HUMAN TRAFFICKING AND EDUCATION:
A QUALITATIVE CASE STUDY OF
TWO NGO PROGRAMS IN THAILAND

by

ROBERT WEBER SPIRES
(Under the Direction of Diane Brook Napier)

ABSTRACT

In this qualitative, ethnographic case study, I examine two Thai NGO shelters/schools working with human trafficking survivors and at-risk populations of children ages 5-18. The two NGOs had a residential component, meaning that children live at the shelter, and an educational component, meaning that children are taught academic and vocational skills. Education is a key intervention in the mission of both NGOs, and education is treated as a means of preventing human trafficking and protecting human trafficking survivors from returning to exploitative situations. The controversial definition of human trafficking and the continuum of vulnerability between at-risk populations and human trafficking victims are discussed. I explored the issues of statelessness and poverty through interviews with students, teachers and staff at the NGOs. I conducted observations in the NGO settings and in the broader Thai context by using ethnographic field notes. I described changes at the NGOs over time through a detailed account of specific aspects of the NGOs. I discussed NGO efforts to reduce the vulnerability of children, and the barriers that both children and NGOs face in vulnerability reduction efforts. Findings reflected the complex and multifaceted nature of vulnerability to human trafficking and other
forms of exploitation for children in Southeast Asia. Finally, I discussed the interconnectedness of global issues of migration, statelessness, poverty within the local social context.

INDEX WORDS: Human Trafficking, Hill Tribe, Thailand, Burma, Border, Education, NGO, At-Risk Children, Vulnerability, Statelessness, Street Children, Vocational, Education, Undocumented Immigrants, Migration, Non-Formal Education, Southeast Asia,
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HUMAN TRAFFICKING AND EDUCATION:
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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to the teachers, staff and children at DEPDC and CPDC, who welcomed me so generously into their lives, and my wife, Amy, and daughter, Jane Claire, whose patience and support made this possible.
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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

**LIST OF FIGURES**

**LIST OF TABLES**

**CHAPTER**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 THE PROBLEM</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background to the Problem</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rationale</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goals for the Study</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives for the Study</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Questions</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study Methods</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study Significance</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The State of Human Trafficking Research</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalization and Education</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 METHOD</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design of the Study</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td>Title</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td>Theoretical Perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77</td>
<td>Data Types</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Research Settings, Sampling, Access</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86</td>
<td>Roles of the Researcher, Subjectivity and Bias</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88</td>
<td>Logistical Issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92</td>
<td>Data Collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95</td>
<td>Analysis of Data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103</td>
<td>Demonstrating Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108</td>
<td>Gaps in the Data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4  HUMAN TRAFFICKING AND EDUCATION:  
THE CASE OF DEPDC AND CPDC  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEPDC’s Basic Characteristics and Features</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPDC’s Basic Characteristics and Features</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes Over Time at DEPDC and CPDC</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thematic Findings</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaps in the Data</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5  DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Themes that Emerged</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universal Issues</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations of the Study</td>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges in the Field</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions for Future Research for Myself and Others</td>
<td>206</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Conclusion 209

## REFERENCES 211

## APPENDICES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>Pilot Study report</th>
<th>237</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.1</td>
<td>Pilot Study Proposal</td>
<td>268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.2</td>
<td>Pilot Study Forms</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Photo-reference Index</td>
<td>299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Interview Guides for the Dissertation Study</td>
<td>309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Permission Forms for the Dissertation Study</td>
<td>315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Letter of Consent from Mahidol University, Bangkok Thailand</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Letter of Permission from NRCT to Conduct Dissertation Research</td>
<td>321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Letter of Permission to Conduct Research at DEPDC</td>
<td>322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Letter of Permission to Conduct Pilot Study Research</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>IRB Continuing Review Amendment</td>
<td>324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>IRB Application</td>
<td>326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The revised methological ingredients for the dissertation study based</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>on the pilot study experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sample open coding of interview transcripts using Microsoft Word</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sample of field notes categories</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sample of memo reflecting on interview data, from July 13, 2011</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Initial sub-categorizing the problems category</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Initial sub-grouping of transcripts for categories using Microsoft Word</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Sample of color coding using Microsoft Word</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Overall categorization of the data in Chapter Four</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Map of Thailand with Mae Sai, DEPDC’s location distinguished</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Schedule of the Child Voice Radio taken from a brochure (DEPDC, 2011)</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Map of Thailand showing Pattaya, the location of CPDC, in relation to DEPDC</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td><em>Problems</em> theme with subcategories</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Subcategories of the <em>statelessness</em> theme</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Poverty theme with sub-themes</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td><em>Other problems</em> as a theme</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td><em>Benefits</em> for individual children provided by the NGOs</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td><em>Goals</em> of the children</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Research matrix</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The number of students in the Patak Half-Day School for 2009-2011 by grade</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Number of instances of themes and sub-themes by teachers and staff, and by students</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1
THE PROBLEM

The connection between education and human trafficking prevention has not been clearly delineated in the literature, yet many common elements exist (Jantraka, 2001). Scholars argue that Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO) working on the prevention of human trafficking and the protection of human trafficking victims need to be more closely examined for a more complete understanding of the work they are doing, the issues that they face and the needs of the organizations, as well as those served by the organizations (Laczko, 2005). I conducted this study in three consecutive summers from 2009 to 2011, and I situated my study within the context of research in the field of human trafficking. I argued for the need of more in-depth examination of the issues at work in NGO-run shelter-schools in Thailand in order to more fully understand the human trafficking and education issues within the Thai context.

Introduction

Human trafficking is a global issue and is claimed to be the second largest and the fastest growing, criminal activity world-wide, in terms of money and the number of criminals involved, behind illicit drugs and ahead of illicit weapons (Bales, 2005). Human trafficking is a widespread global social problem which entails force or coercion, as well as transport of people for the purposes of labor and exploitation, yet many people around the world are not even aware of the issue. The number of actual victims of human trafficking is highly contested because of the hidden nature of human trafficking (Laczko, 2005), although many scholars agree that the problem is serious and the number of victims world-wide is large (Bales, 2008; Batstone, 2007;
Laczko, 2005; Skinner, 2008; United States Department of State, 2010). Some estimates have the number of human trafficking victims at over 20 million people world-wide (Bales, 2005). However, there is very little reliable data to support these figures (Laczko, 2005).

Human trafficking is a social justice issue affecting marginalized people world-wide, and human trafficking has been addressed in varying degrees by international organizations and national governments, by NGOs, as well as by local authorities. Although the problem has continued to be widespread in Thailand (Asia Watch Report, 1993; United States Department of State, 2011b) so are the attempts to address the practice. Both labor- and sex-trafficking are significant problems in Thailand – Thailand is considered a destination, source, and transit country for human trafficking throughout the literature (Biemann, 2005) – particularly due to Thailand’s relative affluence compared to other Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS) countries.

In the 2010 United States Department of State Trafficking in Persons Report (TIP), Thailand was moved to the Tier 2 Watch List ranking. Thailand remains at the Tier 2 Watch List level for the 2011 TIP report as well. The State Department TIP Report Tier system consists of three tiers. Tier 2 ranking means that Thailand is not complying with the Trafficking Victims Protection Act’s (TVPA)

minimum standards, but are making significant efforts to bring themselves into compliance with those standards AND: a) the absolute number of victims of severe forms of trafficking is very significant or is significantly increasing; b) there is a failure to provide evidence of increasing efforts to combat severe forms of trafficking in persons from the previous year, including increased investigations, prosecution, and convictions of trafficking crimes, increased assistance to victims, and decreasing evidence of complicity in severe forms of trafficking by government officials; or, c) the
determination that a country is making significant efforts to bring themselves into
compliance with minimum standards was based on commitments by the country to take
additional steps over the next year. (United States Department of State, 2010, p. 23)

As a result, a variety of NGOs operate in Thailand and the surrounding areas with a
variety of purposes including, but not limited to, education, care, protection and rehabilitation of
rescued victims of trafficking. Unlike many of the macro-level actors in the fight against human
trafficking such as the United Nations and national governments, these NGOs are of particular
interest to me because of their grassroots, micro-level work. The NGOs examined in this study
work with disadvantaged and exploited people, attempting to improve these people’s life
chances, looking after their social and emotional well-being and helping them to integrate back
into society to live as safe, normal, and productive a life as possible. In this study, I explored the
issues facing students, teachers and staff, and the educational practices being used, in two NGOs
in Thailand that work to educate and rehabilitate victims of human trafficking, and children
considered at-risk of trafficking and exploitation, as described by Jantraka (2001). How human
trafficking victims and at-risk populations are defined by these organizations varies, but are
generally described on their websites and in the organizations’ literature (Child Protection and
Development Center, n.d.a; DEPDC, n.d.c). Exploring the issues that these NGOs and the
individuals face helped me to understand the complexity of the work conducted at these NGOs.
Examining what educational practices are used, and why, has provided information that may be
of relevance to other NGOs or educators that work with the same or similar populations.
Overall, I explored the work of individuals and groups who work to educate and rehabilitate
children from traumatic circumstances, particularly victims of human trafficking and at-risk
populations of children as defined by these organizations, and the issues facing the children themselves.

During the process of completing my dissertation study, the initial goals of the study shifted. At the bequest of my dissertation committee, I undertook a pilot study for the project in the summer of 2010 (see Appendix A: Pilot Study Report) at two NGOs in Thailand, Development and Education Programme for Daughters and Communities (DEPDC), and Child Protection and Development Center (CPDC). DEPDC is located in Northern Thailand and serves human trafficking victims and at-risk populations of children, as defined by their organization. CPDC is located near the southeastern coast of Thailand and serves human trafficking victims, street children and at-risk children from area slums.

I initially wanted to understand how student/teacher relationship building was incorporated into the education programs of these two NGOs. I set out to describe, through observations, field notes, interviews, and document analysis how these NGO-run shelters and schools take up the everyday task of educating students who are former victims of human trafficking or from populations considered at-risk of human trafficking as described by Jantraka (2001). I began the pilot study with an operating assumption that social capital and relationship building with students at the shelters are crucial to the successful education and rehabilitation of trafficking victims and prevention of their returning to vulnerable circumstances or trafficking situations. However, the pilot study allowed me an opportunity to gain a broader perspective on the issues at work in these NGOs, proving to be immensely important to my understanding of the human trafficking issue. The pilot study informed my outlook in a variety of ways (see Appendix A: Pilot Study Report). It helped to change the focus of my dissertation research from relationship building as the key element necessary in the success of vulnerable students, to a
more refined and complex view of the input and output factors pushing children into trafficking, and preventing them from returning to trafficking situations. These factors include student/teacher relationship building, yet other elements that emerged during the pilot study became much more significant and they were more closely examined in the dissertation study.

I initially wanted to understand how these shelters function, and examine whether relationship building is a factor in the NGO’s efforts by teachers, staff, and students (see Appendix A: Pilot Study Report). I was interested in how teachers, staff and students determined NGO educational program success. I was also interested in whether successful student/teacher relationship building, in concert with educational strategies and practices, is important in educating students from trafficking situations, and how this effectiveness is defined by teachers, staff, and students. In order to determine effectiveness, I initially intended to combine evidence from interviews, observations, and document analysis in my pilot study and again on a larger scale in the dissertation study. Based on preliminary findings from the pilot study, I updated the study goals and features. The pilot study helped me to begin to understand the issues differently. Therefore, the dissertation study clarified the importance of the complex set of issues impacting both the NGOs and the children being served. Understanding how the NGOs and children worked within complex societal pressures gave me a more comprehensive understanding of the political, economic and social context within which human trafficking prevention must function in Thailand.

The pilot study produced six key findings that were important in addition to the issue of student-teacher relationships. First, the issue of student access to and opportunity for education emerged as an important theme. Second, the issues of poverty and vulnerability were also prevalent themes. Third, in terms of education, student-centered and holistic approaches to
education used by the personnel of the NGOs was an important element to student success. Fourth, although social capital building, in terms of establishing connections with other individuals and groups, was taking place in various ways, I found a lack of evidence of social capital building on behalf of the students. Fifth, one unanticipated finding was the importance of the issues of statelessness, citizenship, and documentation of children in the region, and the connection of these issues to human trafficking. Sixth, one of the most important issues was the issue of student retention at the NGOs, in terms of keeping older students in the education program, rather than those students leaving the program prior to completion.

As I approached the pilot study, I conceptualized social capital, as described by Portes (1998) as the central factor on which the success or failure of these students, in my terms, the teachers’ terms and the students’ terms, depended (see Appendix A). Although I uncovered some elements of social capital building taking place in the educational programs of these NGOs during the pilot study, statelessness, poverty, vulnerability, access to education, and the educational approach of the NGOs appeared to be more important. Along with a lack of evidence of social capital building within the NGO, I also had difficulty finding evidence that the NGO shelters were attempting to foster relationships outside the shelter for the children. This community networking aspect of social capital building would likely have benefitted the students after leaving the shelters. Although the credentials of the NGOs educational programs may not be accepted by formal educational institutions (an issue that will be explored in Chapter 4), students have opportunities for further educational or career choices due to the connections made in the community through the NGOs. Looking at how other schools or educators increase student social capital by encouraging and developing connections between students and the larger community was certainly an aim of the pilot study, but I was also alerted to an alarming
trend of older students dropping out of the NGOs educational programs prior to graduation. As
the pilot study progressed, my understanding of the issues changed and social capital shifted to
become just one of several key factors rather than the central factor. In the dissertation study, I
approached the research setting with these additional key issues in mind.

**Statement of the Problem**

The problem related to the dissertation study centered on examining the nature of
educational interventions of human trafficking victims and at-risk populations on reducing
vulnerability to trafficking. Research on human trafficking has grown in recent years and debate
over what elements of human trafficking need to be studied is growing (Chang & Kim, 2009;
Laczko, 2005). This research is largely concentrated by type and location in specific fields of
study. Research into human trafficking focuses largely on macro-level studies sponsored by
international entities such as the United Nations, national governments and other large-scale
actors (DeStephano, 2008; Laczko, 2005; Minorities at Risk Project, 2004; United States
Department of State, 2009; World Bank, 2009). Another vein of human trafficking research
focuses on individual case studies of the experiences of victims of human trafficking during the
time of their exploitation and victimization (Batstone, 2007; Bowe, 2008).

Relatively little is known about how NGOs and other micro- and meso-level actors’
work to rehabilitate and educate victims after their removal from exploitative and traumatic
circumstances (Arnold and Bertone, 2007; Brackin, 1999; D’Agnes, 2001; Oh & Van Der
Stouwe, 2008; Tzvetkova, 2002). Scholars argue that statistical data on human trafficking are
unreliable and incomplete at the national and international levels (Laczko, 2005). Laczko (2005)
argued for more “systematic studies of the role of actors involved in the fight against trafficking,
such as service providers, law enforcement agencies and NGOs” (2005, p. 14), and both
comparative and longitudinal studies in the human trafficking field. Therefore, exploratory and descriptive work on micro-level actors in the field is necessary in order to begin to understand the complexities of their work. Furthermore, clear understanding of the connections between human trafficking and education is needed, particularly because education is seen by many as a means of prevention and protection for vulnerable people (Jantakra, 2001). My study aimed for a more comprehensive understanding of the connections between human trafficking and education through exploring the processes, interactions, issues and features of two NGOs shelter schools in Thailand. My study also aimed at exploring the impact of issues such as statelessness, access to education, poverty and vulnerability, social capital on the work of NGO shelter schools in Thailand, specifically the issue of retention of older students through the completion of these education programs.

**Background to the Problem**

Human trafficking involves force or coercion, as well as transport, of people for the purposes of labor and various forms of exploitation. Yet, this issue does not get the public attention necessary to combat the problem from local to global levels despite the many individuals and organizations working to address human trafficking, and despite the growth in the field of human trafficking research (Laczko, 2005). Roth (2004) illustrated the importance of the media in bringing attention to this social issue. In Thailand, a variety of NGOs operate with a variety of purposes including, but not limited to, education and rehabilitation of rescued victims of trafficking as well as work to prevent exploitation of at-risk populations (Arnold & Bertone, 2007; Asia Watch, 1993; Beyrer & Stachowiak, 2003; Delaney, 2006). Human trafficking, as a field of research, is in its early stages, and connections to other disciplines have only begun to be established in the literature (Laczko, 2005). However, attention to the subject
has rapidly grown in recent years garnering an increase in research, policy and practice. Estimates of the size and scope of the issue are unreliable, in part due to the hidden nature of human trafficking. Human trafficking has numerous dimensions, including historical, political, economic, and social aspects that need to be explored in depth in order to more fully understand this complex topic. These dimensions appear in my review of the literature in several fields of research, policy, and practice in Chapter Two.

**Rationale**

The study of human trafficking and the associated exploitation and oppression of people world-wide is a growing and important research field. I had a five-fold rationale for my dissertation study. First, I have an important personal reason for further study of the issue on moral grounds. I cannot sit idly by with extensive knowledge of the suffering of others without working to learn and to help.

Second, more scholarly research is needed to understand this phenomenon. Human trafficking, also referred to as modern slavery (Bales, 2005), is a disturbing reality in today’s globalized world, occurring in every country around the globe despite national and international laws prohibiting slavery (Chapkis, 2003; Kyle & Koslowski, 2001). Whether its existence is due to the growth of capitalism, globalization, the legacy of colonialism or a myriad of other phenomena is unclear, but human trafficking scholars agree that forms of slavery have not disappeared, and if anything, have become more prevalent in recent years (Bales, 2005).

Third, I conducted research on human trafficking for political reasons. Policies are in place worldwide that outlaw slavery and human trafficking (Chapkis, 2003; DeStephano, 2008). Yet, enforcement and prevention are far from realized around the world. Lawmakers, law enforcement, and numerous other stakeholders can reduce human trafficking through refining
policy, improving enforcement, reducing the financial benefits of human trafficking, increasing effective prosecution of traffickers, and increasing awareness and dialogue in the public discourse (Bales, 2005; Batstone, 2007). Therefore I recognized important policy-practice dimensions in my study.

Fourth, I explored connections between human trafficking prevention and education. Based on my experience as an educator, I consider education one of the most important factors to reducing vulnerability and marginalization of individuals. Agreement on education’s importance in development by large-scale actors is illustrated through the educational components of development projects around the globe (Vergas, 2009; World Bank, 2009). Education can take various forms depending on context, and how educational practices manifest and practitioners implement strategies in various settings can be as important as the content of the curriculum, knowledge and skills taught. More work is needed to understand the role of education in the prevention of human trafficking, and how education can be used to assist human trafficking victims and at-risk populations.

Fifth, Thailand is a notorious location for trafficking and the sex industry (Thailand’s sex trade, 1998; see Appendix B: plates 49-51), and it is particularly important as a location for study of human trafficking (Asia Watch Report, 1993; D’Agnes, 2001). Some scholars claim that there are large numbers of child victims of trafficking in Thailand (Jantraka, 2001), some of which are Thai and some of which are from elsewhere (McCaskill, Leepreecha, & Shaoying, 2008). Other scholars argue that current estimates of trafficking victims in the region are unreliable, over-used, and easily manipulated (Huijsmans & Baker, n.d.). Government agencies charged with assisting victims are overwhelmed, and a large number of NGOs operate in Thailand attempting to address the issue (United States Department of State, 2009). How these
NGOs operate is varied, yet a close examination of the daily operations, educational practices, and reintegration work of a small number of these can illuminate the complexities related to human trafficking, victims, poverty, marginalization, immigration, education, rehabilitation, and social capital building that may be insightful to others working with victims of exploitation in various forms, at-risk groups (Jantraka, 2001), and may be generalizable to other settings, agencies, actors or scenarios. I also aimed to show that despite the work of these NGOs, the complex issues that these organizations face are powerful and difficult to overcome.

Goals for the Study

The general goal of this study was to create a qualitative two-site case study using ethnographic methods. The study was intended to be exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory. As Yin (2009) stated, “A case study is an empirical inquiry that … investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real life context, especially when … the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 18). “A two-site case study covers two cases and draws cross-case conclusions” (p. 20).

The specific goals for this study shifted as the process continued from the pilot study (see Appendix A) to the development of the more comprehensive dissertation study. Within the overall problem on which this study centered (see p. 1), my specific goals for the dissertation study were to: 1) understand how NGOs in Thailand work to meet the needs of victims of human trafficking, 2) understand how NGOs prevent exploitation of at-risk populations, and 3) understand the issues that NGO teachers, staff, and the children they serve, face. Using interviews, observations, field notes and photographs, I explored the processes, interactions, issues, and features of these NGOs to better understand their work.
After my learning experiences and findings in the pilot study, I shifted my focus to the issues of statelessness, poverty and vulnerability, access to education, lack of social capital, immigration, and marginalization (Noguera, 2004). I explored how these issues can converge into pressures that impact students during the educational intervention of NGOs. Jantraka (2001) explored these issues, which force children into vulnerability to trafficking, particularly prostitution, despite educational intervention efforts of NGOs. Specifically, the two NGOs in Thailand that I examined were the Development and Education Programme for Daughters and Communities (DEPDC) (see Appendix B: plates 1-23, pp. 230-234) and the Pattaya School for Street Children, which has recently changed its name to the Child Protection and Development Center (CPDC) (Human Help Network Thailand, 2010, see Appendix B: plates 30-38). These two NGOs were the sites in my two-site case study.

Objectives for the Study

The objectives for meeting the general goal and specific goals of the dissertation study were as follows:

1. Establish a scholarly context for the human trafficking field through literature.

2. Explore the processes, interactions, issues and features of two NGOs in Thailand working with human trafficking survivors and at-risk populations through data collection and data analysis.

3. Examine the connections among the processes, interactions, issues and features of these NGOs and the retention of students in the programs by building the two-site case.

Objective One was met through the literature review (see Chapter Two). Objective Two was met through data collection described in Chapter Three and data analysis addressing my research questions. Objective three was met in Chapter Four in the development of the case.
Research Questions

The research questions for the pilot study are included in Appendix A, and the dissertation study research questions are included here. The research questions for the dissertation study were intended to be exploratory in nature (Creswell, 2007). Following the research questions, I included a research matrix to delineate the rationale, data types and analysis methods for each of the research questions.

1. What are the basic characteristics or features of two NGOs in Thailand?
2. What are the processes, interactions and issues of two NGOs in Thailand?
3. How do these processes, interactions, issues and features impact students, teachers and staff?
4. What contextual factors impact students?
5. How do these contextual factors impact students?

Table 1 presents a research matrix that delineates each research question, along with a rationale for the selected questions, data types, and methods of analysis.
Table 1.

Research matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Sources/Data Types</th>
<th>Analysis for all 5 questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What are the basic characteristics and features of two NGOs in Thailand?</td>
<td>Gaining teachers, staff and students perspectives on processes, interactions, issues and features may give a broader perspective.</td>
<td>-Interviews of students, staff, teachers, including transcripts and related memos</td>
<td>Constant Comparative Method (Glaser and Strauss, 1967)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Observations of students, staff, teachers, including field notes and memos</td>
<td>- informal content analysis and coding using themes and patterns throughout the research process.</td>
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<td>-Photos</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Documents</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. What are the processes, interactions and issues of two NGOs in Thailand?</td>
<td>Strategies that staff and teachers use to keep students in school may shed light on the issues that the students, teachers and staff face.</td>
<td>-Interviews of students, staff, teachers, including transcripts and related memos</td>
<td>Converging and diverging themes (Patton, 2002)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Observations of students, staff, teachers, including field notes and memos</td>
<td>Qualitative visual analysis of photos and documents for evidence of thematic findings, content and contextual details (Knoblauch, Baer, Laurier, Petschke, &amp; Schnettler, 2008)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Photos</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Documents</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. How do these processes, interactions, issues and features impact students, teachers and staff?</td>
<td>Large numbers of kindergarteners attend the DEPDC school and the number of students decrease as the grade level increases leaving few in grade six to complete the program. CPDC also has difficulty retaining children, particularly older children.</td>
<td>-Interviews of students, staff, teachers, including transcripts and related memos</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>-Observations of students, staff, teachers, including field notes and memos</td>
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<td>-Documents</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. What contextual factors impact students?</td>
<td>Issues at work in the broader community may influence student’s educational choices</td>
<td>-Interviews of students, staff, teachers, including transcripts and related memos</td>
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<td>-Observations of students, staff, teachers, including field notes and memos</td>
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<td>-Documents</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. How do these contextual factors impact students?</td>
<td>Issues at work in the broader community may influence student’s educational choices</td>
<td>-Interviews of students, staff, teachers, including transcripts and related memos</td>
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<td>-Observations of students, staff, teachers, including field notes and memos</td>
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<td>-Literature review</td>
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Study Methods

I used qualitative methods as employed in the pilot study, specifically utilizing observations with extensive field notes, and conducting semi-structured interviews with NGO teachers, staff, and students. Based on my pilot study experiences, I used DEPDC, in Mae Sai Thailand, as a primary location for observations and interviews. I also include CPDC in Pattaya Thailand, as a site for interviews and observations. Due to the location of the organization, the population of children served, and communication issues with the organization, access to CPDC was not as reliable or predictable as DEPDC. In Chapter Three, I explain the research methodology in all respects.

Study Significance

The dissertation study addressed many important issues discussed in the literature on human trafficking and it provides insight into the specific experiences of NGO staff and the children they serve. This study takes a macro-level discussion of human trafficking and through the lens of the local case explores the realities of human trafficking prevention on the ground. Laczko (2005) argued that more information is needed on micro-level actors in order to understand how often-studied national and international dimensions of human trafficking play out at the local level.

This study addressed the paucity of the literature on local-level human trafficking prevention efforts. The study also illustrated specific examples of the macro-level issues at work in the local context. The study findings on grass-roots, small scale, and local efforts at human trafficking prevention may also offer insight into many of the issues that act as barriers to successful human trafficking prevention and protection programs.
As the TIP Report (United States Department of State, 2011b) and scholars such as Laczko (2005) illustrated, much work is needed to curb the practice of human trafficking worldwide. Much attention is placed on the national level government’s efforts to address human trafficking but social and political obstacles can overpower prevention and protection efforts. Though case study research is not generalizable, insights gained can apply to other cases and other contexts. Human trafficking is accepted as a global human rights and social justice issue (United States Department of State, 2011), yet the efforts of grassroots actors help to illuminate the global elements within the local context. Grassroots actors can benefit from understanding the work of other grassroots actors by learning about the issues that these actors face, and the ways that they overcome obstacles to their work.

However, the local context of this study is also highly unique, and many elements unique to Thailand and the selected NGOs may be difficult to apply to other settings. Therefore, this two-site case study has dimensions with are universally applicable to other human trafficking prevention organizations, but also contains dimensions that are not universally applicable. The data in this study are unique, in that the perspectives of both the NGO staff and the children being served by the NGOs were included in the personal interviews that I conducted. Such insights are typically not available in large-scale studies conducted by national and international entities (Laczko, 2005). The voices of children in settings such as the ones I studied are rarely heard in the literature, or in the outside world. This study also offers a unique perspective because I was able to observe the study locations for three consecutive summers, giving me an understanding of the changes that the NGOs and the children face over longer periods of time. The study is limited, however, in the sense that my time in the field was limited to one month in the field each summer for three consecutive summers. Without the ability to see a complete
annual cycle at the organizations, I was unable to observe shorter-term changes at the organizations. Despite the limitations, this study offers a distinctive perspective on specialized organizations and the populations of children previously unavailable in the literature.

In summary, I presented the research problem centering on the need that exists to understand the role of NGOs in fighting human trafficking (Laczko, 2005), and how education relates to the prevention of human trafficking needs to be explored. I presented my goals, objectives and research questions that guided the study and I considered elements of rationale and significance. Because human trafficking is connected to a variety of academic disciplines, an examination of literature from several fields follows in Chapter Two.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, I examine the literature in the field of human trafficking research and literature on globalization and education pertinent to my study. The literature helped me to frame my study (and the pilot study that preceded it) and to interpret my findings.

The State of Human Trafficking Research

Human trafficking as a field of research has rapidly grown rapidly since the mid-1990s and research in the field has increased as the subject has become a high profile topic in the media and on national and international agendas. I begin with the human trafficking field by discussing the types and quality of current research, the major issues and dimensions in the field, and ingredients needed for further research in the field (Laczko, 2005). I relied heavily on Laczko (2005), and Laczko and Gozdziak (2005), who provided a comprehensive review of research on human trafficking for the decade 1994-2004. In a special issue of International Migration by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), Laczko and Gozdziak presented an overview of the literature on human trafficking during the stated period, and provided a concise collection of work that exemplified the research issues involved in the field.

After a decade of growth in the number of publications in the field of human trafficking, commonalities have developed in the types and quality of research, as well as the difficulties associated with research in this field. Such difficulties include a lack of reliable data, sampling issues, and definitional issues. Organizations such as the International Organization for Migration (IOM) have organized conferences and sponsored research in the field in order to
address the difficulties of conducting research in the field, yet several issues continue (Laczko, 2005). Also, international organizations such as the IOM are stakeholders in the field and compete with other organizations for funding and other interests.

It is important for my study to incorporate a broad overview of the kind of research done in specific regions of the world, and on specific sub-topics and issues within the human trafficking field. As Tyldum and Brunovskis (2005) argued, much of the research on human trafficking describes the elements of human trafficking, in general, using poorly suited methodologies and limited data. Many country- and region-specific studies have been conducted in recent years, with substantial focus on North America (Collett & Gozdziak, 2005; DeStephano, 2008), Europe (Prevention of and Fight against Crime Programme, 2008; Corrin, 2005; Goodey, 2004; Helga, 2006), and Asia (Emmers, Greener-Barcham, & Thomas, 2006; Lee, 2005; Piper, 2005). Much research is focused on policy issues (DeStephano, 2008), particularly on the American government’s influence on the international community, which perpetuates a skewed importance placed on American policies on human trafficking. Research on the trafficking experiences of victims has become more common (Batstone, 2007; McGill, 2004; Doek, 2000; Delaney, 2006; Skinner, 2008; Bales, 2004). These accounts are easily sensationalized, taken out of context, and selectively included to color public perception of the human trafficking issue.

**Historical context.** National governments and international institutions have created policy to address trafficking, and a variety of conferences have been held world-wide. In 2002 at a European Union (EU) conference in Brussels, policy recommendations for the member countries were made (Laczko, 2005). In 2000, the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime created policy that greatly shaped the debate on trafficking and
how to address the focus of trafficking (Bales, 2005). In the United States, where trafficking has become a high profile issue, Department of State created the Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons and the Trafficking in Persons Report (TIP) in 2001 (2010). Research on these recent human trafficking developments typically focused on the events leading up to the creation of these policies and the agencies overseeing their implementation rather than implementation itself (Laczko, 2005).

In order to situate the current state of human trafficking policy, the historical context is important. As Bales (2005) stated, “(e)very country, after all, has made it illegal to own another human being and exercise total control over that person” (pp. 4-5), yet the practice still occurs around the world. Throughout this discussion, I use the terms slavery and human trafficking interchangeably, needing a workable definition for my research. The distinction that I make between the two terms is that human trafficking refers to slavery that involves some sort of movement or migration of people, whereas, slavery does not necessarily include movement of people in keeping with the recommendations of Bales (2005) and the United States Department of State (2010). I found it difficult to narrow a definition for my research because both NGOs used fairly general terms in describing trafficking victims, and particularly in terms of prevention and protection regarding a definition of at-risk children (Jantraka, 2001).

Some researchers argue that the numbers of victims involved in slavery and human trafficking have actually increased since the outlawing of the practice (Bales, 2005; Batstone, 2007; Doek, 2000; Skinner, 2008). Slavery can take many forms, including debt bondage, forced or coerced prostitution, domestic servitude and others. In some cultures, practices of debt bondage are condoned socially, despite national and international laws (Bales, 2005; Kyle & Koslowski, 2001; Lainez, 2010; Marious-Gnanou, 2008). However, it is important to keep in
mind the issue of vague definitions. Also, the continuum of severity of actual cases likely varies greatly, and available data may not be representative of human trafficking or generalizable to other contexts. As explored by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2011), a variety of primary and secondary sources are regularly used by governments and organizations, often with little clarification on methods used to estimate the number of trafficking victims.

In Southeast Asia, for instance, a practice known as the “Yellow Trade” (Lainez, 2010, pp. 1) has existed since at least the 1870s. In the Gulf of Tonkin region of Southeast Asia, colonial records show the prevalence of forced migration and servitude, and exploitative labor practices throughout the region. Rather than combat these practices, there is evidence that colonial policies did little more than mask the practices, and even encouraged them (Lainez, 2010). Historical records reveal a significant industry of young Asian women and children sold as servants, “wives, concubines and prostitutes” (Lainez, 2010, pp. 4) in the region in the late 1800s. Women from all over Asia and even Europe were brought in to service Asian men as well as European colonial military and businessmen (Lainez, 2010). This historical evidence shows the connection between colonial influence and the exploitation of vulnerable women and children.

Debt bondage has been outlawed since the Abolition of Bonded Labour Act of 1975 in India, yet the practice continues. Marius-Gnanou (2008) argued that though traditional forms of debt bondage related to the caste system have diminished; new forms of debt bondage have replaced traditional forms through the use of labor brokers and seasonal migrant workers.

**Definitional issues.** One of the biggest hindrances to the effectiveness of policies forbidding slavery is the issue of definition (Laczko, 2005; Piper, 2005; Steinfatt, Baker &
Beesity, 2002; Tzvetkova, 2002). The development of the definitions of slavery and human trafficking used in current international law can be traced back over a century. The 1815 Declaration Relative to the Universal Abolition of the Slave Trade is the “first international instrument to condemn (slavery)” (Bales, 2005, p. 41), which attempted to encourage countries to outlaw slavery. In 1863, Abraham Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, and in 1865 when the American Civil War ended, the African slave trade effectively ended on the scale that it had been previously, but the practice of forcing people to work continued (Bales, 2005).

After World War I, the League of Nations prohibited slavery in the Slavery, Servitude, Forced Labor and Similar Institutions and Practices Convention of 1926 by mandating the elimination of “slavery and slavery-related practices” (Bales, 2005, p. 41). This convention offered what is widely accepted as the first international definition of slavery as “the status or condition of a person over whom any or all of the powers attaching to the right of ownership are exercised” and the slave trade as “all acts involved in the capture, acquisition or disposal of a person with intent to reduce him to slavery; all acts involved in the acquisition of a slave with a view to selling or exchanging him; all acts of disposal by sale or exchange of a slave acquired with a view to being sold or exchanged, and, in general every act of trade or transport in slaves” (Bales, 2005, pp. 43-44). After World War II and the establishment of the United Nations (UN), the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 was drafted, stating “no one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms”. Then in 1956, the Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery, the Slave Trade, and Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery further defined slavery by including specifics on “Servile Status”, debt bondage, serfdom, forced marriage, and child exploitation (Bales, 2005, pp. 47-48). In 1966, the members of the UN adopted the International Covenant on Economic,
social and Cultural Rights which was combined with other bills to create the International Bill of Human Rights (Bales, 2005). The International Criminal Court was established in the Rome Final Act of 1998. It was given jurisdiction over cases of enslavement, using essentially the same definitions for slavery as the League of Nations and the UN (Bales, 2005). Though little changed in terms of definitions, the current definitions were being put to use by governing bodies responsible for implementing the new policies.

The Palermo Protocol. The Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, was created in 2000 during the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. Known as the Palermo Protocol, it attempted to establish terminology, practices and policies that are standardized across the globe (Bales 2005, p. 50). The definition that the Palermo Protocol uses shifts from the terminology of slavery to using the terminology of trafficked persons.

Trafficking in persons is the action of: recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons; by means of: the threat or use of force, coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, abuse of power or vulnerability, or giving payments or benefits to a person in control of the victim; for the purposes of: exploitation, which includes exploiting the prostitution of others, sexual exploitation, forced labor, slavery or similar practices, and the removal of organs. Consent of the victim is irrelevant where illicit means are established but criminal law defences are preserved. (Bales, 2005, p. 50)

One significant issue related to the Palermo Protocol is its extremely broad and vague language (Huijsmans & Baker, n.d.; Bales, 2005). Although the Palermo Protocol was intended to be encompassing of all exploitative practices that occur around the world in which people are
forced to work, it leaves a substantial amount of decision making open to subjective interpretation (Lainez, 2009). This creates a disconnect between the international legislative bodies charged with creating such laws and the actors on the ground, such as law enforcement, government agencies and NGO practitioners, in regards to identification of victims, prosecution of perpetrators, and many other aspects of this complex issue (Laczko, 2005; Emmers, et al, 2006). Huijsmans and Baker (n.d.) argued that the number of child trafficking victims is very small compared to the number of child migrants, specifically in Southeast Asia.

The definitional issues created by the Palermo Protocol have enabled national and international entities to misdirect the issues away from slavery and exploitation and to a discourse on migration and security, with a focus on prohibiting and criminalizing transnational migration for work (Huijsmans & Baker, n.d.). Huijsmans and Baker (n.d.) argued that in the case of Thailand, which has large numbers of undocumented immigrants from Burma, Cambodia and Lao PDR, officials interpret legislation to center more on control of undocumented immigrants and borders than on support for current or potential victims of exploitation. Real or perceived corruption of officials by migrants also influences the reduction of undocumented migrants’ status, the likelihood of victims to seek help, and protections for vulnerable populations (Huijsmans and Baker, n.d.). In terms of those migrants under 18 years old, Huijsmans and Baker (n.d.) claimed that current human trafficking legislation and discourse has had an even more pronounced negative effect because of differences between regional child labor practices, increased vulnerability of trans-national and un-accompanied minors, and increased likelihood of exploitation of children in the work-place. The purpose behind the legislation becomes less important than the real effects of policies on the ground, and a discrepancy exists between policy and practice. Political bodies are among the many
stakeholders, including international organizations, NGOs, law enforcement, religious groups and individuals, who adapt the broad definitions to their own interests.

Understanding the legislative, historical and political legacies that led to the Palermo Protocol is essential in understanding the future trajectory of human trafficking discourse, how efforts to combat trafficking are conducted and funded, and the effectiveness of anti-human trafficking legislation and practice (United States Department of State, 2010; DeStephano, 2008; Kyle and Koslowski, 2001; Lainez, 2009; Arnold & Bertone, 2007). Also in 2000, the United States government issued the Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act (TVPA), and created the Interagency Task Force to Monitor and Combat Trafficking to increase the American government’s commitment to the human trafficking issue. This led to the creation of the Trafficking in Persons (TIP) Report in 2001 (Huijsmans and Baker, n.d.).

**Trafficking in Persons Report.** The TIP Report (United States Department of State, 2011b) evaluates all of the countries in the world based on their efforts to combat human trafficking placing countries on a three-tiered system with Tier 1 countries being successful at combating human trafficking and those on Tier 3 being unsuccessful. If a country is considered Tier 3, it “could trigger the withholding by the United States of non-humanitarian, of non-trade-related foreign assistance”, though the methods for determining such status are not transparent (Lainez, 2009, p. 10). If efforts by a country to fight human trafficking are not considered effective, the United States withholds non-humanitarian aid, exerting political and economic influence on each country’s anti-trafficking efforts directly tied to the TIP Report. This report has become controversial due to the lack of transparency involved in ranking countries, and the data used to make such determinations. Lainez (2009) argued that American policy drives: the
use of decontextualized and sensationalized statistics and stories, the reduction in agency for victims, and the likelihood of corruption.

In sum, the TIP Report and the Palermo Protocol definition have complicated the human trafficking debate. My study benefits from a better understanding of the impact of these definitional issues on the human trafficking field. I also consider the definitional issues relevant to my study and how the definitions can become politicized and manipulated. The Palermo Protocol and the TIP Report are likely the most influential documents affecting the human trafficking issue in the world today (Bales, 2005). These two documents will also impact the effectiveness of any future policy or action intended to address human trafficking, as Western economic and political influence, combined with the influence of international governing bodies, have created a power differential in the debate on human trafficking. Understanding the impact of these policies is important for framing my study, because it is this international, national and local political context within which the research occurs. Human trafficking is influenced by micro factors such as local culture (Brackin, 1999; Chang, 2001, Jantraka, 2001), meso-factors such as regional economic push and pull factors (Ellgee & Sot, 2009; Finkenauer & Chin, 2004), and macro factors such as national immigration laws, and international migration patterns (Beyrer & Stachowiak, 2003; Emmers et al., 2006), and policy needs to reflect this complexity in order to be effective.

**Country and region specific research.** Goodey (2004) explored sex trafficking of women in Europe and found that although policy insists on treating identified victims of trafficking as victims, often the reality in the European Union is that these women are criminalized. Religious and political groups demonizing prostitution created circumstances in which sex workers are pressured further underground and into more vulnerable situations.
Goodey’s (2004) work showed that the discrepancies that can exist between policy at the macro-level and reality at the micro-level, had unintended consequences for the most vulnerable members of society. Rather than benefit marginalized groups, national and international policy has given some stakeholders opportunities to manipulate policies for their own interests with little benefit for target populations. Tzvetkova (2010) argued for the increased role of NGOs in combating trafficking, and the effectiveness of NGOs, particularly in Eastern Europe, at assisting female victims of sex trafficking. Her work supports my own argument for further study of the work of NGOs, and the importance for understanding how and why NGOs address human trafficking through education.

Wadley (2007) argued that trafficked prostitutes have become a visible group considered to be the “other” by Europeans, and categorizing foreign prostitutes as trafficking victims has perpetuated a myth that has helped to create a new national identity in many European countries. Foreign sex workers embrace the trafficking victim label adapting their identities in order to access public and private services and other benefits. Pemberton (2006) examined the growth of faith-based NGOs in Europe working to combat trafficking in recent years. She argued for more spiritual rehabilitation for trafficking victims, but also highlights the issues encountered when religious organizations, particularly Christian, work with international victims from different language, cultural and religious backgrounds. In Thailand, Christian ministry groups are prevalent, and missionary efforts to assist human trafficking victims through NGOs may mask efforts to convert people to Christianity. Impoverished people adopt labels such as trafficking victim in order to access NGO assistance, which is often tied to religious indoctrination. Mertus and Bertone (2007) argued that anti-trafficking efforts in the Balkans region of Europe have been unsuccessful because of their repressive nature, and lack of empowerment for victims. One issue
that they examined is that the governments in these countries criminalize foreign victims, yet foreign traffickers operate with impunity. Mertus and Bertone (2007) also argued that a lack of cooperation between government agencies and NGOs will continue to undermine anti-trafficking efforts, and reduce the reliability of data on trafficking. I also argue for more cooperation between governmental bodies and NGOs in order to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of both groups’ efforts.

South Asia, specifically the Indian Subcontinent is known for having one of the largest number of human trafficking victims (Bales, 2005), but the lack of reliable statistical data on these numbers has created difficulty in understanding the issues in the region (Ali, 2005). Because human trafficking deals with what scholars call invisible populations which exists outside mainstream society, it is difficult to know the extent of the human trafficking problem world-wide (Laczko, 2005; Lainez, 2010) and even scholars who claim large numbers of victims must admit that these claims are difficult to substantiate (Bales, 2005). Lee (2005) cited many knowledge gaps in the literature, and pointed out that East Asian human trafficking is particularly difficult to research due to the large numbers of voluntary migrants throughout the region. The ease with which various identities, such as victim, can be adopted and adapted by all stakeholders, further complicates the issue world-wide.

Emmers, Greener-Barcham, and Thomas (2006) examined the issues between national governments in Southeast Asia and regional institutions such as the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). Though national governments have joined others to form these regional entities, which Emmers et al. (2006) saw as necessary to combat trafficking, these national governments seem to prefer addressing human trafficking at the national level rather than the regional level. Emmers et al. (2006) also argued that many of these nations do not
dedicate enough resources to the issue in order to effectively address the problems. Rafferty (2007) examined the causes of vulnerability to trafficking in Southeast Asia and the variety of ways human trafficking manifests in that region. This work exemplifies the complexity of the issue in the region where my dissertation study takes place, helping me to understand the overlap of influences on trafficking in Thailand, from issues of globalization to the reality of poverty and the subsequent migration of the impoverished. Baker (2000) found that the numbers of child prostitutes in Northern Thailand had decreased through the 1990s. He argued that this decrease is connected to the decrease in the fertility rate during these years, the fear of HIV/AIDS in the region, and the implementation of compulsory education laws. Baker (2000) also found a strong connection between ethnic minority membership, poverty, and risk of trafficking.

A report for the National Institute of Justice by Finckenauer and Chin (2004) examined human trafficking and its relation to organized crime, but interestingly, found that human trafficking is largely being undertaken by opportunistic individuals or small groups of criminals, not large transnational crime syndicates or cartels. This finding points to an interesting economic dimension of human trafficking. Large numbers of people living in poverty are vulnerable to other desperate people, sometimes in their own communities, who are looking to make money no matter what the method. The issue of vague definitions also applies, as people in impoverished areas may also slip in and out of various roles and labels depending on what resources, including NGOs, are available.

trafficking of women in Africa, partly because of the lower status of women in many African countries. In Latin America, Beyer (1996) argued that there were large numbers of child prostitutes in Brazil and Peru, yet little government involvement in the issue. The issue of accurate estimations of the numbers of child prostitutes, as well as other trafficking victims, is a central issue in Beyer’s (1996) work.

**Methodological challenges in the field.** Much of the research in recent years focuses on methodological issues in doing research on human trafficking. Laczko (2005) argued that the nature of the “hidden population” (p. 5) which includes victims and perpetrators, are difficult to observe and sample accurately, therefore the ability to collect data and the reliability of data have been criticized (Finckenauer & Chin, 2004; Steinfatt et al., 2002).

Brennan (2005) discussed other challenges to conducting human trafficking research, due to the sensationalization of the topic by the media (Blossom, 2010). Brennan (2005) argued that trafficking varies greatly based on context, and generalizations are difficult, implying the importance of understanding a variety of contextual dimensions. Further, she (2005) discussed the issues related to interviewing victims, including issues of trust with the researcher, which complicate small-scale micro-level case studies, and has implications for my research.

**Labor trafficking issues.** Andrees and van der Lindin (2005) argued for a labor market approach to research on human trafficking. They claimed that the majority of research on human trafficking centers around sexual exploitation of women and children, particularly due to media sensationalization, and trafficking for labor is often overlooked as a form of human trafficking in policy and practice. International organizations such as the IOM and International Labor Organization (ILO) have sponsored research on human trafficking from the perspectives of migration (Laczko, 2005), and labor (Andrees & van der Lindin, 2005), respectively. The line
between labor exploitation and labor trafficking is also blurred by varied interpretations of trafficking by stake holders. The issue is further complicated by the situational identities adopted by migrants. Both migration and labor perspectives informed my understanding of the issues.

**Trafficking as a global high profile issue and the need for more research.** Human trafficking scholars largely agree on several issues. First, more research is needed in this burgeoning field (Laczko, 2005, Bales, 2005). Second, there is a need for: more uniformity among national and international bodies in regards to policy implementation, and bilateral and multilateral, responses to human trafficking. Third, human trafficking has become a high profile issue, world-wide (Laczko, 2005). All three of these aspects of human trafficking research impact my own interpretation of the issues related to human trafficking, particularly because as a high-profile issue, human trafficking is susceptible to sensationalization.

Laczko (2005) argued that since the mid-1990s, there has been a growth in small-scale, action-oriented national studies in the field of trafficking. He (2005) considered this as strength of trafficking research which “sought to examine the whole process of human trafficking, investigating the causes and describing the process of recruitment, transport, and exploitation of the victims/survivors”, and often discussed policy and made recommendations for counter-trafficking efforts at the national or regional levels. He (2005, p. 8) further argued that the “actual ratio of assisted survivors to total number of victims is unknown”, which calls into question the representative and authentic sampling done in many studies.

focused on policy issues in the EU member states, cross-country coordination of counter-trafficking efforts, changing the identification process of victims in the EU, improving the prosecution of traffickers and increasing awareness of the issue amongst the populations of the member states. Corrin (2005) argued that the feminization of poverty in Central and Eastern Europe is a key factor in the rise of trafficking in Europe, and that policy needs a more human rights component which is less influenced by geo-political economics.

In Asia, similar studies are also available. Derks (2000) gave an overview of the responses to human trafficking policy in Southeast Asian countries, and situates these responses to historical context in the region. The World Bank’s World Development Report (2010) included trafficking prevention into their overall development program goals, which has important implications for all stakeholders. Vital Voices Global Partnership (2007), a world-wide human rights NGO, has connected the issue of statelessness to human trafficking in Southeast Asia. Steinfatt et al. (2002) discussed the issues related to collecting data on the number of victims in Cambodia. Rafferty (2007) focused on the issue of the size of child trafficking in Southeast Asia and the difficulties associated with estimating the number of victims. Ali (2005) examined the research on trafficking in South Asia, citing the difficulty of finding reliable numbers on human trafficking victims, which may be complicated by the existence of myths in the region, and the perpetuation of unfounded data by the media and international organizations, and he argued for a comprehensive framework to be developed in order to assist future research in human trafficking in conceptualizing the issues. Further, Ali (2005) also discussed the difficulty in differentiating between migrants and trafficking victims, an issue that applies world-wide. He emphasized the need for more research on the trafficking of men, and the need for more clarification and uniformity regarding human trafficking definitions
and law enforcement. Lee (2005) also cited the need for more research on the trafficking of men in East Asia, and the difficulty of identifying trafficking cases due to a lack of uniformity in understanding international trafficking definitions, and corruption among law enforcement and politicians throughout the region. Lee also argued that media reports remain the most commonly cited sources on human trafficking, which may exacerbate unreliable information. Piper (2005) argued that despite the growth in attention that trafficking in Southeast Asia gained, precise data does not exist, and research in the region has not established a comprehensive picture of the issue. Piper also argued that the association between trafficking and prostitution has polarized the issue adding ideological and moralistic elements to the debate in the region. Despite the growth in research in the region, reliable data remains an issue impacting my work and influencing my choices in sites, subjects and questions.

