Well, D.N. (2008). "The Concise Encyclopedia of Economics: Fiscal Policy." Library of Economics and Liberty. Web. Retrieved 30 January 2017, from: http://www.econlib.org/library/Enc/FiscalPolicy.html

Woodward, B. (19 April 2004). "Plan of Attack." Simon & Schuster. Print.

Tables and Graphs

CBO Historical Tables. *Individual Income Tax Revenue Trends, 2000-2009*[Table]. Retrieved 29 April 2016, from: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bush_tax_cuts

Furth, S. *U.S. Fiscal Consolidation and Growth during the 1990s, 1990-1998*[Table]. Retrieved 29 April 2016, from: http://www.heritage.org/research/reports/2013/06/did-tax-increases-or-spending-cuts-preface-the-1990s-boom

Hynd, S. *Proposed Federal Discretionary Budget, FY 2009*[Table]. Retrieved 29 April 2016, from: http://crooksandliars.com/cernig/obama-proposes-defense-cut-above-2007-level

Media Matters for America. *Federal Spending Flattens under Obama, 2002-2013*[Table]. Retrieved 29 April 2016, from: http://mediamatters.org/research/2012/05/24/despite-being-warned-right-wing-media-buy-into/176530

Media Matters for America. *Is Obama Really a Big Spender? 1982-2013*[Table]. Retrieved 29 April 2016, from: http://mediamatters.org/research/2012/05/24/despite-being-warned-right-wing-media-buy-into/176530

United States Treasury Department. *Year over Year Changes in the U.S. National Debt (Total Public Debt Outstanding) Fiscal Years 2000-2014*[Table]. Retrieved 29 April 2016, from: https://www.treasury.gov/resource-center/faqs/Markets/Pages/national-debt.aspx

White House Office of Management and Budget. *Budget Deficits and Surpluses over Time, 1980-2015*[Table]. Retrieved 29 April 2016, from: https://www.whitehouse.gov/omb/budget

Testimony and Accuracy: How Memory's Truth Can Become Fiction

Author: Jessica Ann Fennen
Subject: Psychlogy/Criminal Justice

Abstract

The present study assesses the effect wording has on testimony accuracy and corresponding confidence amongst 58 participants. The experiment began with an audio recording of a fictional crime story. Participants described the events of the crime in their own words. Testimony confidence was also measured. The sample was split into three groups: a control group that did not receive the independent variable (control; N=19), a group that received multiple choice questions with language taken directly from the audio recording (exact wording group; N=19), and a group that received language different from what was used in the audio recording (different wording group; N=20). When measuring the effect wording had on both testimony and confidence, statistically insignificant results were found. However, the present study did find that memory is unreliable and untrustworthy where valid testimony is concerned.

Forensic psychology is the intersection of the psychological sciences and the criminal justice system. The origins of forensic psychology trace back to the 1800s, but it was not until the early 2000s that the American Psychological Association recognized it as its own distinguishable field. The founders of forensic psychology and their research are what established the science as it is today; it is concerned with the mental states of delinquents and criminals, the impact of testimony in court proceedings, the psychological health of those employed by the criminal justice system, counseling and therapy for victims of crime, research regarding criminal tendencies, the creation of models for programs of crime prevention, evaluation of the mental health of defendants facing trial, and the assessment of guardians and children in child custody hearings (Weiner & Hess, 1998). In the field of forensic psychology, one of the most heavily researched areas is witness testimony, and many of the most important contributions to forensic psychology began with James McKeen Cattell and his study on testimony accuracy and confidence.

Cattell conducted an experiment on 56 of his junior psychology students at Columbia University in 1893; his aim was to determine how much doubt or assuredness people would have in their answers to simple questions, of which he asked four (Cattell, 1895). In regards to the first question, which asked the participants to determine what the weather was a week ago, only seven of the 56 were correct. Cattell explained that such a simple question could be used in a court of law by an attorney to lend credit to a witness's testimony, both the witness's honesty and its accuracy (1895). Three other simple questions were asked: one pertained to which tree first lost its leaves in the fall, a second

asked which direction horses stand, and a last one was asked regarding the seeds of an apple (Cattell, 1895). The questions were more often answered correct than incorrect; he found that three in five college students answered the questions accurately.

