



OCCUPATION: A Medium of Inquiry for Students, Faculty & Other Practitioners Advocating for Health through Occupational Studies

Volume 1
Issue 1 November 2015

Article 6

11-1-2015

November 2015 Issue

OCCUPATION: A Medium of Inquiry for Students, Faculty & Other Practitioners Advocating for Health through Occupational Studies

Follow this and additional works at: <https://nsuworks.nova.edu/occupation>



Part of the [Occupational Therapy Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

OCCUPATION: A Medium of Inquiry for Students, Faculty & Other Practitioners Advocating for Health through Occupational Studies (2015) "November 2015 Issue," *OCCUPATION: A Medium of Inquiry for Students, Faculty & Other Practitioners Advocating for Health through Occupational Studies*: Vol. 1 : Iss. 1 , Article 6.

Available at: <https://nsuworks.nova.edu/occupation/vol1/iss1/6>

This Full Issue is brought to you for free and open access by the Department of Occupational Therapy at NSUWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in OCCUPATION: A Medium of Inquiry for Students, Faculty & Other Practitioners Advocating for Health through Occupational Studies by an authorized editor of NSUWorks. For more information, please contact nsuworks@nova.edu.



OCCUPATION:

A Medium of Inquiry for Students,
Faculty & Other Practitioners
Advocating for Health through
Occupational Studies

CHAOS

Community & Health Advocacy
through Occupational Studies

OCCUPATION: A Medium of Inquiry for Students, Faculty & Other Practitioners Advocating for Health through Occupational Studies

OCCUPATION: A Medium of Inquiry for Students, Faculty & Other Practitioners Advocating for Health through Occupational Studies is the official publication of Community & Health Advocacy through Occupational Studies. The mission is to serve as a medium to disseminate interprofessional scholarly work pertaining to occupational studies in the global community.

Publication Headquarters

Entry-Level Doctor of Occupational Therapy (OTD) Program
Nova Southeastern University - Tampa
College of Health Care Sciences, Department of Occupational Therapy
3632 Queen Palm Drive, Tampa, FL 33619-1378
P: 813.574.5340 / F: 813.574.5330
www.****.org

Founding Board Members

Ricardo C. Carrasco
Mirtha M. Whaley
Ellie Edrissi
Larry Holmes
Kristin McMillen
Hillary Whitacre
Jamie Williams

Editor-in-Chief

Ricardo Carrasco

Associate Editor

Mariana D'Amico

Reviewers

Mirtha Whaley
Gustavo Reinoso
Ricky Davenport
Dennis McCarthy
Thomas Decker
Shelia Longpre'

Manuscripts

All manuscripts may be submitted to the Editor-in-Chief at www.****.org.

Copyright

All rights held by the **OCCUPATION: A Medium of Inquiry for Students, Faculty & Other Practitioners Advocating for Health through Occupational Studies** journal. In order to reproduce, photocopy, or reprint any information held in this journal, permission must be obtained from Copyright Clearance Center.

OCCUPATION: A Medium of Inquiry for Students, Faculty & Other Practitioners Advocating for Health through Occupational Studies

- 4 **Living the Implicit Curriculum, Leaving a Legacy**
Ricardo Carrasco
- 6 **The Occupational Benefits of Children Farming**
Ellie Edriss
- 11 **Access Denied: Barriers for Unauthorized Immigrants Pursuing the American Dream**
Kristin McMillen
- 18 **Societal Statement on the Role of Occupational Therapy with Survivors of Human Sex Trafficking in the United States**
Chelsea Bryant, Lillian Freeman, Meghan Granata, Annie He, Hillarie Hough, Shree Patel, Ashley Stedman, Stephanie Silvia, and My-Lynn Tran
- 23 **Global Issue of Clean Water as it Impacts Occupation**
Hillary E. W. Anderson

Living the Implicit Curriculum, Leaving a Legacy

Ricardo C. Carrasco

This paper introduces the inaugural issue of OCCUPATION: A Medium of Inquiry for Students, Faculty & Other Practitioners Advocating for Health through Occupational Studies. The paper asserts that implicit or hidden curriculum partners with the explicit curriculum, especially in health care education that promotes the students' journey that employs doing, in the transformative process in being and becoming entry-level practitioners.

Ricardo C. Carrasco, PhD, OTR/L, FAOTA is Professor & Founding Director of the Entry-Level Doctor of Occupational Therapy Program at Nova Southeastern University - Tampa

The notion that humans are occupational beings predates occupational therapy history. In the words of Aristotle, humans learn by doing, therefore to learn to be just, one has to do just acts, for example (340 BC). Fidler & Fidler (1978) used the word "doing and becoming" and posited that while early philosophers entertained the idea of human action, the adaptation and transformation of those doing actions into doing something had meaning and purpose had not been explored. In delivering a blended curriculum designed towards entry-level professionals at the doctoral level, the challenge arises in engaging learners in experiences that allow for enough "doing" to enhance their "being" towards a continuum of "becoming."

Guided by information from the Community of Inquiry model, virtual and face-to-face classrooms employ learning presences utilized by both students and faculty, challenging everyone towards self-determined learning experiences within the constraints of a lockstep learning calendar, (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008; Hase & Kenyon, 2013). This explicit curriculum comprise the didactic, clinical and scholarly experiences communicated to the public and delivered to the students. While students actively engage in the explicit curriculum, they also participate in the hidden, sometimes

referred to as the hidden curriculum which addresses the learning environment that is committed to diversity and student-centeredness, not only in the face-to-face classrooms and administrative and advising interactions, but also in the virtual world using the learning management system or other technologies. (Quinn & Bath, 2014; Dutton, & Sellheim, 2014).

Wren (1999) averred that educators need to activate elements in the environment that address the socialization of students in learning how to learn and understanding the meaning of educational rituals, ceremonies, celebrations and routines, including recognition of accomplishments such as awards, pinning and white coat traditions in health care. Such elements of the implicit curriculum contribute not only to the learner's path of doing, being and becoming, but also developing a sense of belonging, thus contributing to their personal growth and professional socialization (Hitch, Pepin & Stagnitii, 2014; Wilcock, 1999). The birth of the virtual community called CHAOS, or the Community and Health Advocacy through Occupational Studies, and its companion publication called OCCUPATION, A Medium of Inquiry for Students, Faculty and Other Practitioners Advocating for Health through Occupational Studies accentuate a coordinated effort among students, faculty and other scholars

and practitioners to live an implicit curriculum of professional behavior, accountability, and scholarly collaboration, and translating it into the printed medium. It is a legacy delivered and continued to celebrate purposeful engagement that will continue celebrating lifelong learning.

Wren, D. J. (1999). School culture: Exploring the hidden curriculum. *Adolescence*. 34. (35). 593-596.

References

- Aristotle (340 BC). Aristotle: Nicomachean ethics (T. Irwin, Trans, 2nd Ed.). Indianapolis, IN: Hackett Publishing.
- Dutton, L. L. & Sellheim, D. O. (2014). The informal and hidden curriculum in physical therapist education. *Journal of Physical Therapy Education*. 28: 3. 50-63
- Fidler G.S. & Fidler J. W. (1978). Doing and becoming: Purposeful action and self-actualization. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 32 (5), 305–310.
- Garrison, D. R. & Vaughan, N. D. (2008) Blended learning in higher education: Framework, principles and guidelines. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hase, S & Kenyon C. (Eds.). (2013). Self-determined learning: Heutagogy in action. New York: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Hitch, D, Pepin, G. & Stagnitii (2014). In the footsteps of Wilcock, Part I: The evolution of doing, being, becoming and belonging. *Occupational Therapy in Healthcare*.28:3 231-246
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3109/0730577.2014.898114>
- Quinn A.& Bath A. M. (2014). Operationalizing the implicit curriculum in MSW distance education programs., *Journal of Social Work Education*. 50. 34-47
doi:10.1080/10437797.2014.856229
- Wilcock A. (1999). Reflections on doing, being and becoming. *Australian Occupational Therapy Journal*, 46(1), 1–11.

The Occupational Benefits of Children Farming

Ellie Edrissi

This paper analyses the positive outcomes of youth responsibilities, routines, autonomy, youth programs and scholarships, cultural identity, educational and life experiences through the occupation of farming during seasonal and/or after school hours. The multidimensional context of children willingly working in the agricultural industry allows positive psychological, economical, and cultural experiences while building a stronger family unity. The occupation of farming allows youth participation with the environment, social skills, inter-generational transfer of skills, and increased confidence for future aspirations as they mature to adulthood.

Keywords: child labor, youth early employment, child labor laws, youth programs, psychological aspects of youth employment, agricultural organizations

Introduction

There are negative reactions towards children working in the agricultural industry due to undocumented migrant workers, hazardous use of chemicals and pesticides, unpaid employment, environment that affects children's health, and other negative perspectives associated with child labor. However, not enough focus has been placed on the positive aspect of child agricultural labor, such as positive participation of children contributing to the family traditions, inter-generational transfer of skills, household livelihood and welfare, social skills, increased confidence and self-esteem, entrepreneurship and independence. Children and family households are very important during the farming season for the agricultural industry as well as the family income and survival (Garrett & Schulman, 1989).

There is a distinct difference between non-harmful child labor as opposed to harmful child labor environment. Non-harmful child labor is defined as work-related responsibilities that are part-time, does not affect or preclude academic career or attendance, provides income to the child, allows for a sense of self and accomplishment, sense of community, and allows for social skills that will continue to evolve and benefit the child (Canadian International Development Agency [CIDA], 2006; Living History Farm Organization [LHFO], 2014).

Seventy-five percent of indigenous populations reside in rural areas and value the occupation of agriculture for survival of their families and communities.