Van Impe (2000) argued for a comprehensive, multidisciplinary approach to human trafficking based on the findings of his pilot study in Belgium and the Philippines. He argued that because of the complex set of factors in both push and pull countries, efforts need to address both ends of the trafficking process. He considered human trafficking to be an epiphenomenon within the larger irregular migration context, and cannot be addressed without comprehensive analysis of the root causes of the irregular migration and coordinated efforts by all stakeholders, including governments, NGOs, and international entities. Irregular migration proved to be an important dimension in my work, as well. Irregular migration coupled with the differential interpretations of human trafficking creates a situation where international policies on human trafficking can be used as tools to manipulate and control irregular migration, influence public opinion on undocumented migrants and procure funding that is intended for victims of exploitation but that is sometimes used for other purposes.
Laczko (2005) argued that the action-oriented, small-scale research making up a sizable portion of the contemporary research on human trafficking, is often lacking comparative dimensions, and is often short-term in scope, lacking a longitudinal perspective. He also expressed a need for research on survivor experiences, and their ability to reintegrate into the community. He argued that there is more research on supply-side issues in trafficking, and a need for demand-side issues, but as Anderson and Davidson (2002) illustrated, demand-side issues are complex and situated in socially and politically constructed contexts. The demand-side issues are particularly important in Southeast Asia, and Thailand, specifically, where the sex industry and sex tourism has become big business. Markets for sexual services and cheap unskilled labor converge in this region of great wealth disparity and massive irregular migration (Regional Thematic Working Group on International Migration including Human Trafficking, 2008). Van Impe (2000) argued for more research on the connection between human trafficking and organized crime, as little reliable data is available on illicit trade because of its hidden nature. Van Impe argued for a proceeds oriented approach to human trafficking that international law enforcement takes toward other types of organized crime, and is considered highly effective. However, due to the definitional issues discussed previously, the approach is also susceptible to manipulation by stakeholders.

Progress has been made in the field on developing a “common understanding of trafficking” (Laczko, 2005, p. 13), yet more comprehensive, long-term research using a variety of perspectives is needed. Although progress has been made in many important areas, particularly in international policy, implementation of policy is still varied throughout the world. Continued movement toward standardization of law enforcement practices and identification of victims and perpetrators is essential. Though growth in human trafficking research in all regions
of the world continues, inconsistency of data across contexts makes integration of research findings difficult. Often discrepancies between how particular researchers define trafficking result in skewed findings that do not include large populations of victims.

Large scale efforts to assemble data from various sources have improved the usefulness of available data, but even these efforts by national and international entities are fraught with issues. Standardization and systematic collection of data is important for inter- and intra-national comparison. Common guidelines for data collection are needed throughout the field. Clarity and consistency of data collection methodology is important for local actors, national governments and international entities. Consistency in the use of a definition of trafficking is necessary for researchers as well as policy-makers and law-enforcement. Explicit descriptions of target populations are important to contextualize findings of research. Inclusion of research from a variety of disciplines is important for contextualizing the dimensions of human trafficking, but often data such as development and migration statistics are limited in their applicability to anti-trafficking efforts. Also, many studies exist which provide “snapshots” (Laczko, 2005, p. 14) of trafficking victims, often little is generalizable to the larger population of human trafficking victims, particularly in estimating the size and scope of that population.

Along with improvements in data collection, and standardization of policy implementation, more research is needed “about the impact of trafficking, not only on the survivors but also their families and communities and all those affected by it.” (Laczko, 2005, p. 14). The complexity of the human trafficking issue calls for more interdisciplinary research on the other stakeholders involved, including NGOs and other service providers. More understanding is also necessary of the experiences of trafficking victims after their trafficking experiences and at-risk populations prior to exploitation. Combining findings from a variety of
disciplines and perspectives will not only help us to understand human trafficking as a social problem, but also evaluating how actors involved in combating and preventing trafficking are addressing the issue. For this reason, we need evidence-based approaches to guide future policy, and evidence-based support of effective efforts in the field.

**Limitations of current research.** Current research on human trafficking has several key limitations, each with relevance for my study. I examine the following major limitations of the available scholarly work: the lack of independent evaluation of current efforts and consensus among scholars in the field, focus of current research on international versus internal trafficking, international and intra-national governmental and policy issues, consistency, comparability and reliability issues of available data, gender considerations, and new efforts to improve data collection and global estimates of trafficking. I address these limitations in subsequent paragraphs.

**Lack of independent evaluation and consensus in the field.** Laczko (2005) pointed to a lack of independent evaluation of trafficking prevention and counter-trafficking policies and initiatives, so there is relatively little known about the impact and effectiveness of these laws and programs. In 2003 alone, the United States government spent over $70 million on 190 programs to fight human trafficking, yet unbiased evaluation of these programs is lacking (p. 6). Little is known about who is working to help victims and how they are working to help them (Laczko, 2005). Much work is being done on the ground by NGOs and other actors, but it has largely not been documented (Arnold & Bertone, 2007). My study documents the work of NGOs who are addressing the human trafficking issue. Laczko (2005) argued that instead of “studies that only focus on one type of exploitation, we need longer-term research, using more comprehensive approaches, and involving both countries of origin and countries of destination”, and a need for
“systematic studies of the role of actors involved in the fight against trafficking, such as service providers, law enforcement agencies, and NGOs”, in order to assess how well the problem is being addressed (p. 14). In my dissertation study, I examine the impact of direct interventions by two NGOs in Thailand in order to assess the effectiveness of their trafficking-prevention programs, as argued for by Laczko (2005).

Despite efforts to come to consensus on human trafficking research needs world-wide by the International Organization on Migration (1994, 2008), the European Union (Prevention of and Fight against Crime Programme, 2008), the United States Department of State (2010), the International Labor Organization (International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labor, 2001), the United Nations (De Heredia, 2007), and many other organizations and individuals, agreement has not been reached (Laczko, 2005). The lack of agreement on the types of research needed in the human trafficking is partly due to definitional issues mentioned previously. Without consensus on the meaning of trafficking at the ground level, and what human trafficking looks like in various contexts, it is difficult to determine how to approach the subject, what aspects need more data, and where and how to collect such data. I also encountered this issue in determining how to approach the subject in my own research study. The disagreement within the field of human trafficking has led to a lack of cohesion in the field among research and researchers.

One particular disagreement among researchers deals with prostitution and the issue of choice. Some researchers group all sex workers as trafficking victims, whether voluntary or not, while others exclude willing prostitutes. Some organizations focus only on forced migration across national boundaries, while others consider any illegal entry into a country to be trafficking (Laczko, 2005). This discrepancy between the understanding of human smuggling and human
trafficking, as well as the issue of undocumented migrants, creates confusion across the field (Laczko, 2005).

*International versus internal trafficking.* There is a substantial amount of research on international trafficking, yet little on internal trafficking (Laczko, 2005), which may relate to the definitional issues within countries (Huijsmans & Baker, n.d.). The Asia Watch Report (1993) focused on Mae Sai, the border crossing in the north part of Thailand that is one of the top crossing points for illegal immigrants and a hotbed for traffickers and other criminals (Chang, 2001; Jantraka, 2001; McCaskill et al., 2008; Oh & Van Der Stouwe, 2008). This is one of the sites for my study. The report cites a make-shift camp for homeless displaced persons from Myanmar (Burma) under the Mae Sai Bridge (Asia Watch Report, 1993). Push factors from Burma have likely increased, though, as armed conflict has certainly worsened since 1993.

Instability on the border of Burma affects one of my research sites significantly, because of location and the population of students it serves. Students and teachers were impacted by military violence in Burma and political instability across the border impacted the work of my research site.

Oh and Van Der Stouwe (2008) found political turmoil to be a significant issue in their study of Burmese refugee camps in Thailand, in which almost 150,000 refugees of mostly Karen ethnic minorities live. Children in these camps have limited access to education (schools do not teach in their native tongue) and adults have limited job opportunities, making them vulnerable to exploitation (2008). Refugees in these camps are displaced persons and are largely undocumented immigrants, but even native hill tribe people have limited opportunities because they are restricted to travel outside of their home provinces legally, and do not have full citizenship rights (Zixin, 2005). Many still take the risk and travel outside the province looking
for work, making them vulnerable to trafficking and other forms of exploitation (Minorities at Risk Project, 2004). Pothisan, Nantajak, Rittidet, and Saenyabud (2008) offered an interesting study of the Kuy People in Northeastern Isaan, a rural agricultural region of Thailand, illustrating how modernization and economic pressures have forced ethnic minorities to migrate from traditional villages to cities as laborers. Their traditional form of subsistence farming particularly garden farming for home consumption shifted to cash crop farming which was more vulnerable to economic downturns (Pothisan et al., 2008). Walker and Farrelly (2008) described the precarious position that ethnic minorities occupy in rural Thailand, often not acknowledged as citizens with land rights. The issue of internal migration and its connection to human trafficking also has relevance for my research.

Chang’s (2001) study of the Kuomintang (KMT) Yunnanese refugees in Thailand, a group of anti-communist militia forced out of China during the communist revolution under Mao Tse-tung, showed the complex historical and political legacies that ethnic minorities in Southeast Asia have. The KMT signed agreements with the Thai government in the 1960s and 1970s for land and resources in exchange for fighting Thai communist groups. When the militias dismantled in the late 1980s, the villages of former KMT remained intact, maintaining Chinese traditions, language and culture (Chang, 2001). As of 2001, 90% of the young KMT villagers left the villages for the big cities in search of work and the modern lifestyle, yet are limited in their opportunities due to their refugee status (Chang, 2001). The historical legacy of cross-border and internal migration of these and other ethnic minorities gives insight into the current situation in my study.

Battersby (1998-1999) clarified the difficulties that countries in Southeast Asia face in establishing distinct national boundaries in the contemporary era. During the period of colonial
control in the region, Battersby argued that state boundaries were unclear and peripheral areas within the various countries largely controlled and discerned by ethnicity rather than state. In recent years, as countries like Thailand have attempted to solidify their control over territory and establish trade relations with neighboring states, the ambiguity between citizenship and immigrant status, for certain ethnicities, has become an important issue. My study benefits from this historical and political insight into the current immigration situation.

**Inter- and intra-national issues.** Definitional issues exist throughout the human trafficking field due to differences in language in international, and national level policies (Laczko, 2005). This also complicates research on the topic. Researcher’s definitions often vary from national and international definitions. For instance, in the United States, any minor being harbored for prostitution is considered a trafficking victim (Cullen-Dupont, 2009). This complicates research on minors as trafficking victims, as many of these minors may not consider themselves to be victims, or be considered trafficking victims by researchers. Also, despite gains in policy, few convictions of traffickers have occurred in United States courts. Cullen-Dupont (2009) cited United States Ambassador-at-large John Miller, who pointed out that the Victims of Trafficking Protection Act (United States Department of State, 2000) definition, which must include force or fraud, is difficult to prove in court. In contrast, Gozdziak and Collett (2005) argued that the Palermo Protocol focuses too much on traffickers, and not enough on trafficking victims.

Particular cases of trafficking in the United States give insight into the complexity of these issues. DeStephano (2008) highlighted cases of trafficking in the United States that were influential in urging the United States government to prioritize anti-trafficking policy and law enforcement. Operation Gilded Cage, a coordinated federal state and local law enforcement sting
in San Francisco where 50 brothels and other sex related businesses were raided, 27 suspects were arrested, over 100 women were taken to non-detention shelters, and more than two million dollars was seized. Operation Gilded Cage uncovered complex networks that crisscrossed the United States, and the world, smuggling people from Asia and trafficking women for forced-prostitution. Perpetrators used connections in Asia, Canada and across America, combining the cooperation of travel agents, limousine services and taxi drivers in a sophisticated and lucrative business (DeStephano, 2008). This case illustrated the importance of cooperation between various levels of law enforcement and government in order to combat human trafficking.

The Cadena-Sosa prostitution ring is also a key case that helped to lead the American federal government to more powerful legislation on trafficking. The case involved the Cadena family who ran what DeStephano terms “sexual sweatshops” (p. 4) in “dilapidated trailers and duplexes” (p. 4) owned by the family. Members of the Cadena family specifically targeted small rural towns and villages in Mexico to recruit young girls from impoverished families, smuggling them into the United States through a network of safe-houses into makeshift brothels (DeStephano, 2005). The Cadena-Sosa case illustrated the complexity of the human trafficking issue and its connections to immigration issues and poverty. Finally, the Golden Venture, filled with almost 300 undocumented Chinese immigrants, shipwrecked near New York Harbor, killing several passengers, and a large portion of the migrants were deported back to China (pp. 5, 22, 26). This case highlighted the unpreparedness of the American government to deal with such diplomatic immigration issues and coincided with the Clinton Administration’s “Three P’s” policy (protection, prevention and prosecution) toward immigration and trafficking (p. 22). Bill Clinton’s stance was thus taken up and reinforced by the following Bush Administration, with the creation of a task force dedicated to combating and preventing trafficking at home and
abroad (Destephano, 2008). The Golden Venture case showed the inability of current policies to control the human trafficking, and the need for more comprehensive policy, diplomatic efforts and immigration reform. The case also illustrated the `difficulty that governments encounter when dealing with human trafficking situations after they occur, despite the existence of policy.

In addition to policy, the American government created a new category of visa, the T-Visa, for trafficking victims. In order to qualify, victims must testify against traffickers. In 2007, federal agencies won 295 convictions of traffickers in federal court, but because the number of actual victims in the United States is unknown, it is unclear whether this number is significant (Cullen-Dupont, 2009). Gozdziak and Collett (2005) argued that there is not enough effort given to the issue, citing that only 717 victims have been identified in the United States from 2000-2004. It is particularly concerning that there is such a vast discrepancy between the estimated number of human trafficking victims in the United States and the number of actual identified and assisted victims. The issue is of further concern due to the impact of the TIP Report on the human trafficking efforts of other countries’ governments and the apparent lack of effort on the part of the United States government on the human trafficking issue domestically.

In Europe, similar issues exist. Cullen-Dupont (2009) pointed out that until 2005, human trafficking referred only to trafficking for sexual exploitation in the Netherlands. Kelly (2005) argued that most of the research on human trafficking in Europe only focuses on this type of trafficking. Despite the rise in international organization-sponsored research in Europe, Kelly (2005) pointed to the lack of reliable data, and discrepancy between data compiled by various organizations and agencies, and the difficulty in determining whether reports are under- or over-reporting the number of victims. DeStephano (2008) argued for the importance of the role that particular NGOs played in the development of policy, citing Iana Matei, who runs an NGO in
Pitesti, Romania that works with women who were forced into prostitution in Eastern Europe. DeStephano’s recounting of Matei’s work reminds me of several of the important figures that I met in Thailand, and will be focusing on in my own study. She was key in several major international anti-trafficking cases, collaborating with the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the United Nations (UN), law enforcement in the Balkans, and the Southeast Europe Cooperative Initiative (SECI) (DeStephano, pp. 52-59), and points to the effectiveness of those working with trafficking victims at the micro-level, and the assistance that they can provide at the macro-level.

In many European countries, snapshot studies of individual victims are the only available research. Batstone (2007) examined former Soviet countries, where many of the girls have heard horror stories about others who were lured into trafficking situations, yet they still take the risk for the chance of better opportunities than those available in their villages or towns. Once separated by national boundary, language and legal documentation from their homes and families, they feel powerless to escape their situations, though some do. These individual cases help to illuminate the economic issues creating push factors for trafficking, but do not give the scope of the problem in these countries.

In India, Cullen-Dupont (2009) cited figures from thousands of victims within particular Indian states, to 65 million if including bonded laborers as trafficking victims. This vast discrepancy shows how difficult research in India can be to conceptualize. The United States government stated that the number of trafficking victims in India is “in the millions” (Cullen-Dupont, 2009) in the 2008 TIP Report, though the report also claimed the number of trafficking victims world-wide was 800,000-900,000 (Laczko, 2005, p. 14). Batstone (2007) chronicled a case of enslavement in India involving twelve members of a family from India’s lower caste.
This case illustrated the connection between poverty and vulnerability in human trafficking, and the power that traffickers have over marginalized victims (Batstone, 2007).

Consistency, reliability, and comparability issues. In Asia, data on migration are particularly difficult to track due to traditional migration patterns and informal border crossing, but the lack of consistent data is a world-wide issue, particularly when discussing regions with unstable governments. Skinner (2008) examined connections between historical and economic dimensions related to trafficking in Haiti as he negotiated with a slave broker who eventually agreed to provide him with a young girl or boy aged 10 to 12 years old for a mere $50 U.S. Uncovering the number of trafficking victims in the Caribbean is complicated by such issues as natural disasters, and reliable data is difficult to attain in countries where the government is struggling to cope with crises. We must rely on individual accounts such as Skinner (2008) in order to begin to understand the problem there.

The lack of reliable data is an issue that is prevalent throughout research on human trafficking. Laczko (2005) argued that the lack of confirmable base-line data means that figures used by governments, international organizations and NGO’s are “guestimates” (p. 13). Even with improved efforts to standardize data collection, definitional issues continue. Cullen-Dupont (2009) pointed to the inconsistency of data in Nigeria as an example of this issue. The International Labor Organization included child-laborers age 10-14 in its figures on Nigeria’s human trafficking victims which numbered over fifteen million. However, NGOs and Nigerian police indicated 1,126 victims repatriated from abroad (Cullen-Dupont, 2009).

Calandruccio (2005) argued that the lack of infrastructure, and the large amount of irregular migrants in the Middle East, makes human trafficking particularly difficult to research in the region. The difficulty of differentiating smuggling and trafficking of persons is a major
issue in the region. As Calandruccio described, much of the research in the region focuses on trafficking for domestic work and sex work. In the United Arab Emirates, the visa system known as the Kafala system, allows guest workers into the country for various types of work. The individual who sponsors the guest worker is known as the Kafeel, and has significant control over the guest worker. This government sanctioned practice is highly problematic in terms of human trafficking, particularly in gathering the number of victims in the region.

Consistency of definition within countries is difficult, and across countries and regions is a significant hindrance to the human trafficking field. Without comparable data within and among countries, understanding of the scope of the problem cannot be accomplished. As Laczko (2005) argued, more governments need to be collecting data, and standardizing their data collection methods. International organizations need to be more forthcoming about the methods used to gather current data. Relying on some governments to provide reliable data can be problematic. Kyle and Koslowski (2001) found that the government of Myanmar (Burma) actually promoted the sale of virgin girls to male tourists in hotel brochures in the late 1990s. Many of the girls from Burma that are forced into prostitution end up in Thailand, and are sometimes trafficked on to other destinations. Unfortunately, some Asian sub-cultures consider deflowering a virgin to “bestow upon the perpetrator youthful potency and healthful benefits” (p. 45). Kyle and Koslowski (2001) also found a significant amount of corruption among the Thai law enforcement who get financially compensated by human smugglers for providing protection, getting out of arrests or turning a blind eye (2001, p. 228).

Trafficking data are widely considered to be unreliable, and that unreliability may be due to the potential number of cases that remain unreported (Laczko, 2005). Often, researchers combine demographic data such as World Bank (2010) development statistics, data collected by
international organizations, and data provided by government agencies (Cullen-DuPont, 2009) to develop estimates of trafficking. Many countries cannot provide data due to a lack of infrastructure (Calandruccio, 2005), while others rely on NGOs for their data (Cullen-DuPont, 2009). For the TIP Report, most of the data is provided to the United States Department of State by American embassies and diplomats in the respective countries. This data is difficult to trace, and methodologies used to collect such data is not provided (Laczko, 2005).

Few countries can provide data on human trafficking over time, either (Laczko, 2005). In Europe, Germany and the Netherlands have major issues in the categorization of victims. The Regional Clearing Point, created in 2002 by the Stability Pact Task Force on Trafficking in Human Beings, has collected regional data over time, yet only includes identified and assisted victims (Laczko, 2005). Estimates of unidentified victims in the region are still guestimates (Laczko, 2005).

Gender considerations. Gender is a central issue to human trafficking, which may explain the focus on the sexual exploitation of women and children in the human trafficking literature. According to Lerdrisuntad (n.d.), the status of women in many countries in Asia is still relatively low, though this varies by country, region, social class and other factors. This low status for many women creates a likelihood of abuse and exploitation by parents and spouses, and makes women in impoverished rural Thailand susceptible to trafficking, forced labor, debt bondage and forced prostitution.

Undocumented immigrants, particularly girls and women, are likely to be exploited as forced prostitutes by traffickers. Even though they are victims, they are often arrested for prostitution, even if under age (Arnold & Bertone, 2002). Behrer and Stachowiak (2003) described the extensive physical and mental health issues that occur with the large numbers of
women and girls trafficked into prostitution. Since many are undocumented immigrants, and when arrested are deported, often these women and girls return to their home countries with HIV/AIDS, other undetected sexually transmitted diseases and serious mental health issues which remain unaddressed (Behrer & Stachowiak, 2003).

Women are disproportionately victimized and vulnerable to human trafficking (Beyrer & Stachowiak, 2003; Asia Watch Report, 1993; Goodey, 2004; Lerdrisuntad, n.d). Batstone (2007) offered several Thai cases, one in which he describes a Thai woman recruited to work in a restaurant across the border in Malaysia, where she is forced to work in a brothel to pay off a recruiting fee, and then ransomed back to her family. Batstone (2007) illustrated these gender issues in the story of Noi, who was sold to a karaoke bar by her family from the rural North-eastern region of Thailand. Both of these cases illustrate the economic drives that push people into vulnerability, in the first case the woman chose to move across borders in search of better paying work and was duped into prostitution, whereas the second, partly due to the lower social status of females in Thailand, that decision was made by her impoverished family. The gender dimension gives my study insight into the issues that women and girls face at my research sites, and how these may differ from men and boys.

The language of policy can have different outcomes for victims dependent on gender. Chapkis (2003) argued that the Trafficking Victims Protection Act (2000) includes language that creates a division between poor immigrant women and men, with the effect being harsher punishment for illegal immigrants to the United States and protection for female trafficking victims specifically because of the public moral outrage against sex trafficking. Chapkis claimed that this dichotomy between male and female immigrants has more negative effects than positive, specifically by distinguishing between innocent victims and guilty migrants. My study
benefits from this understanding of the differential outcomes for males and females in regards to human trafficking policy, which also has implications for the students at my research sites.

Research on human trafficking is also susceptible to the influence of moralistic and ideological pressures. Kelly (2005) argued that the influence of feminist and religious interests on the priorities placed on prostitution, whether willing or not, as a form of trafficking skews the types of research that are funded, and the results of such research. Huijsmans and Baker (n.d.) argued that defining all undocumented migrants as trafficking victims moves the debate from a question of human rights for the migrant to security of national borders. Therefore, even national data provided by governments may be unreliable due to political influence and pressure from political interests.

*New efforts to improve data collection.* New efforts to improve data collection have begun by several organizations. Laczko (2005) argued that the Trafficking Statistics Project created by UNESCO, is moving this process forward, but the project relies on data from member countries, and NGOs. The Counter-Trafficking Module Database created by the IOM is also a useful tool for the field, but is not comprehensive in terms of region or scope (Laczko, 2005). Also, the Global Programme Against Trafficking in Human Beings created by UNODC relies on data provided by member governments, which often rely on unreliable statistics, as described above (Laczko, 2005). The key to the success of these and future efforts is that data collection methodology be transparent and clear, that independent evaluation of programs and data be included, and that improvement in terms of standardization of definition, and enforcement of policy, continue. These new efforts to improve data collection suggest the need for research on NGOs such as the organizations I focused on in this study.
Global estimates of trafficking. Research on human trafficking has grown, yet is still unable to give reliable estimates of human trafficking at the global scale. Bales (2005) estimated the number to be approximately 20 million world-wide, and the Department of State estimates less than one million victims annually (Laczko, 2005). Some researchers base global estimates on the number of human trafficking victims in ‘hotspots’ (Kelly, 2005). Others use estimates of money laundering by traffickers to extrapolate the number of victims (Kelly, 2005). Kelly (2005) and Laczko (2005) both argue that the short term nature of most research conducted on human trafficking is partly to blame for the lack of reliable estimates. Without long-term studies, and without studies that examine actual victims, estimates will remain unreliable. Much work is being done on the ground by NGOs and other actors, but it has largely not been documented (Arnold and Bertone, 2007). Bowe (2008) illustrated the complexity of gathering data from local and national governments in his examination of Saipan, which has a booming sex industry and recruits women from all over Asia, often by trickery or coercion, to work as prostitutes in various entertainment establishments. The work examined a network of corrupt politicians, law enforcement, industrialists and traffickers, and illuminates the difficulties of combating human trafficking, in terms of the significant demand for cheap labor, the supply of impoverished and vulnerable people world-wide and the opportunists who capitalize on the circumstances (Bowe, 2008). Therefore, relying on data provided by local law enforcement and national agencies creates a situation highly susceptible to corruption. Corruption within the government is an issue mentioned by people that I encountered during my trips to Thailand, as well. One Thai acquaintance explained in detail the method used by local Thais to avoid receiving traffic citations for a traffic violation, which involved casually paying the police officer a cash bribe. As anywhere, law enforcement corruption further complicates the reliability of
data, the interpretation of trafficking laws and the work of NGOs. My research benefits from understanding the many issues related to data in human trafficking research. Each of these issues reinforces the need for systematic research which illuminates perspectives that are lacking in the available data.

**Gaps in the literature.**

Gaps in the literature exist in several areas, including research in underrepresented regions, and the lack of connections between human trafficking and other dimensions such as statelessness and education. Tzvetkova (2002) argued for the increased role of NGOs in combating trafficking, and the effectiveness of NGOs, particularly in Eastern Europe, at assisting female victims of sex trafficking. Her work supports my own argument for further study of the work of NGOs, and the importance for understanding how and why NGOs address human trafficking.

In Africa, continent-wide migration makes human trafficking research difficult. Several key cases illustrate the unexplored issues in Africa. Batstone (2007) described the stories of three children in Uganda who were kidnapped and forced to be child soldiers for a rebel army called the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA). The children were forced to mutilate and kill prisoners of the LRA, and forced to be sex slaves to the older rebel commanders. Even when children were rescued and sent to refugee camps or rehabilitation centers, these locations were often raided and the children were captured again (Batstone, 2007). The issue of child soldiers and the difficulty in quantifying the number of victims exemplifies the human trafficking research issues in Africa. Bales (2005) spotlighted the situation at Lake Volta in Ghana, where children are forced to labor on fishing boats, often with the consent of their parents, and dive into the cold water with weights tied to their legs to untangle fishing nets. These practices which are
condoned by the community are also difficult to quantify. Despite these interesting case studies, Africa remains underrepresented in the literature on human trafficking.

Literature on human trafficking in Thailand is directly useful for my study, and comes from a variety of fields. Sorajjakal (2003) combined case studies of people who were child prostitutes, either through voluntary choice or coercion, interviews with key informants and examination of policies and reports from governments and NGOs. His study revealed that poverty is a prominent factor contributing to child prostitution, and trafficking in general. Sorajjakal (2003) also offered an important policy context for my study examining Thailand following two key pieces of legislation, the Suppression of Prostitution Act, (BE 2503) in 1960 and the Prevention and Suppression of Prostitution Act of 1996 (p. 19). The first policy criminalized prostitution and had more serious consequences for prostitutes than for clients. A second policy imposed serious consequences on “…procurers, brothel owners, mama-sans, pimps, customers, and parents who sell their children” (p. 20). Rather than truly curbing prostitution, and the resulting child prostitution, violators became more covert, masking the practice in karaoke bars, restaurants and other legitimate establishments. Sorajjakal noted that “It is still about sex, but the form has changed. Owners of these various types of sex business are also circumventing the law, becoming quite creative in supplying sex for cash without getting caught” (p. 21). As a spokesperson for the human rights NGO, End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes International (ECPAT) stated, “after 1996 you can’t find these girls by the street soliciting clients. They are now working in bars or karaoke” (p. 21). This development illustrates the dynamic nature of human trafficking and how illicit practices adapt to changing social, political and economic influences.
Jantraka (2001) illustrated the ethnic diversity of children and women working in the sex industry in Northern Thailand. His study on the age and ethnicity of sex workers in the region showed the variety of ethnic backgrounds that are vulnerable to sex trafficking, and the variety of locations that these individuals migrate from. Park, Tanagho, & Gaudette (2009) re-emphasized this issue showing the connection between marginalized populations and human trafficking. An estimated 400,000 hill-tribe children are stateless in Thailand (Park, et al, 2009), and this number does not include undocumented immigrants from other countries. The issue of statelessness is a key issue in my study and understanding the magnitude of the issue through these works is helpful in conceptualizing the issues that NGOs face. Statelessness and vulnerability are issues that need further exploration in the literature.

Laczko (2005) and Calandruccio (2005) argued for more research on human trafficking in the Middle East. This under-represented region has large amounts of irregular migration, and social conditions that likely encourage the practice of human trafficking (Calandruccio, 2005), yet relatively few studies on the region, and its member countries, exist (Laczko, 2005).

My study addressed several gaps within the overall literature on human trafficking. Human trafficking research is burgeoning as a field of study, and my work on under-represented locations, populations and actors will improve and increase available data. Finally, my research benefits from other disciplines’ insight, particularly globalization and education. I will now explore the literature on these topics and their relevance to my work.

**Globalization and Education**

The scholarly work on globalization and education has various facets of relevance for my dissertation study. Arnove (2007) argued that processes within globalization “pose common problems for educational systems around the world (p. 1)”.

Intensification and
interconnectedness of the global economy also implies an interconnectedness of educational systems worldwide. Changes in the Western countries’ educational system (Reyna, 2002) influence Thailand, as modernization and development projects bring western ideas into an amalgamation with Asian contexts. Thailand’s education system is highly bureaucratized, both influenced by Japan and the West (Arno, 2007). Current reforms focus on Southern Thailand, improving funding, increasing compulsory education age, and increasing the number of teachers. Southern Thailand borders Malaysia and armed insurgent conflict occurs frequently in this area. Human trafficking is also a serious issue in Southern Thailand, and the difference between the education system in this region and the education system in Bangkok, for instance, is drastic (The Ministry of Education in Thailand, n.d.). In my study, it was important to consider the issue of regional resource discrepancies in education, as this has implications for students’, particularly stateless children’s, access to and opportunity for education (Schwartz, 2009).

Globalization helped me to put the issues in Thailand in a global context. Kevin Bales’ work (2005) is highly effective in providing a global context for modern slavery and human trafficking. The Trafficking In Persons (TIP) Report (United States Department of State, 2011b) produced yearly by the United States Department of State has greatly influenced efforts by governments world-wide.

Critical theory and literature on globalization offer insight to help explain the growth of human trafficking in Southeast Asia, the connection to the growth of capitalism, neo-liberalism and tourism (Dirlik, 2006, Doek, 2000, Delaney, 2004), how local cultures adapt to global economic pressures (Jungck & Kajornsin, 2003) which effects minority groups (McCaskill, et al., 2008, Pothisan, et al., 2008), and causing children to become more vulnerable to exploitation.
Comparative and International Education. Baker and Wiseman (2005) argued that global trends in education have created an internationalization of education with a focus on quantified outcomes of achievement on academic assessment. They also noted the borrowing of macro-level educational practices across the international community. Standardization of educational systems and the influence of western educational norms have profound implications for education and society in Southeast Asia. Globalized capitalism has created an international, in addition to a national, division of labor. Specific regions of the world specialize in particular types of labor (Arnove, 2007, p.2). Areas with large numbers of unskilled, impoverished, uneducated and disenfranchised people are also likely to have high numbers of human trafficking victims (Bales, 2009). Rural Thailand, and the region surrounding Thailand, has such a population (Battersby, 1998-1999). My study focuses on this population, and understanding their vulnerabilities to global economic changes is helpful in contextualizing the student’s choices regarding education and the NGO’s educational focus.

In order to situate my study within the context of globalization and education, the field of Comparative and International Education is useful, to understand the relationship between globalization and education. Arnove (2007) argued that a “causal relationship between the “excellence” of a school system, as measured by national standardized examinations, and the economic success of a country in global competition, has revived the interest in the relationship between education systems and national productivity (Arnove, 2007, p. 3).” This field also helps me to situate the educational issues at my research sites in a global perspective. As Arnove (2007) pointed out, “Schools do matter, but perhaps to a greater extend in less industrialized countries. Cross-national data over time indicate that as societies industrialize and social class formation solidifies, socioeconomic status becomes increasingly important in determining access
to the highest levels of an education system and the most prestigious institutions of learning and to better jobs (p. 4).” In my study, the importance of education at the national and international level has financial and social implications for education at the local level. At my research sites, access to education is limited for many stateless and undocumented students, which has far reaching implications for the future opportunities of students, their communities and the region. Low income countries have few resources to dedicate to education systems and this lack of resources translates into less access to betterment for the marginalized segment of the population. The effect of the lack of educational resources has more pronounced outcomes for undocumented children. Limited educational access leads to limited job access, and trafficking victims often become victims during the process of migrating to access better opportunities. International financial aid has focused on important inputs to the education systems of developing countries (World Bank, 2010).

Arnove and Torres (2007) argued for a global understanding of the local context in education. They argue that a “dialectic is at work between the global and the local” (Arnove, 2007, pp. 1), in which common global issues in education are linking “distant localities” (Arnove, 2001, pp. 1), where local influences modify or transform global economic and economic agendas. This study benefited from incorporating the global to local dialectic as a theoretical lens to understand how global issues played out at the two NGOs.

Arnove (2007) argued that primary education was the best investment for Newly Industrialized Countries (NICS), a category within which Thailand falls (p. 5). Certainly, if such an investment is good for a country, it is also good for the most vulnerable and marginalized of a society. This supports my own argument that education is key to preventing human trafficking, and that more attention is needed to understand the issues related to human trafficking victim
education. He also argued that research in education must always situate itself into an international or global context. One issue that he pointed out, which is also applicable to my own study, is the Asian financial crisis in the late 1990s, when international investment was withdrawn from Thailand and others in the region, and economic decisions in the West greatly affected realities in the East. The current financial crisis, starting in the United States and Europe, has also affected the East in similar ways. Reduced productivity and the increased unemployment rate in the United States have very real impacts on the East. Thailand’s reliance on tourism revenues from the West shows how precarious the country’s economic and social situation is. Global consumer fluctuations have powerful effects on the impoverished sectors of Asian populations. The most vulnerable, which include human trafficking victims and at-risk populations, within Asian societies are likely susceptible to economic crises. In my own study, economic opportunities may be an important push or pull factor to students choosing to complete educational programs or enter the labor pool.

Friedman (2005) made the term globalization a household word with his book The World is Flat in which he discusses the leveling of certain aspects of the global social world in terms of technology, migration, and interaction between people the world over. Globalization has put a strong emphasis world-wide on science and technology as well as knowledge societies equipped to address the rapid changes in the global economy. Education systems are experiencing the influence of privatization, and competition into education. Competition in education advantages certain groups with power in society and helps to solidify inequality, and create new inequities (Stromquist, 2002). Technological advances worldwide have a powerful influence on education, considering the current emphasis placed on science and math. Though global migration has weakened national influence on impoverished populations, it has reduced these migrants’ access
to education (Stromquist, 2002). Advances in communication technology has reduced geographic barriers to education, and increased the importance of high level knowledge on a global scale, but large wealth disparities have grown between populations without access to education and populations with access (Stromquist, 2002). Tourists from all over the world come to Thailand each year, which certainly has an impact on the supply and demand of human trafficking. Thailand is known world-wide as a sex-tourist hotspot, and though not all sex-workers in the industry are trafficked, certainly a sizeable portion is (Steinfatt, et al, 2002).

Outsourcing labor from western countries to the developing world is a reality of the global economy, and the push for cheaper labor in manufacturing helps to drive exploitation of workers. As Bales noted, “slavery emerges when economic vulnerability combines with sufficient population and a lack of regulation or control over the use of violence” (2005, p. 113), insinuating that conditions that allow for exploitation of workers move a society along the trajectory toward slavery. The increasing influence of global organizations including the United Nations, international governmental actors such as UNICEF, and other humanitarian organizations and NGOs, has changed the scope of the human trafficking discourse to a global discourse, in which there are now actors at the macro-, meso- and micro- levels working to combat human trafficking. My own study explores the work being done to address human trafficking at the micro-level, but within these global contexts and activities.

McCaskill, et al (2008) explained that Thailand was the first country in the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS) to modernize, having never been colonized by European powers which has caused a unique integration of traditional GMS culture and Western modernization. As Thuninart, Thammawat, Rittidet, & Saenyabud, (2009) examined in their study in Northeastern Thailand, Thailand was and still is greatly impacted by global economic trends.
Because of Thailand’s relative economic advantage over other GMS countries, migration from less developed countries is inevitable. McCaskill, et al, (2008) offered insight into the issues of globalization in Thailand as they described five common definitions of globalization, incorporating aspects of increased interconnectedness and interaction relate to my study as follows. “Internationalization” (p. 22) refers to increased trade and capital investment. “Liberalization” (p. 22) refers to reduction of governmental restrictions on international trade to create a world economy. “Universalism” refers to the “synthesis of cultures” (p.22) across the globe. “Modernization” (p. 22) refers to the growth of capitalism and industrialization worldwide. Finally, “De-territorialization” involves “a reconfiguration of geography and transformation of special organization of social relations”, where old ideas of territory become less important (p. 22). McCaskill, et al, (2008) provided evidence that the Hmong ethnic minority in Thailand have adapted their culture and identity to the changes brought on by all of these five aspects of globalization in order to maintain group cohesion while accessing new economic opportunities. However, the Karen and Akka tribes have been less successful at maintaining aspects of their traditional culture, specifically religion, partly due to resistance to conversion to Christianity or Buddhism. The Hmong have adopted aspects of modernization to help keep their group identity intact specifically media representations and written publications which attempt to foster a “Hmong transnational identity” (McCaskill, et al, 2008). Globalization and modernization have had different effects on different minority groups in the region surrounding my research sites. How these minority groups have dealt with social changes related to globalization also has implications for the issues I am examining, including statelessness, vulnerability, and access to education. The students at DEPDC come from all of the tribes mentioned above, in addition to several other hill tribes, as illustrated by Jantraka
(2001), and understanding how these groups have navigated in the modern world also helps me to understand how each of the ethnic subgroups of students differ in terms of background (Pothisan, Nantajak, Rittidet & Saenyabud, 2008).

In addition to the difficulties that ethnic minorities have faced in Thailand, it is also important to take into account issues of nationalism and nationalistic sentiment within Thailand. Taking a post-modern approach, Klima (2007) illustrated how Thailand’s former Prime Minister Thaksin and his political party incorporated intra-national economics and religious ceremonial grandeur to manipulate and reform a national identity through his “Thai Love Thai” (p. 131) campaign. This campaign stirred nationalistic emotions that were tied to modernization and economic development. These nationalistic emotions also have implications for the children at my research sites, and their status as stateless or undocumented, places them outside the mainstream Thai culture and identity. Social marginalization for these children in the wake of rising nationalism likely increases their vulnerability to human trafficking.

In conjunction with issues of nationalism, language issues in Thai education are also important in my study. The growth in the popularity of the English language in both academic and business usage also has a powerful impact on educational projects around the world. In Thailand, English is a significant part of the curriculum, and other countries in the region, who do not or cannot implement extensive English curriculum to their educational model, do suffer consequences (Arnove, 2007, p. 10). In Thailand, even using the national language, Thai, in educational settings has important implications, as minority hill tribes speak regional dialects and indigenous languages and have varying familiarity with Thai. Language barriers for the many undocumented migrants from China, Lao People’s Democratic Republic (PDR), Cambodia, Vietnam, Malaysia and Burma, complicates the educational context even more. Along with
language issues, issues of religious differences among children can impact marginalization of minority groups. Many schools in Thailand have Buddhist components or connections with local temples for support, resources, and even teachers. Religious dimensions within the Thai educational context are also important, as Thai Buddhism varies greatly from other forms of Buddhism. Also, the large numbers of indigenous religions practiced in Thailand, the influx of Islam from Southern Thailand, and Christian missionaries from the West, illustrate the complexity of the religious dimension. These language and religion issues may have implications for the students at my research sites, in terms of how effective education programs are, and how culturally relevant they are to students of varying backgrounds. In Thailand, the increasing influence of English as a language of business and higher education is not unique in the global context as countries struggle “to meet internal needs while also striving to be globally competitive” (Brook Napier, 2011, pp. 59). As Brook Napier (2011) argued, many countries struggle to educate linguistic minorities in their own national languages, while coping with English dominance. Further, she posited the connection between linguistic, regional, ethnic and economic inequalities in South Africa, a dimension that also has relevance in Thailand. My work accounted for linguistic and ethnic minority groups in Thailand and my interpretation of the data benefits from understanding the connections between linguistic issues in education and economic outcomes for minority children.

**Post-colonial studies.** The colonial legacy in Asia has implications for understanding human trafficking and education in the region and for my own research on stateless populations. Alongside the discourse on globalization, post-colonial studies also offer insight into the contexts, particularly economic contexts, which encourage human trafficking in Thailand. One key argument of post-colonial thought is that colonial power has not disappeared but has shifted
from territorial control to economic control. Such an argument makes sense when one looks at policy such as the TIP Report and its impact on human trafficking in Thailand. Ashcroft, Griffiths, and Tiffin (2006) argued that

the importance of globalization to post-colonial studies comes first from its demonstration of the structure of world power relations, which stands firm in the twentieth century as a legacy of Western imperialism. Second, the ways in which local communities engage the forces of globalization bear some resemblance to the ways in which colonized societies have historically engaged and appropriated the forces of imperial dominance. (pp. 461-462)

This theoretical stance toward globalization does have a hopeful dimension insisting on the importance of individual agency, and the importance of the local in globalization. But as Dirlik (2006) pointed out, the same processes that have encouraged a “Global Capitalism” (p. 466) of consumption and production allow for an ease of exploitation of the local, engulfing and assimilating local culture and homogenizing identities. Among Said’s (1979) arguments in Orientalism was the notion that the commodification of Eastern cultures serves Western imperialistic economic desires and Western sexual fantasies. This idea can be applied to human trafficking in Thailand, when one thinks about the supply and demand for child prostitutes, sex workers, domestic servants and slave labor, especially when one looks at the large number of Western sex tourists in Thailand. The same Western influence can be seen in the American dominance on global human trafficking policy, which are given more credence due to the economic implications associated with the TIP Report and other policies.

Hybridity. One component of post-colonial studies that is of particular usefulness to my study is the concept of hybridity. Ashcroft, et al, (2006) also delineated hybridity as a key
element of globalization and dimension of post-colonial studies. They argued that hybridity is a two way process, both imposed on individuals, and manipulated and exploited by individuals to their advantage (Ashcroft, et al, 2006). Homi Bhabha (2006) argued that culture and identity are always in flux, situationally relative, and continually renegotiated through a dialectical process. Bhabha’s ideas are helpful in understanding: how human trafficking victims self-identify, how culture and identity can be helpful in the education of victims in NGO schools, and how to help to build educational connections for learning and social connections for the students outside the NGO setting.

**Post-colonial education specific issues.** Hawkins (2007) argued that in Asia, “education for all” continues to be an important issue, with many countries instituting tracking systems (p. 295-296). Most Asian countries have mixes of socialist and market economies, and colonial legacies have left infrastructures that make modernization difficult for some (p. 296). Religious influence and traditional moral and value (e.g. Confucianism) based education is important in Asia as each country mixes the modern and the traditional within their own context (p. 296). The gender gap in education is still a significant issue in Asia. Member countries of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) have a combined population of over 500 million people, all of which were colonized by Western countries except Thailand (p. 302). Even though many countries have mandatory primary education, some have difficulty in enforcing the policy (p. 302). Secondary education participation varies, with Thailand having the largest percentage (30%) and Cambodia the lowest (3%) (p. 302). To complicate this issue, the two countries share a border.

(pp. 34) that 900,000 school-age children 11 years old or below were not in school, and 37% of the children over 11 were not in school. Almost one million children in Thailand do not have birth registration documents, and 10% of Thai children live below the national poverty level. According to the United Nations’ Millennium Development Goals Report (2007), Southeast Asia has made improvements in the reduction of poverty and remains high in its primary school enrollment when compared to other developing regions.

How do the comparative educational differences between Thailand and its neighbors impact human trafficking? Hawkins (2007) pointed out that even though Thailand is a higher income country compared to its neighbors, it still has “equity issues” (p. 303), especially in regards to resources and human capital. The influence of neo-liberalism from trade partners and foreign investment has a significant impact on the importance government funding sources put on education in rural areas, and which aspects of education are emphasized (Jungck & Kajornsiri, 2003). This issue may influence the particular educational foci at the two NGOs I studied. Hawkins (2007) also targeted the social “dynamism” (p. 307) in Asia as being an important characteristic, which implies further complexity in the future as globalization intensifies (McCaskill et al., 2008).

Fry (2002, p. 5) argued that Thailand, formerly Siam, has historically been progressive in terms of education, tracing public education innovations back to 1871 to royal decrees on education made by King Chulalongkorn. Early education reforms in Siam were focused on modernizing the country, with a push toward offering language and religious education to a larger portion of Siamese people, and even one of the first schools in Bangkok offering half-day instruction in English. Unfortunately, the political upheaval in the decades after World War Two made education a less prominent issue in Thai politics (p. 16). By the mid-1990s, the Thai
government created the Commission on Thailand’s Education in the Era of Globalization (p.15), the focus on education in Thai politics resumed with a renewed spotlight on international competitiveness and a holistic approach to education. Fry argued that despite recent advances in educational policy in Thailand, over-centralization of the education system and regional disparities have reduced the effectiveness of new initiatives. Further, he found that orphans, street children, children of migrant labor and child laborers were among the groups of children most educationally disadvantaged in Thailand. These groups of children are groups that the NGOs serve in my study.

Trakulphadetkrai (2011) argued that Thailand has made great strides in improving education toward the Education for All goals for 2015 set by UNESCO in 1990. Thailand’s education system has made improvements in pre-primary and primary education participation, improved youth and adult literacy, and reduced gender disparity in educational achievement and access. However, regional educational disparity still exists, and despite increases in funding for education, and policies to reduce barriers and improve access, most of the improvements have resulted in urban Thai schools. Rural Thailand continues to struggle with gender and ethnic educational disparity. Teachers in Thai government schools continue to receive low pay, and teachers continue to prefer urban over rural schools, as well as private schools over government schools. These aspects of the rural Thai education context remain unaccounted for in national level education policy.

*Education research in the global and post-colonial context.* Pring (2004) made a strong argument for the use of qualitative research in education, particularly when researching highly emotional, subjective topics such as those in this study. Writers such as Arnove (2007) in the comparative and international education field and Dirlik (2006) in the post-colonial studies field
have highly applicable ideas that transfer usefully to my study, specifically using a global perspective to interpret local educational realities. Writers as diverse as Hawkins (2007), deMarrais and Lapan (2003), and Friere (1972) argued for research on the education of marginalized groups. International organizations such as ECPAT have a significant focus on education in their models of action (Crispin, Richter, & Davey-Burns, 2008). The connection between social capital theory and educational attainment has been made by Israel, Beaulieu, and Hartless (2001). Also, the importance of teacher-student relationships in educational research has been posited (Johnson, 2008). Finally, the connection between the gap in educational access and opportunity for marginalized groups (McClenaghan, 2000), particularly in Thailand, has been explored (Oh & Van Der Stouwe, 2008), and the connection between vulnerability and exploitation, has been established (Stanton-Salazar & Dornbusch, 1995), as well.

Robertson (1992) argued “Globalization as a concept refers both to the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole” (p. 8). Robertson also pointed out that Marx was using a concept of global universalism, and saw the proletariat as a global class (p. 17). We are now living in a “global-human condition (p. 26)” in which each individual is coming to terms with how global processes affect individual lives. Part of the issue with globalization is the widely accepted understanding of the West, and of the Third World, the periphery and the core, as concepts, and better understandings of how closely linked capitalism, the spread of democracy, the fall of communism and the impact imperial powers have had on each of these concepts. How these issues impact the most marginalized and vulnerable of a society is of particular interest to me and my study. As Robertson (1992) argued, more precisely, I argue that systematic comprehension of the structuration of world order is essential to the viability of any form of contemporary theory and
that such comprehension must involve analytical separation of the factors that have facilitated the shift towards a single world—for example the spread of capitalism, Western imperialism, and the development of a global media system: from the general and global agency-structure (and/or culture) theme (p. 55)”.

Robertson’s argument bolsters my own study regarding the necessity of understanding of the factors impacting globalization, one characteristic being human trafficking, and how human trafficking as a characteristic of globalization transcends the local in its implications.

Understanding any social concept, process or phenomenon must now be situated in a global context, not only because of the impact that these global forces have, but also because of the increasing awareness of these processes throughout the world (Robertson, 1992). My own work—and the work in the field of human trafficking reviewed in this chapter—demonstrate that more comprehensive understanding of human trafficking, and more exploration of the ways individuals and organizations are addressing human trafficking, has implications for human trafficking in the broader context.

Another characteristic of globalization in education is the strong emphasis world-wide on science and technology as well as knowledge societies equipped to address the rapid changes in the global economy. Education systems are largely responsible for preparing the populations of each nation for these changes. This responsibility has brought in the influence of privatization, profit and loss into the education process, and introduced competition into education within and among education systems. Competition is a key feature of education which advantages certain groups with power in society, helps to solidify inequality, and creates new inequities (Stromquist, 2002). Human trafficking is one of the manifestations of these inequities. My
study benefitted from examining global contextual issues and their impact on efforts to address human trafficking at the local level (Arnove, 2007).

