18 <i>SD</i> = 1.80		<i>M</i> = 4.85 <i>SD</i> = 0.37		<i>M</i> = 3.76 <i>SD</i> = 1.39	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Never	0	0	11	18	0	0	0	0
1 time per month	3	15	20	33	0	0	4	10
2 times per month	2	10	6	10	0	0	5	12
Once a week	2	10	6	10	0	0	6	14
2 or 3 times per week	4	20	7	11	3	15	9	21
Every day	9	45	11	18	17	85	18	43

Collaborating regarding spelling								
Frequency	General Interest				Special Interest			
	Teachers		SLPs		Teachers		SLPs	
	<i>n</i> = 20		<i>n</i> = 61		<i>n</i> = 20		<i>n</i> = 42	
	<i>M</i> = 1.20 <i>SD</i> = 1.54		<i>M</i> = 1.11 <i>SD</i> = 1.32		<i>M</i> = 2.30 <i>SD</i> = 1.53		<i>M</i> = 1.76 <i>SD</i> = 1.51	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Never	10	50	26	43	3	15	8	19
1 time per month	3	15	19	31	4	20	17	40
2 times per month	3	15	5	8	2	10	3	7
Once a week	2	10	5	8	8	40	8	19
2 or 3 times per week	1	5	6	10	1	5	3	7
Every day	1	5	0	0	2	10	3	7

In this study, we compared four groups of educators: teachers' and SLPs' who showed a special interest in spelling (i.e., those that were a part of the spelling-related discussion group, SPELLTalk) and teachers and SLPs who did not necessarily have a special interest in spelling (i.e., those that were recruited from social media). We considered their score on a spelling-related assessment, their confidence in teaching the linguistic skills needed for spelling, and their engagement in spelling activities. We found substantial differences between groups on the knowledge assessment and confidence ratings, but these did not reflect their degree of involvement in spelling instructional activities.

Knowledge

Both groups with a special interest in spelling (Teachers-S and SLPs-S) scored the highest on the knowledge assessment, while the SLPs-G group scored lower than the SLPs-S, their scores were not statistically different from the Teachers-S. In contrast, the Teachers-G scored about half as well as any of the other groups. Moats (2010) states that SLPs are "expected to study the forms and functions of language, but teachers often are not held to that same expectation. Many teacher education programs give short shrift to the particulars of language structure and how children learn it" (p. 2). Given that both groups of SLPs scored higher than the Teachers-G group, our findings support this statement. There was, however, a statistically significant difference between the two SLP groups. While our findings support Moats' (2010) claim that SLP training programs provide a level of linguistic knowledge that teacher training programs do not, it also indicates that the specific linguistic underpinnings for spelling may be specialized and need to be either learned explicitly or reviewed consistently.

The two groups of SLPs may have started their professional careers with the same expertise but clearly the SLPs-S have additional knowledge in the area of spelling's linguistic underpinnings. Unfortunately, the design of our study does not allow us to determine whether the SLPs-S group gained knowledge through professional development or if the SLPs-G group 'lost' knowledge through lack of use. Notably, there was not a significant difference between the scores on the

knowledge assessment for the Teachers-S and SLPs-S groups, likely indicating that teachers with a special interest in spelling may have engaged in substantial professional development after their teacher training program challenging Schlagal's (2013) statement that "not all teachers have the foundational knowledge nor the means to acquire it" (p. 272).

Confidence

Confidence, also known as self-efficacy in the psychology literature, is defined as a person's judgment of their capabilities; what one can attain with the skills they currently possess (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy is a well-documented, important component of effective teaching (Swackhamer, Koellner, Basile, & Kimbrough, 2009) and has been positively linked to student achievement (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998).

Individuals with a special interest in spelling, whether teacher or SLP, were comparable in how they rated themselves in their ability to teach these linguistic underpinnings; there were no statistically significant differences between the confidence ratings of the Teachers-S and the SLPs-S. The Teachers-G group, however, reported significantly less confidence, especially when compared to the Teachers-S group, rating themselves lower than Teachers-S in all but one underpinning. Notably, even though the Teachers-G group rated themselves significantly less confident on spelling's strongest linguistic underpinnings (i.e., phonological awareness, morphological awareness, and orthographical knowledge), there was not a significant difference in confidence level for teaching spelling between Teachers-G and SLPs-G, Teachers-S, nor SLPs-S. This supports the notion that Teachers-G may not view spelling as a linguistic endeavor but rather a task for memorization (Schlagal, 2013) and; therefore, did not consider their knowledge of the linguistic underpinnings as important factors in their ability to teach spelling. In their survey of primary-school teachers, Graham et al. (2008) found that at least two of every three teachers reported using procedures to teach spelling that relied on memorization and generalization (e.g., phonics, teaching spelling strategies and rules). They also reported that a surprising number of teachers made few or no adaptation for poor spellers. Graham et al. (2008) hypothesized that a possible reason for this is that the teachers' lack of confidence in their knowledge of orthography made it difficult for them to be able to modify how they taught spelling.

Interestingly, the only significant difference in confidence ratings for teaching spelling was between the group reporting the lowest levels of confidence, the SLPs-G, and the group reporting the highest levels of confidence, the Teachers-S. This finding was not expected given the results of the knowledge assessment scores, as SLPs-G scored significantly better than Teachers-G and *not* significantly different than Teachers-S. Additional research should be undertaken to investigate reasons for this lack of confidence as well as strategies to address it in order to ensure that SLPs are confident enough in their skills to engage in spelling intervention and collaborate with their teacher colleagues.

Frequency of engagement

Not surprisingly, teachers reported engaging in spelling instruction much more frequently than SLPs. The largest percentage of respondents in both the Teachers-G and Teachers-S groups reported working on spelling every day (45% and 85% respectively), while the number of teachers engaging in spelling instruction at least twice a week, rises to 65% (Teachers-G) and 100% (Teachers-S). This is similar to Graham's (2008) findings in which 98% of the surveyed primary-school teachers reported teaching spelling. The amount of time those teachers spent teaching spelling (Graham et al., 2008) varied drastically, however, from 2 minutes up to an average of 90 minutes per week.

SLPs, on the other hand, reported much less frequent engagement in spelling instruction. In fact, the only individuals to report never engaging in spelling instruction were in the SLPs-G group, and about one-fifth (18%) of them did so. Over half (51%) of the SLPs-G reported infrequently (i.e., once a month or less) engaging in spelling instruction; whereas only 15% of the Teachers-G, 10% of the SLPs-S, and 0% of Teachers-S reported that little engagement. ASHA's position statement from nearly 20 years ago states that SLPs have "a critical and direct role in the development of literacy" that should be "implemented in collaboration with others" (ASHA, 2001); however, their most recent Schools Survey indicates that only about 30% of SLPs regularly serve clients with reading and writing disorders (ASHA, 2018). The percentage of SLPs intervening in spelling specifically is presumably much lower considering our findings.

Many sources, including ASHA, have stated that SLPs should be involved in spelling instruction (ASHA, 2001; Apel et al., 2000; Moats, 2010). Unfortunately, our results have shown that while SLPs have greater linguistic knowledge than a typical teacher, few are actively engaging in spelling instruction. Interestingly though, just as many (18%) of the SLPs-G group reported that they engaged in teaching spelling every day as reported that they never taught spelling. This finding should be investigated further to ensure its validity as well as obtain a better picture of the engagement of SLPs in spelling instruction.

Frequency of collaboration

While the positive impact of collaboration on student achievement has been shown repeatedly (Amponsah, Kotoka, Beccles, & Dlamini, 2018; Ismail, Muhammad, Kanesan, & Yaacob, 2018), our findings indicate that SLPs do not appear to be a resource for teachers. Essentially half of individuals with only a general interest in spelling (i.e., 43% of SLPs-G and 50% of Teachers-G) reported never collaborating with others regarding spelling. An additional 30% reported doing so only once or twice a month (i.e., 39% of SLPs-G and 30% of Teachers-G). This study has supported the observation that SLPs are afforded a deeper linguistic background (Moats, 2014; Moats & Lyon, 1996), but has indicated that SLPs and teachers with just a general interest in spelling are not engaging in useful collaboration on a regular basis. Akiba and Liang (2016) found that teacher collaboration and informal communication was more effective in improving student achievement than other more formal learning opportunities such as professional development programs or university courses. As SLPs, we need to reach out to our teacher colleagues and share our knowledge. Spelling is simply too valuable a tool not to be maximized.

Fortunately, more frequent collaboration was reported in individuals that have a special interest in spelling; 40% of the Teachers-S and 19% of the SLPs-S reported collaborating once a week on spelling. Approximately 15% of both of these groups reported collaborating at least two to three times a week. While the rate of collaboration in teachers and SLPs with a special interest in spelling is better than for those with a general interest, there is considerable room for improvement. Given that twice as many Teachers-S than SLPs-S are collaborating on a weekly basis, it is logical to presume that teachers are often, or even usually, collaborating with professionals other than SLPs. Collaboration provides an increased number of solutions and wider brainstorming opportunities (Welch, 1998) and stands to improve both disciplines. However, collaboration can also be time-consuming, conflict-ridden, and lack a therapeutic focus (Ehren, 2000; Welch, 1998). More research is needed to learn about the barriers preventing SLPs from collaborating with teachers regarding spelling as well as ways to reduce or eliminate them.

Relationships between knowledge, confidence, and spelling

The correlations, or relationships, between the knowledge assessment scores, confidence ratings, frequency of teaching spelling and frequency of collaborating about spelling allude to an interesting picture of what is happening in our schools. In general, teachers' knowledge scores were moderately correlated with their confidence ratings while SLPs knowledge scores and confidence ratings were either weakly correlated (i.e., phonological awareness, orthographical awareness, spelling) or not statistically significant (i.e., morphological awareness, semantics). It is interesting to note that both professional groups' (teachers vs. SLPs) pattern of relationships between knowledge and confidence were very similar. This may indicate a stronger identity of profession (teacher vs SLP) than interest (general vs. special interest in spelling).

The relationship between frequency of teaching spelling and confidence did not reach statistical significance in the majority of areas for either group of teachers, but the opposite pattern arose for both groups of SLPs, with the majority of relationships being statistically significant. This finding may reflect the flexibility each profession has in what they practice. Classroom teachers' practice is strongly dictated by district-adopted curriculums and standards. Depending on their grade level and subject area, they may be required to teach spelling. In contrast, SLPs may have greater flexibility in what academic content they address and which interventions they choose. Thus, they may focus on those areas where they feel most confident.

Limitations

This study has a number of limitations that need to be considered. First, participants whose responses received from Facebook or ASHA Community sites may have also been involved with the SPELLTalk community. However, the differences between the two groups were significant, and obtaining responses via Facebook or ASHA community from individuals involved with SPELLTalk would seemingly only lessen the difference between the two. Second, the survey, including the knowledge assessment, was written by and tested on SLPs. This may have favored SLPs in terms of vocabulary usage and how items were worded. Finally, there was a substantial difference in the number of teacher vs. SLP respondents which can lead to unequal variances between samples, necessitating the need for non-parametric statistics.

Implications

In this study, we sought to determine if a teacher's or SLP's demonstrated knowledge reflected their reported confidence and if that knowledge or confidence affected how often they engaged in spelling activities. We found that their knowledge did predict their confidence but neither knowledge nor confidence predicted frequency of teaching very well. Just as educators need sufficient knowledge to provide effective phonemic awareness instruction (Spencer et al., 2008), educators need sufficient linguistic knowledge to provide effective spelling instruction. Further, confidence has been shown to improve an educator's effectiveness as well as student achievement (Swackhamer et al., 2009; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Our results indicate, however, that neither knowledge nor confidence are driving who is teaching spelling in our schools today, especially for teachers. Neither the correlation between knowledge and frequency of teaching spelling nor the correlation between confidence and frequency of teaching spelling reached significance for either group of teachers. Our findings suggest that teachers are responsible for teaching spelling whether or not they have the linguistic knowledge or confidence to do so. Unsurprisingly, given that most SLPs spend the majority of their time providing service through an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) rather than a required class curriculum, SLPs showed a much greater correlation between confidence and frequency of teaching spelling. Our findings seem to indicate greater flexibility regarding engagement in spelling instruction on the part of SLPs and, understandably, little flexibility for teachers.

In their qualitative study, Ukrainetz and Fresquez (2003) found that generally SLPs were responsible for the 'speaking and listening' components of language; whereas, teachers were responsible for the 'reading and writing' components. However, they also found that there was some overlap and uncertainty in roles. Our role as SLPs in the schools has grown considerably (ASHA, 2001). As we continue to grow and evolve as a profession, we need to ensure that we are working closely with our teacher colleagues such that we complement each other's strengths and weaknesses.

While a thorough analysis of professional development is outside of the scope of this article, the topic is worthy of discussion and further research. Our results indicate that SLPs and teachers with a special interest in spelling have likely undertaken professional development. Further, while the differences in confidence, or self-efficacy, were not statistically significant between SLP groups, they were significant between teacher groups for the three strongest linguistic underpinnings (i.e., phonological awareness, morphological awareness, and orthographical knowledge). Burnout is a very real problem in the education field for both SLPs and teachers (ASHA, n.d; Edgar & Rosa-Lugo, 2007; Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998) and may be due to a lack of professional self-efficacy (Friedman, 2000). Friedman (2000) reports that "In-service training for all kinds of professionals has proved to be a potent means of reducing stress and burnout" (Friedman, 2000, p. 602). Further research is needed to examine the role professional development may play on confidence in teachers and SLPs. ♦

Author Correspondence:

Emily J.M. Ciesielski
Email: ciesieej@mail.uc.edu

References

- Akiba, M., & Liang, G. (2016). Effects of teacher professional learning activities on student achievement growth. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 109(1), 99-110.
- American Speech-Language-Hearing Association. (2001). *Roles and responsibilities of speech-language pathologists with respect to reading and writing in children and adolescents* [Position Statement].
- American Speech-Language-Hearing Association. (2018). *Schools survey. Survey summary report: Numbers and types of responses*, SLPs. Available from asha.org.
- American Speech-Language-Hearing Association. (n.d.). *Caseload and workload*. Available from asha.org.
- Amponsah, K. D., Kotoka, J. K., Beccles, C., & Dlamini, S. N. (2018). Effectiveness of collaboration on low and high achieving school students' comprehension of electrochemistry in South Africa. *European Journal of STEM Education*, 3(2).
- Apel, K. (2011). What is orthographic knowledge? *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 42, 592-603.
- Apel, K., Masterson, J. J., Lombardino, L. J., Ahmed, S. T., Moats, L. C., Pollock, K., . . . Bear, D. R. (2000). Opinion pieces: What is the role of the speech-language pathologist in assessing and facilitating spelling skills? *Topics in Language Disorders*, 20(3), 83-93.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Bear, D. R., Invernizzi, M., Templeton, S., & Johnston, F. (2008). *Words their way: Word study for phonics, vocabulary, and spelling instruction* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, LLC.
- Beason, L. (2001). Ethos and error: How business people react to errors. *College composition and communication*, 33-64.
- Berninger, V. W. (1999). Coordinating transcription and text generation in working memory during composing: Automatic and constructive processes. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 22(2), 99-112.
- Berninger, V. W., Mizokawa, D. T., & Bragg, R. (1991). Scientific practitioner. Theory-based diagnosis and remediation of writing disabilities. *Journal of School Psychology*, 29(1), 57-79.
- Blood, G. W., Mamett, C., Gordon, R., & Blood, I. M. (2010). Written language disorders: Speech language pathologists' training, knowledge and confidence. *Language Speech and Hearing Services in Schools*, 41, 32-161.
- Conrad, N. J. (2008). From reading to spelling and spelling to reading: Transfer goes both ways. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100, 869-878.
- Daffern, T. (2017). Linguistic skills involved in learning to spell: An Australian study. *Language and Education*, 31, 307-329.
- Dembo, M. H., & Gibson, S. (1985). Teachers' sense of efficacy: An important factor in school improvement. *The Elementary School Journal*, 86:2, 173-184.
- Edgar, D. L., & Rosa-Lugo, L. I. (2007). The critical shortage of speech-language pathologists in the public school setting: Features of the work environment that affect recruitment and retention. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools* 38(1), 31-46.
- Ehren, B. J. (2000). Maintaining a therapeutic focus and sharing responsibility for student success: Keys to in-classroom speech-language services. *Language, speech, and hearing services in schools*, 31(3), 219-229.
- Ehri, L. C. (2000). Learning to read and learning to spell: Two sides of a coin. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 20, 19-36.
- Ehri, L. C., & Wilce, L. S. (1987). Does learning to spell help beginners learn to read words? *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22(1), 47-65.
- Foorman, B. R., & Petscher, Y. (2010). Development of spelling and differential relations to text reading in grades 3-12. *Assessment for Effective Intervention*, 36, 7-20.
- Foorman, B. R., Schatschneider, C., Eakin, M. N., Fletcher, J. M., Moats, L. C., & Francis, D. J. (2006). The impact of instructional practices in grades 1 and 2 on reading and spelling achievement in high poverty schools. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 31, 1-29.
- Friedman, I. A. (2000). Burnout in teachers: Shattered dreams of impeccable professional performance. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 56(5), 595-606.
- Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & Hebert, M. (2011). It is more than just the message: Presentation effects in scoring writing. *Focus on Exceptional Children*, 44, 1-12.

- Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & Chorzempa, B. F. (2002). Contribution of spelling instruction to the spelling, writing, and reading of poor spellers. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 94*, 669-686. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.94.4.669
- Graham, S., & Hebert, M. (2011). Writing to read : A meta-analysis of the impact of writing and writing instruction on reading. *Harvard Educational Review, 81*(4), 710 - 744.
- Graham, S., Morphy, P., Harris, K. R., Fink-Chorzempa, B., Saddler, B., Moran, S., & Mason, L. (2008). Teaching spelling in the primary grades: A national survey of instructional practices and adaptations. *American Educational Research Journal, 45*, 796-825.
- Graham, S., & Santangelo, T. (2014). Does spelling instruction make students better spellers, readers, and writers? A meta-analytic review. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 27*, 1703-1743.
- Guglielmi, R. S., & Tatrow, K. (1998). Occupational stress, burnout, and health in teachers: A methodological and theoretical analysis. *Review of educational research, 68*(1), 61-99.
- Ismail, S. N., Muhammad, F., Kanesan, A. G., & Yaacob, A. (2018). Teacher collaboration as a mediator for strategic leadership and teaching quality. *International Journal of Instruction, 11*(4), 485-498.
- Joshi, R. M., Binks, E., Hougen, M., Dahlgren, M. E., Ocker-Dean, E., & Smith, D. L. (2009). Why elementary teachers might be inadequately prepared to teach reading. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 42*, 392-402.
- Masterson, J. J., & Apel, K. (2010). The spelling sensitivity score: Noting developmental changes in spelling knowledge. *Assessment for Effective Intervention, 36*, 35-45.
- Moats, L. C. (2010). *Speech to print: Language essentials for teachers. 2nd Ed.* Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.
- Moats, L. (2014). What teachers don't know and why they aren't learning it: Addressing the need for content and pedagogy in teacher education. *Australian Journal of Learning Difficulties, 19*, 75-91.
- Moats, L. C. (2005). How spelling supports reading. *American Educator, 6*, 12-22:42-43.
- Moats, L. C., & Lyon, G. R. (1996). Wanted: Teachers with knowledge of language. *Topics in Language Disorders, 16*(2), 73-86.
- Montgomery, D. J., Karlan, G. R., & Coutinho, M. (2001). The effectiveness of word processor spell checker programs to produce target words for misspellings generated by students with learning disabilities. *Journal of Special Education Technology, 16*(2), 27-41.
- National Commission on Writing. (2005). Writing: A powerful message from state government. *Writing: A Powerful Message from State Government*, 0-44. Retrieved from: <https://www.nwp.org/cs/public/print/resource/2541>
- Plumb, A. M., & Plexico, L. W. (2013). Autism spectrum disorders: Experience, training, and confidence levels of school-based speech-language pathologists. *Language Speech and Hearing Services in Schools, 44*, 89-104.
- Reed, D. (2012). *Why teach spelling?* Proceedings from Center on Instruction. Retrieved from: <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED531869.pdf>
- Richards, T. L., Aylward, E. H., Field, K. M., Grimme, A. C., Raskind, W., Richards, A. L., . . . Berninger, V. W. (2006). Converging evidence for triple word form theory in children with dyslexia. *Developmental Neuropsychology, 30*(1), 547-589.
- Schlagal, B. (2013). Best practices in spelling and handwriting. In S. Graham, C. A. MacArthur, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Best practices in writing instruction* (pp. 257-283). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Shahar-Yames, D., & Share, D. L. (2008). Spelling as a self-teaching mechanism in orthographic learning. *Journal of Research in Reading, 31*, 22-39.
- Snow, C. E., Griffin, P., & Burns, M. S. (2005). A model of professional growth in reading education. In C.E. Snow, P. Griffin, & M.S. Burns, *Knowledge to support the teaching of reading: Preparing teachers for a changing world* (201-223). San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- SPELLTalk (n.d.). *Learning by design*. Retrieved from: <https://mailman.listserve.com/listmanager/listinfo/spelltalk>
- Spencer, E. J., Schuele, C. M., Guillot, K. M., & Lee, M. W. (2008). Phonemic awareness skill of speech-language pathologists and other educators. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools, 39*, 512-520.
- Swackhamer, L. E., Koellner, K., Basile, C., & Kimbrough, D. (2009). Increasing the self-efficacy of inservice teachers through content knowledge. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 36*(2), 63-78.
- Treiman, R., & Kessler, B. (2006). Spelling as statistical learning: Using consonantal context to spell vowels. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*, 642.

- Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, A. W., & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research*, 68(2), 202-248.
- Ukrainetz, T. A., & Fresquez, E. F. (2003). "What isn't language?": A qualitative study of the role of the school speech-language pathologist. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 34, 284-298.
- Welch, M. (1998). Collaboration: Staying on the bandwagon. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 49(1), 26-37.
- Wolter, J., Stevens-Dominguez, M., & Oetter, P. (2009). Teaching literacy using a multiple-linguistic word-study spelling approach: A systematic review. *EBP Briefs*, 3, 43-58.
- Young, K. (2007). Developmental stage theory of spelling: Analysis of consistency across four spelling-related activities. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 30(3), 203-220.