Historically and globally, children have been major focal contributors to agricultural productivity (CIDA, 2006). The agricultural industry recruits 59% of child labor, which means 98 million children under the age of 18 contribute to the productivity (Food and Agriculture Organization [FAO], 2014; International Labour Organization [ILO], 2014). In the United States, an estimated 500,000 youth farmers are employed in the agriculture industry (National Farm Work Industry [NFWM], 2014). Farm labor is not limited to male adults, but includes children of both genders. Children as young as 12 years of age are permitted to contribute to the agricultural industry for a total of 3 hours per day on school days (NFWM, 2014). Work by children in agricultural fields provides children with opportunities to gain life skills, positive youth engagement with environment to develop cultural identity, and educational experience.

Methodology

An aggregate of literature review on child labor, youth early employment, child labor laws, youth programs, psychological aspects of youth employment, agricultural organizations, analysis of video interviews were analyzed for this scholarly reflection paper. This developmental research assesses and analyzes the occupational benefits of farm work by children in the form of the social and economical development of youth transitioning to adulthood through the occupation of farming and gaining life skills and aspirations.

Literature Review

Legal Child Labor and Laws

Legal child labor and laws contribute to protecting children in the agricultural industry throughout history until the current time. The minimum age standard for agricultural employment includes the following ages: 16, 14, 12, and children under the age of 12 (FAO, 2014; ILO, 2014). The law protects children based on age category for labor responsibilities and operating machinery before and after school hours. Children between the ages of 12 and 15 have lighter agricultural responsibilities outside of school hours (ILO, 2014).

The agriculture industry and rural-development initiatives have implemented laws recognizing children's rights, recognizing equal gender rights and economic value, while taking into consideration the children's rights and safety and health issues through good practices to prevent exploitation or abuse (CIDA, 2006).
School Hours and Agricultural Work

Every state implements different laws regarding minimum age of employment for child labor during school hours. The majority of the states within the United States with the exception of Illinois, Massachusetts, Nevada, and South Dakota allow individuals 16 or older to work in the agriculture industry and farming during school hours. Most states approve 14 year olds to be employed, and children under the age of 12 must have written parental consent and are exempt from the federal minimum wage (Department of Labor [DOL], 2014; NFWM, 2014).

Explaining Overtime and Minimum Wage

Any employer in agriculture who did not utilize more than 500 "man days" of agricultural labor in any calendar quarter of the preceding calendar year is exempt from the minimum wage and overtime pay provisions of the FLSA for the current calendar year. A man day is defined as any day during which an employee performs agricultural work for at least one hour. (United States Department of Labor, 2008, para. 6)

The Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) states all employees are entitled for overpay if the individual works beyond 40 hours per week. The employee has the right to one and half regular rate of pay. According to the FLSA, youth employment in agriculture is no less than \$4.25 per hour under the age of 20 years old (DOL, 2008).

4-H Federal Extension Service Training Program

In the 1950s, the Agricultural Extension Services was designed for educating and training the adult population; however, programs expanded and were specifically designed for rural youth population, such as the 4-H program and the Future Farmers of America (FFA; Living History Farm Organization [LHFO], 2014). These are youth organization programs which are sponsored by local schools throughout the United States. In 1988, FFA changed its name to National Future Farmers of America (NFFA) and operates on a local, state, and national level with the aim of striving to prepare future generations for the art, science, and business of agricultural industry (FFA, 2014). Currently there are over half a million FFA members between the ages of 12 and 21 within the United States, including Puerto Rico, who have awarded 1,700 individuals with scholarships. Scholarships have been awarded to youth totaling 2.2 million dollars in 2014 alone. The 4-H is an after school program that is sponsored by the Extension Service and administered by National Institute of Food and Agriculture (NIFA) and United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), which promotes and offers vocational agriculture, such as operational training program for 14- and 15-year-old teenagers to apply and complete a certification that allows legal operation of tractors, machines, and equipment after school hours (USDA, 2014; Farm Service Agency [FSA], 2014; LHFO, 2014). Terry Schrick, a retired agricultural educator, discussed the positive aspects of teaching children who work in the fields. He discussed how some of the children became very successful and pursued the medical profession, veterinarianian field, while some went back to farming as a profession (LHFO, 2014).

Children in agriculture versus non-agricultural work do not preclude school attendance or enrollment (Walters & Briggs, 1993). In fact, child labor outside of the agriculture industry has a higher incidence of decreased school attendance compared to children working in the agricultural industry (Walters & Briggs, 1993). Furthermore, the literacy rate among children employed in the agricultural industry was higher than children who worked in the non-agricultural areas (Walters & Briggs, 1993).

Mental and Psychological Context

According to Maciuba, Westneat, and Reed (2013), "findings show that the farmers have positive perspectives on work and farm future, and strong attachment to the land" (p. 336). Farmers expressed personal sat-

isfaction, career satisfaction, a sense of self-identity and self-worth, attachment to farming culture and land, and a sense of family pride to pass skills to next generation. The United States (U.S.) Representative Blaine Luetkemeyer expressed a similar viewpoint regarding his childhood experience in the occupation of working on farmland during adolescent years. During an interview, Representative Luetkemeyer vocalized his concerns of wanting to challenge the U.S. Department of Labor on the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) and explore options of children working in the agricultural industry; those, which he stated, aided him in gaining experience and values, contributing to family, paying for college tuition, and allowing him spending money (N.A., 2011).

Discussion

Gaining Life Experience

Paid farm occupations for children allow the youth to develop strong work ethics, discipline, structure, organization, routines, and a sense of responsibility at an early age. Promotion of healthy adolescent development by incorporating daily routines and responsibilities in day-to-day activities is important and possible through the occupation of farming. The daily responsibilities of farming require the practice of daily routines and better understanding of time organization, which provides youths with structure, purpose, and organizational skills. Certain routines practiced on the farm may become part of a group, a culture or a group culture, which eventually develops special meaning and becomes a ritual. Certain routines and rituals learned on the farm field provide opportunities to organize the family and foster meaning for the family unit for youths who work in tandem with parents and siblings. The occupation of youth farming allows social routines to develop and enhances social skills throughout adolescent years. Working on farms provides opportunities for children to thrive in life, integrate within the community, and develop career avenues by experiencing occupations outside of the academic and real-life settings to gain life skills beneficial for the future. According to Barclay, Benelli, and Wolf, routine can influence development (Gemici, Bednarz, Karmel, & Lim, 2014). The farming culture is a community and social support system that shapes, promotes, and influences the youth population to increase self-esteem, sense of belonging, and sense of social connectedness, which flourishes to provide a positive occupational experience. The sense of connection and interdependence to the community,

resources, and environment positively influenced the youths' ability to strive and succeed in future occupational endeavors and to accomplish goals (Whiteford & Hocking, 2012). Family values and support influence youths' choice of occupations, which motivate youths to have goals for future aspirations as they transition to adulthood (Gemici et. al., 2014).

Junior Farmer Field and Life School program used agriculture to teach youths who are "vulnerable," including orphans with AIDS to learn and develop life skills in a pilot program in Mozambique (MediaVoice for Children, 2011). FAO (2014), ILO (2014), and the World Food Program jointly assisted a pilot program to help these children become independent and self-sufficient by learning to harvest their own food. Incorporating the occupation of farming for youth allows for the survival skills for day-to-day living, giving back to the community, learning the nutritional value of food, and increasing their quality of life for themselves and the community without parental presence (Media Voices for Children, 2011). The occupation of children farming increased confidence and taught cultural heritage through dances that integrated the agriculture and respect for nature.

Educational Experience

Monetary independence. The Junior Farm Field and Life School Program also incorporated economic perspective of agriculture industry to empower the youth. At a young age, monetary independence gained by the youth taught children to save for future academic careers or investment back into the agricultural industry. Working on the farms and earning money empowers the individual at a young age to strive to invest for the future.

School enrollment. Children in agricultural labor do not preclude school attendance, and Walters and Briggs (1993) indicated the literacy of children employed in the agricultural industry is higher than children employed in non-agricultural industry. As a result, youth programs encourage participation of their programs and encourage applying for scholarships to continue in the agricultural industry.

Youth early employment and behavior. According to Yeung and Rauscher (2014), children who work at a young age may have fewer behavioral problems due to having a better sense of self-control and independence. Lower socioeconomic families whose children are employed at an early age behave better due

to the economic incentives for caring for other family members and contributing to the family income (Yeung & Rauscher, 2014).

Youth programs. According to Gemici et al. (2014), several external factors, such as something influence youths at the age of 15 to make unrealistic aspirations that cannot be followed through by the time they reached 30 years of age the individuals aspirations; however, programs like the 4-H federal extension training program offer a realistic approach to making realistic aspirations and building on them as they mature and age through experience. The positive outcomes of the 4-H Federal Extension Service Training Program for the child provides a sense of independence to complete a task independently. Youth programs, such as the 4-H, provides a sense of responsibility and contribution to family resources, finances, researching further resources available to the youth to plan future career plans. The 4-H program helps build the child's self-esteem and confidence to permit initiation of an independent occupation, to be integrated into the community, and strive for achievement and complete milestones at an early age.

Loans to child farmers. Youth farmers and ranchers, sponsored by the USDA FSA, grants loans to children who reside in rural areas who contribute to "income-producing projects" that are associated with 4-H clubs and Future Farmers of America (Nolz, 2009). These loans are obtained by children who are part of an organized program that supervises and provides organizational advisers. They allow for an organized plan to produce enough income to repay the loans for the child to gain business experience, and entrepreneurship at an early age.

Scholarships. "Last year, \$75,000 was made available to students through the UnitedAg & United Agricultural Benefit Trust Scholarship Program" (Showalter, 2014, para. 4). There are many scholarship opportunities for children of family farm owners or children who wish to continue with the agricultural industry as a career. Sullivan Supply's Youth Scholarship offers up to \$20,000.00 for high school seniors or college students under the age of 21 who want to pursue a path to the agricultural industry (Showalter, 2014). There are scholarships available from the National Milk Producers Foundation for graduate students who wish to study dairy-related majors (Showalter, 2014).