Cattell also measured the students' testimonies for confidence. He discovered when confidence was at the highest, students were right 79 percent of the time (1895). Furthermore, when they were somewhat doubtful the participants were correct only 52 percent of the time (1895). Confidence is a crucial part of testimony because people can argue that their recollection of events in a court of law is certain and undeniably correct, but Cattell's research raised questions about not only the accuracy of testimony but the overconfidence factor as well. His experiment shed light on courtroom testimony, causing others to wonder about the accuracy of recall as well.

The focus on witness testimony in the study of forensic psychology also created an interest in expert testimony. Psychologists were not thought of as necessary or useful expert witnesses for a time. Hugo Munsterberg was one of the first psychologists to express the importance of expert testimony from psychologists in a court of law. In Chicago, he was asked to provide his opinion as a psychologist regarding the case of a man who confessed to and was found guilty of murder. Munsterberg was certain the man was innocent (Munsterberg, 1908). He requested to have another trial where he would sit and offer his expert opinion, however all efforts by the attorneys failed, and the man was hanged (1908). This experience inspired Munsterberg to focus on testimony, confessions, and the court of law. He investigated other untrue confessions, believing they resulted from the following: hope, fear, promises, threats, passive personalities, emotional excitement, and overpowering influences (1908).

In his years of work between psychology and the courtroom he discovered a prejudice surrounding evidence examined in the courtroom and presented to the jury. Munsterberg came to realize "the court would rather listen...to the 'science' of handwriting experts than allow a witness to be examined with regard to his memory and his power of perception, his attention and his associations, his volition and his suggestibility, with methods which are in accord with the exact work of experimental psychology" (1908, p. 46). The lack of interest in courtroom testimony accuracy led Munsterberg to research suggestibility of testimony.

In his writing, Munsterberg discussed an experiment regarding the suggestibility of persons giving testimony; he asked the forty participants a list of suggestive questions after showing them a photograph of a farmer's room (1908). He discovered those who received suggestive questions were incorrect 41 percent of the time due to the invention of objects in their testimonies relating to the objects posed in the questions— he successfully planted misleading information into the participants' minds (1908). Furthermore, it was found that young people are less able to resist suggestibility, and girls were more easily impacted by suggestibility than boys (1908). However, the most important finding was once a person succumbed to the suggestion he or she would readily work the suggestion into other questions, creating a fiction in his or her mind (1908).

The research previously discussed is of extreme importance to testimony in the courtroom for two reasons. Firstly, it is possible for lawyers to cross-examine witnesses and pose questions in a certain way to be suggestive, for which Munsterberg believed "there is nothing more suggestive...than a skillful question" (1908, p. 183). Secondly, the accuracy of testimony in the courtroom is important because it determines the guilt or innocence of a human being, which has serious, irrevocable repercussions.

Due to the severity of the consequences of courtroom testimony, others have conducted research in the area. William Stern began experimenting with recollection in 1901, and when he examined the results he realized the significance of the research went beyond the boundaries of academic psychology, seeing its practicality in the modern world (1937). One of his experiments on recollection used photos presented to university students; the participants knew they would be required to recall the images and were given 45 seconds to observe them (1937). Stern made certain to request the participants only to report upon which elements of the photos they remembered with certainty. Only five and a half percent of the statements were incorrect, so Stern decided to expand upon the experiment (1937). He requested that the participants recall the photos again weeks later, and the incorrect statements doubled to ten percent (1937). Another interval of time passed before the participants were asked once more to recall the elements of the photos, but on the third attempt participants had to underline which elements of the photos they were absolutely certain of and would testify to in a court of law (1937). While some participants were able to narrow down their testimony to the most accurate elements, most people committed one to two inaccuracies in each description (1937). Stern understood the significance of his findings as relevant to testimony given in a court room because in his experiment the amount of inaccuracy increased with the passing of time, and the last time he asked participants to recollect the photos, he asked them to underline those elements which they would swear by in a court of law (1937). Even with the amount of assuredness participants had in their answers, there were still, on average, one to two inaccuracies, lending doubt to the reliability of actual testimony in a court of law.

Stern believed the reason for inaccuracy during recollection was due to "an inclination toward exaggeration" (1937, p. 6). Humans have a tendency to fill in details, especially when they cannot remember them completely; Stern labeled a term describing this behavior in his paper as "logical completeness" (1937, p. 6). He explained it further as a substitution of objects in order to make the memory complete, and he gave the example of one of his participants remembering a seated woman, but not the object she sat on (1937). Therefore, the participant created something for the woman to sit on, which was an inaccuracy in his or her statement (1937).