Appendix A

Spelling Survey

1. Highest degree received:
 Bachelors Masters Doctorate
2. Years of professional experience in the schools:
 0–5 6–10 11–15 16 or more
3. Date highest degree received:
 2010 to present 2000–2009 1990–1999 1980–1989 Prior to 1979
4. In what state are you currently practicing?
5. In your graduate studies, how many courses did you complete in which the primary topic was oral language?
 0 1 2 3 or more
6. These courses were taken in which of the following disciplines? (select all that apply)
 Speech-language pathology Special education General education
 Psychology Other
7. In your graduate studies, how many courses did you complete in which the primary topic was written language (e.g., reading and/or writing)?
 0 1 2 3 or more
8. These courses were taken in which of the following disciplines? (select all that apply)
 Speech-language pathology Special education General education
 Psychology Other
9. In your graduate studies, how many courses did you complete in which spelling instruction was addressed as a topic within the course (e.g., class discussion, lecture, chapter in the class text, supplemental readings)
 0 1 2 3 or more
10. These courses were taken in which of the following disciplines? (select all that apply)
 Speech-language pathology Special education General education
 Psychology Other
11. Approximately how much time was spent discussing spelling and related issues with assessment and intervention in these classes?
 It was mentioned briefly 1 class 1 week 1 month More than 1 month
12. How often do you typically directly address spelling with your students?
 Never Less than once a month Twice a month
 Once a week 2-3 times per week Every day or nearly every day
13. How often do you typically collaborate with another professional to assist spelling intervention planning on a basis?
 Never Less than once a month Twice a month
 Once a week 2-3 times per week Every day or nearly every day

Please rate the degree to which you agree/disagree to the following statements:

14. My training program provided me with enough knowledge and skills such that I felt adequately prepared to address spelling instruction.

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree

15. I could have benefitted from additional coursework addressing spelling intervention.

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree

16. It is within my scope of practice to diagnose children with a spelling disability.

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree

17. I have the proper training and experience to diagnose a child with a spelling disability.

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree

18. How would you rate your ability to teach phonological awareness?

Minimal Moderate Good Very Good Expert

19. How would you rate your ability to teach morphological awareness?

Minimal Moderate Good Very Good Expert

20. How would you rate your ability to teach orthographical awareness?

Minimal Moderate Good Very Good Expert

21. How would you rate your ability to teach semantics (e.g., word meanings)?

Minimal Moderate Good Very Good Expert

22. How would you rate your ability to teach spelling?

Minimal Moderate Good Very Good Expert

The next questions ask about your knowledge of spelling

NOTE: Correct answers are in **BOLD**

1. A phoneme is

a single letter **a single speech sound** a single unit of meaning
a grapheme no idea

2. A morpheme is

a single letter a single speech sound **a single unit of meaning**
a grapheme no idea

3. If tife were a word, the letter "i" would probably sound like the "i" in:

If beautiful **find** ceiling sing no idea

4. A combination of two or three consonants pronounced so that each letter keeps its own identity is called:

silent consonant consonant digraph diphthong
consonant blend no idea

5. If adge were a word, the letter "a" would probably sound like the "a" in:

man main ability no idea

6. A combination of two vowels in a single syllable in which the sound begins as one vowel and moves toward another is called:

silent consonant	consonant digraph	diphthong
consonant blend	no idea	

For the next questions please indicate which language system should be addressed given the incorrect spelling:

- | | | | |
|---------------------------|--|---|---|
| 1. flud (for "flood") | Phonological Awareness
Morphological Knowledge | Orthographic Rules
Semantic Knowledge | Mental Graphemic Images
No idea |
| 2. ckast (for "cast") | Phonological Awareness
Morphological Knowledge | Orthographic Rules
Semantic Knowledge | Mental Graphemic Images
No idea |
| 3. their (for "there") | Phonological Awareness
Morphological Knowledge | Orthographic Rules
Semantic Knowledge | Mental Graphemic Images
No idea |
| 4. rane (for "rain") | Phonological Awareness
Morphological Knowledge | Orthographic Rules
Semantic Knowledge | Mental Graphemic Images
No idea |
| 5. jumpst (for "jumped") | Phonological Awareness
Morphological Knowledge | Orthographic Rules
Semantic Knowledge | Mental Graphemic Images
No idea |
| 6. peeck (for "peach") | Phonological Awareness
Morphological Knowledge | Orthographic Rules
Semantic Knowledge | Mental Graphemic Images
No idea |
| 7. clamz (for "clams") | Phonological Awareness
Morphological Knowledge | Orthographic Rules
Semantic Knowledge | Mental Graphemic Images
No idea |
| 8. hoping (for "hopping") | Phonological Awareness
Morphological Knowledge | Orthographic Rules
Semantic Knowledge | Mental Graphemic Images
No idea |
| 9. fat (for "fast") | Phonological Awareness
Morphological Knowledge | Orthographic Rules
Semantic Knowledge | Mental Graphemic Images
No idea |
| 10. mach (for "match") | Phonological Awareness
Morphological Knowledge | Orthographic Rules
Semantic Knowledge | Mental Graphemic Images
No idea |

11. tchair (for "chair") Phonological Awareness Morphological Knowledge	Orthographic Rules Semantic Knowledge	Mental Graphemic Images No idea
12. glew (for "glue") Phonological Awareness Morphological Knowledge	Orthographic Rules Semantic Knowledge	Mental Graphemic Images No idea
13. exercise (for "execute") Phonological Awareness Morphological Knowledge	Orthographic Rules Semantic Knowledge	Mental Graphemic Images No idea
14. magishun (for "magician") Phonological Awareness Morphological Knowledge	Orthographic Rules Semantic Knowledge	Mental Graphemic Images No idea
15. kulat (for "collapse") Phonological Awareness Morphological Knowledge	Orthographic Rules Semantic Knowledge	Mental Graphemic Images No idea

Visionary Supervision

Amy Vaughn, Amy Tepper & Charlie Hughes

Abstract

Clinical skills facilitation is the cornerstone to developing the necessary knowledge-base and clinical skills young practitioners require in order to successfully enter the workforce. As such, it is imperative that clinical educators/clinical skills facilitators have a deep and rich understanding of the key components of supervision. This article provides information regarding various models of supervision, adult learning theory, building working alliances between educators and students, and identifying specific ways that educators can advance their understanding of teaching and learning towards better serving their students.

Amy Vaughn Ph.D., CCC-SLP is employed at Baldwin Wallace University.

Financial – Assistant Professor in Communication Sciences and Disorders at Baldwin Wallace University.

Nonfinancial – No relevant nonfinancial relationship exists.

Amy Tepper Ed. D., CCC-SLP is employed at Baldwin Wallace University.

Financial – Assistant Professor in Communication Sciences and Disorders at Baldwin Wallace University.

Nonfinancial – No relevant nonfinancial relationship exists.

Charlie Hughes Ph.D., CCC-SLP, BCS-F is employed at Baldwin Wallace University.

Financial – Associate Professor in Communication Sciences and Disorders at Baldwin Wallace University.

Nonfinancial – No relevant nonfinancial relationship exists.

Learning Objectives

- 1) Describe the benefits to unconditional positive regard
 - 2) Identify current supervisory practices commonly employed in higher education
 - 3) State the benefits of employing Universal Design for Learning and Solutions-Focused Problem Solving with transitional learners in clinical contexts
-

The development of clinical skills, or clinical skills facilitation, is paramount in the educational process of graduate students enrolled in communication sciences and disorders (CSD) programs; it is essential to the preservation of our professions. Current models of supervision exist within CSD, but are they enough? Do they effectively meet the varied needs of this generation's young adults? To fully engage our students in the learning process, we must begin to think beyond a basic framework for supervision towards a more well-rounded approach to teaching and learning. We, as educators, must consider the process of clinical skills facilitation from multiple angles that allow for equitable and inclusive clinical learning opportunities for all students. This is accomplished when we view the clinical education process via multiple lenses given clearly defined expectations. The following paper encourages clinical educators/clinical skills facilitators (CSF) to consider the following points:

- current supervisory models in practice;
- learning theories including pedagogical (applied to learners in childhood), andragogical (applied to learners in adulthood), and choragogical (applied to learners in late-stage early adulthood in the transitional learning space between pedagogy and andragogy);
- the time-intensive nature of clinical education;
- the importance of building working alliances; and,
- the principle tenets of Universal Design for Learning (UDL).

Models of Supervision and Adult Learning Theory

Models of Supervision

Many models of supervision exist within CSD and across many professions (i.e., business, medicine, etc.); however, to date, there is no empirical data to identify which model is considered best practice in CSD professions (Sheepway, Lincoln, & Togher, 2011). Geller (2014) shared four common types of supervision common in clinical education. The traditional medical model, or administrative model, is a top-down management style in which the CSF utilizes a type of performance review to assess student success. In this model, a relationship is nonessential. The reflective and relationship-based model, in comparison, relies heavily on relationship development by and among CSFs and their students as a primary means of supervision. In the traditional mental health model, it is important to understand students' internal states and their potential impact on interactions between CSFs and students. The final model Geller (2014) discussed was mindfulness. It encourages compassion for self and others in moments of discomfort that often accompany clinical learning.

One specific model utilized in CSD is Anderson's Model of Supervision (Anderson, 1988). It is a systematic approach to making the supervisory process transparent to CSFs and students by jointly acknowledging the five phases of supervision (Brasseur, McCrea, & Mendel, 2005). These phases include:

1. Building an understanding of self and expectations of students and CSFs;
2. Planning developmental goals specific to the supervisory process;
3. Making observations on how the process is moving forward;
4. Analyzing the observations; and,
5. Integrating/renewing the plan to acknowledge changes that need to be made for success in the supervisory process.

This final step results in a more focused educational process. Additionally, Anderson's Model is broken down into three stages that students progress through as they gain skills and knowledge regarding supervision within clinical settings (O'Sullivan, Peaper-Fillyaw, Plante, & Gottwald, 2014). Stage one, evaluation-feedback, suggests students begin their clinical education process in a state of relative dependence upon their CSFs in order to be successful. As students begin to demonstrate the skills and knowledge necessary to care for their respective client/s, the need for support decreases. This increase in students' skills development begins in stage two, the transition stage. During transition, CSFs increasingly provide opportunities for clinical decision-making responsibilities to students. This continues until students are capable of effective self-reflection and analysis of clinical performance and outcomes. At this point, students have reached the final stage of clinical development known as self-supervision (Geller, 2014; O'Sullivan et al., 2014).

Integrating the Models with Theory

Many believe the learning needs of individual students should determine the supervisory style utilized by CSFs (Brasseur et al., 2005; Sheepway et al., 2011). This indicates the need for CSFs to have a deeper understanding of Millennial and iGen/Gen Z students and their preferred learning styles, as well as a rudimentary understanding of learning theories (i.e., pedagogy, choragogy, and andragogy) that provide a sound basis for academic and clinical instruction. While many may be familiar with the terms pedagogy and andragogy, the term choragogy may be unfamiliar to most as it is a term based on a theoretical framework proposed by Tepper (2018).. Choragogy is a theoretical frame that qualifies a transitional stage of learning development, existing in-between pedagogy and andragogy, of students in late-stage early adulthood (approximately 23 - 28 years of age). During this stage of learning development students benefit from the use of both pedagogical and andragogical instructional methods, or an eclectic approach.

Furthermore, there is a seemingly lack of awareness of these various models and theories among CSFs. An informal inquiry, during a recent presentation on supervision, supports this notion as most attendees could neither share the model of supervision that they routinely utilize, nor were they aware of the theoretical underpinnings of learning theory (i.e., pedagogy, choragogy, and andragogy) or UDL. Additional information regarding the aforementioned is further addressed in upcoming sections.

Adult Learning Theory

Walden and Gordon-Pershey (2013) have suggested that adult learning theory is a relevant lens to consider while providing clinical education in varied settings (i.e., school-based, clinic-based, etc.). Andragogy is the umbrella term used to explain adult learning styles (Baumgartner, Lee, Birden, & Flowers, 2003; Knowles, 1970; Taylor & Laros, 2014). Knowles (1970) coined the term andragogy and posited that adults learn differently and do so for different reasons than do children (i.e., pedagogy). He indicated that adults are self-directed; bring past learning experiences to current learning needs; enter the learning environment in time-specific moments; identify learning needs that task specific; and, are more intrinsically than extrinsically motivated (Knowles, 1970). This may suggest that adult learners (i.e., those completing coursework at the graduate level) are aware of their clinical learning needs; however, this is not always the case. Consideration of a developmental transitional stage, by CSFs, is encouraged to ensure that the unique learning needs of each and every graduate student are effectively met during instructional opportunities. In using an eclectic approach to clinical education, CSFs can create meaningful learning experiences for students, which take into account individual learning preferences, as well as developmental life stage. .

If, for the sake of this discussion, we assume that graduate-level students in CSD programs are in fact adult learners, then we can apply one very specific adult learning theory directly to the task of clinical education. Mezirow's Transformative Learning Theory applies well to clinical learning environments and is used in other health care professions (Barnett, 2014; Baumgartner et al., 2003; Mezirow, 1997; Mezirow, 2000; Plack, 2008). Transformative Learning Theory acknowledges that learning is both instrumental (i.e., revolves around problem solving) and communicative (i.e., understanding the intent of the message) (Mezirow, 2000). Transformative learning, according to Mezirow (1997), is a systematic ten-step process in which learners:

- 1) experience a problem;
- 2) experience a negative reaction to the problem;
- 3) must then appraise their beliefs regarding the problem;
- 4) must recognize that others have experienced similar problems and have overcome them;
- 5) explore possible solutions to their problem based on past experiences and the current situation;
- 6) develop a progressive action plan towards solving the problem;
- 7) work to gain the skills and knowledge necessary to solve the problem;
- 8) utilize trial and error learning to assess their skills;
- 9) begin to develop confidence in their skills and knowledge; and,
- 10) integrate new knowledge into their processes.

When combined with Anderson's Model of Supervision, these ten stages create a bridge from student dependency to self-supervision during Anderson's transition stage.

Putting the Two Together

Anderson's Model is a reasonable starting point for the process of clinical skills facilitation. Yet, the question of how we move students from dependency to self-supervision is not fully answered by this model alone. By superimposing transformative learning theory on top of Anderson's Model CSFs then we have a viable way of acknowledging individual learners' level of understanding at the outset of the supervisory process. Additionally, a combined approach encourages relationship building between the student and CSF through the development of an actionable plan to increase clinical skills. Transformative learning theory aids students in objectively identifying the point at which they gain new skills and knowledge and are then able to subsequently integrate those skills and knowledge into their clinical process as established schemas.

Anderson's Model encourages transparency of the supervisory process, while transformative learning theory encourages transparency of students' skills and knowledge development within clinical settings. As such, a combined approach is important in developing young practitioners' abilities in self-supervision, as well as the skills and knowledge necessary to provide effective assessment and intervention within various settings. In merging the two together, CSFs can consistently support the well-rounded growth of student clinicians. Figure 1 represents the blended stages of

Anderson's Model and transformative learning theory thereby providing further clarity, to both students and CSFs, in the process of clinical skills facilitation. This graphic (Figure 1) illustrates the development of students being guided to move from dependency, through transition, and into self-supervision given the necessary support provided by the CSF. As indicated by the progressive shading of the steps, students develop a deeper and richer understanding of clinical skills as they acquire new skills and confidence culminating in the integration of new knowledge.

Anderson's Supervision Stage: Evaluation/Feedback	Anderson's Supervision Stage: Transitional	Anderson's Supervision Stage: Self-Supervision
Student is Dependent for Learning	Shared Responsibility between Student and Educator for Learning	Student is Responsible for Learning
Step 4: Student realizes they are not alone Step 3: Appraise beliefs re: problem Step 2: Problem leads to negative reaction Step 1: Student experiences a problem	Step 9: Develop confidence in new skill set	Step 10: Integrate new knowledge
	Step 8: Employ trial and error learning to assess new skills	Step 9: Develop confidence in new skill set
	Step 7: Gain skills and knowledge to address problem	Step 8: Employ trial and error learning to assess new skills
	Step 6: Develop a progressive action plan	
	Step 5: Collaboratively explore solutions	
Mezirow's Transformative Learning Steps		

Figure 1: Figure one represents the stages of Anderson's Model of Supervision superimposed with Mezirow's Steps of Transformative Learning.

Example of Steps to Self-Supervision

The following is a "real-world" scenario illustrating the steps to clinical skills facilitation as students enter a new clinical experience. Bear in mind, the ultimate goal is to assist students in reaching self-supervision globally; however, at the starting point of dependency, this process may be very different for each client population and demographic that students encounter.

Anderson's Stage 1- Dependency/Mezirow's Steps 1-4:

Prior to the first day of clinic, Connie (CSF) and Maggie (student clinician) meet to discuss the process of supervision and discuss the clients with whom Maggie will be working with this semester. During the meeting, both Connie and Maggie develop an understanding of needs and expectations involved in the supervisory process, as well as create an action plan for Maggie's individualized clinical learning (i.e., clinic contract). Connie charges Maggie with the task of developing lesson plans for her first day of clinic. Maggie is confident she knows enough about articulation and related disorders that she eagerly develops her pediatric plan; however, she also has an adult client with muscle tension dysphonia (MTD). Maggie realizes she has a problem as she has not yet learned about MTD (Step 1). Given her lack of skills and knowledge in working with individuals experiencing MTD, Maggie is uneasy and uncertain as to where to begin (Step 2). At this point, Maggie realizes her CSF, Connie, probably has some experience with this type of client and reaches out for help (Step 3). Connie provides Maggie with resources to help her understand the basics of MTD and explore solutions (Step 4). Connie can do this without reservation because she acknowledges Maggie is in a state of dependency for this client and needs her full support.

Anderson's Stage 2- Transition/ Mezirow's Steps 5-9:

Maggie then reviews the materials provided by Connie and plans to discuss what she learned with her before writing a lesson plan (Step 5). Now that Maggie has a general understanding of MTD, along with a few ideas for treatment, she can begin to explore the types of treatment that might potentially work best for her client. Connie is there to help (Step 6). Maggie shared in their first meeting that she had obtained clinical hours in undergraduate clinic, but that her experience was exclusively with school-aged children presenting with articulation delays. Connie helps Maggie to connect the dots between developmental articulation disorders and MTD. She helps Maggie to understand that all therapy has goals, methods/interventions, and activities. With that knowledge, Maggie is then ready to explore ways she will provide intervention with her client presenting with MTD based on her own past experiences and her new knowledge (Step 7). Maggie and Connie jointly create an action plan to develop the necessary skills for Maggie to provide quality therapy. As the semester progresses, Maggie modifies the therapy provided each week based on the results of the previous therapy session and direct feedback from her CSF. She uses trial and error learning, knowing her CSF will step in to help if needed and that her CSF is always supportive (Steps 8 & 9).

Anderson's Stage 3- Self-supervision/Mezirow's Step 8-10:

By week 9 of the semester, Maggie takes the lead in making clinical decisions regarding her client presenting with MTD. Maggie continues to learn new skills through the process of trial and error, knowing that Connie fully supports her efforts (Steps 8 & 9). Maggie gains confidence in her new-found skills in working with a client with a disorder that she previously knew nothing about mere weeks ago. As she progresses through the remainder of the term, Maggie continues to integrate her new knowledge of MTD and its treatment into her established schema of "all things clinic" (Step 10).

The Necessity of Time

Time is essential in the collaborative process of clinical education/clinical skills facilitation (Gillam & Gillam, 2008; Vaughn, 2018). Recent research suggests that the average time CSFs spend with students in collaboration, outside of the clinic setting, is approximately one hour per week per student (Vaughn, 2018). This time is spent in group and/or individual meetings to teach student clinicians a multitude of skills and does not include the time CSFs spend reviewing clinical documentation such as lesson plans and written reports.

While learning theory and models of supervision provides a foundation for understanding the process of clinical skills development, it does not account for the impact of internal states of being of student clinicians. As such, rapport-building becomes essential to clinical skills facilitation.

Fostering Relationships in the Clinical Education Dyad

Anxiety in the Clinical Supervisory Process

It's understandable that anxiety can occur in a clinical supervisory relationship from the perspective of the student and clinical supervisor. Chan, Carter, and McAllister (1994) reported the source of student anxiety may come from multiple factors. Among these included academic and clinical demands; clinical experiences; preparing for clinic; applying theories to clinical work; and, having high expectations for themselves. As McCrea and Brasseur (2003) point out, anxiety can also be experienced by the supervisor and come from a variety of sources such as lack of training and the responsibility of clinical supervision.

Building Rapport with Students

One way to decrease anxiety in the supervisory relationship is to approach this relationship as you would when working with a client. When working with clients, one of our first objectives is to establish rapport with whomever you are working. Establishing rapport is at the heart of the student-supervisory relationship. Using the analogy of building a house from the work of Bennett (2006), as it relates to stuttering therapy, establishing a healthy relationship with the student is the foundation. In other words, there needs to be a solid foundation before you start building support beams, walls, and rooms. Taking time to build the foundation with students allows CSFs to work more effectively. In order to

accomplish this, think about all the things we do as clinicians to establish positive relationships with our clients. We learn about their lives and disclose personal information about our lives, as appropriate.

Supervisor Personality Associated with Positive Student Changes

The disposition of the clinical supervisor has been found to be an important factor in a students' ability to display positive clinical behaviors. For example, Gitter (1987) reported clinical supervisory behaviors of unconditional positive regard and empathetic understanding (in addition to being genuine and concrete). Luterman (2017) reviewed the work of Rogers (1951) and also reported unconditional regard, which allows the person to be themselves when nonjudgmental listening is used, thus communicating value and acceptance. In addition to unconditional regard, Luterman reviews the importance of displaying empathy in Rogers' client-centered approach. Egan (2014), also provides a framework for how individuals can respond with empathy, while stating the emotion and linking that to an experience. Saying to someone "You feel unsure now because you tried this approach out and it didn't work" is one example of connecting the feeling with the experience.

Honoring the Journey

In order to honor the clinical learning journey of individual students, CSFs should consider familiarizing themselves with the three principle tenets associated with UDL: student engagement, content representation, and knowledge expression (Strangman, Rappolt, Rose & Meyer, 2002). A means of creating equitable learning opportunities for every student regardless of learning stage, use of UDL, in the process of clinical education, empowers members of the clinical dyad to consider in a deeper and potentially more meaningful way what their respective strengths and perceived weaknesses are within the clinical setting. By understanding what motivates (student engagement) a young practitioner to learn and develop new skills, CSFs can adapt their approaches in educating that student in a personalized and relevant way. As a shared motivator, improved practical outcomes yield seemingly limitless possibilities. In order to reach those aforementioned outcomes, the manner in which CSFs share information and guidance during supervisory interactions is critical towards ensuring that novice practitioners are able to understand what is being shared/discussed. The information being shared (content representation) must be done in such a way as to honor students' unique learning aptitudes. For example, some students might only need guidance to resources, while others might benefit from a hands-on or role-playing type activity when discussing/learning about a "new-to-them" intervention approach. If CSFs want to see improvement in their young clinicians, then novel content must be adapted and modified to meet student clinicians at their developmental place in the clinical learning journey. A CSF will know they have done due diligence, with their clinicians, when they see resultant improvements during observed therapeutic sessions. When a young clinician is motivated and understands content, he/she can then demonstrate skills competence (knowledge expression) within the therapy room with clients. Clinicians can literally show what they know, and CSFs in turn can modify their approach with the students in future supervisory encounters (if something was less than satisfactory) or can continue along the same vein (if everything was on track). By creating learning opportunities that consider students' preferred style of learning, as well as their individual intelligence(s), CSFs can help to enhance and not hinder the development of novice practitioners' clinical skills aptitude.