Sense of Cultural Identity

People who work on farmland become attached to the land and develop a sense of self-worth and pride for the farming culture (Maciuba, 2013). Parents have a sense of family pride to transfer an inter-generational skill to the youth by teaching their children safety precautions on how to drive a tractor, plowing skills, investment skills, comprehending the economic value and perspective, and gains and losses of business investments. There are benefits of children connecting with their rural roots through the occupation of farming. Children in the urban communities learn through the various youth programs at rural community farming skills such as survival and economic gains and investments.

"Working and living in agricultural communities can contribute to a child's sense of community and ethnic identity" (CIDA, 2006, p. 3). According to Media Voices for Children (2011), "cultural basis is integrated into agriculture" and allows for children and youth to understand their roots and cultural heritage. Agricultural habits, routines, and occupations help children discover their cultural roots and heritage.

Co-occupations. Children who work on the farms, seasonally or after school hours have a better understanding of the family occupations, traditions, learning of care for other living beings, caregiving, and co-occupations. Children learn the responsibilities to care for others and be nurturing to others on the job. Children who work on farms learn from adults, parents, or siblings co-occupation by working to collect eggs, feeding the chickens, and caring for other animals on the farm (Garrett & Schulman, 1989).

Conclusion

Implications of the occupation of child farming is spreading the awareness of farming at a young age and promoting the scholarship incentives to students at school for children to have options and choices for future career experience. The occupation of farming and agriculture for minors allows for a head start on life skills, socialization, business experience, monetary independence, and stronger family unit and engagement. Family values and collaboration occur as a result of children farming alongside their parents and siblings and become culturally integrated with the community, incorporate social routines and roles. The occupation of children working on farms provides an opportunity for children to thrive in life, develop career paths by experiencing occupations in real-life setting to gain life skills beneficial for future aspirations and investments.

The farming culture allows for a strong social support system to influence the youth population to increase sense of belonging, sense of social connectedness, and supports youths' choice of occupations, which motivates youths to have goals for future aspirations as they transition to adulthood.

References

Canadian International Development Agency, Human Rights and Participation Division, Children's Rights and Protection Unit. (2006). Children's contributing to working and caring for the land: The link between agriculture and children's rights. Retrieved from [http://www.acdicida.gc.ca/inet/IMAGES.NSF/vLUIimages/Childprotection/\\$file/Agriculture-EN.pdf](http://www.acdicida.gc.ca/inet/IMAGES.NSF/vLUIimages/Childprotection/$file/Agriculture-EN.pdf)

Garrett, P., & Schilman, M. D. (1989). Family division of labor and decision making among small holders. *Sociology and Social Research*, 74(1), 16-19.

Gemici, S., Bednarz, A., Karmel, T., & Lim, P. (2014). Young people's aspirations and their occupational outcomes. *The Australian Economic Review*, 47(1), 124-136.

International Labour Organization & Food and Agriculture Organization (2014). Child labor in agriculture. Retrieved from: <http://www.fao-ilo.org/fao-ilo-child>

Living History Farm Organization (2014). The extension services, 4-H, FFA. Retrieved from http://www.livinghistoryfarm.org/farminginthe50s/life_13.html

Maciuba, S. A., Westneat, S. C., & Reed, D. B. (2013). Active coping, personal satisfaction, and attachment to land in older African-American farmers. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing* 34(5), 335-343. doi:10.3109/01612840.2012.753560

Media Voices for Children (2011, February 24). Harvesting for life. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2U8c26LvmQ&list=PL0D55A273376FB979&index=19>

N.A. (2011, October 25). Leutkeymer takes issues with labor's proposed rule on youth agriculture employment. [Blog post]. Retrieved from <http://luetkemeyer.house.gov/>

National Farm Work Industry (2014). Children in the fields. Retrieved from <http://nfwm.org/education-center/farm-worker-issues/children-in-the-fields/>

Nolz, A. (2009, Feb.8). Loan gives youth a chance at the dream. USDA FSA offers Beginning Farmers and Ranchers Loans to help finance youth. *Tri-State Livestock News*. Retrieved from <http://beefmagazine.com/sectors/cow-calf/0209-youth-loans>

Pitts, B. (2011, May 22). The debate on child farm labor [Video file]. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UiYwkU3H7i8&list=PL0D55A273376FB979&index=18>

Showalter, M. (2014, March 6). Reap the benefits of bountiful farming scholarships [Blog post]. Retrieved from <http://www.usnews.com/education/blogs/the-scholarship-coach/2014/03/06/reap-the-benefits-of-bountiful-farming-scholarships>

United States Department of Agriculture & Farm Service Agency (2014). Youth farms and farmers. Retrieved from <http://www.fsa.usda.gov/FSA/kidsapp?area=home&subject=ythf&topic=landing>

U. S. Department of Labor (2007). Child labor requirements in agricultural occupations under the Fair Labor Standards Act (Child Labor Bulletin 102). Retrieved from <http://www.dol.gov/whd/regs/compliance/chlldlabor102.pdf>

U.S. Department of Labor (2008). Wage and hour division: Fact sheet #12: Agriculture employers under the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA). Retrieved from <http://www.dol.gov/whd/regs/compliance/whdfs12.htm>

U.S. Department of Labor (2008). Wage and hour division: Fact sheet #32: Youth minimum wage-Fair Labor Standards Act. Retrieved from <http://www.dol.gov/whd/regs/compliance/whdfs32.pdf>

Walters, P. B., & Briggs, C. M. (1993). The family economy, child labor, and schooling: Evidence from the early twentieth-century south. *American Sociological Review*, 58(2), 163.

Yeung, W. J., & Rauscher, E. (2014). Youth early employment and behavioral problems: Capital and social network pathways to adulthood. *Sociological Perspectives*, 57(3), 382-403.

Access Denied: Barriers for Unauthorized Immigrants Pursuing the American Dream

Kristin S. McMillen, OTD-S

Millions of immigrants from all around the world are living in the United States without legal authorization. Most have come in search of a better life for themselves or their children, with the belief that through enough hard work, they can achieve the “American Dream.” However, upon arrival, many unauthorized immigrants face cultural, economic, and political barriers that limit their opportunities for community participation and lead many individuals to live their lives in fear. This paper aims to: (a) explore the barriers encountered by unauthorized immigrants in the United States; (b) consider the occupational significance of these barriers; and (c) discuss potential solutions and the importance of advocacy for immigration reform that will lead to improved living and working conditions and occupational justice for all.

Keywords: Unauthorized immigrants, barriers, occupation, participation, justice

Many individuals from around the world who find themselves living in undesirable economic, political, or social conditions wish to come to the United States, viewing it as a land of opportunity, where the “American Dream” of happiness, success, and prosperity is available to all who are willing to work hard enough to achieve it (Samuel, 2012). This dream has prompted millions of people to seek residency in the United States over the last several decades; however, legal residency is not freely available for the taking. Nevertheless, millions of individuals have attempted to take matters into their own hands and have immigrated without the proper authorization (Bailliard, 2013; Warren & Warren, 2013).

Unauthorized immigrants are a large and diverse population that has come to the United States from all over the world. As of 2012, there were approximately 11.4 million unauthorized immigrants living in the United States (Baker & Rytina, 2013). Roughly 8.9 million individuals, or 78% of the total unauthorized immigrant population living in the U.S. originated from countries in North and Central America, while approximately 1.3 million came from Asia, 700,000 from South America, 300,000 from Europe, and 200,000 from other regions around the world. Seventy-three percent of unauthorized immigrants are between the ages of 18 and 44 years old, and 53% are male. Although they can be found living in all 50 states, California (2.82 million), Texas (1.83 million), Florida (730,000), and New York (580,000) are home to the largest populations of unauthorized immigrants (Baker & Rytina, 2013).

As many as 45% of the unauthorized immigrant population originally entered the United States through legal means, either by using Border Crossing cards, or tourist, student, or business visas, but then they remained beyond their legally approved length of stay. However, the remaining 55% or so of unauthorized immigrants crossed the U.S. borders from Mexico or Canada without ever having had legal authorization in the first place (Pew Research Center, 2006). For the many unauthorized immigrants who attempt entry through Mexico each year, the journey is particularly challenging. In addition to leaving their home country, family, and friends behind, many incur large financial expenses as they pay thousands of dollars to be smuggled across the border. These border-crossing attempts are often grueling, forcing immigrants to endure harsh conditions, with little food, water, or rest for days (Basu, 2014). They also face very real dangers of being kidnapped, held for ransom, sold into prostitution, abused by their smugglers, apprehended by authorities, or even losing their lives en route (Cave & Robles, 2014; Nazario, 2002). For those who are able to successfully enter the United States, the challenges continue, as they immerse themselves in a new language and culture, search for jobs and places to live, and are governed by unfamiliar laws that are typically not in their favor.

Literature Review

To gain a better understanding of these and other bar-

riers faced by unauthorized immigrants pursuing the American Dream, a focused review of the literature was conducted, using CINAHL, Google, and Google Scholar databases and the following search terms: illegal, undocumented, immigrants, barriers, housing, employment, transportation, finances, healthcare, education.

The literature revealed that one of the greatest barriers that unauthorized immigrants face when trying to start a new life in the United States is their lack of legal documentation. Although most immigrants are able to show proof of their identity using passports and/or birth certificates from their country of origin, these documents alone will not grant them access to and participation in many aspects of American society. In fact, using a foreign passport or birth certificate instead of a U.S.-issued form of identification may actually raise suspicion about an immigrant's legal status. A driver's license or state identification card is the most commonly accepted proof of identification across the U.S. and is typically used when obtaining employment, renting an apartment, or opening a bank account or credit card (NumbersUSA, 2015). However, most unauthorized immigrants in the United States are not able to obtain a state-issued form of identification, given that only 12 states, Washington D.C., and Puerto Rico issue them without requiring proof of legal residency status (National Immigration Law Center, 2015).

