

**Preparing Orphaned/Unaccompanied Children for
Sustainable Livelihood through "Home"-Based
Entrepreneurial Education: Implications from a Care
Service Provider in Northern Thailand**

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ABSTRACT

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Entrepreneurship education has been widely discussed in the realm of general education system, but little research has targeted orphaned/unaccompanied children. This research paper explores how entrepreneurship education can be implemented on orphaned/unaccompanied children, and what challenges may occur during the process from educational leaders' perspective. This research approaches the topic with Sustainable Livelihood Framework. Qualitative case study and semi-structured interview were conducted with a director from a care service provider in northern Thailand.

The findings inform us several feasible ways to implement entrepreneurship education on orphaned/unaccompanied children: 1) opting for an (emulated) "family" business approach, 2) constructing a safety net for risk taking, 3) prioritizing local leadership, 4) adopting short supply chain businesses, 5) holding a flexible, responsive, lenient attitude. In terms of challenges in practice, the director reported fixed mind-set of the local people and their apprehensive attitudes towards innovation and risk-taking were the main challenges.

This research does not intend to dish out a one-size-fit-all solution because the education is highly dependent on the staff, the people in charge and the people involved in the work. Nevertheless, the education approach fits into the educational paradigm of constructivism because the approach is experience-driven. Practitioners from relevant fields may draw insight from this context where they see fit. Future research may explore other ways of constructing safety nets for risk-taking and innovation with methods that are less material-dependent.

Keywords: sustainable livelihood development, entrepreneurship education, orphans, vulnerable children, unaccompanied children

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1 INTRODUCTION

According to UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund), there were 140 million orphans in 2015. Asia accounted for 61 million, Africa accounted for 52 million, Latin America and the Caribbean accounted for 10 million. Out of these 140 million orphans, 15.1 million of them were double orphans. Single orphans refer to those who have lost one parent while double orphans refer to those who have lost both parents. Regardless of what definition we take, UNICEF (n.d.) suggests us gearing our focus onto tackling vulnerabilities in these children.

Staying in orphanages, foster care homes or any institutions alike is common throughout an orphan's childhood till the beginning of adulthood. Yet, transitioning from such care systems to adulthood is not always easy. These children may face difficulty in several domains such as lacking financial, medical, or social support during transition (Scannapieco, Smith & Blsakeney-Strong, 2016). These factors somewhat hinder children's ability to become independent and more self-sufficient, thus resulting in a difficult time once they transition out of care systems (Curry & Abrams, 2015). In view of this, preparing these children for sustainable livelihood early on appears to be important.

The concept of sustainable livelihood revolves around strengthening people's ability to cope with stresses, shocks, to recover from adversities and to be adaptive. It also aims at expanding multiple capitals of people so that they can leverage them to pursue livelihoods now and in the future. As the researcher of this paper comes from educational field, it is hard to not associate entrepreneurship education with the spirit of sustainable livelihood because they share similar ideas.

In recent decade, the idea of incorporating entrepreneurship education into curriculum has arouse heated discussion. Many countries have integrated it into their educational policy (Lackéus, 2015). Some advocate entrepreneurship education as a tool for mitigating poverty and unemployment, some advocate it for spurring economic growth (Nwokolo, Dywili & Chimucheka, 2017).

UNICEF (2009) also suggests complementing vocational training with entrepreneurship education as a means to provide quality education for orphans and vulnerable children. Even the United Nations (2015, p. 17 & 19) includes the notion of entrepreneurship in its 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development as follows,

Goal 4.4 By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship.

Goal 8.3 Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services.

Speaking from an educational point of view, the meaning of entrepreneurship goes beyond general business or economic studies. It is deemed as an educational approach that nurtures multidimensional competence, such as adaptability to handle fast changing problems, capacity of identifying opportunities and turn them into action by leveraging tangible or non-tangible resources (Bacigalupo, Kampylis, Punie & Brande, 2016; Penaluna & Penaluna, 2015). Learner is the active producer in the process, and the goal of such education is learning to live, owning autonomy and becoming self-governing (Löbner, 2006).

Considering the ideas of entrepreneurial education echo to the spirit of sustainable livelihood, this research sees entrepreneurial education as a potential tool to develop sustainable livelihood. Previous research on entrepreneurial education mainly sets its context in general education system, orphans have yet to be the research targets in entrepreneurship education. Therefore, by approaching the issue under the overarching Sustainable Livelihood Framework, this research aims to explore how we can use entrepreneurial education as a tool to develop sustainable livelihood in orphans.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Framework of Sustainable Livelihood Development

A livelihood, in the definition of Oxford Dictionary, is a means of securing the necessities of life or the strategies people use to fulfill their needs and make a living (Oxford Dictionary, n.d.). Conway and Chamber further constructed the concept in the early 1990s (Chambers & Conway, 1991) and was later complemented by Scoones (1998).

A livelihood is sustainable when one possesses the ability to maintain and enhance livelihoods; the resilience to deal with and recover from vulnerabilities, shocks and stresses (such as natural disasters, economic or social disturbance) and to enhance one's own well-being in the short, long term and that of future generations without negatively affecting the natural environment, resource base or other people's livelihoods (Chambers & Conway, 1991). The following definition by Kabir, Hou, Akther, Wang & Wang (2012, p. 265) succinctly captures the broad notion of Sustainable Livelihood Framework,

The assets (natural, physical, human, financial and social capital), the activities, and the access to these assets (mediated by institutions and social relations) together determine the living gained by individuals or households.

Sustainable Livelihoods Framework is a suitable tool in understanding the topic of this research. Pursuing a sustainable livelihood is not merely about income. When poor people are asked about their perceptions of poverty, they indicate income is merely one feature of the scope. Farrington, Carney, Ashley, & Turton (1992, p.2) report other perspectives including

[...] a sense of insecurity or vulnerability; lack of a sense of voice vis-à-vis other members of their household, community or government; and levels of health, literacy, education, and access to assets.

Pursuing a livelihood is a process in which people draw assets to form a livelihood strategy so as to achieve desired livelihood outcomes (Chigunta, Schnurr, James-Wilson & Torres, 2005). However, vulnerabilities in livelihoods and limited access to these assets are inherent in life. Sustainable Livelihoods

Framework aims at expanding what people have (namely their assets) (Majale, 2002). It also helps us to examine the vulnerability context and complexity of people's livelihoods and where the influences on vulnerability come from, thus providing a vantage point for us to identify where interventions can enter from (Farrington et al., 1999; Mahmood, Mahmood, Sohail & Saeed, 2016).

Figure 1 below introduces us to the components of sustainable livelihood framework.

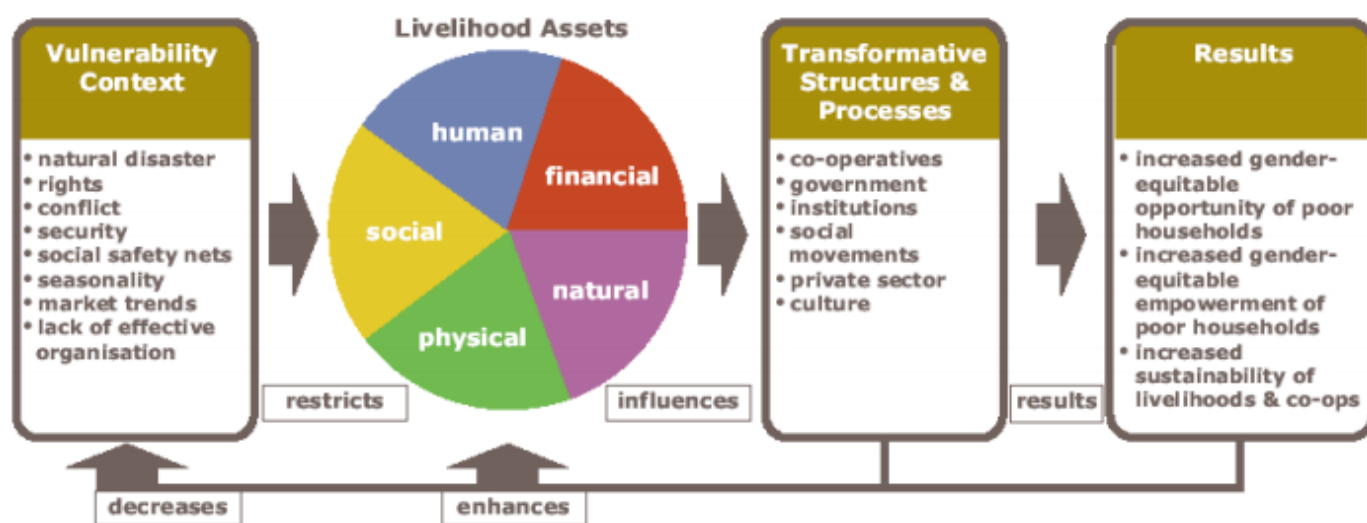


FIGURE 1. Concept of Sustainable Livelihoods Framework & its components (Ferguson, 2012)

Assets are the building blocks of desired livelihoods (Farrington et al., 1999). When **vulnerability context** exists (such as natural disasters, lack of effective organisation), livelihood assets are restricted. In a certain vulnerability context, **structures and processes** such as NGOs, co-operatives, government or pro-poor policies can play an influential role in either constraining or enhancing people's assets thus influence the process of transforming assets into desired **results** (such as more income and a more stable livelihood). If the transformative ground is positive, vulnerabilities can be reduced, assets be strengthened and outcomes be fulfilled (such as achieving better well-being, better education, and sustainable use of resources). The following texts will elaborate on the main components of this framework.

Assets

One key issue in achieving sustainable livelihood includes obtaining access and control over assets/resources (Jaka and Shava, 2018). Assets are the foundational components, also the starting point of sustainable livelihood framework. In order to understand sustainable livelihoods, it is crucial to investigate different forms of the resources people have and access to (Mahmood et al., 2016).