A Solutions-Focused Approach to Quandaries in Clinical Skills Facilitation

So then, what happens when there is an impasse in student learning/understanding? Unfortunately, many individuals, when faced with adversity, tend to focus on the problem; they focus on the 'why' of a situation or circumstance instead of focusing on the 'what' of the issue towards creating/enacting a reasonable solution. For example, students might question why they must learn about an array of intervention approaches to meet the needs of pediatric clients presenting with disabling communication impairment(s). They spin their wheels in aggravation (and waste time) complaining, instead of creating a series of steps that will ensure they can complete the task in a timely manner, and further demonstrate their newly acquired skills competence during next week's sessions. Another example that comes to mind is from the side of the CSF. Instead of asking "Why are my clinicians underachieving?", CSFs should consider reorienting their focus towards a solution instead of the problem, and then state, "I am going to do the following to ensure that my students get the benefit of maximally supportive clinical learning opportunities during our time together..." According to Mueller (2015), there are six traits commonly associated with solutions-focused individuals.

Those traits are that they: have a cause/issue; understand and clarify the importance of tasks; are reflective and self-aware; often reframe questions to highlight solutions; efficiently manage their time on task; and, are completion focused. An example, to illustrate the point from a CSF's point of view, might be something like this:

My students are my cause/issue and in order to ensure that they make meaningful gains in their clinical work I need to support them in a way that honors their respective stages in clinical learning, and their development as young practitioners. Furthermore, through observation I have witnessed that they are struggling, and I will therefore adapt my instructional style, modify my instructional language, and provide models and templates to them to enhance their learning. Although I like my style of supervision, I cannot help but wonder if the use of an eclectic instructional approach would help to facilitate their process of thinking critically. To meet the needs of my clinicians, I will devote 1-hour per week with each of them, and at the end of each meeting I will approve their clinical hours online.

While not everyone will necessarily adopt a solutions-focused approach to clinical education, the above example illustrates a clear shift in how challenges can be handled in a proactive and positive way. If executed with fidelity, this mindset should yield the reward of improved student performance of clinically relevant skills, improved client outcomes, and a reduction in marginal clinicians on your roster. When coupled with UDL, a solutions-focused orientation to clinical education has the potential to simultaneously empower students and CSFs alike.

Finding Common Ground and Sharing a Vision for Success

As a CSF, it is not easy to effectively meet the needs of each and every young clinician with whom one works without establishing, building, and maintaining rapport. As previously indicated, quality rapport is the key to creating trust in the supervisory dyad. In the absence of trust, students may fail to engage in productive conversations during supervisory encounters, as well as withdraw from much needed support. Rather than judge students as ambivalent towards the relationship, try to create opportunities to strengthen the common connection that exists from their placement on your roster and develop a shared vision, or a clearly defined set of expectations, that will mutually benefit both parties. When a shared vision is mutually developed, it should: strengthen each commitment to the mutual cause, create purpose for participants, establish transparent goals, allow for consideration of one another's unique experiences as well as educational background, and, be innovative and transformative (SEDL, 2017). However, sometimes the easiest way of finding common ground, or a starting point in the relationship, is to be open and honest and to engage person to person, beyond the constraints of the intimidating power imbalance that exists between you. Keep in mind that generational differences may impact the immediate honoring of learning preferences; however, most CSFs are former practitioners and should be capable of creating opportunities for growth for students given the need to do so. By strengthening the clinical dyad, all parties benefit.

Towards Transitional Learning

As previously discussed, a rudimentary understanding of learning theory by CSFs and students provides a much-needed foundation for creating maximally supportive clinical learning environments. While most are familiar with the tenets commonly associated with pedagogy (techniques to enhance learning in children), and may have heard of andragogy (adult learning), choragogy is another theory that has emerged to address the unique needs of learners in late-stage early adulthood. Choragogy and choragogical practices are both context and non-context dependent, and build upon learners' developing clinical schemas via intraschematic, interschematic, and transchematic frames in order to advance their learning and practical skills (Tepper, 2018). When operating within an intraschematic frame, young clinicians are expanding their knowledge and understanding within an already existing, or established schema. For example, the clinician has previously worked with a client presenting with a moderate articulation disorder characterized by substitutions and omissions, and now has a new client also presenting with an articulation disorder of differing severity and error pattern characterization. That same clinician is also enrolled in an advanced articulation and phonology course in graduate school. In the process of creating meaningful connections between known concepts and newly learned content, that clinician is also operating within an interschematic frame. He/she has some knowledge regarding the content area based on education and experiences, but it is now deepened through the introduction of academic content and enhanced by clinical application.

Once the student has gained enough knowledge and background, through education and experiences, his/her learning then transitions into a transchematic frame, whereby the student/clinician continues making connections beyond learned concepts towards developing new understanding. For example, in the student's graduate program of instruction most professors are aligned with the medical model of disability (disabling impairment as intrinsic to the individual); however, there may be a couple of professors who are proponents of the social model of disability (disabling impairment as a social construct). Once the student is made aware of the social model of disability, it may well alter his/her understanding of one's role and responsibilities as a helping professional and open one's eyes to the need to mitigate potentially disabling communication barriers in an array of contexts, not just work on drills in a vacuous therapy room.

To further clarify, there are three principle tenets of choragogy/choragogic practices. The tenets were developed to ensure that the instructional process "...meets the young practitioner at their [his/her] specific stage in skills development (consistent with Anderson's Model and stages of transformative learning) and honors their personal learning style in becoming a confident and capable practitioner in the field" (Tepper, 2018). Firstly, choragogic practices should incorporate aspects of pedagogy as well as andragogy since an eclectic approach to learning is preferred and values the learning proposition as both/and NOT either/or. Secondly, UDL is deliberately incorporated into all instructional opportunities. Lastly, in order to honor each individual in his/her learning stage, learning opportunities are differentiated and facilitated accordingly. Hughes, Tepper, and Vaughn (2019), outlined the following suggestions towards the practical application of choragogic practices in clinical settings:

- 1) Incorporate the three principle tenets of UDL into clinical learning opportunities;
- 2) Use a variety of differentiated instructional approaches during supervisory encounters/student collaborations;
- 3) Employ a solutions-oriented approach to clinical problem solving;
- 4) Facilitate discussions that allow for thinking critically about clinical skills development/application and evidence-based practice; and,
- 5) Deliberately integrate academic content consistently into clinical learning opportunities.

If we, as a collective group of professionals, are to envision more for CSFs, as well as young practitioners, then individually we must intentionally consider the current supervisory practice(s) commonly used in our respective clinical contexts, reflect upon the attributes each of us currently possesses that are generally associated with effective clinical skills facilitators, and, contemplate practices that can be immediately implemented and seamlessly integrated into the clinical learning journey of each and every young practitioner. After all, "visionary supervision requires all parties involved to honor one another's unique skills and aptitudes, as well as education and experiences; to trust in the clinical skills facilitation process; and in the shared journey together, and beyond" (Hughes et al., 2018, OSLHA PowerPoint Presentation, Slide 42). ♦

References

- Anderson, J. (1988). *The supervisory process in speech-language pathology and audiology*. San Diego: College-Hill Press.
- Bennett, E. M. (2006). *Working with people who stutter: A lifespan approach*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Barnett, J. E. (2014). Introduction: The (hopefully) essential primer on clinical supervision. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 70(11), 1023–1029.
- Baumgartner, L., Lee, M.-Y., Birden, S., & Flowers, D. (2003). *Adult learning theory: A primer*. Retrieved from <http://www.cete.org/acve>
- Brasseur, J., McCrea, E., & Mendel, L. (2005). Remediating poorly performing students in clinical programs. *SIG 11 Perspectives on Administration and Supervision*, 8(2), 20–26.

- Chan, J., Carter, S., & McAllister, L. (1994). Anxiety related to clinical education in speech-language pathology students. *Australian Journal of Human Communication Disorders*, 22(1). Pp 57-73.
- Egan, G. (2014). *The skilled helper: A problem-management and opportunity-development approach to helping*. Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole, Cengage Learning.
- Ghitter, R. (1987). *Relationship of interpersonal and background variables to supervise clinical effectiveness*. In S. Farmer (Ed.), *Proceedings of a national conference on supervision- clinical supervision: A coming of age* (pp. 49-56). Council of University Supervisors of Practicum in Speech-Language Pathology and Audiology, Jekyll Island, GA.
- Geller, E. (2014). Broadening the “ports of entry” for Speech-Language Pathologists- A reflective model of supervision. *SIG 11 Perspectives on Administration and Supervision*, 24(2), 51–61.
- Gillam, S., & Gillam, R. (2008). Teaching Graduate Students to Make Evidence-Based Intervention Decisions. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 28(3), 212–228.
- Hughes, C., Tepper, A. & Vaughn, A. (2019). *Clinical skills facilitation 101: Visionary supervision*. (2019, March). Ohio Speech Language Hearing Association Convention. Columbus, Ohio.
- Knowles, M. (1970). *The modern practice of adult education: Andragogy versus pedagogy*. New York, NY: Associated Press.
- Luterman, D. M. (2017). *Counseling persons with communication disorders and their families* (6th edition). Austin, TX. PRO-ED.
- Mezirow, J. (1997). Transformative learning: Theory to practice. *New Directions for Adult & Continuing Education*, 74, 5-12.
- Mezirow, J. (2000). Learning to think like an adult: Core concepts of transformation theory. In *Learning as transformation. Critical perspectives on a theory in progress*. (pp. 3–33). San Francisco: Jossey Bass
- McCrea, E. S., & Brasseur, J. A. (2003). *The supervisory process in speech-language pathology and audiology*. Boston, MA. Pearson Education, Inc.
- Mueller, S. (2015). Problem vs. Solution Focused Thinking [Web log post]. Retrieved from <http://www.planetofsuccess.com/blog/2011/problem-vs-solution-focused-thinking/>
- O’Sullivan, J., Peaper-Fillyaw, R., Plante, A., & Gottwald, S. (2014). On the road to self-supervision. *SIG 11 Perspectives on Administration and Supervision*, 24(2), 44–50.
- Plack, M. M. (2008). The Learning Triad: Potential Barriers and Supports to Learning in the Physical Therapy Clinical Environment. *Journal of Physical Therapy Education*, 22(3), 7–18.
- Rogers, C.R. (1951). *Client-centered therapy*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- SEDL. Vision, Leadership, and Change. (2017). Retrieved March 30, 2017, from <http://www.sedl.org/change/issues/issues23.html>
- Sheepway, L., Lincoln, M., & Togher, L. (2011). An international study of clinical education practices in speech-language pathology. *International Journal of Speech Language Pathology*, 13(2), 174–185.
- Strangman, N., Rappolt, G., Rose, D. H., & Meyer, A. (2002). *Teaching every student in the digital age: Universal design for learning*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Taylor, E. W., & Laros, A. (2014). Researching the practice of fostering transformative learning: Lessons learned from the study of andragogy. *Journal of Transformative Education*, 12(2), 134–147.
- Tepper, A. (2018). *Choragogy and choragogic practices: A theoretical framework to effectively meet the learning needs of individuals in late-stage early adulthood*. [Unpublished manuscript], Baldwin Wallace University.
- Vaughn, A. (2018). *Time well spent: The national survey on time usage in clinical education*. (Publication No. 13819369). [Dissertation, Kent State University]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.
- Walden, P., & Gordon-Pershey, M. (2013). Applying adult experiential learning theory to clinical supervision: A practical guide for supervisors and supervisees. *SIG 11 Perspectives on Administration and Supervision*, 23(3), 121–144.

Sarcastic Kids are my Favorite: A Case Study for Sarcasm Intervention

Leah Beekman & Angela Ciccio

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to pilot a new intervention that explicitly teaches how to identify and appropriately respond to sarcastic interactions. The intervention begins with training on how to identify various features of a sarcastic comment and then allows for the student to practice the newly learned skills. Additionally, the study examined the transferability of the skills related to sarcasm to other forms of ambiguous language (i.e., multiple-meaning words, metaphors and oxymorons). The generalizability was tested using a pre- post-test that was previously developed. The results of the study demonstrated not only an increase in the student's ability to identify and appropriately respond to sarcasm, but also there was an increase in the student's ability to define the other forms of ambiguous language.

Leah Beekman Ph.D., CCC-SLP is employed at Chapman University.

Financial – Clinical Assistant Professor in the Crean College of Health and Behavioral Sciences; Communication Sciences and Disorders at Chapman University in Irvine, California.

Nonfinancial – No relevant nonfinancial relationship exists.

Angela Ciccio Ph.D., CCC-SLP is employed at Case Western Reserve University.

Financial – Associate Professor in the Department of Psychological Sciences at Case Western Reserve University in Cleveland, Ohio.

Nonfinancial – Is an Editor in Chief of ASHA Perspectives for SIG 2 and Co-Chair of ACRM Pediatric Rehabilitation Networking Group.

Learning Objectives

- 1) State the benefits of direct instruction in sarcasm
 - 2) Describe transferability skills from one form of ambiguous language to another
 - 3) State how to apply knowledge learned to the clinical practice when teaching sarcasm to students
-

Ambiguous language learning begins in early childhood, as early as the preschool years (Ma & Píriz, 2011; Shakibai & Cairn, 2015) and continues to develop throughout adulthood (Berman & Ravid, 2010) becoming more complex with age (Nippold, 2007). It also has been argued that children as young as 18-24 months have the ability to understand ambiguities (Billow, 1981). Gentner (1988) suggests that a perceptual understanding can be identified in young children and only later is there a transition to a relational understanding. For example, when an object and metaphor share physical characteristics (e.g., He is a bean pole) the child can readily understand the message as opposed to a metaphor in which there are no physical characteristics shared (e.g., He is a couch potato).

The understanding and use of ambiguities (such as sarcasm) are dependent on the listener/speaker having both a strong Theory of Mind and metalinguistic skills (Berman and Ravid, 2010). Theory of Mind (ToM) is the ability to assess the interactions that are taking place and acknowledge what our listeners do and do not know (Paul, Norbury & Gosse, 2018) while metalinguistic skills are one's ability to think about language in the context of whether or not they have been understood by their listener (Kennison, 2014). The combination of these skills is required for an ambiguous language (including sarcasm) interaction to be successful.

Student vocabulary advances from concrete words (e.g., cat, car, school) to more abstract concepts (e.g., freedom, time, joy) throughout the school process. Social perspective taking, which is essential to the understanding of sarcasm, is simultaneously developing with conversational repairs, asking for clarity and reading non-verbal cues. Each skill--

vocabulary growth, perspective taking, reading non-verbal cues, ToM and metalinguistic growth--is needed in order for one to be able to comprehend and use ambiguous forms of language (such as sarcasm).

Sarcasm is one form of ambiguous language that involves saying words that are the opposite of what one means but with a differing, underlying connotation. For example, on a particularly bad weathered day one might say, "What a lovely day we are having!" The words that are spoken cannot be interpreted literally or the point of the message will be missed. ToM and metalinguistic skills are required for these kinds of interactions. If a speaker is not aware of what their listeners does not know and in turn is not able to determine if what they have said has or has not been understood, then a breakdown in communication will occur. In this example, the speaker is conveying rather that they are not pleased with the current weather. There are many circumstances in which we use sarcasm. Sometimes it is used to connect with another person. At times it is used to break the tension of an emotional situation- whether awkward or sad. There are times as well that sarcasm is used to hurt or be spiteful, but overall, we use sarcasm as a way to connect with one another.

Children begin to identify sarcasm as early as five or six years of age, but at this point do not have a full understanding of its purpose (Glenwright & Pexman, 2010). The development is protracted into the middle school years and perhaps even into adulthood (Demorest, Meyer, Phelps, Gardner & Winner, 1984; Nippold, 2007). It is not until later in childhood or early adolescents that a child begins to appreciate the various markers of sarcasm that aid in understanding (e.g., voice change and a speaker's intentions) (Ackerman, 1986; Capelli, Nakagawa & Madden, 1990; Glenwright, Tapley, Rano & Pexman, 2017; Hancock, Dunham & Purdy, 2000; Pexman, Glenwright, Hala, Kowbel & Jungen, 2006), and this is due to the communication complexities that are presented in a sarcastic exchange. The development of sarcasm is also influenced by the environment and includes exposure in the home and school.

In order for one to be able to comprehend and appropriately respond to sarcasm, it is essential that they have the ability to identify various non-verbal cues of communication. Sarcasm is marked by vocal changes, facial expressions, body language and words that are contradictory to the context of the setting (Glenwright, Parackel, Cheung & Nilsen, 2014). Vocal changes that indicate sarcasm can include emphasis on one word that is in direct contradiction with a message (e.g., it is raining outside and some says, "What *great* weather we're having today!") or the message is delivered with flat effect, in that the speaker does not demonstrate any emotion in the delivery of the message. Sarcasm is used for various reasons, but most notably it is used to tease, insult or to be humorous (Riloff et al., 2013) and in some cases can enrich communication exchange (Blasko & Kazmerski, 2006). Sarcasm is a cornerstone of social communication not only in conversations but also in advertisements, television, movies and news, appearing in everyday life for individuals of all ages. Due to the complexities that are involved in the identification and use of sarcasm there are various clinical populations that demonstrate increased difficulty with the use of this form of language. The following study focused on one such clinical population; those with a language disorder.

According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th Edition (DSM-5) (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013), a language disorder is defined as difficulties related to spoken and written language comprehension, vocabulary, sentence structure, discourse etc. These difficulties continue through the lifespan and encompass limitations in functional communication, social involvement, academic performances and occupational outcomes.

Characteristics of language disorder include: 1) the production of language that is below chronological age expectations and 2) symptom presentation in early childhood and cannot be attributed to a hearing loss, motor dysfunction, neurological insult or medical issues that fall under the categories of intellectual disability or global developmental delay.

There is a great deal of research and observational accounts regarding the development, signs and symptoms of language disorder (APA, 2013; ASHA, 2018; Kennison, 2014; Leonard, 2014; Nippold, 2007). The most recent studies have shown that language disorder includes difficulties in the areas of working memory (Montgomery, Magimairaj &

Finney, 2010), lexical-semantic organization, word finding (Sheng & McGregor, 2010), phonological skills (Ramus, Marshall, Rosen & van der Lely, 2013) and social engagement, (Nippold, 2017).

Facial expressions and tone of voice are two areas of difficulty for students with language disorder; both of which are necessary in order to properly understand and use sarcasm. While Trauner and colleagues (1993) demonstrated that students with language disorder can express various emotions, Creusere (1999) identified significant impairments such as the ability to pair vocal expressions with facial expressions. Additionally, these studies also showed that students with language disorder have increased difficulties pairing facial expressions with vocal changes to deduce the emotions of a speaker. Studies examining difficulties in written communication and sarcasm yielded results that demonstrate the students with language disorder have increased difficulties, similar to their struggles related to spoken uses of sarcasm. Given that many components of sarcasm have been shown to be impaired for students with language disorder, it is reasonable to extend these difficulties to the identification and use of sarcasm.

While SLPs may be addressing sarcasm in therapy, there is currently, to our knowledge, no clinical intervention research in the literature that has been systematically studied and reported. There have been limited studies that have examined the possibility of teaching identifying markers of sarcasm to the ESL population (Kim, 2013) but none that have provided direct instruction in the identification and appropriate responses to sarcastic exchanges.

Based on the research presented, we know that children with language disorder present with foundational language difficulties related to academic communication (ASHA, 2018). Research also demonstrates difficulties in the understanding and use of ambiguous language, which hinders parts of the academic learning process, and negatively impacts social communication (Benasich, Curtiss & Tallal, 1993; Conti-Ramsden & Botting, 2004). These difficulties in understanding and using ambiguous language lead to struggles involved in the forming of friendships and lifelong outcomes (i.e. successful career) for the language disorder population (Jerome, Fujiki, Brinton & James, 2002). Given these struggles with ambiguous language it would be expected that a child with language disorder would demonstrate struggles with the use of sarcasm, one form of ambiguous language. Research has investigated how the language disorder population performs on tasks related to sarcasm (i.e., ToM), but to our knowledge, no research has directly examined how students with language disorder identify and respond to sarcasm.

This study aimed to introduce a new therapy that directly teaches sarcasm identification and use, to a student with language disorder. Not only are therapeutic tools that specifically address sarcasm limited or non-existent, but research related to transferability skills of sarcasm to other forms of ambiguous language are limited as well. To this point, the study additionally aimed to provide a tool to explore the transferability of those skills learned for the purposes of sarcasm to the learning of other forms of ambiguous language. Based on the current research, students who have a diagnosis of language disorder have increased difficulties in the comprehension and production of ambiguous language as a whole (Berman & Ravid, 2010; Billow, 1981; Derks, Jollies, van Rijn & Krabbendam, 2016; Laval, 2003; and Nippold, 2007). To this point, the intervention along with the pre-post-testing were designed and tested.

Specific Aim 1: Determine the usefulness of individual treatment focused on direct instruction in sarcasm for a student age 12 that has been diagnosed with language disorder.

Hypothesis: It is hypothesized that when given a sarcasm focused intervention a student who presents with language disorder will demonstrate an increase in their ability to identify and use sarcasm appropriately.

Specific Aim 2: Determine the transferability of the skills learned during the sarcasm intervention to the learning of other forms of ambiguous language, especially multiple-meaning words, oxymorons and metaphors.

Hypothesis: It is hypothesized that a student with language disorder will demonstrate an increase in their abilities to define multiple-meaning words, oxymorons and metaphors, as measured by pre- and post-testing, before and after the intervention is given without any explicit instruction in these forms of ambiguous language.

Methods

The following study was approved by the Case Western Reserve University Institutional Review Board.

Participant

The participant for this case study was a 12-year-old, monolingual English-speaking male with language disorder. The participant was recruited from and tested at a local parochial school. The participant was recruited from the caseload of the lead author. Consent forms were sent home from school.

Eligibility

In order to be eligible for the study the student had to have been given the CELF-5, been diagnosed with language disorder and currently receiving services by a licensed speech language pathologist. Additionally, the student had to score below 80% accuracy on all sections of the non-standardized Ambiguous Language Test and the sarcasm intervention baseline testing.

Standardized testing

The student was deemed eligible based on results of the *Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals, Fifth Edition* (Wiig, Semel & Secord, 2013). This testing was given by the lead author to qualify the student for eligibility to be on the caseload at school and had taken place one year prior to the start of the study. The results of the test demonstrated that the student had a language disorder and he was admitted to speech language services in the school.

Non-standardized testing

The participant was additionally given the non-standardized Ambiguous Language Test (ALT) as pre- and post-testing of the study. The ALT was designed by the authors and measures a student's ability to define various types of ambiguous language. The ALT measures the student's ability to define 10 multiple-meaning words, 10 metaphors and 10 oxymorons. The 30 items that were chosen for the ALT were picked from a list of 150 items (50 from each category) that had been previously tested on a group of 457 students who are typically developing. The items were chosen based on the results of a discrimination index and difficulty index. The test was presented both visually and verbally to reduce cognitive load. The SLP would read the word or phrase at the same time as presenting the word or phrase to the student on a card. The results of testing were scored only "correct" or "incorrect" for the ALT.

Additionally, the student was given a pre- and post-test of sarcasm. Each stimulus for the sarcasm intervention were written by the research team. The pre-test took place over three non-consecutive days. Both pre- and post-testing consisted of the student being read a story that either ended in a sarcastic or sincere phrase. The story was also paired with a picture. The student was asked to do three tasks:

1. Identify if the phrase was sincere or sarcastic
2. Appropriately respond to the phrase
3. Change the phrase to be the opposite (sarcastic or sincere) while being consistent with the story.