Without proof of legal residency and authorization to work in the United States, immigrants face significant challenges in gaining employment. Upon being hired for a job, new employees are required to produce evidence of a social security number. Although some immigrants, such as those who were previously authorized to work and then overstayed their visas, may have a social security number of their own, most do not. As a result, many have turned to using fraudulent documents to apply for a social security number or use a number belonging to someone else (Gallegly, 2012; Vargas, 2011).

Many employers have been known to turn a blind eye to unauthorized immigrants' paperwork and legal status, but in return they have ended up exploiting their workers, with long hours, low pay, and little regard for their safety (Hall & Greenman, 2014). Yet, despite the challenge of proving legal eligibility for employment, as many as 8 million unauthorized immigrants were estimated to be contributing to the U.S. workforce as of 2010 (Passel & Cohn, 2011).

Another barrier that unauthorized immigrants

face when coming to the United States is a lack of access to transportation. Many cities do not have adequate public transit systems, leaving immigrants with no choice but to drive themselves to their jobs and other places around the community. However, those without a driver's license are at risk every time they drive, in that if they are pulled over, even for a minor traffic violation, they may be subject to arrest for driving without a license and subsequently faced with deportation. The risks associated with driving without a license lead many unauthorized immigrants to refrain from unnecessary travel, which can therefore limit their opportunities for community participation and access to education and healthcare (Bailliard, 2013; Waslin, 2013).

Many unauthorized immigrants also encounter financial barriers that can prevent them from achieving the life they had imagined. Low-paying jobs lead to many immigrants living in poverty and struggling to make ends meet, yet immigrants' legal status deems them ineligible for government assistance programs, including access to subsidized housing, childcare, food, and most healthcare (Holan, 2012). Even those who are better off financially may face challenges if they try to buy a home, as very few lenders are willing to provide home loans to immigrants without a social security number (Jordan, 2008).

Finances can also serve as barriers to accessing healthcare and higher education for unauthorized immigrants living in the United States. Although approximately 70% of the unauthorized population contributes to the U.S. workforce (Passel & Cohn, 2011), their low-wage jobs rarely provide them with health insurance. And among those who have the financial means to purchase their own insurance plans, their legal status prevents them from qualifying under the Affordable Care Act. Federal law does require that any individual who arrives at a hospital with an emergent medical condition be treated, regardless of legal status or health insurance coverage. However, most unauthorized immigrants do not have a regular healthcare provider, and when they do require services, they must pay entirely out of pocket (Sommers, 2013).

When it comes to pursuing a postsecondary education, unauthorized immigrants face a number of financial barriers that can limit their participation. Although they have rarely been denied access to attend college, unauthorized immigrants are viewed as international students by most states, and as a result, they face tuition rates that are three to seven times higher

than in-state residents. In addition, their unauthorized status deems immigrants ineligible for federal financial aid and many scholarships, making the cost of pursuing a college education prohibitive to almost all (Abrego & Gonzales, 2010). A handful of states do offer state-based financial aid to qualifying unauthorized immigrants, however, a lack of knowledge and assistance often prevents them from accessing these resources (Sheehy, 2014).

Although perhaps not as obvious as the other barriers faced by unauthorized immigrants, the stigma associated with limited English proficiency and being in the country illegally leads to discrimination, which, along with a constant fear of being discovered, prevents many individuals from participating in important occupations in and around their communities (Bailliard, 2013). Altogether, the barriers revealed in the literature portray a challenging life for the millions of unauthorized immigrants living in the United States.

Discussion

Humans are occupational beings, and their participation in meaningful occupations directly affects their health, well-being, and quality of life (Stadnyk, Townsend, & Wilcock, 2010). Strict legal policies threatening deportation and limiting access to resources and community participation, along with unfavorable public perceptions of immigrants, have led many individuals living in the United States without legal authorization to experience discrimination, occupational deprivation, and occupational imbalance (Bailliard, 2013).

In certain communities with large unauthorized immigrant populations, law enforcement officials have been known to set up roadblocks, requiring driver's licenses and proof of immigration status from all who seek to pass (Bailliard, 2013; Waslin, 2013). This very real threat of being discovered has discouraged travel for many unauthorized immigrants, causing them to rethink which roads to take, the time of day in which it might be safest to travel, and the necessity of every trip outside their home. The constant and pervasive fear of being caught, separated from family, and deported has led many unauthorized immigrants to avoid community participation as much as possible, which can limit opportunities for leisure and recreation, and can potentially lead to social isolation, occupational imbalance, decreased mental and physical health, and a reduced quality of life (Backman, 2010; Bailliard, 2013; Stadnyk et al., 2010)

Discrimination from the general public can also lead to denied opportunities and reduced participation in meaningful occupations for unauthorized immigrants. A 2012 study by Latino Decisions and the National Hispanic Media Coalition found that the mainstream media routinely portrays negative stereotypes of unauthorized immigrants, and that Americans who are exposed to these stereotypes are more likely to hold unfavorable opinions of them (Barrreto, Segura, & Manzano, 2012). Moreover, the media's frequent use of the term "illegal immigrants" and/or "illegal aliens" to describe individuals living in the U.S. without proper authorization dehumanizes them while perpetuating the misconception that unauthorized immigrants are criminals.

In fact, research has shown that both unauthorized and legally authorized immigrants are less likely to engage in violent and non-violent criminal behavior than individuals born within the United States (American Immigration Council, 2015). And while it is true that entering the United States without legal documentation is a misdemeanor offense, nearly half of those unauthorized immigrants living in the United States first entered the country through legal means, and therefore did not commit a crime upon entering the country (Pew Reserach Center, 2006; Snider, 2014). Furthermore, the act of residing in the United States without legal authorization is only a civil offense, similar to speeding or running a red light. We do not refer to drivers who speed as "illegal drivers," nor do we refer to the most heinous criminals in our justice system as "illegal murderers." The media's continued use of the term "illegal" to describe unauthorized immigrants in the United States serves to strengthen negative public opinion while fostering hostile, anti-immigrant sentiments (Haque-Hausrath, 2008; Vargas, 2012).

Moving forward: Where do we go from here?

Despite the negative stereotypes portrayed in the media, Americans' views towards immigration are not entirely unfavorable, though they tend to be split along partisan lines. Sixty-two percent of Democrats view immigrants as "strengthening the country through their hard work and talents," whereas 63% of Republicans view them as "burdening the country by taking jobs, housing, and healthcare" (Pew Research Center, 2015). And though as many as 83% of Americans support "stricter border control to try to reduce illegal immigration," few can agree upon what should be done for the millions of immigrants who are already residing here (ABC News/

Washington Post, 2013).

One solution that could improve the lives of many unauthorized immigrants, while also contributing to the growth of the U.S. economy, would be to provide those who are already residing here with at least temporary, if not permanent legal residency status. This small act could enable immigrants to obtain a driver's license and social security number, reduce overcrowded emergency rooms through expanding immigrants' access to health insurance plans, and provide immigrants with the financial assistance they need to gain a college education. While 72% of Americans are in favor of allowing unauthorized immigrants to legally reside in the United States provided they meet certain requirements (Pew Research Center, 2015), disagreements persist regarding whether immigrants should be eligible to apply for permanent residency or full citizenship, as well as regarding the timing and specific requirements for a potential pathway to legal status.

Whereas some Americans favor legal pathways for unauthorized immigrants only after the country's borders have been secured, others believe that pathways toward legal residency should be provided immediately. And still others believe that immigrants should have to pay fines, wait a required number of years, and/or prove that they are fluent in the English language before being granted legal status (Pew Research Center, 2013). Despite majority public support for some type of legal status, as many as 36% of Americans believe that providing a pathway to legal residency would reward those who have chosen to enter the United States through improper channels (Pew Research Center, 2015).

In recent years, Congress has debated a federal bill that would provide somewhat of a compromise for those concerned about rewarding unauthorized immigrants for their behaviors. If passed, the Development, Relief, and Education for Alien Minors Act, or "DREAM Act," would provide relief to the millions of unauthorized immigrant children whose parents brought them to the United States before the age of 16, without offering direct benefits to their parents. Several variations of the DREAM Act have been considered in Congress over the years, including the following version, which was brought before the U.S. Senate in 2011. Under the DREAM Act of 2011, unauthorized immigrants who entered the U.S. as children would have been granted a conditional path to legal status upon proving that they: (a) had resided in the U.S. for at least five consecutive years; (b) were 15 years of age or younger when first

brought to the U.S.; (c) had earned a high school diploma or GED in the U.S.; (d) had been admitted to a U.S. institution of higher education; (e) had been of good moral character since their arrival in the U.S., with no serious criminal convictions; and (f) were below the age of 35 on the date of the legislation's enactment. If, upon meeting the previous requirements, during the subsequent six-year period, they either completed two or more years in a bachelor's degree program, or served for two years in the U.S. military, they would be eligible to apply for permanent residency (DREAM Act of 2011).

A 2010 report by the Congressional Budget Office and the Joint Committee on Taxation estimated that passing the DREAM Act would reduce the federal deficit by approximately \$1.4 billion over a 10-year period and increase government revenues by \$2.3 million over the same period (Congressional Budget Office, 2010). However, despite being brought before Congress on multiple occasions, introduced before each of the 107th through 112th Congressional sessions, spanning from 2001 to 2011, the DREAM Act has failed to gain the bipartisan support it needs to pass in both the House of Representatives and the Senate (Library of Congress, n.d.)