Assets refer to resources “owned, controlled, claimed or in some other means accessed by people” (Ellis, 2000). These foundational components allow people “to undertake production, engage in labour markets, and participate in reciprocal exchanges with others” (Ellis, 2000). Assets encompass human capital, social capital, physical capital, financial capital and natural capital. The following paragraphs will elaborate the meanings of these different forms of assets, illustrate them with examples and provide developmental suggestions.

Human Capital

Human capital in brief refers to skills, abilities, knowledge and experience possessed by an individual (Chigunta et al., 2005). Health is also part of human capital. These elements together enable an individual to engage in different livelihood strategies and to pursue their own livelihood objectives (United Nations Development Programme, 2017). Examples of human capital include training, education certificates, ability to work, control over decisions, autonomy, good health, self-esteem (Chigunta et al., 2005), knowledge of market and innovation etc. (Mumuni & Oladele, 2016).

Support for human capital expansion can be direct and indirect. If unfavourable structures or processes exist (such as oppressive social norms, political processes and lack of teachers), the role of development agencies becomes extremely essential in eradicating barriers to human capital development. UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) suggests several ways as follows to help expand human capital. These strategies mainly revolve around health, training and education. For example, direct development

includes strengthening infrastructure for health, education or training; building capacity in staff who associate with health, education or training sectors; developing relevant skills (e.g. financial literacy and business management training) and creating experience among vulnerable groups. Indirect development include reforming policies and organisations involved with health, education or training; advocating positive changes in local institutions which hinder access to health, education or training for vulnerable groups; providing opportunities for people who have already invested in training with a better return (UNDP, 2017). Human capital is not enough to be a stand-alone capital for sustainable livelihoods. However, it is the foundational capital which helps people leverage other capitals and achieve other aspects of livelihoods.

Social Capital

Social capital in short refers to social ties, social networks, support networks and relationships with others that one relies on to achieve livelihood goals. It emphasises connectivity to others, community building and working together to develop relationships of trust, reciprocity and exchanges (Ferguson, 2012). These ties, networks and relationships can range from formal sectors to informal settings. Formal social capital refers to those accessed from, for example, social institutions, associations, local officials, local authorities. Informal ones can refer to those accessed from peers, communities and families. Example social capital include social and peer networks, freedom from violence, community and family support for self-employment, feelings of inclusion, non-discrimination (Jaka & Shava, 2018), trusting relationships, membership, access to broader institutions of society, even freedom from violence (Chigunta et al., 2005), participation in decision-making and leadership are also considered social capital (Mumuni & Oladele, 2016).

Social capital may indirectly influence access to other capitals (ibid.). For example, a less effective practice used by a person for his/her livelihood may be improved upon receiving information through the abovementioned social

networks, thus one may adopt newer, more effective livelihood actions, and more access to other institutions, even governments. To put it in other words, social capital can affect how one acquires information. The relationship between human and social capital is closely knit. Networking and membership allow people to learn from each other and depend on others' capabilities for their own benefits.

Financial Capital

Financial capital are the financial resources people use to pursue livelihood goals. Loan, cash, money support, credit, pension, wage are some examples of financial capital. The dimension of financial capital can be twofold because it not only refers to the capital that enables consumption but also production in livelihoods. The definition of financial capital may comprise two forms which include flows and available stocks. Regular inflows of money, for example, include pensions or transfers from the state. Available stocks include savings, earned income, cash, bank deposits, liquid assets such as livestock, gold, jewellery etc.

Financial capital is considered the most versatile among the five capitals. It may be directly used to convert into certain (but not all) livelihood outcomes such as buying food to solve food insecurity. However, it is scarcely the most available capital to vulnerable groups.

Chigunta et al. (2005) recommend several directions to improve financial capital, such as helping people access formal and private money, teaching people financial management skills, record keeping, savings, and proposal preparing skills. In terms of formal sectors, Chigunta et al. encourage banks to take a more open attitude towards vulnerable groups who show potential in entrepreneurship yet with little experience. Other suggestions range from mutual benefits associations, micro-insurance, credit unions, co-operative microfinance institutions (Ferguson, 2012).

Physical Capital

Physical capital refers to infrastructure and production equipment that one needs in order to support economic production purposes. Example infrastructure includes transport, vehicle, road, shelter, place of living, sanitation system, clean and affordable energy, communication system, space for work, space for business, housing, safe buildings; others include equipment such as sewing machine and production systems such as irrigation (Chigunta et al., 2005; Majale, 2002; Serrat, 2017; UNDP, 2017). In sum, physical capital is an asset that supports economic production and helps one obtain other forms of capitals.

Although physical capital may entail tangible resources, physical capital is deemed as production goods, which is different from consumer goods (Ellis, 2000). The need of this differentiation is necessary because, for example, a sewing machine bought solely for personal enjoyment may not serve economic production purposes. A house bought as consumer goods and then used for commercial purposes such as tourism resort industry is considered production goods.

Natural Capital

Natural capital may not be a compulsory capital to all people, but it is particularly prominent and important to people engaging in or intending to engage in agriculture. Natural capital can be described as a “gift of nature” (Throsby, 1999, p. 166). UNDP (2017, p. 7) defines it as “the stocks of natural resources from which further resources and services can be developed.” For instance, water is important to sustain agricultural activities; land and soils, seas and oceans, forests and mines are leveraged to produce crops, food, fish, wood, paper, metals etc. They are naturally occurring resources which people rely on to generate additional benefits in order to support livelihood. Other examples of natural capital include aquatic resources, wildlife, biodiversity, rainfall, vegetation, wild foods etc. (Kabir et al., 2012; Majale, 2002; Serrat, 2017)

Natural capital provides for livelihoods but on the flip side it is also highly related to the cause of vulnerabilities compared to other capitals, partly due to

unfavourable climatic conditions, partly due to the unrenovable nature of some natural resources and partly due to inappropriate use of natural resources. These factors may lead to land degradation and lower crop yield. When bridged with social capital and human capital, the people involved in agricultural livelihoods may improve relevant knowledge and skills and subsequently enhance their natural capital such as better use and more sustainable use of land (Asitik, 2016).

Diversifying forms of natural capital is suggested as one way to alleviate the effects brought by external factors such as flooding (Geetha & Hemalatha, 2016). For instance, one may diversify activities by combining crops and animal production in their livelihoods so that the impact from climate challenges on crops can be offset partially.

Earlier in this chapter assets are introduced as the core components of one's livelihood. In order for a livelihood to be sustainable, enhancement in assets is fundamental (Kabir et al., 2012). Enhancement can be revealed in changes in these different forms of assets. For example, enhancement in human capital can be revealed in health, food security, knowledge, skills, training and education or technology. Enhancement in social capital can be revealed in more control over decision making, cooperation with others, network expansion or satisfaction on own entrepreneurship. Enhancement in physical capital can be revealed in possession of machinery, market, facilities, transport facilities, infrastructure or communication systems etc. Enhancement in financial capital can be revealed in employment, savings etc. Enhancement in natural capital can be revealed in better use of land, sustainable use of natural resources, more stable climate etc. (ibid.). These examples are illustrative only, not all inclusive.

Vulnerability Context

Referring back to the figure of sustainable livelihood at the beginning of this chapter, readers may notice that vulnerability context is another important component of sustainable livelihood. Vulnerability restricts access to livelihood assets thus hinders someone from achieving desired livelihood outcomes. Thus, reducing vulnerability of target groups in the face of changes or shocks is a

crucial process in reducing insecurity and ill-being in livelihood (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2011). This component leads us to investigate vulnerabilities in a certain context (such as unfavourable factors influencing one's decision made to livelihoods, lack of capitals, climate challenges etc.) so that interventions can identify ways of minimising these vulnerable factors and in turn assist people to improve livelihood security and build resilience (Kabir et al., 2012).

Vulnerabilities exist due to changes in a person's external environment and his/her internal defenselessness against unfavourable factors (Serrat, 2017). These factors are multidimensional which include shocks, adverse trends and unfavourable seasonal patterns.

Shocks are caused by, for example, natural disasters, pests, illnesses of people or livestock (Kabir et al., 2012; Serrat, 2017). These factors are particularly detrimental to natural resources-based livelihoods. In some cases, entrepreneurs may liquidate livestock for money.

Adverse trends encompass disadvantages from the social environment such as bad governance, nonchalant attitude from political officials, corruption, passive financial systems, defective land markets (Majale, 2002), political upheaval social conflict etc. (Kabir et al., 2012).

Unfavourable seasonal patterns also matter the most to natural resources-based livelihoods. Examples of unfavourable seasonal patterns include seasonal employment opportunities, seasonal harvesting and accompanying produce fluctuation in price etc. (Kabir et al., 2012; Serrat, 2017)

Transformative Structures and Processes

Although assets are possessed by an individual, and although expanding assets can influence livelihood strategies, reduce vulnerabilities and help achieve livelihood outcome, the acquisition of assets and the process of transforming assets into desired livelihoods are not solely dependent on individuals themselves. Structures and processes play an important role in transforming

assets into livelihood outcomes. Structures and processes are the conditioning and mediating institutions, organisations, policies and legislation that influence livelihoods (Kabir et al., 2012; Scoones, 1998).

Serrat categorises structures as the public, formal or informal private sectors that “set and implement policy and legislation; deliver services; and purchase, trade, and perform all manner of other functions that affect livelihoods (Serrat, 2017, p.24).” Processes refer to the “laws, regulations, policies, operational arrangements, agreements, societal norms, and practices that, in turn, determine the way in which structures operate (ibid.)”. In short, structures can be summed up to sectors, institutions or organisations, namely physical units. Processes are more about their behavioral aspects such as what actions they take. For instance, a government is a structure, if it implements pro-poor policies, these policies are deemed as processes that have influence on livelihoods. Vice versa, if a government adopts a very formal process or a nonchalant policy, it may also restrict the livelihoods of vulnerable people. The two components structures and processes go hand in hand. Without suitable institutions and processes, structures will not be able to exert positive impact on livelihoods. Processes are crucial to livelihoods. They could affect people on livelihood decision making. They are also influential to either assets expansion or restriction, and assets transformation. They also pose significant influence on relations with other people (ibid.). Moreover, these external supportive institutions or interventions need to be sustainable (Farrington et al., 1999).