Migration in the global context also has implications for my study, particularly in terms of the movement of vulnerable groups. Stromquist (2002) argued that global migration has weakened national influence on impoverished populations, and reduced many migrants’ access to education. Advances in communication technology has reduced geographic barriers to education for some, and increased the importance of high level knowledge on a global scale. Wealth disparity and access to education effect how much and what types of international aid are available to a country (United States Department of State, 2010), which also has implications for human trafficking. The NGOs in my study are highly impacted by the amount of international aid available. The importance placed on the issue of human trafficking at the national and international levels is associated with how much funding the NGOs receive. Funding levels at these NGOs determines how many children can be supported at the shelters, and the educational resources available to students.

*International aid.* International aid to developing countries is assumed to have either a direct impact on reducing poverty or an indirect relationship by facilitating economic growth, which in turn reduces poverty. The combination of economic growth and reduction in poverty is what is typically thought of as development (World Bank, 2010). Riddell (1997) argued that foreign aid has largely left out certain preconditions necessary for development to be substantial and effective. More recently, goals for development have shifted from a market focus to a human resources or human capital focus, which insinuates education as a priority (p. 466). The ability of foreign aid to truly facilitate development is being increasingly doubted (p. 469). The large number of NGOs working in Thailand on issues of development, including human
trafficking, may be making a similar mistake that foreign aid donors have made by missing the important pre-conditions that exist which perpetuate poverty and marginalization (Riddell, 1997).

In regards to my study, in order to address a serious development issue such as human trafficking, these pre-conditions are addressed. As Brook Napier (2005) argued, education reform and development programs are so complex that categorizing them as successes or failures is shortsighted and risks oversimplification of complicated phenomenon. Oversimplifying the human trafficking issue as solely an education issue means overlooking important global social factors that impact the NGOs in my research. Rather than categorizing them as successes or failures (Brook Napier, 2005), I examine the social factors that the students, teachers and staff are taking into account. For instance, the NGOs in my study existed within the broader Thai educational system context. The NGOs are not currently officially associated with the Thai Non-Formal Education System (Ministry of Education, n.d.). If they were under the Non-Formal Education System administrative umbrella, the NGOs I studied would be subject to restrictive mandates of the Thai education system. Yet, as part of the Non-Formal Education System, additional and more consistent funding would be available to the organizations to be used for staff. This study focused on small-scale, customizable and localized educational practices which are impacted by broader national and global pressures. Therefore this study benefitted from understanding the global education context.

I included the previous literature on globalization and education in order to establish and reinforce connections between these fields and research on human trafficking. I also included work in education which illustrates the increasingly international character of education programs and educational reform. No longer can we discuss education policy without
accounting for the global context. Even at the local-level where school-district leaders, school administrator and teachers go about their work, global context has become integrated with local educational decisions. Finally, as the field of human trafficking continues to grow and develop, we need to recognize the importance of contextual factors in the ways that human trafficking manifest in various localities.

As I considered education as a means of human trafficking prevention, I incorporated local and global context into my considerations (Arnove, 2007). Insights gained from understanding human trafficking from different perspectives, including migration and education, will continue to improve efforts to combat trafficking. In the next chapter, I discussed the research methodology I employed in my study.
CHAPTER 3

METHOD

In this chapter I describe my case-study design and methodology, including my shift from the pilot study to dissertation research. Changes in method addressed the changes to my research questions. I outline the qualitative methodology procedures I used in conducting the comparative two-site case study. I explicate how I sought to maintain consistency and quality throughout the research.

Introduction

This study was developed in two stages: pilot study and dissertation study. I conducted data collection for the pilot study over three weeks in the summer of 2010 at two NGOs in Thailand (see Appendix A). Prior to beginning the pilot study, I conducted a reconnaissance trip to Thailand in 2009 during a fellowship with Washington D.C.-based NGO Prevent Human Trafficking. During the first trip, I made contact with several NGOs and actors in the fight against human trafficking. I selected two NGOs as research sites for my study because of their distinctive work and focus. I gained verbal permission from the directors of each to could come back and do research the following year. Employing the pilot study as part-one in a two-stage approach allowed for exploration of several issues related to human trafficking and NGO shelter/schools during the pilot stage and a more refined focus during the dissertation research (Golafshani, 2003; Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, 2002). The idea for the pilot study came out of discussions with my committee and was suggested by my major professor, Dr. Diane Brook Napier. The pilot study was intended to address the concerns with conducting
international field work with a vulnerable population, the need for exploration of the topics involved, and a need to refine the methodology. Both stages of the study were designed to be qualitative in nature, incorporating interview, observation, photographic and document data. The pilot study allowed me to work through many technical issues related to international research, such as interviewing vulnerable populations (Tisdale, 2004), foreign language translation (Tsai, Choe, Lim, Acorda, Chan, Taylor, & Tu, 2004), and transportation and logistics (see Appendix A: Pilot Study report). Analysis of the pilot study data was highly valuable in identifying important issues related to the protection, education, and rehabilitation of human trafficking victims and populations at-risk of human trafficking in Thailand. The pilot study brought to the fore the issues of Thai citizenship and statelessness that I had previously considered only secondary issues based on the literature (Bales, 2008). It allowed me to begin to see the difficulties that these and other issues presented in pressuring children into trafficking situations.

The general line of questioning in the pilot study interviews assisted me in crafting more targeted and specific questions for the actual dissertation research. The combination of the pilot and dissertation studies generated a better understanding of what occurs at these two NGOs. I conducted the pilot study as a two-site case study as described by Creswell (2007, 2009) and continued that strategy of inquiry in the dissertation study. Prior to the Pilot Study, my outlook was quite broad and all-encompassing, and I considered the two sites (DEPDC and CPDC) to be of equal importance in the research.

At the pilot study stage in my thinking I considered the pilot study to be essentially a mini-study, and the dissertation study which is a bigger version of the pilot, with more interviews, observations and document analysis. However, my learning experience in the pilot study demanded that I reconsider details of the larger study. The dissertation study transformed
in light of the pilot study, changes at both organizations and new findings. I describe these issues next.

**Design of the Study**

After completing the pilot study and analyzing the data, I reconfigured my purpose with a narrowed focus on problems that push the students from the shelter/schools and aspects of the NGOs’ work, in terms of benefits, that pull the students to continue their education, and additional issues that emerged. The themes that arose from the pilot study illuminated several key unexpected issues that both organizations face, namely retention of students through the sixth grade (see Appendix A).

As the themes emerged from the pilot, I reconfigured my dissertation study so that the study would target these key push and pull factors for the older students at the shelter/schools. I collected interview, observation and document data for the dissertation in a similar fashion to the pilot study to maintain consistency. This consistency allowed for a more thick description of the settings and the issues, and the ability to examine changes over time. Figure 1 shows a revised methodology of the study.
Figure 1. The revised methodological ingredients for the dissertation study based on the pilot study experience.

Figure 1 illustrates several changes to the dissertation study. The population of students to be interviewed and observed narrowed. Interview questions targeted the push and pull factors that pressure students rather than all of the general issues that the NGOs, teachers, staff and students face. However, due to the open nature of my interviews, general issues did surface in the data. The study in total spanned over three summers from my reconnaissance trip in the summer of 2009 to the pilot study trip in July of 2010, and finally the dissertation study trip in 2011. A longer-term perspective is beneficial to the study in both establishing context and in monitoring changes within the organizations.
I made an important change to the dissertation study by shifting to a focus on one central site (DEPDC) with the second site (CPDC) as a secondary or supplementary site. I included both sites in the study, however, DEPDC was the central research site, and themes which emerge at this site was supplemented with findings from CPDC. This allowed me to incorporate CPDC in the study despite logistical issues which arose during the pilot study (see Appendix A). This shift also supported the choice to use the two-site case study design as described by Yin (2004) and Creswell (2007). My study is a case study in which I develop one case, however the case includes two sites, one central site and one secondary site. I also found it useful to continue incorporating a variety of theoretical perspectives into the study to account for the amount and diversity of data that was generated and the shift in methodological choices. I will explain my choices for the inclusion of multiple theoretical perspectives.

**Theoretical Perspective**

The theoretical perspective I employed in the study shifted as a result of my pilot study learning experience. I undertook the pilot study with an adherence to social capital theory as the primary lens through which to interpret the issues. During the pilot study, I found that social capital theory was inadequate to assist me in understanding much of what I saw in the data. I began to expand my thinking to include human capital and other elements related to the literature on social capital but this too seemed insufficient for understanding some elements in the data (Lareau & Weininger, 2003). Next, I began to gather literature on critical theory that lends itself to understanding exploited and underprivileged groups. Critical theory offered useful ways of understanding aspects of my data, however, did not appear comprehensive enough to incorporate all that I was uncovering in both stages of data collection. I explored the literature on globalization and post-colonial studies, and still felt as though I was unable to explain the entire
case. As I entered the dissertation study, I decided to employ an eclectic theoretical perspective, yet as I completed the analysis of the data for this case study, I was left without a fully comprehensive theoretical perspective through which to interpret my data. I will discuss below the elements of each of these theoretical perspectives that apply to the issues in this study, however, my perspective is without a single overarching theory that helps me to understand the case in its entirety.

**Social capital theory.** Social capital theory (Putnam, 2001, Coleman, 1998; Portes, 1998), which focuses on social connections, lends a useful lens to understand many aspects of human trafficking. Thailand has a large number of undocumented immigrants (Asia Watch Report, 1993) who have few social connections in the country, and little legal recourse if exploited. Building and strengthening social ties for human trafficking victims and at-risk youth are likely to improve life chances.

During the pilot study period, I did see some aspects of social tie building that was incorporated into the programs at both sites. Both DEPDC and CPDC work with other organizations to provide vocational and technical skills for older students. Teachers and staff worked to build trust and connections with students (Johnson, 2008). Older students, particularly in the Border Youth Leadership Training Programme (BYLTP) regularly did presentations on human rights and social justice topics at local schools and events (see Appendix B: plates 21-22). The teachers and staff worked to build and strengthen ties to community leaders, even providing programs and trainings for the community. Teachers and staff also visit the families of every student. These practices can be seen as social capital building activities (Israel, et al., 2001). During the dissertation study I was particularly interested in exploring the push and pull factors affecting the older students at DEPDC with an eye for elements of social capital building
Social capital theory’s ideas were helpful in understanding some of the vulnerabilities experienced by the children in my study, however, as I discovered in the pilot study, there are varying social connections that the children at these NGOs have, and despite the NGOs’ attempts to build social capital for the children, many chose to leave the NGO program, potentially back to trafficking situations (Appendix A). This brings me to a discussion on human capital and the connection between social capital and human capital.

Human capital (e.g. education, skills, knowledge) has been a focus of groups that work to prevent human trafficking victimization, with attention to job training, but often, victims continue to be vulnerable to exploitation, even after victims receive vocational training or basic education (Batstone, 2007). Improving the social capital and human capital of the students at NGO shelter schools can act as a social safety net for these vulnerable children. Social capital and human capital theory were inadequate to help me interpret data on the over-representation of minority hill-tribe children and undocumented immigrants at the NGOs, as well as other issues that arose in the data.

**Critical Theory.** Critical theory focuses on race, class and gender, each of which offers potentially useful lenses for understanding the nature of the work of my research sites. Both critical theory and social capital theory contain elements of social justice, and allow for education to act as a conduit to improve social mobility, which point toward the work in which the NGOs engage. Critical theory implies a potentially dynamic nature and changeability of individuals or communities, as well as social life in general (Prasad, 2005, 136), and in terms of education (Friere, 1972). Both lenses focus on power differentials within society, and the population of students that these NGOs work with would certainly be seen as marginalized based on ethnicity, gender and legal status (Kao, 2004). There is also a history of discrimination and
exploitation in Thailand of these groups (Walker & Farrelly, 2008), which helps me to understand the issues of vulnerability that the students at the research sites face. Social capital theory and critical theory, however, do not fully assist me in explaining why children continue to opt for the more dangerous yet lucrative possibilities offered by traffickers (see Appendix A).

**Post-colonial theory.** Post-colonial theory (Ashcroft, et al., 2006) lends insight to the interpretation and understanding of human trafficking as a global phenomenon. Stromquist (2002) argued for education to be at the forefront of the debate on globalization and economic imperialism. Dirlik (2006) made the connection between “Global Capitalism” and exploitation of groups such as those at my research sites. Understanding how power is differentially distributed helps to explain why education is such an important component, and why withholding citizenship from particular groups also prevents their access to education and power (Zixin, 2005).

The research questions I developed (see p. 13) allowed me to approach the data with an eclectic theoretical perspective yet I remained open to data that could not be accounted for theoretically, for instance, issues of migration. I found this eclectic perspective useful because it allowed me to incorporate elements from several perspectives. These elements assisted me in understanding the variety of data that I generated in this study.

**Data Types**

The dissertation study included similar data types, subjects and participants to that of the pilot study. These data types were interview transcripts, field notes on observations and memos on interview transcripts and field notes, photographs and NGO documents, all of which are described below.
Field notes on observations. Observations were conducted first at DEPDC, then at CPDC. I collected observation data through field notes and photographs (see Appendix B), with particular attention to evidence that suggested ways of keeping students at the shelter/schools, or elements that may push students away from the shelter/schools. As recommended by Creswell (2007), I used field notes of observations to sketch ideas, identify patterns and themes in interviews as they were being conducted, note contextual details from the research sites, reflect throughout the research process and note initial impressions during the observation and interview periods. I noted evidence of the issues that were surfacing in the interviews and that I observed outside the NGOs during my time in Thailand in other settings. During my travels around the country and during informal meetings with stakeholders, I was able to see evidence of the issues discussed in the interviews and I reflected on these observations in my field notes as well (Tedlock, 2001).

Being that the nature of the organizations changed over the course of this project, observations focused on the DEPDC program and its context, with data from CPDC and its context as supplementary to the DEPDC data. I began observations on the first day at a site with additional field notes employed throughout the study as evidence arose. In addition to giving me a chance to catch up on changes that the organizations implemented since the pilot study, the observation period gave me a chance to see students and staff in and out of the classroom setting, as well as be seen by them, prior to beginning interviews (Patton, 2002, Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

Interview transcripts. Interview transcripts from interviews with teachers, staff and students are the next data type used in the study. Pre-arranging of some interviews occurred through email and telephone communication with staff at the sites, yet other interviews were
scheduled after my arrival. My interview questions (see Appendix D) were designed to elicit data for the research questions included in the research matrix. I conducted all interviews with a translator and interview questions were translated into Thai and provided to interviewees in print. Interview protocols consisted of semi-standardized open ended questions which allowed for consistency across interviews yet allowed for further detail from participants and follow-up questions. I provided permission forms and interview protocols to the organizations prior to my arrival, and I also gained verbal consent from each interview participant prior to the interviews. Interviews were conducted as follows: I asked each question in English, the translator translated the question into Thai, the participant answered the question in Thai, and the translator translated the answer into English.

**Teachers and staff interviews.** I divided the interviews into two categories: teachers and staff, and students. I interviewed nine teachers and staff during the field research in July, 2011, eight at DEPDC and one at CPDC. I did not differentiate between teachers and staff in the interviews because of the numerous roles each person had at the organizations. Some teachers at DEPDC also had administrative duties and some office staff filled in as teachers on occasion. Some staff at CPDC also taught classes on the weekend.

**Student interviews.** I interviewed 32 students during my field research in July, 2011, 23 students at DEPDC and nine students at CPDC. Interviews lasted approximately 30 minutes, but due to the open ended questions in the interviews, some lasted longer.

**Documents.** I used available school documents offered by the organizations as the next data type in the study. The documents included background records of students, brochures and handouts provided by the staff at the organizations. During the July, 2011 interviews of students, a staff member provided background information after interviews at both DEPDC and CPDC.
using NGO records. I gathered basic information about the number and role of teachers and staff through printed brochures and descriptive information on the two NGOs’ websites. The two NGOs also provided me access to teaching materials that were used for community presentation, and curriculum materials used by teachers in class. I will provide further details from these documents in Chapter Four.

Photographs. I also used photographs as sources of data for the study and as sources of visual context to provide the reader. At DEPDC, their policy on photographs was that pictures can be taken of groups of students and teachers, however, individual student’s pictures were not allowed. I include photos of the facilities at each NGO and groups of children at the NGOs, particularly those which illustrate the changes over time at each location (see Appendix B: plates 33-44). I also included photos as a data source because they add further detail to the description of the NGOs, adding further depth to the thick description of the research sites. I analyzed the photographs using qualitative visual analysis techniques described by Knoblauch, Baer, Laurier, Petschke, and Schnettler (2008). These photographs offer contextual information for the reader and situate the study in its real world setting (Knoblauch, et al, 2008).

Memos. Finally, I used memos as a data type. I made memos to myself on methodological issues that arose and to note connections that I made across data during analysis. These memos were made directly on interview transcripts and in a notebook that I maintained throughout the data analysis process. They allowed me to process my thoughts in written form, and to keep a record of my progress.

Research Settings, Sampling, Access

Research subjects for this study included students, teachers, staff and key informants at the two research sites, DEPDC and CPDC. These two sites were selected for the study during
my 2009 visit to Thailand. At that time, I requested permission from NGO directors to return and conduct research. These NGOs were among the organizations that I visited and I found them interesting sites for further study. I described important aspects of each site below in the Settings section.

**Settings.** This comparative two-site case study included two Thai NGOs in very different areas of Thailand, serving different subgroups of children, with different objectives and missions for their work. Here, I provide basic descriptions of the two sites as I understood them prior to beginning the pilot study in 2010. More specific detailed descriptions of the sites follow in Chapter Four as details of the case. Detailed discussion of the changes that occurred at both sites will also follow in Chapter Four, covering my initial visit during the reconnaissance trip, through the Pilot Study, and ending with the full study.

**DEPDC.** DEPDC is located in Northern Thailand near the northernmost Thai city of Mae Sai on the border with Burma (see Appendix B:24-26), in a small village called Patak. In July of 2009, during my first trip to the region, I visited DEPDC and learned that the central location for DEPDC’s operations was called the Patak Half Day School, consisting of a large main school building with offices and classrooms on the first two floors, and the third floor has residential rooms for children living at the shelter (see Appendix B:2-5). Beside the main school building, was an open air vocational training building (see Appendix B:20), a covered picnic table area, an open air cooking building, a bathroom building, and a separate residential building behind the vocational building. Other features of the site included a small administrative building, a Community Learning Center (CLC) building, with several classrooms, and a weaving room with several looms. Within the Patak Half-Day School, DEPDC also operates the Child Voice Radio, a student-radio station that broadcasts information in Thai, Burmese and
indigenous languages into Burma and the surrounding Chiang Rai province in Thailand (see p. 116). In addition to the buildings at this facility, DEPDC also co-operated the Mekong Region Indigenous Child Rights Home (MRICRH) with the Thai Government (see Appendix B:6-7). Finally, DEPDC employs Mekong Youth Network (MYN) workers who are all former students of DEPDC, working at NGOs in all six Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS) countries (depdc.org, 2009).

**CPDC.** CPDC is located in the eastern coastal city of Pattaya and I had the opportunity to see this organization transform drastically, in terms of facilities, funding, and goals, over a short period of time. When I first visited the site in July of 2009, it consisted of only a few makeshift shelters made of wood and bamboo and located on a barren piece of rural land which had been recently purchased for them by a charity (see Appendix B: plates 30-36). The shelter, at the time was called the Pattaya School for Street Children and consisted of two dirt floor living quarters, one for boys and one for girls, an open air, dirt floor classroom and an office (see Appendix B: plate 30). At the time, they had three teachers that worked with the children full time, and a volunteer teacher that taught English. They also had an outreach location near the Walking Street area of Pattaya (see Appendix B: plates 49-51), but I was not able to visit this location in 2009. The Pattaya School for Street Children had begun construction on several new structures which they hoped would both house children and offer a better educational environment (see Appendix B: plate 31).

**Sampling.** I chose the two NGOs because of my 2009 trip when I visited the locations. I chose research subjects for this study based on the students’ grade level and age, as the older children at DEPDC were fewer in number and at higher risk of dropping out of the program prior to sixth-grade, based on my findings in the pilot study. Older children at CPDC were also few in
number and more likely to leave the shelter at the time of the pilot study. At CPDC, I interviewed available students ages 10 and older to be of comparable ages to the students at DEPDC. Some of the students interviewed during the dissertation study did not participate in the pilot study. No linking information on research subjects in the pilot study was carried over to this study. I used a combination of opportunity sampling and purposeful sampling as described by Patton (2002, pp. 45). Opportunity sampling allowed me flexibility to incorporate new research subjects as they arose in the setting, and was useful in allowing me to adapt to changes that had occurred at the organizations since my pilot study in 2010. I used purposeful sampling in my selection of older students at both organizations as the subjects of the dissertation study. As Patton (2002, pp. 45-46) argued, these two sampling strategies are useful in information-rich case studies such as this study.

**Access.** The research sites in this study were difficult locations to access, in terms of geography, language and culture. I incurred significant financial cost in order to get to the sites and hire a translator. During both the pilot study and dissertation study field research seasons, I travelled to the sites by motorcycle. Not being a Thai speaker, I was often hindered in my mobility due to transportation and communication issues. Thanks to the welcoming and compassionate friends that I made in Thailand, the obstacles that I faced in the field were overshadowed by the graciousness of my hosts. I found that many of the issues I encountered were resolved by a friendly smile and a positive attitude, aspects rarely discussed in research manuals, but equally as helpful. In the discussion to follow, I describe the key aspects of access that featured in the study.

**Navigating the culture.** In addition to the logistical obstacles that complicated my access to the research sites, I had to navigate the culture of two very different areas of Thailand. In
Northern Thailand, where DEPDC is located, the atmosphere is much more casual and less hectic than places like Bangkok. This region is visited less by tourists, however, and fewer people speak English. Going to markets (see Appendix B: plate 27) and restaurants in Northern Thailand meant more reliance on my English-Thai phrasebook and dictionary. Because of my relationship with the people at DEPDC, I had a much more rich experience than I anticipated. During the pilot study, I went on an all day hike through the Patak village with students, teachers and volunteers, shared meals or food with many of the children’s immediate or extended families. We also hiked together to the Buddhist temple at the top of the mountain between Patak village and the Burma border, which had Buddhist shrines placed deep within a mountain cave.

During the dissertation study, I also spent the day with the entire school, teachers, staff and students, hiking to the local Buddhist temple (see Appendix B: plate 23). The school was closed on a Friday for a Buddhist holiday, so the end of the school day on Thursday, the schools customarily bring offerings to the temple. Buddhist Monks conducted a service for the students and teachers, which was a wonderful experience, and then everyone had to hike back to the school in a sudden rainstorm. The combination of my time spent at DEPDC, travel to the Chiang Khong shelter, and navigating Northern Thailand on a motorcycle gave me a better sense of the people and culture. Mae Sai is situated across the river and border from its sister city, Taichelek, Burma. The border and customs house in Mae Sai is a very busy border crossing, and there are many people streaming into Thailand from the Burma side of the border (see Appendix B: plates 24-26).

My time in Pattaya was quite different however. Pattaya is a notorious sex tourist destination, filled with go-go bars, hotels, and tourists. Far from the bustle of Pattaya, CPDC is
situated on a rural piece of land several kilometers from the coast (see Appendix B: plate 30). CPDC’s fairly remote location also provides some protection from the seedier side of Pattaya for the children who live there. CPDC’s director, Supagon Noja, also known as Khun Ja, had encountered violence from traffickers and pedophiles despite CPDC’s remote location, as I described in the pilot study (see Appendix A).

Navigating international research formalities. My first step in obtaining permission to conduct research on human subjects was to gain approval through my university’s Institutional Review Board (IRB). I provided IRB approval for my pilot study and the dissertation study in Appendix I and J, respectively. In order to conduct research in Thailand, I completed the application process through the National Research Council of Thailand (NRCT), who reviews and approves any and all legitimate research proposals in the country. Particularly because my research interests involved vulnerable populations and sensitive topics, close scrutiny was paid to my pilot and dissertation studies. Upon arrival in Thailand, I was required to appear at the NRCT in order to get a researcher identification card and to pay minor fees. Although it was difficult to navigate through Bangkok to get to the office, I found the people at the NRCT to be very helpful and supportive. Interestingly, I also found that they responded well to my positive attitude and commented on the other foreign researchers who they encountered being rude and disrespectful toward the NRCT staff. I also found that I was the first researcher that has approached my research sites who had gone through the formal NRCT process, yet many researchers had approached these NGOs to do research. One staff member noted that my approach to the human trafficking topic through an educational perspective was what caused the organization to decide to allow me to do research at their site. The staff member also noted that the other researchers who had approached the NGO only want to focus on sex trafficking.
Another staff member noted that researchers, journalists and T.V. crews have approached the organization however none of them ever provide official NRCT approval (see Appendix G). This lack of formally registered legitimate researchers in the field of human trafficking research in Thailand calls for more skepticism of the available human trafficking research in Thailand (Laczko, 2005).

Roles of the Researcher, Subjectivity and Bias

As an American researcher, I remained aware throughout the process that my role was as an outsider, who had established some relationship with the organizations. As described by Creswell (2009), qualitative researchers “explicitly identify their biases, values, and personal interests about their research topic and process. Gaining entry to a research site and the ethical issues that might arise are also elements of the researcher’s role,” (p. 184). Having completed the pilot study, and having been welcomed back for the full study by these organizations, I illustrated my prior ability to access these sites successfully, and to navigate the researcher role competently. I also remained aware of the opportunity being provided to me by these organizations that welcomed me into their lives and work, and gave so generously of their time. This speaks to the emotional aspect of research and the researcher’s emotional connection to their research.

The roles of the researcher in qualitative research are very important, because as Patton (2002) explained, “the researcher is the instrument” (pp. 14). My skill and competence as a researcher have an important impact on how credible this study is perceived. For this reason it is important for me to expound on my own subjectivity and bias.

Emotional connection to research site. One significant issue that I encountered as a researcher was the emotional impact of conducting the research. Throughout my time in the
field and extended contact over time with the people at these two organizations, I developed an emotional connection to these people and their difficulties, much more-so than before I entered the field. When I left the field in July, 2011, I felt the pain of withdrawal (Wolcott, 2005) as I pondered the future of these organizations and the children that they served.

**Subjectivity and bias.** I attempted to ensure my credibility as a researcher and scholar by being explicit in my biases, although bias and subjectivity cannot be entirely eliminated in a qualitative study as discussed by Berg (2009). I made notes of my own interpretations of events in my field notes, in order to be explicit about my own thinking. I accounted for my own individual biases and subjectivities in order to understand how my background influences interpretations of data in the research. Being a westerner, a scholar, a teacher, a father and a husband, my own perceptions of what I observed may be colored. This coloring can be accounted for by remaining systematic and consistent in my data gathering procedures. My own bias cannot be completely eliminated; however, I attempted to control for bias through specific qualitative research techniques to be discussed later in this chapter.

My role as an outsider in this dissertation had important implications for my analysis of data. My interpretations are influenced by my gender and ethnicity, as a white male researching in Southeast Asia. Being an American, I am aware of, and consciously worked to prevent, projecting American ideals on the Asian context. Also, western sensibilities influenced my interpretation of the needs of students and teachers, as well as the organizations as a whole. As an American public school teacher, I have a particular frame of reference for understanding the data that I gather from teachers and staff, particularly in terms of standards-based education, standardized testing and data driven instruction (United States Department of Education, n.d.). As a public school teacher, I am forthcoming in my predisposition toward considering the
teacher-student relationship one of the most important aspects of student success and schooling. From my own experience as a middle school teacher, I have found that students can make incredible strides academically and socially if they have a teacher with whom they have built a strong teacher-student relationship. However, my findings in the pilot study (see Appendix A) show that I did not allow my own predispositions toward social capital theory to blur my findings by only concentrating on the social capital elements in the study and ignoring other elements for which social capital theory could not account. To control for bias, and to ensure dependability and trustworthiness of my data and findings, I employed specific qualitative techniques that I discuss later in this chapter.

**Logistical Issues**

Several logistical issues arose throughout my time in the field. These included time issues, translator issues, financial issues, and ethical issues.

**Time issues.** Although my research study was ethnographic in nature, I was limited financially in regards to time in the field. My study was conducted in approximately six weeks of field work, which is not considered by ethnographers to be sufficient time in the field to true ethnography (Geertz, 1973; Olson, 2006). The time limitation may have impacted my observations, as subjects may have behaved differently with me present for a few weeks versus several months or a year. I expected that interviews were more guarded in terms of the honesty of responses, and this would likely have improved with extended time in the field. I kept this drawback in mind as I analyzed interviews and observations. However, I attempted to improve my status with the organizations by maintaining communication with both organizations by telephone, email and mail between research seasons. Rather than being brand new to the locations, my limited prior knowledge of the layouts of the facilities, and time spent on the
Campuses gave me some credibility with the NGOs, and thus with the research subjects. I found that NRCT approval of my research project had unanticipated benefits for my credibility with both NGOs, as I discussed earlier (see pp. 84; see Appendix G).

**Translator issues.** Translator issues were significant in this study, and unanticipated benefits were gained during the pilot study (see Appendix A). I was able to pre-arrange a translator through my communications with DEPDC’s staff prior to arrival in 2010 and 2011. I used the same translator, who was again in Thailand during the summer of 2011, the period of time I completed the data gathering for this study. However, this translator was only available for my time at DEPDC in 2011. Therefore, I had to rely on a staff member at CPDC, with whom I worked in the pilot study, to translate my interviews at CPDC in 2011. Issues related to translators in research have been explored in several fields (Tsai, et al, 2004) and much evidence shows the importance of the translator as a collaborator with the researcher (Larkin, de Casterle & Schotsmans, 2007). While conducting the interviews, the translator and I held several discussions about the issues that I saw emerging in the data. According to Temple and Young, (2004), the translator is often seen as a pivotal piece in a study. The open-ended questions and follow-up questions that I employed in the interviews were fruitful, in part because of the translator’s close relationship with the children at the organizations and her friendly demeanor during interviews. The translator I employed proved to be an indispensable part of the study. She gave me a unique insider perspective on the issues that the children at DEPDC faced. I included the exact translation in the quotes was that often the translation left much interpretation up to me, and by including the exact translation, I also allow the readers of this study to form their own interpretations of the translations of interview responses. The following background on the translator provides details about her perspective and how her insight benefitted the study.
The translator was from a small hill tribe village, attended DEPDC through the sixth grade, participated in DEPDC’s Mekong Youth Network (MYN) program for several years (see pp. 110 for description of the MYN program). She attended public school and non-formal education programs after her time at DEPDC. Then she and another DEPDC student were selected by a program called the Thailand Project (2011) to attend the University of Wisconsin at Stephens Point on a scholarship program for stateless students. She and the other student participated in the remedial English as a Second Language (ESL) program and then enrolled in college credit classes, with all of the tuition, fees and living expenses provided by the Thailand Project. The translator was granted a temporary special student visa with the understanding that she return during the summer breaks from college to work on and complete her application process for her official Thai ID, passport and official student visa. Therefore, not only was she available to translate for my study, she gave me the chance to see first-hand, how difficult the process was for her to gain Thai citizenship.

It was difficult for the translator to commit to specific times and dates to translate because she needed to leave with little notice to go to the local or provincial government office to complete paperwork, and needed to relay messages back and forth between the government office and the village leader, a key person in the process. Since many rural ethnic minority people were born in their village, they do not have official birth records. The government officials relied on the local village leader to vouch for a person who is going through the citizenship process to prove that they were born in Thailand. Unfortunately for the translator, the village leader was a farmer, and could not readily travel to the government office approximately 20-30 km from the village. In order to encourage him, she had to pay for or provide transportation for him to and from the government office. Several times during my pilot study
and dissertation study, the translator had to travel to the provincial office in Chiang Rai, an approximately one hour bus ride, or to the government office in Chiang Mai, an approximately five hour bus ride, with little notice. Just prior to my arrival in July 2011, she received her official Thai ID, granting her Thai citizenship. This began the complicated passport and student visa process. Despite the scheduling difficulties that this issue presented, we were able to work hand-in-hand with the staff at both organizations to set up interviews in a timely manner and in the process both the translator and I had useful experiences. I gained her insider perspective, she gained translator experience and she earned money for her university studies. The translator served as an important intermediary between me and the interviewees. I would not have been able to conduct the pilot study or dissertation study without her, since the interview data were central to the study. Our discussions before and after conducting the interviews were crucial in my understanding of the contextual issues and cultural elements within the interview data.

Financial issues. The amount of time between the pilot study and the dissertation study also created both drawbacks and benefits. Cost was a significant logistical issue in this study. My entire study was self-financed, including travel, accommodations, fees for translators and related costs. Foreign area field research also created communication issues between data gathering seasons, however, I was able to communicate through email, written mail and telephone with staff members at each organization on a regular basis.

Ethical issues and reciprocity. Both organizations included in this case study are continually struggling with funding issues and resources. Patton (2002) argued that, “Mutual trust, respect, and cooperation are dependent on the emergence of an exchange relationship, or reciprocity” (p. 312), and I will now describe my attempts at reciprocity as part of my study. I noticed on my previous trips to Thailand that both organizations were in need of books, both in
Thai and English. At DEPDC, I made a trip with staff members to a local book store and bought books valued at approximately 50 dollars U.S. to contribute to the Patak Half Day Schools small library. One staff member commented that the library doubled in size in just one day. At CPDC, because of time issues, I went to a local bookstore in Pattaya and bought books on topics that a staff member conveyed to me via email. Patton also argued that “Participants in research provide us with something of great value, their stories and their perspectives on their world. We show that we value what they give us by offering something in exchange” (2002, p. 415). In Chapters Four and Five, I discuss the issues of funding that limits how NGOs spend funding. At DEPDC, I also did not offer the contributions until interviews were complete, thereby eliminating influence of the contribution on the interviews. At CPDC, I had to bring the contributions on the same day as interviews took place because of limitations of translator and time. However, I was able to identify an area of need and by contributing to the organization in this manner, and I felt that I was able to help the organization without skewing the results of my interviews.

Data Collection

I collected and analyzed data for the dissertation study according to the method used in the pilot study in order to maintain consistency across time, setting and subjects. As field notes, I wrote observational notes during my time at both research sites. I began observational notes during my observation period at both organizations. I maintained observation field notes in secure locations throughout the dissertation study. I also took observational notes during and between interviews, noting similarities and differences between interview answers and important statements made by interviewees. I took observational notes throughout my time in Thailand, even when away from the research sites, noting contextual issues within Thailand, and elements
of the ideas being discussed in interviews. I also wrote memos to myself on my observation notes, commenting on connections across data, and evidence of issues in the interviews and observations. This allowed me to keep a running commentary on the important issues and themes that began to arise during my time in the field. Finally, I wrote memos in my field notes regarding interviews, commenting on elements that were appearing in the interviews throughout my time at the organizations such as evidence of benefits being gained by children.

I conducted interviews in various locations at the research sites. At DEPDC, I conducted most of the interviews in the room known as the teacher room (see Appendix B: plates 17-18). I placed forms and translated interview questions on a large table for interviewees to read in this room, which was largely vacant during classes. At other times, we relocated interviews to various shelters around the compound that had a table and seating under a covered area. In Northern Thailand during the rainy season it rains often and thus the need for a covered area. At CPDC, I conducted interviews in the office building and on the open air veranda outside the dining building (see Appendix B: plates 41, 44). Both areas had ample seating and were removed from the area where most children were located. We took a break during the lunch time, as the dining building began to draw children and resumed after all of the children had left the dining building. I conducted interviews after consent forms were read by interviewees or read to them by the translator. Verbal assent was gained on the digital audio recorder prior to interviews. I recorded all interviews onto a hand-held digital audio recorder. I transferred audio to my password-protected laptop computer each day in my hotel room. I transcribed all interviews on my word processor program using the audio recorders transcribing software on my computer. I transcribed all interviews after returning home following my field research. I did not transcribe all of the interviews word-for-word. However, I transcribed key portions of the
interviews verbatim. I destroyed the audio files after completion of the analysis phase of the study. During this study, I acquired 41 teacher, staff and student interviews. I conducted 32 student interviews, 23 at DEPDC and nine at CPDC. I also conducted nine teacher and staff interviews, eight at DEPDC and one at CPDC. I also had several informal discussions with staff members and people in the community, which I noted in my observation field notes notebook. See Appendix A for information on the pilot study interviews.

I used several types of NGO documents as data, some of which was provided by staff at the organizations, and some of which were available on the organizations’ websites. A staff member at DEPDC recounted the backgrounds of the children that I interviewed using the organization’s paperwork, allowing for a more contextual understanding of their interviews. I wrote down this information in my field notes, and used the field notes to analyze the interview transcripts. At CPDC, a staff member discussed the children’s background before and after each interview without the use of paperwork, and was able to explain the situation behind many of the children, even children that I did not interview. I was able to understand many of the hardships that the children had encountered. I used brochures and reports available on both NGOs’ websites, which I use in Chapter Four to develop the case.

Finally, I used photographs as data, particularly to provide context. I took photographs of both organizations, children at these organizations, teachers and staff at these organizations, and Thailand in general. Following the guidelines set forth by each organization regarding photographing children, I was able to capture images that contextualized findings from the study and provided a visual accompaniment to the data and associated implications (see Appendix B).
Analysis of Data

I employed the Constant Comparative Method, as described by Glaser and Strauss (1967), using open coding to identify major themes and patterns. This method required me to compare and categorize data throughout the research process. I continually identified key elements in the data during and after I collected the data. I noted important elements in my field notes while in the field and in memos during the coding phase after transcribing the interviews. Rather than focusing on one key or “core” phenomenon (Creswell, 2007, p. 64), I began with the issues discussed in Chapter One (see pp. 10), however I remained open to new themes and categories beyond the pilot study findings. I used Constant Comparative Method as my overall approach to data analysis, which allowed me to begin analyzing data informally through field notes and memos. I found Constant Comparative Method particularly useful in analyzing a large amount of complex qualitative data (Patton, 2002). I did not use deductive reasoning, which begins with a general understanding and applies data to this understanding, preferring inductive reasoning to develop general understanding from the data without a predetermined set of understandings or rules (Patton, 2002).

Creswell discussed comparing data to emerging categories throughout the research process in order to establish “saturation”, meaning enough evidence to establish support for the researcher’s findings. As Berg (2008) explained, I looked for three to four instances of a theme or pattern in order to consider a theme saturated. My study incorporated some elements of Strauss and Corbin (2008), who argued for categorizing data into causal conditions, strategies, contextual conditions, intervening conditions, and consequences. I was not looking to establish causal relationships within and among issues and factors in the study. I did, however, categorize data using informal content analysis, which allowed me to incorporate these categories, by
examining and exploring the nature of the NGOs’ work. During my data analysis, I kept
category types recommended by Strauss and Corbin (2008) in mind, while reserving the ability
to break outside of these prescribed groupings of themes and patterns in the data.

I began the analysis of my data with my field notes. First, I compiled and typed
electronic versions of observation field notes. Then, using the Track Changes feature in
Microsoft Word, I examined the field notes for overarching themes, particularly related to push
and pull factors for students. With this word processor feature, I was able to create memos and
comments on each of the highlighted elements in field notes and transcripts to begin compiling
and distilling important information. However, I did apply ideas from the pilot study to findings
from the dissertation study, which had already begun to develop prior to the final research season.

With observation field notes, and findings from the pilot study, as the starting points I
transcribed the interviews. As I progressed through various phases of coding, I found it useful to
continue condensing or distilling information to fewer categories and subcategories. After
transcribing the dissertation study interview transcripts, I examined the transcripts for repeated or
emphasized phrases and concepts both during and after my time in the field, in order to establish
overarching themes (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). I also compared these themes to the pilot study
findings throughout the process of analyzing transcripts using Constant Comparative Method. I
utilize components of data analysis methods recommended by Charmaz (2006), particularly in
terms of coding, and Patton (2002), in terms of convergent and divergent themes. I will discuss
specifics on the phases of coding that I employed below in the section on coding. After I
completed the coding phase, I used the Inspiration mind-mapping software to condense and
collapse the data into visual webs. I constructed the findings in a variety of visual ways as well
as in outline form using this software. I built the hierarchical thematic findings in Chapter Four and Figures 11 and 15-19 with this software, as well.

I structured the analysis stage of the dissertation study with an approach similar to the case study approach argued for by Creswell (2007). I aimed to develop the case of two NGO research sites, and describe the context, presenting an “in-depth picture of the case (or cases)” (Creswell, 2007, p. 157). This study targeted the issue of dropouts, particularly at DEPDC as students progress toward sixth grade graduation, or in the case of CPDC, leaving the shelter/school to work or live on the streets. This dropout issue arose from the findings of the pilot study, and from those findings appeared links to issues of poverty, statelessness and marginalization. Continuing the analytical method used in the pilot study also improves reliability (Patton, 2002) in the study.

**Coding procedures.** I analyzed my interview and field note data through several phases of coding as described by Creswell (2003), and Patton (2002). I began the analysis of dissertation study interviews with an initial reading of the completed interview transcriptions and typed field notes, highlighting important words and phrases, which is called *in vivo* or open coding. Using the participants own words as the first set of codes are what Creswell (2006) termed *in vivo* codes. I followed Creswell’s interpretive content analysis method to gain an overall understanding of the data as a whole. Next, as Patton described, I conducted a line-by-line reading of the data where I copied and pasted important highlighted items into the comment feature of Microsoft Word in the right margin of the page. This created a running list of items from interviewee’s own words. I was able to condense the data into important items from the interviews without placing my own interpretations of these items at this phase. This initial stage of coding, called open coding by Creswell (2003) allowed me to look back at interview and field
note data in a more condensed format to begin developing categories (Patton, 2002). A sample of my open coding of interview transcripts is provided in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Sample open coding of interview transcripts using Microsoft Word.

Next, I began categorizing the open codes in the interview transcripts into broad categories, such as problems, benefits and goals, in the second phase of coding, known as focused coding (Creswell, 2006). This allowed me to then group all of the open codes into these broad categories for closer analysis. I also categorized the field notes into categories, some of which matched interview categories, and some of which did not, such as logistics and access. See Figure 3 below for a sample of how I categorized the field notes.
Figure 3. Sample of field notes categories using Microsoft Word.

Figure 3 also illustrates my thinking about methodological issues throughout the research process. In Figure 4, I provided a sample of my memos as I reflected on some of the issues that were arising, which were developing into themes by this point in the analysis phase. I based my decisions about major themes and sub-themes using a combination of the number of instances that a theme arose in the interview data (see Table 3) and the prevalence of a theme in the other data sources.
The five categories that I began with in the interviews were: Problems, Benefits, Needs, Goals, and Most Important Aspects. As I re-examined the data with these categories in mind, I found that Needs and Problems could be combined into the category Problems. The Most Important Aspects category could be combined with Benefits. Also, Goals could be integrated with both Problems and Benefits, depending on the connotation of the comment, thus leaving two main categories: Problems and Benefits. Within these two categories, I began sub-categorizing the data. Using Inspiration concept-mapping software (Inspiration Software, Inc., 2011), I mapped each of these categories into diagrams sorting the sub-categories into hierarchies. For instance, below the broad category of Problems, I used the two subcategories Needs and Obstacles. Within each of these two subcategories, I sub-divided the Needs and Obstacles into Individual and Organization (See Figure 5). Finally, because of the uniqueness of the Goals data, I decided to re-consider the Goals findings as a category separate from Problems and Benefits.
Within the broad *Problems* category, I grouped all instances where an interviewee mentioned statelessness, ID, ID card, or Thai papers together. Further sub-grouping allowed me to begin developing themes, and to see the number of times that a particular issue was mentioned in the data despite variance in wording. This grouping also allowed particular interview wording to remain intact for quoting purposes. Figure 6 shows a sample of how this phase of coding was conducted.

```
Children who are very poor and no parents. People in Burma, some parents don’t want them to study because they want, the children to work.
```

```
Want to graduate 6th grade at DEPDC and study non-formal education and work. Want to be a doctor. To help other people to live without suffering. Surgery.
```

```
Comment [b92]: problem: poor
Comment [b93]: problem: no parents
Comment [b94]: problem: some parents don’t want them to study, because they want the children to work
Comment [b95]: goal: graduate 6th grade, nonformal education, work, doctor, help people
```

Figure 6. Initial sub-grouping of transcripts for categories using Microsoft Word

It was at this point that I began to transform the previously mentioned categories into themes. As described by Creswell (2006), I then color-coded the sub-groupings which began to form the basis for my themes. Color-coding also gave me a visual representation of the
magnitude of each code. For example, the pink color assigned to statelessness was very prominent throughout the transcripts, whereas, the color assigned to student confidence building was much less prominent (see Figure 7). Figure 7 shows that out of the 10 problems included in the sample, five of them are color-coded for statelessness and marked with an asterisk (*). The color-coding system allowed me to easily identify the important items based on the prevalence of their color in the codes. I included the specific number of instances of thematic findings for each category in Chapter Four.

```
Problem: stateless  *
problem: communication between teachers and volunteers
problem: stateless  *
problem: poor
problem: opportunities
problem: sad, depressing
problem: students leave and work in prostitution willfully
problem: law     *
Problem: ID     *
problem: law     *
```

Figure 7. Sample of color-coding using Microsoft Word

Finally, after seeing the prevalence of each of the codes within the categories, I developed my major themes. The super-ordinate themes that developed were Problems, Benefits, and Goals. I sub-divided the Problems theme into Statelessness, Poverty and Other Problems. I found that the Benefits theme could only be characterized as Benefits for Children. Finally, the Goals theme could be sub-divided into Work Goals, Education Goals, and Altruistic Goals. These themes are shown in Figure 8 and described in detail in Chapter Four. This overall categorization of the data is how I outline my findings in Chapter Four, following a detailed description of the research sites.
The coding procedures that I used allowed me to condense and collapse the large amount of data that I generated. This coding procedures section illustrated my thinking from the initial phase of open coding, to the basic categorization of the data, and finally to the development of themes from the categories of data.

**Demonstrating Quality**

Qualitative research has advantages and disadvantages that are important to this study including data issues, time issues, issues of fieldwork, accessibility issues, and generalizability issues (Mason, 2002). The quality of this study depended on systematically addressing these issues.

Figure 8. Overall categorization of the Thematic Findings
Issues of reliability, validity and verification of dissertation study data. I worked toward reliability, validity and verification of my data in a number of ways. I employed triangulation of data sources, data types, and theoretical concepts. I conducted field research over an extended period of time. I used member checking throughout my time in the field and after the field during the writing process via email, in order to gain insider perspective on my findings from a resident of Thailand familiar with human trafficking related issues. I employed an expert audit review to verify my interpretation of the data. I also provided a sample of audio recordings of the translated interviews to verify accurate translations of interviewee responses.

I now discuss the concepts of credibility, trustworthiness, and dependability. These concepts are the qualitative equivalent to the concepts of reliability and validity in quantitative research (Golafshani, 2003).

Credibility. Credibility as a researcher is highly important in qualitative research because, as Patton argued, the researcher is considered the instrument (2002), in addition to the interview protocols and observation guides. As Patton (2002) argued “Qualitative rigor has to do with the quality of observations of the evaluator” (pp.575). The quality of such observations is enhanced by a combination of theoretical insight, informative contextual background, subjective awareness, systematic data collection and systematic data analysis.

I worked to build credibility in several ways. I employed an eclectic theoretical perspective to provide insight. I gathered contextual background from a variety of sources including literature, interviews and observations. I broadened my subjective awareness through inclusion of an expert audit review, member checking and multiple trips to Thailand where I met many different actors involved in anti-human trafficking work. Next, I explain how credibility was established through the concepts of dependability, trustworthiness and triangulation.
**Dependability.** I used the dependability concept (Patton, 2002) as an alternative criterion similar to reliability in quantitative research that accurately applies to this project. Dependability is akin to consistency in data and methods across research settings and various contexts (Golafshani, 2003; Patton, 2002). Dependability, credibility, triangulation and transferability combine to give the overall trustworthiness and quality (Patton, 2002). I maintained consistency in data by incorporating teacher, staff and student interviews from both NGO sites. I also used multiple data sources and types at both sites. I employed the same interview protocols in interviews at both locations, which also maintained consistency across the data. I was also explicit in my descriptions of data gathering methods and data analysis techniques, which were employed at the two sites, as well.

**Trustworthiness.** I established trustworthiness in my study in several ways. First, dependability is insured through consistency in observation and interview protocols across settings. Patton (2002) argued that dependability addresses the trustworthiness issue by conducting research with a “systematic process systematically followed” (p. 546). Trustworthiness and credibility as a researcher were also established through my long term commitment to the work of these and other NGOs and the use of a pilot study to strengthen the study. During the pilot study period, I spent some time teaching the DEPDC teachers and staff English. As a middle school teacher, I used some of my teaching techniques to help the teachers, who were moderately fluent in English, improve pronunciation and grammar. Finally, I also spent several evenings sharing meals with teachers and staff, as well as went on a weekend excursion with teachers, staff and students. All of these things helped build trust with the organization and participants in the study. In addition to trustworthiness, triangulation also helps establish quality (Patton, 2002). Next, I discussed triangulation as it applies to my study.
**Triangulation.** I used triangulation in several ways in order to establish trustworthy findings. I utilized triangulation of research sites and data sources, triangulation of data types, and theoretical triangulation.

**Triangulation of research sites and data sources.** I selected the two-site case study methodology in order to triangulate data sources. The selection of sites, or triangulation by site, is important in that the organizations under examination are located in vastly different contexts with drastically different social issues; therefore, site selection also demonstrated data source triangulation which can be used for comparison. Similarities across these settings showed the significance of particular issues and themes. Patton (2002) argued that qualitative research findings need to be confirmable from multiple angles, data types, participants, and over time. In addition to using two research sites, I interviewed teachers, staff and children, all of which have different perspectives on the issues at hand. Common themes across research sites and research subjects are more trustworthy, more reliable and more powerful findings, and therefore a high level of validity is established according to Guion, Deihl, and MacDonald (2002).