As a result of the DREAM Act's continuing failure to pass, in 2012, the Obama administration created the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program, which offers unauthorized immigrant children who meet similar criteria to those included in the DREAM Act protection from deportation for a period of two years, subject to renewal, as well as employment authorization upon demonstration of its "economic necessity" (U.S. Department of Homeland Security, 2013). In the two years following DACA's inception, 55% of the 1.2 million unauthorized immigrants who had already met the criteria applied to the program, with approximately 25,000 of those applying for a two-year renewal (Batalova, Hooker, & Capps, 2014).

In November of 2014, President Obama announced, via executive action, that he was expanding the DACA program by eliminating the current cutoff date of June 2007 and extending eligibility to children who were brought into the United States by their parents any time prior to January 2010. He also announced that he was providing temporary work authorization and deferral from deportation for three years at a time, for the approximately 4 million unauthorized immigrants who are parents of U.S. citizens or legal permanent residents (Parlapiano, 2014).

The future of the implementation and impact of the expansion of DACA remains uncertain, as 26 states have mounted legal challenges seeking to block it (Dura & Hennessy-Fiske, 2015). If allowed to move forward, these expanded protections will provide immigrants with neither permanent residency nor a path to citizenship, and instead will serve only as a temporary fix until Congress reforms the nation's immigration system. However, the relief provided by these protections would offer millions of unauthorized immigrant youth and adults a chance to improve their lives through increased participation in employment and higher education, and through meaningful engagement within their communities without the constant fear of being discovered and deported.

Conclusion

Millions of unauthorized immigrants living in the United States face very real barriers that prevent them from full participation in meaningful occupations. Legal policies, a lack of transportation, financial hurdles, cultural and linguistic differences, fear, and discrimination are just a few of the untold challenges that these individuals face on a daily basis. Instead of finding themselves living the "American Dream," many unauthorized immigrants have found themselves living in despair.

Although our current social, economic, and political institutions have resulted in the marginalization and dehumanization of many unauthorized immigrants (Provine & Doty, 2011; Vargas, 2012), the passing of the DREAM Act and/or other legislation providing a pathway toward legal status has the potential to re-humanize these individuals and help them to lead more healthy and fulfilling lives. Immigrants come to the United States hoping to assimilate and be productive, contributing members of society. Legislation that would expand access to opportunities and resources for unauthorized immigrants, and in doing so, would also improve their living conditions and eliminate the occupational deprivation that they face, should not be viewed as a partisan issue, but as an issue of occupational justice. With knowledge of the barriers and the decreased health, wellness, and quality of life that immigrants face, comes the responsibility to educate the public and advocate for immigration reform. The potential to improve the lives of millions of immigrants both today and for generations to come is in our hands; let us fight for the American Dream,

for occupational justice, and for a better tomorrow for all who are living here.

References

- ABC News/Washington Post. (2013). Do you support or oppose stricter border control to try to reduce illegal immigration? [Online poll]. Retrieved from http://www.washingtonpost.com/politics/polling/immigration-stricter-support-control/2013/04/03/b72dd8f8-9c4b-11e2-9219-51eb8387e8f1_page.html
- Abrego, L. J., & Gonzales, R. G. (2010). Blocked paths, uncertain futures: The postsecondary education and labor market prospects of un documented Latino youth. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 15(1-2), 144-157.
- American Immigration Council. (2015, July 8). The criminalization of immigration in the United States. Retrieved from <http://www.immigrationpolicy.org/special-reports/criminalization-immigration-united-states>
- Backman, C. (2010). Occupational balance and well-being. In C. H. Christiansen & E. A. Townsend (Eds.), *Introduction to occupation: The art and science of living* (2nd ed., pp. 231-249). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Bailliard, A. (2013). Laying low: Fear and injustice for Latino migrants to Smalltown, USA. *Journal of Occupational Science*, 20(4), 342-356.
- Baker, B., & Rytina, N. (2013). Estimates of the unauthorized immigrant population residing in the United States: January 2012. Department of Homeland Security, Office of Immigration Statistics. Retrieved from http://www.dhs.gov/sites/default/files/publications/ois_ill_pe_2012_2.pdf
- Barreto, M. A., Segura, G. M., & Manzano, S. (2012). The impact of media stereotypes on opinions and attitudes towards Latinos. *Latino Decisions and the National Hispanic Media Coalition*. Retrieved from http://www.nhmc.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/01/LD_NHMC_Poll_Results_Sept.2012.pdf
- Basu, M. (2014, June 19). Daniel's journey: How thousands of children are creating a crisis in America. CNN. Retrieved from <http://www.cnn.com/2014/06/13/us/immigration-undocu->

mented-children-explainer/

- Batalova, J., Hooker, S., & Capps, R. (2014). DACA at the two-year mark: A national and state profile of youth eligible and applying for deferred action. Retrieved from <http://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/daca-two-year-mark-national-and-state-profile-youth-eligible-and-applying-deferred-action>
- Cave, D., & Robles, F. (2014, October 5). A smuggled girl's odyssey of false promises and fear. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com>
- Congressional Budget Office. (2010). Congressional Budget Office cost estimate. S. 3992 Development, Relief, and Education for Alien Minors Act of 2010. Retrieved from <http://www.cbo.gov/sites/default/files/111th-congress-2009-2010/costestimate/s39921.pdf>
- Duara, N., & Hennessy-Fiske, M. (2015, April 7). Federal judge refuses to lift injunction on Obama's immigration order. *Los Angeles Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.latimes.com>
- Duignan, P. J. (2003, September 15). Making and remaking America: Immigration into the United States. Retrieved from <http://www.hoover.org/research/making-and-remaking-america-immigration-united-states>
- DREAM Act of 2011. S.952. Retrieved from <http://www.congress.gov>
- Gallegly, E. (2012, April 26). Fraud by illegal immigrants destroying children's lives [Blog post]. *The Hill*. Retrieved from <http://thehill.com/blogs/congress-blog/homelandsecurity/223971-fraud-by-illegal-immigrants-destroying-childrens-lives>
- Hall, M., & Greenman, E. (2014). The occupational cost of being illegal in the United States: Legal status, job hazards, and compensating differentials. *International Migration Review*, 49(2), 406-442.
- Haque-Hausrath, S. (2008). No human being is illegal. Retrieved from <http://nohumanbeingisillegal.com/Home.html>
- Holan, A. D. (2012, July 1). Fact-checking immigration. Retrieved from <http://www.politifact.com/truth-o-meter/article/2012/jul/01/fact-checking-immigration/>
- Jordan, M. (2008, October 22). Mortgage prospects dim for illegal immigrants. *The Wall Street Journal*. Retrieved from <http://online.wsj.com/articles/SB122463690372357037>
- Library of Congress. (n.d.). Retrieved from <http://congress.gov>
- National Immigration Law Center. (2015). State laws and policies on driver's licenses for immigrants. Retrieved from <http://www.nilc.org/driverlicenemap.html>
- Nazario, S. (2002, September 29). Enrique's journey: Chapter One: Along the tracks: Darwin. *Los Angeles Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.latimes.com>
- NumbersUSA. (2015). Map of states and their rules for driver's licenses. Retrieved from <http://www.numbersusa.com/content/learn/illegal-immigration/drivers-licenses.html>
- Parlapiano, A. (2014, November 20). What is President Obama's immigration plan? *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com>
- Passel, J. S., & Cohn, D. (2011). Unauthorized immigrant population: National and state trends, 2010. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center's Hispanic Trends Project. Retrieved from <http://www.pewhispanic.org/2011/02/01/unauthorized-immigrant-population-national-and-state-trends-2010/#>
- Pew Research Center. (2006). Modes of entry for the unauthorized migrant population. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center's Hispanic Trends Project. Retrieved from <http://pewhispanic.org/files/factsheets/19.pdf>
- Pew Research Center. (2013). 'Borders first' a dividing line in immigration debate: More say legalization would benefit economy than cost jobs. Retrieved from <http://www.people-press.org/2013/06/23/borders-first-a-dividing-line-in-immigration-debate/>
- Pew Research Center. (2015). Broad public support for legal status for undocumented immigrants: Other attitudes about immigration more mixed. Retrieved from <http://www.people-press.org/2015/06/04/broad-public-support-for-legal-status-for-undocumented-immigrants/>
- Provine, D. M. & Doty, R. L. (2011). The criminalization of immigrants as a racial project. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, 27(3), 261-277.
- Samuel, L. R. (2012). *The American Dream: A cultural history*. Retrieved from <http://books>

.google.com/books

Sheehy, K. (2014, August 15). How immigrants without legal status can pay for college. *US News & World Report*. Retrieved from <http://www.usnews.com/education/best-colleges/paying-for-college/articles/2014/08/15/how-immigrants-without-legal-status-can-pay-for-college>

Snider, B. (2014, July 9). Is illegal immigration a crime? Improper entry vs. unlawful presence [Blog post]. Retrieved from <http://blogs.findlaw.com/blotter/2014/07/is-illegal-immigration-a-crime-improper-entry-v-unlawful-presence.html>

Sommers, B. D. (2013). Stuck between health and immigration reform—Care for undocumented immigrants. *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 369(7), 593-594.

Stadnyk, R. L., Townsend, E. A., & Wilcock, A. A. (2010). Occupational justice. In C. H. Christiansen & E. A. Townsend (Eds.), *Introduction to occupation: The art and science of living* (2nd ed., pp. 329-358). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

U.S. Department of Homeland Security. (2013). Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals. Retrieved from <http://www.dhs.gov/deferred-action-childhood-arrivals>

Vargas, J. A. (2011, June 22). My life as an undocumented immigrant. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com>

Vargas, J. A. (2012, September 21). Immigration debate: The problem with the word illegal. Retrieved from <http://ideas.time.com/2012/09/21/immigration-debate-the-problem-with-the-word-illegal/>

Warren, R., & Warren, J. R. (2013). Unauthorized immigration to the United States: Annual estimates and components of change, by state, 1990 to 2010. *International Migration Review*, 47(2), 296-329.