In order to assess how testimony held up under the cross-examination used in a court of law, Stern took the same experimental method used before and made a minor change; instead of allowing participants to recall the elements of the photos on their own, he asked them directly about items in the images (1937). He found that 60 percent of participants were correct, 29 percent were incorrect, and 11 percent claimed they did not know the correct answer (1937). He compared the results of the original experiment with that of the testimonies given after cross-examination. Stern came to two realiza-

tions: one, "the reliability of testimony drops from a level of 90 percent in the coherent report to a level of 60 percent in the answers to cross-examination" (1937, p. 8), and two, under cross-examination a witness who does not know the correct answer would prefer to answer it incorrectly than say they do not know the correct answer (1937). Because of his findings, Stern theorized it would be simple for a person under cross-examination to give an incorrect answer if the question was asked in a suggestible manner, which he called "unintentional falsification" (1937, p. 13). The summary of Stern's findings cannot be put in better terms: "subjective sincerity does not guarantee objective truthfulness" (1937, p. 13). Stern and Munsterberg's concern with suggestibility and Cattell's focus on confidence regarding testimony are connected; if a person who is giving a testimony is lacking confidence in his or her answer, he or she is more likely to fall prey to suggestible questions (Cattell, 1895; Munsterberg, 1908; Stern, 1937).

The foundation of research and theory provided by the previously discussed authors paved the way for others, such as Elizabeth Loftus, to further the idea that testimony is unreliable and malleable. Loftus spent decades of her career on a controversial idea known as the misinformation effect, which occurs when information presented between an event and the time of recollection tampers with the memory, thus corrupting it (1992). In a court of law, testimony relies on memory. If memory can be easily altered, testimony cannot be relied upon as a significant source for conviction or acquittal.

However, Loftus's espousal of the misinformation effect received criticism. In response to her research from the seventies and eighties, Michael McCloskey and Maria Zaragoza published an article stating that the experimental design used in many of her experiments was flawed (1985). They gave the example of a classic experiment designed to test suggestibility: the participants view slides of a traffic accident, and then the participants are given a written narrative of the event (1985). The narrative either has misleading information (i.e. a yield sign when a stop sign was present) or it does not (i.e. stop sign), and those that receive the misleading narrative should reflect so in their answers in a "two-alternative forced-choice recognition test" which will ask them if they saw a stop sign or a yield sign (1985, p. 2).

As explained by McCloskey and Zaragoza, the typical findings in experiments such as the one previously described are that the misled group does not perform as well as the control group on the exam, implying that the narrative presented, such as the inclusion of the yield sign, tampered with the memory of the slideshow photo where the stop sign was seen (1985). However, McCloskey and Zaragoza did not believe the misled group in the automobile example did more poorly than the control group because of the misinformation effect, and to support their idea they listed a theory for the difference in scores (1985). They began by explaining a scenario in which participants in either group may not have seen the stop sign in the slide show, and upon receiving the narrative only grasped on to what was said in it. In the misled group, this meant the yield sign, and in the control group it meant the stop sign (1985). Therefore, the participants "who do not remember what they saw—stop sign—but do remember what they read in the narrative—yield sign—will presumably choose the yield sign on the test and so will be systematically incorrect," thus affecting the performance of those in the misled group (1985, p. 3).

It is essential that research continues to be conducted combining the various elements of the previously discussed research due to the important nature of testimony. It is heavily relied upon in the criminal justice system to determine innocence or guilt, a verdict that irrevocably alters the course of a person's life. With such power behind human recollection, more research needs to be conducted on eyewitness testimony, including what can affect it. This present study combines the elements of Loftus's misinformation effect with Cattell's measurement of confidence, Stern's idea of unintentional falsification, and Munsterberg's focus on suggestibility (Loftus, 1992; Cattell, 1895; Stern, 1937; Munsterberg, 1908). It has been hypothesized that wording presented between an event and the recollection of an event will affect the testimony given by a person. It has also been hypothesized that a person's confidence regarding their testimony will change depending on the post-event wording they receive, such that those presented with post-event wording that differs from the event will have lower confidence than those with the same wording both at the time of the event and after.