**Triangulation of data types.** I incorporated multiple data types, in terms of interviews, observations and field notes, photographs and document analysis, not only to provide a thicker description of the settings and issues, but also to allow for verification of findings from various sources. I used observation notes and thematic memos to look for evidence of the themes arising in the interviews in the broader Thai context and at the other research site. Items that are verifiable across data sources and types can also reduce the subjectivity likely in interviews. As Guion, et al (2002) argued, triangulation of data types can generate both diversity and quantity of data, which are desirable in an exploratory and descriptive study. In interviews of teachers, staff
and students I was able to target similar issues through common questions and allowed for a variety of perspectives on the same topics, and demonstrated triangulation of research subjects.

**Theoretical triangulation.** Theoretical triangulation is important in establishing validity of findings because the interpretation of data is using ideas from varying perspectives and disciplines (Guion et al., 2002), thus, my use of an eclectic theoretical perspective. I included theoretical triangulation through incorporating some aspects and ideas of post-colonial studies, critical theory, and social capital theory. I approached the subject from eclectic multiple perspectives (Pring, 2004) giving my study a more comprehensive element. The use of multiple disciplines and concepts helped me to better understand and describe the complex issues involved (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Golafshani, 2003; Patton, 2002). Using theoretical triangulation was essential for me to understand events in these NGOs while adding economic, social, political, cultural and educational context to create more depth and richness in the study. Although the data I gathered were “socially, politically and psychologically constructed” (Patton, 2002, p. 546), in the interpretivist tradition, finding commonalities among individual subjectivities is what is desired in such a study. I was able to use elements of these theoretical perspectives to help me understand the issues that I encountered in the research settings and data that arose in the study.

**Expert audit review.** One important way to address possible skepticism is through further triangulation (Patton, p. 556) of various types. I triangulated analysis through what Patton termed an “expert audit review” (2002, p. 562). I offered my own analysis of the data for review by Dr. Simon Baker (see Appendix E), a preeminent figure in combating human trafficking in Thailand, and an important colleague of mine throughout this study. Dr. Baker has worked at Save the Children, UNESCO, UNICEF, Mahidol University and the World Health
Organization in various capacities including lecturer and researcher on issues such as human trafficking, child prostitution and HIV/AIDS (Mahidol University, 2010). Agreement or disagreement on the conclusions of my analyses is important in supporting my argument. This collaborator was helpful in corroborating information gathered in interviews, and in assessing the accuracy of translations of interviews. Expert audit review enhanced the quality of my analysis and improves external credibility as well as the confirmability of findings (Patton, 2002, p. 562).

Dr. Baker was gracious enough to meet with me on several occasions, while I was in Thailand, and discuss my preliminary thoughts on the issues I encountered. He also verified my interpretations of key issues and themes in my data. Finally, he helped me to clarify my discussion of contextual issues in an early draft of the study.

**Member Checking.** I incorporated member checking in several ways to improve quality in my study. I discussed my thoughts informally with teachers and staff during my time in the field. I noted important ideas from these informal discussions in my field notes. I provided the report for the pilot study (see Appendix A) to both NGOs and gathered feedback. With this feedback, I was able to determine that my initial findings in the pilot study and in an early draft of the dissertation study were accurate.

**Gaps in the Data**

Although I established a connection to the teachers, staff and students at these locations, students may not have felt comfortable discussing issues of trafficking, or discussing their personal lives. Also, feeling as though they are criticizing their teachers or school may inhibit some students’ openness during interviews. By interviewing only older students, I may have overlooked issues only dealt with by younger students, though during the pilot study, findings, such as the importance of statelessness in educational access, were consistent across age groups.
In this chapter, I discussed the design and methodology of the study, including the shift in design from the pilot study to the dissertation study. I explained my eclectic theoretical perspective, and my use of multiple theoretical perspectives to illuminate elements of the study. I described the data types and sources, sampling choices and methods of analysis of data to generate my findings. Finally, I explained how I demonstrated quality in my study. In the next chapter, I discuss the findings of this comparative two-site case study.
CHAPTER 4

HUMAN TRAFFICKING AND EDUCATION: THE CASE OF DEPDC AND CPDC

In this comparative two-site case study five broad research questions guided my research. I describe the case according to the themes that emerged, and within each theme, I discuss how these themes apply to the research questions. The research questions for the study were: 1) What are the basic characteristics or features of two NGOs in Thailand?, 2) What are the processes, interactions and issues of two NGOs in Thailand?, 3) How do these processes, interactions, issues and features impact students, teachers and staff?, 4) What contextual factors impact students?, 5) How do these contextual factors impact students? I addressed research question one by developing a descriptive profile of the two research sites using data from the pilot and dissertation studies. My findings on changes at the organizations address research questions two and three regarding processes, interactions, and issues using data from my initial visit in 2009, the pilot study in 2010, dissertation study in 2011. Finally, I developed thematic findings to address research questions four and five using the data from the dissertation study. Collectively, my findings enabled me to construct the case containing two sites based on my series of site visits.

DEPDC’s Basic Characteristics and Features

DEPDC has several programs, although the central location of DEPDC for this study was the Patak Half-Day School in the small village of Patak on the outskirts of the city of Mae Sai (see Figure 9). This village is inhabited primarily by Burmese immigrants from various ethnic groups. I also made a trip to one of their other shelters located several hundred kilometers east
of Mae Sai in the town of Chiang Khong on the border of Laos. The Patak Half Day School serves kindergarten through sixth grade, yet it is not age graded. Students vary in age from approximately 5-18 years old (see Appendix B: plates 8-15). Some children live at the DEPDC shelter and some live in the community. Many children live in the village of Patak; however there are children who travel from Burma, and various other hill tribe villages in the area. The Patak Half Day School has a small school bus that picks up and drops off children at the Burma border, and also serves children in several hill tribe villages. During my 2010 season of fieldwork, I rode on this bus with the children and the translator. Figure 9 shows the location of this organization.

Figure 9. Map of Thailand with Mae Sai, DEPDC’s location, distinguished, original map from http://www.martinstrong.com/Thailand.htm
DEPDC’s mission is to offer full-time accommodation and education to children and women who are human trafficking victims and those at-risk of becoming human trafficking victims. According to the DEPDC (2011) website, education, protection and development are the organization’s “prevention tools”. DEPDC was founded in 1989 with a grant through the Asian Children’s Fund and since then has developed several education-related programs.

**DEPDC’s programs.** The Patak Half-Day School offers free education from kindergarten through grade six to local underprivileged children. The Daughters Education Program, originally targeting girls but now including boys, provides full time accommodations including meals, shelter, and clothing to human trafficking victims, orphans and at-risk children. These children attend the Patak Half-Day School, local non-formal education programs, or local government schools, the cost of which is provided by DEPDC. The Mekong Youth Net (MYN) was an education program for “youth leaders” ages 15-25 (depdc.org, 2011) who receive training at DEPDC and who are placed at regional NGOs working on human-trafficking related issues. This program was ended between my 2010 and 2011 research seasons. The Border Youth Leadership Training Program (BYLTP) was then developed as a one year short-term training program to take the place of the MYN program due to limited funding. The Community Learning Center (CLC) provided evening classes for any member of the community, children and adults, interested in free Thai, Burmese and English language courses, computer skills training, and human rights education. The Chiang Khong Center is an all-girls shelter for human trafficking victims and at-risk girls from the area around the city of Chiang Khong. The Mekong Regional Indigenous Child Rights Home (MRICRH) is a crisis shelter co-operated by DEPDC and the Thai Government for severe cases of human trafficking. The Child Help Line is a toll-free hotline that receives referrals for cases of human trafficking. The Child Voice Radio is a
student-run radio station, which gives information to people in the region about human rights issues. I provided a schedule for the Child Voice Radio in Figure 10, below to illustrate the various languages and ethnic groups targeted by the radio station.

![Figure 10. The schedule of the Child Voice Radio taken from a pdf file of an NGO brochure using the Adobe Acrobat Reader snapshot tool (DEPDC, 2011)](image)

For this study, I focused on the Patak Half-Day School which included children from the local area and children in the Daughter’s Education Program who lived at the shelter at DPDC.

In 2003, DEPDC employed 43 staff, including teachers, in its various programs. From 2001-2004, the organization raised over 18 million Thai Baht in funding from over 20 international organizations and private funders (DEPDC in Detail, 2004).

**Patak Half-Day School.** The Patak Half-Day School provides free non-formal elementary education in “Thai language, math, and social skills” (DEPDC, 2006-2008), each morning and vocational skills training each afternoon. The students are taught these three
academic subjects from kindergarten through grade six. Afternoon vocational training is offered in seven general areas: weaving, handicrafts, wood-carving, local and Thai desserts, chemistry in the kitchen, agriculture and computer skills. The students take one afternoon vocational course per semester, two semesters per year in one of these areas.

I grouped DEPDC employees into two main categories, teachers and staff, though I refer to these categories throughout this study, some research participants filled both categories, and some changed roles throughout my time in the field. According to the organization’s website, DEPDC (2006-2008b) had one director, three assistant directors, eight administrative staff and 16 teachers (www.depdc.org). The number of teachers and staff fluctuated throughout my time in the field, however. In 2009, the Patak Half-Day School had nine teachers. By 2010, the number of teachers had dropped to seven. Finally, in 2011, the number of teachers had risen to 11. The change in the teaching staff numbers illustrates the issue of teacher turnover, and the difficulty this organization has with maintaining consistency in the children’s education.

I interviewed children at DEPDC’s Patak Half-Day School campus. Some of my interviewees were students in the Daughters Education Program, which means they attended the Patak Half-Day School and lived on the premises year-round. Some of my interviewees were students at the Patak Half-Day School who lived in local villages and attended the Patak Half-Day School’s education program five days per week. I did not differentiate between these two groups of students in the data, choosing to group these two types of students together, but further differentiation of the children at NGOs suggests directions for possible further study.

According to NGO documents (DEPDC in Detail, 2004), the Patak Half-Day School served 217 children at the Mae Sai campus in 2003. 78 students lived at the facility as part of the Daughters Education Program. 139 students lived in the community. The student population was
made up of 12 ethnic groups, with the largest groups being Akha, Tai Lue and Shan. In Table 2, I provide the number of students for the years 2009, 2010 and 2011, adapted from the data provided by DEPDC’s Director (personal communication, February 6, 2012).

Table 2.

The number of students in the Patak Half-Day School for 2009-2011 by grade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year: 2009</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Number of boys</th>
<th>Number of girls</th>
<th>Total number of students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>54 (3 kindergarten classes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sixth</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year: 2010</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Number of boys</th>
<th>Number of girls</th>
<th>Total number of students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>72 (2 kindergarten classes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sixth</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year: 2011</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Number of boys</th>
<th>Number of girls</th>
<th>Total number of students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>76 (3 kindergarten classes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sixth</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Information in Table 2 was obtained after my time in the field and was provided by DEPDC staff to a follow-up inquiry. Table 2 shows fluctuations in the total number of students across the 3 year period. The large number of kindergarteners each year and the steadily decreasing number
of students in each grade were also consistent characteristics of the student population data. The number of girls was consistently higher than the number of boys in every grade and every year except first and third grade in 2009. The reasons for this are unclear. I explored the number of students in each grade longitudinally using this data, which offered insights into the issues faced by DEPDC. Starting in 2009, kindergarten, first grade, second grade and third grade had 52, 37, 13, and 19 students respectively. I found that tracking this group through the next two school years revealed that the cohort became 26, 13, 8 and 10 students in first grade, second grade, third grade and fourth grade, respectively in 2010. Finally in 2011, the cohort became 21, 13, 5 and 9 students in second grade, third grade, fourth grade and fifth grade respectively. Only 50% of the kindergarteners moved on to the first grade from 2009 to 2010. Only 35% of the first graders moved to the second grade in this time period, yet better than 50% of the second graders and third graders moved up a grade from 2009 to 2010. From 2010 to 2011, a larger number of students moved up a grade, with 81% moving to second grade, 100% moving to third grade, 63% moving to fourth grade and 90% moving to fifth grade.

I also found it useful here to compare the educational attainment of students at Thai government schools in the Mae Sai area. Trakulphadetkrai (2011) found that the Net Enrollment Ratio (NER) for the North region of Thailand which includes Mae Sai was 88.76% for the primary level and 75.3% for the secondary level. These levels show a drastic difference between educational attainment in mainstream Thai society and the retention issues that DEPDC is facing. Based on the insight from my study, that disparity also speaks to the drastic and immediate need that this NGO and others have in terms of support from the government and community.
Curriculum.

The Patak Half-Day School offers three academic classes each morning—Thai language, mathematics, and social skills—for kindergarten through sixth grade. The school day lasts from 8:30 am to 3:30 pm with a one-hour lunch break from 12:00 pm to 1:00 pm. The three morning academic periods each last for approximately 50 minutes each from 8:30 am to 12:00 pm. The teachers used curriculum materials catalogued in the school’s teacher room and they include purchased and donated materials. The teachers at the school typically teach one subject to several grades each day. One staff member, the education director, organizes the schedule of the teachers and also assists teachers in organizing and creating classroom materials. Due to the high turnover of teachers, the education director also teaches on occasion if a teacher leaves the job, or re-organizes the groups by combining grade levels to match the number of teachers. The school is organized by grade, kindergarten through grade six, not age, which means that students proceed to the next grade after mastering the material at the current level. Students begin kindergarten at various ages at the Patak Half-Day School.

When students graduate grade 6, they are given a certificate of graduation from the Patak Half-Day School. This certificate is not accredited by the Ministry of Education and is not considered equivalent to grade 6 at a Thai government school. However, teachers and staff pointed out the importance of the certificate for employment opportunities, and for accessing non-formal education programs elsewhere, which can be facilitated by DEPDC staff. Students who graduated grade six are also offered access to other DEPDC programs such as MYN and BYLTP, which will be discussed later in the findings. Students can also attend CLC classes after grade six.
One element of the Patak Half-Day School’s curriculum was life-skills training. This broad category was incorporated into each teachers work as an integral part of the organization’s philosophy (DEPDC in Detail, 2004; DEPDC, 2010). All nine teachers that I interviewed mentioned life-skills as an important aspect of their work. Three students stated that life-skills were important to them. Life-skills were defined in several ways in my interviews. Some teachers described life-skills as vocational and handicraft skills such as “knitting” (Teacher 1, DEPDC, 7/11/2011), and also described more moralistic skills such as “what is right and what is wrong” (Teacher 1, DEPDC, 7/11/2011). One teacher described life-skills as “how to do the right thing” (Teacher 3, DEPDC, 7/12/2011), and also used the general description “take care of themselves” (Teacher 3, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). An additional teacher described life skills as knowing “how to protect yourself” (Teacher 5, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). Some students’ descriptions of life-skills matched teachers’: “take care of yourself” (Student 2, DEDPC, 7/12/2011), “sew” (Student 3, DEDPC, 7/12/2011), “protect myself” (Student 5, DEDPC, 7/12/2011), “keep yourself healthy” (Student 10, DEDPC, 7/13/2011). Other students’ descriptions of life-skills differed from the teachers’: “cooking” (Student 8, DEDPC, 7/13/2011), “how to survive outdoors” (Student 13, DEDPC, 7/13/2011), and “how to live and be together” (Student 15, DEDPC, 7/15/2011). The Thai Ministry of Education’s Office of the Non-Formal and In-Formal Education also uses the life-skills terminology in its non-formal education curriculum (Siltragool, 2008), which I discuss to contextualize DEPDC’s education program, and its incorporation of life-skills in the curriculum.

Thailand’s Non-Formal Education System is designed for adults and youth 15 years of age and older (Sitragool, 2008). The system includes vocational and technical training as well as basic skills education. The Non-Formal Education Equivalency Programme offers life-skills as
part of its basic education curriculum. The aim of the life-skills training is to “increase knowledge, attitudes, skills and abilities of individuals to solve problems they are facing and prepare them with readiness to the future” (Sitragool, 2008, p. 10). This broad aim is very similar to the broad set of descriptions for life-skills used by the teachers and students at DEPDC. Of the 2.9 million people enrolled in Non-Formal Education in Thailand, 1.9 million are enrolled in the Equivalency Program which includes the life-skills training, however, the dropout rate for this program is over 36%. Although DEPDC’s dropout issue is bigger, this shows that retention is an issue in government programs also. DEPDC has facilitated student’s participation in government non-formal education programs in the past, however, during my trips to the site, no students were enrolled.

Despite the opportunities provided beyond grade six, many students who begin school at the Patak Half-Day School do not complete the education program. Student total numbers did diminish from the 2003 student count (DEPDC in Detail, 2004) to the total numbers of students in Table 2. In the DEPDC in Detail report (2004), the organization noted an increase in funding and private donations between 2001 and 2003 because of Sompop Jantraka’s nomination for the Time Hero Award, which drew international media attention to the organization (Horn, 2005; Meet the New Heroes: Sompop Jantraka, 2006). Figures in Table 2 fluctuated across the three-year period, and the decrease in the number of students served may reflect the decrease in funding experienced by DEPDC. The decrease in the number of kindergarten classes in 2010 despite the increase in the number of kindergarten students illustrates the funding and staffing issue (see Table 2).
CPDC’s Basic Characteristics and Features

I gathered less basic information about the CPDC program than for DEPDC. I was able to gather some information from organization documents, brochures, and reports (Child Protection and Development Center, n.d.a,b,c), and I combined this information with observation and interview data. Figure 11 shows the location of CPDC and its relation to DEPDC.

I will now outline the basic characteristics and features of the organization. CPDC “aims to provide street children with protection, education and future perspectives” (Child Protection and Development Center, n.d.c), according to the organization’s literature. The organization
provides a home, education, health care, and recreational activities for children who are living on the streets, abandoned, exploited, abused, or come from extreme poverty. The categories of children served by the organization are also considered at high risk for human trafficking, and some children are prior victims of human trafficking, however are not described as such in the organization’s official literature. The number of children living at CPDC varies from 35 to 40 children with the goal of the organization being to house and care for up to 60 children. CPDC serves children ages 6 to 18.

In addition to attending public schools, children at CPDC are provided with educational support with homework and tutoring. CPDC offered remedial courses, vocational training, “IT” training (basic computer skills), English lessons, life skills lessons, and courses on drug abuse prevention and sexual abuse prevention on weekends, during school breaks and in the evenings after school (Child Protection and Development Center, n.d.c). Curriculum materials for these educational programs were not available during my time in the field. Medical treatment is provided by an on-staff nurse who also serves children from local slums. Gardening and agricultural training are provided by staff, and the children learn to grow vegetables, mushrooms, raise chickens, raise pigs and raise catfish.

The Human Help Network Thailand has organized CPDC around a “four-step process model” (Child Protection and Development Center, n.d.c) which includes outreach work, a drop-in center, the CPDC permanent shelter, and a prevention and daycare program. My work in this study focused on the CPDC permanent shelter, where my observations and interviews took place.

According to the Ministry of Education Thailand (2008) and Trakulphadetkrai (2011), the Thailand’s Formal Education system is divided into three stages: six years of Prathom or primary
(grades P1-P6), three years of Mattayom Ton or lower secondary (grades M1-M3), and three years of Mattayom Plai or upper secondary (grades M4-M6). Three years of early childhood education were added in 2009 for ages three through five. Compulsory education was increased in 2003 to nine total years, or through the completion of Mattayom Ton. Thai National Curriculum has the following core subjects: Thai language, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies, Religion and Culture, Arts, Health and Physical Education, Careers and Technology, and Foreign Languages. In 2007, Thailand’s national participation rate in Prathom was 75% for children ages 6-11, 78% in Mattayom Ton for children ages 12-14, and 34% in Mattayom Plai for children ages 15-17. CPDC has its children enrolled in this formal education system. This important feature of CPDC proved to be an important difference between the two organizations.

Changes Over Time at DEPDC and CPDC

Next, I discuss changes over time at the two organizations in order to address research questions two and four. Changes in funding and policy had important implications for both organizations, and the children that they serve.

Change at DEPDC. The central site in the study was DEPDC. Because of my relationship with the organization, the accessibility of the organization and more established nature of the organization, a majority of my data were gathered at DEPDC and a majority of my time was spent at this NGO.

I obtained data on DEPDC in 2009, 2010 and 2011, and I found that several features of the organization changed over this time period. I described the changing features of DEPDC using the following characteristics: groups of children served, programs provided, funding issues, general goals of the organization, some facilities, and accreditation of some education programs. Across all three years, the Patak Half Day School served approximately 150 children
per year (see Table 2), with the majority of children in Kindergarten and first grade, and the numbers decreasing with each consecutive grade. The children arrive at DEPDC through referral from other NGOs, partners, and community members in Thailand and in other countries, as well as arriving at the NGO after hearing of the organization on their Child Voice Radio.

**DEPDC in 2009: My Initial Visit.** DEPDC served three categories of children at the Patak Half Day School: stateless children; human trafficking victims; and an additional group the organization described as at-risk children from the surrounding communities. Children and adults lived at the shelter for a period of weeks up to several years as part of the Daughters Education Program (DEP) and attend the Patak Half-Day School, according to Sompop Jantraka, DEPDC’s director. DEPDC offered several programs for children graduating from the school’s grade six. One program was called the Mekong Youth Network (MYN) and included students from approximately age fifteen up to men and women in their early twenties (see Appendix B: plate 16). The MYN students lived at the shelter during the training phase, and then were placed at an NGO in one of the GMS countries with their salaries paid for by DEPDC. DEPDC has an evening school program is called the Community Learning Center (CLC) that welcomes anyone in the community to continue their education through Thai, English or Burmese language study and in other subjects such as math and science. Some of the students who participate in the CLC program are students from government schools, some are students from the Patak Half Day School, some are working adults, and some are monks and novices from the local Buddhist temples. All classes are provided free of charge and they are taught by Patak Half Day School teachers.

In 2009, DEPDC had a jointly managed program at another location called the Mekong Region Indigenous Child Rights Home (MRICRH) co-operatively run by DEPDC and staff from
the Thai government (see Appendix B: plates 6, 7). This program was a crisis center that took only human trafficking victims immediately removed from trafficking situations. At the center, the children received psychological counseling, and after a team of staff deemed the child to be out of crisis, the child was placed at the Patak Half Day School if the child was emotionally stable or in a special-needs-NGO in the region if the child had severe special needs.

During my initial 2009 visit, funding sources for DEPDC were unclear. During my Pilot Study, I was able to find that DEPDC’s 2009 funding came from several sources, including the embassies of Sweden and Japan, ASEAN, and World Bank, in addition to several small donors (DEPDC in Detail, 2004). In 2009, the general goals of the organization were to expand all of their programs: Patak Half Day School, MYN, MRICRH and CLC, serve more children and expand their network of NGOs and international organizations. Finally, I found that the education program at the Patak Half Day School was not officially accredited by the Thai Government’s Ministry of Education, but the organization was working with the government in an attempt to gain non-formal education accreditation. Like the Patak Half Day School, the education program at MRICRH was not accredited officially (see Appendix B: plate 10).

Finally, during my 2009 visit, I did not see any international volunteers.

**DEPDC in 2010: The Pilot Study.**

In 2010, DEPDC was still serving approximately the same groups of children at the Patak Half Day School; however, major changes occurred with other programs run by the organization. The MYN program had ended due to a loss of funding, replaced by a shorter term program called the Border Youth Leadership Training Program (BYLTP) (see Appendix B:21-22). Similar to the MYN program in some ways, participants in BYLTP lived at the DEPDC shelter, with all living expenses provided. Unlike MYN, which included three years of education and training,
BYLTP was a one year program. MYN participants were given paid positions as staff and placed at other NGOs to carry out individually funded projects, but BYLTP’s program terminated after one year. By my 2010 field season, MRICRH had been taken over by the Thai government and ties to DEPDC were severed. I had difficulty obtaining specific details about the split, as the staff were reluctant to discuss the loss of funding and positions.

The general goals for DEPDC shifted in regards to the loss of two significant programs, MYN and MRICRH. In 2010, the organization strengthened its focus on gaining non-formal education accreditation, and was actively planning a nation-wide conference with other unaccredited educational groups which took place in October of 2010. DEPDC expanded other programs, opening a new shelter in Chiang Khong run by a former staff of the Patak Half Day School, and expanded the CLC program to offer more classes. During my 2010 pilot study, I found that DEPDC had five long-term international volunteers who were teaching English and doing enrichment activities at the Patak Half Day School and CLC. These volunteers committed to stays of several months. Also, a group of ten short-term volunteers from an organization called International Student Volunteers (n.d.) spent one week installing tile on the floors of several classrooms.

**DEPDC in 2011: My Dissertation Fieldwork.** During my dissertation fieldwork in July, 2011, the organization had experienced even more changes. A full year without the MYN or BYLTP programs had made the overall organization less comprehensive in terms of providing opportunities for graduating sixth graders, which will be discussed below. Several funding sources had discontinued funding, and the Patak Half Day School had recently accepted 40 new students and turned away approximately 150 more children who arrived at the shelter earlier in the year because of the limited number of teachers (see pp. 114). The organization still served
the same groups of children, but DEPDC was now reduced to the Patak Half Day School, the CLC and the Chiang Khong shelter. The NGO had lost several teachers and administrative staff, particularly because the organization was between one and two months behind on paying these employees. I witnessed two teachers telling the students at the end of one school day that they would no longer be working at DEPDC. Although small grants had recently been acquired by the organization, the biggest being from an international organization called Plan International (n.d.), they were not enough to cover the employee pay, on which the organization was behind, plus current overhead costs.

DEPDC was still actively pursuing the official non-formal education credential for the Patak Half Day School, but its biggest general goal during my 2011 field season was to gain more funding and hire more staff. The Patak Half Day School had short-term international volunteers throughout the year, including ten volunteers from International Student Volunteers (n.d.). The international volunteers taught English and did games and other activities with the children, but the loss of Thai-speaking teachers meant that remaining teachers had to combine age groups and grades into one classroom. The CLC program continued to function despite funding losses, though with a reduction in the number of classes.

During the 2011 field season, I was able to visit the DEPDC center in Chiang Khong. The Chiang Khong center housed nine girls, all of which are defined as human trafficking victims, and served several other girls living with family or friends in the Chiang Khong area. The girls were all enrolled at local government schools. The Chiang Khong school district was much more open to allowing stateless children into the schools, according to the director of the shelter. Whereas, the Mae Sai school district was resistant to allowing stateless children to enroll, according to the DEPDC director. The Chiang Khong shelter conducted vocational and
life skills training for the girls at the shelter, in addition to providing them with food and shelter, uniforms and fees for school, and helping with their government school studies (Trakulphadetkrai, 2011).

At the Chiang Khong shelter in 2011, I was able to observe a mushroom farming vocational project that the shelter had instituted. This project taught vocational skills and provided both funding and food for the shelter, which offset their funding issues. Later, I learned that mushroom farming had become a common practice among NGOs in Thailand (Simon Baker, personal communication, February 8, 2012).

**Change at CPDC.** Although the majority of my data were derived from interviews and observations conducted at DEPDC, I felt it important to include CPDC in the study. CPDC is a younger and less established organization in comparison with DEPDC, and it offers perspective on the drastic differences between organizations combining education and anti-human trafficking work. Here, I provide details from my first visit in 2009, my pilot study in 2010 and my dissertation fieldwork in 2011. I used the same characteristics of CPDC that I used to describe DEPDC: groups of children served, programs provided, funding sources, goals of the organization, facilities, and accreditation of education program. I also consider it useful to compare the changes in these categories over time. In Figure 13, I show Pattaya, the location of CPDC, on the map of Thailand. I provide comparisons of the two sites based on these changes in Chapter Five.

**CPDC in 2009: My Initial Visit.** When I first visited CPDC in July, 2009, it was called the Pattaya School for Street Children and it served approximately 20 boys and 20 girls at its shelter (see Appendix B: plates 30-36). Located in a rural area near the city of Pattaya (see Figure 13), the Pattaya School for Street Children was serving three groups of children: street
children who lived on the streets of Pattaya, human trafficking victims who had been rescued from trafficking situations and referred to the NGO by local police and other NGOS (Pattaya Daily News, 2009), and children living in the local slums. The NGO had recently purchased land and begun building on the property but at the time had a temporary wood and bamboo shelter that housed approximately 20 boys, and a similar structure that housed approximately 20 girls. The children living at the shelter were receiving education from the three teachers who conducted class in an open air wood and bamboo classroom that doubled as a covered dining area (see Appendix B: plate 33). These teachers taught basic Thai literacy and math, and one temporary international volunteer taught English. Behind the temporary shelter was a catfish pond (see Appendix B:36), a pig pen and a chicken coop that were to be used to provide food and income for the children.

In addition to the shelter, the NGO also had two other programs: an outreach center in a storefront in the heart of the Pattaya Walking Street district, and an investigations department headed by NGO director Supagon Noja (Khun Ja) who gathered information on pedophiles and sex tourists for local police, and who cooperated with police on investigations (see Appendix B: plates 49-51). The organization was actively building new permanent structures to house the children at the shelter (see Appendix B: plate 31). The NGO wanted to expand all three branches of the organization: shelter, outreach, and investigations, all of which were dependent on increased funding. The general goal of the organization was to develop the newly acquired property to serve more children and to hire more staff. The organization’s program goals were unclear during my initial visit, beyond increasing the number of staff to teach and take care of the children.
**CPDC in 2010: The Pilot Study.** In 2010, the organization had changed its name to CPDC, had solidified its relationship under the administrative umbrella of the larger multinational NGO Human Help Network, had completed construction on several new structures for the children (see Appendix B: plates 37 and 41), and had begun construction on other structures (see Appendix B: plates 40, 42, 43). CPDC had recently established relationships with local public schools and many of the children that they served were enrolled in formal education programs at government schools (Trakulphadetkrai, 2011). Only children who were recently removed from crisis situations and new to the shelter were not enrolled in the public schools. The outreach center had relocated to a new facility called the Drop-In Center and offered short term safety for street children who were not ready or willing to come to the shelter. I was able to visit this site during the pilot study in 2010, as well as visit the nearby slums from which many of the local street children came (see Appendix A).

The organization continued serving the same three groups of children, street children, human trafficking victims and children living in local slums. By 2010, the organization was housing approximately 60 children, a threefold increase since 2009. CPDC’s education program had changed dramatically since 2009. Instead of educating all of the children at the shelter, most of the children were now enrolled in local government schools. Only a few children, recently arrived at the shelter from crisis situations, remained at the shelter all day. Fewer than ten children were receiving basic education-Thai language, cooking, gardening- from the staff at the shelter, in addition to counseling, and were given minor chores and duties throughout the day, typically under the supervision of a staff member. One of the teachers from 2009 had changed jobs and she now worked at the outreach center, now called the Drop-In Center. The outreach center had relocated since 2009, and now provided food, showers and beds for street children.
who did not want to come to the CPDC shelter, and leave their life on the streets. This Drop-In Center allowed staff to establish rapport with the children, check in on them periodically, and begin trying to convince the children to leave street life and get an education in government schools and at CPDC.

CPDC had greatly increased the amount of funding and number of sources since my visit in 2009. A large wooden sign now stood at the entrance of the property with the names of several European embassies, international organizations and local groups who had become funding partners with CPDC. Three permanent shelter structures for the children had been completed, along with a new office building and health services building. Three more shelters had begun construction, in addition to a large dining and kitchen building, and an education building. A large garden had been established at the back of the property, and a large area for soccer had been cleared and leveled. A covered, open-air sports area was also under construction. A large stone wall topped with broken glass had been partially completed around the entire property. The pig pens, catfish pond and chicken coop were still in use; however, the director told me that they are not used for food or money, but rather as teaching tools for students learning agricultural skills.

Now, instead of three teachers at the shelter, there were several staff members who were referred to as house-parents. These house-parents lived in the shelter buildings with the children, though they had their own personal quarters in each building. In the morning, house parents were responsible for getting the children up, dressed, fed and off to school at one of the six government schools. In the afternoon, the house-parents walked the children back from school, and were responsible for: feeding, supervising children’s nightly chores, doing homework and getting ready for bed. The house-parents rotated supervision of the children who stayed at the
shelter all day. A part-time nurse and part-time psychologist had been hired, who worked in the new medical building. Another staff member was hired to cook meals for children and staff, and to tend the garden. This staff member also supervised the children who stayed at the shelter all day, teaching them cooking and gardening skills.

The accreditation of CPDC’s education program had become a non-issue by 2010, as most children were attending accredited government schools. However, there was no official accreditation of the informal education, such as cooking and gardening, being provided for the children who were new to the shelter and not yet enrolled in government schools.

**CPDC in 2011: My Dissertation Fieldwork.** By July of 2011, CPDC had completed the construction of all of their facilities, which now included three shelter-buildings for boys (see Appendix B: plate 48), three shelter-buildings for girls (see Appendix B: plate 45), a dining hall (see Appendix B: plate 44), a medical building (see Appendix B: plate 47), an office (see Appendix B: plate 47), a multiple-room education building (see Appendix B: plate 46), a soccer field, a covered basketball court and surrounded by a stone wall. All of the children at the shelter were now enrolled in over six different public schools, including at least two children attending a school for special needs children. CPDC transformed its educational efforts from housing and educating children strictly at the shelter, to enrolling all of their children in one of six public Thai schools (Trakulphadetkrai, 2011). The change from employing full time teachers and house-parents at CPDC to the reliance on public schools for the education of the children meant that the CPDC staff changed to roles as house-parents and caregivers rather than as teachers.

Instead of providing basic, informal education in literacy and vocational skills for the children, CPDC now had an education building that was used on the weekends to provide both enrichment activities for children, such as sports, arts and crafts, and a library, and non-formal
education in basic literacy for children living in the slums. The building had a classroom with several computers, and another room with a small collection of books, as well as tables and seating for children to read. Another room in the building was used as an arts and crafts classroom. By 2011, the sign with the names of partners had many more names than the previous year. Placed around the property on various buildings were posters for upcoming fundraising activities, and signs for events that had been conducted with local community groups and charities. The dining hall and kitchen building was completed between my 2010 and 2011 trips (Appendix B: plate 44), and an open air covered basketball court was also completed. The stone wall now completely surrounded the property, and both trees and flowers were growing throughout the formerly barren property (Appendix B: plate 46).

General goals for CPDC were now focused on hiring more staff, as facilities were now completed. The organization’s program goals were to provide more basic education classes in basic academic skills and vocational training in their education building for children from the slums and adults in the community. The aim of CPDC did not change from its original threefold aim of providing protection, education and a future to vulnerable children, but the manner that they approached this aim had improved between 2009 and 2011. Increasing the funding for staff was another goal of the organization, despite the growth in funding. Funding for staff is more difficult to attain compared to funding for facilities and other tangible items. Also, finding staff that are both committed to the organization for the long-term, and willing to do the difficult work for little pay, proved to be a major obstacle for the NGO.

The differences at the organization across time allowed for an unanticipated set of findings and comparisons. Similarities also exist between the two organizations, for example, both organizations serve human trafficking victims, stateless children and at-risk populations.
Many of the street children at CPDC are stateless, and both organizations target vulnerable children. The differences between how these groups are defined at each organization are minor, and unlike the definition of human trafficking often used in research on human trafficking (Laczko, 2005), both organizations use broad terms to determine the vulnerability that many different groups of children face in Southeast Asia. DEPDC focuses on stateless children- undocumented migrants and hill-tribe minorities- as at-risk to human trafficking, whereas CPDC focuses on street children and children living in the slums as at-risk to human trafficking.

Through their distinct programs, both NGOs are working on the difficult task of protection by providing victims of trafficking and exploitation a safe place to live and using formal, non-formal and informal education programs to reduce the likelihood of returning to exploitation. Both organizations focus more on preventing new victims of human trafficking and other forms of exploitation of children based on these at-risk groups described above. CPDC and DEPDC see education as the most important element of prevention for at-risk children, though each organization approaches education and conceptualizes the important aspects of education in different ways. The previous descriptions of the basic features and characteristics of both organizations addressed research question one. Next, I provided important changes over time to both organizations to address research questions two and four to illustrate the processes, issues and contextual factors impacting children. Collectively, these findings constitute the case.

**Thematic Findings**

The previous descriptive sections gave concrete details to the complex work of these NGOs. The thematic findings were developed from data gathered in the 2010 dissertation study research season. The thematic findings are better understood through the lenses provided by this background information, and the contextualization provided by understanding the dynamic
nature of their work and the issues. As illustrated in Table 2 below, the overall organization of the data is categorized into three super-ordinate themes: problems, benefits for children, and goals. These themes and their sub-themes were derived from interview transcripts, field notes, and photographs using qualitative data analysis methods as described in Chapter Three. The themes relate to research questions three and five by illustrating how the processes, interactions, issues, contextual factors and organization features impact students, teachers and staff. Additionally, interview data assisted in provided clarification on research questions one, two and four regarding further details on issues and contextual factors impacting students, teachers and staff.

Table 3 shows the number of occurrences of particular themes and subthemes in the interview data. The importance of particular subthemes over other subthemes was determined in part by the number of instances a subtheme appeared in the data. I verified the importance of subthemes using field notes, photographic and document data. Further, my use of member checks and an expert audit review allowed me to confirm and verify these findings and their presentation according to the themes and subthemes. Table 3 shows the thematic findings for the dissertation study.
Table 3.

Number of instances of themes and sub-themes by teachers and staff, and by students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sub-Theme</th>
<th>Number of instances in the data</th>
<th>Number of instances in the data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and staff</td>
<td>Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems</td>
<td></td>
<td>99 (total)</td>
<td>91 (total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statelessness</td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Problems</td>
<td></td>
<td>72 (total)</td>
<td>62 (total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family problems</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family pressure to work</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Border issues</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language issues</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding issues</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community/social pressure for</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0 (2 from translator)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>children to earn money</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff retention issues</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental health, behavior,</td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning issues of students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government accreditation of</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>program</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural barriers</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td></td>
<td>83 (total)</td>
<td>142 (total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn life skills</td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity and access</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>57 (17 specifically used the word <em>opportunity</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free</td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goals</td>
<td></td>
<td>32 (total)</td>
<td>45 (total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education goals</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work goals</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic goals</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Problems.

An anticipated but unfortunate finding was the size and severity of the problems faced by the children and the teachers and staff at the organizations. In my interviews, I asked questions
that were intended to elucidate this broad category, Problems (see Appendix D: interview
guides). I asked interviewees about their obstacles, their needs and their biggest problems. The
largest and most powerful of these sub-themes were statelessness and poverty (see Table 3). The
number of instances was not the only way that I determined the importance of a theme or sub-
theme. I also discerned the quality of evidence for a particular theme in the interview data and in
my field notes. For example, if interviewees use the word poor when talking about themselves
or other children, this was considered an instance of the poverty theme. If a student gave a
detailed description of problems related to money when talking about themselves or other
children, this was also an instance of the poverty theme. Detailed descriptions added to the
quality of evidence for the poverty theme, and thus I considered themes with more quality
evidence to have more importance.

I asked the students and teachers about the biggest problems for the students and for
DEPDC. One student responded “DEPDC needs a school bus to go to Burma, it is difficult to
cross the border” (Student 16, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). This response contained elements of
statelessness that effected individuals and the organization. I sub-divided the statelessness
problems into individual problems and organization problems because of the questions and
subsequent responses. When asked about problems for students at DEPDC, one student’s
answer was “Poor, and their parents don’t have money, and the parents need them to go out and
work” (Student 16, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). I considered this both a child poverty issue and a
family poverty issue so I accounted for two sub-categories within the poverty issue: child issues
and family issues. I grouped the other Problems sub-themes in Table 3 into one category I
termed Other Problems (see Figure 14). Within the Other Problems theme, I found ten
subcategories. Below, Figure 12 illustrates the Problems theme and its subcategories.
Figure 12. Problems theme with subcategories
**Statelessness.**

*Statelessness* is a theme that arose very powerfully in the data (see Table 3). I did not sub-divide the *Statelessness* theme in Table 3. Rather, I chose to use the Inspiration software to visually subdivide the theme (Inspiration Software, 2011). *Statelessness* can be broken into two main categories: individual issues and organization issues. Individual level issues related to statelessness are those experienced by the individual students, teachers and staff, and organization level issues related to statelessness are those experienced by the organization as a whole or impede the overall work of the organization. The theme is further subdivided according to Figure 13.

**Figure 13. Subcategories of the statelessness theme**

*Organization level issues.*

Statelessness of the children being served at these two NGOs has a profound effect on the work of these organizations. In terms of accreditation of the NGOs’ programs, the amount of
funding from Thai sources, and funding from international sources, the lack of official immigration or citizenship documentation for most or all of the children at the NGOs creates important problems for their work (European Commission, 2004).

First, for DEPDC, the lack of government accreditation of their education programs created a significant obstacle to the effectiveness of their work. The Thai education system is a well-developed system with an extensive vocational and non-formal education sector (Spires, 2009). However, not all private educational programs in Thailand are officially accredited by the government’s Ministry of Education (Spires, 2009), including private Thai language schools and NGOs. Thailand has also adopted a new Education For All policy in the Thai constitution (Child Rights International Network, 2011), allowing all children regardless of nationality free educational access for a compulsory period of nine years and optional free educational access for twelve years of basic education. Also, the number of years was increased when the “15-year free education programme for all” was adopted by the Thai government in 2009 (Child Rights International Network, 2011). However, according to NGO staff and children, not every local school district enforces these new policies, leaving an educational gap to be filled by NGOs. One teacher stated, “We have a new law, but they not actually do it” (Teacher 3, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). This dejure versus defacto discrepancy is important to the context within which the NGO operates.

Therefore, completing DEPDC’s grades K-6 program does not provide the student officially sanctioned proof of program completion, diploma or credit. This becomes a new barrier to DEPDC students’ further education at government schools. Several children at DEPDC stated that they wished DEPDC offered high school courses so that they could continue their studies beyond grade six. DEPDC does offer students a certificate for completing grade
six, and though this certificate does not grant the students access to government schools (see Appendix B: plates 54-56), does give a tangible credential, the certificate, to offer to employers or other un-accredited non-formal education programs.

Next, the climate of current anti-human trafficking efforts within the Thai government allows for varied interpretation of the problematic definition of human trafficking (Laczko, 2005). Funding earmarked for combating human trafficking may not be available to prevention programs, particularly those who do not serve only rescued human trafficking victims. Especially in the Mae Sai district, large numbers of Burmese and ethnic minority migrants cross the border daily. Along with the formal border crossing in Mae Sai, there are also many informal border crossings (see Appendix B: plates 28-29). Local prejudices may also impact the interpretation of the stipulations attached to funding for programs that benefit stateless or undocumented migrant children. Also, the difference between those who define themselves as hill-tribe peoples, rather than undocumented migrants, further complicates the issue. Some hill-tribes, such as the Akha, live along both sides of the Thai-Burma border (see Appendix B: plate 52). The border in this mountainous region is often indistinguishable aside from checkpoints on roads, and transient hill-tribe people may traverse the border many times per year, beyond the view of Thai immigration officials. As I discussed in Chapter Three, proving one’s Thai citizenship as a hill tribe person is a cumbersome, time-consuming, and expensive process. As Baker (2000) argued, the definition of human trafficking can easily become manipulated by governments and other stake-holders to push the responsibility of taking care of and protecting exploited and victimized people off on other governments, while attempting to control child labor and undocumented migration. How human trafficking is defined then becomes impacted by issues such as immigration, prejudice, and government corruption. Human trafficking victims
can be re-defined as illegal immigrants by various stakeholders, as well as at-risk groups re-defined as undocumented aliens, and funding for NGOs can be effected by changes in donor priorities regarding human rights versus human security issues (Michael, 2002; Spires, 2005).

Finally, international and Thai funding sources for NGOs are often short-term (Green, King, & Miller-Dawkins, 2010), influenced by media and public perception (Antrobus, 1987), and have decreased due to global economic crises (Malhotra, 2000). Staff at both NGOs discussed the difficulty that funding stipulations have caused the organizations. One staff member noted, “…many changes in funding, tsunamis, earthquakes, funding going to other countries” (Teacher 7, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). Often, grants cap the percentage of monies that can be used for staff, often requiring the majority of funds to be spent on facilities and other tangible items. Both DEPDC and CPDC had staffing issues, while at the same time, had available funding strictly earmarked for other purposes such as building construction. A staff member pointed out, “…donors donate, can only use 10-15 percent for staff” (Teacher 7, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). International funding follows media and public opinion on hot topics, rarely committing to long term support of less sensationalizable issues, according to administrators at both NGOs. One staff member discussed with me the difficulty of getting financial partners to promote the positive results of their work, preferring to report, on their websites and in their publications, on sensationalized and even outdated problems that some of the children experienced prior to arrival at the NGO (Brennan, 2005). Even within Thailand, with recent natural disasters such as the earthquake in Northern Thailand (CNN Wire Staff, 2011), border disputes with Cambodia (CIA.gov, 2011), and flooding in Central Thailand (Sattha, & Wipatayotin, 2011), funding for NGOs has been diverted to other crises. Also, many national and international NGO funding sources have shifted in recent years from supporting an
“alternative system of education independent of the state system, towards one aimed at being complementary to the state system, with the intention of ultimately supporting children’s access to a state-provided education” (Rose, 2007). This overall shift for funding sources has a powerful impact on NGOs like DEPDC, who operate outside the state education system. Funding for anti-trafficking NGOs has also changed in recent years with a focus of funding agencies such as USAID on measures to improve government mechanisms (HumanTrafficking.org, 2007).

**Individual level issues.**

Many of the instances of the Statelessness theme in Table 2 were individual level issues. Individual level issues related to statelessness fall within two sub-categories, children’s issues, and teacher and staff issues (see Figure 16). I first focus on the bigger issue of the two, children’s issues. Children’s statelessness issues correspond to three subcategories: the lack of documentation, border issues, and membership in an ethnic minority.

**Children’s issues.**

Most often individual level issues of statelessness experienced by the children surfaced in interviews in phrases such as ‘…don’t have a Thai ID” (Student 5, DEPDC, 7/12/2011), or ‘…if we don’t have an ID card to cross the border, we have to pay money” (Student 15, DEPDC, 7/15/2011). The United Nations Children’s Fund (2011) found that approximately 50,000 children born in Thailand each year are not registered at birth. Six of the students I interviewed used their lack of ID to describe statelessness. Despite the new law discussed above, I found that several of the children at DEPDC had actually attempted to go to the government school prior to attending DEPDC. One student remarked, “I applied to other schools, they didn’t accept me because I’m too slow” (Student 11, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). In reference to the government
schools in the Mae Sai district, a student said, “…when they already start school, they will not accept other children anymore, but here, they already open and start school for a while, and I go to talk to the teacher, and the teacher said, ‘OK, it’s OK, just come and study with us’” (Student 16, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). Another student stated “…before, I applied to other schools but they did not accept me. That is why I come here, if not I would not have opportunity” (Student 8, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). However, unlike in the school issues faced by DEPDC in Mai Sai, the girls at the Chiang Khong center all attended government school, as did the children at CPDC. Despite many of the children’s stateless status at the Chiang Khong center and at CPDC, the organizations were able to gain access to government schools, insinuating potential inconsistency in the implementation of education policies by district.

Several issues may explain why Mae Sai district has created a barrier to stateless children in their schools. One issue is the continued military conflict between government and rebel forces in Burma (Asia Watch Report, 1993). With each major military clash comes an increased number of refugees crossing the border. Some of these refugees go through official immigration channels, and some do not, particularly those who do not have citizenship in their home country already. One student pointed out, “Sometimes the immigration officers don’t want us to come to Thailand and tell us ‘Go back to Burma’” (Student 21, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). This student had a half-hour motorcycle ride from his home in Burma to the border every day, to get on the DEPDC bus. This student had no choice but to return home on days when the officials turned children away. Local Thai perceptions of the migrant population vary and have an impact how local school officials view stateless and undocumented migrant children. Although Thailand spends over 20% of its national budget on education (Office of the Education Council, 2007), further financial pressure has also been placed on schools since the global economic crisis, which like in
the United States, may impact how taxpayers feel about undocumented students in the schools (The Thailand Project, 2011). One student said that DEPDC was “for poor people, who don’t have the opportunity to go outside, so they can go here.” (Student 22, 7/20/2011). However, as I observed, there are children crossing the Burma border in Thai government school uniforms, and whether these are wealthy or poor children from Burma is unclear. The Office of the National Education Commission Thailand (2002) has been tasked with overall Thai education reform which includes decentralization of the education system. Rural and “small-sized schools” (Office of the Education Council, 2007, pp. 68) continue to struggle for resources despite new education reform. One important aspect of current reform initiatives is decentralizing and improving rural school funding and infrastructure which will likely alter the current situation in government schools in Northern Thailand.

The children at the Mae Sai shelter also discussed their limits on travel because of statelessness. Hill tribe people in Thailand are not allowed to travel outside their local province without a Thai ID (Minorities at Risk Project, 2004), and often the tribes are split across borders (Williams, 2008). There are no specific hill-tribe government schools (see Appendix B: plate 53), and in many cases, because of the distance to government schools and the lack of school busses to hill tribe villages, government schools are simply inaccessible to many school age hill tribe children. Even those hill tribe children that can access government schools drop out at a disproportionately high rate. Migration is a historical legacy of the hill tribes in Southeast Asia, yet under current travel restrictions, once a hill tribe person moves outside their local province for work, they become highly vulnerable to trafficking and exploitation, and limited to low paying jobs (Minorities at Risk Project, 2004; Zixen, 2005).
Temporary work visas are available to hill tribes that choose to access this option, but fear of government officials and lack of both resources and awareness of options, often prevent hill tribe people from accessing these. Instead labor traffickers who travel to hill tribe villages recruiting workers become the most accessible and readily available option for work (Hynd, 2002). The issues regarding work access impact the children at DEPDC greatly, and the accreditation issue for DEPDC’s education program does not seem to have improved this issue for its children. As one student stated, “some others who graduate here, 6th grade, they go, after this they go to work, and we don’t know what they are doing” (Student 22, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). Another student said, “Parents, they are really poor, and that’s why they make the children go out to work and they don’t know where they go” (Student 14, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). Uncertainty of future work prospects is evident in these quotes.