In sum, pursuing a livelihood is inarguably an individual quest, but formal and informal organisations and institutions do play a mediating role in helping or restricting an individual to achieve his/her livelihood outcomes (Scoones, 1998).

Livelihood Strategies and Outcomes

Sustainable livelihood framework allows us to look into available assets of a person and how external factors influence the use of assets. These factors

subsequently affect what activities/strategies people take in order to achieve their livelihood result (Ayuma, 2009).

Examples of livelihood strategies include natural-resource-based activities, non-agricultural activities, migration or diversifying livelihood patterns etc. Davies (1993; 1996) further distinguishes two categories of livelihood strategies, one being coping strategies, one being adaptive strategies. Coping strategies refer to how one responds to short term crisis, yet adaptive strategies are seen to be more important because they equip people with the capacity to cope with recurring crisis over the long term, thus less vulnerable to crisis. Ellis (2000) suggests several means to strengthen adaptive strategies, such as expanding assets, adopting different asset mix and relying on different types of income sources. In some cases, the adaptation strategies people take may not be very beneficial, or are even negative to later life events. Thus, Ellis (2000) emphasises that policies should identify these negative adaptation and take relevant steps to help people become inform with more sustainable livelihood strategies.

Livelihood outcomes are not necessarily indicated by improvement in physical and financial aspects, they may also entail improvement in spiritual aspect. For example, livelihood outcomes may range from better health, enhanced well-being, less vulnerability, more secured food supply, better adaptability to changes and better use of natural resources (Scoones, 1998; Serrat, 2017).

2.2 Suitability of Sustainable Livelihood Framework in This Research

Sustainable Livelihood Framework is chosen as a lens to view the topic of this research because the framework embraces several core principles: 1) people-centred; 2) holistic; 3) building on strengths; 4) macro-micro links (Ashley & Carney, 1999).

Sustainable Livelihood Framework emphasises people as its focus. It analyses people's livelihoods and how these change over time. It does not

exclude people's perspective and participation. Instead of focusing on what impact are brought to resources and output, the framework centers around what impact can different approaches and institutional interventions bring upon individuals/family units, and upon the vulnerabilities perceived by themselves. The framework also attempts to help people accomplish their own livelihood objectives.

The framework does not mean to prescribe a cut-and-dried model for problem solving, but it brings us to view how livelihoods can be managed in a more effective way, especially speaking from development programmes or interventions. The framework is holistic because it does not limit itself to a sectoral point of view, it can be applied to different social groups in different places. Besides, the framework identifies external factors that affect individuals, and seek the connections between these impacts and how they jointly affect livelihoods. The framework involves and welcomes multiple actors ranging from associations, national ministries, communities, organisations, NGOs to governments. The framework also recognises various livelihood strategies people take to uphold their livelihoods. The livelihood outcomes are to be negotiated and decided by individuals themselves. The framework leads us to realistically comprehend what background factors result in individuals' current livelihoods, and to examine how we can augment these affecting components in order to improve their livelihoods to a certain extent.

The third advantage of this framework is that it values building strengths among people more than only helping them address their needs. The framework believes everyone has innate potential to conquer vulnerabilities. Those potentials may be nurtured from social networks one originally possesses, or from his/her advantaged access to physical or natural resources. The framework also believes people have power to influence external institutions and other elements that are beneficial to vulnerability reduction. Therefore, the concern lies on clearing obstacles to exert potential.

The fourth advantage of Sustainable Livelihood Framework is that it advocates interaction and linkage between macro level (such as policy and

institutions) and micro/local level. Macro level plays an important role in offering livelihood options to people, while in turn, macro level is encouraged to understand insights and opinions from the people of local level so that programmes designs can be more effective. The framework encourages us to understand programme design in a mutual way, that means to understand how programme design leaves an impact to people and the other way round. The framework also suggests us realistically seeing what happen to people under certain policy or programme implementation, rather than only understanding what is assumed to happen by higher level actors.

Serrat (2017) pinpoints that the framework inspires development practitioners to steer away from a traditional two-end viewpoint. Traditional two-end viewpoints tend to aim at recognising problems and prescribing solutions without taking contexts into consideration. Sustainable Livelihood Framework invites practitioners to focus on context. This way interventions can be more process-oriented, thus resulting in more considerate viewpoints and entry points. It neither limits the view on a narrow community nor a sector itself. To put it briefly in Serrat's words, the framework shifts away from "universal prescriptions to context-specific approaches that allow alternative and local perspectives to reveal" (Serrat, 2017, p. 25).

On the other hand, Sustainable Livelihood Framework allows us to examine the relationship between assets, structures (e.g. formal or informal sectors, organisations and institutions) and processes (e.g. policies, interventions). For instance, human capital is somewhat dependent on how accessible education is. Natural capital is vulnerable to climate challenges. Design and implementation of disaster prevention policies will somewhat influence the natural capital a person possesses. Financial capital is also partly influenced by the policies and availability of credit and rural banking sectors. The framework brings us to have a closer look into how well or bad policies operate thus sheds light on improvement accordingly (Farrington et al., 1999). The framework is an appeal to decrease the complex and uncertain root causes for vulnerable livelihood (Roe,

1998). It can therefore guide us in setting development goals, scope and priorities to improve progress in reducing vulnerabilities.

In conclusion, the framework leads us to understand the vulnerable context people face. In this specific context, the framework then examines what access to assets or what factors of vulnerability reduction are available to people. These access and factors are somewhat mediated by the overarching social and organizational/institutional environment. It subsequently impacts how a person combines and uses assets. All these factors also affect his/her decision and implementation on livelihood strategies so as to pursue ideal livelihood according to their goals (DFID, 1999). The framework covers wide range of issues relevant to people with vulnerabilities. It does not narrow its scope to health and education only, but it also delves into issues of financial access, markets and personal security (if applicable in the context). Apart from this, the framework values sustainability. It takes on a people-centred and participatory approach. It takes constant changing circumstances into consideration. When applicable, it invites multi-level partnership ranging from national, local, public and private sectors (Norton & Foster, 2001).

One issue of sustainable livelihood framework is that, it cannot be used alone. Rather, it is an integrating tool which needs to build with other approaches and methods as the context requires (Farrington et al., 1999). Considering that the commonly defined characteristics of entrepreneurship share similar concepts to those of sustainable livelihoods, this paper takes the stance that entrepreneurship education may be a promising tool to view sustainable livelihoods development projects for orphaned/unaccompanied children, particularly in the process of assets development.

2.3 Entrepreneurship

Although there is not a cut-and-dried definition of entrepreneurship, the common definitions of entrepreneurship revolve around value creation for others (can be of financial, social and cultural value), use of resources, ability to

identify opportunities, taking initiative, risk taking, action oriented, innovation etc., which are very similar to some spirit of sustainable livelihoods.

Asitik (2016) describes entrepreneurship as being “alert” to opportunities and subsequently use them in innovative ways to enhance living standards. In order to elaborate the relatedness between entrepreneurship and sustainable livelihoods, Herron and Robinson (1993, p. 285) regard entrepreneurship as “the set of behaviours that initiates and manages the reallocation of economic resources and whose purpose is value creation through those means.” This definition is particularly relevant to sustainable livelihoods because it advocates change in behaviour, thinking and practices from traditional ones towards more innovative ones by noticing and leveraging identified opportunities to improve vulnerable situations (Asitik, 2016).

Apart from creativity and discovery, risk-taking is another emphasis in entrepreneurship. Luetge (2014, p.6) remarks, “Entrepreneurship requires willingness to take calculated risks – both personal and financial and then doing everything possible to influence the odds.” Together with this calculated risk, an individual creates valuable new things and eventually reaps monetary rewards, personal satisfaction and independence (Hirsch, p.9).

Despite the above stated positive characteristics, some scholars remind us to beware of blind spots. Zahra and Wright (2016) assert entrepreneurship is not always productive to social wealth particularly in cases where people use it as a corruption and bribery tool. Thus, it is necessary to limit the standpoint of this paper with the spirit of sustainable livelihood – enhancing livelihoods without causing harm to others’ livelihoods and nature.

2.4 Entrepreneurship Education

Lackéus (2015) conveys in an OECD report that entrepreneurship has an important seat in education because it helps people confront societal challenges and is an empowering tool for people and organisations if the stance is on creating social value for the public good. The following paragraphs will present

brief definitions, aims, different approaches and suggested teaching methods of entrepreneurial education.

Lackéus (2015, p.9) first identifies a narrow and a wide definition of entrepreneurship in the realm of education as follows,

[...] the narrow definition of entrepreneurship is about opportunity identification, business development, self-employment, venture creation and growth, i.e. becoming an entrepreneur. [...] the wide definition of entrepreneurship is about personal development, creativity, self-reliance, initiative taking, action orientation, i.e. becoming entrepreneurial.

What definition and what approach we use may highly affect our educational purposes, target groups, course design and teaching methods. The current approaches used in different stages of schooling are identified as educating “through”, “for” and “about” entrepreneurship (see Figure 2).