Waslin, M. L. (2013). Driving while immigrant: Driver's license policy and immigration enforcement. In D. C. Brotherton, D. L. Stageman, & S. P. Leyro (Eds.), *Outside Justice: Immigration and the criminalizing impact of changing policy and practice*. Retrieved from <http://books.google.com>

Societal Statement on the Role of Occupational Therapy with Survivors of Human Sex Trafficking in the United States

I As part of a specialized course, OTD 8340 Wellness and Health Promotion in Occupational Therapy, students from the Nova Southeastern University Entry Level Doctor of Occupational Therapy program, drafted a Societal Statement on the role of occupational therapy with survivors of human sex trafficking in the United States. The students explored the issue of domestic human sex trafficking from an occupational perspective, under the guidance of their professor, Mirtha Montejo Whaley, PhD, OTR/L. As of the publication of this journal, the document is under review by the American Occupational Therapy Association (AOTA)

Chelsea Bryant, Lillian Freeman, Meghan Granata, Annie He-Strocchio, Hillarie Hough, Shree Patel, Ashley Stedman, Stephanie Sylvia, and My-Lynn Tran

We are submitting this Societal Statement to AOTA, in hopes of promoting knowledge about this issue, and encouraging our association to support our role in the wellness and health promotion of individuals affected by human sex trafficking. Occupational therapy has much to contribute to the reintegration of survivors of, and prevention of human sex trafficking in collaboration with community groups and agencies. The first step is to raise awareness of this issue and to educate therapists as to our roles in assisting survivors of human trafficking to reclaim their lives, roles, and occupations.

Definition

In 2004 human trafficking was defined as “the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of persons” (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2004, p. 42). Today, human trafficking is known as a “modern-day form of slavery,” through illegal for profit trade of people using force and manipulation (Department of Homeland Security, 2013). Human trafficking, in the form of sex slavery, requires individuals to perform sexual activities against their will while remaining in a life of physical or psychological captivity. These sexual activities include “pornography, stripping, escort services, and other sexual services” (Kotrla, 2010, p.182).

Statistics

In the United States, the average age of children entering the sex trade by force or other means is between 12-14 years (U.S. Department of Justice, 2010). Ac-

ording to the Polaris Project website (2014), over the past six years, sex trafficking hotline calls have increased by 400 percent. It is estimated that 100,000 children are involved in the sex trade in the United States each year (Polaris Project, 2014). Statistics and findings from the literature indicate there is an upward trend in the number of children becoming involved in the sex trafficking industry.

Risk Factors

Risk factors for children and youth falling victim to sex trafficking, include but are not limited to: running away from home; prior drug/substance abuse by individual or others in the home; prior multiform abuse (sexual, mental, emotional, and physical); low socioeconomic status; decreased level of education; neglect, and/or domestic violence in the home (Greenbaum, 2014; Hickie, Roe-Sepowitz, 2014; Todres & Clayton, 2014; Zimmerman et al., 2003).

Sex Trafficking, Development, Occupational Deprivation, and Social Justice

Individuals who are sex trafficked are likely to experience a loss of the roles and occupations associated with their ages and typical developmental stages. According to Crepeau, Cohn, and Boyt-Schell (2009), occupational deprivation occurs when individuals are subjected to conditions “in which people’s needs for meaningful and health-promoting occupations go unmet or are systematically denied” (p.1162). Not only do victims of sex trafficking experience occupational deprivation, but over the months and years that they

are held captive, they are likely to miss out on important developmental and life milestones. Social injustices, such as sex trafficking, could alter a person's "occupational identity, disrupt or alter their performance patterns (roles, habits, rituals, and routines) and reduce performance capacity" (Martin, Smith, Rogers, Wallen, & Boisvert, 2011, pg. 156). These disruptions have the potential to affect the individual in varied contexts and environments, and over the lifespan.

Implications for Occupational Therapy

The Occupational Therapy Practice Framework: Domain and Process, 3rd edition (the Framework), emphasizes the importance of occupations in supporting "health, wellbeing and participation in life" (American Occupational Therapy Association [AOTA], 2014, pg. S10). Participation in meaningful occupations helps provide a sense of belonging to individuals and assists in the development of their personal identity, self-efficacy, "roles, habits, and routines" (AOTA, 2014, S1). Braveman, Gupta & Padilla (2013) stated that occupational therapists have an innate duty to work with not only individuals, but society as a whole when individuals experience social and occupational injustices. In 1962 the World Federation of Occupational Therapy (WFOT) recognized sex trafficking as an area of need for occupational therapy research and intervention. Addressing this "innate duty" first begins with raising awareness on the issue of sex trafficking. We are calling on AOTA as our national organization to help support educational efforts to raise awareness of, and provide interventions for victims and survivors of sex trafficking.

References

American Occupational Therapy Association. (2014). Occupational therapy practice framework: Domain and process (3rd ed.). American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 68 (Suppl. 1), S1-S48.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.5014/ajot.2104.682006>

Braveman, B. , Gupta, J. & Padilla, R. (2013). AOTA's societal statement on health disparities. The Journal of Occupational Therapy, 67. Retrieved from <http://www.aota.org/-/media/Corporate/Files/AboutAOTA/OfficialDocs/SocietalStmnts/Health-Disparities-2013.PDF>

Greenbaum, V. J. (2014). Commercial sexual exploitation and sex trafficking of children in the

United States. Current Problems in Pediatric and Adolescent Health Care, 44, 245-269.
[doi:10.1016/j.cppeds.2014.07.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cppeds.2014.07.001)

Hickle, K. E. & Roe-Sepowitz, D. E. (2014). Putting the pieces back together: A group intervention for sexually exploited adolescent girls. Social Work with Groups, 37(2), 99-113. [doi:10.1080/01609513.2013.823838](https://doi.org/10.1080/01609513.2013.823838)

Martin, L., Smith, M., Rogers, J., Wallen, T., & Boisvert, R. (2011). Mothers in recovery: An occupational perspective. Occupational Therapy International, 18, 152-161.
[doi:10.1002/oti.318](https://doi.org/10.1002/oti.318)

Polaris Project. (2014). NHTRC and free hotlines: National human trafficking and resource center. Retrieved from <http://www.polarisproject.org/what-we-do/national-human-trafficking-hotline/the-nhtrc/overview>

Todres, J. & Clayton, E. W. (2014). Responding to the sexual exploitation of minors. The New England Journal of Medicine, 370(14), 1282-1283.

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (2010). Office of Disease Prevention and Health Promotion. Healthy People 2020. Washington, DC. Retrieved from <http://healthypeople.gov/2020/topicsobjectives2020/default.aspx>

U.S. Department of Justice. (2010). Effects of federal legislation on the commercial sexual exploitation of children. Retrieved from <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/ojjdp/228631.pdf>

Zimmerman, C., Yun, K., Shvab, I., Watts, C., Trapolin, L., Treppete, M., . . . Regan, L. (2003). The health risks and consequences of trafficking in women and adolescents: Findings from a European study. London: London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine.

Global Issue of Clean Water as it Impacts Occupation

Hillary E. W. Anderson, OTD-S

The purpose of this position paper is to explore the global impact of the lack or limited access to clean water on occupational engagement. The majority of the developed world has access to clean water, however, an alarming number of individuals do not have access to s governs, and impedes occupational engagement of millions globally. In order to enforce occupational justice, afforded from clean water, on a global scale, a fueling passion for change must be experienced by a collaborative force in a focused effort. Ultimately, access to clean water should be a basic human right propagated to all.

Keywords: global, clean water, occupation engagement

The purpose of this reflection paper is to explore the global impact of the lack or limited access to clean water on occupational engagement. When one thinks of access to clean water, one does not typically think of occupations or activities in which we engage as being drastically impacted or of major concern. However, engagement in occupations influences physical health, psychological well-being, and quality of life (QOL) (Law, 2002). Occupations can be categorized in many different ways. Occupations can be delineated by experiences as being engaging or as activities that are constructive, important, participated in with passion, and imbedded in ones being. Occupations can also be classified as being basic or essential activities to satisfy vital necessities; social or activities shared with others; relaxing or calming activities; regular or activities routinely completed; irregular or favorable, activities completed at ones discretion; or time-killing, activities completed to take up time (Jonsson, 2014). Based on these categories, for most, the consumption or filling of clean water is a briefly experienced basic occupation that does not require much thought or effort. More specifically, in the affluent regions of the world, clean water is an amenity that can be accessed with ease, but for those living in impoverished areas it is a coveted resource (Hunter, MacDonald, & Carter, 2010). For many, the acquisition and treatment of water is a basic occupation that takes precedence over numerous important activities and routines. When one is unable to quench one of the most basic human needs such as clean water, occupations such as rest, sleep, education, play, leisure, social participation, and presumably even work, are neglected (Blakeney & Marshall, 2009). In result, the limited or

lack of access to clean water monopolizes, governs, and impedes occupational engagement of millions globally.

Methodology

In order to gain a comprehensive overview of the global issue of clean water as it effects occupation, a thematic analysis was conducted on the literature. The analysis of the literature included the review of multiple peer-reviewed scholarly articles, several textbooks, and on-line newspaper articles via scholarly and electronic databases inclusive of CINAHL Complete - EBSCOhost, Pubmed (MEDLINE), and Google Scholar. The keywords searched were clean water, global access, water treatment, point of use, filtration and impact on occupational engagement. The following themes were identified and reviewed: global access to clean water, health detriments of untreated or contaminated water, water treatment at point of collection and use, and the impact on occupation.