Border issues constitute a significant dimension within the statelessness issue for children. Border officials in Mae Sai charge a 40 baht (Thai currency) fee for adults to cross the border from Burma to Thailand, however children can cross without a fee. However, without an official ID from Burma, most children cross the border for free until they begin to look like an adult, which for some may be many years prior to adulthood. One way that wealthier Burmese resolve this issue is through an ID card from Burma or a school uniform. However, DEPDC does not have uniforms for its students, which also creates an obstacle for students who live in Burma but attend Patak Half Day School.

The final significant dimension of statelessness for children is membership in an ethnic minority. Racism and discrimination toward ethnic minorities in Southeast Asia has been documented (Minorities At Risk, 2004) and in Thailand there are pronounced economic disparities between Thais and hill tribe people (Brown, 1994). My translator, who attended
DEPDC, and government non-formal and formal education, acknowledged that she had negative experiences in Thai government school due to her stateless status. Below is an excerpt from our discussion on this issue:

Translator: You know if you don’t have a Thai ID, even though you are really confident, even though you are really smart or good at whatever, really talkative. But, if you go outside, if you don’t have Thai citizenship, you will feel, because you are not confident anymore, because if like other Thai people say something or whatever, you are not going to…. I don’t know, I feel that way too. You will be a little, nervous, and you will be afraid that they are going to be mean to you. Like “Oh, you are not Thai, why did you say it like that”.

Researcher: Did you ever get anybody doing that?
T: What do you mean?
R: Thai people give you a hard time?
T: Yeah.
R: Yeah?
T: When I go to school, they are really mean. They are just like, “Oh, you are not Thai”

(discussion with Translator following the interview of Student 19, DEPDC, 7/14/2011)

I interpret this discussion and the translator’s position to be an illustration of the pressures that stateless and undocumented children face in school, in addition to the official pressures associated with policy. Ethnic minorities in Thailand face many barriers to their access to education. For example, “I can come to study here for free, and they also have a bus for me, to drive back home” (Student 5, DEPDC, 7/12/2011), illustrates the difficulty many stateless children have with accessing school due to distance and transportation. Another student noted
the distance issue as well, “I stay really far away, so whenever I go to work, I can speak Thai to communicate, and I will have a good future” (Student 17, DEPDC, 7/14/2011). The same student commented, “I want to study until I graduate university, but my parents live in Burma, so it is really difficult to cross the border” (Student 17, DEPDC, 7/14/2011).

Access to education is an important element to statelessness theme, particularly in how it impacts ethnic minority children’s opportunities. Literacy and language, in particular, act as barriers to educational access for stateless and ethnic minority children. One student pointed out, you “can work wherever you want if you know Thai” (Student 21, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). Lack of education in stateless ethnic minority children acts as a barrier to further education, for example, “Some students are really old, really big, but they are still in kindergarten,… They come to school really late, when they are already really old, and they are developed very slow” (Student 1, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). Language, in particular, impedes the education of many of the students at DEPDC. One teacher acknowledged that many students at the school do not “speak Thai, so when I tell them something, they not really understand” (Teacher 5, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). Another teacher discussed the difficulties in teaching students from different linguistic backgrounds, “Thai language” is the most difficult for students “…because some children are Burmese, we have too many nationalities, so they need to learn Thai” (Teacher 8, DEPDC, 7/14/2011). At DEPDC, students represent many linguistically distinct ethnic minorities, including Burmese, Shan, Akha, Karen, Lisou, Tai Yai, Tai Lou, Kachin, and Hmong (see Appendix B: plate 13). Even though hill tribe people born in Thailand can attain an official Thai ID, the process is complex. Often, hill tribe people are illiterate in their native language and Thai, even if they speak Thai, and many do not. Thus, navigating the difficult citizenship
process with Thai officials and Thai forms is made even more difficult. This issue also illustrates the importance of Thai Language in DEPDC’s education program (see pp. 113).

DEPDC provided the bulk of my data on statelessness; however, statelessness also emerged in my data from CPDC. Although none of the children I interviewed spoke directly of statelessness in the manner that the DEPDC children did, four children from CPDC mentioned that learning Thai was difficult for them. When describing CPDC, one student said the organization helps “…special group of children, for example street children and abandoned children” (Student 27, CPDC, 7/23/2011), while another stated that “this is a center that helps children whose families don’t have enough time to take care of the child and abandon child” (Student 26, CPDC, 7/23/2011). To clarify, a staff member stated “…some of our children are stateless”, (CPDC staff, 7/23/2011). Of the 52 children living at the shelter at the time, the organization did not provide exact numbers of stateless children being served. One same staff member pointed out at the end of one of my student interviews that the child, approximately 10 years old, was trafficked from Cambodia to Pattaya for the sex industry, rescued by another NGO and referred to CPDC (during Student 32 interview, CPDC, 7/23/2011). One difficult task that CPDC faces is investigating each child’s background. Most of the children are living on the street or in local slums, often unaccompanied, or living with other street children. The number of children born in Thailand versus other GMS countries is difficult to determine, particularly if they were abandoned at an early age or have lived on the streets for an extended amount of time. After I returned from my 2011 field season, staff at CPDC was able to provide me with further information on stateless children in their care. As of February, 2012, CPDC has served 101 children without formal documentation of birth or housing registration. Of these 101 children, CPDC has obtained official documentation for 95 of these children through official channels. Of
the remaining six children, four are currently being processed through official channels and two children are currently being investigated. Despite the significant difficulties associated with investigating the backgrounds of these children, CPDC has been highly successful. The NGO has been able to navigate the current system to the benefit of the children in their care. In light of their success, it is important to understand the difficulties involved in this issue. The following passage from the interview transcript of one of CPDC’s staff illustrated the connection between statelessness, poverty, human trafficking, and other social problems.

…because now outside on the street, you have many, many children, unwanted children, they are unwanted pregnant. When they get pregnant, and they have like new babies, and she doesn’t have the ability to take care of that child, to give good life to that child. So, same again as her mom. So this kind of children increase more and more and more in the future, so getting worse and worse and worse…for this problem, not only one person or one organization but all together, whole world, OK or if we talk about Thailand, Thailand. Thailand have to have a big revolution, for this problem, you have to inform teenagers about how to be a good mother and good father. Inform them about when it’s ready for you to have a baby…even though we take care of street children or these kind of children, but actually in mind they still feel they were abandoned, so she still use their life like, like no-one care about myself so I’ll do anything, what I want, and again at risk for their own life…so difficult, we don’t know. (Teacher 9, CPDC, 7/23/2011)

In sum, statelessness is a major issue affecting the children included in this study. In addition to not having official citizenship records in either Thailand or another GMS country, many children also face barriers related to border issues and membership in ethnic minorities. Vulnerability and at-risk status are important connections to statelessness for children at these
NGOs, considering the converging impacts of linguistic differences, literacy, official documentation, racism, discrimination, inconsistency in law enforcement and government corruption, as well as other obstacles to accessing education. Statelessness impacts the children’s education in many ways and also impacts efforts to protect human trafficking victims and prevent future human trafficking victimization. Taking into account the difficulties that the statelessness issue presents, there is a major discrepancy between how children at both NGOs are accessing the government’s immigrant and migrant documentation process. Whether this discrepancy is due to NGO differences or local and regional government differences is unclear and warrants further investigation.

*Teacher and staff issues.*

The theme of statelessness arose in the data also for teachers and staff (see Figure 16). Although DEPDC does give a certificate to students who complete the sixth grade, the lack of official accreditation that is transferable to government schools causes many children to leave the program prior to completion. Teachers discussed children being apathetic towards school as they got older and moved up in grades, expressing frustration toward children “…who don’t care…don’t do homework, class work, pay attention…” (Teacher 2, DEPDC, 7/11/2011), which made teaching the older children more difficult. Teachers and staff encouraged children to stay in school, despite the lack of accreditation, and the uncertainty of the utility of a DEPDC certificate. Other teachers pointed to the children’s inexperience with formal schooling as causing students to be “…not really confident in themselves…shy…afraid to choose what is right and what is wrong…” (Teacher 1, DEPDC, 7/11/2011). In addition to teaching class content, the teachers struggled with building student confidence.
Lack of funding also has implications for the work of teachers and staff on a personal level, as the organization cannot house all of the children it serves at the Patak Half Day School. Many children from Burma, whom the organization cannot house or live too far from the border to travel each day, move in with extended family or acquaintances in Thailand, but as one teacher discussed, “If they can’t find a place to stay in Thailand, they have to quit” (Teacher 1, DEPDC, 7/11/2011). A teacher pointed out that many of the students have a difficult time understanding what they are supposed to do in each class. The teacher cited “culture, a lack of experience in school, …where they are from, …maybe language” (Teacher 2, DEPDC, 2011), as possible causes of a growing disengagement of older students at the Patak Half-Day School as they progressed through the grade levels. Teachers also discussed frustration about retention issues. Other teachers pointed to a combination of statelessness and accreditation of the program as a major frustration because “…after you graduate, you will not be able to get a good job, because you don’t have an ID” (Teacher 3, 7/12/2011). A teacher for the evening CLC program expressed the futility that many of the students feel towards education: “I had five students who were stateless; all moved back to Burma, but don’t have Burmese ID, either. Finished sixth grade, seventh grade or ninth grade and moved back” (Teacher 4, DEPDC, 7/12/2011).

Teachers at DEPDC are also aware of the practical importance of literacy in the Thai language for their students, as most of the children will end up staying in Thailand for work. Several teachers cited Thai literacy as imperative for their students, for instance “Thai language is the most important thing for the students to learn, most of the students are not Thai” (Teacher 6, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). “The children that want to study here, they want to study Thai, at least they can get a job in Thailand” (Teacher 8, DEPDC, 7/14/2011). “I stay really far away, so whenever I go to work, I can speak Thai to communicate, and I will have a good future” (Student
The importance of Thai for work is an important reason for the focus on Thai language literacy in DEPDC’s curriculum and the rationale for conducting all other courses in Thai.

Teachers and staff at DEPDC were also discouraged by the lack of trust between the parents or relatives who the children are living with, and the organization. Stateless guardians are not always forthcoming with the organization about students who drop out of the DEPDC program. Teachers and staff visit every family or guardian of the students two times per year after each semester ends. If a student drops out of the school, the teacher will conduct another home visit, which is sometimes problematic as this teacher points out: “…it depends on families, some families live Burma, and then they take the children to the aunt who lives in Thailand. Later, when the children grow up, the aunt wants the children to go to work” (Teacher 8, DEPDC, 7/14/2011). One student, when asked if he wanted to continue schooling after the sixth grade, responded, “It depends on my mom” (Student 21, DEPDC, 2011). Some success stories did arise from the parent-teacher relationship:

Actually, I will not be able to come to school this year, because my parents said “No”, but the teacher go to my home and talked with my parents and then my mom said “OK”. So next year, I don’t know if I will be able to come or not, but however, if the teacher still goes and talks to my parents, I might come to study again. (Student 17, DEPDC, 7/14/2011)

Finally, teachers and staff expressed difficulty related to the care of the children at DEPDC. As one teacher described,
Here, it is not like if you are a teacher, you will be only a teacher. You actually do everything. Like for me, I take care of the children, the health. You have to make sure that they are healthy enough, and they are clean. (Teacher 3, DEPDC, 7/13/2011)

The understanding that students are currently in, or will return to, vulnerable situations arose in my interviews with both students and teachers. The importance of teaching life skills, particularly awareness of community social problems such as human trafficking, was a prominent thread through many of the students’ and teachers’ interviews. For instance, when I asked about the most important thing that DEPDC teaches, I got these responses: “…how to take care of myself, and protect myself” (Student 6, DEPDC, 7/12/2011), “…learn knowledge about human trafficking” (Student 8, DEPDC, 7/13/2011), “…we expect them to know and stay away from human trafficking” (Teacher 3, DEPDC, 7/12/2011), “Know how to protect yourself and stay away from human trafficking…bad environment” (Teacher 5, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). In addition to learning about social problems, students also gave presentations about these topics to the public using various presentation and curriculum materials (see Appendix B: plates 21-22). These materials included large colorful game boards to be used when teaching small children about human rights, informative brochures which included important services available in the community, and displays used at community events such as fairs and local celebrations. As these ideas arose in the data, I began to ponder the question of whether the work of these NGOs could be seen as postponement, prevention, or protection of the children being served. I will return to this question in depth in Chapter Five, discussing how NGOs such as DEPDC will be able to truly make an impact on the human trafficking issue in Thailand without more comprehensive and consistent assistance from the Thai government.
In sum, statelessness proved to be a substantial theme in relation to the work of NGOs. Statelessness as a social problem is difficult to separate from another significant social justice issue: poverty. Although poverty and statelessness were often intertwined in the data, I now report my findings on poverty, particularly where distinct from statelessness, as a powerful force which pushes children into vulnerable situations. The stark realities of children living in poverty in Southeast Asia and in the context of my research can be seen in the following excerpt from my interview with a teacher at CPDC.

**Poverty.**

The next major sub-theme under the problems theme is poverty (see Table 2). I subdivided this theme according to two main categories: child issues and family issues. I begin this section with a quote from a teacher in order to illustrate the complexity of the poverty issue.

(From Teacher 9, CPDC, 7/23/2011)

*(during interview, teacher's cell phone rings) Excuse me. (teacher steps away to talk on the cell phone)*

Translator- the person who called for (Teacher 9) the child is the one who is now HIV infected and is now living at the hospital, in coma.

Me- How did she get the disease?

Translator- Before she come here, uh huh.

Me- Was she living on the street?

Translator- No she lived with her family, but it is not her real parent. And I don’t know what is going on between that family, but she used to tell me many times that she sleep with many, many guys.

Me- For money?
Translator- For money, but I'm not sure for herself or for her family, I don't know. Right now we found after she lived here for almost 6 months that she is HIV infected. Frankly, now she is leaving, so her family often call us to talk about her case. What to do with this case. Actually, they want to let her go.

Me- And she is in a coma?

Translator- She cannot talk, anything, not say even a word.

(teacher comes back to table and talks to translator)

Translator- She die.

Me- We can stop, it is no problem.

Teacher- It's ok.

Translator- OK.

Me- What is the biggest challenge for you with working with these children?

(cell phone rings again, teacher steps away again)

Me- Does it make you sad?

Translator- A little bit, a little bit, not very, just a little bit, sometimes we feel like regret for her life or for some other children’s life. I don’t want to blame her family, but some family are really, really, really want to gain benefit from that child, without thinking of any problem, or any social problem, or anything. Just money sometimes, that too.

(teacher and translator talk again)

Translator- She has to go to talk to the director.

Me- Yeah, yeah, yeah.

(stop the tape)
To clarify, the child discussed in this interview was 12 years old when she arrived at CPDC after having contracted HIV/AIDS, and she was 14 years old at the time of the interview. I interpreted this interview to mean that the issues related to poverty were not clear, but were interwoven among issues of exploitation and abuse, as well as health and well-being. This interview illustrates the difficult lives that some children have in extreme poverty, and the impact that the poor decisions made by the adults in their lives can have on these children. The passage showed the emotional impact that this work has on staff, and the futility felt by staff in these situations. The passage also highlighted the problem of labeling human rights abuses as human trafficking, or modern slavery, rather than exploitation. This child was not a victim of human trafficking, and poverty is not solely to blame for her death. Discerning the blame between family and customers is difficult, and the complex issues involved mean that NGOs must broaden, not narrow, their definitions of at-risk children in order to encompass the innumerable variations of abuse and exploitation experienced by vulnerable children. Finally, this passage solidified my thinking about the human trafficking debate and how global human trafficking discourse has diverted attention away from the real issues of abuse and exploitation, and toward politically manipulated definitions, designations and categories.

The issue of poverty is broad in its applicability to human trafficking prevention, particularly in how these two Thai NGOs conduct their work. In my data, poverty arose as a two-pronged theme, specifically how poverty manifested itself as an issue for the children themselves, and how poverty manifested itself as an issue for families of the children. This data came from both teacher/staff interviews and student interviews (see Table 3).

*Child Poverty Issues.*
The strong influence of poverty on the children being served at the two research sites became apparent early in the data analysis, and a finding I anticipated. Figure 14 shows the sub-themes of the Poverty theme. *Child Poverty Issues* were made up of several key sub-issues: pressure to work from family, community and friends, abuse and exploitation, abandonment, homelessness, and drug and alcohol use. Rather than delineate these sub-issues separately, I chose to discuss them in conjunction with other related sub-issues, in part to illustrate the complexity of these issues and their interconnectedness to one another.

Figure 14. Poverty theme with sub-themes.
Children at the two NGOs face pressure to work from family and the community. Many experience abuse, including domestic violence, sexual abuse, and exploitation by parents, family, traffickers, and sex tourists. Abandonment of children, particularly in regards to CPDC (Child Protection and Development Center, n.d.c), forces them into vulnerable situations, including homelessness and prostitution. According to Jitsuchon and Richter (2007), poverty rates in Northern Thailand have actually improved since 1988 to between 14% and 24% in 2002, and remained below 8% for Pattaya. This economic growth is likely the attraction of undocumented migrants and immigrants to these areas. However, the United Nations Children’s Fund found that in Thailand there were over 1 million children in “need of special protection, including orphans, …children who live and work on the street, …child laborers…” (2011, pp. 3). The Millenium Development Goals Report found that extreme poverty had fallen in Southeast Asia, from 24% in 1994 to 6% in 2004 (United Nations, 2007). However, the United Nations (2007, pp. 26) found that 37% of children in Thailand live without both parents, an issue that is even more likely among non-Thai speaking households, poor households and rural households. According to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2008), methamphetamine, or yaba, use has grown in Thailand. The United Nations Development Programme (2010) found that reports of domestic abuse are on the rise in Thailand, and many of these cases involve alcohol and drug use. The increase in reports, however, may be linked to new progressive laws making domestic violence a crime and allowing abused women to take abusers to court. Drug abuse and domestic violence are prevalent world-wide, but in how they manifest in Thailand may relate to the issues of poverty that these two NGOs work to address. Alcohol and drug abuse by children and their families, and domestic abuse, are an issue in Pattaya (McCamish, 2002) as well as Northern Thailand, and evidence of these issues was apparent in the data, as I discuss next.
During five teacher interviews and ten student interviews in 2011, the interviewees talked about parents forcing their children to work. Six students said that the most important thing about the Patak Half Day School was that it was free. Twelve students said that the Patak Half Day School was for poor children. The pressure to work from parents or extended family is a prominent aspect of the child poverty issue, which I found out first-hand. As one student stated, “some parents don’t want them to study, because they want them to work” (Student 7, DEPDC, 2011). Another student said, “Parents, they are really poor, and that’s why they make the children go out and work, and they don’t know where they go, so they might really risk to human trafficking, and some people use drugs” (Student 14, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). When discussing the biggest problem that students had at the Patak Half Day School, one student said, “…poor, and their parents don’t have money, and the parents need them to go out and work” (Student 16, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). When discussing his goals, a student said, “I think sixth grade is enough…after I graduate, I will help my aunt who works…” (Student 20, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). This aunt bakes and sells bread as a street vendor. Even after graduating sixth grade, students are aware of the difficulties that may lie ahead, “…some others who graduate here, sixth grade, they go, after this they go to work, and we don’t know what they are doing” (Student 22, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). Many students were forthright about their goal to begin work soon, for example, “Now I’m in third grade, next year I’m not going to study anymore…I want to work fixing cars…” (Student 6, DEPDC, 7/12/2011).

Community and social pressure for children to earn money arose in the data as a problem pushing the students out of the Patak Half-Day School. The lure of money does not always come solely from parental pressure, however, as the following interview excerpt illustrates.
Some students leave and work in prostitution willfully. They see their neighbors making money, write and call from Bangkok or other cities to say they are doing great, but teachers know they are in prostitution. Some parents will tell their own daughters and sons, “see, other people go out and they come back and they have a big car and a nice house, why don’t you go and do that”, like push them and make them have really high hopes, like really high, big house, car, a lot of money. (Teacher 3, DEPDC, 7/12/2011).

Other children are lured by friends from the NGO, often through unexpected channels such as Facebook and email. A teacher pointed out the issue, as it existed in the Mae Sai community, “We will see only ten percent of the children still stay in town. Most of them (are) gone. This is the real story” (Teacher 8, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). The next excerpt, conducted with a staff member who speaks Thai and English without the use of the translator, describes the issue in more detail.

Because now when the children drop out from the half-day school they go to Bangkok, Chiang Mai or somewhere. They send some pictures for their friends, here. … Picture, before they go, they are, not beautiful, not smart, but when they go to that, around 3 or 4 months, they change many things, very beautiful, makeup, change some, their nose, take some pictures in that place, where they stay in Bangkok, where everything is very nice. And they talk with their friends on Facebook or on Skype or something. Or send something back home. They don’t talk about do you want to come. But they talk about now I am really healthy, I do great work, I do great job, I get money. Sometimes, if you send the pictures, chai mai (yes), and we talk many things, and then I want to do the work same as you, I will ask you. How I can do that, how I can do. Now we have that problem, too. Sometime they leave and go back to go back home, their mother or father,
or some neighbor to talk to them. … Sometimes we can fight, if we know, we can fighting for the student. … We talk with the family, talk with family to do something else. But sometimes we don’t know, until after they go to Bangkok already. (Teacher 7, DEPDC, 7/20/2011)

After this teacher interview, the translator also added an additional dimension to the issue. I include her comments in the following excerpt:

In my village, like all of, many people in my village, they gossip about us, like ‘oh look at them, they have a lot of daughters but they are not rich’. You know what I mean, but we are not like that. So, we don’t care, we don’t have a big house. (discussion with the translator after Teacher 7 interview, DEPDC, 7/20/2011)

As these excerpts illustrate, the pressure for the children to work causes students to drop out of the Patak Half-Day School. This pressure comes from friends, family, the community and society at-large.

When asked to describe CPDC, one child said, “This center helps children who comes from broken families or children who has been abused, and also the orphanage children” (Student 25, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Abuse, though not solely a poverty issue, is a theme that arose in both student and staff interviews, and needs to be addressed. Even prior to being trafficked, at-risk children may have experienced sexual or physical abuse at the hands of family or acquaintances. Abuse is insinuated in many of my interviews. Three staff and four students use the word *protect* to describe the NGO’s purpose, while six staff and eight students described the NGO’s purpose as taking care of children. When asked to describe the staff at the NGOs, many students used similar language to this student, “they take care of us…if the teachers did not care, they would not stay here for us” (Student 2, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). Other descriptors surfaced that
pointed to a history of abuse; one student said the NGO “helps them out of that place…” (Student 28, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Another stated that the teachers at the NGO “…never blame or complain or hit the students” (Student 4, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). When describing the children at the NGO, one student said that they were “…homeless, no house, no place to sleep, no safe place to sleep” (Student 31, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Abuse, domestic violence and drug and alcohol use are issues impacting students that relate to broader family poverty issues. Next, I discuss poverty issues in terms of how they relate to the family circumstances.

**Family Poverty Issues.**

The families of the children being served at the research sites have their own particular poverty-related issues that increase the vulnerability of the children and exacerbate the problems that the children face before, during and after their time at the NGOs. Generational poverty was a significant element in the lives of the children. For instance when describing the children at the NGO, one student said, “…have family problems, families are poor, want children to work” (Student 13, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). Another student talked about their parents getting old, saying “…so I want to help them” (Student 14, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). Fifteen children described themselves and their families as poor, and eight teachers noted that being from poor families was one of the biggest problems that the children faced. Six of the children at DEPDC said that the most important aspect of the NGO is that it is free. One teacher pointed out that “…the children in DEPDC, they come from family problems, so they kind of behave a little bit naughty, too” (Teacher 8, DEPDC, 7/20/2011).

Substance abuse is an issue in Thailand- as it is in the United States- particularly methamphetamines, called yaba (United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime, 2008), as one student mentioned while talking about the problems children at the NGO faced, “…some people
take drugs a lot” (Student 14, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). Teachers also discussed *yaba* with me during informal conversations which I included in my field notes, explaining that many teenagers in Mae Sai and Pattaya have begun to use *yaba* in groups and peer pressure to do the drug with friends has become more prevalent. Drug use by the children and their families were a concern of teachers, as they teach about the dangers of drugs while discussing hopes for the students’ futures. For example, one teacher wanted children to “…be good people in the country, not use drugs” (teacher 6, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). In Patak, the village surrounding DEPDC, teachers discussed the drastic growth of development in housing in recent years, for instance, “the village has many new houses,…not sure where the money is coming from,…maybe married with foreigner,…maybe sell drugs, maybe other things.” (Teacher 7, DEPDC, 7/20/2011).

Many of the children and their families experience political violence in their home countries, a push factor causing them to migrate to Thailand. Ethnic minorities in China and Burma face military persecution. Some of the children at DEPDC and CPDC have already worked as prostitutes, beggars, street vendors and drug dealers, according to teachers and staff. As one child stated, “kids steal in Mae Sai” (Student 20, DEPDC, 7/20/2011), and another student said that they are learning “…not to kill each other, not to argue, not to fight” (Student 29, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Crime and violence are often a part of these children’s lives, which becomes an important part of the work of the NGOs; not only to teach academic and vocational skills, but also to teach moral and ethical concepts as part of what DEPDC describes as life-skills (DEPDC in Detail, 2004; Siltragool, 2008). One student stated that her favorite things to learn at the Patak Half-Day School were “life skills, workshop, cooking and making Thai desserts” (Student 22, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). Another student said that learning life-skills were his favorite thing at the Patak Half-Day School because they teach him to “…take care of myself and my
family” (Student 3, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). One student said that she wanted to be a life-skills
teacher so that she could “teach students to be a good person” (Student 4, DEPDC, 7/12/2011).
Finally, another student said that life-skills were the most important to him to learn “how to take
care of myself, and protect myself” (Student 5, DEPDC, 2011). The NGOs have undertaken a
challenging endeavor, indeed.

**Other problems.** In addition to the broad themes of statelessness and poverty, I also
uncovered several other problems in the interview and observation data that I described as *Other
Problems*. I will discuss these other problems and how they deserve differentiation from the
statelessness and poverty themes. Even though there is some overlap with other issues, it is
useful to view these other problems separately as some aspects do not directly relate to
statelessness and poverty. Figure 15 illustrates the *Other Problems* super-ordinate theme and its
sub-themes.
Other problems

- family problems
- family pressure to work
- community social pressure for children to earn money
- border issues
- cultural barriers
- language issues
- health, mental health, behavior, learning issues of students
- funding issues
- staff retention issues
- government accreditation of the program

Figure 15. *Other problems* theme with sub-themes.

The ten sub-themes were organized according to Table 3.

*Family problems* were an important issue particularly in student interviews. Often these family problems connect to other issues as Student 13 noted, “students here have family problems, families are poor, want children to work” (DEPDC, 7/13/2011). Another student stated, “they might have their own family problems, like the family not really rich so the family
want them to go to work and send money to them” (Student 19, DEPDC, 7/14/2011). A student described CPDC in the following way: “this center helps children who comes from broken families” (Student 25, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Another described CPDC as “this is a center that helps children whose families don’t have enough time to take care of them and abandon child” (Student 26, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Finally, when asked about problems of children at CPDC, Student 31 stated, “homeless, no house, no place to sleep, no safe place to sleep” (CPDC, 7/23/2011). Twice as many instances of family problems arose in the student data than the teacher and staff data (see Table 2). After re-examining all of the instances of Problems in the student interview data, the largest problems noted by students were economically-influenced issues (Poverty, family problems, and family pressure to work, see Table 2). The family problems category illustrated here combined elements of poverty, homelessness and abandonment. These issues allude to the second issue in the Other Problems theme, family pressure to work (see Table 2).

According to Table 2, family pressure to work was one issue that teachers and staff, and students both had a relatively high number of instances. Student 7 said, “people in Burma, some parents don’t want them to study because they want the children to work” (DEPDC, 7/12/2011). Another student clarified this point, “Parents, they are really poor, and that’s why they make the children go out to work, and they don’t know where they go” (Student 14, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). Also, Student 16 noted, “their parents don’t have money, and the parents need them to go out and work” (DEPDC, 7/13/2011). A staff at CPDC gave insight to this issue, “some family are really, really, really want to gain benefit from that child, without thinking of any problem, or any social problem or anything. Just money sometimes, that too” (discussion with translator during Teacher 9 interview, 7/23/2011). Teacher 9 also stated that “violence” is one of the biggest
family problems that the children face, an issue I included in the previous section on Poverty. These family problems, such as family pressure to work, domestic violence and homelessness are further exacerbated by border issues (see Table 2).

Border issues also arose in the data in ways other than those discussed in the section on Statelessness. The limitations on movement and migration have implications for students’ educational aspirations and access to work. Many students that I interviewed used the phrase “as high as I can” (Student 8, DEPDC, 7/13/2011), when asked about their educational aspirations. Students were aware that their futures depended on continued access to the NGOs. The decisions to migrate for work, or to live with a family member in Thailand were often out of the children’s control. The pressure to work combined with living with extended family across the border in Thailand created other issues. I found that many of the children that lived in Patak, the village where DEPDC is located, were living with extended family members, and their parents remained in Burma. One student said he helps his aunt, who he lives with, to bake bread to sell in the market (Student 20, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). A student at CPDC moved to Pattaya from Bangkok to live with his aunt (Student 30, CPDC, 7/23/2011). When she got a job in Ayuthaya, she was unable to take care of him and chose for him to move to CPDC. The aunt visits him on weekends at the shelter.

Migration and cross border families created certain cultural barriers for students in their new communities and push students into exploitative working situations (see Table 2). Many students I interviewed were one of many siblings, and their families expected the child to be a provider for the household. This expectation to help the parents provide for the family can also be explained through the cultural framework of the people in and around Thailand, who hold the belief that the child must repay the parents for raising them and providing them with sustenance.
(Simon Baker, personal communication, 2/9/2012). One student said, “I want to help my mom and dad work” (Student 11, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). The combination of cultural and economic factors pressures the children into exploitative work situations. Cultural and economic pressures make teaching vocational skills important to the two NGOs education programs. One student illustrated this when discussing the importance of vocational skills at the Patak Half-Day School, “…we just study half day and half day shop, hand-making, cooking, or make something really helpful, really useful,…I can use it,…learn it today, next day I can make it for my parents to eat” (Student 14, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). Migrating for work is an expectation of many of the children’s families, “…so the family want them to go to work and send money to them,” (Student 19, DEPDC, 7/14/2011), sometimes unaware of the type of work their child is doing, and as this student described, “…we are helping people who are (going into) human trafficking and prostitution,” (Student 19, DEPDC, 7/14/2011).

Language issues are also connected to the cultural barriers that the students face (see Table 2). Teacher 2 stated, “students don’t understand what they need to do, maybe because of culture, maybe where they are from, maybe the language, but friends usually help with this” (DEPDC, 7/11/2011). Language barriers arose in the data for both students and teachers at DEPDC (see Table 2). Seven teachers and staff, and eight students cited language issues as an obstacle. A student at the Patak Half-Day School remarked, “Thai is difficult for students, Thai is important, we stay in Thailand” (Student 20, DEDPC, 7/20/2011). Language barriers also surfaced at CPDC. As one student noted regarding difficulties in school, “the hardest is Thai language, no one makes me understand Thai, but the staff try to help me” (Student 30, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Another student said that their most difficult class is “Thai language, but staff help me practice reading” (Student 31, CPDC, 2011). A student from Cambodia stated, “Thai is
difficult, staff help a little bit, I practice by listening when others speak Thai” (Student 32, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Teachers at DEPDC deliver lessons in Thai, and government schools utilized by CPDC in Pattaya use Thai as the language of instruction. Thus, children from Burma and hill tribe children must first learn Thai in order to learn the other subjects. One teacher said that the language problem was an issue but “friends help with this” (Teacher 2, DEPDC, 7/11/2011). Another teacher illustrated the difficulties that language barriers present in the classroom, as follows.

language is difficult, whenever they have a problem, they are not all Thai, speak Thai, so when I tell them something, they not really understand. I tell them something, they not really understand. I have to try many, many ways. Give examples, tell their friends to help each other. Vocabulary, some formal vocabulary, the students don’t understand, so we have to say something easy or simple. (Teacher 5, DEPDC, 7/13/2011)

At DEPDC, teachers do not receive any special training, and are not required to be certified teachers. Training in Burmese and/or hill tribe languages for staff and teachers would likely improve communication and reduce language barriers for children, which lead to the obstacles that the organizations face. Particularly DEPDC, the need for multi-lingual staff and language training to communicate with ethnic minority students is highly important to insure the success of their educational program.

*Healthcare, mental health, behavior and learning issues of students* was another sub-category of the *Other Problems* theme that impacted the students, teachers and staff and organizations as a whole. This sub-category was noted the most-frequently in the teachers and staff data, which explains how prevalent the teachers and staff considered this issue. Access to healthcare for the children is also a significant obstacle that teachers mentioned. According to
Baker, Holumyong and Thianlai (2010, pp. 27) “registered migrants are covered by the Compulsory Migrant Health Insurance Scheme, while unregistered migrants are denied this right.” If a child is sick at DEPDC, because they are stateless and unregistered, the NGO cannot take them to a Thai medical clinic, and rely on volunteer nurses for health care assistance for children. As Baker, et al (2010, pp. 11) discussed, “Since the mid 1990s, with Thailand’s first registration process, some migrants have been able to legally work and access health care, though the majority have remained undocumented and thus have not enjoyed the same legal rights.” Children at both NGOs have been affected by HIV/AIDS, and typically the two organizations refer infected children to other NGOs with specialization in HIV/AIDS cases, but as the case that begins the section on Poverty shows, the NGO may not be aware of all infected children under their care. Also, both NGOs served children whose parents died from HIV/AIDS, exemplifying the need for these children to access grief counseling. Two students and three teachers mentioned health as an important part of the NGOs’ work. While I was in Mae Sai, I was able to visit an NGO called Baan Doi with a staff member. This organization serves children affected by HIV/AIDS, and DEPDC refers children to this organization if they know of an affected child. Baan Doi serves mostly HIV positive children who contracted the disease in utero. However, they did have one teenage girl who was HIV positive, and two children who were not HIV positive, but whose parents died from HIV/AIDS. Baan Doi helped me to understand the difficulties faced vulnerable children affected by or infected with HIV. The compounding effect of statelessness and health-related issues, including mental health, on vulnerable children added another dimension to my thinking on the human trafficking issue.

Mental health is an important aspect of education at the NGOs and an important problem arising in the data (see Table 2). Students at both NGOs exhibited both learning and behavior
issues, which is an important obstacle for teachers and students. One teacher noted students’ difficulty memorizing and paying attention during class (Teacher 1, DEPDC, 7/11/2011), while another discussed having many “naughty” students, particularly older students, and discussed her struggle to teach students correct behavior, aside from academic curriculum, in school (Teacher 2, DEPDC, 7/11/2011). A DEPDC teacher who teaches for the CLC program described a recent conflict between novice monk students and Patak Half Day School students, and also noted that many students have poor listening skills, possibly as an effect of their lack of experience in formal educational settings, and that the teachers deliver lessons in Thai (Teacher 4, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). Mental health issues offer potential explanations for some of these behaviors. Baker, et al (2010, pp. 26) found that due to experiences of abuse, bribery and deception, “the migration process is likely to lead to mental health concerns”.

Funding issues were noted by teachers and staff, as well as students, in the data. Stable, reliable, and consistent funding is an important need, however, funding is a significant issue with many organizations, and not particular to these organizations. What I found to be the most considerable need at both NGOs was the need for staff, and those needs are immense. As one teacher noted, “…nobody gonna do this work” (Teacher 1, DEPDC, 7/11/2011), and another teacher explained, “…staff, we cannot find many staff,…staff needs to be able to come here and work 24 hours and love children…” (Teacher 9, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Six children and six teachers said that the NGOs needed more teachers and staff during their interviews (see Table 2). Teacher retention and staff development are significant issues impacting the NGOs. Both a teacher and a student at DEPDC mentioned that they need a teacher who knows how to teach computer skills. Teacher 7 noted the need for “more staff with more training” (DEPDC, 7/20/2011).
Both students and staff discussed the need for life skills training in the education programs of the NGOs. Nine students and five teachers mentioned life skills as the most important part of the NGOs’ work, and is exemplified in both of the NGOs’ programs for teaching vocational skills, including gardening, cooking, and weaving. One teacher used the example of a student who completed DEPDC’s one-year BYLTP program after graduating grade six, and became a kindergarten teacher at the Patak Half Day School, stating

…her family did not have anything, no refrigerator, no T.V.; she does weaving and sells it. Now her house has everything, all money she made weaving and selling products. Yeah, she’s really good, we are really proud of her, and her parents, too (Teacher 7, DEPDC, 7/20/2011).

The children at these NGOs have an overwhelming need for opportunity, which the NGOs provide. Four teachers and thirteen students used the word *opportunity* to describe the NGOs (see Table 2). These NGOs represent the only access point to, and opportunity for, a better life.

Beyond academic training, other, more complex needs that the teachers lack training for, also exist at the NGOS. Students and teachers at both NGOs also have a great need for counseling, particularly grief and traumatic experience counseling for the children, and counseling on coping with stress for the staff. One teacher described their job as “sad, depressing” (Teacher 3, DEPDC, 7/12/2011) when discussing former students who left the school and are working in prostitution willingly.

(The students) write or call from Bangkok or other cities, to say they are doing great, but the teachers know they are in prostitution. Some parents will tell their own daughters and sons, “see, other people go out and they come back and they have a big car and a nice
house, why don’t you go do that”, like push them and make them have really high hopes, like really high, big house, car, a lot of money. (Teacher 7, DEPDC, 7/20/2011),

Teacher 9 also pointed out student emotional issues that staff struggle to cope with.

Even though we take care of street children or these kind of children, but actually in mind they still feel they were abandoned, so she still use their life like no-one care about myself so I’ll do anything, what I want, and again at risk for their own life,…it really depends on what they think they are, what they think they want to be in the future. (CPDC, 7/23/2011)

Staff retention issues created another major obstacle to both NGOs for several reasons, including inconsistent funding, and the stress of such challenging work (see Table 2). Low pay for NGO staff and teachers is often limited by funding stipulations (Teacher 7, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). Both students and teachers noted the problem in interviews, and though no staff retention rate was available, I did witness two teachers announce their resignation during my 2011 visit.

During my first trip in 2009, one feature that really stood out to me at both organizations was the strong personal relationship that seemed to exist between the teachers and students. Hence, I began to search the literature on social capital and student-teacher relationship building because I thought that this relationship piece may be a guiding factor in the success of the NGOs’ work (Curran, Garip, Chung & Tangchonlatip, 2005; Field, 2008). I did find evidence in the data of relationship building between students and teachers at both NGOs (see Table 2). However, now examining the problem types that arose in the data, and the obstacles and needs present, it appears that in the strong relationship between teachers and students at these NGOs also has a negative impact. During my time at these organizations, I witnessed teachers on more
than one occasion telling the children that they will no longer be working at the NGO, and children of all ages crying. I saw multiple groups of foreign volunteers on short-term visits, playing games with the children, hugging and smiling and buying them presents. After discussions with the organizations’ teachers and staff, I came to question whether the children or the volunteers were actually receiving the benefits of these short-term visits. Teachers told me that when a short-term volunteer leaves, particularly one who is teaching English, the Thai staff have a difficult time “continuing with students” (Teacher 1, DEPDC, 7/11/2011). Volunteers come to teach English for a short period, then leave, and the next volunteer starts over from the beginning. In addition to the inconsistency that the children experience from volunteer teachers, teachers were also concerned because “children get attached” and cry when foreign volunteers leave (Teacher 1, DEPDC, 7/11/2011). In addition to the need for long-term staff committed to the organization, teachers are also in great need of training.

Finally, these issues of funding and staff retention lead to the final Other Problems sub-category, government accreditation of the program. Within the data, 13 instances of this issue arose in teacher and staff interviews (see Table 3). However, none of the student interviews had mention of this issue. This discrepancy points to the awareness that the teachers and staff had regarding this issue for the success of the organization.

In sum, a variety of problems surfaced in my data as subsets of the Other Problems theme, both at DEPDC and CPDC. Next, I discuss elements in the data which I considered benefits in Table 2.

**Benefits.**

What I found particularly interesting and inspiring despite so much overwhelmingly negative data, were the positive aspects of the NGOs work that arose in the data, which I
categorize as *Benefits* (see Table 3). I did not rank these benefits in order of importance because the importance of these was not clear in the data solely based on the number of instances. According to teacher and staff interview data, the benefits most often mentioned were learning life skills and free education (see Table 3). According to student’s interview data, the benefits most often mentioned were opportunity and access (see Table 3). When combining interview data with field notes, I found that the benefits were inter-related and difficult to isolate. I found many instances of *benefits* for the children but none for the staff, teachers or the organizations themselves. This discrepancy supports previously discussed findings of staff retention issues.

*Benefits for children.* Khun Toy, director of the Pattaya Orphanage (n.d.) and Human Help Network Thailand, discussed with me her frustration about the focus of the media on the negative aspects of the lives of the children living at NGOs, and the virtual omission of the positive work that the NGOs do. She noted that some of their partners only highlight the sensationalized lives of a few of the most extreme cases of children at their organization, and ignore the happy, smiling, resilient children that one encounters on any given day at the NGO. She pointed out that this one-sided presentation of the work of NGOs on human trafficking creates many of the difficulties in funding that NGOs encounter. Rather than the new facilities, it is the commitment of the people at the NGO that makes their work successful. As we discussed, commitments of time and one-on-one relationships with the children are what drive the success of human trafficking prevention, and it is the human element that is essential to the success of these two NGOs. Success for these NGOs is difficult to quantify, yet data on the benefits that children gain help to qualify NGO success. One teacher at DEPDC described success for her students as, “take care of themselves,…work somewhere that is not karaoke” (Teacher 1, DEPDC, 7/11/2011). Another teacher said, “success is doing good on tests”
(Teacher 2, DEPDC, 7/11/2011), a more traditional concept of educational success and achievement. A third teacher had different expectations for his students, “We expect them to know and stay away from human trafficking, and know how to read and write and speak Thai, protect themselves when they are in a situation” (Teacher 3, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). He also described a successful student as “knows how to be a good person, how to do the right thing”

The children at these two NGOs received many benefits from the NGO programs, partly due to the NGOs’ education programs, and partly due to the commitment of the teachers and staff at these organizations. These benefits are summarized in Figure 16.

![Benefits for individual children](image)

Figure 16. Benefits for individual children provided by the NGOs
Literacy is an important benefit that surfaced in the data (see Table 2). As one student said, “DEPDC is a school that gives us skills and knowledge, that is how I know how to read and write” (Student 2, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). Students at DEPDC learn to read, write and speak Thai, which allows them to find higher paid jobs in Thailand, as compared to Burma or Laos. One student stated, “I stay really far away, so whenever I go to work, I can speak Thai to communicate, and I will have a good future” (Student 17, DEPDC, 7/14/2011). When asked about job preferences, a student said he “…will work for Thai people, and I know how to read and write Thai” (Student 21, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). One teacher described a student who was born in Thailand to Burmese parents; “She can speak Thai when she came to DEPDC, now she can write” (Teacher 4, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). This same teacher said that the most important thing for students at the Patak Half-Day School to learn was to “speak, read, and write Thai” (Teacher 4, DEDPC, 7/12/2011). Another teacher stated, “Thai language is the most important thing for the students to learn, most of the students are not Thai” (Teacher 6, DEPDC, 7/13/2011).

Students, teachers and staff noted life skills as a significant benefit for children at the NGOs (see Table 2). The term life skills is a broad concept as a descriptor for non-formal curriculum, and the term has garnered public and professional use in Thai educational literature (Trakulphadetkrai, 2011). DEPDC considers life skills to include vocational training (see Appendix B: plates 11-14, 20), in addition to moral and ethical education (DEPDC in Detail, 2004). As one student noted, “Life skills are important, how to take care of myself and protect myself” (Student 5, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). Another student stated, “We learn about life skills, and that is really useful, you can use that that skill to develop, and use in your life, in the future” (Student 14, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). One teacher said that life skills were “knowing how to protect
yourself and stay away from human trafficking, bad environments” (Teacher 5, DEPDC, 7/13/2011).

Protection surfaced as a benefit in a variety of ways in the data (see Table 2). The NGOs provide protection for the children, whether short- or long-term. At DEPDC, the students’ references to protection were vague, such as “we learn about human trafficking” (Student 8, DEPDC, 7/13/2011), “we are helping people who are (at-risk of) human trafficking and prostitution” (Student 19, DEPDC, 7/14/2011) and “how to protect myself” (Student 5, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). Some comments from children at CPDC were similar: “CPDC protects children” (Student 24, CPDC, 7/22/2011), and “the staff help keep me fine” (Student 27, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Other children at CPDC were more explicit: “This center helps children who come from broken families, or children who have been abused, and also the orphanage children” (Student 25, CPDC, 2011), and “don’t let them go out on the street again” (Student 31, CPDC, 7/23/2011).

Opportunity and access were important benefits to children at both NGOs (see Table 2). One student said, “I am proud of myself to have the opportunity to go to school and study” (Student 5, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). Another student described the Patak Half-Day School as a “school for children who have not opportunity” (Student 7, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). One of CPDC’s staff said, “at least we give them a chance of education” (Teacher 9, CPDC, 7/23/2011). The opportunity and access category contained the largest number of instances for students within the benefits theme (see Table 2). In addition to the 57 instances of this theme in student interviews, I noted in Table 2 that the term opportunity was specifically used 17 times during the student interviews. Opportunity and access constituted 40% of the instances of Benefits noted in
I interpreted this sizeable portion to imply the importance and significance that the students place on the opportunity provided by the NGO.

Care was a concept that also arose in the data regarding benefits for children (see Table 2). Students and teachers referred to care in two ways: caring for and caring about children. Physical care of children by teachers and staff, such as providing clothing and food, was noted as important by children at both NGOs (see Table 2). One student stated, “I like the people who take care of me in DEPDC, teachers and everybody here, they are really good at taking care of us” (Student 19, DEPDC, 7/14/2011). Another student said he was “proud of teachers that love us, take care of us and teach us every day” (Student 2, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). This student’s quote emphasized both facets of the care concept. The second notion of care -emotional care- such as teachers caring about students was noted in another student’s interview: “they show they care by teaching children” (Student 29, CPDC, 7/22/2011).

The children, teachers and staff identified confidence-building as an important benefit gained by the children at both NGOs (see Table 2). Students gained experiences through the NGOs that would be otherwise unavailable to them, such as field trips (see Appendix B: plate 23), camps, and visiting other NGOs, broadening their horizons and raising their awareness of social issues. Exposure to foreign volunteers, though potentially problematic, also gives the children exposure to other languages and cultures, and potential future connections. One student recognized the impact DEPDC’s programs had on his confidence when he said “after I went to BYLTP, after it I feel like ‘Oh’ I am an adult and I can think, and I have more confidence and I can organize my mind” (Student 19, DEPDC, 7/14/2011). A teacher at DEPDC noted the effect that foreign volunteers had on student confidence, stating that volunteers were “helpful in improving English skills, building confidence in speaking and communicating with foreigners
out in the community” (Teacher 4, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). Another student also recognized this when he said the Patak Half-Day School was a “good school, very nice teachers, many volunteers to teach English” (Student 13, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). As I discussed in the section on *Other Problems*, the issue of volunteers was also problematic.

The children attend the Patak Half-Day School for free, and CPDC pays all of the fees at the government schools for its children. In the case of DEPDC where many students still live with family members, this lightens the financial burden on their families, and eliminates a significant barrier to their education. Nine of the children from the Patak Half-Day School used the word *free* in their description of DEPDC and the theme was one of the most significant benefits found in the data in terms of the number of instances (see Table 2). One student confirmed the financial benefit of the Patak Half-Day School when he said, “outside schools have uniforms …I can come and study here for free, and they also have a bus for me, to drive back home” (Student 5, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). A different student stated, “you don’t have to have a lot of money, you can come and study here” (Student 12, DEPDC, 2011).

Finally, the relationship-building aspect of the work of these NGOs arose in the data as a benefit for the children (see Table 2). Though the student-teacher relationship issue is problematic, these NGOs allowed children the opportunity to build positive relationships with adults and other children, for instance, “teachers talk to students after class, play games, play soccer with the students” (Student 13, DEPDC, 7/13/2011), and “we worked in groups on life skills” (Student 13, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). The children make connections at other organizations, for example, “we went to an organization that helps the children who are blind, and we learned how to do Braille. They are smart, they are just the same as other people” (Student 19, DEPDC, 7/14/2011). For those children with little or no experience in formal schooling, the NGOs
provide socialization opportunities with children their own age, particularly for those from small isolated villages. For example, one student said “my favorite thing is friends” (Student 20, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). When asked how she feels living at CPDC, a different student stated, “it feels good, I have a lot of friends” (Student 25, CPDC, 7/23/2011). I found evidence that health and hygiene improved for students, not only through learning health in the school curriculum, but having caring adults attending to the children’s health and hygiene needs. As Table 2 illustrates, both teachers and staff (with 11 instances), and students (with 12 instances) found the relationship element important. Finally, the children who are without parents, or living far from family, get the benefit of having a surrogate care-taker, a positive role model, and a friend.