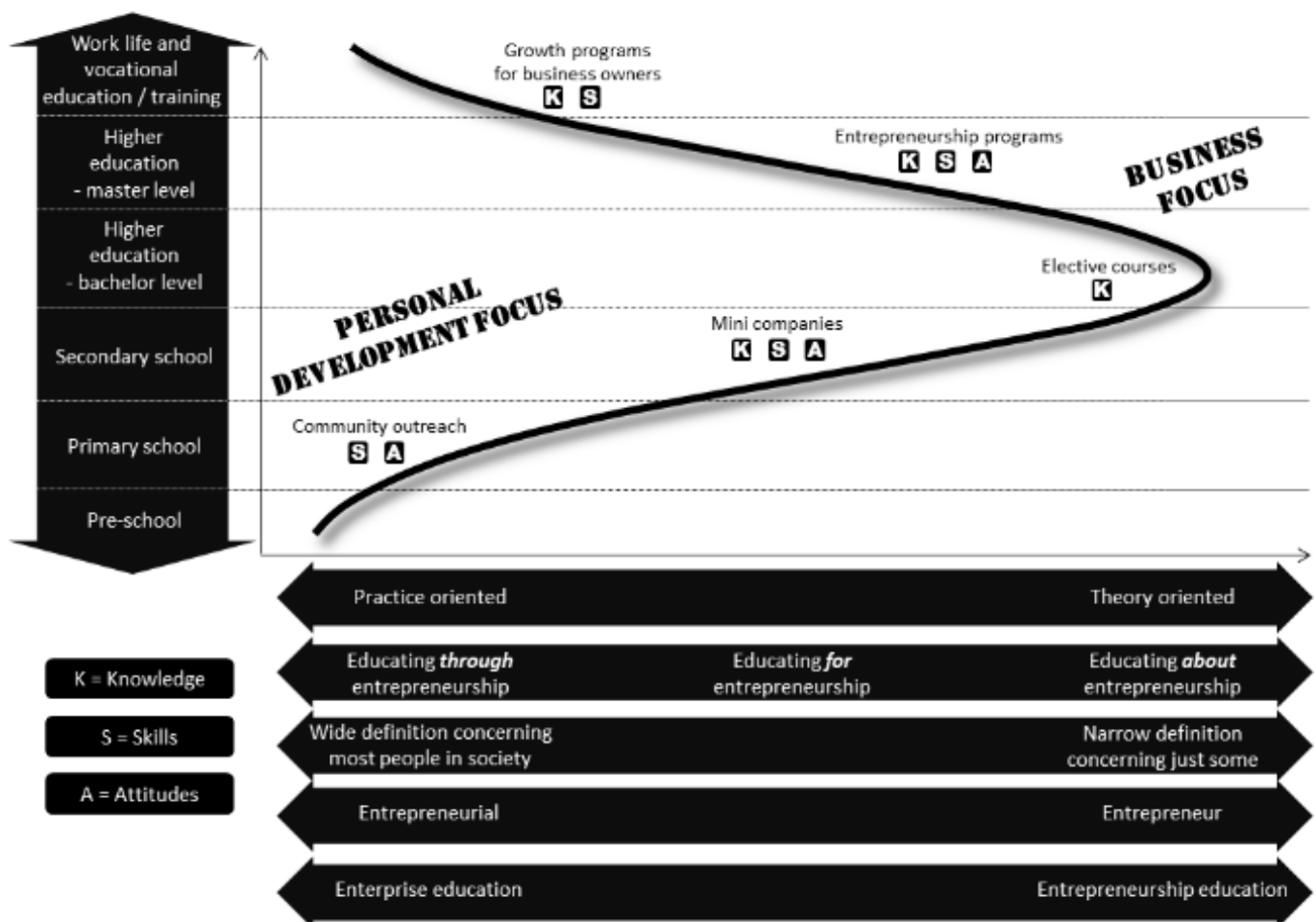


FIGURE 2. Overview of different approaches in entrepreneurial education (Lackéus, 2015)

Educating “through” entrepreneurship tends to be experiential and takes an actual learning approach. This approach echoes greatly to the wide definition of entrepreneurship education and is suitable for all level learners as early as from primary school (ibid.). Educating “for” entrepreneurship is somewhat occupation oriented and it aims at instilling essential knowledge and skills in students from secondary level onwards. Educating “about” entrepreneurship is studying it theoretically as a phenomenon at/upon university level (ibid.).

The goal of entrepreneurial education is to nurture a certain level of entrepreneurial competencies in students. These competencies are categorised into cognitive and non-cognitive skills (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. Entrepreneurial Competencies (ibid.)

	Main theme	Sub themes	Interpretation
Cognitive competencies	Knowledge	Mental models	Knowledge about how to get things done without resources, Risk and probability models.
		Declarative knowledge	Basics of entrepreneurship, value creation, idea generation, opportunities, accounting, finance, technology, marketing, risk, etc.
		Self-insight	Knowledge of personal fit with being an entrepreneur / being entrepreneurial.
	Skills	Marketing skills	Conducting market research, Assessing the marketplace, Marketing products and services, Persuasion, Getting people excited about your ideas, Dealing with customers, Communicating a vision.
		Resource skills	Creating a business plan, Creating a financial plan, Obtaining financing, Securing access to resources
		Opportunity skills	Recognizing and acting on business opportunities and other kinds of opportunities, Product / service / concept development skills
		Interpersonal skills	Leadership, Motivating others, Managing people, Listening, Resolving conflict, Socializing
		Learning skills	Active learning, Adapting to new situations, coping with uncertainty
		Strategic skills	Setting priorities (goal setting) and focusing on goals, Defining a vision, Developing a strategy, Identifying strategic partners
Non-cognitive competencies	Attitudes	Entrepreneurial passion	"I want". Need for achievement.
		Self-efficacy	"I can". Belief in one's ability to perform certain tasks successfully.
		Entrepreneurial identity	"I am / I value". Deep beliefs, Role identity, Values.
		Proactiveness	"I do". Action-oriented, Initiator, Proactive.
		Uncertainty / ambiguity tolerance	"I dare". Comfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity, Adaptable, Open to surprises.
		Innovativeness	"I create". Novel thoughts / actions, Unpredictable, Radical change, Innovative, Visionary, Creative, Rule breaker.
		Perseverance	"I overcome". Ability to overcome adverse circumstances.

Table 1 above shows us both the cognitive and non-cognitive competencies somewhat share many similarities with the spirit of sustainable livelihoods.

Positive and dynamic competence is crucial element in sustainable livelihood. A sustainable livelihood encompasses ability to “perceive, predict, adapt to and exploit changes in the physical, social and economic environment (Chigunta et al., 2005, p.43)”, which is very similar to entrepreneurial competencies.

Being innovative and flexible under constant change and unexpected crisis is another key capacity of sustainable livelihood and is consider beneficial to take entrepreneurial actions (ibid.). Thus, scholars also suggest nurturing this capacity in livelihood promotion programme.

Chigunta et al. (2005) indicates that the word “entrepreneurship” is more than “running a business”. From an educational point of view, entrepreneurship entails enterprising life skills which include individual skills (such as self-care), social skills (networking and communication skills) and enterprise initiative skills (such as postivie risk-taking and healthy competition). These are seen as prerequisites of successful economic activity. This implies that, by equipping an individual with such skills, one will not only be “reactive” to external conditions, but also are “proactive and dynamically adaptable”. Chigunta et al. (2005) continue to illustrate what these characteristics entail,

They include gaining access to and using services and information, exercising foresight, experimenting and innovating, competing and collaborating with others, and exploring new conditions and resources, being productive, having the ability to healthy decision-making, conflict mitigation and resolution, consequential thinking and positive risk-taking (p. 52).

Regarding how to teach entrepreneurial education, Chigunta et al. (2005) and Lackéus (2015) advocate using a learning-by-doing approach which is also considered by many scholars as the one and only effective approach (Cope, 2005; Gibb, 1997; Dalley and Hamilton, 2000; Minniti and Bygrave, 2001, Young and Sexton, 1997). Teachers can give assignments to students on value creation for others. Students can be required to obtain inspirations from problems and opportunities which they observe, and subsequently create value for external stakeholders. This process frequently exposes students to interactions with the outside world and let them face uncertainty, ambiguity and confusion as positive learning experience. Learning in group is even more preferable because students can learn from others’ creativity resulting in reduction of uncertainty, ambiguity

and confusion when taking action with peers. Although the aim of entrepreneurial education is to nurture entrepreneurial competencies, regarding assessment, Lackéus (2015) suggests assessing and supporting students' interactions and activities taken with stakeholders instead of assessing their entrepreneurial competencies developed.

2.5 Entrepreneurship Education for Orphaned/Unaccompanied Children

Previous research on entrepreneurial education mostly focuses on formal education system (Lackéus, 2015). Research on entrepreneurship in relation to sustainable livelihoods is mainly on retired people, farmers and rural women (Kabir et al., 2012; Mahmood et al., 2016; Jaka & Shava, 2018). Similar research on orphans is scarce. Nevertheless, one research done on entrepreneurship education for orphans does exist. In a questionnaire research conducted by Sopiah, Kusdiyanti & Rosmawati (2014) with 100 high-school orphans in Indonesia, the respondents expressed eager need of knowledge in entrepreneurship and business design. The questionnaire also shows us respondents felt confident that training in business plan and entrepreneurship education can improve their entrepreneurial ability. In addition, the respondents expressed wish to receive post-training business consulting, including business plan consulting, on how to launch a business, how to deal with suppliers, learning the policy of pricing, promotions and dealing with banks etc. so as to accommodate themselves after high school. Sopiah, Kusdiyanti and Rosmawati (2014) also suggest orphan-serving institutions need to shift paradigm from the one that "gives them a fish" to the one that "teach them how to fish".

The research above certainly provides guiding principles for programme design. However, Chigunta et al. (2005) indicate there is a need to instill entrepreneurial mindsets early in order for the children to have ability to avert challenges and risks later in life. This suggests that teaching "through"

entrepreneurial is appropriate for younger children who are still in care service institutions.

Moreover, due to limited life experience, marginalised youths may lack guidance and opportunity to systematically develop new pathways forward, and tend to limit the development of skills and capabilities needed for growth and lasting achievement in the competitive real marketplace where little margin for mistakes is allowed if they do not have accompaniment, coaching and co-development from adults and sector agencies (Chigunta et al., 2005). The supportive role of adults, both within family and from the outside world, is recognised as a significant factor in nurturing and upholding the capability of resilience and positive risk-taking (ibid.). DeJaeghere and Baxter (2014) also state that it is problematic to assume marginalised youth can learn to respond to risks alone without supports and access to financial capital or social networks. Thus, child-adult partnership based on hands-on experience is suggested as a suitable approach in developing entrepreneurial competencies in at-risk children (UNICEF, 2002). Child-adult partnership does not posit adults as solution givers and children as solution receivers. Chigutna et al. (2005) highlight that children and adults co-develop and learn from each other's strengths.