A "correct" or "incorrect" score was given for the scoring of the sarcasm baseline testing.

Procedures

The study consisted of baseline testing, three weeks of direct intervention and post-testing. Baseline testing of both non-standardized tests were completed a week before beginning the intervention weeks.

The intervention was a 30-minute session once a week in direct instruction in sarcasm. Each week the student was presented with the same introduction and instructions and then given three different stories in order to practice.

The intervention time began with the speech language pathologist (SLP) going over the various aspects of sarcasm (Appendix A). The SLP explicitly explained to the student how sarcasm is identified based on:

1. The words (e.g., being the opposite of what the speaker means)
2. The voice (e.g., change in the voice or a monotone)
3. Face/body (e.g., wide smile, crossed arms, raised eyebrows)

After going over the instructions on how to identify when someone is using sarcasm the SLP instructed the student on how to appropriately respond to sarcasm, (using the words, voice, face and body language) in the same manner. Once direct instruction was complete the student was then given the opportunity to demonstrate newly learned skills.

The SLP then read to the student three different stories (written by the research team). Each story was coupled with a picture and ended either in a sarcastic remark or sincere remark (Appendix B). All stories used for the intervention were different from those used during pre- and post-testing. After the student was read the story, he was asked to do three things:

1. Tell if the speaker was being sincere or sarcastic
2. Give an appropriate response to the statement
3. Change the statement to be the opposite (sincere or sarcastic) and still match the story

For each of the three tasks the student was given a level of verbal prompting if the task was not completed correctly. If the student was not able to identify sincerity or sarcasm the three main aspects of sarcasm, that had been taught in the beginning (i.e. words, voice face/body), were reviewed with the student (Appendix C). If the student did not complete the second task correctly, he was given a verbal prompt specific to that story (e.g., "Let's think of a reason why he doesn't want to help his friend move"). If the student did not complete the third task correctly they were given the verbal prompt "Let's think of a statement that doesn't match the picture" (if the goal is to produce a sarcastic statement) and "Let's think of a statement that does match the picture (if the goal is to produce a sincere statement). In the event that the above-mentioned levels of verbal prompting were given and the student was still unable to give the appropriate response then the SLP would provide the correct response for the student.

The intervention was scored from a range of 0-3 in which a three was given when a student produced the response independently, a two was given when the verbal prompt (as described above) was necessary for a correct response to be given, a one was given when the student could not produce the correct response even after the verbal prompt (as described above) and a zero was given when the student responded "I don't know" before and /or after the verbal prompt was given. The decision to differentiate the incorrect response from the "I don't know" response was done to gain data on times when a student would attempt an answer verses giving no response at all. This data was collected for future research purposes. For the purposes of this study, the student was permitted to give a response of "I don't know" as frequently as he liked. The results were converted to percent of independent accuracies out of total number of trials and analyzed.

Results

Intervention

The student demonstrated a baseline of 61% independent accuracy on the sarcasm intervention. Week one of the intervention the student demonstrated a decrease, falling to 55% independent accuracy. Weeks two and three the student performed at 77% independent accuracy, and the student's post-test results yielded a score of 88% independent accuracy (Figure 1).

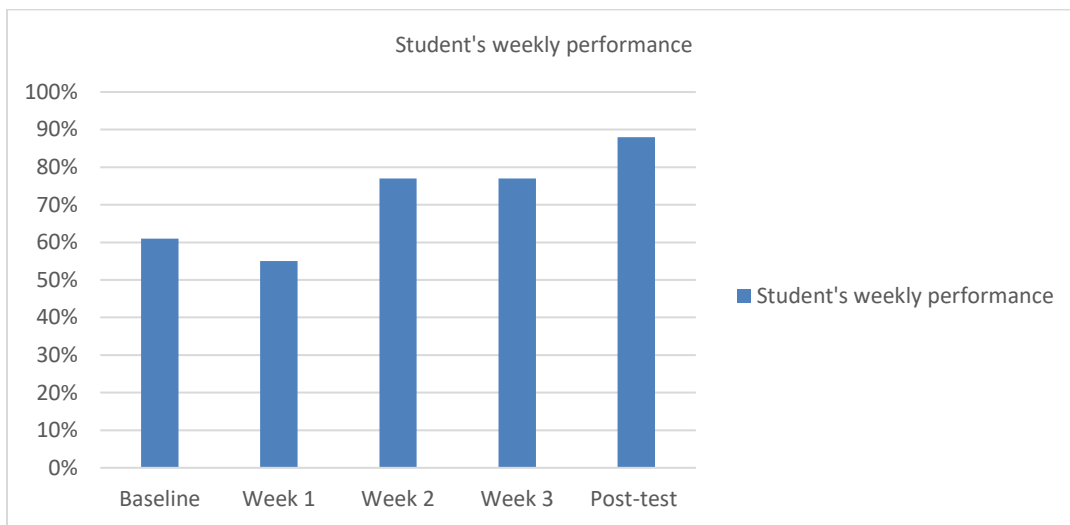


Figure 1. Baseline, weekly performance and post-test of the sarcasm intervention.

Ambiguous Language Test (ALT)

The post-testing of the ALT was again scored only on the basis of "correct" or "incorrect." The results indicated that the student's baseline of the multiple-meaning words was two and the post-test demonstrated an increase to five. The baseline for metaphors and oxymorons was one and post-testing were five and two, respectively (Figure 2).

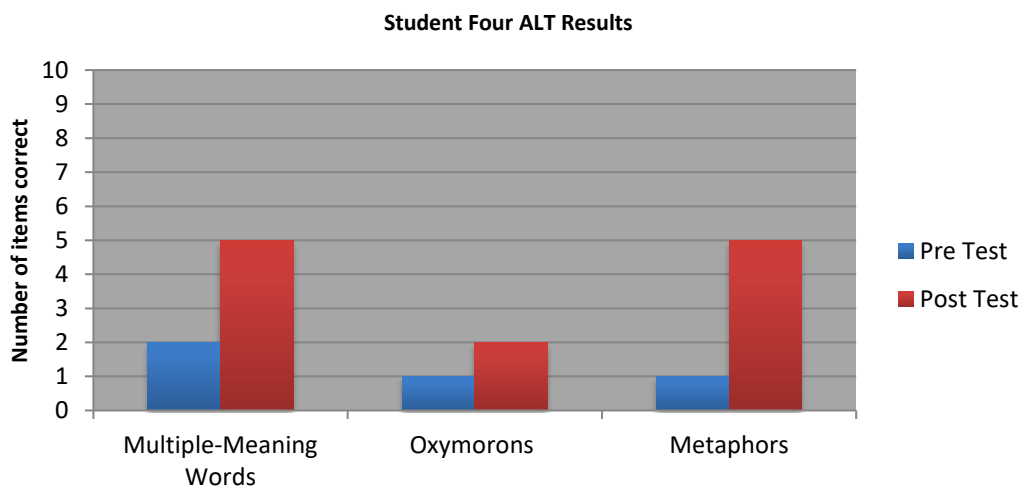


Figure 2: Pre- and post-testing results of the ALT.

Anecdotal Results

Over the course of the three-week intervention the student also made comments about the task getting easier based on his ability to pick up on patterns in the use of sarcasm. Additionally, he was able to demonstrate some self-correction, prior to the verbal prompt being given.

The area of face and voice continued to be a struggle for the student in that he would use a voice and/or facial expression consistent with sarcasm in times when he was giving a sincere remark.

Other times the student would be able to give the correct response (sincere or sarcastic remark), but the comment would not be consistent with the story (e.g., a comment completely unrelated).

Discussion

The study aimed to introduce a new therapy tool and hypothesized that the use of direct instruction in sarcasm would aid in a student's ability to both identify and use sarcasm. Additionally, it was hypothesized that this skill would be transferable, in that the student would also increase his ability to define other forms ambiguous language (e.g., multiple-meaning words, metaphors and oxymorons). The results yielded positive progress. After going through the intervention, the student did increase his ability to identify and respond to sarcasm. He also demonstrated an increase in his ability to define the other three forms of ambiguous language. While initially there was a decrease from baseline in the sarcasm performance, the student ultimately demonstrated an increase in both his ability to identify and respond to sarcastic remarks and define the other targeted forms of ambiguous language.

Sarcasm is an integral part of everyday language. The ability to identify and respond to a sarcastic remark requires multiple steps (e.g., facial recognition, attention to vocal change and body language) and can be a challenge even for those who are typically developing. The ability to identify when sarcasm is being used and then respond appropriately is vital to social language interactions. Additionally, the ability to generalize the skills used in sarcastic communication exchanges to other forms of ambiguous language may be beneficial for academic success. This is due to the fact that other forms of ambiguous language use (e.g. multiple-meaning words) are used consistently throughout both the academic literature and lectures and decreased ability to define or use these words could lead to academic struggle.

Students who present with language disorder have increased difficulty with the use of ambiguous language (Nippold, 2017), and these difficulties impact both their social and academic performances. Previous research has identified the difficulties that the language disorder population encounters such as facial expression and the ability to relate those to emotional state (both of which are necessary elements of sarcasm identification). Language learning in the language disorder population takes place through explicit instruction as this population does not learn in the same manner as their age-matched peers who are typically developing (Nippold, 2017). It is often necessary to directly point out non-verbal communication markers (e.g., facial expressions) to students with language disorder for them to be able to understand how a speaker is feeling/what they are trying to communicate. By providing explicit instruction on the various parts of sarcasm, the SLP aimed to increase the student's ability to think more abstractly. The breakdown of the various parts of sarcasm that were presented at the beginning of each week were necessary to prime the student to be able to think about the whole communication exchange, including the body language and the facial expressions. The ability to think about the communication exchange as a whole and not solely in a literal manner is vital to the understanding and use of all forms of ambiguous language.

This study explored how direct instruction in one form of ambiguous language, sarcasm, would not only increase the identification and use of sarcasm but would also impact a student's ability to think abstractly about other forms of ambiguous language and in turn be able to define those words and phrase with greater consistency. Specifically, this study looked at how direct instruction in sarcasm would increase a student's ability to define multiple-meaning words, metaphors and oxymorons. The direct instruction in sarcasm was conducted by explicitly explaining to the student what various aspects of sarcasm look and sound like. The study explicitly instructed the student on how to produce sarcasm based on the rules governing the identification of sarcasm. By doing this the study aimed to increase the student's

awareness of the uses of ambiguous language and teach the skills necessary to view the entire communication exchange. Specific parts of sarcasm teaching- especially the contradiction of the words and their meaning- aid in helping a student understand that words have both literal and non-literal meaning and it is necessary to take in the whole picture in order to understand fully what a conversation partner means. We cannot just assume the literal context of words at all times or the underlying message will be missed, leading to a breakdown in a conversation. Additionally, the study explored the transferability of those skills to the learning of other forms of ambiguous language. The results indicated that not only was the student able to increase identification and use of sarcasm, but he was able to increase his ability to define other forms of ambiguous language when only given explicit instruction in one form (sarcasm). These results are a promising step in the direction of generalization across ambiguous language forms.

Despite the intervention only lasting three weeks, preliminary improvement was demonstrated in the identification, response and use of sarcasm. Additionally, the student did demonstrate small gains in his ability to define other forms of ambiguous language.

Limitations

The sarcasm intervention was limited in that it explored only the ability of one student with language disorder and in an individual session. Additionally, time constraints limited the researchers to only being able to administer the intervention for three weeks. While the study took place over a short period of time there is a possibility that maturation or history could have impacted outcomes of the study. A larger group of students, in a group setting and over a longer period of time would be necessary in order to further verify the results that this case study yielded. Group sessions and longer periods of time would be more representative of a traditional therapy session and would be necessary to determine transferability of the intervention into therapy services.

The individual items of the sarcasm intervention have yet to be tested for difficulty levels and this may have resulted in some items being easier or more difficult for the student to be able to answer.

Future Directions

The researchers plan to re-administer the intervention to a larger group of students, in a group session over a longer period of time. Additionally, the team could explore the impacts of this intervention within other populations (e.g., Autism Spectrum Disorder).

Further exploration could be conducted on the sarcasm stimulus themselves. Developing and testing a difficulty index of the sarcasm stimulus would be necessary in order to validate the results of the student from week to week.

Lastly, further research of the ALT is warranted to see if this test could be used to help identify students who have increased risk for experiencing delays in the learning/use of ambiguous language. While this case study used the ALT as pre- and post-testing, the aim of the ALT would be to stand alone, or be used as a subtest, for language analyses.

Conclusion

This study examined a student's ability to increase his ability to identify and use sarcasm, after being given direct instruction in the task. Additionally, it explored the student's ability to then generalize those skills (using the ALT) to be able to define multiple-meaning words, metaphors and oxymorons. The results yielded promising outcomes, as improvement was seen in all areas. While the ALT items were previously tested for difficulty levels, the results of the sarcasm intervention could have been due to the individual sarcasm stimuli not being balanced for difficulty levels and not directly an increase in the student's understanding of the identification and use of sarcasm.

Overall, the results demonstrate positive improvement (for this student), in the area of direct instruction in sarcasm as a way to not only increase this skill but also to generalize the skill to other forms of ambiguous language. The stimuli used for this case study, along with additional stimuli will be used to design a full sarcasm intervention to be used by speech-

language pathologists. The ALT will be used for further assessment protocols related to students' abilities to define ambiguous language and the impacts that potentially could have on academic performance. ♦

Acknowledgments

The researchers would like to thank the school for allowing recruitment to take place, the parents of the student and the student himself. Additionally, the researchers would like to thank the graduate students who aided in the development of the ALT and the sarcasm intervention cards. This study would not have been possible without each and every one of you.

References

- Ackerman, B. P. (1986). Children's sensitivity to comprehension failure in interrupting a nonliteral use of an utterance. *Child Development, 57*, 485-497.
- American Speech-Language-Hearing Association. (2018). *Spoken language disorders*. Retrieved from <https://www.asha.org/practice-portal/clinical-topics/spoken-language-disorders/>
- American Psychiatric Association. (2013) *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, Fifth Edition. Arlington, VA: American Psychiatric.
- Benasich, A. A., Curtiss, S., & Tallal, P. (1993). Language, learning, and behavioral disturbances in childhood: A longitudinal perspective. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 31*(3), 585-594.
- Berman, R., & Ravid, D. (2010). Interpretation and recall of proverbs in three school-age populations. *First Language, 30*(2), 155-173.
- Billow, R. M. (1981). Observing spontaneous metaphor in children. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 31*, 430-445.
- Blasko, D. G., & Kazmerski, V. A. (2006). ERP correlates of individual differences in the comprehension of nonliteral language. *Metaphor and Symbol, 21*(4), 267-284.
- Capelli, C. A., Nakagawa, N., & Madden, C. M. (1990). How children understand sarcasm: The role of context and intonation. *Child Development, 61*(6), 1824-1841.
- Conti-Ramsden, G., Botting, N., and Faragher, B. (2001). Psycholinguistic markers for specific language impairment (SLI). *J. Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 42*(6), 741-448.
- Creusere, M. A. (1999). Theories of adults' understanding and use of irony and sarcasm: Applications to and evidence from research with children. *Developmental Review, 19*(2), 213-262.
- Demorest, A., Meyer, C., Phelps, E., Gardner, H., & Winner, E. (1984). Words speak louder than actions: Understanding deliberately false remarks. *Child Development, 55*(4), 1527-1534.
- Derks, J., Jolles, J., van Rijn, J., and Krabbendam, L. (2016). Individual differences in social cognition as predictors of secondary school performance. *Trends in Neuroscience and Education, 5*(4).
- Gentner, D. (1988). Metaphor as structure mapping: The relational shift. *Child Development, 59*(1), 47-59.
- Glenwright, M., Parackel, J.M., Cheung, K.R., & Nilsen, E.S. (2014). Intonation influences how children and adults interpret sarcasm. *Journal of Child Language, 41*(2), 472-84.
- Glenwright, M., & Pexman, P. M. (2010). Development of children's ability to distinguish sarcasm and verbal irony. *Journal of Child Language, 37*(2), 429-451.
- Glenwright, M., Tapley, B., Rano, J.K.S., & Pexman, P. M. (2017). Developing appreciation for sarcasm and sarcastic gossip: It depends on perspective. *Journal of Speech, Language and Hearing Research, 60*, 3295-3309.
- Hancock, J. T., Dunham, P. J., & Purdy, K. (2000). Children's comprehension of critical and complimentary forms of verbal irony. *Journal of Cognition and Development, 1*(2), 227-248.
- Jerome, A. C., Fujiki, M., Brinton, B., and James, S. L. (2002). Self-esteem in children with specific language impairment. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research, 45*(4), 700-14.
- Kennison, S. M., (2014). *Introduction to language development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Kim, J. (2013). Developing conceptual understanding of sarcasm in a second language through concept-based instruction [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. The Pennsylvania State University.

- Laval, V. (2003). Idiom comprehension and metapragmatic knowledge in French children. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 35, 723–739.
- Leonard, L. B. (2014). *Children with specific language impairment* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Ma, A., and Píriz, P. (2011). Are trainee primary school teachers aware of its importance? *International Journal of Innovation and Leadership on the Teaching of Humanities* 1(1), 80-98.
- Montgomery, J. W., Magimairaj, B. M., & Finney, M. C. (2010). Working memory and specific language impairment: An update on the relation and perspectives on assessment and treatment. *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology /American Speech-Language-Hearing Association*, 19(1), 78-94.
- Nippold, M. A. (2007). *Later language development: School-age children, adolescents, and young-adults, Third Edition*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed an International Publisher.
- Nippold, M. A. (2017). *Later language development: School-age children, adolescents, and young-adults, Fourth Edition*. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed an International Publisher.
- Paul, R., Norbury, C., & Gosse, C. (2018). *Language disorders from infancy through adolescence: Listening, speaking, reading, writing, and communicating*. St. Louis, MO: Elsevier.
- Pexman, P. M., Glenwright, M., Hala, S., Kowbel, S. L., & Jungen, S. (2006). Children's use of trait information in understanding verbal irony. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 21(1), 39-60.
- Ramus, F., Marshall, C. R., Rosen, S., & van der Lely, H. K. J. (2013). Phonological deficits in specific language impairment and developmental dyslexia: Towards a multidimensional model. *Brain: A Journal of Neurology*, 136(Pt 2), 630-645.
- Riloff, E., Quadir, A., Surve, P., De Silva, L., Gilbert, N. & Huang, R. (2013). *Sarcasm as contrast between a positive sentiment and negative situation*. Proceedings of the 2013 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, p. 704–714.
- Shakibai, M. T., & Cairns, H. S., (2015, November). *Homophone and lexical ambiguity detection: Implications for reading comprehension and flexible language use*. Oral presentation at the American Speech Language Hearing Association Conference, Denver, CO.
- Sheng, L. & McGregor, K. (2010). Lexical-semantic organization in children with specific language impairment. *Journal of Speech, Language and Hearing Research*, 53(1), 146-159.
- Trauner, D. A., Ballantyne, A., Chase, C., & Tallal, P. (1993). Comprehension and expression of affect in language-impaired children. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 22(4), 445-452.
- Wiig, E. H., Semel, E., & Secord, W. A. (2013). *Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals—Fifth Edition (CELF-5)*. Bloomington, MN: NCS Pearson.



Appendix A

The Basics of Sarcasm Teaching Card

Say, "When we are trying to identify and appropriately respond to sarcasm there are a few things that we need to keep in mind. Words can sometimes be used to have different meanings than what we might think about initially. When someone is being sarcastic, they are saying the opposite of what they mean in order to communicate a specific message. We have to think about what they say from their perspective and not just from ours. So, when we are trying to identify sarcasm, we need to ask ourselves a few things."

Identifying Sarcasm

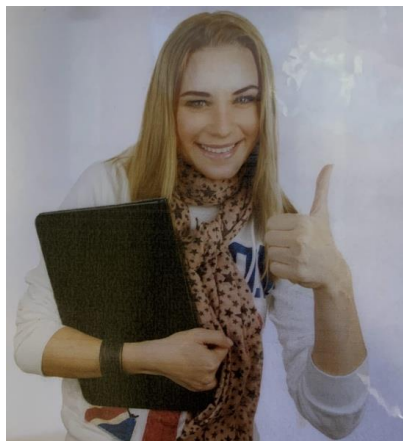
1. The first part is *THE WORDS*. Do the words actually match the situation?
 - a. For example, it's raining outside and someone says, "Well isn't this a perfect day for a walk."
 - b. This is the opposite of what they mean, indicating that they are being sarcastic
2. The second part is *THE VOICE*. Does the voice match what is being said?
 - a. For example, (say in a sarcastic tone), I love when you do that.
 - b. The person's voice might change on the word "love" indicating that they actually do not like it at all
 - c. Another example would be if the person does not change their voice at all (say with flat effect) I just love when you do that.
 - d. In this example the person gives what is called a flat sarcastic comment showing no emotion at all.
3. The third part is *THE FACE/BODY*. Does the facial expression/body language match what is being said?
 - a. For example, they are frowning and crossing their arms and saying that they are so happy about something.
 - b. This gives you a visual clue that they are saying the opposite of what they mean.

Responding to sarcasm

Say, Once we have identified that the person we are talking to is using sarcasm we need to provide an appropriate response to that comment. An appropriate response to sarcasm can either be a sarcastic comment back or a sincere comment that matches the situation. To give an appropriate sarcastic response to sarcasm we have to be sure to keep the three things in mind: The words, the voice and the face/body so that if we are being sarcastic our listener knows. Now we are going to go through some examples to practice sarcasm. We will look at short stories that have either a sincere or sarcastic comment given at the end of them. Your job is to identify if the comment is sincere or sarcastic. Then you will give an appropriate response to the comment, sincere or sarcastic and then finally you will change the comment to either be sincere or sarcastic but make sure that it still matches the story.

Appendix B

Card 1A



Story read by clinician (read all parts in bold) **Sophie was studying very hard for her test for school. For one week she didn't play with her friends or watch any TV. When she got her test back, she got an A. Her teacher said, (sincere voice) "Great job!"**

1. **Was Sophie's teacher being sincere or sarcastic?**
 - a. If correct answer, move to next question
 - b. If incorrect answer, go through all aspects of sarcasm from visual aid card A
2. **What would be an appropriate response for Sophie to give her teacher?**
 - a. If correct answer, move to next question
 - b. If incorrect answer, say, *"Let's think of a reason why Sophie should be proud?"*
3. **How could you rephrase the statement Sophie's teacher made to be sarcastic and still match the story?**
 - a. If correct answer, move to next card
 - b. If incorrect answer, say, *"Let's think of a statement or question that doesn't match the picture."*

Card 1B



Story read by clinician (read all parts in bold)

Alex didn't want to practice for her basketball game. She wanted to play video games instead. So, on the day of the big game after she missed the game winning shot her teammate came up to her and said, (sarcastic voice) "Great job!"