Literature Review

Global access to clean water

Improved drinking sources deliver water that is safe to consume and are inclusive of the following: “piped household water connection, public standpipe, borehole, protected dug well, protected spring, rainwater collection” (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2012, Improved drinking water sources, para. 1). The majority of the developed world has access to clean water, however, “over 780 million people are still without access to improved sources of drinking water” (WHO & Unicef, 2012, p. 2). These populations consist of individuals living in underdeveloped countries, rural

communities, and therefore lower socioeconomic regions across the world. China, India, Nigeria, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Bangladesh, United Republic of Tanzania, Sudan, and Kenya “are home to two thirds of the global population without an improved drinking water source”, with the sub-Saharan Africa region having the least access to clean water (WHO & Unicef, 2012, p. 9). These regions without clean water access still rely on unimproved water sources like unshielded excavated wells, unshielded natural water sources transported by water carriers or trucks, as well as surface water sources “collected directly from rivers, lakes, ponds, irrigation channels and other surface sources” (WHO & Unicef, 2012, p. 6). Even with clean water sources available, many individuals have to go through great lengths to provide their families with clean water. For example, “how far you have to walk to fetch a pot of drinking water depends on where you live- Asia or Africa. To get drinking water, the walking distances vary from 2 to 6 km. It is a daily chore for villages in India and Africa” (Vidyasagar, 2007, p.57). Moreover, in underdeveloped and more rural regions of the world, carrying methods are far more physically demanding and time consuming. In Burkina Faso, which is located in West Africa, “women carry loads of 20 kg on their head and walk 1 to 2.5 h daily 300 days a year” (Vidyasagar, 2007, p.57).

Health Detriments of Untreated or Contaminated Water

Separate from the physical toll of procuring clean water, the health effects of untreated water range from numerous illnesses to morbidities and fatalities. Globally, “millions of people are infected with neglected tropical diseases (NTDs), many of which are water and/or hygiene-related, such as Guinea Worm Disease, Buruli Ulcer, Trachoma, and Schistosomiasis” (CDC, 2013a, Disease & death, para. 3). A predominant concern for developing countries is diarrhea attributed diseases. Sadly, “1.6 million people die every year from diarrhoeal diseases (including cholera) attributable to lack of access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation and 90% of these are children under 5” (WHO, n.d., Drinking water, sanitation, health and disease, para. 2).

Even developed countries are subject to water related illness from contaminated water. Unfortunately, “millions of people are exposed to dangerous levels of biological contaminants and chemical pollutants in their drinking-water due to inadequate management of

urban, industrial or agricultural wastewater” (WHO, 2013, p. 6). Even with the vigilant water treatment practices in the United States (U.S.), waterborne disease outbreaks have occurred. In fact, the biggest outbreak in the U.S. to date was in the early 1990s in Milwaukee, Wisconsin when just under a half a million individuals came down with diarrhea due to parasites found in their residential public water source (CDC, 2013b).

However, not all contaminants causing illness in developed regions are because of improper water management. Additionally, “dangerously high concentrations of chemical hazards, such as arsenic and fluoride, originating from natural sources affect millions and cause conditions such as cancer and fluorosis” (WHO, 2013, p. 6). As discussed, untreated and/or contaminated water has serious physiological effects. However, established health detriments caused from unsafe water sources are not necessarily exhaustive, as “it is difficult to determine what causes diseases like cancer, it is impossible to know how many illnesses are the result of water pollution, or contaminants’ role in the health problems of specific individuals” (Duhigg, 2009, para. 12). Water treatment, safe water and sewage disposal, and adequate cleaning practices have the capacity to preclude nearly 10% of morbidity and over 6% of all fatalities (CDC, 2013a). As occupation engagement and health are interdependent for survival, disruption in physical health can have direct occupational consequences (Wilcock, 2006).

Water Treatment at Point of Collection and Use

Individuals all over the world procure safe water by very different means. Some gain access to improved water sources directly from a safe source. Others rely on household water treatment methods, determined based on their environmental affordances, such as the “chlorination method, flocculant/disinfectant powder, solar disinfection, ceramic filtration, and slow sand filtration” (CDC, 2014a, Water Treatment Options, para. 1). The chlorination method entails the stirring of chlorine in solution or capsule form, into water, and letting it sit for a half an hour, maintenance in the form of adequate water storage is required (Sobsey, Stauber, Casanova, Brown, & Elliott, 2008). To use flocculant-disinfectant powder to treat water, the powder in the packet added to the water, rids it of microbes, bacteria, and toxins, once mixed and allowed to process for ten minutes, the liquid poured into a clean container, filters through a piece of cloth. The Solar disinfection method entails the filling

of clear sealable containers and then exposing them to direct sunlight for 6 or more hours, which renders bacteria harmless (Berney, Weilenmann, Simonetti, & Egli, 2006; Boyle et al., 2008). Ceramic filtration involves the use of ceramic filters which are empty porous containers placed in larger vessels with a water valve. Water poured into the suspended ceramic filter, slowly strains into the larger vessel to be accessed via the water valve at the bottom of the vessel (Clasen, Brown, Collin, Suntu, & Cairncross, 2004). Slow sand filtration requires the pouring of water into a plastic container with a long spout attached to the bottom filled with sand, rocks, and/or gravel, until it reaches just above the sand. A biofilm is created on the surface of the sand comprised of microorganisms. In order to attain filtered drinking water, one would pour more water into the container over a diluting filter pushing the clean water out of the long spout, which empties the water at a height above the sand layer (CDC, 2014b). The aforementioned treatment methods can serve as effective forms of water filtration depending on the personal aptitudes, cultural beliefs, physical environment, temporal constraints, and economic affordances of regions in need of clean drinking water. Additionally, these treatment methods have the capacity to take up a large portion of time; therefore, encroaching on time that could otherwise be spent engaging in basic and meaningful occupations.

Discussion

Clean Water Access and Occupation

The acquisition of clean water, or the treatment practices to create safe water, have the capacity to limit, overtake, and prohibit important occupations. Separate from occupational experience, occupations are also categorized into different areas of participation. Such areas of occupations are “activities of daily living (ADLs), independent activities of daily living (IADLs), which are basic occupations that can be performed by someone else, rest, sleep, education, work, play, and social participation” (American Occupational Therapy Association [AOTA], 2014, p. S6). Activities of daily living are occupations completed to fulfill basic needs, like drinking water, independent activities of daily living are basic occupations that can be performed by someone else, such as water acquisition or water treatment. The interaction between occupations and their contexts is multifactorial and reciprocal. Contexts of occupations range from personal, historic, geographic, physical, temporal, social, cultural, virtual, political, and economic (Hamil-

ton, 2010; Stadnyk, et al., 2010; Townsend & Wilcock, 2004) environments, all of which greatly impact who, what, where, when, why, and how individuals engage in occupations.

The identified negative effects experienced by many individuals globally, seeking a clean water source, are occupational disruption, imbalance, deprivation, marginalization, and alienation as well as social isolation, displacement, change in occupational meaning, and identity confusion or crisis. Blakeney and Marshall (2009), interviewed Letcher County, Kentucky residents who did not have access to clean water due to runoff from coal mines and found “that almost every daily occupation as identified in the areas of occupation, previously named, were affected by polluted water in the physical environment (watershed), as well as inside the home from well water or the municipal water supply” (p. 51). Individuals and populations experiencing water-related or waterborne illness, whom have to travel long taxing distances to obtain clean water, and/or whom have to engage in home water treatment practices can experience a variety of occupational consequences.

The most concerning occupational consequence such populations face is occupational deprivation, which is the long-term impedance of individually significant or vitally important occupations due to reasons outside of ones’ power (Whiteford, 2010). Tragic psychological/emotional, sociocultural, and physiological effects may be experienced as consequence of limited or lack of clean water access. Psychologically speaking, concern for one’s survival or one’s family’s survival at any age would be emotionally taxing. According to M. K. Anderson, a missionary from the U.S., in Burkina Faso, because of their limited access to water and basic necessities, parents often have to select which child to invest and support physiologically, to ensure their survival, thus, instead of losing all of their children they may lose a lesser amount (personal communication, November 9, 2014). The grief of losing a child can be crippling, but having to make such an impossible decision could have lasting effects of guilt, reclusiveness, depression, self-punishment, and withdrawal from participating in occupations once found meaningful. Such unimaginable conditions can lead to occupational alienation from feelings of helplessness, seclusion, exasperation, disaffection to oneself and communities when occupational participation is experienced to be lacking value (Stadnyk et al., 2010).

As a result of water-related or waterborne illness from contamination, occupational disruption, or the short-term interruption of individually significant or vital important occupations (Stadnyk et al., 2010), may occur. For instance, children may be unable to attend school because of illnesses from contaminated or untreated water. As more developing countries receive access to clean water or water treatment education and materials, more individuals are obligated to engage in new occupations such as household water treatment methods. According to Blakeney and Marshall (2009), the water contamination of Letcher County, Kentucky forced residents to add new occupations to do with water purification to their routines and to experience occupational disruption, imbalance, and injustice because of the lack of access to clean water.

Roles and routines that would be typically experienced by children based on their chronological age may look very different in regions without or with limited access to clean drinking water sources. The physiological/emotional effects on children in such conditions range from awareness of their mortality, stress, increased responsibility, accelerated maturation, to emotional turmoil. More mature responsibilities and less engaging occupations may fall on the shoulders of children and adolescences in order to care for family members, provide for their family, and foster the survival of their family. Occupational imbalance results when areas of occupations are not evenly experienced (Stadnyk et al., 2010), as the case when concerned with filling basic needs such as acquiring clean water. Moreover, occupations considered to be leisure, play, and/or engaging are put on hold to prioritize time for water acquisition, water treatment practices, care for familial waterborne illnesses, as well as other basic occupations. Limitation in such occupations may lead to poor health, negative impact on one's QOL (Zuzanek, 2010), and restriction of play exploration, which is vital for child development.