In this study, I refrained from making definitive statements about the success per se of the two NGOs. My purpose was not to formally evaluate the educational programs of these organizations, but to understand what was taking place at the NGOs and how students, teachers and staff were impacted by the issues at stake. It is clear that the children being served at these two NGOs receive important benefits from the organizations, and that the NGOs are working to address social barriers for vulnerable and marginalized populations. I included the next and final theme to add further depth to the context, and to illustrate the normalcy and resilience exhibited by the children at these organizations.

**Goals of the Children.** The third of three major themes that emerged from the data were the goals of the children at the two NGOs (see Table 2). These anticipated findings from interviews show that the children at these organizations have aspirations now made more real and feasible due to the help of NGOs such as DEPDC and CPDC. In my 2011 interviews, I asked the students what their goals for the future were, and I asked them to describe their perfect job. These interview questions were exploratory, intended to elicit the perceptions of the
children regarding their educational outlook, future prospects and world-view. The goals are divided into three sub-categories, educational goals, work goals and altruistic goals, as illustrated in Figure 17.

Figure 17. Goals of the children.

Educational goals. Students at both organizations had very specific and interesting goals for their educational futures (see Table 3). These goals surfaced in the interviews during my 2011 field season. Educational goals contained the largest number of instances (29) from the student interviews (see Table 3). Five students (23%) at DEPDC intended to graduate the Patak Half-Day School’s sixth grade. Of the 22 students at DEPDC that I interviewed in 2011, six students (27%) wanted to graduate from high school, (Student 5, DEPDC, 7/12/2011; Student 5, 12, DEPDC, 7/13/2011; Student 20, 21, 22, DEPDC, 7/20/2011) and two students expressed their interest in high school if DEPDC created a high school program (Student 11, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). These goals raised the question as to where the students from DEPDC would be able to access high school education, and if they desired a high school education, DEPDC was not actively facilitating this for the children.

Of the 32 total students I interviewed, four children (12.5%) considered university study a goal, with two being from CPDC and two being from DEPDC. This goal not only seemed
attainable for the children at CPDC, but the organization was actively facilitating this process for them. However, at DEPDC, the program was not prepared to move the children into a high school or university education. Two students (6%) said that they wanted to get a master’s degree, one from each NGO, which showed that despite the setting and organization, children at both locations had high educational goals. Two students wanted to study music, and one student wanted to study art. Another student aspired to learn to build robots, while one student wanted “to study more” (Student 13, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). I found these educational goals to be insightful, particularly into the personal dreams of the children at the NGOs. These goals also illustrated the needs that DEPDC had, particularly in terms of transitioning students to further educational opportunities. Many of the educational goals that these children described were similar to the goals I hear from my own American public school students.

Work goals. Work goals of these children were important because they illustrate the normalcy of these children despite their traumatic experiences and difficult backgrounds. I also found it interesting that of the three categories of goals, teachers and staff (9), and students (11) had the closest number of instances in the work goals categories (see Table 3). It is important for me as an educator to convey that the goals of the children at these organizations are not very different than the typical child anywhere else, at least in the fundamental sense. These children play with their friends, laugh and run just like my middle school students in the United States. I interpret these goals as testaments to the work of the teachers and staff at these NGOs that these children feel safe and comfortable enough at these organizations to voice these goals to an outsider. Of the 32 students interviewed, two students (6%) wanted to be doctors (Student 7, DEPDC, 7/12/2011, Student 9, DEPDC, 7/13/2011) and two students (6%) wanted to be nurses (Student 25, CPDC, 7/23/2011, Student 3, DEPDC, 7/12/2011). One student wanted to own
their own business (Student 17, DEPDC, 7/14/2011) and two students wanted to work at a big company (Student 23, CPDC, 7/23/2011, Student 30, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Two students (6%) wanted to be automobile mechanics (Student 29, CPDC, 7/23/2011, Student 31, CPDC, 7/23/2011), one student wanted to be the captain of a ship (Student 28, CPDC, 7/23/2011), another wanted to be a chef (Student 14, DEPDC, 7/13/2011) and another dreamed of being a professional soccer player (Student 31, CPDC, 7/23/2011). Another student stated that their ultimate job was to work at “7/11” (Student 22, DEPDC, 7/20/2011). I found that the most interesting of the work goals of the children that I interviewed was that six children (18.75%), more than any other group, wanted to be teachers. I interpret this finding to imply the importance of the relationships and education that the teachers and staff at the NGOs provide for these children, and the role models that the teachers and staff have become for the children.

Altruistic goals. Next, I consider a category of goals I term altruistic goals to be the most heartening and inspiring, particularly in the sense that they were highly unselfish for children of their age and background. One student at DEPDC had the general goal of helping people (Student 2, 7/12/2011), and one student at CPDC wanted to help children (Student 32, 7/23/2011). A student wanted to take care of their parents (Student 3, DEPDC, 7/12/2011), and another wanted to help their parents work (Student 11, DEPDC, 7/13/2011). As Dr. Simon Baker (personal communication, February 9, 2012) pointed out, the cultural framework of people in and around Thailand influenced the final two altruistic goals. Children in the region are expected to provide for their parents in part due to cultural beliefs. I also found that the teachers and staff (16) had far more instances of this goal than did the students (5) in interviews (see Table 2). The discrepancy between teacher and staff, and student instances for this goal help to explain the difficulties that teachers and staff face in their work. Frustration over unrealized
altruistic goals may impact the staff retention issues discussed previously. The goal findings point towards areas of further research and will be discussed in Chapter Five. Finally, I included three interwoven threads that I found in the data.

**Interwoven threads.** Beyond the thematic findings of this qualitative two-site case study, three sets of interwoven threads emerged across the findings: change, fear and vulnerability. These threads further interconnect the major issues and they shed light on the challenges facing the NGOs in addressing the issues related to human trafficking.

**Change.** Change was a consistent thread throughout the data and an ever-present thread in the work of NGOs and the lives of the children they serve. The findings in this study do not represent a static system. The two organizations react and interact with the ever-changing realities of politics, economics, culture, and public perception of human trafficking and its related issues. My study data helped me to realize the pervasiveness of change in the case.

**Fear.** Fear is a second interwoven thread that emerged in the data about the NGOs accreditation and funding. Elements of fear were prevalent in the interviews of the children, largely associated with their lives outside the NGO.

**Vulnerability.** Finally, vulnerability was a thread in the data pertaining to the lives of stateless children and human trafficking victims. The work of the two NGOs attempts to remove vulnerability from the lives of the children. Some vulnerabilities can be addressed and resolved by the NGOs, and others are simply beyond the scope and ability of NGOs such as DEPDC and CPDC.

**Gaps in the data**

Using a translator, which became such an asset to me in this study, and my lack of Thai language skills, meant that I was unable to join as many casual conversations between teachers,
staff and students that may have been informative in their own right. I recognize that there might be gaps in my data that were lost in translation. Luckily, the translator for this study had such an extensive background connection with DEPDC, the children and the issues that I also gained insight that I might otherwise have missed had I worked with another translator. I feel that my understanding of the issues was improved through the use of this translator.

**Conclusion**

In summary, in this chapter I presented the case I constructed using my data. I provided a profile of the two sites in the case, DEPDC and CPDC, and I described my findings as they emerged according to my research questions and in a series of themes. Within the first major or super-ordinate theme of *Problems*, the sub-ordinate themes of *statelessness* and *poverty* proved to be the most significant issues, with a third sub-category of *other problems* including additional significant problems for students, teachers and staff and the organizations (see Table 2). The second major or super-ordinate theme, *benefits*, centered on the children at the NGOs, with the sub-ordinate themes of *life skills*, *literacy*, *protection*, *confidence*, *socialization*, *positive relationships*, *new experiences* and *health and hygiene* being important elements that arose in the data (see Table 2). The final major or super-ordinate theme, *goals*, provided further contextual, subjective and personal insight into the lives of the children at the NGOs with three sub-ordinate themes: *educational goals*, *work goals* and *altruistic goals* (see Table 2). Within and across all of my data I discovered three interwoven threads: change, fear, and vulnerability. These threads helped me to understand of the complex issues at play. In the final chapter, I discuss implications in my findings; I reflect on the study and the research undertaking in all of its phases, and I consider directions for further research.
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Human trafficking and exploitation of people are hidden activities and exist on a continuum of severity. Often, this complex issue is misrepresented and sensationalized in the media. Human trafficking is difficult to define and observe, complicating effective actions for prevention, discovery and protection of victims. The role of education in preventing human trafficking is important, yet effective implementation of NGO programs targeting at-risk children and human trafficking victims is just beginning to be explored. In this chapter, I discuss the implications of my findings that were described in Chapter Four in terms of the themes that emerged. I consider potentially generalizable and universal ideas in the findings, the limitations of the findings, and possible directions for further study. I also reflect on my research in terms of approach and ingredients.

Themes that Emerged

In the thematic findings of the case study, I learned that students, teachers, staff and the organizations as a whole faced many problems, yet the children received many benefits from the NGOs. Understanding the complexity of the problems impacting the NGOs’ work provided me insights into their difficult work. The fact that I was able to visit the sites across three years was beneficial to my study by giving me a perspective of the NGOs over time. I was first introduced to the NGOs in 2009, then gathered preliminary information on the organizations and their issues in the pilot study in 2010, and finally in 2011, I returned to complete the dissertation study. DEPDC and CPDC each serve a relatively small number of children in comparison to the
“reports and confirmed cases of large numbers” of human trafficking victims estimated for the region (United States Department of State, 2011b, pp. 320), yet the problems these few children face are enormous. In light of this discrepancy between estimates of victims and the number of victims being assisted, it seems that the Thai government agencies responsible for addressing human trafficking could be more pro-active in engaging the work of these NGOs, assisting the NGOs to serve more children, and facilitating the transition of children to government schools or accreditation of NGO programs as non-formal education sites.

**Statelessness as a potential, not absolute, barrier.** The statelessness issue goes far beyond the scope of the NGOs, yet current policies allowing stateless children into government schools in Thailand are not used to the benefit of the children equally by both organizations. The ability of CPDC to navigate within the changing political circumstances and adapt its educational focus has shown to be beneficial to the children that they serve. However, in the case of DEPDC, statelessness is a more pronounced issue within a different local, political and economic context.

My review of literature showed that there are international, regional and national mechanisms in place to improve the plight of stateless individuals. Real progress has been made according to Min (2006), who showed that 50% of the hill tribe minorities in Thailand have been granted citizenship. However, like estimates of trafficking, estimates of hill tribe populations are unreliable and unclear (Min, 2006). The United States Department of State (2006) estimated that “roughly 60% of potentially eligible candidates have received citizenship under the regulations” based on data provided by the Thai Ministry of Interior’s Registration Administration Bureau. It was also noted that corruption “among highland village headmen and government officials contributed to a backlog of pending citizenship applications” (United States Department of State, 2006, pp. 320).
States, 2006). All of these elements converge to create a process that is complicated, and a discrepancy remains between broad policies and goals and the realities at the local level. In the case of DEPDC, the statelessness issue is more complex because of its proximity to the border and the number of immigrants in the area, which may also help to explain the differences in the long-term outcomes for the children at each NGO.

In 2010, one of the major goals of DEPDC was to gain accreditation as a non-formal education site. Talking to Sompop, DEPDC’s charismatic and inspiring director, I felt sure that the organization would be granted accreditation, and that funding would continue to the organization, particularly because of the media attention human trafficking was garnering at the time. Unfortunately, I was wrong because during my 2011 season, I learned that even further funding cuts had occurred, programs had been eliminated, and DEPDC was no closer to government accreditation. In 2010, CPDC had just begun to enroll children in government schools, and by 2011, the organization was flourishing. CPDC had the advantage that their organization was connected with the larger Human Help Network whose broader network helped the NGO to facilitate the transition of children to government schools.

The manner in which the two NGOs have changed over time relates to the degree to which the organizations have navigated within the changing political landscape. When implemented effectively, new policies can greatly improve the impact of an NGO’s work. However, when new policies are ignored, NGO efforts are easily nullified (Child Rights International Network, 2011). The de-facto versus de-jure gap between policy and implementation is an important barrier to hill tribe people engaging the citizenship and naturalization process provided by recent policies (Brown, 1994, McCaskill, et al, 2008, Minorities at Risk Project, 2004). Despite the opportunity provided to hill tribes according to the
law, the process of hill tribe people becoming Thai citizens remains difficult to access. DEPDC’s accreditation issues and the barriers to government school access for stateless children combine to create a difficult situation for the children at the Patak Half-Day School. However, the examples of Chiang Khong and CPDC show that effective implementation of laws intended to improve the lives of stateless people in Thailand can and do happen.

I also see a connection between the issues that the hill tribes and other stateless groups encounter in Thailand and the issues that undocumented immigrants face in the United States (Spires, 2005). With new aggressive laws in several American states targeting undocumented immigrants, fear of deportation is a very real aspect of these immigrants’ lives (Johnson, 2011, Varsanyi, 2010). As Varsanyi (2010) argued, the local context can be the most decisive element in terms of anti- versus pro-immigrant policy implementation. Having only experienced the Thai system indirectly through the translator, I continue to ponder how the local situation may vary throughout Thailand. Northern Thailand is the region with the majority of the hill tribes, and an interesting avenue for future research would be to compare the process of hill tribe people gaining citizenship across various areas of Northern Thailand. It would also be informative to conduct future research on multiple NGOs within the same region or locale, to compare the ways that NGOs navigate the political landscape within the same region or similar contexts based on a common set of contextual constraints.

Poverty. The extremities of poverty experienced by the children at DEPDC and CPDC are more exaggerated than poverty in the United States (see Appendix A: Pilot Study report). Also, despite the economic growth that I witnessed in my time in Mae Sai, the influx of migrants continues to provide human traffickers with a large vulnerable population. Children are pressured to work, causing the low retention rate at DEPDC, and the organization’s lack of
accreditation offers no long-term educational alternative to the children and their families. Based on my findings on CPDC (see discussion under CPDC in 2011: My Dissertation Fieldwork), improving the transition of children from DEPDC’s Patak Half-Day School to further educational opportunities, including government school, may improve the retention of students in the program. The influence of poverty on the children is difficult to combat without concrete credentials to offer the children for their educational efforts. Even though the Patak Half-Day School teachers and staff created a loving environment for the students, and provided practical skills-training for the children, based on my findings I believe that the organization cannot overcome the immediate economic needs of the children and their families. I also believe that the benefits gained from attending the Patak Half-Day School are too intangible to compete with the concrete realities of poverty, based on my experience at the organization. In contrast at CPDC, children have a concrete and official credential to work toward at the government school. The children at CPDC also obtain the intangible benefits of love and care, like those at DEPDC, but with the added, and immediate, benefit of a government school education recognized in the wider society.

**Other Issues.** Issues of migration and freedom of movement are also responsible for the vulnerability of children in and around Thailand. Informal migration is a facet of globalization that has implications for human trafficking and exploitation of vulnerable migrants. Immigration policy has important, and often unintended implications for the children at these NGOs, pushing them to more vulnerable positions (Goodey, 2004). As Emmers et al (2006) described, national level policy overlooks the interconnectedness of regional neighbors in terms of migration. Rafferty (2007) also discussed the complex nature of human trafficking in Southeast Asia, and national-level immigration policy in Thailand overlooks the intertwined local factors such as the
historical legacy of migration for hill tribes and the economic interdependence in border regions across national boundaries. Often, for the children at DEPDC, migration may be one of the few available options for accessing opportunity. Lazcko (2005) argued for more research on internal migration, also an issue that emerged in this study. CPDC served many children who were undocumented, many of which were from Thailand yet were abandoned by families or trafficked into exploitation. Policies created to address informal immigration does not address the vulnerability of these children. These and other facets of migration and immigration as they relate to human trafficking need more attention and further investigation.

The lack of health care access is impacting the vulnerability of the children being served at these organizations and may influence xenophobia and discrimination toward stateless minorities as it does in the United States (Cosman, 2005). The NGOs must also cope with mental health issues of the children they serve, as well as the teachers and staff (see Table 3). Engagement and cooperation between these NGOs and governmental actors may help to address these health-related issues, which often expand beyond the scope of the NGOs’ resources and expertise.

Language of instruction seemed to be a significant barrier to student academic success for ethnic minority children, especially at DEPDC, according to my findings. Without further data collection, I cannot explore this issue with more depth. I acknowledge the difficulty that both DEPDC and CPDC have with finding staff, but multi-lingual skills would be beneficial to NGO teachers and staff, particularly at the Patak Half-Day School. The language of instruction issue at these NGOs is also likely an issue at Thai government schools who have undocumented and/or stateless children as students.
Benefits as Evidence of Protection and Postponement of Human Trafficking.

Temporary, or short-term, benefits surfaced in the data and were important for children at DEPDC. These benefits indicate the immediate protection and temporary postponement of human trafficking and exploitation of the students that were served. Children may benefit from temporary removal from volatile home environments, and the families may experience a financial reprieve with the child living at the shelter or with relatives. Their health and hygiene are improved, which may have long-term effects. Going on educational field trips and attending camps are among the positive educational experiences for the children, as noted in Chapter Four. The benefits show the importance of having positive relationships with adults and children, particularly the street children, abandoned children, and the victims of abuse and exploitation. Also both organizations showed evidence of building confidence for the children. All of the temporary, or short-term, benefits cited by children, teachers and staff reflected the generally positive, caring environments that the two NGOs created for children.

One question that arose as I reflected on my research was whether these NGOs provided temporary protection from exploitation, postponement of exploitation or prevention of exploitation for the children. This question is difficult to answer but I found that both organizations have had elements of these at various times. At DEPDC, those children who continued on to the MYN, and to a lesser extent the BYLTP, appeared during my early observations in 2009 and 2010, to be removed from their previous at-risk status (see Appendix A: Pilot Study report). Based on my preliminary findings I would have qualified these programs as prevention of human trafficking at that time. However, by 2011, unless future graduates of DEPDC’s education programs were given a position at the NGO as a teacher or other staff, it is unclear whether vulnerability to human trafficking is significantly reduced. DEPDC’s Patak
Half-Day School acts as an intervention to the vulnerability of the students, and as a safe-house to the students who live at the campus. However, it is unclear based on my findings whether prevention of human trafficking and exploitation of these children can be predicted.

CPDC also provides an important intervention program in the lives of vulnerable children. They have shown that they were able to provide access to government education for marginalized children. The NGO has also been able to navigate the complex government documentation process for the children that they serve. Despite the important positive changes at CPDC, and the organization’s success at gaining documentation for children and providing access to government school education, it is also unclear, based on my findings, whether CPDC’s efforts have predictive validity as a prevention program for its children.

DEPDC and CPDC represent access to education and opportunity for a better life for the children that they serve. Both organizations provide something to disenfranchised children not readily available to them elsewhere. The data collected show that the work of these NGOs benefit the children by acting as temporary protection from exploitation, postponing exploitation and ultimately working towards prevention of exploitation. The outcomes for children vary greatly between DEPDC and CPDC, as I illustrated in Chapter Four, in part because of how differently the two organizations implement and utilize education in their overall program.

Both NGOs address human rights within a landscape of complex social issues, and they must cope with adversity and limited resources. Unfortunately, these micro-level actors in the fight against human trafficking get less recognition and media attention than the work of law enforcement, trafficker prosecution and international macro-level organizations. This case study illustrates the discrepancy between the ideal and the real in human trafficking prevention and in global education reform. As Brook Napier (2005) argued, implementing broad policies in
micro-level practice is difficult because often policy implementation fails to account for the micro-level realities.

**Goals as Snapshots at the Micro-level.** Goals in my findings gave snapshots into the minds of the teachers and staff, and the students at these two NGOs. These goals also help to illustrate the personal and individual elements of the micro-level work done by these two organizations. These elements constitute perspectives that are often absent from the literature on human trafficking and its prevention (Laczko, 2005). Students at both organizations had the goals of graduating high school and going on to college. One notion that I pondered regarding goals was how important the work of the NGOs was to introducing the children to the idea that high school and college education were possible, and attainable. Further investigation of this issue may provide useful insight on the impact NGOs have on broadening the educational outlook of vulnerable populations. I am encouraged by these goals because they show that the children have begun to think about their futures and see the connection between education and success. I was discouraged by the somewhat vague goal “as high as I can” (see p. 140 & p. 148) that many of the children used, especially at DEPDC. This goal insinuated the very real social limitations that these children faced, and their awareness of these limitations may contribute to the high number of children at DEPDC who do not complete grade six. Fewer students at CPDC used this or an equivalent phrase to describe their educational goal, which may be a result of their more feasible access to government high school education through CPDC. The goals children voiced differed somewhat from the goals that teachers and staff mentioned in interviews. Teachers at DEPDC saw basic literacy as a major educational goal for the children, but they were far less optimistic in terms of further education beyond Patak Half Day School’s
grade six. Unfortunately, based on my data regarding poor student retention at the school (see Table 1), the teachers were likely more accurate in their goals for the children.

Work goals of the children illuminated aspects of the children’s world views. Students at DEPDC were aware of their need to support their families financially. Family obligation was an element that ran through all of the DEPDC interviews, even the students who lived at the shelter, and those who had experienced human trafficking (see p. 149). At CPDC, this was not the case, as these children were either abandoned by family, orphaned by parental death or trafficked at a young age, and had been living as street children. Their family connection was virtually non-existent, though did exist in certain cases. Despite this difference, the work goals of the children at CPDC were consistent with the work goals of the children at DEPDC.

Altruistic goals were the most evident of the influence of the NGO as a positive example in the children’s lives. Students at both organizations wanted to help people, a goal that is likely influenced by the work of these NGOs. This goal is not specifically stated in either of the organizations’ official literature, though according to the number of instances in the teacher and staff data (see Table 2), I would qualify this goal as an intended goal. Creating a new generation of activists and advocates for at-risk children is a noble goal. It is what I perceived as occurring at DEPDC in 2009 when I first arrived at the organization and decided to study the group. Both organizations create a sense of community among their children, teachers and staff, as seen in Chapter Four. Both organizations have established a culture of caring about others and working for the collective good, as illustrated in Chapter Four. These and other positive aspects of the two NGOs exemplify the importance of micro-level actors in human trafficking prevention. As Laczko (2005) discussed, this case addressed some of the important blind-spots in human trafficking research, particularly the realities of micro-level actors and the difficulties that they
have in meeting international development goals (Siltragool, 2007) and implementing broad human trafficking policy (United Nations High Commission on Refugees, 2011) in the local context, within the Thai context (Fry, 2002; Ministry of Education Thailand, 2008), and within the educational reform context (Office of the National Education Commission Thailand, 2002; Office of the Education Council Thailand, 2007).

**Interwoven Threads in the Data.** The three interwoven threads- Change, Fear and Vulnerability- are overarching concepts in this study and that must be kept in mind when interpreting the findings of my study. I saw how DEPDC and CPDC are continually in flux, adapting to local cultural influences, political circumstances and economic pressures. Some parts of this study are akin to a series of “snapshots” (Laczko, 2005) over three years, attempting to take into account multiple research seasons and the major changes that occurred such as facilities, staff retention and enrollment of students. Other aspects of this study, particularly the thematic findings, tried to understand the work that these organizations do, and the way that the teachers, staff and children describe that work. I tried to account for different perspectives within the organizations, and although perspectives change over time, this study incorporated a broad collection of perspectives on the important issues.

In my findings, fear was an important thread in the lives of children outside of the NGOs: fear of government officials because of their stateless or ethnic minority status, fear of exploitation by adults, fear of violence from family members or others in the community. The real reasons behind the fear of the children are reinforced by the stone walls surrounding the two NGOs and the guard gate manned 24 hours per day at DEPDC. Other writers have pointed out the prevalence of fear in accounts of human trafficking (Bales, 2004; Batstone, 2007; Bowe, 2008).
While both NGOs in my study endeavored to reduce vulnerability to exploitation and human trafficking for the children that they serve, it is difficult to determine the extent to which vulnerability is reduced and what the long-term impacts are for the children. A multitude of pressures push the children into more vulnerable positions (see Chapter Four) and the NGOs are working to undo several of those key pressures, namely statelessness and poverty, through education and other programs. Meso- and macro-level assistance is needed to address pressures beyond the scope of the NGOs (Bales, 2008; BeauLieu, 2008). As Chapkis (2003) and Derks (2000) pointed out, without further assistance and support, some of these efforts may be in vain. Similarly, my case illuminated work that is being done at NGOs using the voices of the teachers, staff and students within these organizations, rather than relying on information from the media focused on other aspects of anti-human trafficking work as discussed by Laczko (2005).

**Universal Issues**

Thailand is working on many significant universal social issues as a nation, including poverty reduction, universal education, gender disparity and healthcare (World Bank, 2010), as well as human trafficking (United States Department of State, 2010). In addition to the work that the Thai government is doing, NGOs such as DEPDC and CPDC are also working on these issues, and collaboration would likely be mutually beneficial. Although improvements in Thailand have been made in many areas of the Millenium Development Goals, one area in need of improvement that is illuminated by this study is “Goal 8: to develop global partnerships for development” (World Bank, 2010). Collaboration between DEPDC and the Ministry of Education could at once address international policy and practice goals for government agencies and could reduce barriers to success for the NGO. Further collaboration with NGOs in regards to education could also address Thailand’s education reform issues (Office of the National
Education Commission, Thailand, 2002). As the situation at CPDC showed, cooperation between NGOs and public education in Thailand can work. However, without flexibility and compromise in the structure of DEPDC’s education program, cooperation may not result in improvements. The Thai Ministry of Education has also taken up the provision of formal and non-formal education for all children to meet the “Education For All” goals for 2015 through its Office of Basic Education Commission and its Office of the Non-Formal Education Commission (Siltragool, 2007). Therefore, common governmental and NGO interests suggest that collaboration with these and other similar NGOs might improve the ability of Thailand to reach its goal of education for every child by 2015. The issues related to the accreditation of DEPDC’s education program might be alleviated through a partnership with one of the above-mentioned offices within the Ministry of Education. I argue, based on my findings, that more action is needed to engage NGOs with formal education channels, either to create paths of transition, to address local inconsistencies, or to actively and formally accredit NGO education programs.

Based on my findings and experience, I argue for mutually beneficial active engagement between NGOs and governments which can act as a measure of positive progress in the eyes of the TIP Report, the UNHCR evaluations, and national government assessments of local and regional anti-trafficking efforts (The Solidarity Center, 2007; United States Department of State, 2006) and education goals (Siltragool, 2007).

The findings of my study have implications for other NGOs who have educational elements and programs. The changing political landscape in Thailand and the international arena can greatly impact NGOs, and how an NGO navigates policy changes can have a major impact on the success of the NGO’s efforts. The work of NGOs can benefit the Thai government’s efforts and development goals if coordination, collaboration and compromise can take place.
However, more understanding of the work of NGOs in Thailand is needed, as well as a clearer understanding of how these organizations fit within the work already being done by the government. These potential mutually beneficial relationships are possible in other nations as well. Government agencies tasked with meeting global education goals (Siltragool, 2007), development goals (World Bank, 2010), or addressing human trafficking issues (United States Department of State, 2010), would likely benefit from establishing more cooperative relationships with NGOs operating in their countries.

My study shed light on universal human trafficking and education issues within the specific local Thai context (Arnove, 2007). Many of the issues that the NGOs in my study face are common among other NGOs around the world (Tzvetkova, 2002; Rose, 2007) illustrating Arnove’s global to local continuum (2007). NGOs that address human trafficking related issues must adapt to changes in funding models described by Riddell (1997), changes in education policy as described by Rose (2007), international policy on human trafficking (Prevention of and Fight against Crime Programme, 2008), and national and regional immigration policy (Park, et al, 2009).

Immigration and migration are universal elements prevalent in this study. Global actors such as the International Organization for Migration (IOM) consider the human trafficking issue an important element in the debate on migration, exhibited in their sponsorship of human trafficking research (Laczko & Gozdziak 2005). Immigration policy intended to strengthen national borders and reduce informal migration often conflicts with a nation’s need for immigrants in the labor pool. A global paradigm shift toward national and international immigration policy is occurring and the international community is currently struggling to reconcile nationalistic desires with economic realities (Renshon, 2010). Informal migration of
stateless and undocumented immigrants continues despite immigration policy. Education For All goals illustrate the presence of significant undocumented populations world-wide and governments’ attempts to address these realities through education (Siltragool, 2008), yet these goals represent a conflicting paradigm to that of nationalistic immigration policy. Thailand’s efforts to provide education to marginalized groups are met with resource barriers, and NGOs often fill in the gaps that formal education cannot address (Trakulphadetkrai, 2011).

The immigration policies of individual nation-states are also often contradictory to international development goals representing which represent important economic and social changes to the increasingly globalized world (United Nations, 2007). The NGOs in my study function within these conflicting paradigms. Nationalistic immigration policies restricting informal migration are not able to stop informal migration, but create circumstances where undocumented immigrants and stateless people are further marginalized and vulnerable to exploitation. International education and development policies assume the presence of marginalized, vulnerable, undocumented, and stateless throughout the world, yet often ignore the need for protection from exploitation that these disadvantaged groups have. DEPDC and CPDC address this important need for these groups.

Overall, the contribution of my study that emerged in my findings was that these two organizations provide protection to vulnerable children living in Thailand. The fundamental contribution provided by both NGOs is protection, particularly immediate protection for the children while they are served at the NGO sites. Both NGOs are also working to diminish vulnerability of marginalized children in a variety of ways which include education and care. My study also highlighted the shift that occurred at CPDC from education providers to education
facilitators through government schools. CPDC’s educational shift illustrates a model of NGO/government collaboration that other NGOs may find useful.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of a case study are many, and so are the benefits (Creswell, 2007). The features and characteristics of NGOs working to combat human trafficking are little known and likely vary across organizations. Gaining an insider perspective through interviews, combined with an outsider’s observations allowed for a more thorough picture of the reality of NGO work in my study. The limited number of NGOs studied reduced the universal applicability of findings. Because of the limitations of time for this study, I was not able to investigate the interactions between the NGO and authorities in more depth. Maintaining strict confidentiality in the design stage of my study prohibited my ability to trace the data of individual respondents across time. Long-term follow-up of participants was not a facet of this study, which would do more to illustrate success of NGO programs. Due to constraints of language, time and availability, thorough examination of NGO documentation was not an option but may have provided a better understanding of the NGOs. Each of these limitations point toward future research ideas which I hope to pursue.

In my research, what interested me was the way that the participants in the study perceived and described: the setting, the work being done at the NGO, the problems, the benefits and goals for the future. As Pring argued,

Development of our thinking (e.g. about educational problems and their solutions) lies in the constant negotiation of meanings between people who only partly share each other’s ideas but who, either in order to get on practically or in order to accommodate new ideas, create new agreements – new ways of conceiving reality. Since there is no sense in
talking of reality independently of our conceiving it, therefore there are as many realities as there are conceptions of it – multiple realities (2004, pp. 51).

Many of the concepts that arose in interviews were broad and nebulous. These ideas were highly inter-twined with other concepts and difficult to discern independently. However, despite my difficulties conceptually encapsulating my body of data and condensing this data into usable chunks, I was continually re-invigorated by the powerful insights I discovered at each phase of my research. My knowledge of scholarly work in international and comparative education was useful in this endeavor.

My use of a translator risked a loss of meaning in translation. However, my use of the translator with a history at DEPDC, an understanding of the issues and a familiarity with the teachers, staff and children was an important asset and a crucial element of this study (see Chapter Three). The insider insight I gained from her assistance helped me immensely in my research, and I considered her help highly valuable in its own right as a source of data and a means for understanding contextual nuances. My study had limitations on the generalizability of my findings, with some findings generalizable only to similar contexts.

**Challenges in the field**

My status as an outsider created a steep learning curve for me as I compiled the background information necessary to develop my case study. Understanding the Thai context meant that between my trips to Thailand, I worked to find literature that shed light on the many blind spots that I have on Southeast Asia (The Economist, 2010). My review of the scholarly literature did not fully prepare me for the settings, and much of my learning about Thailand and the local contexts of Mae Sai and Pattaya came from my time on the ground and in the field. Similarly, the scholarly work on qualitative research methodology also did not prepare me fully
for the issues I encountered during my research. Much of what I learned about doing field research, I learned while in the field. Interviewing was one such area that I improved during my time in the field. I adjusted the order of questions, and added less formal follow-up questions to make interviews more casual. I found that the more general and more open ended questions provided chances for interviewees to give opinions and tell personal stories. I also learned a significant amount about the methodology as I engaged in the writing and editing process.

One major area of learning came in terms of logistics for the study. I encountered issues in travel and scheduling that could not be prepared for. I could not have anticipated some challenges without being at the location. For instance, interviewing locations for both sites changed during certain days because of the NGOs daily schedule. At times, I interviewed students outside at the Patak Half-Day School and when class transition time occurred, children surrounded our table, curious about what we were doing. I had to ask the translator to politely ask them to leave the table until our interview was finished. Some highly informative opportunities could not be anticipated, such as the day I spent walking through Patak with students and staff, meeting families and visiting a mountain cave, a school field trip to the temple, my trip to the Chiang Khong shelter, my visit to the Drop-In Center and local slums in Pattaya, and sharing meals with teachers and staff. These experiences informed my understanding of the contexts and the issues involved in the study. Casual conversations with teachers and staff were highly informative and enlightening on Thai culture, and many times I gained insight from unexpected sources such as taxi drivers, hotel staff and store clerks. All of these experiences could not be prepared for in the research proposal stage, but they helped to inform my understanding of the issues in the Thai context. Here, the pilot study was of great value to me to learn and to prepare for the larger study.
The pilot study allowed me to make mistakes and use the learning to improve my dissertation study. I also found that going to the locations in 2009, 2010 and 2011 allowed me time to gather more contextual information on the issues and to understand the work that had been done by other scholars. I think that having only one field season would have severely limited my interpretation of the data. The pilot study also helped me to resolve several logistical issues related to travel and the need for the translator. Most importantly, the pilot study helped me to improve my skills as a field researcher, interviewer and scholar.

I found it to be immensely helpful having the insight of Dr. Simon Baker as an expert auditor. I gained useful feedback from an early draft of the dissertation that helped me to clarify several important issues.

Theoretical perspective is another element in this study that was a challenge for me. Initially, I intended to have a single theoretical framework, social capital theory, yet as my data grew, I found this theory lacking and began to search for more theoretical insight. Looking back over the entire process, theoretical notions from post-colonial studies and critical theory were not very useful either, but rather theoretical pieces and concepts within various theoretical notions helped me to understand and formulate my findings. Overall, the most useful theoretical notion were that of the dialectic of the global and the local, also called the global to local continuum, as described by Arnove and Torres (2007). These theoretical elements helped me to understand broad global processes as they manifested in the specific local contexts of the research settings. I came to recognize that the value of any theoretical perspective lies only in its service as a lens through which to understand and interpret my data.

My decision to use a variety of data sources was a good choice in terms of helping me to establish context and fill in gaps in the interviews. However, this choice meant that the already
large amount of student, teacher and staff interview data was combined with field notes, photographs and documents to make an immense collection of data. In hindsight, using many data sources allowed me to be more comprehensive in my development of the findings. I found it difficult to condense and re-condense throughout the analysis phase, and to verify my findings, though the work of Creswell (2007) was helpful during this process. I also found the Inspiration mind-mapping software useful in helping me to organize, categorize, evaluate and develop hierarchical grouping of concepts, ideas, elements and dimensions in the data (Inspiration Software, 2011). This software allowed me to visually represent the data in a variety of ways as my thinking developed throughout the process. Finally, color-coding my interview transcripts was a productive exercise, as it offered me another visual representation of the data which could then be further grouped and condensed. I also came to realize that my findings emerged as entwined and as prone to speculation. I have learned to be cautious in making inferences beyond my data.

**Suggestions for Future Research for Myself and Others**

Scholars have argued for more research on human trafficking (Laczko, 2005; see Chapter Two). This study addressed an area of human trafficking research that has not yet been thoroughly examined. More research is needed on local level NGO programs such as DEPDC and CPDC in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the types of work NGOs do to address human trafficking. More understanding of the types of work done by NGOs will also improve our understanding of the issues that NGOs, and the people they serve, face. Organizations like the Thailand Project (n.d.) argue that education is vital to addressing statelessness and human trafficking, particularly in their Higher Education as Humanitarian Aid campaign. Although this study set out to address this question, still more research is needed in
ways to implement education programs for human trafficking survivors, stateless people and other vulnerable groups. I would like to pursue this research endeavor in the future.

More comprehensive study of the history DEPDC and CPDC with attention to interactions between NGO staff and authorities may illuminate issues between NGOs and governments. Examining the difference between CPDC and DEPDC, in terms of their relationships with authorities, may also aid other organizations as they traverse official channels. Barriers for NGOs and individuals were important findings of this study, and more research on these barriers is needed if major changes are to occur. I would also be interested in further studying these two NGOs in the future.

Long term research on the individual children at these organizations is also necessary, in order to determine the effectiveness of NGOs, and investigate other potentially hidden barriers for vulnerable people’s upward social mobility. Despite the existence of policies intended to reduce human trafficking and statelessness, the problems still exist on a global scale (French Institute of Pondicherry, n.d.). NGO staff in my study felt that these problems are worsening in recent years (Teacher 9, CPDC, 7/23/2011), even though evidence shows that improvements have been made in many areas (Trakulphadetkrai, 2011; United Nations, 2007; United Nations Children’s Fund, 2011). Weaknesses in policy implementation are exploited in Thailand (Rafferty, 2007; Vital Voices Global Partnership, 2007) and the United States (DeStefano, 2008), perpetuating the oppression of vulnerable people. In order for us to understand the breakdown between macro-level policy and micro-level implementation, micro-level research on the grassroots actors is necessary. Micro-level research in many settings, with many different contextual influence and varied local pressures, must take place if we are to resolve the macro/micro disconnect (Laczko, 2005). National and international efforts will continue to be
less effective without a better understanding of the on-the-ground realities. I want to pursue
research of these on-the-ground realities in my future work.

The ways in which NGOs and authorities collaborate need to be examined to promote
positive relations between non-profits and governments, in Thailand and elsewhere (Laczko,
2005). Studying these relationships at many different NGOs would be a useful research
endeavor. Also, researching various local governments’ implementation of laws allowing
stateless children in government schools across Thailand would likely provide useful, yet
difficult to obtain, information. Statistical data on the number of stateless people in an area
versus the number of stateless children attending that areas government schools would be
valuable but likely unreliable and difficult to attain (Laczko, 2005). Perspectives from the
government schools and the Ministry of Education may be helpful in broadening the point of
view on education and its impact on human trafficking prevention.

One important result of this study is my continued concern for the NGOs and the children
that they serve. Often, the human element is absent in the discussion of human trafficking in the
public forum. Victims are often presented in sensationalized terms, as one-sided or face-less
victims with detail-less pasts and futures (Said, 1979). An important outcome of my study was
gaining insight and detail into the perceptions and the lives of the children, staff and teachers
engaged in the daily struggle to improve lives. I want my own future work to help in making
that struggle more rewarding and effective.

Specifically, field work is crucial in my own future research. To understand the local
context, I need to spend more time in the field, to see first-hand how organizations operate and to
learn how people interact. During this study, I found several other NGOs in Thailand doing
interesting work (Baker, 2010), and I will likely visit these in the future, but I hope to continue
working with DEPDC and CPDC. Long-term studies of the students and staff are of particular interest to me. I also would like to visit NGOs outside of Thailand. I have talked with several NGOs in the United States which I want to visit, and also want to do field work elsewhere in Asia, particularly Burma, Lao PDR and Cambodia. I also want to bring my own skills as an educator to assist NGOs, particularly in terms of teacher training and potentially in creating a new organization for this purpose. Working with these groups on this study has made me more than a researcher. I intend to continue to advocate for these and other NGOs and I will use this study and future research to highlight the needs as well as the innovative and inspiring work of grassroots actors addressing human trafficking.

One of the unanticipated findings that I found profoundly interesting and disturbing was the link between Facebook and recruiting for human trafficking (see Child Poverty Issues). This topic needs further investigation and provides a fascinating link between modern global culture and exploitation of the vulnerable. I am interested in how modern technology and way of life are inevitably connected to and impacted by the social ills of the time.

Conclusion

Human trafficking is a complex, subjective social issue. NGOs working to improve conditions for children vulnerable to exploitation face many contextual pressures that have a profound effect on the success of NGO programs. Educational program success at NGOs depends on resources and cooperation from a variety of sources. Local, regional, national and international policies greatly impact the work of NGOs, yet policy implementation is inconsistently enforced, particularly at the local level. Global economic trends impact the number of vulnerable people affected by human trafficking and these same trends impact the available funding for NGOs to address the problem. With collaboration between NGOs and
authorities, positive impacts of NGO programs are likely. However, without financial support, collaboration in terms of creating accredited education programs, or cooperation in the utilization of existing accredited education programs, NGO program effectiveness will likely be reduced.

My research findings suggest to me that collaboration and cooperation between NGOs and national governments need to be encouraged by the international community, with real benefits provided for both parties, such as those associated with the TIP Report (United States Department of State, 2010). Collaboration and cooperation between NGOs and local governments needs to be encouraged by national governments, with real benefits for both parties contingent on evidence of effort from both parties.

In sum, I learned a great deal about teachers, staff and students at these two NGOs in Thailand. I learned that much of my understanding of research in the field took place in the field, as unanticipated factors arose and my flexibility was tested. I discovered a passion for understanding the work of grass-roots actors in human trafficking prevention efforts. I also developed an admiration of the Thai culture and the Thai people. Finally, I found through my research that the most challenging and difficult moments during the research process were also the moments where I learned the most.
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APPENDIX A

Pilot Study report

Social Capital and Education:
A pilot study report of two Thai NGO shelter/schools
for human trafficking survivors

The issue of human trafficking, and how it relates to education, is such a vast set of topics and issues that it is difficult to decide how to approach it, and riding around rural Northern Thailand on a motorcycle was one way I decided to approach the topics as I set out on a pilot study for my doctoral dissertation. By the end of my pilot study, I had come to the realization that I had learned so much more than I could have anticipated. The following is the report from this pilot study according to the National Research Council of Thailand (NRCT) guidelines (see Appendix A.2).

Background and rationale

In the summer of 2010, on the advice of the Advisory Committee for my dissertation research, I completed a pilot study which focused on two Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), the intended sites for my dissertation research, both of which operated shelter-schools for victims of human trafficking and children who were at risk of exploitation. The at-risk population of both organizations included stateless and hill-tribe children, street children, orphans, and others groups to be described below. I prepared for the endeavor with qualitative research methodology literature (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, Mason, 2002, Patton, 2002) and literature on fieldwork (Berg, 2008, deMarrais and Lappan, 2003, Patton, 2002, Wolcott, 2005), yet I felt naïve at having never done international fieldwork. I had done field work for my Master’s Thesis on Mexican immigrants in the Southeastern United States (Spires, 2005), which
included interviewing and observations, but I knew that to truly improve my research skills, I needed to spend an extended amount of time in the field and immerse myself in the work.

I was able to access the two NGOs during my 2009 summer study fellowship through the Washington D.C. NGO, Prevent Human Trafficking, and I selected these two sites out of the many locations I visited partly due to the inspirational work I saw going on during my stay, but also because these NGOs were working with highly vulnerable populations of students, those who were either recovering victims of human trafficking situations, or children who belong to the many at risk groups in the regions surrounding the NGOs.

Both locations are difficult sites to access for several reasons. Geographically, one site is located in the far northern region of Thailand on the border of Burma, and the second site is in the south eastern coastal region. These NGOs are also highly protective of the confidential identities and well-being of the children in their care. However, due to my previous visit in 2009, and my continued contact throughout the year expressing my interest in studying the locations, both welcomed me graciously during my stay and were helpful and cooperative with technical aspects of the study. Having spent two summers in Thailand, studying human trafficking issues, meeting practitioners and advocates working to address these issues, and enjoying the culture of this beautiful country, I have emerged with a more realistic understanding of the issues related to human trafficking, and the factors that influence human trafficking and the exploitation of children in Southeast Asia.

A key operating assumption that my pilot study began with is that effective education, rehabilitation and reintegration of victims into thriving lives after their stays at NGO shelters partly relies on the relationships that are built between students living in these shelters and the teachers and staff at the shelters. In addition to the role of intra-shelter relationship building, I
also considered relationship building by the NGOs with others outside the organization on behalf of students as a key element. Working to build a variety of relationships for students outside the organization is central to my use of social capital theory as an analytical framework to be employed in this study. Prior research on the relationship between social ties and social mobility (Coleman, 1998) suggests that in order to reduce vulnerability to future human trafficking victimization for students living in NGO shelters, building ties for students for life beyond the shelter is critical (Kao, 2004). How the NGO teachers, staff and students perceive the importance of relationship building is also a crucial component of the pilot study interviews (see Appendix A.1).

In addition to examining relationships, I also did observations and interviews which target perceptions about particular skills and knowledge taught in the NGO shelter/schools, and occupational and educational aspirations of students, many of which are former human trafficking victims. Not only are the student’s own perceptions of future work opportunities important, but also the teachers and other staff’s perceptions, as these perceptions likely guide what skills and knowledge are the focus of schooling in the shelters. Finally, I intended to look for linkages between the success of students at the NGOs, however defined by the actors, and the social pressures that continue to influence children during and after their time at the NGOs, in both the pilot study and the dissertation study.

As described in the pilot study proposal, the pilot study was designed in two one-week portions, one week per NGO (see Appendix A.2). The pilot study was an introductory study which will be included in the final dissertation study, to be completed in June and July of 2011 (see Appendix A.2). I arrived in Thailand on July 10, 2010 at Suvarnabhumi International Airport in Bangkok, and flew on July 11, the following morning, to Chiang Rai, the nearest
airport to Mae Sai in Northern Thailand. From Chiang Rai, I took a one hour taxi ride to Mae Sai, and when I arrived at my room, I contacted the first site, the Development and Education Programme for Daughters and Communities (DEPDC). I arranged a meeting for 9:30 am the morning of July 12th with the director and the international volunteer who would serve as my contact for interview scheduling, arranging a translator and other miscellaneous assistance. In that meeting we scheduled all of the teacher and student interviews, times and places for observations. They gave me a basic overview of DEPDC in general and updated me on changes that have occurred since my 2009 visit. We also arranged a meeting that evening with the translator. We scheduled five teacher meetings for the following day, with student interviews to follow the rest of the week.

**DEPDC**

DEPDC is located only a few miles from the border of Burma/Myanmar in the small village called Patak which is essentially within the city of Mae Sai (Jantrak, 2001) (see Figure 1).
The village population consists of hill tribe minorities such as Akha, Lisou, Karen, Tai Yai and Shan, mostly from the Shan State in Burma, who moved to Patak because of political and military persecution and who are in search of economic opportunities. According to Sompop Jantrakya, DEPDC’s founder, Thai law allows refugees to live within five kilometers of the Thai border for an indefinite or unspecified amount of time, and some villagers have built well established homes and businesses, despite not having legal citizenship in Thailand. This lack of citizenship, a topic which is emerging as a significant focus of my research, has become one of the key characteristics that make children in this and similar villages vulnerable to human traffickers.

DEPDC has several components but my research focused on the Patak Half-Day School. The school program consists of kindergarten through sixth grade, and provides living quarters to some of the students, based on the individual students’ needs. However, the majority of the students at the school live with family or friends in Patak, in nearby villages, or even across the border in Burma. Each day, the school bus picks up students who live outside of Patak. A large portion of the students leave the bus at the Mae Sai Customs House – the official border crossing point – cross the border, and walk home. Some students walk one to two hours to their homes in Burma.

After graduating the sixth grade, students can choose to continue their studies in the one year leadership program called the Border Youth Leadership Training Programme (BYLTP) during which the students continue academic classes, learn leadership skills in seminars with founder, Sompop, and learn technology skills in the Mekong Union Youth Training Center, which is a room at the half-day school that has been outfitted with computers and video equipment given by various donors (www.depdc.org, 2010). The BYLTP students all live at the
shelter, and they must commit to one year of volunteering for DEPDC after the one year training program.

Keeping up with all of the changes to the organization proved to be a challenge, even though it had only been one year since my last visit. In 2009, graduates of the half-day school could continue their studies by joining the Mekong Youth Network (MYN) program where students were trained in research techniques, wrote a proposal for a project to address a particular problem related to human trafficking in the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS), then were given funding to implement the program or project. Since 2009, funding has become a bigger issue, according to the staff, and the MYN has been discontinued, shifting to the BYLTP program, which exemplifies the challenges NGOs face while working to address the issue of human trafficking at the local level. The staff mentioned that graduates of the half-day school do, however, have the option of continuing their studies at a nearby non-formal education center that partners with DEPDC, or at one of the vocational training organizations with which DEPDC is associated. Unfortunately, the majority of the students who enter the Patak Day School in kindergarten complete the sixth grade, and this issue of retaining students through the end of the educational program and on to further educational opportunities became a much more important finding than I had originally anticipated. It is important to note that DEPDC works with students who have been victims of human trafficking, forced labor, exploitation, abuse, and armed conflict, but DEPDC also works with students who are at risk of falling victim to such problems due to poverty, their lack of citizenship, or other environmental factors (Jantraka, 2001).

CPDC
The second site for the pilot study is located in the Southeastern coastal city of Pattaya (see Figure 2), a center notorious for the sex trade and sex tourism (Associated Press, 2007; Korosec, 2003).

In 2009, the site was called the Pattaya School for Street Children, and it has since changed its name to Children Protection and Development Center (CPDC) and has officially come under the administrative umbrella of the European NGO Human Help Network Thailand (HHN) (www.hhnthailand.org, 2010). In 2009, the organization had received a donation from a Hong Kong corporation ADM Capital (www.hhnthailand.org, 2010) and had purchased land on which it had constructed several wooden and bamboo structures including one boy’s sleeping quarters, one girl’s sleeping quarters, an open air classroom, and an open air dining shelter. The land was barren and the organization had constructed a small pig pen and garden in the hopes of selling produce or pigs at the market. The organization has received grants from several European embassies, as well as other donors, and it has constructed six concrete, brick and tile buildings as
living quarters for children, two structures to be used as offices and working areas for staff, and construction of a dining hall and a building for classrooms were in progress.