1. **Was Alex's teammate being sincere or sarcastic?**
 - a. If correct answer, move to next question
 - b. If incorrect answer, go through all aspects of sarcasm from visual aid card A
2. **What would be an appropriate response for Alex to give her teammate?**
 - a. If correct answer, move to next question
 - b. If incorrect answer, say, *"Let's think of a reason why Alex did not make her shot?"*
3. **How could you rephrase the statement Alex's teammate made to be sincere and still match the story?**
 - a. If correct answer, move to next card
 - b. If incorrect answer, say, *"Let's think of a statement or question that doesn't match the picture."*

Appendix C

Aspects of sarcasm Visual aid Card A

Say, **“Remember the different parts of identifying and responding to sarcasm:**

1. The words
 - a. Do they match the situation?
2. The voice
 - a. Does the voice change in a way that doesn’t match the words or does it stay completely flat?
3. The face/body
 - a. Does the face/body match the words and the situation?

Let’s try the example again.”

Go back to the sarcasm cards

Critical Linkages: Opiate Addiction and Elevated Risk of Human Trafficking

Amy Thompson, Joan Duggan, & Jamie Dowling

Abstract

Opioid use may result in secondary effects of impaired judgment, dulled physical pain and ultimately addiction, which are effective means by which human traffickers seize potential victims. The addictions are often used to coerce victims to exchange sex for addictive opioids and other substances of abuse in a vicious cycle that often ties them to their human trafficker indefinitely. In a recent survey of survivors of human trafficking, 84% used drugs during their exploitation. Alcohol, marijuana and cocaine were used by more than 50% of respondents and nearly 22% used heroin (Raphael & Feifer, 2017). Victims of human trafficking are also at increased risk for overdose. For those working in clinical or mental health service settings, opioid addiction is an important risk factor for clients for human trafficking. This risk factor was examined as part of the services offered to clients who utilize Northwest Ohio Syringe Services (NOSS), the first syringe exchange program in Northwest Ohio. This article will provide information on the linkage between human trafficking and opiate use and ways to help assess the risk of human trafficking by those currently using opioids.

Amy Thompson Ph.D., CHES, FESG is employed by the University of Toledo.

Financial – Professor in the School of Population Health at the University of Toledo, Director of the Center for Health and Successful Living and Vice Provost for Faculty Affairs at the University of Toledo.

Nonfinancial – No relevant nonfinancial relationship exists.

Joan Duggan M.D., F.A.C.P., A.A.H.I.V.S. is employed by the University of Toledo.

Financial – Professor, Chief of Infectious Diseases, and Senior Associate Dean for Faculty Affairs and Development at The University of Toledo

Nonfinancial – No relevant nonfinancial relationship exists.

Jamie Dowling Ph.D. is employed by the University of Toledo.

Financial – Assistant Professor in the University of Toledo College of Medicine and Life Sciences.

Nonfinancial – No relevant nonfinancial relationship exists.

Learning Objectives

- 1) Explain the relationship between opioid use and human trafficking
 - 2) Identify ways to assess the risk of human trafficking in individuals using opioids
 - 3) Describe potential resources for those using opioids or who are suspected victims of human trafficking
-

Human trafficking is a form of modern slavery, as it involves force, fraud, or coercion to fulfill labor or commercial sex needs (Department of Homeland Security [DHS], n.d.). It involves the acquisition of people by improper means with the aim of exploiting them (Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000 § 106, 2000). Human trafficking is an industry that generates billions of dollars of profit a year for the perpetrators, and often involves victims who are scared to come forward due to language differences, fear of the perpetrator, or fear of law enforcement (DHS, n.d.).

The National Human Trafficking Hotline describes an “Action-Means-Purpose Model” that details human trafficking. An action could be the recruiting or obtaining of an individual. Means typically involves force or coercion. The purpose is the reason for the person’s service, most often sex-related or labor-related. There are over 25 different types of trafficking, including escort services, illicit massage, health, and beauty parlors, outdoor solicitation, residential or domestic work, bars and strip clubs, pornography, traveling sales crews, restaurant and food service, peddling and begging, agriculture, construction, hotels and hospitality, landscaping, and carnivals. Each type has its unique strategies for recruitment and controlling victims and concealing the crime (National Human Trafficking Hotline, 2018a).

The Scope of Human Trafficking

Reports of human trafficking statistics vary greatly depending upon source. The Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 reported that some 2.5 million people are trafficked for labor and sexual exploitation globally. Human Rights First (2017) states that an estimated 24.9 million people are victims of human trafficking around the world. Estimates of the scope of human trafficking in the United States are difficult to determine, but for the Americas in general it's estimated that 1.2 million people are being trafficked, or about 5% of the global total (Human Rights First, 2017). The National Human Trafficking Hotline (2018a) tracks the number of calls and cases it receives nationwide, and has received almost 200,000 calls, emails, and web form messages since 2007, resulting in 45,308 cases of human trafficking.

Human Trafficking in Ohio

The National Human Trafficking Hotline (2018b) reports state-specific statistics related to human trafficking cases. From 2007 to June 30, 2018, there were over 6,500 total calls made to the Hotline, which resulted in almost 1,800 total cases. Over 1,600 victims were involved which is which is significantly higher than national figures (National Human Trafficking Hotline, 2018b). Within the first six months of 2018, there were already 500 calls placed to the Hotline, resulting in 219 human trafficking cases. Almost all involved sex trafficking (n=178), women (n=186), and adults (n=151) (National Human Trafficking Hotline, 2018b).

Risk Factors for Human Trafficking

Polaris Project lists common risk factors for human trafficking. These include recent migration or relocation, substance use, runaway or homeless youth, mental health concerns, and involvement in the child welfare system (Polaris Project, 2019a).

A multi-level approach to the evaluation of risk factors for sex trafficking of minors was recently reviewed by the Institute of Medicine and National Research Council of the National Academies (Clayton, Krugman, & Simon 2013). At the core level, individual risk factors include a history of child abuse, neglect or mistreatment; being a runaway or homeless; member of the LGBTQ community; and history of involvement in the justice system or foster care. The next level is relationship risk factors, which includes family dysfunction or conflict. Third level consists of community risk factors, including peer pressure, social norms, being involved in gangs, and involvement in communities with insignificant resources. Last is the societal risk factor level, which includes an overall lack of awareness related to sex trafficking, lack of available resources, and sexualization of youth (Clayton, Krugman, & Simon 2013).

Assessing Drug Abuse and Human Trafficking Risk: Clinical clues to ongoing abuse

Health care providers can serve as a crucial link between the victims of human trafficking and the resources that will assist them to safety. Since about half of trafficking victims reported visiting a physician while they were being trafficked, those who work in the medical field are among the most likely of all professions to interact with this subjugated population (Grace, Ahn, & Konstantopoulos, 2014). To best recognize a potential case of human trafficking especially when associated with opioid use disorder (OUD), it is important to understand some of the warning signs that may be observed when caring for this unique patient population. Health-related outcomes linked to human trafficking with or without OUD are numerous and include exposure to infectious diseases like HIV/AIDS, reproductive health concerns, and mental health disorders including severe depression (Grace et al., 2014). Information is available for providers on how to spot signs of human trafficking, which is defined as the use of force, fraud or coercion to control another person for the purpose of engaging in commercial sex acts or soliciting labor or services against his/her will (National Human Trafficking Hotline, 2018a).

Like drug use, the signs observed are partly dependent on the type of abuse experienced. As cocaine intoxication looks different than alcohol intoxication, victims of labor trafficking may present differently than victims of sex trafficking. The Polaris Project, a nonprofit, non-governmental organization that works to combat and prevent modern-day slavery and human trafficking, describes common signs to be aware of that could indicate the possibility of an unsafe situation such as human trafficking (Polaris Project, 2019b). For example, when an individual is unable to leave their work or home on their own accord, is a commercial sex worker with a panderer ("pimp"), is paid very little or not at all, works excessive

hours or long hours without a break, or works in an environment with high security features, then the signs are present that may indicate potential human trafficking. Mental health signs include individuals who appear fearful, nervous or submissive, demonstrate fear of law enforcement, and avoid eye contact. Physical health signs include signs of malnourishment, abuse or torture, and a lack of healthcare. Other signs of human trafficking involve an individual's lack of control over their lives or situations such as not having any personal possessions, not being in control of their finances or identification, not being allowed to speak for themselves, not being aware of or have knowledge of their address, or having inconsistencies in their history or background (Polaris Project, 2019b).

The Relationship between Drug Use and Human Trafficking

It's suggested that certain markets in the drug trade are becoming saturated creating a need to diversify into other areas of illegal activities for profit. For those operating in the criminal world, human trafficking is considered a highly profitable and low risk crime. It's profitable because there is a high demand for cheap labor. It could be considered low risk because there are fewer penalties for being caught and minimal risk of losing profits. Criminals know that human trafficking is not a top priority to law enforcement when compared to drug trafficking. Polaris Project reported that human trafficking in 2017 increased by 13% compared to 2016 (National Human Trafficking Hotline, 2018b).

Opioids and other illicit drugs are often used in recruitment, retention, and exploitation. This concept is discussed at length in *Human Trafficking is a Public Health Issue* (Chisolm-Straker & Stoklosa, 2017). Recruitment strategies that are used to lure new victims include forming intimate partner relationships with a potential victim and/or a marriage proposition, using familial relationships, posing as a benefactor, disguising as a job offer, making false promises or committing fraud, and abduction. In addition, traffickers may target individuals who already use opioids and then ensnare them into trafficking which is made easier due to their addiction (Chisolm-Straker & Stoklosa, 2017). Opioids and other drugs are especially used in the retention of victims because opioids are strongly addictive. Some research indicates that about a quarter of trafficking survivors had used heroin, and over a quarter of them reported being forced to use some type of substance (Chisolm-Straker & Stoklosa, 2017). Use of opioids and drugs are a coercion strategy that allows the perpetrator to maintain control over the victim, to foster dependence on their trafficker, and to keep them indebted to their trafficker. Exploitation often involves drug use as well. Opioids can compel individuals to perform sex acts that they would never do while sober. Opioids can compel children and adolescents into pornography. Furthermore, opioids can compel victims to work under extreme conditions in order to feed their habit. As a result of increased drug use, victim's risk of contracting diseases, such as HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases increase as well.

Drug and Alcohol Use and Abuse

One tool often used by perpetrators of human trafficking is substance use and abuse. Paying victims with drugs or encouraging drug use can lead to addiction, which in turn can continue the victim's cycle of dependence on their perpetrator. Therefore, it is also important for health care workers to be able to identify clinical signs of drug and alcohol use and abuse. These signs depend on multiple factors such as what substance is being used (often more than one drug); how much is being used; physical dependence/addiction; last episode of use; and underlying comorbidities (Mayo Clinic, 2017).

While there are certain signs/symptoms of drug/alcohol use that providers should not miss, it is important to note that outside of periods of acute intoxication or withdrawal, the history and physical exam obtained in the clinical setting is often completely normal (even with chronic use!). In addition, people with substance abuse disorder may attempt to hide any symptoms or downplay their addiction (Indian Health Service [IHS], 2018). But warning signs of active drug use include having a mental status exam or patient history that reveals abnormalities in the following areas (when compared with premorbid functioning): general appearance, interactions, speech, motor activity, mood/affect, perception, thoughts, and insight/judgment/content/cognitive functioning (Mayo Clinic, 2017).

Physical observations (even on a non-medical examination) that may indicate drug use consist of poor personal hygiene, oral/dental changes, weight loss or weight gain, skin changes, tracks or abscesses at potential injection sites, jaundice, nasal issues such as a septal perforation or collapse, nose bleeds or changes in cartilage, motor/muscular changes such as gait abnormalities, eye changes such as dilated or constricted pupils, and facial changes such as “meth mouth” (Mayo Clinic, 2017). Other physical warning signs of substance abuse include changes in sleep patterns, slurred speech or coordination impairment, and unusual odors on the patient, their clothing, or breath (IHS, 2018).

As described by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services’ IHS (2018), there are also behavioral warning signs of drug abuse and addiction. Signs of abuse include conflict in the user’s personal relationships caused by their abuse, participating in secretive behaviors, frequent legal trouble, sudden change in habits and social circle, unexplained financial problems, and previously unusual neglect of responsibilities. Warning signs of addiction include demonstrating an increased tolerance, continued use of drugs to avoid withdrawal symptoms, and continued drug use despite negative consequences.

Drug-specific signs/symptoms vary as well. Barbiturates, benzodiazepines, and hypnotics often feature observed signs such as drowsiness, slurred speech, lack of coordination, irritability or changes in mood, problems concentrating or thinking clearly, memory problems, involuntary eye movements, lack of inhibition, slowed breathing and reduced blood pressure, and dizziness (Mayo Clinic, 2017). Also, irrational and bizarre behavior and mood swings are common warning signs of these specific drugs (IHS, 2018).

Methamphetamines, cocaine, and other stimulants include observable signs and symptoms like increased alertness, increased energy and restlessness or insomnia, rapid or rambling speech, dilated pupils, confusion, delusions and hallucinations, irritability, anxiety or paranoia, changes in heart rate, blood pressure and body temperature, nausea or vomiting with weight loss, impaired judgment, nasal congestion and damage to the mucous membrane of the nose (if snorting drugs), and mouth sores, gum disease and tooth decay from smoking drugs (“meth mouth”) (Mayo Clinic, 2017). Patients using these stimulants may experience long periods of time without eating or sleeping, sleeping at odd times, or excessive sleep (IHS, 2018).

Depressant-specific warning signs of abuse include a drunk-like presentation, difficulty concentrating, poor coordination and judgement, slurred speech pattern, and sleepiness (IHS, 2018). People who abuse this class of drugs may also experience lightheadedness, dry mouth, low blood pressure, and slowed breathing (National Institute on Drug Abuse [NIDA], 2018). Continued abuse of central nervous system depressants can lead to dependence, withdrawal if usage stops (including potential for seizures), and tolerance resulting in an increasingly larger dose needed to maintain effects. Overdosing on depressants can occur when the user’s breathing slows to an inadequate level or stops completely, resulting in hypoxia (NIDA, 2018).

Signs and symptoms of opioid use and abuse may also include a reduced sense of pain, agitation, drowsiness or sedation, slurred speech, problems with attention and memory, constricted pupils, lack of awareness or inattention to surrounding people and things, problems with coordination, depression, confusion, constipation, runny nose or nose sores (if snorting drugs), and needle marks (if injecting drugs) (Mayo Clinic, 2017).

In conclusion, human trafficking is a serious crime that affects individuals of diverse backgrounds in a wide range of industries. The strong relationship between human trafficking and opioid use indicates a need for increased surveillance by health care providers and researchers alike. Health care providers specifically have an opportunity to help identify potential victims of human trafficking as well as those suffering from OUD and have a duty to assist these individuals in obtaining needed help and resources. ♦

Acknowledgements:

The authors would like to acknowledge Courtney Stewart and Jerry Kerr. While they were not co-authors of this paper, they were involved in presentations and talks related to the content. The authors greatly appreciate their commitment and hard work regarding the creation of Toledo's first syringe exchange program, and their passion for the population in need. Their efforts greatly helped getting the program off the ground and through its successful first year(s).

Author Correspondence

Amy Thompson Ph.D.

Phone: 419.530.4171

Email: amy.thompson4@utoledo.edu

References

- Chisolm-Straker, M. & Stoklosa, H. (Eds.) (2017). *Human trafficking is a public health issue: A paradigm expansion in the United States*. eBook: Springer.
- Clayton, E., Krugman R.D., & Simon, P. (Eds.) (2013) *Confronting commercial sexual exploitation and sex trafficking of minors in the United States*. Washington, D.C.: The National Academies Press.
- Department of Homeland Security (n.d.). *What is human trafficking?* Retrieved from <https://www.dhs.gov/blue-campaign/what-human-trafficking>.
- Grace, A.M., Ahn, R., & Konstantopoulos, W.M. (2014). Integrating curricula on human trafficking into medical education and residency training, *JAMA Pediatrics*, 168(9): 793-794.
- Human Rights First (2017). *Human trafficking by the numbers*. Retrieved from <https://www.humanrightsfirst.org/resource/human-trafficking-numbers>.
- Indian Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2018). *Alcohol and substance abuse program: Warning signs of drug abuse and addiction*. Retrieved from <https://www.ihs.gov/asap/familyfriends/warningsignsdrug/>
- Mayo Clinic (2017). *Drug addiction (Substance Use Disorder), symptoms and causes*. Retrieved from <https://www.mayoclinic.org/diseases-conditions/drug-addiction/symptoms-causes/syc-20365112>.
- National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA) (2018). *Prescription CNS depressants*. Retrieved from <https://www.drugabuse.gov/publications/drugfacts/prescription-cns-depressants>.
- National Human Trafficking Hotline (2018a). *What is human trafficking?* Retrieved from <https://humantraffickinghotline.org>.
- National Human Trafficking Hotline (2018b). *National human trafficking hotline cases jump by 13% in 2017* [Press release]. Retrieved from <https://polarisproject.org/news/press-releases/national-human-trafficking-hotline-cases-jump-13-2017>.
- National Human Trafficking Hotline. (2018c). *Ohio statistics*. Retrieved from <https://humantraffickinghotline.org/state/ohio>.
- Polaris Project. (2019a). *Who is vulnerable?* Retrieved from <https://polarisproject.org/human-trafficking>.
- Polaris Project. (2019b). *Recognize the signs*. Retrieved from <https://polarisproject.org/human-trafficking/recognize-signs>.
- Raphael, J. & Feifer, K. (2017). *What we know about sex trafficking, prostitution, and sexual exploitation in the U.S. (World without exploitation)*. New York, NY. Retrieved from https://endsexualexploitation.org/wp-content/uploads/Research-Summary_What-we-know-about-trafficking-prostitution-and-exploitation-in-US-.pdf.
- Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000 § 106, 386 U.S.C.

Appendix

Drug- and Human Trafficking-Related Resources

The following are local, state and federal resources related to human trafficking.

- 1. Department of Homeland Security: Blue Campaign**
 - To report suspected human trafficking: 1-866-347-2423
- 2. Department of Transportation (DOT) and the Blue Lightning Initiative**
 - DOT has trained their 55,000 employees every three years
 - Amtrak has trained 20,000 employees
 - Greyhound has trained all of their employees
 - 23 aviation partners have trained 100,000 employees
- 3. Truckers Against Trafficking (TAT)**
 - 501c3 since 2011
 - 298,000 trained
 - State of Ohio requires TAT training to get an entry level CDL
- 4. The S.O.A.P. Project: Save Our Adolescents from Prostitution**
 - Founded by Theresa Flores in 2012
 - Survivor and female led 501c3
 - Engaged over 100,000 volunteers
 - S.O.A.P. distributed across 13 U.S. states and 25 cities
- 5. House Bill 262: Ohio Safe Harbor Law**
 - Developed in 2012
 - Requires peace officer training on how to identify human trafficking
 - Funding provided to advertise state help line: 614-285-4357 (HELP)
- 6. Ohio Gov. Kasich's Human Trafficking Task Force**
 - Developed in 2012
 - 10 state departments
 - Provides training videos for specific professions, screening tools, links to the 23 human trafficking coalitions, updated information about trafficking legislation
- 7. Ohio State Cosmetology and Barber Board**
 - In 2015, the board required a one hour continuing education course to apply/renew a state license
 - Red flags: dress, eye contact, age of escort, payer for services

8. Lucas County Human Trafficking Coalition

- Formed in 2009
- Committees:
 - Programs and Services
 - Events and Marketing
 - Education
 - Grants
 - Development
- Kent Branch Library, every third Thursday of the month, 9:15am
- New members have to apply, be voted on, and attend six meetings a year

9. University of Toledo Human Trafficking and Social Justice Institute- P.A.T.H.

- Partners Against Trafficking in Humans
- Local network of service providers
- PATH Approved agencies have been through PATH, human trafficking, and/or trauma-informed care trainings and have agreed to guide their clients through their agency's services once identified.
- PATH Guidebook provides an organized list of adult and youth service providers for:
 - Legal Basic Needs
 - Injury, Impairment and Support Services
 - Mental Health Services
 - Substance Abuse Treatment
 - Empowerment Services
 - Health Care

10. NW Ohio Syringe Services (NOSS) Harm Reduction Ohio

- In 2015, Ohio Revised Code made syringe access programs legal when approved by the local Board of Health.
- NOSS Opened for service on 8/1/17
- 15 Ohio Syringe Access Programs serving 17 counties
- A projected 25 counties will be providing syringe access programming in Ohio's 88 counties by 2019
- In 2019, federal funding will be available to support syringe access programs in Ohio.
- NOSS is funded by The Ryan White Program, Mental Health Recovery Services Board, Toledo Lucas County Health Department



THE UNIVERSITY OF
TOLEDO
1872



**COLLEGE OF MEDICINE
AND LIFE SCIENCES**

THE UNIVERSITY OF TOLEDO

Potential Indicators of Human Trafficking within Migrant Farmworker Communities in Western Michigan

Jeremy S. Norwood

Abstract

The purpose of this research project was to utilize the different stages of migration to identify indicators of human trafficking within farmworker communities in Western Michigan. In order to determine the presence of these indicators, the researcher completed hour-long interviews with 15 different professionals who worked alongside migrant farmworkers throughout the State of Michigan as well as 15 additional in-depth interviews with migrant farmworkers themselves. These interviews utilized several steps in the migratory process as a framework to ask open-ended questions about the farmworkers' experiences. The data collected as part of these interviews was then coded and, as the data was analyzed, several key indicators emerged.

For the purposes of this study, these indicators were framed within the stages of the migratory process. Firstly, the beginning of the migratory process encompasses three separate indicators of human trafficking: the presence of economic, political, and family violence, the lack of economic and social networks, and the lack of secure, stable employment. Secondly, the road to employment phase includes three additional indicators: the road to employment from the sending country to the place of employment, the level of access to familiar and reliable transportation, and the nature of the contractual arrangement. Thirdly, their living and working conditions encompass an additional four indicators: the presence of force, fraud, or coercion, the existence in "gaps" in employment, the pay, hours, and working conditions of the migrant farmworkers, and the extent to which the breaks, bonuses, and housing are available. Fourthly, the extent to which migrant farmworkers have control over their circumstances dictates an additional four indicators of human trafficking: restrictions on mobility, the extent to which there is dependency on a "crew leader," the reluctance of marginalized populations, and the presence of the H(2)(A) Visa program. These are the indicators which have been identified by this study.

Jeremy S. Norwood J.D., Ph.D. is employed at Spring Arbor University.

Financial – Is a full Professor and serves as Chair of the Department of Sociology, Global Studies and Criminal Justice at Spring Arbor University in Spring Arbor, Michigan. In 2019, he received the Spring Arbor University McKenna Scholars Endowment Award, a \$10,000 research grant for his work in human trafficking research and awareness

Nonfinancial –No relevant nonfinancial relationship exists.