Following on from the inspirations given by the literature review, this research aims at exploring how entrepreneurial education is implemented on orphans/unaccompanied children **in practice** early on and what aspects need to be taken into consideration during the process. Readers can expect detailed research questions in the next chapter.

3 RESEARCH TASK

This research aims at gaining insights about possible ways to implement entrepreneurial education on orphans/unaccompanied children as a tool to lay the foundation of sustainable livelihoods. Administrative staff in care service organisations have first-hand experience with these children, it is interesting to know why they opt for certain methods of entrepreneurial education in consideration with the contexts they work in. The perspectives of educational leaders can provide valuable knowledge to people working in similar fields. Hopefully this research may share insights to relevant practitioners such as orphan-serving adults and institutions.

The research questions are as follows:

- 1) How is entrepreneurship education implemented on orphaned/unaccompanied children in the chosen organisation?
- 2) What challenges exist during the process?

In order to seek answers to the research questions, this research adopts a qualitative case study approach by using semi-structured interview as the data collection method.

Upon presenting the results in the next chapter, I will discuss how the entrepreneurial education used in the organisation associates with sustainable livelihoods development.

4 RESEARCH METHODS

4.1 Qualitative Approach

Qualitative research is important in educational research because it pays attention to the “how” and “why” of issues. By looking into human experiences, phenomena and context, we are able to discern daily realities of social phenomenon. Studying how they are practiced in real life also helps extend our knowledge and understanding of issues (Cleland, 2017).

Contrasting quantitative methods which allow replicability and excel in hypotheses testing with large samples and generating meticulous causal models, qualitative approach is more suitable when we aim for closer interactions between researchers and informants. The remote and inferential empirical materials used in quantitative methods may fall short in achieving such close relationships (Klenke, Martin & Wallace, 2016). In order to elaborate the strengths of qualitative methods, Klenke et al. (2016, p. 6) note as follows,

Qualitative research is a process of naturalistic inquiry that seeks in-depth understanding of social phenomena within their natural setting or context. It focuses on the “why” and “how” of social phenomena and relies on the direct experiences of human beings as meaning making agents in their everyday lives.

The closeness between researchers and informants is conducive in producing thick and detailed description of the issue/problem under investigation (ibid), thus enables researchers to capture multiple voices and perspectives. Apart from this, during qualitative research process, we are able to be introduced to insider view of a phenomenon and discover unexpected insights (Chen & Rubin, 2011).

When conducting qualitative research, the priority is often dedicated to revealing the views and perspectives of informants because they are the sources of data. The authentic voice of informants must be represented. Secondly, qualitative research takes consideration of contextual conditions such as social, institutional, cultural and environmental contexts where their day-to-day events happen. Thirdly, existing or emerging concepts guide researchers through the process of explaining social behavior and thinking (Yin, 2015).

When the burning questions concern experience, meaning and perspective, qualitative methods are used to seek answers most often from the informants' point of view. The social constructivism behind qualitative approach offers diversity in insight and "adds a piece to the puzzle to which other researchers also contribute (Hammarberg, Kirkman and Lacey, 2016, p.499)." This idea is particularly relevant to understanding the entirety of how entrepreneurial education is implemented on orphans. Knowledge gained from qualitative methods is powerful in informing practice, suggesting ways to support people with vulnerabilities and contributing to awareness about certain issues (ibid). This notion exactly echoes to the primary purpose of this research. Thus, by hearing unheard voices and investigating unknown problems, the researcher of this paper wishes relevant practitioners' perspectives derived from real-life practice could contribute to the work of orphan-serving professionals.

4.2 Case Study

The five common categories of qualitative research include narrative research, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography and case study (Creswell & Poth, 2016). Answering the question why case study is chosen for this study directs us to a dimensional comparison among these five approaches (see Table 2).

TABLE 2. Comparison of the five common qualitative approaches (Creswell & Poth, 2016, p.104)

Foundational considerations	Narrative research	Phenomenology	Grounded theory	Ethnography	Case study
Research focus of approach	Exploring the life of an individual	Understanding the essence of the experience	Developing a theory grounded in data from the field	Describing and interpreting a culture-sharing group	Developing an in-depth description and analysis of a case or multiple cases

Unit of analysis	Studying one or more individuals	Studying several individuals who have shared the experience	Studying a process, an action, or an interaction involving many individuals	Studying a group that shares the same culture	Studying an event, a program, an activity, or more than one individual
Type of research problem best suited for approach	Needing to tell stories of individual experiences	Needing to describe the essence of a lived phenomenon	Grounding a theory in the views of participants	Describing and interpreting the shared patterns of culture of a group	Providing an in-depth understanding of a case or cases

Different approaches bear different purposes. The purpose behind each approach guides us in choosing what approach we use (ibid.). Regarding research focus, this research aims at developing an in-depth description and analysis of the entrepreneurial education used in an orphan-serving organisation. In terms of unit of analysis, studying the entrepreneurial education used in the organisation is the core concern. Thus, case study is the ideal approach.

Contrasting quantitative research which focuses on the macro-level, qualitative case study is unique in the sense that it only sources data from a smaller number of subjects but they are examined in detail, which contribute knowledge concerning the micro-level (Hamilton, 2018). In addition to exploring the richness and depth of how individuals, groups and institution perceive issues, case study also allows us to understand interactions and challenges in a closer relationship with informants (ibid.). In sum, case study contributes to our knowledge of individual, group, organizational, social, and related phenomena (Yin, 2002).

4.3 Selection of Case

In qualitative case study research, the aim is not to generalize findings from samples to a larger population. Farquhar (2013b, p.13) notes, "The rationale for selecting your cases is that they are particularly suitable for illuminating and extending the relationships of the constructs". Therefore, the selection of case is purposive. The informants we choose need to be able to provide information relevant to our research aim. In general, the participants will be chosen because

they may provide valuable perspective that will “elucidate and clarify aspects of the investigation (Farquhar, 2013a, p.12)”.

This research selected a care service provider in Northern Thailand bordering Myanmar via internet. As this research concerns with themes including entrepreneurial education, sustainable livelihoods and orphan serving organisations, the case(s) should feature all these themes. When typing the aforementioned themes in the field of internet search engine, the researcher found one organisation possessing the exact same themes in their value statement. The organisation stated in their webpage that they had been striving to develop a model for entrepreneurially based care and empowerment for at-risk children. It also mentioned, under much debate regarding the best way to help and care for orphans, the organisation believed that the first thing to try was to empower the child’s community, wherever possible, to care for that child themselves. Their vision, in the organisation’s words, was far beyond providing aid money, which was counter-productive to their end goal. The webpage continued to mention, one of the best ways to help and care for orphans was by teaching communities to become entrepreneurs, to bring change and effective solutions to the situations they live in every day. The business projects they started included transport business, broom manufacturing, coffee, tea, and avocado seedlings, rice farming and small scale pig farming. With that entrepreneurial education vision in mind, the researcher decided to select this organisation to shed light on how to implement entrepreneurial education for these children in practice.

4.4 Semi-structured Interview as Data Collection Tool

Regarding data collection tools in case study, Creswell and Poth (2016) point out interviews, observations, documents and artifacts are the commonly used tools. This research adopted online video interview as data collection method. On-site observation in Thailand would have been used, but considering time, geographical and financial constraints, the researcher had to waive this option.

Documents would have been used as other collection tool in this research; however, when requested a documented curriculum at the outset, the director mentioned the education they implemented was non-formal and was operated under a “family” business approach (quotation marks are used here because the family were not family by blood), no formal curriculum was ever composed. As a result, interview appeared to be the solution as it still could answer the research questions of this paper.

Regarding informants of this study, as mentioned above, they should be able to provide valuable and relevant information in response to our research aim (Farquhar, 2013a and 2013b). Both administrative staff and director of the organisation would have been the interviewees of this study. However, upon sending the interview request email, the director of the organisation was the only available person who replied the request. Thus, the interview was conducted with the director. Patton (1990) acknowledges trade-offs between breadth and depth of research do exist due to research limitations. However, he remarks (p. 184), “in-depth information from a small number of people can be very valuable, especially if the cases are information-rich”. A director is a person who decides the vision, system and action plan of an organisation, thus, he is undoubtedly the most information-rich person for this research.

4.5 Interview Process

Semi-structured interview was mainly used as a data collection method in this research. Unlike unstructured interviews which are more suitable in long-term field work and enables respondents express thoughts with complete freedom and minimal hold (Jamshed, 2014), semi-structured interviews “invariably carries the traces of power that holds things in place and it reveals an interviewee’s ability to refuse and resist what the researcher wants to happen (Parker, 2005, p.41).” Semi-structured interviews are in-depth interviews which require respondents answering pre-constructed open-ended questions (Jamshed, 2014). The research questions of this paper revolve around unexplored themes of entrepreneurial

education and challenges existed in the implementation. Themes had to be focused and questions should be open-ended. Therefore, semi-structured interview was conducted.

Interview guides consisting core questions and associated questions are suggested to be written down in question planning phase because they keep an interview focused, systematic and comprehensive (ibid.). Readers of this paper can find the final question list in the Appendix. This interview first started with general questions (including a few closed-end questions) such as background information of the organisation, its environment, age range of the orphans, the overview of the entrepreneurial education in used and reasons for parental absence of the orphans (categorised as A in Appendix). The researcher had also prepared a list of associated questions before the interview took place so that she could choose promptly upon hearing unexpected but still relevant answers and continue the interview smoothly (categorised as B in Appendix). Unplanned follow-up/probing questions were also finally listed in Appendix column C.

Regarding research ethics, the researcher clearly informed the director about where the research would be published. The interview was recorded with consent in audio format. Anonymity is an important principle in research which the researcher did pay attention to. However, when the researcher confirmed about anonymity with the director, he stated he preferred to have his name revealed. Thus, an exception of anonymity rule occurred in this research and his name Mr. Blue is used throughout this paper as he desired.

4.6 Data Analysis

The interview lasted two hours and resulted in a 21-page double-spaced transcript.