Method

Participants:

There were 58 participants included in the experiment. Sixteen were male, and 42 were female. The average age of the participants was 22 years old. Eighty-one percent of the participants were Caucasian, and three percent were African American. Ten percent were Hispanic. Three percent were Asian. One percent was Pacific Islander. Participants were selected by means of convenience sampling through Facebook. Participants were also selected from an introductory psychology course, which is typically comprised of freshman university students. The only participants who were compensated for their participation were the university students. They received 3 points toward their grade in the class for participating in the experiment.

Materials:

The purpose of the experiment was to measure how post-event information affected testimony. The participants were supplied with an audio file summarizing a fictional crime story. The crime story revolved around the murder of three young adults after a party the evening prior. The audio file also instructed the participants not to rewind or pause the recording and to only listen to it one time. Once the participants moved on to the question portion of the survey they could not access the crime story again. In full, the crime story read as follows:

You are about to listen to a brief and fictional crime story. You will hear the recording once without pauses or rewinding. Please listen carefully. "This is WBC 22 reporting on this chilly morning. Three young adults were found deceased this morning after a night of partying. Victims Dan Smith, Kurt Green, and Jane Miller were hosting a party at victim Dan's house just outside Major City in Illinois. Investigators at the scene believe the cause of their deaths to be gang-related violence. Partygoers reported to police early this morning seeing a male aggressor engaging in a physical altercation with a weapon with Dan earlier in the evening.

The altercation was quickly ended by Jane Miller, Dan's girlfriend, and Kurt Green, Dan's friend, who are said to have feared for their safety. The male aggressor at the party has been described as average height and build with a tattoo on his neck. Police officers have not identified any suspects. A memorial service is being held at Jane's house. See our website for more details on this breaking story."

After listening to the audio file, the participants were randomly assigned to one of three potential groups to determine which survey they would receive. The first survey had one question asking participants to recall the events of the fictional crime story in their own words. The second and third survey also asked the participants to recall the crime story in their own words, but had a set of four multiple choice questions prior. The multiple choice questions in the second survey asked the participants facts about the fictional crime story using language taken directly from the recording. An example being, *"How many people died from the gang-related violence?"* The multiple choice questions in the third survey ask the participants facts about the fictional crime story using language similar to, but not the exact language, from the recording. An example being, *"How many people died from the shooting?"* The purpose of the change in the language was to affect the participants' testimony, which was gathered in an open-ended question that occurs in all three surveys. Finally, the last question in the surveys was a rating scale asking participants to rate their confidence from 1 (not confident) to 5 (extremely confident). The surveys were accessed by the participants through the online survey-creating service, Qualtrics.

Design:

A between-subjects experimental design was used. The independent variable was wording of the post-event questions. The dependent variables were testimony accuracy and confidence. There were three groups in the experiment: a control group, a group that received exact wording from the recording, and a group that received different wording to the recording. The control group consisted of 19 individuals. The exact wording group was comprised of 19 individuals. The different wording group had 20 individuals.

Procedure:

The participants who were found through convenience sampling were supplied with a link to the Qualtrics survey through a Facebook post requesting their voluntary participation. The participants who were introductory-level psychology students accessed a link to the Qualtrics survey through SONA, a program the students use to sign up for experiments. Information about the experiment was given electronically prior to the audio recording and beginning of the questions. After the implementation of the audio recording participants were given one of three surveys to respond to. The participants were thanked and debriefed electronically after completing the survey. They were provided with additional information about the experiment in the debriefing process. The data was collected and analyzed. In order to measure the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variables, 21 words in the story were coded for. The words used in the multiple choice questions, both from the exact wording group and the different wording group, were coded for throughout the 58 testimonies.

Results:

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of wording on testimony accuracy and corresponding confidence in three conditions: no wording, exact wording, and different wording. The dependent variables were confidence and testimony accuracy. In order to assess the effectiveness of wording on testimony, a total of 21 words were coded for throughout the 58 participants' written recollections of the fictional crime story. The words that were measured for their effectiveness on testimony were used in the four multiple choice questions preceding the testimony section of the survey. A significant interaction was not found for confidence, $F(2,55)= .246$, $p= .816$. A significant interaction was not found for the variable of testimony accuracy either; the effect of exact wording on testimony was insignificant, $F(2,55)=.510$, $p= .603$, as was the effect of different wording on testimony, $F(2,55)=.551$, $p= .580$. For the descriptive statistics, see Figure 1.