Learning Objectives

- 1) Define the elements involved in a case of human trafficking
 - 2) Describe the difference between sex and labor trafficking
 - 3) Identify potential indicators of trafficking within migrant farmworker populations
-

The existing research on human trafficking has focused exclusively on sex trafficking and very few studies have been done on labor trafficking (Godzdziaik & Bump, 2008; Logan, et. al, 2007; Farrell, et. al, 2009; Zhang, 2012). Moreover, the majority of the research conducted on human trafficking has used the nation-state as a focal point instead of a particular region or locality (Bales, 2000; Farr, 2004; Aronowitz, 2009; Shelley, 2010; Chin & Finckenaue, 2012). For example, there has been a wealth of research done in the United States, but very few studies have been conducted within individual states themselves (O'Neill-Richard, 1999; Bales & Soodalter, 2009; Clawson, Layne, & Small, 2006, Farrell et. al, 2009). As a result of a comprehensive review of the literature, there were no studies which sought to address human trafficking in particular localities, especially those within Michigan (Godzdziaik & Bump, 2008; Logan, et. al, 2007 Farrell, et. al, 2009; Zhang, 2012).

As such, this study will attempt to address some of these gaps in the research by attempting to study labor trafficking within the state of Michigan, particularly in Western Michigan, by learning more about migrant farmworker communities and their susceptibility to human trafficking. In order to understand more about how vulnerable migrant farmworkers are to human trafficking, this study will utilize the stages of migration, from recruitment to employment, to identify indicators of human trafficking amongst these marginalized groups. The data was gathered through qualitative inquiry by interviewing 15 professionals who work alongside migrant farmworkers and 15 migrant farmworkers themselves. Through the process of organizing and coding the data, several patterns began to emerge, and indicators of human trafficking were identified. As a result of the patterns embedded in the responses of the professionals and the migrant farmworkers, this article will reveal the patterns inherent in the data and report the indicators of human trafficking present.

Literature Review

Overview

According to the International Labor Organization (ILO) (2017), there are 40.3 million people globally who are trapped in conditions of modern-day slavery. Of those 40.3 million victims of modern-day slavery, 24.9 million find themselves in conditions described as forced labor, where they have been trapped in a particular workplace through coercion or deception. In addition to forced labor, the ILO estimates that there are also an additional 15.4 million people enslaved in forced marriages (2017). Furthermore, the latest research estimates show that 89 million people at some point over the past five years have been involved in some form of forced labor (ILO, 2017).

While the earlier ILO study (2012) calculated that 3 out of every 1,000 persons worldwide are trapped in jobs into which they cannot leave, the most recent ILO study (2017) reports that now 5.4 people out of every 1,000 are subjected to conditions of modern-day slavery. Examples of forced labor encompass private sector employment, which often includes domestic work, construction, manufacturing, and agriculture; forced sexual exploitation, and forced labor by public or state authorities (ILO, 2017). Forced labor, often referred to as labor trafficking, can also take place in door-to-door sales crews, restaurants, carnivals, and health and beauty services, amongst other venues. According to the National Human Trafficking Hotline, staffed by the Polaris Project (2019), the major industries for labor trafficking in the United States include domestic work, traveling and sales crews, agriculture, restaurants, food service, and begging rings. In fact, the U.S. Department of Labor has identified 148 goods from 76 countries which were made by forced and/or child labor (2019).

Defining Human Trafficking

According to the *Oxford English Dictionary* (2019), the verb “to traffic” means “to carry on trade, to trade, to buy and sell; to have commercial dealings with anyone; to bargain or deal for a commodity.” The definition goes on to further associate “trafficking” with “dealings considered improper” and “to have dealings of an illicit or secret character.” Based on the Trafficking Victims Protection Act (TVPA), enacted by the United States Department of State (2000), “severe victims of trafficking” can be defined either as:

- a. Sex trafficking in which a commercial sex act is induced by force, fraud, or coercion, or in which a person is induced to perform such an act has not yet attained 18 years of age; or (TVPA, 2000, Section 103, 8a)
- b. The recruitment, harboring, transportation, provision, or obtaining of a person for labor or services, through the use of force, fraud, or coercion for the purpose of subjection to involuntary servitude, peonage, debt bondage, or slavery (TVPA, 2000, Section 103, 8b).

According to Logan, Walker, and Hunt (2007), sex trafficking may take place in venues such as prostitution, exotic dancing, pornography, sexual entertainment, sexual servitude, and servile marriage. Venues in which labor trafficking may take place, on the other hand, include working in sweatshop-like factory conditions, restaurant labor, agricultural work, begging or trinket selling, the food industry, hotel work, nail salon workers, landscape and gardening laborers, casino servers, magazine peddlers, and hair braiding salons (Logan, et. al., 2007). The United States Department of Justice estimates that 80% of human trafficking victims are female, 50% are minors, and 70% are trafficked for the

purposes of sexual exploitation (see Shelley, 2010). Many believe that the numbers of victims of labor trafficking in the United States far outnumber the victims of sex trafficking in the United States (ILO, 2017, and TIP, 2012).

Human Trafficking and Human Smuggling

For many years, researchers, journalists, and even government agencies used “human trafficking” and “human smuggling” interchangeably to describe any organized illegal transportation of persons from one country to another (Zhang, 2012). In reality, the act of human smuggling requires the crossing of international borders, where a person can be trafficked without even moving from their current place (or room) of residence. While this characterization of the discrepancy between the two terms may seem rather trite, there are some intricacies which are important to explore further. In fact, human smuggling often involves an individual who chooses to cross the border illegally, alone or with an expert (Kara, 2009). Whereas smuggled individuals are technically on their own once they cross the border, a trafficking victim’s journey may continue after he or she has crossed the border. According to Kara (2009), human trafficking is “smuggling with coercion or fraud at the beginning of the process and exploitation at the end.” For example, smuggled persons generally pay the entire amount owed before departure while trafficked persons may pay a percentage of the trip prior to departure and incur a debt for the remainder (Aronowitz, 2009). It is often this debt that puts them in the mercy of their traffickers. The difference between smuggled individuals and trafficked persons may not be only apparent when the journey has ended. If the person is not able to exercise self-determination and finds him- or herself in a situation of exploitation, what may have begun as a smuggling operation has then turned into a trafficking situation (Aronowitz, 2009).

According to the U.S. Department of State (2010), there are several key differences between human trafficking and human smuggling. Firstly, in cases of human trafficking, force is used or consent is obtained through fraud, deception, or coercion (actual, perceived, or implied), unless the victim has not yet reached eighteen years of age. On the other hand, in cases of human smuggling the person being smuggled generally cooperates and consents to the smuggling. Secondly, human trafficking involves forced labor and/or exploitation whereas cases of human smuggling do not involve actual or implied coercion. Thirdly, the persons involved in human trafficking are victims but in cases of human smuggling, the individuals are violating the law and by law they are not victims. Fourthly, human trafficking victims are enslaved, subject to limited movement or isolation, and their documents may have been confiscated where in cases of human smuggling workers are free to leave and change jobs. Fifthly, human trafficking need not involve the actual or physical movement of the victim, while human smuggling facilitates the illegal entry of person(s) from one country into another. Next, human trafficking does not have a requirement to cross an international border and trafficking can occur within a particular country, whereas cases of human smuggling always cross international borders. Finally, persons who are victims of human trafficking are exploited in labor, service, or commercial sex acts but must be “working” while persons who are smuggled must be attempting illegal entry or only be in the country illegally (U.S. Department of State, 2010). These distinctions between human trafficking and human smuggling have implications to the mass migration of individuals to the United States. For example, while many Mexicans choose to come to the United States on their own, with or without a *coyote* or smuggler, one unique aspect of trafficking in the United States is that many individuals who migrate illegally become trafficking victims after they cross the border. In fact, up to one-third of trafficking victims in documented cases in the United States were “trafficked” after they crossed the border and once they were in the United States (Kara, 2009).

The Role of Legal Status in Human Trafficking

As far as the process of human trafficking goes, migrants may depart their own country by legal or illegal means. According to a model used by Aronowitz (2009), this legal status may determine whether or not an individual travels independently or uses the services of a smuggler or trafficker. An individual may depart his or her country with a passport and necessary Visa to enter the destination country to visit family members, work, or study. When the Visa expires and the individual chooses to remain in the destination country, he or she then becomes an illegal alien (Aronowitz, 2009). A person may depart his or her own country with the necessary legal documents, destroy those while on board an airplane, and seek asylum in the destination country (legal departure, illegal entry). A person departing his or her country of origin illegally (without papers or with forged or illegal documents) often uses the service

of a smuggler and/or trafficker to illegally enter the destination country. This status can change if the person follows the appropriate protocol to apply for refuge in terms of asylum or things of that nature. Any time the status of a person in the destination country is that of an “illegal,” the person is often at a higher risk of being exploited (Aronowitz, 2009).

The strong connection between the legal status of an individual and his or her susceptibility to human trafficking takes many forms. In the case of women and children, there are two primary elements which make them vulnerable to human trafficking during illegal migration. First, because illegal migrants must rely on their handlers to move them across borders, they are vulnerable to those who take advantage of the weak and desperate. Women and children often become prey for abuses by smugglers and other criminal entities (Zhang, 2007). Second, because being illegal means they have no formal access to the legal job market, smuggled women and children are forced to enter the illegal labor force. There are a great number of jobs which are available to illegal immigrants largely because the working conditions are too dangerous, the pay is abysmally low, or, in the case of prostitution, the means of employment is itself illegal (Zhang, 2007).

The connection between legal status and human trafficking is also very well politicized and has well-documented connections to the U.S. policy on illegal immigration. The roots of the debate on illegal immigration also carry over to human trafficking because when businesses hire undocumented workers in order to take advantage of cheap labor, U.S. low- and/or middle-income citizens are either pushed out of the job market because they cannot subsist on such low wages or they suffer depressed wages because of the millions of undocumented workers who can live on such horribly low wages (Kara, 2009). As a result, undocumented workers are caught in the middle and subjected to all different forms of violence because they are not recognized under the law, nor are their rights respected in terms of employment. Furthermore, the more difficult governments make their movements between the country of origin (Mexico, for example) and their destination country (the United States), the more organized crime attempts to facilitate the exploitation (Kara, 2009).

Human Trafficking as a Process

It is best to understand human trafficking as a process as opposed to a single act or mode of conduct. The process itself is difficult to uncover based on its links to organized crime, which often occur in a clandestine manner, and can take place along several points of the process of migration. The first stage of human trafficking often involves the abduction or recruitment of a prospective victim (Aronowitz, 2009). While this stage can take many different forms, often depending on the organization of the trafficking operation and sophistication of the criminal groups involved. The second stage of human trafficking embodies the transportation and entry of the individual into another country or locality (depending on whether or not the trafficking is international or intranational) (Aronowitz, 2009). This stage often results in the relocation of the victim to a particular place where he or she will be exploited. The third stage of the trafficking process is termed the “exploitation phase” during which the victim is forced into sexual or labor servitude (Aronowitz, 2009). This stage encompasses the actions the trafficker takes in order to exploit the victim, whether over the short- or long-term. This stage often exists concurrently with a final stage for most organized crime syndicates. Again, depending on the size, sophistication, and expertise possessed by the trafficker, this money laundering operation could be very simple or incredibly complex. The operations can be as simple as the smuggling and subsequent trafficking of a single victim by an individual over a border without the proper documentation by vehicle or foot, to highly sophisticated operations moving large numbers of persons, using forged documents, corrupting government officials, and generating huge profits that subsequently must be laundered (Aronowitz, 2009). Crimes committed against the individual victims during the trafficking process include threats, extortion, theft of documents or property, false imprisonment, aggravated or sexual assault, pimping, rape, and even death (Aronowitz, 2009).

Causes of Human Trafficking

There is also a great deal of scholarship on the specific causes of human trafficking. These causes include, but are not limited to, a lack of education and awareness on the topic, the various dynamics inherent in an increasingly globalized world, the expanding and increasingly unregulated free market economy, the role of organized crime in its facilitation, the lack of “morality” involved, the role of migratory push and pull factors, the role of inadequate legal protection, and

dynamics of gender inequality (Chin & Finckenauer, 2012; Ehrenreich & Hochschild, 2002; Farley, 2000; Farr, 2004; Flores, 2007; Flores & Wells, 2010; Flores, 2012; Hondagneu-Sotelo, 2008; Kristof & WuDunn, 2009; Nazario, 2006; O'Neill-Richard, 1999; Polaris Project, 2012c; Salazar-Parreñas, 2011; Williamson & Prior, 2009; Williamson, et. al, 2010). This section will provide a detailed review of the literature on these specific causes of trafficking.

In order to properly investigate the structural causes of human trafficking, it is important to review the appropriate literature on its potential causes at the national and state levels. These causes are often difficult to determine, particularly based on the illegal and hidden nature of the activity (Williamson & Prior, 2009). In the United States, however, experts estimate that as many as 300,000 children are being prostituted at any one time (ECPAT International, 2006) and another 244,000 are at risk of child sexual exploitation (Estes & Weiner, 2005). According to the Polaris Project (2012a), very little research has been done to determine the prevalence of trafficking at the state level. Some states that have done research on the prevalence and structural causes of human trafficking within them include California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Louisiana, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New York, Ohio, Texas, Utah, and Wisconsin (Polaris Project, 2012a). Even though this research on human trafficking has been done in these states over varying periods of time, it is far from being comprehensive in nature. One state where extensive research has been done on the prevalence of human trafficking is Ohio, where a group of academics, activists, graduate students, law enforcement officials, and practitioners have worked together to use newspapers, interviews with law enforcement officials, social service providers, and other professionals to better understand human trafficking (Williamson, et. al, 2010).

In the case of trafficking foreign persons it is important to understand the structural causes such as the push factors which exist in sending countries and the pull factors which exist in receiving or destination countries (at a domestic level the sending and destination countries would both be the United States) in order to better understand why trafficking exists (see Williamson, et. al, 2010; TIP, 2011). More specifically, throughout the world there are origin or sending countries which are primarily used to recruit potential victims, destination or receiving countries, where the demand, resources, and opportunity to purchase human beings is greater, and bi-directional countries which can both send and receive victims of human trafficking (Farr, 2004). Examples of push factors in sending countries could be weak economic structures, few job prospects, gender inequality, a lack of educational opportunities, and corrupt law enforcement just to name a few (O'Neill-Richard, 1999). Pull factors may include a low risk of prosecution, the lack of laws which punish the traffickers, social norms and values which devalue and dehumanize vulnerable groups, and the enormous profit potential for traffickers (O'Neill-Richard, 1999). The United States is primarily a destination country for both sex and labor trafficking victims and is the second-largest consumer of sex trafficking victims around the world, following Germany (Polaris Project, 2012a and Williamson, et. al, 2010). Victims may also be U.S. citizens who are recruited from origin cities or states and transported to other destination cities and states in order to engage in sex or labor trafficking.

There are many push and pull factors at the state level as well. Some factors that Williamson and colleagues (2010) have identified in Ohio include the ease in which victims can be moved in and out of the state (presence of prominent interstates and other major thoroughfares), a growing pool of legal and illegal immigrant populations from which to draw or hide victims, the number of markets open to foreign-born persons (emerging economies in the form of job opportunities), and potential gaps in state laws to adequately curb and address human trafficking. Other factors which have been identified include the presence of uneducated or ill-prepared first responders (shelters, law enforcement, among others), the demand for consumers within Ohio for services provided by trafficking victims, and other individual characteristics which make potential victims vulnerable (Williamson, et. al, 2010). The location and proximity to international borders also serves as a key factor as many victims of human trafficking often are brought into the United States from Canada or Mexico, both of which have less stringent border restrictions (Davis, 2006). Other factors may also include proximity to airports, casinos, sports venues, and tourist or vacation areas. While these push and pull factors are by no means exhaustive, they represent a fairly comprehensive list of factors, both at the domestic and international levels that directly impact human trafficking.

Direction of the Present Study

Despite the prevalence of trafficking for the purposes of labor as opposed to sex, labor trafficking has not received much attention from the academic community, particularly in the United States (Zhang, 2007). For example, in an exhaustive review of the existing literature, Farrell, et. al (2009) identified 110 sources that provided a count or estimates of human trafficking and only 17 of the sources provided sufficient evidence of labor trafficking estimates. In fact, there is so much discussion about commercial sexual exploitation (sex trafficking) that labor trafficking is often overlooked. Even the U.S. government regularly reports that the majority of transnational victims are women and children “trafficked into commercial sexual exploitation (TIP, 2008).” In a comprehensive literature review, Gozdzia and Bump (2008) described how academic research has focused on sex trafficking to the detriment of investigating trafficking for bonded labor and domestic servitude, leading many scholars to the false conclusion that sex trafficking is much more prevalent. Logan and colleagues (2007) reviewed nine reports from service organizations found the same scarcity of empirical data on human trafficking in general and labor trafficking specifically.

One of the populations which is most susceptible to labor trafficking in the United States, mainly due to its relative lack of social power, is undocumented workers. There are also workers who have begun the documentation process but still lack the legal protection. While estimates of undocumented workers in the Midwest may be significantly lower than major receiving states such as California, Florida, New York, and Texas, the State of Michigan has approximately 150,000 undocumented workers, the majority of which migrate during the summer months to work in the agricultural sector (Detroit Free Press, 2013). While labor trafficking is often overlooked at the national level in favor of sex trafficking, a preliminary review of the literature quickly reveals that while there may be some relevant research at the national level, there is very little at the local or grassroots levels. In order to address these shortcomings in the literature, this study will attempt to investigate the presence of indicators of human trafficking within migrant farmworker communities in Western Michigan by determining (1) which factors have caused migrant workers to leave their countries of origin to seek work in Western Michigan, (2) which transportation and recruitment networks they have utilized in migrating to the border and from the border to their place of employment, (3) the nature of the living and working conditions migrant farmworkers experience in Western Michigan, and (4) to what extent farmworkers have control over their circumstances during their time of employment in Western Michigan.

Methodology

Overview

In order to understand the nature of human trafficking within transnational migrant farmworker communities in Western Michigan, the researcher employed a qualitative, exploratory approach in order to identify indicators of human trafficking such as signs of force, fraud, or coercion, and situations which resemble involuntary servitude, peonage, debt bondage, or any other form of modern-day slavery (Polaris Project, 2019). Those characterized as traffickers, whether working alone or in concert with others, were those who participated in the process of exploiting another human being for gain through any combination of force, fraud, or coercion. The aforementioned indicators could be signs of abuse perpetrated on a particular worker or group of workers, evidence of deception in terms of the work hours, wages, or living and/or working conditions, the withholding of wages from workers, the lack of mobility in terms migrant workers being restricted to a particular space, and/or real or perceived threats regarding future employment (Polaris Project, 2019). While these are examples of particular indicators of human trafficking within the migrant population, there would also be other signs which surface in terms of coding the data. The researcher also paid particular attention to other potential signs of indicators such as these throughout the process.

Once all of the data was collected, the researcher then transcribed all of the interviews, conversations, and observations from Spanish to English, coded them based on the indicators of human trafficking, and compiled these findings for the purposes of the dissertation. This process allowed for the opportunity to further investigate the tension between common migratory practices and forms of human trafficking. There are several different forms of these indicators of human trafficking present within the transnational migrant farmworker populations in Western Michigan. The compilation and codification of this data allowed the researcher to put together and organize the findings section based on the lives of the migrant workers in Western Michigan.

Instrumentation

This study utilized a qualitative methodological approach to collect interview data on various aspects of the lives of migrant farmworkers in Western Michigan. In order to employ this approach, the research subjects (either professionals or migrant farmworkers) were asked open-ended questions about their knowledge of the four critical phases of the lives of migrant farmworkers as they pertained to human trafficking: the migratory process, the journey of securing gainful employment, living and working conditions, and their ability to move freely within their workplace. These research subjects were interviewed over the scope of several months and their responses were recorded with permission. Their responses to these research questions were recorded with the help of a translator, who offered to help transcribe any questions regarding the study the respondents might have. These areas of the lives of the migrant farmworkers were selected based on the literature primarily because, while there is extensive literature on the topic of human trafficking, studies on labor trafficking, particularly at the local and regional levels, were few and far between. As such, much of this data has been collected in order to develop an exploratory project on these indicators of human trafficking, especially as they relate to labor trafficking amongst migrant farmworker populations in Western Michigan.

Process of Migration

The process of migration theme is meant to emphasize the circumstances prospective migrants find themselves in within their home country(ies), how they learn about the opportunity to migrate, which networks they rely on in order to migrate (both within their home country as well as within the destination country), and how they mobilize the appropriate resources to do so. Each of these dimensions is important because they can help unearth potential indicators of human trafficking amongst these populations. These dimensions are investigated through some of the interview questions as well as follow-up questions based on the scope of the responses given by the research participants. This is the point where the trafficking process is often initiated.

Search for Employment

The search for employment step is meant to investigate how prospective migrants learn about employment opportunities in a particular destination country, how these migrants then network with others to obtain transportation to reach a place of employment, whether or not there is a binding contract between the grower or farmer and the migrant farmworker before the worker travels to the respective place of employment, as well as how they obtain the necessary resources to make it to a prospective place of employment. Each of these dimensions is important because they can provide potential indicators of human trafficking amongst these populations. These dimensions were investigated through some of the interview questions as well as follow-up questions based on the scope of the responses given by research participants.

Living and Working Conditions

The theme entitled “living and working conditions” is meant to investigate several important dimensions of the lives of migrant farmworkers in Western Michigan. Some of the important aspects of this theme include whether or not the living conditions are habitable, if the migrant farmworkers are paid the equivalent of minimum wage, and whether or not the housing subsidy afforded the migrant workers permits the farmer or grower to drastically reduce the piece rate paid. Each of these dimensions is critical because they can illuminate potential indicators of human trafficking amongst these populations. These dimensions were investigated through some of the research questions as well as follow-up questions based on the scope of the responses given by research participants.

Level of Social Mobility

This theme is meant to investigate the extent to which migrant farmworkers are able to move from their place of employment to other venues such as alternate employment, medical appointments, church services, the grocery store, and laundromats, amongst other places. Those who are able to leave their place of employment and have the flexibility to attend to these other needs are much more likely to be secure in their jobs and not in fear of unlawful exploitation. Each of these dimensions is critical because they can uncover potential indicators of human trafficking. These dimensions were investigated through some of the research questions as well as follow-up questions based on the scope

of the responses given by research participants.

Summary

The research instruments utilized in this study include one set of interviews for the professionals, which consists of thirteen open-ended semi-structured questions, as well as another set of interviews for migrant farmworkers which consists of fourteen open-ended, semi-structured questions, and an informed consent form, written in both English and Spanish. The two sets of interview questions investigated the four major steps of the migratory process in the lives of the migrant farmworkers in Western Michigan: the process of migration, the pursuit of employment, living and working conditions, and the degree of social mobility. While these themes have made it possible to gather the relevant data needed in this study, the process of collecting data will be elaborated upon in the next section.

Data Collection

The interview questions were administered over the phone to “professionals” and in person to “migrant farmworkers.” The professionals were interviewed over the span of three months in late Spring and early Summer and the migrant farmworkers were interviewed over the span of three months in late Summer and early Fall. While the interview questions varied for each of the populations of research participants, the questions asked focused on the four steps of migration inherent in the research being investigated. The research instruments were assembled based on these primary themes and translated with the help of the Julian Samora Research Institute (JSRI) at Michigan State University.