Since my 2009 visit, CPDC has formalized a partnership with the nearby elementary school and children from the shelter can attend if the organization considers them ready to attend school. Children who are new arrivals to CPDC remain at the shelter for several weeks prior to attending school in order to accustom the children to the structured environment of living at the shelter. CPDC has also established relationships with secondary schools, non-formal education centers and vocational training centers for older students to attend. The transformation within that one year period was phenomenal and it required me to engage in a substantial amount of catch-up information gathering in order to understand how the NGO was functioning. CPDC houses approximately 50 children, most of which attend local schools, and a few of which remain at the shelter all day with staff. Children come to CPDC in a variety of ways, including referrals from local police and agencies due to trafficking situations, through other partner organizations, and from the outreach drop-in center in Pattaya that works to encourage street children to live at the shelter. (www.hhnthailand.org, 2010).

Prior to arriving in Pattaya, ongoing communications with CPDC and their umbrella organization were sporadic, due to the organizations limited email access and my own limited Thai language skills on the telephone. I had difficulty communicating my requests for letters of support for the National Research Council Thailand (NRCT), but once I arrived in Pattaya, the administrators and staff were gracious and helpful during my stay. It is important to note that CPDC works with children who are living on the streets of Pattaya. These children were forced into child prostitution, were abandoned by their parents, were forced into child labor, or were
victimized in other ways. Therefore, an understandable distrust of outsiders makes this site even more challenging for me to access.

When I arrived in Thailand, I made contact and made tentative plans to arrive at CPDC on Sunday, July 25. Due to scheduling issues, I was not able to get to the shelter until the following day, Monday, July 26. I received a tour of the new facilities and an overview of the changes in the past year. We scheduled interviews of staff for the following morning, but the director was hesitant about me interviewing the children. The director suggested that I interview the children that stayed at the shelter all day with staff, but interviewing the other children in the evening after school concerned the director, as it would break those children out of their strict routine, and it was suggested that I interview those students on the following weekend. Unfortunately, my time in Thailand was limited and that option was not available, so I had to be satisfied with staff interviews, a few student interviews, and some observations of the transition that the organization had gone through, and was currently going through. The last-minute change of plans did allow me some time for opportunities such as visits to the Pattaya Orphanage, the outreach center, and the slums from which many of the children at the shelter came.

Conceptual framework: social capital theory

My initial approach to the pilot study was to use social capital theory (Putnam, 2002, Coleman, 1998, Field, 2008) as the theoretical lens through which to view the success of the education process occurring at these research sites (see Appendix A.1). However, it became clear that, though social capital building was taking place between the school and the students, a much more powerful factor was at work. Therefore, my initial conceptual framework came to lend only partial insight into the issues at play. These issues will be discussed further below.

Objective of Research
The objective with this pilot study was to closely examine the educational practices of two NGOs in Thailand who work to educate and rehabilitate victims of human trafficking: the Development and Education Programme for Daughters and Communities (DEPDC in detail, 2004) and the Pattaya School for Street Children, which has recently changed its name to the Child Protection and Development Center (CPDC) (Human Help Network Thailand, 2010). As I intended (see Appendix A.1), I gained insight into the ways that these grassroots actors in Thailand are helping to educate, rehabilitate and reintegrate victims of human trafficking. I wanted to show that despite a lack of resources, training, funding, public acknowledgement, and so many other elements that American educators may take for granted, there are people around the world who are making a difference in the lives of children from devastatingly disadvantaged backgrounds, and doing so with far fewer resources than is found in the typical American public school. Educators need inspiration from such innovators, even if the specific circumstances do not resemble their own. My goals, in the most general terms, were to share the inspiration I felt from witnessing these organizations at work, to illuminate the specifics of the organizations’ practices, to examine the major issues that the organization and the students face, to raise awareness of the issue of human trafficking, and to increase the notoriety of the organizations being studied (see Appendix A.1).

Goals of Research

In order to meet my objective, I established four goals for the study (see Appendix A.1).

- I conducted observations, interviews and document analysis to describe the specific educational strategies and techniques, as well as relationship building and rapport building during down-time (non-education focused time) that were used in two NGO run shelter/schools (DEPDC and CPDC) in Thailand who work with victims of human trafficking.
- I analyzed interview transcripts, field notes and documents for signs of relationship building between students, teachers and staff and related themes.
- I employed social capital theory, specifically the elements of building, bridging,

- I employed the above mentioned social capital theory elements to analyze the manner in which teachers, staff and students attempt to build such ties outside research setting with various community actors.

**Scope of Research**

The study focused on two NGOs that work to educate human trafficking survivors in Thailand. By focusing on the work of these NGOs, I saw how individual teachers, staff and students take up the work of education, and the impact of individual relationships on the success of students. The study examined the types of social capital building strategies that are incorporated into the education program of these NGOs and what the perceived connection between relationship building, social connections and education are to teachers, staff and students. Because of the highly specific context and qualitative nature of the research, dimensions of the findings are transferable to settings that deal with educating marginalized populations both in the Thai context and elsewhere. The findings of this study can be generalized to a variety of educational settings and used to inform educational policy, social justice and human trafficking policy, and NGOs worldwide.

**Research Methodology**

I designed this pilot study to be a combination of standardized, semi-structured conversational interviews with open-ended questions of teachers, staff and students, and observations at two NGOs in Thailand. I provided the interview protocols, permission forms and explanatory information were provided to both NGOs prior to my arrival at the locations (see Appendix A.2). All interviews were done with the assistance of a translator, and they were conducted using a digital audio recorder. In interviews with non-English speaking participants, I asked a question, the translator translated the question into Thai, the interviewee answered the
translated question in Thai, and the translator translated the answer into English immediately. I used this method to ask follow-up questions tailored to the interviewees responses.

**Research Questions**

The research questions used to guide the pilot study were as follows.

- What educational strategies and practices do NGOs in Thailand working with victims of human trafficking use?
- How do teachers in these NGOs perceive their efforts, educational practices and strategies, in terms of successes and failures?
- How important do teachers and staff perceive relationship building with students to be?
- How do teachers and staff characterize their relationships with students? How do teachers and staff attempt to engage students and establish rapport?
- What limitations do NGO teachers and staff perceive and characterize in their work?
- What skills and knowledge do students at NGO-run shelters and schools perceive as important?
- What aspirations do teachers at NGOs have for their students?
- How does work of NGO shelters attempt to build social capital in students? How do NGOs perceive building social connections for students?
- How do NGOs perceive the importance of relationship building with students? What aspirations do students at NGOs have after leaving the NGO?
- What educational practices do students consider successful?
- How do students at NGO shelters describe and characterize their relationship with NGO teachers and staff?
- How do students perceive building social connections outside the NGO?

**DEPDC**

At the first location, DEPDC, interviews were scheduled by the director of DEPDC and the director of the Patak Half-Day School. Prior to beginning the interviews, I provided the above mentioned staff with copies of the permission forms for each of the staff, teachers and students to be interviewed. I had all permission forms and interview protocols translated into Thai. The permission forms were signed by the director of the school for students who lived at the shelter, as the organization was considered the guardian for these students. For the students who lived with parents, extended family or others, the permission form was sent home, signed at
home, and returned prior to the interview. Prior to each interview, I also had the staff, teachers and students read the verbal assent script, which was translated into Thai, and verbally asked them if they understood and if they would like to participate. For students who could not read in Thai, the translator translated the script orally, and then I asked, through the translator, if they understood and would like to participate.

The translator that I hired was actually a graduate of DEPDC and one of the first cohorts of the post-sixth grade education program called the Mekong Youth Net (MYN). After completing the MYN program, the translator was offered a scholarship at the University of Wisconsin at Stephens Point. The translator was stateless, had no Thai citizenship, but through the assistance of an NGO, was granted a special visa that would allow her to travel outside her district and to travel internationally. The translator had to return to Thailand each summer to complete the Thai citizenship application process, through the aid of the NGO, and she was therefore was going to be in Thailand during the period of time I planned to conduct my pilot study. DEPDC was able to arrange for the translator to work with me, and the translator was also able to travel to Pattaya for my second week of the pilot study at CPDC. Rather than using a translator hired from an agency, this translator had intimate knowledge of the issues that the school, the organizations and the children faced. Though, this may introduce an element of bias, in the sense that the translator might not be comfortable discussing negative aspects or shortcomings of the organizations, the potential bias was outweighed by the translator’s rapport with teachers, staff and students, which is often a major challenge in qualitative research (Berg, 2008, Patton, 2002).

An unexpected consequence of this connection with the translator was that I was able to see first-hand the process that a stateless person went through in order to gain Thai citizenship.
Before and after interviews, the translator was busy traveling back and forth from their home village, the local government office, the district office and the provincial office, providing documentation of various kinds that proved that they were born (in the village in the home and without hospital birth records) and that they lived their entire life in Thailand. In addition to documentation, which included letters from villagers, business owners, teachers and NGO workers, the translator had to ask the village leader to go to the government offices in person. He was happy to do this for a sizable fee each time. The process of gaining citizenship was clearly wrought with corruption. Nevertheless, the translator was extremely helpful, not only during interviews by helping me clarify questions and responses, but also during observations, where I needed for cultural, as well as verbal, translation.

At DEPDC, I conducted five teacher interviews and seventeen student interviews. At CPDC, I conducted four staff interviews, two student interviews and one interview with Suddarat Sareewat, the founder of End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes (ECPAT International) and Fight Against Child Exploitation (FACE), both NGOs that work to address human trafficking in Thailand. I used the same translator during this period, and in addition, the NGO also assigned an administrator who was bi-lingual (in English and Thai), who also acted as a translator. Though the previously mentioned forms and information were provided, due to the transition that the NGO was undergoing, interviewing students at the same level of consistency as at DEPDC was not possible. I was able to interview two students that lived at the CPDC shelter, had only been at the shelter a short time, and therefore had little information to give on the operation of the NGO, how it functioned, and what the NGO did to help them.
I planned the interviews and observations of CPDC based on my experience the previous summer when the organization was called the Pattaya School for Street Children. At that time, children lived at the shelter and most children did basic education at the shelter with the three full-time teachers. Since then, the organization has arranged for the majority of the children to enroll in public elementary schools, secondary schools, vocational programs and non-formal education programs. I gained access to other locations because of this issue. I spent an afternoon at the Pattaya Orphanage, informally interviewed several staff, and observed numerous classrooms, including the Pattaya Orphanage’s School for the Deaf which is housed at the Orphanage. The visit to the Pattaya Orphanage gave me more understanding of the issues that impoverished children in the region faced. Being the only orphanage in the region, I learned that children from many neighboring cities, towns and villages came to the orphanage. Some orphan children were referred by other agencies or NGOs, while others were abandoned at the orphanage by parents or family members. According to the staff, often times these parents were drug addicts or prostitutes, while other times the parents were poor and could not support their children.

I also spent the day with the director of the outreach drop-in center located near Walking Street, which is a notorious red light district in Pattaya. The shelter has very inconsistent participation from the local street children, at some times having no children at the center and then other times having numerous children. Because there were no children at the center when I visited, the director of the center took me and the translator on a guided walking tour through a local slum. This particular slum housed over one hundred people, living in shanty-town like conditions in houses made of corrugated metal, plywood, plastic or other materials that were scavenged. Over twenty of the one hundred residents of the slum were HIV positive. The slum
had no running water, and both human and animal feces were on the ground. Swarms of mosquitoes were hovering over the mud puddles throughout. This excursion was certainly a shocking experience, and gave me a more realistic and first-hand understanding of the social issues that CPDC is working to address.

I was introduced to the leader of the slum, an elderly woman that the government put in charge of registering all of the residents in exchange for a small amount of money. She explained some of the issues that those in the slums faced, which included HIV/AIDS, drug addiction, adult and child prostitution, violence and crime of various sorts. She introduced me to her mentally and physically handicapped sister, whose home was a blue plastic tarp held up by four different sized wooden posts. She lay on a piece of plywood raised by cinder blocks and watched a television donated to her by a local charity, which was powered by hand wired and exposed electrical cables coming from a nearby pole. It was hot and humid in her shelter and I kept my legs and arms moving to keep the mosquitoes off of me. I kept thinking about malaria and HIV, and whether these mosquitoes were carrying either. This experience was important for me to understand the extreme poverty that the students at CPDC experience prior to coming to the shelter.

Analysis

To analyze the interview data I gathered during this study, I transcribed all of the adult and child interviews, and noted any comments within each individual interview that I considered powerful or important. Then I compared all of the interviews looking for common themes, comments, phrases and words. I compiled these common themes using a spreadsheet in order to track the students, staff and teachers who made these highlighted comments. I gave particular attention to comments that multiple interviewees made, though I would like to stress that the
importance of themes may not correlate to the number of times a particular interviewee made a particular comment, or the number of interviewees that corroborated a particular theme. Rather, I focused on the consistency or inconsistency of themes emerging in general, and whether the themes were overarching and intersecting with the broader social issues of poverty and vulnerability, in general terms, or idiosyncratic based on the individual interviewee’s unique personal circumstances. This approach allowed me to connect interviews, observations and personal experiences throughout the pilot study and across locations. Given that the two NGOs were not easily comparable as a result of the recent changes at both organizations, and contrary to my original intentions for the study (see Appendix A.1), I modified the direction of the analysis of data from a side-by-side comparison, to an approach that largely focuses on the first site, DEPDC, from which themes emerged for the pilot study, and supporting data was included from the second site, CPDC, as a complementary data source. Therefore, data from CPDC was used to add detail to themes which emerged from the DEPDC data. I employed constant comparative method (Glasser and Strauss, 1967) to analyze data throughout the study, as themes emerged during and after the study. I also used Patton’s idea of convergent and divergent themes when comparing interviews across subjects and NGOs (2007).

**Research Matrix**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Sources/Data Types</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I How do (two) NGOs in Thailand that work with victims of Human Trafficking educate these victims?</td>
<td>The manner in which DEPDC and The Pattaya Home for Street Children go about their work needs to be closely examined, so that their important work can be viewed by the world, so that NGOs elsewhere can learn from their practice, and so that any needs that these NGOs have can be assessed.</td>
<td>Interviews of NGO workers and teachers Lesson Plans of teachers NGO documentation and paperwork Observations with a translator</td>
<td>Constant comparative method (Glasser and Strauss, 1967) using open and axial coding for common themes, convergent and divergent patterns and themes (Patton, 2007). I will analyze interview transcripts, field notes and documents for signs of relationship building between students, teachers and staff and related themes. Comparison between teacher interview data, staff interview data,</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How important is relationship and social capital building in the work of the NGO? (perceived vs. observed)</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>The way in which these NGOs deal with the emotional and psychological well-being of the people that live in their shelters is of high interest. Not only are these NGOs trying to provide safe haven for these people, but they are trying to help them become reintegrated back into society, which cannot be done without rehabilitation and education. Of particular interest is the Crisis Intervention program at DEPDC between Chiang Rai and Mae Sai Thailand, near the Burma border. Their tactics are particularly innovative and need to be documented.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviews of NGO teachers, staff and students with a translator.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Available NGO documentation and paperwork.</td>
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<td>Observations with a translator.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>I will employ social capital theory, specifically the elements of building, bridging, linking, horizontal, vertical, weak and strong ties within the research setting (Coleman, 1998, Field, 2008, Portes, 1998).</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Informal content analysis and constant comparative method will be used to analyze observations which are done with the intent of establishing context and setting to the study, as argued by Patton (2002, pp. 259-266).</td>
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<td>Observations will be done from a combination of an emic and etic perspective (Patton, 2002, pp. 277), as I will not be a complete insider or outsider, but closer to the outsider end of the continuum.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Interview transcripts will be analyzed for themes and patterns using informal content analysis and constant comparative method. Particular attention in transcript analysis will be paid to responses containing evidence of career and educational aspirations that involve the use of social connections attained during the student’s time in the NGO.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview transcripts will be analyzed for themes and patterns using informal content analysis and constant comparative method. Particular attention in transcript analysis will be paid to responses containing evidence of educational and rehabilitation practices that build social capital in students.</td>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>What educational and career aspirations do victims of human trafficking, currently residing in said NGO shelters, have?</th>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Understanding victims’ personal aspirations is important to see if these are in-line or opposed to the efforts of the NGOs.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviews of Students, teachers and staff in structured open ended interview.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Document analysis.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>A Are there some practices that can be considered successful</td>
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<td>B Are there some practices that are less than successful and/or have been discontinued?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>C What resources would be most helpful?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>D How important is relationship building perceived to be in the success of students and success of the NGO?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Structured open ended.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Interviews with teachers, staff and students.</td>
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<td>Observations.</td>
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<th>How effective do NGO practitioners perceive their educational and rehabilitation efforts to be?</th>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>It is important to understand how these practitioners perceive their own efforts, what they view as successes and failures, and what they see as their organizations needs to improve educational work and how connected relationship building is to the process.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Structured open ended.</td>
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<td>Interviews with teachers, staff and students.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>D How important is relationship building perceived to be in the success of students and success of the NGO?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Research Plan

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Pilot Study in Mae Sai and Pattaya Thailand</td>
<td>Pilot Study data analysis and report write up</td>
<td>Dissertation research design completion and prospectus submission, PhD candidacy and ABD status</td>
<td>Full dissertation study preparation</td>
<td>Dissertation data collection in the field Thailand</td>
<td>Dissertation data analysis, dissertation completion and submission</td>
<td>Graduation from the University of Georgia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings

One of the most important and overarching themes throughout the data was that of access to and opportunity for education. Fourteen of the seventeen students interviewed at DEPDC mentioned wanting to go to school, which they could not do without DEPDC. Either due to their status as a member of a hill tribe, being migrants from within Thailand without identification, or illegal immigrants from Burma, Laos, or elsewhere, they did not have access to education. Five of these students had the goal of finishing sixth grade, while nine had goals of education beyond DEPDC’s sixth grade, including finishing high school, becoming a teacher, going to the university and even one student whose educational goal was to learn how to build a robot. Three of the five teachers mentioned college for students, and all mentioned high school and vocational school. Six students mentioned DEPDC as an opportunity, with three citing free education at DEPDC as being connected to that opportunity. Students cited having: a poor family, community problems, no parents, parent education, divorce, language, and citizenship, as obstacles to education. Rather than one particular obstacle or social issue being prominent, the overarching issues of poverty and vulnerability are the links across the data, some of which compound upon each other.
My initial approach to the pilot study was to focus on the social capital building that I anticipated (see Appendix A.1). I did find some elements of social capital building, for example eight students cited field trips to other organizations and schools for vocational training as accomplishments that they were proud of. The focus of these field trips, according to both the student and staff data, appeared to be more on gaining experience and building confidence in students, which is a human capital focus, rather than building social connections and networks for the student. Interestingly, at the organization level, networking and social capital building are a prominent focus. The directors, teachers and staff were highly aware of the importance of networking with other individuals and organizations on the success of their own organization. For example, the founder Sompop Jantraka stated that he was currently working on a collective effort between DEPDC and other non-formal education organizations to highlight each of their efforts in an education conference in Bangkok in 2011, in order to establish more connections for DEPDC and to increase their notoriety. Therefore the social networking and social capital concepts, which are understood well by teachers and staff, would not be difficult to introduce into the curriculum for students. One potential area for further study beyond my dissertation study would be to introduce more focused and intentional social capital and network building for the individual students into the curriculum and practices of the NGO.

Instead of social capital building specifically, what I found was a truly student centered and holistic approach to education with elements of social capital building woven throughout. Students focus on academic subjects in the mornings and vocational training and enrichment in the afternoons. Seven students referred to their teacher as a “good person”, one student stated that they “trust” their teachers, and two mentioned appreciating affection from their teachers. All of the staff considered affection toward students important, with patting students’ heads and
giving hugs as examples given. One student said that the teachers “love” them, one student said that the teachers “use their heart to teach”, and four students called their teachers “kind”. Seven students said they talk to teachers outside of class, five students said they come to teachers with personal problems and to get personal advice. Six students mentioned teachers paying attention to students, and three commented that students and teachers are equal at DEPDC, whereas all five staff commented that students and teachers are equal. Four students and all of the staff refer to DEPDC as a “family”. Six students commented on their teachers coming to their homes to visit their families, and considered these home visits important. Interestingly, all of the staff also mentioned visiting students’ families as important. Seven students mentioned that the teachers joke with them, and only one mentioned that the teachers do not yell at them, whereas, all of the staff I interviewed mentioned not yelling at students as being important.

These findings are significant for my dissertation research as they show that DEPDC uses a holistic or familial approach to education where student-centered learning is emphasized. Teachers go beyond the classroom to engage the children’s family, and to develop a close personal relationship with the students. Teachers talk to students before and after school, and during break times, and the students acknowledged the importance of this unstructured time for building personal connections. Whether the organization or the teachers were building social capital in this process, or not, is still unclear. My dissertation study will help me to clarify my thinking on this topic. The overarching idea behind how students perceived the positive aspects of the education program was that the teachers and staff cared about the students, they knew the students on a personal level, they understood their individual problems and issues, and they showed genuine concern for the students as if the shelter were a surrogate family and
community. These holistic and familial aspects of DEPDC’s work are the aspects that the American education, I argue, should import.

The lack of evidence of social capital building is one finding that is more helpful than I initially considered, particularly when thinking about the retention issue of older students. A more focused concentration on social capital building on the part of the staff and teachers may improve retention of students up to and through the sixth grade. Also, importing some ideas from the American education system, which is highly standardized, may be useful. Some aspects of this standardization, particularly in terms of academic curriculum, may be applicable to DEPDC’s program in order to build legitimacy in the eyes of governmental agencies in Thailand. Currently, diplomas given to students who graduate DEPDC’s sixth grade are not acknowledged by the formal education system in Thailand. Students can go beyond sixth grade into non-formal education programs or vocational training with organizations that have a strong relationship with DEPDC, but outside of DEPDCs network of partners, these credentials hold no legitimacy. Official validation of credentials for students who graduate from the sixth grade at DEPDC could build student’s social capital. Students would be able to use an officially sanctioned credential to further their education in either formal or non-formal avenues. One major issue with bringing DEPDC under the administrative umbrella of the Ministry of Education would also mean DEPDC’s curriculum would be subject to standardization and oversight by the ministry, an issue brought up by several teachers and staff. Unfortunately, it is often standardization of American education that causes the greatest disconnection between students and teachers, in my own experience. Therefore, picking and choosing elements of the Thai or American education system to import to these NGOs in Thailand is beyond the scope of this study. Rather, my efforts work to give credibility to the quality elements already
incorporated into the educational programs at these NGO shelter schools, and their potential usefulness in other settings. Illustrating DEPDC’s credence may also improve their legitimacy according to the formal education system.

Several unexpected themes emerged in staff interviews. All of DEPDC’s staff stated that keeping students in school was a major difficulty, and three out of five specifically mentioned the lack of Thai ID as being a major obstacle to students. Interestingly, three staff mentioned community problems as a major obstacle, and all five staff stated that many of their students have “no parents”, which they considered important to the students remaining in school. Students who live with extended family or friends may be encouraged to leave school and begin work. Though this also happens with students living with their parents, several staff considered students without parents to be more susceptible to leaving school before sixth grade. The staff findings in the pilot study show that an educational program that addresses these students needs should be comprehensive, in terms of mental health and emotional support, in addition to cooperation with governmental agencies in order to provide documentation and a path to citizenship or some other officially accepted status such as guest worker or Thai resident.

Without a official Thai identification or other form of official documentation, these students face the same issues after they leave DEPDC as they did when they entered the program. I will further examine this issue of documentation in the dissertation study, and I will further explore ways that the organizations are addressing the issue.

Examining the CPDC data helped embellish the findings from DEPDC, although the populations that the NGOs targeted were different. CPDC staff focused on student-staff relationships rather than building social capital, networks or social connections for students outside of the organization. Staff at both organizations discussed opportunity, citizenship,
community problems, family problems and poverty. These issues were anticipated in the study (see Appendix B), but what rose to the surface more than expected was the issue of citizenship. Poverty is certainly an issue throughout the world, yet in Thailand, poverty and lack of citizenship go hand in hand. Both organizations served students without Thai citizenship, even though many of the students at these NGOs were born in Thailand. Poverty in and around Thailand affects access to: proper channels of gaining citizenship, education, healthcare and other social safety nets. Without these securities, vulnerable populations are exposed to exploitation, for example, human trafficking, and have little recourse. This pilot study has implications for the unaddressed issue of citizenship, and further study for my dissertation will potentially illuminate ways to improve the documentation issue and how it affects the students at these NGO shelter schools. Therefore, my preliminary conclusions from the pilot study are that the holistic nature of the educational practices at these NGO shelter schools in Thailand has much to offer international education, in terms of building personal relationships and creating surrogate families and communities at schools. However, without addressing the issue of citizenship and documentation for these marginalized children, these efforts will not reach their full potential. I also intend on using the findings from the pilot study and the dissertation study to improve the educational practices of American schools as discussed below.

**Significance of the findings**

The findings of this study have important implications for my dissertation study, educators, NGOs, and policy-makers worldwide. Human trafficking and global migration are significant issues on the world stage. Policies dealing with undocumented immigrants have powerful influence on the vulnerability of marginalized people to exploitation. In the United States, as well as Thailand, the debate continues regarding access to education and resources for
the undocumented. Many actors, including the NGOs in this study, are working hard to assist the vulnerable and marginalized, yet social pressures are largely overpowering. The ability of these NGOs to make a significant change in the majority of their target population’s lives is dependent on assistance from and collaboration with larger entities. Otherwise, these and other well intentioned NGOs will continue to work on the issue of human trafficking ex post facto, rather than as a true means of prevention.

The NGOs targeted in this study are doing innovative and inspiring work with students who have experienced trauma, abuse, marginalization and disadvantage. Their work illustrates the importance of relationship building in education, particularly with students from difficult backgrounds. The holistic approach to education taken by DEPDC is transferable to other organizations, in Thailand, or otherwise, working with students with similar issues. Other organizations will be able to use threads of these NGOs’ work in their own practice. Education can still make a difference in the lives of the most marginalized of society, if done in a way that makes strong individual connections between teachers, staff and students, inside the schools and outside in the community at-large. The familial approach to education taken by DEPDC can improve the lives and futures of these disadvantaged students, but not without the continued attention of governmental agencies on legitimizing the credentials provided by these non-formal educators (Arnold & Bertone, 2007).

**Impact on Thailand**

Thailand, like the United States, has a large immigrant population, many of which are undocumented (Asia Watch Report, 1993). The vulnerability of this population to exploitation, particularly human trafficking, is an issue that has emerged in the public forum (Zixin, 2005), and internationally (United States Department of State, 2008). Understanding the issues that
grassroots actors face in attempting to address human trafficking will benefit both the Thai governmental agencies charged with social issues, as well as improve future grassroots efforts (Bales, 2005, Batstone, 2007).

Conclusion

In closing, both CPDC and DEPDC are doing important work: preventing human trafficking and the worst forms of child labor, protecting vulnerable populations of children which include human trafficking victims, and improving the life chances of these children. The unique, holistic, and familial form of education that DEPDC offers its students has many elements that would be beneficial for the American education system to adopt. Imagine an American public school where teachers and students considered each other equals, trusted each other, talked outside of class, and appropriately expressed affection toward each other. Unfortunately, much of these NGOs work is overpowered by the crushing social issues facing their students, a reality that was brought into stark relief when I stood in front of the children lining up in the morning before school at DEPDC. The long line of kindergarten students dwindled in length and number as the grade level increased. This experiential evidence proves to me that these and other similar NGOs need more attention and support from individuals, the media, the government, the local community, the international community, and other organizations. They have much to offer us and we have much to offer them. As I discussed above, without addressing the citizenship issue for these children, the comprehensive and inspiring work being done by these NGOs will not realize its full potential. Regarding implications for my dissertation study, I will need to more closely examine the ways that the NGOs are attempting to address the documentation issue, what obstacles they face, and what are the most important factors that are either pushing students out of the school prior to the
completion of the sixth grade or retaining them through graduation. I have already established that personal relationships between teachers and students are highly valued, yet these relationships are unable to overcome the social pressures that encourage students to leave the school for work. For the dissertation study, I will explore what these NGOs have done to address the documentation issue, what was considered successful and unsuccessful, and what elements could be improved or introduced to address this issue. After completion of the dissertation research, I will be able to make recommendations for: the NGOs as to how to improve their practices, the government agencies responsible for preventing exploitation of marginalized people and improving education, NGOs elsewhere dealing with similar issues, and worthwhile practices being done by these NGOs that should be adopted by educators worldwide.
### Pilot Study Timeline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Events/activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 7/10/10  | Bangkok          | • Arrive in Thailand  
• Stay in a hotel near Suvarnabhumi airport                                                           |
| 7/11/10  | Bangkok, Chiang Rai, Mae Sai | • Fly from Bangkok to Chiang Rai  
• Travel by taxi from Chiang Rai airport to Khum Chao in Mae Sai  
• Contact DEPDC  |
| 7/12/10  | DEPDC, Mae Sai   | • First meeting at DEPDC,  
• Schedule interviews  
• Conduct initial observations |
| 7/13/10  | DEPDC, Mae Sai   | • Teacher interviews  
• Observations |
| 7/14/10  | DEPDC, Mae Sai   | • Student Interviews  
• Sompop Interview  
• Observations |
| 7/15/10  | DEPDC, Mae Sai, Thailand | • Student Interviews  
• Observations |
| 7/16/10  | DEPDC, Mae Sai, Thailand | • Final day of student interviews  
• Buy books at book store for DEPDC library |
| 7/17/10  | DEPDC, Mae Sai   | • Bring book donation to DEPDC  
• Walking with student group to student homes in Patak and to cave and temple |
| 7/18/10  | Mae Sai, Chiang Rai, Bangkok, Pattaya | • Travel by taxi from Mae Sai to Chiang Rai airport, Fly to Bangkok Suvarnabhumi International Airport, travel by taxi from airport to Pattaya |
| 7/19/10  | Pattaya          | • Contact HHN by phone and email, arrange to go with Khun Toy the following morning |
| 7/20/10  | Pattaya          | • Picked up by Khun Toy  
• Guided around CPDC,  
• Interview Khun Toy |
| 7/21/10  | Pattaya          | • Interview staff and students at CPDC  |
| 7/22/10  | Pattaya          | • Visit Day Outreach Center  
• Visit slums |
| 7/23/10  | Pattaya          | • Visit Pattaya Orphanage  
• Travel by taxi to Bangkok |
| 7/24/10  | Bangkok          | • Interview Paul Salvette at PDA  
• Meeting with Khun Varaporn at IOM |
| 7/25/10  | Bangkok          | • Meet with Khun Mam from ECPAT |
| 7/26/10  | Bangkok          | • Fly home |
References


Geertz, C. (1973). Deep play: notes on the Balinese cockfight. In The Interpretation of Cultures,


APPENDIX A.1

Pilot Study Proposal

Social Capital and Education:
A pilot study of two Thai NGO shelter/schools for human trafficking survivors

Background and Rationale

Human trafficking is a widespread global problem which entails force or coercion as well as transport of people for the purposes of labor and exploitation, yet many people are not even aware of the issue. The number of victims of this practice is highly contested though many scholars agree that the problem is serious and the number of victims, world-wide, is large. Some estimates have the number of human trafficking victims are over 20 million people worldwide (Bales, 2005). Human trafficking is a social justice issue that has been taken up in varying degrees by international and national governments as well as local authorities, and in Thailand, though the problem is widespread, so are the attempts to address and curb the practice. Both labor- and sex-trafficking are problems in Thailand, as with other Southeast Asian countries, and a variety of Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) operate in the region, with a variety of purposes including, but not limited to, education and rehabilitation of rescued victims of trafficking. These NGOs are of particular interest to me because of the powerfully important work that they do working with disadvantaged and exploited people, attempting to improve these people’s life chances, looking after their social and emotional well-being and helping them to integrate back into society to live as normal and productive a life as possible after such traumatic experiences. My study will be to closely examine the educational practices of two NGOs in Thailand that work to educate and rehabilitate victims of human trafficking. Understanding how and why these NGOs use particular educational practices is important because the selection of various strategies and practices in educating children who were victims of trafficking may lend
insight into program effectiveness. Examining what practices are used and why may provide information that is transferrable to other NGOs or educators that work with the same or similar populations of students. Also, information may be gained from other educators who work with similar populations that may be transferrable to the two particular NGOs in Thailand that I will be researching. Therefore the ultimate goal of this study is to understand and improve the educational practices of individuals and groups who work to educate and rehabilitate children from traumatic circumstances, particularly victims of human trafficking, a goal that may extend beyond the particularities and scope of this study.

Research into human trafficking is limited and focuses largely on macro-level studies sponsored by entities such as the United Nations, national Governments and other large-scale actors (European Commission, 2004). Another vein of research focuses on individual case studies of the experiences of victims of human trafficking during the time of their exploitation and victimization. Little is known about how NGOs and other micro- and meso-level actors’ work to rehabilitate and educate victims after their removal from exploitative and traumatic circumstances.

A key operating assumption that this research project begins with is that successful education, rehabilitation and reintegration of victims into successful lives after their stays at NGO shelters partly relies on the relationships that are built between students living in these shelters and the teachers and staff at the shelters. In addition to the role of intra-shelter relationship building, the researcher also considers relationship building by the NGOs with others outside the organization on behalf of students as a key element. Working to build a variety of relationships for students outside the organization is central to the researcher’s use of social capital theory as an analytical framework to be employed in this study. Prior research on
the relationship between social ties and social mobility (Coleman, 1998) suggests that in order to reduce vulnerability to future human trafficking victimization for students living in NGO shelters, building ties for students for life beyond the shelter is important (Kao, 2004). How the NGO teachers, staff and students perceive the importance of relationship building is also a crucial component of the study.

In addition to examining relationships, I will also do observations and interviews which target perceptions about particular skills and knowledge taught in the NGO shelter/schools, and occupational aspirations of former human trafficking victims. Not only are the student’s own perceptions of future work opportunities, but also the teachers and other staff’s perceptions, as these perceptions likely guide what skills and knowledge are the focus of schooling in the shelters.

Human Trafficking is a widespread global problem which entails force or coercion as well as transport of people for the purposes of labor and exploitation, yet this issue does not get the public attention that is necessary to combat the problem from the local to the global level. The number of victims of this practice is highly contested though scholars largely agree that the problem is serious and the number of victims world-wide is large. Some estimates are over 20 million people are trafficking victims worldwide (Bales, 2005). Human Trafficking is a social issue that has been taken up in varying degrees by national governments, and in Thailand, though the problem is widespread, so are the attempts to address and curb the practice. Both labor- and sex-trafficking are problems in Thailand, as with other Southeast Asian countries, and a variety of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) also operate in the region, with a variety of purposes including, but not limited to, education and rehabilitation of rescued victims of trafficking (Asia Watch, 1993).
The exploitation and oppression of people world-wide is a highly important research field for a variety of reasons. I personally cannot sit idly by, with extensive knowledge of the suffering of others without working toward helping. Human trafficking is a disturbing reality in today’s globalized world, occurring in every country despite laws prohibiting slavery. Whether this practice’s existence is because of capitalism, globalization, the legacy of colonialism or a myriad of other phenomena is unclear, but most human trafficking scholars agree that slavery has not improved, and if anything, has worsened in recent years. Policies are in place worldwide that outlaw slavery, yet enforcement and prevention are far from realized around the world. As an educator, I consider education one of the most important variables to reducing vulnerability and marginalization of individuals, and this is illustrated through the educational component of development projects around the globe.

Relationships and rapport between teachers and students can be as important as the content of curriculum, knowledge or skills taught. Thailand is known world-wide for trafficking issues, which makes Thailand particularly important as a location for a study on educating human trafficking survivors (Asia Watch Report, 1993, D’Agnes, 2001). Unfortunately, there are high numbers of child victims of trafficking in Thailand (Jantraka, 2001), some of which are Thai and some of which are from abroad. Government agencies charged with assisting victims are overwhelmed, and a large number of NGOs operate in Thailand attempting to address the issue (United States Department of State, 2009). How these NGOs operate is varied, yet a close examination of the daily operations, educational practices and reintegration work of a small number of these can illuminate the complexities related to human trafficking, victims, poverty, marginalization, immigration, education, rehabilitation and social capital building that may be insightful to others working with victims of exploitation in various forms, and may be
generalizable to other settings, agencies, actors or scenarios.

Prevention of human trafficking would be a best-case-scenario, but once victims exist, what are people doing to help them, what could those concerned do to get involved, what role do educators play in the process of reintegration, and what can we learn from those already at work on this difficult task?

**Conceptual Framework: Social Capital Theory**

In order to understand how relationship building is incorporated into the education program I will describe, through observations, field notes, interviews and document analysis how these NGO-run shelters and schools take up the everyday task of educating students who are former victims of human trafficking. I will begin this study with the operating assumption that relationship building with the students at the shelters is crucial to the successful education and rehabilitation of trafficking victims and prevention of their returning to vulnerable circumstances or trafficking situations.

I would like to understand how these shelters function, and examine whether relationship building is considered a factor in the NGOs efforts by those involved. I am interested in how teachers, staff and students determine the success of the NGOs educational program. I am also interested in whether successful relationship building, in concert with educational strategies and practices, is effective in educating students from traumatic trafficking situations. In order to determine effectiveness, I will combine evidence from interviews, observations and document analysis. Documents will be selected on site and are dependent on what documents are provided by NGO staff. Particularly, documents illustrating effectiveness of the programs, and documents illustrating success of students who have completed the NGO program will be requested from staff.
Elements of social capital theory likely prove important in relation to the successful education and rehabilitation of victims of human trafficking in interviews and observations. Are there ways that the NGO shelters attempt to foster relationships outside the shelter for the children, or potential ways to develop connections outside the NGO shelters for students so that after the students leave the shelters they have opportunities for further educational or career choices? Looking at how other schools or educators increase student social capital by encouraging and developing connections between students and the larger community, may also be informative and useful in suggesting strategies that increase students’ in NGO shelters social capital, as well as educational, career and life chances.

Human Trafficking research is an area that could benefit from the application of social capital theory. Close examination of social ties, or the breakdown of these ties, among vulnerable groups and individuals, could be a key aspect of human trafficking prevention. Weak ties, such as access to jobs and education outside of the village, are minimal, if not non-existent to illegal immigrants and hill-tribes in Thailand. Hence, these individuals are susceptible to exploitation by those who take advantage of their precarious legal and economic circumstances, and their ignorance of rights and of potential job opportunities.

Human capital, for example, education, skills, knowledge, has been a focus of groups that work to prevent human trafficking victimization, with a focus on job training, but often, victims continue to be vulnerable to exploitation, even after victims receive vocational training or basic education (Batstone, 2007). It is conceivable that the lack of social capital in the villages that victims often return to is a key component to the continued vulnerability of rehabilitated and educated former victims of human trafficking. Incorporating a social capital component into a program of rehabilitation and education for such victims would be a valuable addition.
The micro- or personal relationship element that social capital encompasses is highly interesting to me and my research interests, more-so than the macro- and meso- dimensions of social capital. A close examination of strong and weak ties between NGO workers and children, in shelters for victims of human trafficking, may reveal important elements of the education and rehabilitation process, and its success or failure. It is unclear whether social capital can be increased for an individual through education and rehabilitation. At the village level, where social cohesion and empowerment are the goals, the results are more tangible than for the individual.

Social capital theory helps to explain the life chances of various members of a particular society. The social capital concept helps to bridge the individual level, the local community level and the larger societal and structural levels in ways that are useful, operationalizable and have practical applications in many academic fields. Incorporating the micro-, meso- and macro-levels of analysis makes social capital theory attractive, as does its acceptance by large institutional actors such as the World Bank.

Social capital theory also accounts for context. Though many of the theorists in the field (i.e. Putnam, Coleman, and Bourdieu) may be thought of as Eurocentric, or biased toward western society, the theory’s basic tenets are able to take into account cultural context. In Thailand, the manifestations of social capital are certain to be different than that of the contemporary West. It will be necessary to look at local and personal opinions about the types of ties that are considered important in Thai culture. I need to account for the types of civic engagement common in Thailand, and the types of networks consistent in both rural and urban Thai communities. Further investigation of the types of networks, bridging, bonding and linking ties, strong and weak ties, as well as horizontal and vertical ties that are found throughout
Thailand, both in the North and the South of the country, where my proposed data collection sites are located, as well as in the larger metropolitan areas of the country. It may also be useful to examine the types of social capital common throughout the Mekong Delta region of Southeast Asia.

In thinking about my own data collection, social capital theory will be used to interpret the relationships that students and teachers develop at my chosen field sites. Rather than looking at the relationship building that takes place as purely emotional, I also intend to tease out the importance of building ties with others on the successful reintegration back into society for the students at the schools I will be researching. Social capital theory will help to explain how NGOs attempt to facilitate connections between students and outside institutions and actors, and the role that these relationships play on the success of the students after leaving the shelters. Using a social capital lens, I will be able to bring into relief the importance of a variety of ties that students form while living in the shelters.

Social capital theory offers meaningful ways to categorize the types of relationships that these victims had prior to victimization, and helps in suggesting ways to facilitate relationship building and the development of important social ties for these individuals that will help improve the life-chances of these students. Social capital theory offers a lens through which to view the ties that currently exist, as well as those that are missing, and therefore may be useful or even necessary to ensure the success of students who have experienced traumatic experiences, as well as act as prevention of potential future exploitation and oppression.

**Objective of Research**

My goal with this study is to closely examine the educational practices of two NGOs in Thailand who work to educate and rehabilitate victims of human trafficking: the Development and Education Programme for Daughters and Communities (DEPDC in detail, 2004) and the
Pattaya School for Street Children, which has recently changed its name to the Child Protection and Development Center (CPDC) (Human Help Network Thailand, 2010). Understanding how and why these NGOs use particular educational practices is important because the selection of various strategies and practices in educating children who were victims of trafficking may lend insight into the effectiveness of the efforts of these NGOs.

I want to gain insight into the ways that current grassroots actors on the ground in Thailand are helping to educate, rehabilitate and reintegrate victims of human trafficking. I want to show that despite a lack of resources, training, funding, public acknowledgement, and so many other elements that American educators complain about, there are people around the world who are making a difference in the lives of children from devastatingly disadvantaged backgrounds, and doing so with far fewer resources than is found in the typical American public school. Educators need inspiration from such innovators, even if the specific circumstances do not resemble their own. My goals, in the most general terms, are to share the inspiration I felt from witnessing these organizations at work, to illuminate the specifics of the organizations’ practices, to raise awareness of the issue of human trafficking, and to increase the notoriety of the organizations being studied.

The objectives for meeting the goals of the study are four-fold. 1) I will conduct observations, interviews and document analysis to describe the specific educational strategies and techniques, as well as relationship building and rapport building during down-time (non-education focused time) that are used in two NGO run shelter/schools (DEPDC and CPDC) in Thailand who work with victims of human trafficking. 2) I will analyze interview transcripts, field notes and documents for signs of relationship building between students, teachers and staff and related themes. 3) I will employ social capital theory, specifically the elements of building,
bridging, linking, horizontal, vertical, weak and strong ties within the research setting (Coleman, 1998, Field, 2008, Portes, 1998). 4) I will employ the above mentioned social capital theory elements to analyze the manner in which teachers, staff and students attempt to build such ties outside research setting with various community actors.

Observations will be done with the aid of a translator to assist with clarification.

Observations will be done with the intent of establishing context and setting to the study, as argued by Patton (2002, pp. 259-266). After preliminary observations, I will interview teachers and staff at each NGO. After interviewing teachers and staff, I will interview students. Interviewing will be conducted in a “standardized open-ended interview” as described by Patton (2002, pp. 344) followed by probes and follow-up questions. Interview transcripts and observation field-notes will be analyzed using informal content analysis for pattern and theme (Patton, 2002, pp. 452), particularly for convergent and divergent themes (pp. 465). All interviews will be done with the assistance of a Thai translator, though some of the teachers, staff and students have varying levels of English proficiency. Additional relevant documentation from the NGOs to which I am granted access, will be examined and analyzed, in particular for evidence of relationship building for students in and out of the NGO, as well as evidence of the successful re-integration of students following their time in the program. Observations will be done to create a descriptive background, also known as “thick description” (Patton, 2002, pp. 437-440, Geertz, 1973, Olson, 2006), whereas interviews are intended to show individual perceptions of the work done at the NGOs and to describe the characteristics of relationship building that occurs at the NGOs. Particular focus will be given to interview questions about perceptions, and observations of, relationship building taking place at the NGOs.

Scope of Research
The study will focus on two NGOs that work to educate human trafficking survivors in Thailand. By focusing on the work of these NGOs, the researcher can see how individual teachers, staff and students take up the work of education, and the impact of individual relationships on the success of students. The study will examine the types of social capital building strategies that are incorporated into the education program of these NGOs and what the perceived connection between relationship building, social connections and education are to teachers, staff and students. Because of the highly specific context and qualitative research, dimensions of the findings will be transferable to settings that deal with educating marginalized populations both in the Thai context and elsewhere. Incorporation of social capital elements into a variety of educational settings and used to inform educational policy, social justice and human trafficking policy, and NGOs worldwide.

**Research Methodology**

This study is qualitative in nature, specifically utilizing observations with extensive field notes, and semi-structured interviews with NGO teachers, staff and students. Documentation provided by the NGOs during the study will be included as data for analysis. The nature and amount of documentation available to the researcher is difficult to determine prior to fieldwork and is dependent on availability and provision by NGO, but requests will be made of documentation such as school records and follow-up records that show evidence of success of students after their time in the NGO.

**Site Selection**

The study will take place in three locations. Development and Education Programme for Daughters and Communities (DEPDC) is located in Northern Thailand near the city of Mae Sai, and has two separate campuses that will be included in the studied. The interviews and
observations regarding DEPDC will take place at the two DEPDC campuses. The first is the Mekong Regional Indigenous Child Rights Home (MRICRH), and the second is the Patak Half Day School both of which I spent time at during my stay in Thailand. The MRICRH is a crisis center and shelter for women and children who are rescued from trafficking situations, abused, abandoned or exploited in other ways. The project coordinator in charge of the MRICRH is Ms. Dusadee Jantraka, Sompop’s wife. MRICRH accepts women and children from any of the countries in the MSR, whether or not they have documentation or identification. MRICRH also has a repatriation program where they work in conjunction with officials in other Mekong Sub-Region (MSR) countries to get victims repatriated back to their home countries (DEPDC in detail, 2004). Observations of both locations will be done first, with an observation guide of things to look for to be used to focus observations. Next, interviews will be conducted with teachers and staff using loose interview guides for semi-structured interviews with standardized open-ended questions as argued by Patton, (2004, pp. 344). A translator will be used for these interviews. Next, interviews of students will be conducted. A translator will be used for these interviews, as well. All interviews will use standardized open-ended questions for use in comparing themes, yet allowing for probes and follow-up questions.

The last location is Child Protection and Development Center (CPDC), located in Southeastern Thailand near the city of Pattaya. CPDC recently changed its name from The Pattaya Home for Street Children in 2009 and is now under the organizational umbrella of the more established Human Help Network Thailand (2010). CPDC has one campus with several structures, or buildings, on the land (Child Protection and Development Center, 2010). First, as with DEPDC, observations will be done with a loose observation guide; next, interviews with teachers and staff, and last, interviews with students. Again, all interviews will incorporate
standardized open ended questions for comparability across interviews, interviewees and research sites, yet allows for probe and follow-up questioning.

The regional contexts within which the two organizations operate differ greatly. DEPDC, being in the northernmost area of Thailand, is only a few miles from the Myanmar (Burma) border. Large numbers of immigrants cross this border area from Burma due to armed conflict and persecution (Jantrak, 2001). Mae Sai is also near the border of Laos PDR and historically many Laotians cross into Thailand in this area as well (Thuninart, Thammawat, Rittidet, & Saenyabud, 2009). Within Thailand, several hill tribes live in this area and are economically, culturally and linguistically marginalized (“Stateless and Vulnerable…” n.d., Minorities at Risk Project, 2004, Zixin, 2004). Mae Sai is a well known border crossing to other nationalities, including Chinese and even North Koreans (McCaskill, et al., 2008, Oh, et al., 2008).

CPDC is in a culturally and geographically very different region of Thailand, near the coastal town of Pattaya in the Southeast. Pattaya is home to a Thai naval base, and was a hot-spot during the Vietnam War era for American GIs on Rest and Relaxation (R and R). The area developed a large sex industry to service the military, and that legacy has continued and now, Pattaya is a well-known stop for sex-tourists because of its notorious red-light district (Arnold & Bertone, 2002). Pattaya draws Thai migrants from all over Thailand, but especially from the poor agricultural region known as Isaan in the Northeast of the country. Pattaya is also relatively near the border of Cambodia, attracting many immigrants also (Arnold, et al, 2002).

Research questions.

What educational strategies and practices do NGOs in Thailand working with victims of human trafficking use? How do teachers in these NGOs perceive their efforts, in terms of successes and failures? How do teachers and staff perceive the success of educational practices,
strategies? How important do teachers and staff perceive relationship building with students to be? How do teachers and staff characterize their relationships with students? How do teachers and staff attempt to engage students and establish rapport? What limitations do NGO teachers and staff perceive and characterize in their work? What skills and knowledge do students at NGO-run shelters and schools perceive as important? What aspirations do teachers at NGOs have for their students? What practices have been discontinued, and Why? How does work of NGO shelters attempt to build social capital in students? How do NGOs perceive building social connections for students? How do NGOs perceive the importance of relationship building with students? What aspirations do students at NGOs have after leaving the NGO? What educational practices do students consider successful? How do students at NGO shelters describe and characterize their relationship with NGO teachers and staff? How do students perceive building social connections outside the NGO?