Impact of Post-Event Wording on Testimony

	Control Group	Exact Wording Group	Different Wording Group
Exact Words	1.00(.882)	1.26(.933)	1.00(.973)
Different Words	.052(.229)	.158(.375)	.100(.308)
Confidence	3.37(.895)	3.21(1.08)	3.15(1.27)

Figure 1. Descriptive Statistics

Discussion:

It had been hypothesized that the different wording group would be inclined to absorb the new information presented in the questions into their memories and would record it in their testimonies. It was also hypothesized that the confidence regarding given testimonies would differ based on the difference in wording. However, no statistically significant results were found. The post-event differences in wording showed no effect on the testimonies given, and the confidence levels varied minimally between groups.

Limitations:

Limitations to the present research may have impacted the results, therefore potentially leading to the lack of significant findings. The study was limited in various ways, one of

which was the survey itself. 92 people began the survey, but only 58 finished it, and even fewer offered complete statements regarding the audio file. One of the reasons people may have not completed the survey is likely due to technological complications within the survey on Qualtrics. For some people the audio file in which the fictional crime story was described did not play, so they either abandoned the survey or did not complete the testimony portion of the survey, which was necessary for measuring the effect wording had on testimony.

Another limitation could have been demographic-based. The majority of the participants were young college students; the average age of the 58 person group was 22 years old. It could be argued that younger participants are more likely to be distracted by technological devices, such as cell phones, than older participants. Older participants may also have longer attention spans, therefore increasing the amount of information they could receive from the fictional crime story. The majority of the participants were Caucasian, and it could be suggested that other races may be more or less sensitive to crime and therefore impacted differently by the fictional crime story.

Strengths:

Though the data did not support the hypothesis, the data did provide more research into the study of memory and human testimony, and it supported the idea that human memory is untrustworthy and unreliable. The responses varied a great deal due to each person's perception of what he or she heard. Not one response included every key word nor did anyone perfectly replicate the details of the fictional crime story in full. Though no race was given, two participants identified the male suspect in the recording as "white," and another indicated a height even though one was not provided. In the audio file, it clearly states three people were murdered. However, multiple participants only recorded the death of one person, a fictional character named Dan, and disregarded the deaths of the other two fictional characters, Jane and Kirk. One person created their own detail in stating that "the bodies were found outside of the house," while another indicated that "the party was being thrown for Jane." No such things were said in the recording, yet they appeared.

Regardless of what survey the participants received, some jumped to conclusions about the deaths of the characters. In the audio file it states that the three died from what appeared to be gang-related violence. While many of the participants used the phrase "gang-related violence" specifically, some referred to their deaths as a shooting. No weapon was identified in the recording, yet a person who received exact wording in their survey referred to the weapon as a knife. Each participant varied in their perceptions, therefore the responses all told a different story than the one relayed in the audio file. The creativity of the human mind filled the gaps when participants were giving their testimony, which indicates that human testimony cannot be trusted nor relied upon one hundred percent.

The data also supports the idea that people easily recollect the last thing perceived. In this experiment, many participants remembered and testified to the last bit of information they heard regardless of its significance. The key parts of the fictional crime story included how many people were killed, where they were killed, who may have killed them, and how they were killed. However, 11 participants recalled the part at the end of the recording about a memorial service being held at Jane's house for the victims. Some participants recalled this detail even if they could not recall how many people died or how. The reason for the recollection of the memorial service was simply due to it being said at the end of the recording.

Finally, the data provided some insight into the effect information repetition has on recall. When looking at the amount of key words used the different wording group and the control group only differ by a total of two words used. However, the amount of key words the exact wording group used was greater by 15, leading to the theory that words heard and seen in repetition help create a stronger memory since the exact wording group heard the key words in the audio file and answered questions directly afterwards that included them. Furthermore, participants that completed the survey, except for the testimony section, were fewer in the exact wording group and greater in the different wording group than in the control group. In the control group, three participants neglected to give a testimony. In the exact wording group, two participants neglected to give a testimony. In the different wording group, five participants neglected to give a testimony. This can be accounted for by the same theory described previously; the exact wording group was reminded of their key words after hearing them and only had two participants neglect to give answers. But the different wording group received two different forms of information regarding the event and had five participants neglect to give answers due to the confusion. The theory that information repetition can secure facts in a person's mind can also be supported by the amount of participants who chose to include information regarding the male aggressor. In the control group, only two people mentioned the male aggressor, but in the exact wording group and different wording group the male aggressor was mentioned by eight people. Furthermore, the word "weapon" was used equally between the exact wording group and the different wording group, but only half as much in the control group. The difference is due to a question regarding the aggressor being placed between the recording and the testimony, securing it into the participants' minds and proving that repetition is important to memory and recall.