The professionals were recruited for this study through the Migrant Resource Council (MRC) lists in each of the regions of Western Michigan. Once these professionals were contacted, they were informed about the nature and substance of the study in order to determine whether or not they wanted to continue. Those who wanted to continue were sent an informed consent document which informed them of their risks, rights, and protections attached with their participation. They were then contacted in order to further apprise them of the circumstances listed above, answer any questions they had, and obtain the consent documentation. Once the informed consent documentation was secured, an interview time was set. Since these interviews were often conducted over the phone, they happened during normal business hours and lasted approximately one hour each. Some interviews were completed in as little as forty-five minutes, while others took close to an hour and a half. In order to ensure both parties were on the same page, clarifying questions were often asked by both the interviewer and the interviewee. Responses given by the professionals were then transcribed by typing them onto a Word document under the specific questions being asked. This allowed for a quick and easy process by which the data could be collected, recorded, and the data protected in an appropriate manner which protected the confidentiality of the research participant. Once an interview was completed, it was saved in its respective Word file and then closed in a password protected laptop computer. The computer was secured and protected in an appropriate facility.

The second set of research participants, the migrant farmworkers, were recruited by a convenience sample with the assistance of one of the members of the MRC who volunteered to help proctor the interviews. These research participants formed a random cross-section of the migrant farmworker community in Western Michigan and were approached for two different reasons, either they had been previously contacted by this MRC volunteer, or they had been referred by other migrant farmworkers themselves. The majority of the research participants in this group were chosen from a much larger group of migrant farmworkers but were approached based on their unique circumstances (whether nationality, legal status, family structure, farm they worked for, duration of years as a migrant farmworker, etc.). This diverse group of migrant farmworkers, despite the fact that they were working in one county in Western Michigan during the period when the interviews were completed, was helpful because they had provided a myriad of different experiences and responses. After these research participants were afforded the parameters of the study, as well as the risks, rights, and protections if they chose to participate in the study, both in English and in Spanish, they were provided with the copy of the informed consent document. They then were asked if they were interested in asking any additional questions and, if they had none, signed off on the documentation. Once they signed off on the appropriate informed consent documentation, the interview itself began.

Results

The following section will report, in detail, the indicators of human trafficking which emerged from the research framework, particularly those stages of the migration process when migrant farmworkers leave their country or place of origin in order to find employment, whether in the United States generally, or in a certain state within the United States. The data collected did, in fact, provide a structure for understanding the indicators as manifestations of vulnerability within a particular stage in the migratory process. The first of these stages, the impetus for migration, dealt with the various push factors which caused these migrants to travel to find work in the first place. Several patterns were quickly identified, and potential indicators of human trafficking emerged as a result of each step of the data collection process.

The Presence of Economic, Physical, and Family Violence

The first section utilized the responses given by both sets of research subjects, namely the professionals and the migrant farmworkers, in order to investigate the push factors that ultimately lead to migration to the United States in the pursuit of better living conditions. Factors that emerged are the violence inherent in the sending countries where many of the migrant farmworkers come from, the role economic and social networks play in the journey of the migrants, and the process by which migrant farmworkers realize opportunities to work in the United States. This section provides an overview of the major findings reported in each of these areas as they relate to the migratory process of the migrant farmworkers and how this process relates to their vulnerability in terms of human trafficking.

One of the most prevalent push factors which caused migrant farmworkers to leave their respective countries of origin was violence. Based on the data collected, this type of violence included, but was not limited to, economic, physical, and family violence. Migrant farmworkers often seek to migrate because of the lack of economic opportunities provided both by the governments of their home countries, as well as the utter failure of the market where they live. This economic violence is caused by several factors such as globalization, corruption, and the lack of vitality of the free market system in the more remote areas of the “Global South” which result in large flows of migrants to other parts of the world looking for economic opportunities (Bales, 2000). In fact, the vast majority of the migrant farmworkers, as well as the professionals who worked alongside them, noted the lack of economic opportunities in the sending country as a primary motivating factor in migrating to the United States. They also stated that the lack of economic opportunities caused increased stress and tension within their families.

Many of the migrant farmworkers interviewed also discussed the violence they faced within their families, whether through things such as domestic violence or through other forms such as when families often are torn apart for economic reasons. These forms of family violence are often inextricably linked to physical and economic violence because many of those who find themselves victims of these forms of violence do not have the support they need to work through it. Instead, they search for other opportunities to better the circumstances they have to endure. This realization leads them to acquaint themselves with the economic and social networks necessary to take the first step on the path to migrating to places such as the United States and, for the purposes of this study, Western Michigan.

Many migrants admitted that they felt motivated to find work in other venues because of the prevalence of violence in their home countries. In doing so, many migrants quickly become acquainted with myriad smuggling networks which exist to provide opportunities to work in destination countries such as the United States. As migrants begin to explore and take part in these smuggling networks, the indicators of human trafficking begin to emerge. For example, there are a number of formal and informal networks which migrants engage in order to pay a smuggler to transport them to another country in order to find employment and escape the violence in their home countries. Those migrants which have access to the necessary resources through familiar networks are often more fortunate, while those who are left borrowing money from more illicit networks are often most at risk. One of the migrant farmworkers interviewed was fortunate and had family in Mexico who could pay his way to the border while family members in the United States could support him once he got there. Others without access to these familiar networks were forced to borrow money from business leaders, criminal elements, government officials, and other persons they may not have been acquainted with, often leading to illicit forms of exploitation.

Social networks are often as important or, in many cases, even more important than economic networks. Those migrants who utilize existing human networks through which family or friends have already passed appeared much less likely to be at risk of being trafficked. For example, several of the migrant farmworkers interviewed for this project were familiar with others who had been smuggled from their sending country to the United States through already established human networks. There are several advantages to this approach. These individuals who work through established human networks are more likely to be familiar with the smuggling operation and those parties involved. They are also much more likely to understand the journey from their sending country to the United States and be able to detect or spot actions or practices which may threaten their safety or security. This familiarity with the individuals involved and the process itself leads to a decreased risk of being exploited or trafficked based on the responses in this study. Granted, familiarity with a human network, in this case a smuggling operation, does not always guarantee the safety of a migrant, but it ensures predictability whereas those migrating through unknown networks are often at a much higher risk of being exploited or trafficked.

This final section discusses the realization of opportunity that migrant farmworkers experience when they enter the United States and seek employment. The data collected from the responses of professionals and migrant farmworkers alike conveyed that while some migrant farmworkers had secured employment through familiar networks before leaving their sending countries, many others had entered the United States without knowing exactly where to find work. The difference between those who had a place of employment already arranged for them, particularly amongst the non-H(2)(A) workers, and those who still had to look for employment serves as a potential indicator for human trafficking. While there were migrant farmworkers who had arrived in the United States with the contact information of family and friends who they would later connect with in order to gain employment, there were a great number who had no idea where to begin looking for work. The former were more insulated from exploitation because they again had a “reference” point, a support system, whereas those who were coming without the necessary benchmark were more susceptible to being trafficked. In each of the cases of the migrant farmworkers, those who had a greater familiarity with the appropriate economic and social networks, as well as the process by which migration happened (through stories, firsthand accounts, etc.), were less likely to be trafficked than those who had little familiarity.

Three indicators of human trafficking emerged based on the responses of migrant farmworkers about their initial stage of migration. The presence of economic, physical, and family violence in the sending country is the first potential indicator of human trafficking. These forms of violence are often present in cases of human trafficking. The second indicator is the lack of familiarity migrants have with the process of migration. The less migrants know about their respective circumstances (particularly smuggling networks), the more at risk they are of being exploited and possibly trafficked. The third indicator of human trafficking is the lack of access to resources or social capital necessary to locate avenues of gainful employment. Those migrant workers who have existing streams of capital with which they are acquainted are much more likely to be protected from trafficking and exploitation than those forced to access illegitimate sources of capital.

The Tenuous Road to Employment

After migrant farmworkers make the journey from sending country to the United States, their first task is almost always securing employment. In securing employment, however, it is important to understand that many of them enter the United States with very little money. While there are some instances where they know someone in the United States who has pledged to transport them to their place of employment, this is not always the case. In the case of the majority of migrant farmworkers, they need to first find a way to pay for transportation costs, then determine whether or not they will be able to secure transportation to their place of employment, and finally they need to work out their terms of employment. The first two sections address two very different issues with regard to transportation. The first section deals with how to secure transportation from the border or an area close to the border, to a place of employment, while the second section deals with securing everyday transportation to work. The final section, the nature of contractual arrangements, provides the topic of discussion surrounding one of the strongest potential indicators of human trafficking.

This first section will address the transportation costs migrants incur between *la frontera*, or the border, and the place of employment, if such a place has been identified. It is important to note that, at this point, most migrants have already spent (or borrowed) several thousand dollars just to make it to the border, depending on where they have come from. It was not uncommon, based on the research, for migrants to have paid between \$4,000 and \$5,000 for transportation, lodging, and food, as well as two chances to cross the border. Many of the migrants must think spontaneously as each stage presents itself in terms of how to pay for transportation to the place of employment. In some cases, these workers have been recruited in their sending country. In other cases, they will be approached as soon as they enter the United States with specific employment opportunities.

During this stage in the process of migration, migrant farmworkers need to figure out how to fund transportation to a prospective place of employment. This could be in the form of an advance by a prospective employer, but it often is in the form of a loan. Often the terms of employment may not have been discussed, disclosed, or negotiated beforehand, leaving many workers vulnerable to exploitation or, in some cases, trafficking. Some of the migrant farmworkers who were interviewed had no real knowledge of the transportation system they utilized. They just paid and trusted it would work out.

Another area of potential exploitation centers on which party bears the costs of transportation to bring the prospective worker to his or her place of employment. While several of the federal programs are bound legally to pay for transportation costs to bring migrant workers to the United States to fill the needs of employers, this practice is not always followed. In those non-federal cases, the majority of the research subjects admitted to having paid for transportation on their own. In the cases of the migrant farmworkers interviewed for this study, none of them were reimbursed for their travel expenses upon reaching their place of employment. While there were some cases where employers fronted the transportation costs or paid to fly migrant farmworkers home to see loved ones who had passed away, such costs had to be reimbursed immediately upon return or arrival. Other than not being paid for their transportation costs, those workers who paid for transportation (as opposed to those who drove themselves) did not report any form of suspicious behavior at this stage in the migration process. They would, however, report they had been promised a certain wage or amount of work only to find that they had been deceived upon arrival. This “bait and switch” technique will be discussed later.

Migrant farmworkers also had to secure transportation from their temporary residence to their place of employment. While many of those interviewed had their own means of transportation, it was less apparent if they were legally able to drive or just drove without a license. Moreover, those workers who were part of a family unit often relied on the oldest male to drive each of them to work, especially when they all worked for the same employer. In other locations, where the majority of workers were *solos*, or simply single men (in most cases) or women (very rarely) without their families, there was more reliance on existing transportation networks for migrant farmworkers, networks which included unfamiliar individuals responsible for transporting them to work. In these cases, some migrant farmworkers reported the transportation networks were reliable and affordable, while other migrant farmworkers admitted that these networks took advantage of them by charging them rates which were excessive.

The final section discusses the nature of the contractual arrangements between migrant farmworkers and their supervisors, whether those are crew leaders, recruiters, farmers, and/or growers. Agreeing upon the terms of employment is another stage where migrant farmworkers may be vulnerable to human trafficking. While the data collected from professionals seemed to indicate that migrant farmworkers were free to negotiate terms of employment before traveling to the place of employment, the responses the migrant farmworkers gave seemed to indicate the terms of employment were given to them upon arriving. Furthermore, the migrant farmworkers also voiced concerns about the discrepancy between the terms of employment conveyed to them upon recruitment and those presented at the actual place of employment. Another set of responses exhibited a certain level of fluidity with the terms of employment, which could be amended or outright changed at any one point in time. For example, some migrant farmworkers admitted to signing contracts (often in English, which they did not understand) while others clearly had not. Some of the responses given by migrant farmworkers seemed to indicate that, while in some cases employers had

an orientation and training at the beginning of the season, other employers failed to ever inform the migrant farmworkers of their terms of employment. As such, employers failed to specify how much migrant farmworkers were paid, which deductions were being taken out of their paychecks, which crops they would pick and for how much, and other critical terms of their employment. These omissions left migrant farmworkers trusting their employers good will, something certain farmworkers could not do as they were frequently shorted, not paid, or without work for long periods of time.

There are a number of potential indicators which have been identified as part of the road to employment for migrant farmworkers. The first indicator involves the ability for migrant farmworkers to access transportation from the border to the place of employment. Those who work together as a family or another cohesive social unit are less likely to be exploited. A second indicator is the level of knowledge that a migrant farmworker has about his or her terms of employment before coming to the actual place where the work will be performed. Those who understand the terms of employment and have documentation are much less likely to be trafficked than those who have very little understanding. A final indicator involves the incongruity of the previously agreed upon terms and the actual terms of employment a migrant farmworker encounters upon reaching his or her place of employment. Such discrepancies can uncover cases of exploitation and, in some cases, human trafficking.

Living and Working Conditions

The next section will identify indicators of human trafficking the migrant farmworkers endure within their respective living and working conditions. This section will be broken into four different parts. The first part refers to “the use of fear, force, or intimidation” and explores how those in authority positions misused their social power in order to take advantage of migrant farmworkers. The second section addresses “gaps in employment” and discusses how difficult it was for migrant farmworkers when they were not able to work through the season. The third section is entitled “pay, hours, and working conditions” and examines how migrant farmworkers were paid, how many hours they worked per week, and the weather and other adverse conditions they worked in. The fourth section discusses “breaks, bonuses, and housing” and elaborates on the use of bonuses and housing to distort the wages migrant farmworkers often make or do not make.

The first part of this section addresses the use of fear, force, and/or intimidation on the part of the many actors (farmers, growers, crew leaders, and recruiters) in order to encourage efficiency and productivity amongst the migrant farmworkers. The use of force is particularly interesting because it is one of the elements in any case of human trafficking against a non-minor victim (along with force or fraud). One of the more obvious examples of force in Western Michigan was provided by a social service professional who noted that there was a supervisor who used to monitor the activities of migrant farmworkers while carrying a shotgun. Another example might be a farmer riding on a tractor while shouting orders to the migrant farmworkers. Other examples cited by professionals and migrant farmworkers included prohibiting lunch breaks, lowering piece rates, and working additional hours without proportionate compensation.

The majority of examples of force, however, did not involve the grower or farmer but instead a crew chief or crew leader. According to the migrant farmworkers, there were several instances where they had experienced a crew leader keeping a cut of their pay or, in some cases, keeping the entire amount. Since the crew leader is often the intermediary between the grower and the farmworkers (he or she is often bilingual), the migrant farmworkers are reluctant to seek redress because they fear they may lose their jobs and not be asked back to work the following year. This process whereby migrant farmworkers speak up and defend themselves only to find their employment terminated is called “blacklisting” and, while it is illegal, it is extremely difficult to prove.

The second indicator of human trafficking identified in this section is a “gap” in employment. Gaps in employment often occur due to inclement weather, in cases of a bad crop, or because the farmer, recruiter, or another agent deliberately or negligently misled the farmworker as to how much work there was going to be. Migrant farmworkers often expressed frustration when the terms of employment were fraudulently misrepresented and there was not as much

work as they initially were led to believe. In these situations, workers often lost out on wages or, at the very least, other employment opportunities where they could have earned more. In some cases, the farmers would provide housing only for those migrant farmworkers who worked there, preventing them from finding alternative employment during these gaps. As a result, farmworkers may have had to pay for housing even though they had no income because of adverse or unforeseen circumstances. While there was one instance where the farmer let the workers leave and seek employment in a neighboring state for a time, this practice was less likely as migrant farmworkers felt somewhat bound to their most recent employer, especially if he or she was providing housing.

The next part of this section concerns the sometimes fraudulent discrepancies in the pay, hours, and working conditions the migrant farmworkers received. While it is not uncommon for the migrant farmworkers to have payroll taxes, unemployment, disability, social security, and other standard deductions subtracted from their paychecks, many of the farmworkers did not have these taxes deducted but instead had housing deductions instead. According to several professionals who were interviewed, it is not common practice to have housing deducted from wages. In fact, several interested parties questioned the legalities of such a practice. There have been some cases of human trafficking where exorbitant housing costs are prematurely deducted from the wages of employees in other sectors of the economy.

Another interesting aspect of the payment process was that much of the process itself was not always documented. While some of their employers had a payment process established, others did not and there was no proof they were being paid adequately. Furthermore, it was doubtful these workers were paid minimum wage and whether they were paid hourly or not. After deducting for housing and other questionable costs, how could an employer establish a worker was making minimum wage? How could a migrant farmworker who was being paid piece rate show he or she was being paid minimum wage? Based on the responses of the migrant farmworkers, only the most productive pickers would be making minimum wage, another potential indicator of human trafficking.

Another area of concern was the number of hours these migrant farmworkers worked. Based on the responses given by the majority of them, they worked as long as they could and for as many days as they could to earn money. It was hard to determine whether or not they were forced to work these hours. If they were paid minimum wage would their long hours continue? If they were paid overtime or according to law would they choose to work as much as they did? It is hard to know whether or not they felt pressure from their supervisors to pick for so many hours or if they chose to do so themselves but the hours they worked and the conditions they worked in made it difficult to discern whose choice it was. Moreover, it is difficult to say generally when there are cases where farmers or crew leaders are forcing workers to work longer hours for less pay and others where migrant farmworkers work indefinitely to provide a better living for themselves and their families.

One final area of vulnerability that emerged from the research is the use of bonuses. Based on the responses of both professionals and migrant farmworkers, it is often common practice to use a bonus structure to entice farmworkers to stay longer into the Fall and pick apples. The system was also set up to incentivize productivity by encouraging workers to pick as much as possible in order to earn more earnings in the form of a "bonus." The legality of such a practice has often been questioned, however, as migrant farmworkers are not always paid accordingly and other times they have deductions subtracted from the promised bonus payment. Other times, some professionals and farmworkers have admitted that the bonus is just not paid at all. The bonuses were also met with skepticism as the parties involved questioned whether or not bonuses were a way to pay workers less than a piece rate, thereby pushing up the profits of the growers.

As such, there are a number of potential indicators of human trafficking within this section on living and working conditions. The first indicator, which is fairly strong, is the presence of force, fraud, or coercion on behalf of an authority figure. Since only one of these elements needs to be present in a case of human trafficking, the presence of any one element is considered a strong "red flag." A second indicator is the presence of gaps within the period of employment, especially if supervisors do not permit migrant farmworkers to seek gainful employment elsewhere. The lower piece rates, the longer hours, and the poor working conditions can also serve as indicators of human trafficking. Finally, the

ability migrant farmworkers have to take breaks, bonuses as incentive to work into the Fall, and the existence and integrity of migrant housing can also be identified as indicators.

Control over Their Circumstances

The final section will explore the mobility migrant farmworkers have as they seek to exert agency over their respective circumstances. This study of their mobility permitted the identification of additional indicators of human trafficking: general restrictions on mobility, the role of employers, crew leaders, and other supervisors in actively limiting the movement of migrant farmworkers, the reluctance of marginalized populations to leave their places of employment, and the role of the H(2)(A) Visa program in restricting mobility.

General restrictions include, but are not limited to, anything that prevents the migrant farmworker from leaving his or her place of employment in order to visit the grocery store, seek medical attention, attend church services, locate and visit a laundromat, amongst other potential destinations. One of the first restrictions which often comes to mind is transportation. Based on the passing of a recent Michigan law, migrant farmworkers could not obtain a driver's license without a recognized form of identification such as a social security card. Whereas before migrant farmworkers were able to obtain a driver's license with any form of picture identification, the law has now restricted access to a driver's license amongst this population, making it much harder for migrant farmworkers without a proper form of identification to obtain a driver's license. While this law may not necessarily lead directly to human trafficking, it definitely makes it harder for some migrant farmworkers to find reasonable transportation. It also may lead to increased avenues for exploitation for recruiters, crew leaders, and other supervisory figures, who could now charge exorbitant fees for transportation.

Employers also sometimes make decisions or enact policies to restrict the movement of migrant farmworkers. Based on the responses of professionals and migrant farmworkers, employers sometimes choose to restrict the movement of migrant farmworkers by allowing them to visit the doctor or other necessary appointments but without pay or time off. According to many of the migrant farmworkers, they were not prohibited from seeing a doctor, nor did their employer attempt to restrict their movement in this way. However, if they left to see a doctor, they not only ran the risk of losing their wages during the time they were not working, but they ran the risk of losing their job to someone else if they did. As such, the migrant farmworkers either decided to take time off to see the doctor (which entailed a hefty bill for many of them) or to continue to work so they could earn money. Even though several migrant farmworkers had chronic ailments, they nearly always chose to work instead of visiting the doctor.

Another actor involved in the mobility of migrant farmworkers are the crew leaders. These individuals, according to several professionals and some of the migrant farmworkers themselves, often restrict their movement in order to provide some of the services (depositing checks, buying groceries, sending correspondence) themselves. In fact, the ability to provide these services often leads to additional income for the crew leader at the expense of the migrant farmworkers. This is especially the case in the more remote migrant camps where there is little supervision. Furthermore, those who have come to work with families are more likely to have stronger support networks, understand how the process of employment works, have access to transportation, and thus the ability to leave the camp to secure these services or needs. Those who are not well connected to family or friends therefore lack knowledge, transportation, and the ability to leave. These sorts of populations are much more likely to rely on crew leaders as their reference point for "reality" in terms of their employment, to lack social networks, transportation, and the ability to leave the camp. In these camps the migrant farmworkers are not only more susceptible to being sold goods and services at higher prices, but they are also at a higher risk of being trafficked.

The final part of this section focuses on the social mobility of migrant farmworkers in Western Michigan focused on the H(2)(A) program. The nature of the H(2)(A) program is such that the Visa is a binding contract between the migrant farmworker and the employer. This arrangement allows for the migrant farmworker to be paid travel costs to get to the place of employment but, as was documented in at least one interview response, this is not always the case. In the H(2)(A) Visa program, the migrant farmworker has very little ability to negotiate, let alone leave, if the employer has

changed the terms of agreement or altered any of the other material parts of the agreement. Based on the responses of the professionals and migrant farmworkers as part of this study, their impression was that the employees under the H(2)(A) Visa program had very little social mobility as far as their movement went or their need to leave work. As such, based on the evidence gathered as part of this study, while the H(2)(A) Visa program offers a small number of migrant farmworkers a guaranteed contract, it does so while restricting their employment and the terms of their employment to one employer, regardless of the living and working conditions involved. Furthermore, while migrant farmworkers may have the right to be reimbursed for their transportation costs, there are cases where this does not take place. H(2)(A) Visa programs often leave even documented workers vulnerable to human trafficking because they are bound to a particular employer and at risk of being deported if they speak up against any harm or abuse.