Content analysis and inductive coding were undertaken as analysis methods. Content analysis “offers a model for systematic qualitative analysis with clear procedures for checking the quality of the analysis conducted (Marks & Yardley, 2011, p.3)”. Besides, inductive coding, which generates themes from

the raw data itself, is often useful in new areas of research (ibid.). Thus, these two methods are ideal in guiding the analysis process.

As the research questions concern with two themes (namely implementation of the entrepreneurial education and accompanying challenges), the coding process dealt with these two separately. First, the researcher extracted all segments related to implementation as one part, subsequently, segments related to challenges were extracted to another part. Readers can see example coding in Table 3:

TABLE 3. Examples of qualitative content analysis for Question 1 in this study

Meaningful segments / sentences	Codes	Sub categories	Categories
"We do not use a documented curriculum rather we work in a "family" business framework. The native staff that directly manage the home facility run diverse businesses that the children participate in according to cultural and age appropriate norms."	Cultural and age appropriateness of "family" business approach	Reasons for adopting "family" business approach	Opting for a "family" business approach
"The older children began paying attention learning the financials and how to keep track of the money by having the responsibility of keeping track of real money in real businesses in participating with the house leaders and taking care customers and learning best business practices."	Learning financials and money management in real business settings / learning by doing	Advantages of "family" business approach in that context	
"The entrepreneurial education is not enforced, it's voluntary at the physical, developmental, emotional capacity of the children. Some of them do have significant emotional issues and if they need to just sit and be listened to or talk and sit and be quiet, they go do that. They are encouraged to participate in the business and entrepreneurial education aspects of family life but not forced to. We aim at a very gentle interaction with the kids"	Entrepreneurial education is not enforced		Holding a flexible, responsive, lenient attitude
"Some of the older children have demonstrated an aptitude and we have begun working with them to plan ventures that we will invest in. We've got a kid with us, who is 16 years old, we're funding him going to trade school. As far as I can see, entrepreneurial stuff, as soon as he's right with trade school as a motorcycle mechanic, we've said it, "If you want to start a shop up here, we'll go ahead and help you. Help the finances, to start a shop, and you can run your own business."	Being responsive Providing financial aids, investment, funding and encouragement	Attitudes of the organisation	

5 FINDINGS

The first section of this chapter offers background information about the organisation, such as where it was and why it existed. The second section answers to the first research question, i.e. how and what the organisation did to implement entrepreneurship education on unaccompanied/orphaned children without leaving out their psychosocial considerations. The third section addresses the second research question, i.e. what posed challenges during the process. This chapter is dedicated to results presentation.

5.1 Background of the Organisation

The organization was a residential care provider located in northern Thailand near the Burmese border and in the middle of Asian Highway I which ran from Istanbul to Seoul, Korea. In general, the surrounding area was a major trade hub where a lot of trade passed through. Most people were displaced people or migrant workers. Everyone was from somewhere else. Rootlessness was a big thing.

The organisation served people living in the nearby mountain. The exact location was up in a mountain 45 minutes away from any nearest city of any size. Up in the mountain lived ethnic hill tribe communities who were rather culturally marginalized and economically depressed attributed to their distance from markets and the fact that they were mountain people. It was an agrarian society where people grew mountain rice, gathered bamboo sheets in the forests and such. Some people grew other crops for sale and for production, but mostly it was an economically depressed area due to lack of market and lack of sophisticated economic foundation. Education quality was limited up there even though there was a government school. By and large, the context was educationally, economically depressed and culturally marginalized.

The core value of the organisation was to provide an emulated family setting (or an “uncle” house, in the interviewee’s words) for children who had been left uncared. Their ages ranged from 4 to 16.

The reasons for parental absence of these children were plentiful. For example, in one case, a child had a violent alcoholic father, so the child and his mother sought shelter in the organisation. In another case, a father bought a truck on loan and did not insure enough. He underwent a bad accident and broke his leg. He could not work to pay off the truck in the mountain. Thus, the parents decided to move down to Bangkok where they attained work and could save money to pay off the debt. According to the director, Bangkok was not the place for young hill tribe girls. It was a dangerous place for them. That was why the child had to separate from her parents. In some other case, some parents disappeared into the jungle with little bags of drugs and have not been seen since. In general, it was a broad range of background with the children.

Despite the director provided residential care to these children, he wished he could end institutionalization in childcare in the future. Before that could happen, he aimed towards family reunification whenever possible. When not possible, at least he aimed at providing a family-like environment for the children until their blood parents would become stable, caring, competent and loving. It might take 6 months or 10 years. The organisation operated under the model of an “uncle house”, where the stable aunt and uncle had a safe place for the children to come and stay when they were in crisis or difficult situation. This model is based on traditional social structures - when a family comes into a difficult situation, the traditional structures or the extended families, their aunts, uncles and grandparents step up and help take care of the children while the blood parents work to get life sorted out. The organisation operated under this sort of model.

This type of “uncle” house was operated between the organisation and business “parents” from different tribes (such as Lahu, Shan, Lisu, Ahka) who already owned their businesses. Some of them ran a school bus business for people in the surrounding villages. Some ran a rice farm. Some produced

sweeping brooms. The organisation hired these “parents” and kept launching new businesses as a means to sustain the Home. The children stayed with these “parents” mostly of the same tribe and the same linguistic background. The children assisted in daily tasks of the business as part of their day-to-day “family” life.

When the organisation first started, the goal was to set up the Home first. The rationale of engaging in these businesses was purely on economic grounds, namely the organisation’s internal economic sustainability, but the director later thought he could leverage these resourceful environments as valuable educational settings for the children. As a result, he continued with this approach. The organisation believed if they could educate, empower and strengthen the children to be more successful, and encourage their communities to be stronger and more economically healthy, there would be less and less call for residential care homes. By nurturing the ability to take risks, forward thinking, long-term thinking that could break the cycle of poverty thinking in their own life, in their own family, and by extension, produce shift and change in the larger culture, in the larger society, in the larger community where the children come from and in the next generations of the children. Meanwhile, maintaining relationships of being able to relate and interrelate with the cultural community, their family community and their social community.

In terms of structure, we could identify three sides of the organisation: the director side, the business “parents” side and the children side.

5.2 Implementation of Entrepreneurship Education in the Organisation

5.2.1 Opting for a “Family” Business Approach

The organisation utilized this mixture of an “uncle” house and non-formal “family” (quotation marks are used here because the “parent” and children were not family by blood) business approach out of several advantages: 1) emotional

security, 2) real-world business exposure, 3) learning by doing, 4) cultural and age appropriate norms.

The director viewed emotional security as one of the foundational aspects of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship is an activity involving risk taking. He deemed the “home” setting of this approach could provide a stable caring and peaceful calm setting for the children to begin with:

All of these kids, where they are now is far more secure than where they were. That’s base broad spectrum for emotional optimism and ability to take risks - it comes from emotional security.

As said earlier, the children assisted in daily tasks of the businesses as part of their day-to-day “family” life. For children as young as 4 years old, they participated in, for example, collecting eggs. For older children, they began paying attention learning the financials and how to keep track of the money by having the responsibility of keeping track of real money in real businesses, as well as customer care and learning best business practices. All of these happened in a “family” business setting where the children grew up in. The director thought this traditional family business approach was easy to manage with low overhead, easy to set up, easy to manage. Besides, it provided a richness of experience and exposure, opportunities of learning by doing and the ability to participate according to age appropriate norms based on the children’s development.

5.2.2 Constructing a Safety Net for Risk Taking

The director pointed out innovation was not a prevalent concept in the context. Most people up in that mountain mainly replicated businesses from other people. They might not try different practices due to uncertainty that might result in great loss in life (especially when government supports were absent). Sometimes, when the director suggested a tweak or discussed with the staff about doing something differently, they might say, “That doesn’t work. We’re not comfortable doing that. We can’t run that business effectively. We can’t train anyone in doing it. It’s gonna be too much difficulty, too much overhead.”

Although he did not insist on his way of doing, he still thought it was important to cultivate attitudes of innovation and risk taking in the children so that they and their next generations could break the cycle of poverty. To this end, he tried providing a safety net for risk taking, especially to older children, through case studies, funding/investment, and encouragement of experiencing failure.

One thing he planned to do in the future would be to experiment with launching different businesses as case studies for the children. *"In entrepreneurship, you have to launch a business, it's not just running a business."* Through this, children could be exposed to risk taking and to the processes of launching a business. He hoped their medium-term success would be children that have been with the organisation longer having business and ideas that they would like to try out, the organisation would participate with them as investors and culturer for them to actually start a business, rather than obtaining a degree or certificate in entrepreneurship.

Another method he did was to provide funding or investment and engage in working with the children's plans. He illustrated, some older children demonstrated an aptitude and the organisation started working with them to plan ventures that they would invest in, whether it was funding them going to trade school, or helping them to start a motorcycle mechanic shop:

We've begun encouraging them and said, 'Yeah, think of something, look around your community. Look for problems, look at ways that might be able to solve that problem, and then look at ways to monetise your solution'. We'll work with them. If it's interesting and they have thought of it, we'll go ahead and we'll look for opportunities invest in their ideas. They can take a risk and try doing something, and then succeed to fail.

On the other hand, the director also attempted to provide a safety net for them to actually experience failure.

As the kids are becoming more of age to have a cognitive capacity to come up with ideas for ventures, we move into encouraging them to plan ventures that we'll then invest in and help them to try something, so they can risk failure and see just failure alone doesn't kill them. Then we work on making financial judgements and such, if you're gonna risk money, you need to be wise about how much you risk, etc. by learning that failure alone doesn't kill you.

In short, he wished to provide them experiences of success, failure and risk-taking in a safety net that allowed them take risks without dying. *"That's part of*

the base nature of the Home – providing emotional security, providing a foundation for being able to open for risk taking.”

5.2.3 Prioritising Local Leadership

The director emphasised three key points in the implementation: collaborative decision making, mixture of skills from the three sides, and cultural relatability.