Additionally, occupational marginalization, which is the restriction of a person's or party's occupational choices (Stadnyk et al., 2010), may occur when water procurement or treatment responsibilities are not shared equally across gender. For instance, in developing countries, females are "more likely to be responsible for collecting water for their family, making it difficult for them to attend school during school hours" (CDC, 2013a, Access to WASH, para. 5). This distinctly delineated occupational responsibility assigned to females, is

a provisional chore that does not discriminate against developmental age, perpetuated by many cultures.

Social isolation from limited social engagement is of occupational concern for populations without access to clean water or do not collectively participate in safe water storage practices. Children and their families may limit their social engagement with others due to fear of catching waterborne diseases or illnesses. Such limited interaction could be very developmentally damaging for children as they may lack the social skills, experience little scaffolding, crave companionship, and lack social support needed for optimal survival and well-being. Untreated or contaminated water leading to disease outbreaks, as well as the depletion of financial resources to treat such illnesses, may lead to displacement or the reluctant relocation from one's natural dwelling (Hamilton, 2010). Displacement from one's place of residence may lead to identity confusion or crisis (Whiteford, 2010) when contextual confines cause a change in occupational meaning.

A Call for Action

The aforementioned occupational outcomes, namely occupational disruption, imbalance, deprivation, marginalization, alienation, as well as social isolation, displacement, change in occupational meaning, and identity confusion or crisis, resulting from the lack or limited access to clean water, are evidence of a great occupational injustice. In order to enforce occupational justice, that is, the occupational freedom and affordances to engage in meaningful occupations, to such populations, a fueling passion of change must be experienced by a collaborative force. This call for action requires the raising of awareness and advocacy by supporting pieces of legislation, direct aid, partnering with local, national, and worldwide nonprofit and humanitarian aid organizations.

Creative awareness methods dispensed through social media have been very fruitful in financial endowment, as seen by the water bucket challenge for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) research. A similar effort has been recently employed for clean water with the dumping of dirty water on oneself in order to raise awareness of how many people still do not have access to clean water. Such awareness opportunities utilizing social media have the capacity to inform and ignite billions globally.

Through research and advocacy, an awareness of the occupational practices of these vulnerable popu-

lations must continue to be explored. Specifically, professionals such as occupational scientists, occupational therapists, and those in social science disciplines have the opportunity to join in this advocacy effort, by disseminating information on human occupational needs, populations experiencing occupational deprivation, and the long-term effects of such depravity, namely poor “spiritual, mental, physical, or economic well-being” with policy makers (Whiteford, 2010, p. 323). Additionally, direct aid may be implemented by individual efforts or missionary avenues through religious and humanitarian organizations. Nonprofit and humanitarian aid organizations such as CARE, Unicef, and WaterAid provide sustainable clean water by raising money to drill and dig wells, provide hand and solar pumps, educate millions on safe water treatment and storage, supply means for water filtration, dispense oral rehydration salts and deworming tablets, distribute water carrying containers, and advocate for vulnerable populations by supporting pieces of legislation. One such legislative action is the Water for the World Act, which expands on existing legislation to ensure access to clean water, adequate hygiene practices, and sanitation in a cost effective way with maximum impact (Winder, 2013). Awareness and advocacy of such movements not only utilizes tax money more efficiently and productively, but can save and greatly improve the lives of many globally.

Conclusion

Populations without access or with limited access to clean water are dispersed globally and comprised of individuals living in underdeveloped countries, rural communities, and therefore lower socioeconomic regions across the world. The purpose of this position paper was to explore the global impact of the lack or limited access to clean water on occupational engagement. A review of the literature led to the understanding of the global occupational impact or outcomes. The occupational outcomes due to contextual constraints discussed, may cause occupational disruption, imbalance, deprivation, marginalization, and alienation. Additionally, social isolation and change in meaning of occupations, identity confusion or crisis, experienced from displacement, may result. A byproduct of continued improvement in clean water access is the participation in new occupations, in the form of water treatment practices. Such detrimental occupational outcomes caused by the lack or limited access to clean water are evidence of a great occupational injustice. In order to

enforce occupational justice, afforded from clean water, on a global scale, a fueling passion of change must be experienced by a collaborative force in a focused effort. Avenues to make a global change can be enacted by raising awareness and advocating by supporting pieces of legislation, direct aid, partnering with local, national, and worldwide nonprofit and humanitarian aid organizations. Occupational health is of universal concern as it fuels ones developmental, “spiritual, mental, physical, or economic well-being” (Whiteford, 2010, p. 323). Therefore, clean water should not be an amenity for the privileged but a mandated affordance for all.

References

- American Occupational Therapy Association. (2014). Occupational therapy practice framework: Domain and process (3rd ed.). American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 68(Suppl. 1), S1–S48. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5014ajot.2014.682006>
- Berney, M., Weilenmann, H.-U., Simonetti, A., & Egli, T. (2006). Efficacy of solar disinfection of Escherichia coli, Shigella flexneri, Salmonella Typhimurium and Vibrio cholerae. Journal of Applied Microbiology, 101(4): 828–836.
- Blakeney, A. B., & Marshall, A. (2009). Water quality, health, and human occupations. American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 63(1), 46-57.
- Boyle, M., Sichel, C., Fernández-Ibáñez, P., Arias-Quiroz, G. B., Iriarte-Puna, M., Mercado, A., ... & McGuigan, K. G. (2008). Bactericidal effect of solar water disinfection under real sunlight conditions. Applied and environmental microbiology, 74(10), 2997-3001.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2012). Assessing access to water & sanitation. Retrieved from <http://www.cdc.gov/healthywater/global/assessing.html>
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2013a). Global WASH fast facts. Retrieved from http://www.cdc.gov/healthywater/global/wash_statistics.html
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2013b). Information on water-related emergencies and outbreaks. Retrieved from http://www.cdc.gov/healthywater/emergency/fast_facts.html
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2014a).

- Household water treatment. Retrieved from <http://www.cdc.gov/safewater/household-water.html>
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2014b). Slow sand filtration. Retrieved from <http://www.cdc.gov/safewater/sand-filtration.html>
- Clasen, T. F., Brown, J., Collin, S., Suntu, O., & Cairncross, S. (2004). Reducing diarrhea through the use of household-based ceramic water filters: A randomized, controlled trial in rural Bolivia. *The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene*, 70(6), 651-657.
- Duhigg, C. (2009, September 12). Clean water laws are neglected, at a cost in suffering. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from www.nytimes.com/2009/09/13/us/13water.html?pagewanted=all&_r=0
- Hamilton, T. B. (2010). Occupational justice. In Christiansen, C. H., & Townsend, E. A. (Eds.), *Introduction to occupation: The art and science of living* (2nd ed., pp. 251-280). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Hunter, P. R., MacDonald, A. M., & Carter, R. C. (2010). Water supply and health. *PLOS Medicine*, 7(11), 1350.
- Jonsson, H. (2014). Research retirement: Studies that lead to new ways to look at freedom and the categorization of occupation. In Pierce, D. (Ed.), *Occupational science for occupational therapy* (pp. 211-220). Thorofare, NJ: Slack.
- Law, M. (2002). Participation in the occupations of everyday life. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 56(6), 640-649.
- Sobsey, M. D., Stauber, C. E., Casanova, L. M., Brown, J. M., & Elliott, M. A. (2008). Point of use household drinking water filtration: A practical, effective solution for providing sustained access to safe drinking water in the developing world. *Environmental science & technology*, 42(12), 4261-4267.
- Stadnyk, R. L., Townsend, E. A., & Wilcock, A. A. (2010). Occupational justice. In Christiansen, C. H., & Townsend, E. A. (Eds.), *Introduction to occupation: The art and science of living* (2nd ed., pp. 329-358). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Townsend, E., & Wilcock, A. A. (2004). Occupational justice. In C.H. Christiansen & E. A. Townsend (Eds), *Introduction to occupation: The art and science of living* (pp. 243-73). Thorofare, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Vidyasagar, D. (2007). Global minute: Water and health - walking for water and water wars. *Journal of Perinatology*, 27(1), 56-58.
- Whiteford, G. (2010). Occupational deprivation: Understanding limited participation. In Christiansen, C. H., & Townsend, E. A. (Eds.), *Introduction to occupation: The art and science of living* (2nd ed., pp. 303-328). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Wilcock, A. A. (2006). *An occupational perspective of health*. Thorofare, NJ: Slack Incorporated.
- Winder, D. (2013, August 1). 5 reasons why the water for the world act is worth its weight in gold. *The Huffington Post*. Retrieved from www.huffingtonpost.com/david-winder/5-reasons-why-the-water-f_b_3689396.html
- World Health Organization. (n.d.). Health through safe drinking water and basic sanitation. Retrieved from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs312/en/index.html>
- World Health Organization. (2013). Water quality and health strategy 2013-2020. Retrieved from http://www.who.int/water_sanitation_health/publications/2013/water_quality_strategy.pdf?ua=1
- World Health Organization & UNICEF. (2012). *Progress on drinking water and sanitation: 2012 update*. United States: WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation. Retrieved from <http://www.unicef.org/media/files/JMPreport2012.pdf>
- Zuzanek, J. (2010). Work, occupation, and leisure. In Christiansen, C. H., & Townsend, E. A. (Eds.), *Introduction to occupation: The art and science of living* (2nd ed., pp. 281-302). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation. Retrieved from <http://www.unicef.org/media/files/JMPreport2012.pdf>
- Zuzanek, J. (2010). Work, occupation, and leisure. In Christiansen, C. H., & Townsend, E. A. (Eds.), *Introduction to occupation: The art and science of living* (2nd ed., pp. 281-302). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.