After analyzing the ability migrant farmworkers have to move from one place to another, several potential indicators of human trafficking emerged. The further restrictions on granting a driver's license to individuals who did not have the proper documentation made it much more difficult for migrant farmworkers to secure transportation. As a result, they are much more vulnerable to illicit networks which may try to take advantage of them in terms of providing transportation. Another potential indicator is the extent to which a migrant farmworker is able to take time off to see a doctor, dentist, counselor, or other professional. Those cases where employers do not permit migrant farmworkers to get help for a medical or mental health condition are extremely problematic. A similar situation may exist if a migrant farmworker is not able to leave an employer for valid reasons based on a particular VISA program or work arrangement. These situations allow employers or other supervisors an inordinate amount of social power with which to exploit their workers. In fact, the exclusive nature of the H(2)(A) program has been cited as a modern form of bonded slavery which "encourages" trafficking.

Conclusion

The purpose of this present study was to contribute to several of the gaps in research on human trafficking, particularly in areas of labor trafficking in smaller geographic regions. The data collected for this research project focused on identifying potential indicators of human trafficking amongst migrant farmworker populations in Western Michigan. The data were gathered through conducting interviews with 15 different professionals who worked extensively with migrant farmworkers and 15 migrant farmworkers themselves. The research subjects were asked approximately ten open-ended questions related to four primary research questions. These interviews lasted for approximately one hour each and were transcribed in the case of the professionals and recorded with the consent of the migrant farmworkers. The interview questions were formulated in order to capture data on the four primary research questions which focused on the migratory process, the realization of employment, the living and working conditions at the camps, and the level of social mobility of the migrant farmworkers. As the migrant farmworkers' responses were analyzed, it became clear that there were several potential indicators which emerged through each step in the migration process.

The first step in the migration process was referred to as the impetus for migration. Three potential indicators of human trafficking were present in many of the responses of the professionals and the migrant farmworkers. The first indicator was the presence of economic, physical, and family violence in the sending country. The second indicator was the lack of familiarity migrants have with the process of migration. The final indicator was the lack of access to resources or the social capital necessary to identify avenues of gainful employment. These three potential indicators were present in the responses of the migrant farmworkers as they discussed their initial stage of migration.

The second step in the migration process was termed the road to employment. There were several indicators identified based on the patterns of responses given by professionals and migrant farmworkers. The first indicator was the ability of migrant farmworkers to access transportation from the border to their place of employment. The second indicator was the extent to which migrant farmworkers were aware of the terms of employment before arriving at the place of employment. A third indicator of human trafficking was whether or not the actual terms of employment were congruent with the previous representations of the terms made by the recruiter. Such discrepancies uncovered cases of exploitation and, in certain situations, human trafficking.

The third step of migration used in this study was titled living and working conditions. This stage referred to the employment and housing conditions migrant farmworkers find themselves in. Based on the patterns inherent in the responses of the professionals and migrant farmworkers, several potential indicators were identified. The first (strong) indicator was the presence of force, fraud, or coercion on behalf of an authority figure. The second indicator was the presence of gaps within the employment period, especially when farmers or growers prevent the migrant farmworkers from locating temporary employment elsewhere. A third indicator was the presence of lower piece rate wages, longer hours, and poor working conditions in the place of employment. A final indicator had to do with the ability of migrant farmworkers to take breaks, be paid bonuses as incentives, and the quality and integrity of migrant housing.

The final step in the process of migration for many of these migrant farmworkers had to do with their ability to enter and leave their place of employment and housing arrangements. This analysis led to the identification of several potential indicators of human trafficking. The restrictions on granting a driver's license to individuals who did not have the proper documentation made it nearly impossible for migrant farmworkers to secure reliable transportation, resulting in their exposure to illicit networks which might try to exploit them. Another potential indicator was the ability migrant farmworkers have to leave their place of employment and see a health care professional. The presence of the migrant farmworker as part of certain restrictive VISA programs such as the H(2)(A) program also can serve as an indicator.

This research project has proved extremely fruitful. Not only has it been possible to uncover potential indicators of human trafficking amongst migrant farmworker communities in Western Michigan, but this project has made it possible to help empower those professionals who work alongside migrant farmworkers by helping to educate them about these potential signs. Furthermore, this swath of research has also expanded the project on labor trafficking beyond the conventional and, in training professionals across the state of Michigan on how to identify human trafficking, it has allowed for a level of depth and understanding of the issue of human trafficking that the researcher previously did not have. As with any project, however, there far more questions than answers. These questions will hopefully, with an appropriate balance of time and funding, become future research projects on the myriad forms of human trafficking. ♦

References

- Aronowitz, A. A. (2009). *Human trafficking, human misery*. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.
- Bales, K. (2000). *Disposable people: New slavery in the global economy*. Berkley, CA: University of California Press.
- Bales, K. & Soodalter, R. (2009). *The slave next door: Human trafficking and slavery in America today*. Berkley, CA: University of California Press.
- Chin, K. & Finckenauer, J. O. (2012). *Selling sex overseas: Chinese women and the realities of prostitution and global sex trafficking*. New York, NY: New York University Press.
- Clawson, H.J., Layne, M., & Small, K. (2006). *Estimating human trafficking into the United States. Development of a methodology*. Caliber an ICF International Company. Retrieved June 16, 2012 from <http://ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/grants/215475.pdf>.
- Davis, K. (2006). *Human trafficking and modern-day slavery in Ohio*. Washington D.C.: Polaris Project.
- Detroit Free Press.(May 28, 2013). *With 150,000 undocumented residents, Michigan has stake in U.S. debate*.
- ECPAT International. (2006). *Global monitoring report on the status of action against the commercial sexual exploitation of children: United States of America*. Retrieved from http://www.ecpat.net/eng/A4A_2005americas.html.
- Ehrenreich, B. & Hochschild, A. (Eds). (2002). *Global woman: Nannies, maids, and sex workers in the new economy*. New York, NY: Holt Publishers.
- Richard J. Estes & Neil Alan Weiner. (2005). The commercial exploitation of children in the United States. In S. W. Cooper, R. J. Estes, A. P. Giardino, N. D. Kellogg, & V. I. Vieth (eds.), *Child sexual exploitation: A comprehensive review of pornography, prostitution, and internet crimes*. (pp. 95-128), Vol. 1., Florissant, MO: STM Learning.
- Farley, M. (2000). *Prostitution, trafficking, and traumatic stress*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Farr, K. (2004). *The Global market in women and children*. New York, NY: Worth Publishers.

- Farrell, A., McDevitt, J., Perry, N., Fahy, S., Chamberlain, K., Adams, W., et al., (2009). *Review of existing estimates of victims of human trafficking in the United States and recommendations for improving research and the measurement of human trafficking (Final Report)*. Washington D.C.: Humanity United.
- Flores, T. (2012). *Lecture at Zonta women's gathering*, MSU FCU, East Lansing, MI.
- Flores, T. & Wells, P. S. (2010). *The slave across the street*. Garden City, ID: Ampelon Publishing.
- Flores, Theresa (2007). *The sacred bath: An American teen's story of modern-day slavery*. iUniverse, Inc.
- Gozdziak, E. & Bump, M. N. (2008). *Data and research on human trafficking: Bibliography of research- based literature*. A Final Report to NIJ Grant 2007-VT-BX-K002. Washington, D.C.: Institute for the Study of International Migration, Georgetown University.
- Hondagneu-Sotelo, P. (2008). *God's heart has no borders: How religious activists are working for immigrant rights*. Berkley, CA: University of California Press.
- International Labour Organization (2017). "Global Estimates of Modern Slavery: Forced Labour and Forced Marriage." Geneva. September 2017.
- Kara, S.. (2009). *Sex trafficking: Inside the business of modern-day slavery*. New York, NY: Columbia UP.
- Kristof, N. D. & WuDunn, S.. (2009). *Half the sky: Turning oppression into opportunity for women worldwide*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Logan, T. K., Walker, R., & Hunt, G. (2007). Understanding human trafficking in the United States. *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse*. 10, 3-30.
- Nazario, S. (2006). *Enrique's journey: The story of a boy's dangerous odyssey to reunite with his mother*. New York, NY: Random House.
- O'Neill-Richard, A. (1999). *International trafficking in women to the United States: A contemporary manifestation of slavery and organized crime*. DCI Exceptional Intelligence Analyst Program: An Intelligence Monograph. Retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/center-for-the-study-of-intelligence/csi-publications/books-and-monographs/trafficking.pdf>.
- Human Trafficking. (2019). In *Oxford Online Dictionary*. Retrieved from <https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/humantrafficking>
- Polaris Project (2012a). Retrieved from <http://www.polarisproject.org>.
- Polaris Project (2012b). *Asian massage parlors (AMPs) in the United States*. Retrieved from <http://www.polarisproject.org/resources/resources-by-topic/sex-trafficking>.
- Polaris Project (2012c). *Sex trafficking networks*. Retrieved from <http://www.polarisproject.org/resources/resources-by-topic/sex-trafficking>.
- Polaris Project (2019). "Labor Trafficking." Retrieved from <https://polarisproject.org/human-trafficking/labor-trafficking>.
- Salazar-Parreñas, R. (2011). *Illicit flirtations: labor, migration, and sex trafficking in Tokyo*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Shelley, Louise. (2010). *Human trafficking: A global perspective*. New York, NY: Cambridge UP.
- Kruezpaintner, M. (Director). (2007). *Trade*. [Film]. Lionsgate.
- U.S. Department of State. "Trafficking in Persons Report." (2009). Diplomacy in Action. Retrieved from <http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2009/index.htm>.
- U.S. Department of State. "Trafficking in Persons Report." (2010). Diplomacy in Action. Retrieved June 8, 2012 from <http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2010/index.htm>.
- U.S. Department of State. "Trafficking in Persons Report." (2011). Diplomacy in Action. Retrieved June 8, 2012 from <http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2011/index.htm>.
- U.S. Department of State. "Trafficking in Persons Report." (2012). Diplomacy in Action. Retrieved June 8, 2012 from <http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2012/index.htm>.
- Victims of trafficking and violence protection act of 2000 (TVPA)*. (2000). Retrieved from <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/10492.pdf>.

- Williamson, C. , et al. (2010). *Report on the prevalence of human trafficking in Ohio*. Ohio Trafficking in Persons Study Commission: Research and Analysis Subcommittee. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/260335112_Ohio_Trafficking_in_Persons_Study_Commission_Research_and_Analysis_Sub-Committee_Report_on_the_Prevalence_of_Human_Trafficking_in_Ohio_To_Attorney_General_Richard_Cordray_Research_Committee_Members_At
- Williamson, C., & Prior, M. (2009). Domestic minor sex trafficking: A network of underground players in the Midwest. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Trauma*, 2, 1-16.
- Zhang, S. (2012). Measuring labor trafficking: A research note. *Crime, Law, and Social Change*, 58, 469-482.
- Zhang, S. (2007). *Smuggling and trafficking of human beings: All roads lead to America*. Westport, CT: Praeger Press.



Spring Arbor

UNIVERSITY

Continuing Education Questions

Directions: Choose the best answer for each question as you read each article. Then return to the [Member Continuing Education Page](#) for a link to answer the online assessment questions. A certificate of completion or ASHA continuing education units (CEUs) are available for a limited time.

SLPs, Teachers, and Spelling: Current Knowledge, Practices, and Beliefs

12. There was NOT a significant difference on the knowledge assessment between which two groups?
 - a. SLPs-G and teachers-G.
 - b. SLPs-S and teachers-S.
 - c. SLPs-G and SLPs-S.
 - d. teachers-G and teachers-S.
13. Which of the following is NOT a linguistic component spelling skill?
 - a. Phonology.
 - b. Orthography.
 - c. Syntax.
 - d. Morphology.
14. What is a reason the involvement of SLPs in spelling is so valuable?
 - a. SLPs' linguistic knowledge.
 - b. SLPs' flexible schedule.
 - c. SLPs' ability to work with various ages.
 - d. SLPs' pragmatic knowledge.
15. The percentage of teachers-G reporting that they engaged in spelling two or more times per week was at least:
 - a. 65%.
 - b. 75%.
 - c. 85%.
 - d. 95%.

Visionary Supervision

16. The model of supervision that focuses on moving a student from dependency to self-supervision is:
 - a. Anderson's Model of supervision.
 - b. Medical model of supervision.
 - c. Cognitive Load Theory.
 - d. Mindfulness model of supervision.
17. Transformative learning theory begins with:
 - a. Students developing a progressive action plan.
 - b. Exploring solutions to problems.
 - c. Experiencing a problem.
 - d. Trial and error learning.
18. Unconditional positive regard suggests that:
 - a. Listeners are non-judgmental.
 - b. Judging a client/student is okay if you are the person who holds the knowledge.
 - c. Empathy has little to do with our ability to engage with others.
 - d. You should be "real" about who you are in your relationships.

19. Choragogy refers to:
- Dance moves.
 - Making materials accessible to all.
 - Solutions-focused activities for engaging students.
 - The developmental learning stage between pedagogy and andragogy.

Sarcastic Kids are My Favorite

20. When teaching ambiguous language to a student who presents with a language disorder which of the following is necessary?
- Reading the words/phrase within a context.
 - Direct instruction.
 - Drill based training.
 - In person and video-based interactions.
21. There are four things that need to be analyzed during a sarcastic interaction. Which of the following is NOT one?
- Body language.
 - Voice.
 - Clothing.
 - Facial expressions.
22. Which of the following “sarcasm identification skills” has the greatest impact on the transferability to defining other forms ambiguous language?
- Contradiction of words and context.
 - Facial expression.
 - Vocal changes.
 - Use of body in space.
23. Students with language disorder have difficulty with which of the following
- Facial expressions.
 - Expressing emotions.
 - Connecting facial expressions to emotions.
 - Producing vocal changes in conversation.

Critical Linkages: Opiate Addiction and Elevated Risk of Human Trafficking

24. The signs and symptoms of drug abuse
- Can vary significantly depending on the class of drug utilized.
 - Are very similar regardless of the class of drug utilized.
 - Are easily visible outside of periods of acute intoxication.
 - Do not vary regardless of patient co-morbidities or timing of last episode of use.
25. Which of the following would not be a commonly encountered clinical finding in a victim of human trafficking?
- Evidence of malnourishment.
 - Fearful appearance.
 - Appropriate eye contact.
 - Inconsistency in clinical history.
26. Which of the following physical observations on a non-medical exam could indicate possible substance abuse?
- Slurred speech.
 - Dilated or constricted pupils.
 - Jaundice.
 - Gait abnormalities.
 - All of the above.

27. Examples of risk factors for human trafficking and opioid abuse include all of the following except
- Mental health problems.
 - Homelessness.
 - Stable socioeconomic status.
 - Recent immigration.

Potential Indicators of Human Trafficking within Migrant Farmworker Communities

28. What elements are involved in a non-minor case of human trafficking?
- Force, fraud or coercion.
 - Force, movement or coercion.
 - Surprise, movement or coercion.
 - Surprise fraud or coercion.
29. According to the Trafficking Victims Protection Act (TVPA), what is the difference between sex and labor trafficking?
- Sex and labor trafficking are the same.
 - Sex trafficking involves sexual acts while labor trafficking involves nonsexual work.
 - The difference depends on the amount of money.
 - Sex trafficking is international and labor trafficking is domestic.
30. What is a potential indicator of trafficking within migrant farmworker populations?
- Presence of violence in the sending country.
 - Invitation to work in another country.
 - Being paid at piece rate instead of hourly.
 - Not speaking the same language as the employer.
31. Labor contractors may take part in exploiting migrant farm workers by
- Working with growers to secure employment for workers.
 - Speaking in Spanish to workers and English to growers.
 - Arranging for transportation for workers from their home country to the united states.
 - Agreeing to wage with workers and then changing the wage once they arrive at the place of employment.



Guidelines for Submission to eHearsay

eHearsay, the electronic journal of the Ohio Speech- Language- Hearing Association, is designed to address the professional development needs of the members of the state association.

OSLHA publishes manuscripts relevant to the fields of speech-language pathology and audiology and adheres to American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) Guidelines for the Responsible Conduct of Research: Ethics and the Publication Process <http://www.asha.org/docs/html/GL2009-00308.html>

Types of Manuscripts

Contributed manuscripts may take any of the following forms:

- **Research Article:** Full-length articles presenting important new research results. Research articles include an abstract, introduction, methods and results sections, discussion, and relevant citations. These are typically limited to 40 manuscript pages including citations, tables, and figures. Large data sets and other supplementary materials are welcome for inclusion in the online publication.
- **Review:** A comprehensive overview of an area of speech, language, or hearing sciences and/or disorders (i.e., systematic review or meta-analysis). Reviews should be accessible to knowledgeable readers not expert in the subject area. They should be prepared with the same rigor as a research article reporting specific results. These are typically limited to 40 manuscript pages including citations, tables, and figures.
- **Tutorial:** Educational expositions covering recent literature on topics of interest to clinicians and other scholars. These are typically limited to 40 manuscript pages including citations, tables, and figures.
- **Research Forum:** The purpose of a research forum (RF) is to provide a concentrated focus on a special topic deemed to be of high interest to the readership. An RF contains a series of empirical studies centering on a key aspect of speech, language, hearing, or swallowing science and/or disorders. RFs may also comprise a set of scholarly papers presented at a scientific conference.
 - A proposal for an RF must be approved for consideration by the journal editor prior to forum development. Pre-approval by an editor does not guarantee that any or all manuscripts submitted will be accepted for publication. The proposal should (1) provide a forum summary, (2) outline the probable manuscript titles and author lists, (3) state whether a prologue and/or epilogue is planned, and (4) designate one person, a forum coordinator, as the point of contact and coordinator of communications with forum authors.
- **Letter to the Editor:** Opinions about material previously published in the journal or views on topics of current relevance. A letter relating to work published in the journal will ordinarily be referred to the author(s) of the original item for a response, which may be published along with the letter. Letters are typically limited to 15 manuscript pages, including citations, tables, and figures.
- **Clinical Focus:** Articles that may be of primary clinical interest but may not have a traditional research format. Case studies, descriptions of clinical programs, and innovative clinical services and activities are among the possibilities.
- **Viewpoint:** Scholarly based opinion(s) on an issue of clinical relevance that currently may be neglected, controversial, related to future legislation, or could serve to update the readership on current thinking in an area.

Manuscript Style and Requirements

Style Manual

Authors are expected to follow the style specified in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th edition).

Language Policies

OSLHA policy requires the use of nonsexist and person-first language in preparing manuscripts.

Page Limit

A guideline of 40 pages (including title page, abstract, text, acknowledgments, references, appendices, tables, and figures) is suggested as an upper limit for manuscript length. Longer manuscripts, particularly for critical reviews and extended data-based reports, will not be excluded from review, but the author(s) should be prepared to justify the length of the manuscript if requested to do so.

Peer Review

All manuscripts are peer reviewed, typically by at least two reviewers with relevant expertise, an issue editor (if applicable), and the journal editor. Correspondence between authors and editors is expected to be professional in tone. If correspondence is not conducted in a professional manner, an editor has the option to bring the matter before the OSLHA Directory of Technology and Publications and/or OSLHA's Executive Council. After consultation with the Directory of Technology and Publications, the editor may terminate the peer review process for that submission. The author has the right to appeal to the OSLHA Directory of Technology and Publications and/or OSLHA's Executive Council.

Authorship & Author Disclosures

During manuscript submission, answers to a number of disclosures will be required. The corresponding author:

- Affirms that all of the authors listed in the byline have made contributions appropriate for assumption of authorship, have consented to the byline order, and have agreed to submission of the manuscript in its current form
- Affirms that all applicable research adheres to basic ethical considerations for the protection of human or animal participants in research
- Affirms that there is no copyrighted material in the manuscript or includes a copy of the permission granted to reproduce or adapt any copyrighted material in the paper
- Affirms that the manuscript has not been previously published in the same, or essentially the same, form
- Affirms that the manuscript is not currently under review elsewhere. OSLHA prefers to publish previously unpublished material
- Discloses information about any previous public presentation of the data reported in the submitted manuscript, including at a scientific meeting or in conference proceedings, book chapters, websites, or related media
- Discloses any real or potential conflicts of interest that could be seen as having an influence on the research (e.g., financial interests in a test or procedure, funding by an equipment or materials manufacturer for efficacy research)

CALL FOR PAPERS

**Submit your manuscript at any time by sending it to the
Journal Editor: Laurie.sheehy@utoledo.edu or the
Business Office oslhaoffice@ohioslha.org**

In the Next Issue of *eHearsay*

Dear OSLHA Members,

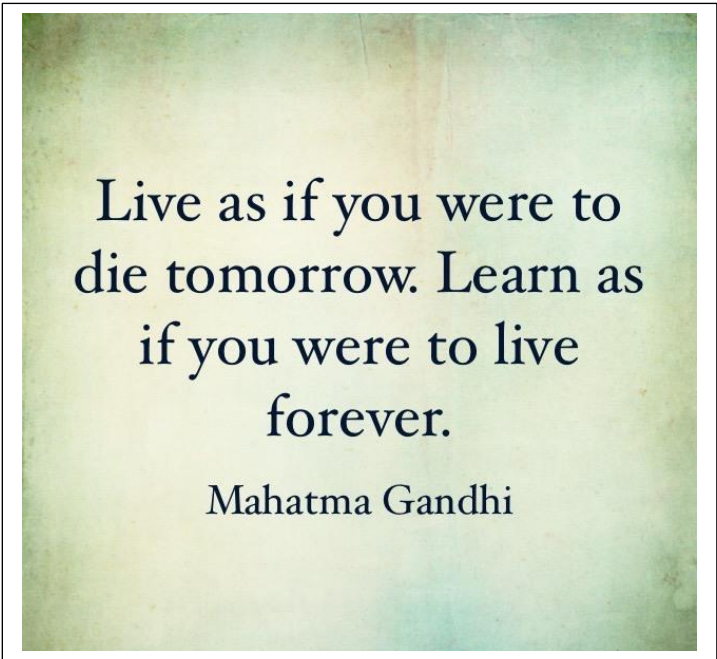
I hope you enjoyed the articles that were in this issue of eHearsay.

OSLHA needs **YOU!!** Based on some of the 2019 membership survey results, it sounds like **YOU** want to be more involved in OSLHA. There are opportunities for you to get involved with eHearsay:

- Become a **Peer Reviewer**
 - Send your resume/CV to Laurie.Sheehy@utoledo.edu and let me if you have an area of expertise
- Become an **Author** or Co-Author
 - eHearsay publishes all types of manuscripts including: tutorials, reviews, clinical focus, viewpoint, research studies (even those with 1-5 participants).
 - OSLHA has also published student papers in the past. If you are a University professor and you require your students to write a paper, it may be of interest to our members. In years past we've had student papers re: meta-analysis (Case Western Reserve), group intervention in dementia (Baldwin-Wallace), English Language Learners (University of Cincinnati), Hearing status of children in developing nations (University of Toledo), Acceptance & Commitment Therapy for stuttering (University of Akron)
- Be a **Guest Editor**
 - If you have a topic you are passionate about (e.g., Head/Neck Cancer, Autism, Dyslexia, Fluency Disorders, Audiology Issues) and think you can get 4+ articles together on the subject, you can be a guest editor for a topic of your choosing.

Never stop learning because life never stops teaching. Be passionately curious. Make a difference in your world.

Laurie M. Sheehy
eHearsay Journal Editor



Live as if you were to
die tomorrow. Learn as
if you were to live
forever.

Mahatma Gandhi