Future Research:

If similar research is conducted, a few changes to the present study are recommended in order to have a better chance of finding statistically significant results. First, the audio file could be altered. It was technologically corrupt for some participants. Furthermore, the effectiveness of an audio file versus a video or a text document has not been measured. It is possible that participants dazed and lost focus while listening to the audio file. If a video or written script were presented perhaps their attention would have been better kept, thus allowing for potentially significant results. The previously discussed researchers, Loftus, Stern, and Munsterberg, all used photos in their experiments, lending support to the idea that photos used as the event information and a narrative or questions used as post-event information may be better than an audio file event and a post-event short question list (Loftus, 1977; Stern, 1937; Munsterberg, 1908).

Furthermore, it would be beneficial for replications of this research to conduct the experiment in person rather than online. The implementation of the fictional crime story, whether it is an audio or video or written file, could be presented in front of a group of people who could be more likely to pay attention in such a setting. Conducting the experiment in person would also be beneficial to the testimony. Participants may feel pressured to be more thorough in their descriptions with the experimenter or other participants present. The experimenter could also stress the importance of giving a complete testimony.

References

Cattell, J. (1985). Measurements of the accuracy of recollection. *Science*, 2 (49), 761-766.

Loftus, E. (1977). Shifting human color memory. *Memory and Cognition*, 5 (6), 696-699.

Loftus, E. (1992). When a lie becomes memory's truth: Memory distortion after exposure to misinformation. *Current Directions in Psychological Research*, 1 (4), 121-123.

Marston, W. (1924). Studies in testimony. *Journal of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology*, 15 (1), 5-31.

McCloskey, M., & Zaragoza, M. (1985). Misleading postevent information and memory for events: Arguments and evidence against memory impairment hypothesis. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 114 (1), 1-16.

Munsterberg, H. (1908). *Classics in the History of Psychology: On the witness stand: Essays on psychology and crime*. Toronto, Ontario: York University.

Stern, W. (1937). The *psychology of testimony* [lecture].

Weiner, A. & Hess, I. (1998). The *Handbook of Forensic Psychology* (Wiley Series on Personality Processes). Wiley, 2nd edition.

Female Migrant Workers and Their Families: Abused and Abandoned

Author: Gabrielle Garver
Subject: Labor Studies

Abstract

This paper explores the effects of globalization on female migrant workers as well as their families. Since the mid-1900s, an invisible crisis has been occurring: the exploitation of migrant women and the suffering of their children. With particular reference to the edited volume, *Global Woman: Nannies, Maids, and Sex Workers in the New Economy*, I examine the consequences of this abuse, the ramifications of maternal severance, and potential solutions for protecting female migrant workers and their children.

In the 1960s, globalization, the international exchange of goods, people, and ideas, reshaped traditional female roles, resulting in more employment opportunities for women globally. In developed nations, female employees were in high demand because they were "considered to be 'docile' workers, willing to obey production demands at any price" (Bacchus 2). Yet, the mothers among these working women discovered that house care and child care were too much to handle in addition to full time employment. Consequently, a void was created that led to job opportunities for women in developing countries. Shortly thereafter, many women began migrating to developed nations to fill domestic work positions, such as nannies and maids – "the work that affluent women no longer felt inclined or fit to do themselves" (Ehrenreich & Hochschild 3). These domestic positions offered higher wages and a sense of independence for migrant women, serving as a "pull" factor for women to leave their homes and families. Other contributing factors included a sense of escape from marital abuse and poverty and, more so, a need to provide for their families. With the understanding that earning higher wages would create a better life for both them and their children, these mothers were forced to make an extraordinary sacrifice and leave their children behind, sometimes with their husbands but more often with sisters or their own mothers. Many sending countries even had active government encouragement for their women to fill domestic positions globally, "reasoning that migrant women are more likely than their male counterparts to send their hard-earned wages to their families rather than spending the money on themselves. In general, women send home anywhere from half to nearly all of what they earn" (Ehrenreich & Hochschild 7). Thus, over time, developing nations formed an economic dependency on the remittances from their working migrant women, while developed nations simultaneously formed a reliance on the services these women provided.

However, migration to a foreign country without connections or, in some cases, legal documentation, in addition to the presence of language barriers, has left many of these