By collaborative decision making and cultural relatability, he referred to aiming for local ownership and local leadership of all the projects they did, rather than having a foreigner coming in and being the “great white guy” saviour and breadwinner. He said,

There are some things that I can do that make a difference that other people here can't do, but if I do it wrong, it makes me more problems than if I've never showed up in the first place, so it's a difficult situation.

He mentioned there were some things that he would want to teach in a different way sometimes, he would do it on occasion, but their goal was to have the situation as culturally relevant and culturally consistent as possible, as much coming through the culture rather than impose on the culture.

We could also see there was a mixture of skills from the three sides. Sometimes, the director went up to the mountain and provide seminar-level training in marketing, product development, business model development and brainstorming for problem solving. While the business “parents” ran the businesses, the children exerted efforts taught by the director side, such as computer tool usage.

Some of the things, the kids are actually more equipped to do than the staff. From the older kids especially, they know how to run Excel. The staff “parents”, they don't know how to run Excel. They do the finances by hand and the kids run it in Excel, so there's a mixture of qualification but we choose the businesses for that match of qualifications and skillsets that we have on hand and that match financial viability, particularly local financial viability.

5.2.4 Adopting Short Supply Chain Businesses

The organisation preferred not to run businesses that depended on a long supply chain because they were fragile to the local community and could not offer the local people a stake in the outcome. Besides, the children would not be able to

have exposure to customer care. The director indicated that many foundations had families or children made handicrafts then sold them in North America at a premium price, but it was a long complicated supply and marketing chain fragile to local market forces. He preferred businesses that actually provided for the sustainability of the Home and that everyone could have a stake in the outcome of the business - this is the key point of a family business in the director's opinion. Moreover, the businesses consisted of local supply chains and local customer bases, all the money stayed local. Everyone could see what happened with the money.

There's big respect to the community. The children experience respect from the community and the Home in general. One of the things that we do is run a rice mill and we're in the process of putting other rice mills out of business because we run it better than anyone else. The children are receiving a share of that honour from running the best business in the community.

5.2.5 Holding a Flexible, Responsive, Lenient Attitude

As the director came from a home schooling background, he was comfortable working with flexible learning environment and found that worked well for the development of individual learners. They tried being as flexible and responsive as possible. For example, the organisation also made traditional style of sweeping brooms. There was a girl who decided when she was 6 or 7 that she was going to sell brooms to all of her teachers in school. The director illustrated,

For this girl who said, "I want to do this," she started doing it and we ask her how she's doing it, give her encouragement and giving pointers on how to interact in that sort of way, because she just wanted to do it! It's not like, "Okay, now you're the salesperson, you're going to learn sales," definitely not at 7. She developed an aptitude and the desire to do it. We worked with that in flexibility that way.

For older children, he would encourage them by having a stake in their life. For example, there was a 16-year-old boy whom the organisation was funding him going to trade school. The director expressed,

As soon as he wants to go to trade school and learn to be a motorcycle mechanic, we've said it, 'If you want to start a shop up here, we'll go ahead and help you, help the finances, to start a shop, and you can run your own business. Carrying through, if you want to go to university, we'll try and help you into university. If you want to start a business, we'll work on helping you start a business, invest in your plans and goals.'

Although the children were expected to participate in the business and entrepreneurship education aspects of family life, yet they were not forced to do so. They were encouraged to do it at the level of their emotional capacity, at the level of their psychological and developmental capacity as with all other assets in the life of the home:

Some of them do have significant emotional issues and if they need to just sit and be listened to or talk and sit and be quiet, they go do that. We aim at a very gentle interaction with the kids.

5.3 Challenges

According to the director, the major challenge of implementing entrepreneurship education on unaccompanied/orphaned children was instilling mindsets of innovation, risk-taking, long-term thinking and planning into that culture. The culture was resourceful in a way in the sense that the “family parents” already ran their own businesses which provided a real-world entrepreneurial learning-by-doing environment for the children to grow up in; however, innovation was not a prevalent notion in that culture. The director illustrated,

There’s resistance to change, to risk-taking, and there’s difficulty in long-term thinking and planning. [...] People start business like crazy out here, but you’ll have 5 shops in one block of house that all sell the same thing. One person starts selling it because their neighbor is successful in selling it, so they say, ‘Oh, I’m going to do the same thing because they are successful.’

The mindset of following the leader, lack of innovation and risk-taking were challenges in the director’s perspective. Breaking into that cultural grip-lock was a slow process. The director was still learning how to do it more effectively.

When asked about what might have hindered innovation and risk-taking in that culture, the director observed that being a small village of tribal agrarian society and growing up in poverty for many generations could be the limiting factors:

Agrarian culture is inherently conservative. You don’t change things because the way you’ve done it has captured your life for generations, so you don’t master something that works. Another thing is, as far as the research that I’ve come to understand, one of the aspects of a poverty-induced mindset, is a lack of innovation, you stick with what you know. You fear change. It seems there’s a cultural fear of originality. If you do something different, you might fail. And fear of failure is stronger than optimism for the possibility of succeeding. Part of that comes from agrarian society, part of that comes from poverty,

because if you fail, you'll die. So you don't take risks and it develops as a social-cultural mindset that's chained in.

The director concluded fear of failure was stronger in a poor agrarian culture than other cultures. He was working on shifting people's mentality from fear of doing something different. That was why providing emotional security and a safety net for risk-taking were part of their strategies as mentioned in the previous section. Other methods they tried were to encourage mindset shifts in how people were raised, to encourage the thoughts of being okay to take risks, and to encourage long term planning through influencing parents' attitudes, casual comments and actions bit by bit. Yet, the director was unsure how effective it would be to the children in the next 5 years.

6 DISCUSSION

Upon discovering how entrepreneurial education was implemented in the organisation, this chapter now examines the “family”-business education adopted by the organisation under Sustainable Livelihood Framework and explains what potentials this kind of education could offer to the children speaking of laying a foundation for sustainable livelihood. Considering this approach also largely echoes to the educational perspective of constructivism, the second section of this chapter also discusses possible contributes of this approach in terms of learning.

6.1 Potentials of the “Family” Business Approach In Laying Foundation of Sustainable Livelihood

When it comes to analysis of sustainable livelihood, Scoones (1998) suggests applying the train of thought as below:

Given a particular *context*, what combination of *livelihood resources* (different types of ‘capital’) result in the ability to follow what combination of *livelihood strategies* with what *outcomes*? Of particular interest in this framework are the institutional *processes* (embedded in a matrix of formal and informal institutions and organisations) which mediate the ability to carry out such strategies and achieve (or not) such outcomes (p.3).

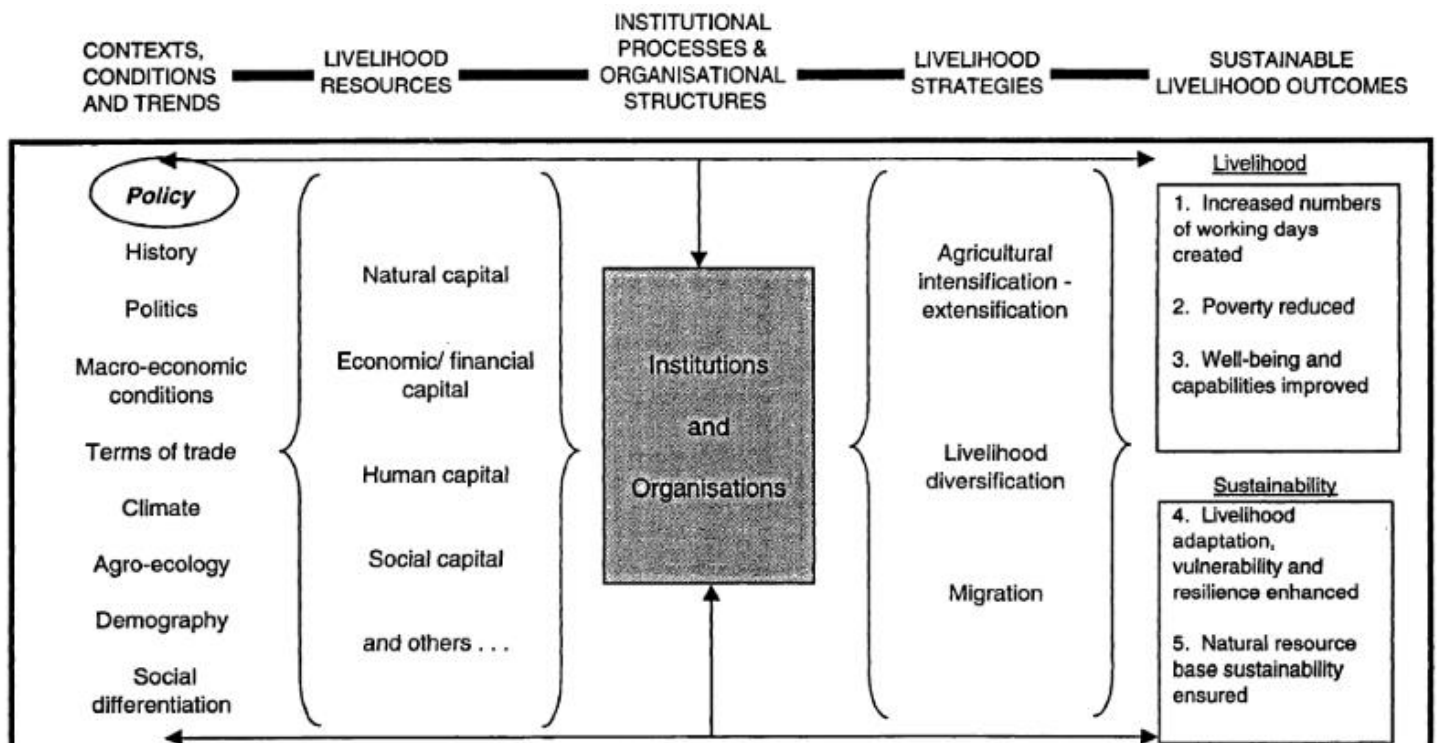


FIGURE 3. Sustainable Livelihood Framework and examples of its components (ibid.).

Figure 3 above is a revisit of the framework from the literature. In the case of this study, the *context* which called for sustainable livelihood in the first place was parental absence that lasted for an uncertain period of time. Poverty and marginalisation due to geological location were also other reasons for parental absence because the children's parents moved to cities for job seeking purposes. Thus, in this context, lack of parental companionship and poverty were the causes of vulnerabilities of the children.

In order to reduce such vulnerabilities, the organisation stepped in in collaboration with local "families" who already had their own businesses. They became the mediating *processes and structures*.

The role of the organisation and "families" here was to strengthen *livelihood assets* for the children. This is particularly evident regarding *social capital* because the "family" setting undoubtedly provided emotional security and family-like surrounding to the children. When the children expressed an aptitude in business idea, this social network of director and "family" catered to their needs by encouraging and guiding them in business thinking. This "family"

business setting carried another function because it strengthened *human capital* as well. The “family” itself was a real-world learning environment for the children to get exposure to business life under the idea of learning “through” local short-supply-chain businesses. The director did mention competition existed between their rice farm and other rice farms. This also could expose children to competition in real world. Other human capital supports included consultation, seminar-level trainings and computational knowledge teaching such as creating financial spreadsheets on Excel. Regarding *financial capital*, it was not directly available to the children but was available as an equity investment if the business ideas suggested by the children were doable. Although natural capital provided for their rice farm business, natural capital was not directly relevant nor available to the children in this case. Physical capital was not prominent to the children in this case either, although one family did rely on vehicles to run their school bus business. However, the organisation supplied machines and tools on a rent to own contract basis.

In terms of livelihood strategy, under the influence of the “family” business environment, some children did show signs of putting “household” assets into business ideas, such as that 7-year-old girl who lived with a broom manufacturing family expressed ambition in selling brooms to her class.

In terms of livelihood outcome, at least vulnerabilities were reduced, emotional security was increased, knowledge of business, preliminary understanding of innovation and risk started to set stage.

Besides, this approach echoes to the core principles of sustainable livelihood – people centred and co-development. Cultural divergence did exist in the case of this study. In the American director’s point of view, innovation and positive risk-taking are conducive to the longevity of a business and can slowly breaks the cycle of poverty mindset. On the contrary, most of the local people or “home parents” were unsure about taking different practices due to uncertainty avoidance. The director expressed that the environment he grew up in (i.e. California) highly advocated innovation and positive risk-taking. However, considering the context where safety net was fragile, he would not insist what he

would have preferred, otherwise the situation would be worse than he had never showed up in the first place, as he stated. This echoes to the people-centred principle of sustainable livelihood: completely involves people and respects their opinions. On the other hand, we can identify co-development in the approach. For example, the director emphasised local leadership (that was also the reason why he adopted short-supply-chain businesses) so that everybody could take part in the process. Even the children could take part in the process by engaging in daily tasks such as performing financial record. There was a mix of skills-sets in day-to-day practices.

6.2 Potentials of the Approach in the Light of Constructivist Perspective

This non-formal “family” approach also possesses constructivist elements from a learning point of view. This non-formal “family” business approach is based on the notion of learning by experience which is the core of constructivist perspective.

Experience plays an important role in constructivism as well as in the case of this study. This philosophy assumes that knowledge is constructed by individuals’ experience, which is very different from merely transferring factual knowledge. Factual knowledge or information can be acquired by reading and listening, yet experience can only be obtained by doing (Löbler, 2006). That is why learning by experience is a suitable approach in entrepreneurial education.

Another reason this philosophy is suitable because it assumes that we do not learn for the sake of discovering reality or factual information, but we learn to be adaptive. As Löbler (2006) put it,

The purpose of education is not simply the acquisition of information and skills. It includes the development of skills to organize and successfully cope with the world of experience (p.28).

This philosophy put learners at an active position while teachers only support them learners to seek answers (see Table 4).

TABLE 4. Overview of entrepreneurship education in a constructivist perspective (ibid.)

Focus on	Process
Teaching	Supporting learning
Goal of education	Learning to live, autonomy, the ability of self-governing
Role of learner	Active producer
Role of teacher	Assistant of the learner
Sources of information	All sources available
Inducement for getting information	Student's demand
Who is governing the learning process?	Student
Interaction between	Students, teacher is not excluded
Activities	Doing, thinking, talking

Löbler (2006) suggests several principles on teaching entrepreneurship education with a constructivist perspective as follows: 1) make students undergo activities: This stimulates learners to come up with good questions within the process. If the questions are openly discussed, learners can reflect on their experience. Subsequently, new knowledge can emerge in their mind. Teachers are not expected to provide answers but are expected to address questions instead. It is learners' autonomy to create their own answer. By putting teachers in a passive "coaching" position, learners are put into a self-governed "driver's seat". From this self'-governed learning style, learners are able to construct and deconstruct what they have learnt. Therefore, own concepts and idea can flourish from the process. 2) Let learners be their own goal-setters while teachers provide them supports. Despite learners may not always be able to define their own learning goals, with the help of teachers' support in finding out what learners are interested in, learners can learn in a more motivated, interested and responsible way in order to achieve their own goals. 3) Offer content to learners "on demand" instead of the one "prescribed" by the teachers in advance. This principle is particularly evident in the case of this study. The entrepreneurship education was not offered as a compulsory curriculum. The director made it clear that

despite the seven-year-old girl had a business idea about selling brooms to her class, the director would not teach her about sales in a formal sense, definitely not at the age of seven. Instead, when the children had ideas in mind, the director would listen to how the children were going to do it and provided guidelines accordingly. This way, learning content was derived “on demand” from learners’ ideas rather than being imposed by teachers. 4) Classical test should not be the evaluation tool: as long as the “final products” or the “systems” created by learners function well, learning outcome is achieved. 5) Learning activities should incorporate interaction and sociocognitive conflict: sociocognitive conflict involves arguing, this can deepen reasoning and logical skills. Yet the premise should lay on learners’ willingness to learn during the process. 6) Make sure learners can be exposed to different aspects of information. 7) Encourage learners to use or combine different information: this may lead them to discern opportunities from different angles. 8) Teachers should avoid dishing out solutions to problems and should not say what is right or wrong. Even if learners or teachers find out problems in learners’ works, teachers may try to allow students to argue with their preconceived knowledge and teachers can question the problem by providing a reflection process. Questioning the problem can lead students to think from a new perspective. 9) Encourage autonomy among learners. 10) Cooperate with learners with fun, spark interest in learning among learners and believe in their abilities. In sum, this approach allows flexibility and responsiveness in entrepreneurial education.

6.3 Limitations & Suggestions for Future Research

Unfortunately, this research is not able to thoroughly measure livelihood outcomes (a component of Sustainable Livelihood Framework) because, as the director mentioned, the programme has not been that long. Thus, longitudinal research would be interesting in the future in order to have a broader view of the education approach and its influence on later years in life of the children and their competencies developed.

Future research may also explore other safety net construction methods with less material-dependent approaches. As the director mentioned constructing a safety net was particularly important in that context in order for the people to try innovation and risk taking; while the “parents” were rather reserved in doing things differently partly due to too much overhead. However, as technology and computers are becoming widely accessible than before, there are also other modes of business that do not require physical commodities. The organisation may consider integrating other business modes that are less material-dependent as other options for the children to experience business.

In conclusion, the research data informs us a clearer understanding of a feasible option regarding entrepreneurial education implementation on orphaned/unaccompanied children from an early stage. In the context of this research, the “family” business approach is conducive to building the foundation of sustainable livelihood for the children, especially human, social and financial capitals. Also, this approach is people-centred, culturally responsive and is based on a co-development principle. Besides, this “family” business approach allows opportunities for the children to learn “through” entrepreneurship by doing and exposing to the real business world. The concern in this context is that positive attitude towards risk taking and innovation is somewhat difficult to be instilled in people’s mind. From the perspective of the director, this situation may be improved by providing safety net and by expanding financial capital. This paper does not aim to prescribe a fixed formula on how to implement entrepreneurial education on these children because contexts and the people involved may differ. Instead, this paper intends to draw experience from a particular context and co-construct knowledge to the larger society so that people working in relevant fields could consider part of the dimensions of the approach where they see fit.

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APPENDIX

Interview questions

A: General questions

1. Is your area on the Burma and Thailand border?
2. What are the main societal factors causing poverty in the area?
3. What is the age range of the children?
4. Are all of them orphans and children at risks?
5. For the very young children, do they attend regular school?
6. I would like to know more about the “family” business framework you told me last time. From what age do you provide this framework? What about older children?
7. You put the word “family” in quotation marks. How does it work?
8. Some of the children may have trauma and unstable emotions because of being at risks, how do you engage them to start entrepreneurial education?
9. Why do you choose this kind of “family” business approach instead of others?
10. What is your ultimate goal of this kind of education?
11. What is your next step for the children?
12. Have you ever encountered any big challenges when providing education to the children?

B: Semi-planned questions

13. How are the families qualified as providers of such educational services?
14. How many years have you been doing this “family” business approach?
15. Have you seen long-term benefits yet?
16. How did you feel that the benefits of this approach would outweigh any of the drawbacks?

- C: Unplanned probing questions upon hearing new information
17. You think that formal entrepreneurship education is not culturally or age appropriate for that age. Why do you think so?
 18. I used to think you provided both regular and entrepreneurial education to the children. As you've just said, they attend public regular school. In terms of education, does your organisation act as a supplementary role providing entrepreneurial education?
 19. Do the children go to that family business organisation daily or do they just go there once several months?
 20. In daily life, do the children live with the business parents instead of their original parents?
 21. You said earlier that you're careful not to make it your business gear as like a child labour, kind of thing, are there any perception in that kind of society is that what you're doing? Did you ever experienced any backlash from the society where people had made this kind of comments to you?
 22. Have you modeled this kind of family approach on other successful models or have you based it on academic research?
 23. What is the reason hindering innovation in that society?
 24. You mentioned by Facebook Chat that you try to provide a safety net for risk taking, is that more on an emotional level or is that in classical ways?
 25. Will you expand the "family" model nationwide? Or the society will scale the model up?