Analysis

Observations will be done with the intent of establishing context and setting to the study, as argued by Patton (2002, pp. 259-266). Observations will be done from a combination of an emic and etic perspective (Patton, 2002, pp. 277), as I will not be a complete insider or outsider, but likely closer to the outsider end of the continuum. Field notes from observations and interview transcripts will be analyzed using informal content analysis through coding for themes and patterns, and examined for convergent and divergent themes, particularly for themes relating to building, bridging, linking, horizontal, vertical, weak and strong ties within the research setting (Coleman, 1998, Field, 2008, Portes, 1998). Field notes and interview transcripts will be analyzed using “constant comparative method” (Glasser and Strauss, 1967) and will be ongoing throughout the research process. Comparison among teachers, among staff and among students,
as well as across sites, will add depth to the facets of relationship building that takes place in these educational settings (Wolcott, 1994). The study is less concerned with establishing “systematic relationships” (Wolcott, 1994, pp. 183) between elements of the phenomena being studied, as much as it is concerned with illustrating with depth the stories of the individuals in the setting, how they make sense of their work or education, and what role relationship and social capital building play in the education of human trafficking survivors. Documents will be analyzed for evidence of the successes of students after their time at the NGO, corroboration of interview and observation data, and triangulation of sources (Patton, 2002). This study is less concerned with establishing causal relationships between social capital building and student success, as much as it is concerned with illuminating the kinds of social capital building strategies that are used in these settings. Thorough description through observational field notes, analysis of themes and patterns, comparison between interview subjects and field sites, and analysis of documents will all be combined in order to offer interpretation of the research findings.

**Research matrix.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Sources/Data Types</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 How do (two) NGOs in Thailand that work with victims of Human Trafficking educate these victims? A What vocational skills are taught, and how are they taught?</td>
<td>The manner in which DEPDC and The Pattaya Home for Street Children go about their work needs to be closely examined, so that their important work can be viewed by the world, so that NGOs elsewhere can learn from their practice, and</td>
<td>Interviews of NGO workers and teachers Lesson Plans of teachers NGO documentation and paperwork Observations with a translator</td>
<td>Constant comparative method (Glasser and Strauss, 1967) using open and axial coding for common themes, convergent and divergent patterns and themes (Patton, 2007). I will analyze interview transcripts, field notes and documents for signs of relationship building between students, teachers and staff and related themes. Comparison between teacher interview data, staff interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B</strong> What academic skills are taught and how are they taught?</td>
<td>so that any needs that these NGOs have can be assessed.</td>
<td>data, student interview data and across research sites using cross-case analysis will be used to establish broad, general themes from similarities, and nuanced details from differences.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>C</strong> How do students, teachers and staff perceive relationships in NGO work?</td>
<td>The way in which these NGOs deal with the emotional and psychological well-being of the people that live in their shelters is of high interest. Not only are these NGOs trying to provide safe haven for these people, but they are trying to help them become reintegrated back into society, which cannot be done without rehabilitation and education. Of particular interest is the Crisis Intervention program at DEPDC between Chiang Rai and Mae Sai Thailand, near the Burma border. Their tactics are particularly innovative and need to be documented.</td>
<td>I will employ social capital theory, specifically the elements of building, bridging, linking, horizontal, vertical, weak and strong ties within the research setting (Coleman, 1998, Field, 2008, Portes, 1998). Informal content analysis and constant comparative method will be used to analyze observations which are done with the intent of establishing context and setting to the study, as argued by Patton (2002, pp. 259-266). Observations will be done from a combination of an emic and etic perspective (Patton, 2002, pp. 277), as I will not be a complete insider or outsider, but closer to the outsider end of the continuum.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2</strong> How important is relationship and social capital building in the work of the NGO? (perceived vs. observed)</td>
<td>Interviews of NGO teachers, staff and students with a translator. Available NGO documentation and paperwork. Observations with a translator.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3 What educational and career aspirations do victims of human trafficking, currently residing in said NGO shelters, have?

Understanding victims’ personal aspirations is important to see if these are in-line or opposed to the efforts of the NGOs.

Interviews of Students, teachers and staff in structured open ended interview

Interview transcripts will be analyzed for themes and patterns using informal content analysis and constant comparative method. Particular attention in transcript analysis will be paid to responses containing evidence of career and educational aspirations that involve the use of social connections attained during the student’s time in the NGO.

4 How effective do NGO practitioners perceive their educational and rehabilitational efforts to be?

- A Are there some practices that can be considered successful
- B Are there some practices that are less than successful and/or have been discontinued
- C What resources would be most helpful?
- D How important is relationship building perceived to be in the success of students and success of the NGO

It is important to understand how these practitioners perceive their own efforts, what they view as successes and failures, and what they see as their organizations needs to improve educational work and how connected relationship building is to the process.

Structured open ended Interviews with teachers, staff and students
Observations
Document analysis

Interview transcripts will be analyzed for themes and patterns using informal content analysis and constant comparative method. Particular attention in transcript analysis will be paid to responses containing evidence of educational and rehabilitation practices that build social capital in students.

Research Plan

| Long Term tentative research plan schedule |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Pilot Study in Mae Sai and    | Pilot Study data analysis | Dissertation research design completion | Full dissertation study preparation | Dissertation data collection in the field | Dissertation data analysis, dissertation | Graduation from the University of Georgia |
The pilot study will take place over a two to three week period in July of 2010. Each site study will begin with observations for the first three to four days. Observations and interviews will be done with the assistance of a paid translator. Observations will be done with a focus on the way that students and teachers interact, and what kinds of examples can be seen of teachers and staff building relationships with students. Particular attention will be paid to down time or non-classroom time where teachers, staff and students interact. The observation period will also be a time when decisions about times and places of interviews will take place. During the observation period, the researcher will also request documentation from the NGO, such as school records for students showing academic success and job attainment after their time at the shelter/school. Next, the researcher will begin by interviewing teachers, staff and students using standardized open ended questions. The questions for teachers, staff and students are very similar, looking for examples of student-teacher relationship in learning and social capital building for students. All interviews will be audio-recorded and translations will be cross-referenced with other Thai speaking colleagues. Data analysis will be ongoing throughout the research process in the field and after returning to the home institution.

**Needs to Conduct Research in Thailand**

A translator will be hired for assistance with observations and interviews. I will be staying at a guest house through the assistance of staff at the NGOs. Funding for the project will be provided by the researcher; however applications for funding through my home institution are submitted and pending.
Anticipated Output

Through observational field notes, interview transcripts and document analysis, I anticipate showing evidence of strong relationship building between teachers, staff and students and evidence that the NGOs are working to build social capital for their students. The building of key social connections will illustrate the importance of social ties to the success of human trafficking survivors. Prior to exploitation, the survivors likely were economically and socially marginalized and building social ties and strong relationships will likely help to prevent future exploitation and insure future success, educationally and vocationally. I specifically anticipate finding evidence of unique, innovative and individual ways that specific teachers and staff attempt to build rapport with students. I also anticipate uncovering specific examples of students valuing personal connections with teachers and staff, and understanding the importance of making social connections with others.

Expected Significance of the Results

I expect to show that these NGOs are doing innovative and inspiring work with students who have experienced trauma and disadvantage. I intend for the results to illustrate the importance of relationship building in education, particularly with students from difficult backgrounds. I expect that the important details of the work done at these organizations will be transferable to other organizations, in Thailand, or otherwise, working with students with similar issues, and be able to use threads of these NGOs’ work in their own practice. I also expect to show how education can still make a difference in the lives of the most marginalized of society, if done in a way that makes strong individual connections between teachers, staff and students, inside the schools and outside in the community at-large. I anticipate a variety of educators and practitioners finding much of value in a descriptive study of the innovations of these NGOs. Particularly in the United States, whose education system is mired in bureaucracy and ineffective
policy, concrete examples of effective educational practices in NGOs in Thailand is inspirational to educators looking for ways to connect with students, and informative to those working with marginalized populations of students.

**Impact to Thailand**

Human trafficking is a global issue, but in Thailand, the issue is highly pronounced. Though large international organizations are working to combat and prevent human trafficking, little attention is paid to the practitioners on the ground, who work daily to help victims of this terrible practice recover from their traumatic experiences and move on to productive lives in society, free from exploitation. Thailand has, in opposition to its many difficulties with human trafficking, many innovative actors working to prevent these injustices and, despite the magnitude of the problem, are making a difference in the lives of human trafficking survivors. The work of these people and organizations needs to be highlighted and described thoroughly to show others how to help with the problem, or augment the work they are already doing.

Developments in the field of human trafficking prevention, such as the Trafficking in Persons Report (TIP) created by the United States, which looks at the anti-trafficking efforts of the countries of the world, has a powerful impact on countries like Thailand. The more research on the innovative efforts being done to protect and reintegrate survivors of trafficking, and to prevent trafficking-in-persons, stands to benefit Thailand’s international relations. As a researcher whose mission is to have my work contribute to combating and preventing human trafficking, I also offer to present the findings of the pilot study and the future full-scale study to Mahidol University, Dr. Simon Baker, and provide copies of the final reports to all appropriate Thai institutions and government agencies.
APPENDIX A.2

Pilot Study Forms

A.2.1 Interview Guides

**Interview guides for teachers**

- Standardized open ended questions, further probing and follow up questions will be used depending on answers.

- **How would you describe your work at (NGO name)?**
  บอกลักษณะงานที่ทำอยู่กับ...... (ชื่อองค์การเอกชน)

- **What is the best part about teaching your students?**
  มีอะไรที่เป็นสิ่งที่สุดยอดเกี่ยวกับการสอนนักเรียนของท่าน

- **Can you describe a student that you are particularly proud of?**
  ท่านภูมิใจอะไรในด้านนักเรียนของท่านเป็นพิเศษ

- **How would you describe success for your students?**
  ท่านหมายความว่าอย่างไรในคำว่า “นักเรียนประสบความสําเร็จ”

- **How do you build relationships with your students?**
  ท่านสร้างความสัมพันธ์กับนักเรียนได้อย่างไร

- **How important to your work as a teacher is building relationships with students?**
  การสร้างความสัมพันธ์กับนักเรียนมีความสําคัญมากแค่ไหน

- **Can you describe a time when you used your personal connection with the student to teach them in the classroom?**
  กรุณาเล่าถึงเวลาที่ท่านได้ใช้การรู้จักเป็นการสําคัญเพื่อช่วยในการเรียนการสอนในห้องเรียน

- **What academic skills and knowledge are the most important for your students?**
  ทักษะทางวิชาการและความรู้ที่สุดยอดที่สําคัญที่สุดสำหรับนักเรียนของท่าน
    ๓.  What is the best way that you have found to teach this?
    วิธีสอนที่นักเรียนเป็นวิธีที่ดีที่สุดจากประสบการณ์ที่คุณมีของท่าน

- **What is the most challenging part of teaching your students?**
  อะไรเป็นสิ่งที่ท่านพบกับนักเรียนที่สําคัญที่สุด?
    ๓. How do you deal with this?
    ท่านทำอย่างไรกับเรื่องนี้

- **What is your biggest obstacle as a teacher?**
  อะไรเป็นอุปสรรคที่ใหญ่ที่สุดของท่านในฐานะครู?
    ๓. How do you work to overcome this obstacle?
    ท่านมีวิธีการเอาชนะอุปสรรคนี้อย่างไร

- **What is the biggest obstacle that (NGO name) faces?**
  อะไรเป็นอุปสรรคที่ใหญ่ที่สุดที่องค์การเอกชนประสบอยู่
• What relationships are important for your students?

ความสัมพันธ์ส่วนตัวใดบ้างที่สำคัญสำหรับนักเรียนของท่าน

○ Family, teachers, other students, businesses, people outside the NGO

ครอบครัว ครู นักเรียนคนอื่น ๆ ธุรกิจ บุคคลนอกองค์การเอกชน

• In what ways does (NGO name) try to build these for the student?

(ชื่อองค์การเอกชน) ต้องการพัฒนาสร้างสิ่งเหล่านี้ให้กับนักเรียนอย่างไรบ้าง

• Which relationships are the strongest?

ความสัมพันธ์ส่วนตัวไหนที่ยั่งยืนได้ดีที่สุด

• Which relationships are the weakest?

ความสัมพันธ์ส่วนตัวไหนที่ยั่งยืนได้น้อยที่สุด

• What kind of social connections do you think are important for your students?

ท่านคิดว่าสิ่งที่สำคัญสำหรับนักเรียนของท่านมีความสัมพันธ์กับอะไรบ้าง

• What are the most important community connections for (NGO name)? Students?

เห็นสิ่งที่สำคัญที่สุดสำหรับนักเรียนของท่านในชุมชน

• What kinds of social connections are most important for (NGO name)? Students?

เห็นสิ่งที่สำคัญสำหรับนักเรียนของท่านในระดับชุมชน

• What are the most important national connections for (NGO name)? Students?

เห็นสิ่งที่สำคัญสำหรับนักเรียนของท่านในระดับชาติ

• What are the most important international connections for (NGO name)? Students?

เห็นสิ่งที่สำคัญสำหรับนักเรียนของท่านในระดับนานาชาติ

• What are your goals for your students?

มีเป้าหมายอะไรบ้างที่ท่านต้องการให้นักเรียนของท่าน

• What skills and knowledge are the most important for preventing students from returning to exploitive situations?

ทักษะและความรู้อะไรบ้างที่จะช่วยยั่งยืนนักเรียนจากการกลับไปสู่สถานการณ์ที่เป็นการถูกใช้ทางประชาน

• What relationships do you think are most important for your student’s success?

ความสัมพันธ์กับสิ่งที่สำคัญสำหรับความสำเร็จของนักเรียนของท่าน

• During education at (NGO name)? After time at (NGO name)?

ในช่วงที่เรียนอยู่ที่ (ชื่อองค์การเอกชน) และช่วงหลังที่เรียนอยู่ที่ (ชื่อองค์การเอกชน)

• How do you transition your students into jobs after their education?

ท่านทำอย่างไรแล้วให้นักเรียนของท่านได้ไปทำงานต่อ ๆ หลังจากสำเร็จการศึกษา?

○ Do you try to teach job skills? What skills?

ท่านได้สอนให้ความรู้ทักษะทางด้านอาชีพแก่นักเรียนหรือไม่ ท่านสอนอะไรบ้าง

• What kinds of social connections do your student’s have before coming to (NGO name)?

นักเรียนของท่านมีสิ่งที่สำคัญสำหรับนักเรียนก่อนจะมาสมัครนี่ (ชื่อองค์การเอกชน)

○ Family, community, other

ครอบครัว ชุมชน และอื่น ๆ
• What kinds of social connections do your student's need before leaving (NGO name)?
  นักเรียนของท่านต้องมีสิ่งที่สำคัญทางสังคมแบบไหนบ้างก่อนออกจาก... ...(ชื่อองค์การเอกชน)
  ○ Family, community, job, education, other
  เครื่องบัตรวัชชีน งานที่ทำ การศึกษา และอื่น ๆ

**Interview guide for staff**

Standardized open ended questions, further probing and follow up questions will be used depending on answers.

ค้นหาคำถามการสัมภาษณ์: รูปแบบคำถามเปิดมาตรฐาน อาจมีคำถามต่อหลังได้อีก

• How would you describe your work at (NGO name)?
  เล่าให้ฟังเกี่ยวกับงานของท่านที่... ...(ชื่อองค์การเอกชน)

• What is the best part about your job?
  อะไรที่เป็นส่วนที่ดีที่สุดในงานของท่าน

• Can you describe work that you are particularly proud of?
  งานที่ท่านภูมิใจเป็นพิเศษมีอะไร

• How would you describe success for the students?
  ความสำเร็จของนักเรียนของท่านเป็นอะไร

• How do you build relationships with the students?
  คุณมีวิธีการสร้างความสัมพันธ์กับนักเรียนอย่างไร

• How important to your work is building relationships with students at (NGO name)?
  การสร้างความสัมพันธ์กับนักเรียนมีความสำคัญกับงานของท่านเพียงใด
  ○ Can you describe a time when you used your personal connection with the student to help them?
    เล่าให้ฟังถึงเหตุการณ์ที่ท่านได้ประสบซึ่งท่านได้ใช้ความสัมพันธ์ส่วนตัวกับนักเรียนในการช่วยเหลือพวกเขา

• What academic skills and knowledge are the most important for the students at (NGO name)?
  ทักษะทางด้านวิชาการและความรู้อะไรบ้างที่สำคัญที่สุดสำหรับนักเรียนที่อยู่ใน... ...(ชื่อองค์การเอกชน)
  ○ What is the most challenging part of your job?
    อะไรที่เป็นสิ่งที่ท้าทายที่สุดในงานของท่าน
  ○ How do you deal with this?
    ท่านมีวิธีการจัดการอย่างไรในเรื่องนี้

• What is your biggest obstacle in this job?
  อะไรเป็นอุปสรรคที่ใหญ่ที่สุดของท่าน
  ○ How do you work to overcome this obstacle?
    ท่านมีวิธีการเอาชนะอุปสรรคนี้อย่างไร

• What is the biggest obstacle that (NGO name) faces?
  อะไรเป็นอุปสรรคงานที่ใหญ่ที่สุดของ... ...(ชื่อองค์การเอกชน)
• What relationships are important for the students at (NGO name)?

What relationships are important for the students at (NGO name)?

- Family, teachers, other students, businesses, people outside the NGO

• In what ways does (NGO name) try to build these for the student?

- Which relationships are the strongest?
- Which relationships are the weakest?

• What kind of social connections do you think are important for the students at (NGO name)?

What kind of social connections do you think are important for the students at (NGO name)?

- Family, community, other

• What are the most important community connections for (NGO name)? Students?

What are the most important community connections for (NGO name)? Students?

- Family, community

• What kinds of social connections are most important for (NGO name)? Students?

What kinds of social connections are most important for (NGO name)? Students?

- Family, community

• What are the most important national connections for (NGO name)? Students?

What are the most important national connections for (NGO name)? Students?

- Family, community

• What are your goals for the students at (NGO name)?

What are your goals for the students at (NGO name)?

- Job skills and knowledge are the most important for preventing students from returning to exploitive situations.

What skills and knowledge are the most important for preventing students from returning to exploitive situations?

- What relationships do you think are most important for your student’s success?

What relationships do you think are most important for your student’s success?

- During education at (NGO name)? After time at (NGO name)?

During education at (NGO name)? After time at (NGO name)?

- How do you transition your students into jobs after their education?

How do you transition your students into jobs after their education?

- Do you try to teach job skills? What skills?

Do you try to teach job skills? What skills?

- What kinds of social connections do your student’s have before coming to (NGO name)?

What kinds of social connections do your student’s have before coming to (NGO name)?

- Family, community, other

- During education at (NGO name)? After time at (NGO name)?

- How do you transition your students into jobs after their education?

- Do you try to teach job skills? What skills?

- What kinds of social connections do your student’s have before coming to (NGO name)?

- Family, community, other
Interview guide for students

Standardized open ended questions, further probing and follow up questions will be used depending on answers.

- What kinds of social connections do your student’s need before leaving (NGO name)?
  - Family, community, job, education, other

- How would you describe (NGO name)?
- What is the best part about (NGO name)?
- Can you describe a time here at (NGO name) that you are particularly proud of?
- How would you describe success?
- What are your goals?
- How important are your relationships with the teachers at (NGO name)?
- What part of school the most important for you?
- What relationships are most important for you?
  - Family, teachers, other students, businesses, people outside the NGO

- What kind of connections with others do you think you need to be successful?
- What connections have you made in the community, or would like to make?
• How far would you like to go in school?
• What do you like to study? What would you like to study in the future?
• What kind of job would you like to get after your education?
• What relationships do you think are most important for your education at (NGO name)? After time at (NGO name)?
• What job skills do you think are important? What academic skills?
A.2.2 Permission Forms

Teacher and Staff Permission Form

I agree to take part in a research study titled The Education of Human Trafficking Survivors in Thailand: An Ethnographic Study of Two Non-Governmental Organizations in Thailand which is being conducted by Robert Spires, University of Georgia, Social Foundations of Education Department, 706 542 1682 under the direction of Dr. Diane Napier, University of Georgia, Social Foundations of Education Department, 706 542 1682.

My participation is voluntary; I can refuse to participate or stop taking part at any time without giving any reason, and without penalty. I can ask to have information related to me returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The purpose of the study is to understand how NGOs in Thailand educate survivors of human trafficking and how relationships are built between teachers, staff and students. This study will include interviews of teachers, staff and students in order to understand which pieces of the education process are the most important in this setting.

I will not benefit directly from this research. The study will potentially be used to help inform readers of the important work being done at this organization, to raise awareness of the issues that teachers, staff and students at this organization face, how they address these issues, and how important teachers, staff and students find particular aspects of their lives and work in the shelters.
ข้าพเจ้าไม่ได้รับประโยชน์โดยตรงจากการศึกษาวิจัยนี้
แต่การศึกษาจะได้ถูกนำไปใช้ในการให้ความรู้ความเข้าใจแก่ผู้อ่านถึงงานสำคัญที่องค์การนี้กำลังดำเนินการอยู่
อีกทั้งเพื่อกระตุ้นให้เกิดความรู้ความสามารถในที่กับประเด็นปัญหาต่าง ๆ ข้างนอกของคณะครูและคณะที่มีประสบการณ์ในการทำงาน
และนักเรียนตลอดจนเพื่อให้ความรู้เกี่ยวกับประเด็นปัญหาเหล่านี้และความสำคัญของสิ่งที่ศึกษาพบเป็นพิเศษของคณะครูและคณะที่มีประสบการณ์
ในการทำงาน และนักเรียนในแม่น้ำต่าง ๆ ของชีวิตและการทำงานในบ้านพักฉุกเฉิน

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to do the following things: I will be interviewed by a researcher with the assistance of a Thai translator about my experience at the organization. My participation will remain confidential, and I will be asked a series of questions regarding the importance of particular aspects of the education process at the shelter/school and the relationships that teachers, staff and students build during this process. The interviews will last thirty minutes, and will be audiotaped. The interviews will begin with loosely structured questions. The interviews will end with me being able to add any other ideas not addressed in the interview.

ในการร่วมงานศึกษาวิจัยครั้งนี้ ข้าพเจ้าจะได้รับมอบหมายให้ทำงานต่าง ๆ ดังต่อไปนี้
นักวิจัยจะทำการสัมภาษณ์ข้าพเจ้าเกี่ยวกับประสบการณ์ของข้าพเจ้าในการทำงานในองค์การเอกชน
โดยมีนักแปลคนไทยเป็นผู้ช่วย การร่วมงานนี้จะไม่เป็นที่เปิดเผย
ข้าพเจ้าจะตอบคําถามเกี่ยวกับประสบการณ์ของข้าพเจ้าเกี่ยวกับการศึกษาในบ้านพักฉุกเฉิน โรงเรียน
และความสัมพันธ์ที่คณะครูและนักเรียนได้สร้างขึ้นในแม่น้ำระหว่างการศึกษาวิจัยนี้
การสัมภาษณ์ใช้เวลาครึ่งชั่วโมงและมีการบันทึกทัพ การสัมภาษณ์เริ่มต้นด้วยคําถามที่ไม่เป็นเรื่องราวที่ประสงค์จะถามนัก
และจบลงด้วยการแสดงความคิดเห็นต่าง ๆ ของข้าพเจ้าที่ข้าพเจ้าไม่เคยยกย่อง

The discomforts or stresses that may be faced during this research are: embarrassment about discussing my experiences, but I understand that I do not have to answer any interview question that I do not feel comfortable with. No risks are expected.

ความอึดอัดและความกดดันที่อาจเกิดขึ้นได้ในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้คือ ความเขินที่อาจจะรู้สึกเกี่ยวกับประสบการณ์ของข้าพเจ้า
อย่างไรก็ตามข้าพเจ้าเข้าใจว่าข้าพเจ้าไม่จำเป็นต้องตอบคำถามที่ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกอึดอัดไปที่จะตอบ ข้าพเจ้าไม่มีอะไรคือสิ่งที่ทุกคนจะต้อง

All interviewees will remain confidential. The researcher will use a pseudonym for every interview subject and the coding of pseudonyms will be destroyed after the study. I understand that I have the right to review audio tapes after the interviews. I also understand that I have access to transcripts of the audio tapes after audio tapes are destroyed. Other than the researcher, the transcripts and audio tapes will be shared with bilingual scholars, Christina Arnold and Dr. Simon Baker, to check for the accuracy of the translator’s translations.

การสัมภาษณ์ทุกบทจะไม่มีการเปิดเผย ผู้วิจัยจะใช้มาจากบันทึกสัมภาษณ์และจะทำเฉพาะจากบันทึกทัพจากกรณีการศึกษา
ข้าพเจ้าได้รับการรับรองโดยมหาวิทยาลัยจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัยและรับบทสัมภาษณ์เป็นตัวแทนของเรื่อง ได้กลายหลังจากสิ้นสุดการเข้าพ
I understand that all audiotapes and transcripts will be kept in a secure location, and confidentiality will be maintained through the utmost diligence in securing records and transcripts. All master lists with any information to connect transcripts to interview subjects and coding information will be destroyed within 1 year of the completion of the study.

My signature below indicates that the researchers have answered all of my questions to my satisfaction and that I consent to volunteer for this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Researcher: ____________________________
Signature: ____________________________
Date: ____________________________

Telephone: ____________________________
Email: ____________________________

Name of Participant: ____________________________
Signature: ____________________________
Date: ____________________________

ชื่อผู้วิจัย: ____________________________
ลายเซ็นที่จัดให้: ____________________________
วันที่: ____________________________
เบอร์โทรศัพท์: ______________

Email: ___________________

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

กรุณาเซ็นทั้งสองสำเนา เก็บสำเนาหนึ่ง และส่งอีกสำเนาไปที่ผู้วิจัย

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199.

คำถามอื่นใดเกี่ยวกับสิทธิของท่านในฐานะผู้ร่วมทำการวิจัยสามารถสอบถามได้ที่ Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199.
A.2.3 Child Assent Script/Form

We want to see if you would be willing to help us with a research project about how students and teachers feel about education and how they build relationships. We'll ask you questions but it is different from school because there are no right or wrong answers. We just want to know what you really think.

Your participation in this project will not affect your grades in school. I will not use your name on any papers that I write about this project. I hope to learn something about how (NGO name) educates students so that this information will help other children in the future.

If you decide to do the project with us, your answers will be kept just between you and me. You can also decide to stop at any time or can choose not to answer questions that you don't want to answer.

Do you have any questions? Would you be willing to do the project with us?

ใบยินยอมของเด็ก

เราอยากทราบว่าท่านจะสมัครใจที่จะช่วยเหลืองานวิจัยของเราเกี่ยวกับความรู้สึกของนักเรียนและครูอาจารย์ต่อการศึกษาและวิธีการสร้างความสัมพันธ์หรือไม่ เราจะถามคำถามท่านและคำตอบจะไม่มีคำตอบใดที่ถูกหรือผิด

เพื่อเราเพียงแค่อยากทราบความคิดเห็นของท่านเท่านั้น

ความร่วมมือของท่านจะไม่มีผลกับคะแนนในห้องเรียนของท่าน ถ้าเพียงไม่ใช้ชื่อของท่านในเอกสารใด ๆ ที่เขียนเข้าขอมูลในงานวิจัยนี้ ถ้าเพียงแล้วท่านก็จะได้รับความน่าจะนั่งงานที่ไม่ใช้ชื่อของวัยรุ่นได้ให้การศึกษาบ้านนักเรียนอย่างไรก็ตาม ท่านเพียงเขียนมูลหลักฐานไปใช้ในการเขียนเข้าขอมูลต่อคนอื่น ๆ ในอนาคต

ถ้าท่านตัดสินใจที่จะร่วมงานในโครงการนี้ก็ม่เราเรารักษาข้อมูลใช้เป็นที่ทราบกันระหว่างเราที่มีกับท่านเท่านั้นนอกจากนี้ ท่านอย่างสมาระที่จะบอกเลิกได้ทุกเวลาหรือเลือกที่จะไม่ตอบคำถามใดก็ได้แล้วแต่ความประสงค์ท่านมีขอเชิญท่านจะไป꿈ในท่านสมัครใจที่จะร่วมงานกับเราไหม
APPENDIX B

Photo-reference Index

1 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, approaching the school from Patak village, 2009
2 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, front of the main education building, 2009
3 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, inside the main education building, view from the second floor of classrooms, first floor, third floor resident rooms, 2009
4 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, inside the main education building, first floor, 2009
5 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, inside the main education building, first floor 2, 2009
6 DEPDC’s MRICRH crisis center, children doing activities, 2009
7 DEPDC’s MRICRH crisis center, children doing activities 2, 2009
8 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, students lining up for the end of the day release, 2010
9 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, view from second floor, 2010
10 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, Thai language class, 2010
11 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, gardening class, 2010
12 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, gardening class 2, close-up, 2010
13 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, gardening class 3, 2010
14 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, gardening class 4, 2010
15 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, view from the front of the main education building out to soccer field and students going to class, 2011
16 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, pictures of MYN participants from previous years, 2009
17 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, teacher room, teachers’ desks, 2010
18 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, teacher room, teachers’ desks and curriculum materials, 2010
19 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, teacher room, teacher schedules, 2010
20 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, vocational class room, 2010
21 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, BYLTP instructional materials, 2010
22 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, BYLTP instructional materials 2, 2010
23 DEPDC’s Patak Half Day School, school field trip to the Patak Buddhist temple, 2011
24 Mae Sai formal border crossing and customs house, view from the sidewalk, 2011
25 Mae Sai formal border crossing and customs house, view inside facing Burma, 2011
26 Mae Sai border, looking under the bridge facing Burma, 2011
27 Mae Sai market, 2011
28 Informal border crossing near Mae Sai, standing on Thailand side, facing Burma side across river, 2009
29 Informal border crossing, Burma side, 2009
30 Pattaya School for Street Children (later CPDC), entering property, 2009
31 Pattaya School for Street Children (later CPDC), new shelter buildings under construction, 2009
32 Pattaya School for Street Children (later CPDC), outdoor restrooms, 2009
33 Pattaya School for Street Children (later CPDC), school building, 2009
34 Pattaya School for Street Children (later CPDC), outdoor cooking and dishwashing area, 2009
35 Pattaya School for Street Children (later CPDC), staff and teacher office area, 2009
36 Pattaya School for Street Children (later CPDC), view of back of property, catfish pond, boy and girls shelters and new shelters under construction, 2009
37 CPDC, completed shelter buildings and two staff office buildings, 2010
38 CPDC, informal work area, 2010
39 CPDC, photos of programs and progress on the property, 2010
40 CPDC, education building under construction, 2010
41 CPDC, newly constructed shelter buildings and office building, 2010
42 CPDC, three new shelter buildings under construction, 2010
43 CPDC, new dining and kitchen building under construction, 2010
44 CPDC, dining and kitchen building completed, 2011
45 CPDC, new shelter buildings completed, 2011
46 CPDC, education building completed, 2011
47 CPDC, view of clean water canisters between office buildings, 2011
48 CPDC, close-up of completed shelter buildings for children, 2011
49 Pattaya, Walking Street area, 2009
50 Pattaya, Walking Street area 2, 2009
51 Pattaya, Walking Street area 3, 2009
52 Hill tribe village, northern Thailand, 2009
53 Church sponsored school in Hill Tribe village, 2009
54 Government school, northern Thailand, 2010
55 Government school, northern Thailand, 2010
56 Government school, northern Thailand, 2010
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APPENDIX C

Interview Guides for the dissertation study

Interview guides for teachers

- Standardized open ended questions, further probing and follow up questions will be used depending on answers.

  - How would you describe your work at (NGO name)?

  - What is the best part about teaching your students?

  - Can you describe a student that you are particularly proud of?

  - How would you describe success for your students?

  - How do you build relationships with your students?

  - How important to your work as a teacher is building relationships with students?

  - Can you describe a time when you used your personal connection with the student to teach them in the classroom?

  - What academic skills and knowledge are the most important for your students?

  - What is the most challenging part of teaching your students?

  - What is your biggest obstacle as a teacher?

  - What is the biggest obstacle that (NGO name) faces?

  - What relationships are important for your students?
In what ways does (NGO name) try to build these for the student?

Which relationships are the strongest?

Which relationships are the weakest?

What kinds of social connections do you think are important for your students?

What are the most important community connections for (NGO name)? Students?

What kinds of social connections are most important for (NGO name)? Students?

What are the most important national connections for (NGO name)? Students?

What are the most important international connections for (NGO name)? Students?

What are your goals for your students?

What skills and knowledge are the most important for preventing students from returning to exploitive situations?

What relationships do you think are most important for your student’s success?

During education at (NGO name)? After time at (NGO name)?

How do you transition your students into jobs after their education?

What kinds of social connections do your student’s have before coming to (NGO name)?

What kinds of social connections do your student’s need before leaving (NGO name)?
Interview guide for staff
Standardized open ended questions, further probing and follow up questions will be used depending on answers.

- How would you describe your work at (NGO name)?
- What is the best part about your job?
- Can you describe work that you are particularly proud of?
- How would you describe success for the students?
- How do you build relationships with the students?
- How important to your work is building relationships with students at (NGO name)?

- Can you describe a time when you used your personal connection with the student to help them?
- What academic skills and knowledge are the most important for the students at (NGO name)?
- What is the most challenging part of your job?
- How do you deal with this?
- What is your biggest obstacle in this job?
- How do you work to overcome this obstacle?
- What is the biggest obstacle that (NGO name) faces?
- What relationships are important for the students at (NGO name)?
In what ways does (NGO name) try to build these for the student?

Which relationships are the strongest?

Which relationships are the weakest?

What kind of social connections do you think are important for the students at (NGO name)?

What are the most important community connections for (NGO name)? Students?

What kinds of social connections are most important for (NGO name)? Students?

What are the most important national connections for (NGO name)? Students?

What are the most important international connections for (NGO name)? Students?

What are your goals for the students at (NGO name)?

What skills and knowledge are the most important for preventing students from returning to exploitive situations?

What relationships do you think are most important for your student’s success?

During education at (NGO name)? After time at (NGO name)?

How do you transition your students into jobs after their education?

What kinds of social connections do your student’s have before coming to (NGO name)?

What kinds of social connections do your student’s need before leaving (NGO name)?
Interview guide for students

Standardized open ended questions, further probing and follow up questions will be used depending on answers.

- How would you describe (NGO name)?
- What is the best part about (NGO name)?
- Can you describe a time here at (NGO name) that you are particularly proud of?
- How would you describe success?
- What are your goals?
- How important are your relationships with the teachers at (NGO name)?
- What part of school the most important for you?
- What kind of connections with others do you think you need to be successful?
- What connections have you made in the community, or would like to make?
- How far would you like to go in school?
• What do you like to study? What would you like to study in the future?
ท่านชอบเรียนรู้อะไรขณะนี้ และอะไรในอนาคต

• What kind of job would you like to get after your education?
ท่านคิดอยากทำงานแบบไหนหลังสำเร็จการศึกษา

• What relationships do you think are most important for your education at (NGO name)?
  After time at (NGO name)?
ความสัมพันธ์แบบไหนสำคัญมากที่สุดคือการศึกษาของท่านที่..... ...(ชื่อองค์การเอกชน). และหลังจากที่.... ...(ชื่อองค์การเอกชน).

• What job skills do you think are important? What academic skills?
ท่านคิดว่าทักษะที่สำคัญในการทำงานและทางด้านวิชาการมีอะไรบ้าง
APPENDIX D

Permission Forms for the dissertation study

Teacher and Staff Permission Form

I agree to take part in a research study titled The Education of Human Trafficking Survivors in Thailand: An Ethnographic Study of Two Non-Governmental Organizations in Thailand which is being conducted by Robert Spires, University of Georgia, Social Foundations of Education Department, 706 542 1682 under the direction of Dr. Diane Napier, University of Georgia, Social Foundations of Education Department, 706 542 1682.

I will not benefit directly from this research. The study will potentially be used to help inform readers of the important work being done at this organization, to raise awareness of the issues that teachers, staff and students at this organization face, how they address these issues, and how
important teachers, staff and students find particular aspects of their lives and work in the shelters.

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to do the following things: I will be interviewed by a researcher with the assistance of a Thai translator about my experience at the organization. My participation will remain confidential, and I will be asked a series of questions regarding the importance of particular aspects of the education process at the shelter/school and the relationships that teachers, staff and students build during this process. The interviews will last thirty minutes, and will be audiotaped. The interviews will begin with loosely structured questions. The interviews will end with me being able to add any other ideas not addressed in the interview.

The discomforts or stresses that may be faced during this research are: embarrassment about discussing my experiences, but I understand that I do not have to answer any interview question that I do not feel comfortable with. No risks are expected.

All interviewees will remain confidential. The researcher will use a pseudonym for every interview subject and the coding of pseudonyms will be destroyed after the study. I understand that I have the right to review audio tapes after the interviews. I also understand that I have access to transcripts of the audio tapes after audio tapes are destroyed. Other than the researcher, the transcripts and audio tapes will be shared with bilingual scholars, Christina Arnold and Dr. Simon Baker, to check for the accuracy of the translator’s translations.
I understand that all audiotapes and transcripts will be kept in a secure location, and confidentiality will be maintained through the utmost diligence in securing records and transcripts. All master lists with any information to connect transcripts to interview subjects and coding information will be destroyed within 1 year of the completion of the study.

The only people who will know that I am a research subject are members of the research team. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with me will remain confidential unless required by law. The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached by telephone at: 706 354 0398.

My signature below indicates that the researchers have answered all of my questions to my satisfaction and that I consent to volunteer for this study. I have been given a copy of this form.
Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199
We want to see if you would be willing to help us with a research project about how students and teachers feel about education and how they build relationships. We’ll ask you questions but it is different from school because there are no right or wrong answers. We just want to know what you really think.

Your participation in this project will not affect your grades in school. I will not use your name on any papers that I write about this project. I hope to learn something about how (NGO name) educates students so that this information will help other children in the future.

If you decide to do the project with us, your answers will be kept just between you and me. You can also decide to stop at any time or can choose not to answer questions that you don’t want to answer.

Do you have any questions? Would you be willing to do the project with us?
APPENDIX E

Letter of consent from Mahidol University, Bangkok Thailand

MAHIDOL UNIVERSITY

Ref. 0517.19/ 0195

Ms Diane Soroko,
Honorary Vice Consul,
Royal Thai Consulate in Atlanta,
USA

May 3, 2010

Subject: Supervision of the PhD student Robert Spires

Dear Ms Soroko,

With this letter, we wish to confirm that Mr. Robert Spires will be supervised during his field work in Thailand by Dr. Simon Baker and that we support his research. We look forward to his arrival in Thailand and his interactions with the staff here at the Institute for Population and Social Research, Mahidol University.

If you have any questions please contact Dr Simon Baker e-mail address: simonb_bkk@blumail.org, telephone number: (66) 81 485 3377

Yours sincerely,

S. Punpuing
Sureeporn Punpuing, Ph.D
Director.

Institute for Population and Social Research, Mahidol University
999 Phuttamonthon 4 Rd. Salaya, Phuttamonthon, Nakhon Pathom 73170 THAILAND
Tel: +66(0)3 441-0301 Fax: +66 (0)3 441-9333 E-mail: director@mahidol.ac.th Website: http://www.ipsr.mahidol.ac.th
APPENDIX F

Letter of permission from NRCT to conduct dissertation research

No. 0002/5412

2 June B.E. 2554 (2011)

Dear Mr. Spires,

We are pleased to inform you that the Office of the National Research Council of Thailand (NRCT) has permitted you to conduct the research on “Education of human trafficking Victims and at-risk Populations: A Study of Two Thai NGO Shelter/Schools” from June – August 2011.

According to our regulations, you are advised to apply for non-immigrant visa (RS) prior to your leaving for Thailand. Moreover, you are required to report to the Office of International Affairs, NRCT within seven days after your arrival in Thailand in order to obtain the concerned documents.

We look forward to welcoming you.

Yours sincerely,

[Signature]

Miss Jintumpa Sobhon
Advisor on Social Science Research
Acting Secretary - General

Mr. Robert Spires
175 Harold Drive Athens
Georgia 30606
United States
APPENDIX G

Letter of permission to conduct research at DEPDC

Office of the National Research Council of Thailand (NRCT)
Office of International Affairs
196 Phaholyothin Road
Chatuchak, Bangkok 10900
THAILAND

26 April, 2011

To the Director of the Office of the NRCT,

I am writing on behalf of Development and Education Programme for Daughters and Communities Centre (DEPDC) in Mae Sai, Thailand, to acknowledge Robert Spires and his proposed research study in July 2011.

Founded in 1989, DEPDC is a non-profit organization which has a mission to prevent human trafficking into situations of sex work and other forms of exploitation. To achieve this mission, DEPDC offers over ten programs in education for at-risk target groups, rehabilitation and repatriation for victims of trafficking and abuse, and a cross-border network of youth leaders.

Robert Spires was here at DEPDC to conduct a pilot study of research in the summer of 2010, and has since been communicating through email to update DEPDC on his research progress. This letter is to confirm that he has our permission to continue the second year of his research at DEPDC in July 2011.

Thank you,

Alinda Suya
DEPDC Directing Team Executive
APPENDIX H

Letter of permission to conduct pilot study research

No. 0002/4258

June B.E. 2553 (2010)

Dear Mr. Spires,

We are pleased to inform you that the Office of the National Research Council of Thailand (NRCT) has permitted you to conduct the research on “Social Capital and Education at Two Thai NGO Shelter/Schools for Human Trafficking Survivors” from July – August 2010.

According to our regulations, you are advised to apply for non-immigrant visa (RS) prior to your leaving for Thailand. Moreover, you are required to report to the Office of International Affairs, NRCT within seven days after your arrival in Thailand in order to pay a deposit of 10,000 baht guaranteeing the submission of complete report to NRCT; then obtain the concerned documents.

We look forward to welcoming you,

Yours sincerely,

(Professor Dr. Soottiporn Chittmittrapap)
Secretary-General
National Research Council of Thailand

Mr. Robert Spires
175 Harold Drive
Athens, Georgia 30606
United States
APPENDIX I

IRB Continuing review amendment

IRB CONTINUING REVIEW/AMENDMENT FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal Investigator (PI):</th>
<th>Diane Napier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Co-Principal Investigator (Required, if co-PI is a student):</td>
<td>Robert Spires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project #:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title of Study:</td>
<td>Education of human trafficking victims and at-risk populations: a study of two Thai NGO shelter school.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS**
(Use the text boxes for explanation/additional information or attach a separate cover letter.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Have you started data collection for this research project?</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How many total participants have been accrued since the beginning of the research project? (Note: This corresponds to the number of individuals who gave consent; this number should include withdrawals but actual number of withdrawals is reported in #7 below.)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Do you plan to continue to recruit participants for this research project? (If you answered YES, please skip to Question #6.)</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. If you answered NO to question #3, do you plan to continue to collect data with previously recruited participants?</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. If you answered NO to questions #3 and #4 above, do you plan to continue to analyze previously collected data that is individually-identifiable?</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Have there been any complaints about the research since the protocol was approved by the IRB? If YES, please provide complete information on the complaints made.</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Have any participants withdrawn, dropped out, or were lost to follow-up from participation since the protocol was last approved by the IRB? If YES, please indicate the number and provide detailed information/reason(s).</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Have there been any adverse events or unanticipated problems involving risks to the participants or others since the protocol was last approved by the IRB? If YES, please contact the IRB office immediately to request an adverse event/incident report form.</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Have there been any changes to the study population? If YES, please explain changes.</td>
<td>☑</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have the <strong>procedures</strong> changed in any way since the protocol was last approved by the IRB? If YES, please explain.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Have any <strong>materials or instruments</strong> changed in any way since the protocol was last approved by the IRB? If YES, please explain. I will limit the number of questions compared the the number of questions in the pilot study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Have changes in the scientific literature, or interim experience with this or related studies, changed your assessment of potential risks or benefits to study participants? If YES, please explain and attach any relevant literature.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Have the <strong>consent documents</strong> changed in any way since the protocol was last approved by the IRB? If YES, please explain and attach copy of the revised document(s). I will only change the title, but the consent document will remain the same. This consent document is also translated into Thai.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>A <strong>clean</strong> copy of the current version of the consent document(s) <strong>must</strong> be submitted with the request to continue if you plan to recruit new participants, or if a revised consent document is necessary as a result of an amendment. Have you attached a clean copy of your current consent document(s)?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Have there been any changes to the members of the research team (e.g., change in PI; addition/deletion of co-investigators)? If YES, please describe personnel change(s). Note: All new personnel must complete the CITI training.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Principal Investigator’s Signature:**

**For electronic submission, a check in this box is acceptable as a signature:**

**Date:**

4/23/11

**Important:** If research activities involving human participants will continue five years after the original IRB approval, please submit a new IRB Application for initial review. **Exceptions:** If the research is permanently closed to the enrollment of new subjects, all participants have completed all research-related interventions, and the research will remain active only for long-term follow-up of subjects; or if the remaining research activities are limited to analysis of individually-identifiable private information.
APPENDIX J

IRB application

Section A: PROJECT INFORMATION

1. Study Title: Social Capital and Education at three Thai NGO shelter/schools for human trafficking survivors. (A Pilot Study)

2. Application Type: ☐ New Project ☐ Response to Initial Review (All revisions must be in italics or different font color.) ☐ 5-Year Renewal; Previous IRB number:

3. Principal Investigator: (Must be UGA faculty or senior staff. See Eligibility to Serve as PI.)
   Name: Diane Napier
   Title: Dr.
   Department Name: Workforce Education, Leadership and Social Foundations
   Mailing Address: 221 Rivers Crossing, University of Georgia, Athens GA, 30602
   Phone: 7065421682 UGA E-mail (Required): wels@uga.edu

4. Co-Principal Investigator: (Required only if for thesis/dissertation or other student project.)
   Name: Robert Spires
   Title: Mr.
   Department: Social Foundations of Education
   Mailing address: 175 Harold Drive, Athens Ga 30606
   Phone: 7063540398 UGA E-mail (Required): bspires@uga.edu

5. Anticipated Start Date: (Must be at least 4 weeks after application is received.) June 1, 2010

Section B: FUNDING

1. Funding Status: ☐ Funded ☐ Pending ☐ No Funding

2. Funding Source: ☐ Internal ☐ Account #:  
   ☐ External ☐ Funding Source: OSP Proposal or Award #: 

3. Name of Proposal or Award PI (if different from PI of IRB protocol):
4. Proposal or Award Title (if different from title of IRB protocol):

Section C: STUDY PERSONNEL / RESEARCH TEAM

Including the PI, identify all personnel who will be engaged in the conduct of human research. Important Note: All researchers listed below are required to complete the CITI IRB Training prior to submission of this application. This application will be returned to PI for resubmission if training requirement has not been satisfied. To add more names, bring cursor to outside of last row, and press "enter" key.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>E-mail</th>
<th>*Institution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diane Napier</td>
<td><a href="mailto:dnapiere@uga.edu">dnapiere@uga.edu</a></td>
<td>University of Georgia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robert Spires</td>
<td><a href="mailto:bspires@uga.edu">bspires@uga.edu</a></td>
<td>University of Georgia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
*Submit an Individual Investigator Agreement for all study personnel affiliated with an institution that does not have an assurance with the Office for Human Research Protections or OHRP (typically, local schools, private doctors' clinics).
Section D: PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR’S ASSURANCE

As the Principal Investigator, I have the ultimate responsibility for the conduct of the study and the protection of the rights and welfare of human participants. By affixing my signature below,

- I assure that all the information contained in this Human Research Application is true and all the activities described for this study accurately summarize the nature and extent of the proposed participation of human participants.
- If funded, I assure that this proposal accurately reflects all procedures involving human participants described in the grant application to the funding agency.
- I agree to comply with all UGA policies and procedures, as well as with all applicable federal, state, and local laws on the protection of human participants in research.
- I assure that all personnel listed on this project are qualified, appropriately trained, and will adhere to the provisions of the approved protocol.
- I will notify the IRB regarding any adverse events, unexpected problems or incidents that involve risks to participants or others, and any complaints.
- I am aware that no change(s) to the final approved protocol will be initiated without prior review and written approval from the IRB (except in an emergency, if necessary to safeguard the well-being of human participants and then notify the IRB as soon as possible afterwards).
- I understand that I am responsible for monitoring the expiration of this study, and complying with the requirements for an annual continuing review for expedited and full board studies.
- If human research activities will continue five years after the original IRB approval, I will submit a new IRB Application Form. (Exceptions: If the research is permanently closed to the enrollment of new participants, all participants have completed all research-related interventions, and the research will remain active only for long-term follow-up of participants; or if the remaining research activities are limited to analysis of individually-identifiable private information.)
- I understand that the IRB reserves the right to audit an ongoing study at any time.
- I understand that I am responsible for maintaining copies of all records related to this study in accordance with the IRB and sponsor guidelines.
- I assure that research will only begin after I have received notification of final IRB approval.

Signature of Principal Investigator ________________________________ Date (mm/dd/yyyy) ________________________________ April 12, 2010

Section E: CONFLICT OF INTEREST (COI)

1. Is there any real, potential, or perceived conflict of interest on the part of any study personnel (e.g., financial or business interest, stock or stock options, proprietary interest, inventorship, consulting to sponsor)? □ Yes □ No
2. If yes, please identify personnel and explain. Important Note: Please review the UGA Conflict of Interest Policy. Final IRB approval cannot be granted until all potential conflict matters are addressed.

Section F: LAY PROJECT SUMMARY

Briefly describe in simple, non-technical language a summary of the study, its specific aim(s)/objective(s), and its significance or importance. Response should be limited to 250 words and easily understood by a layperson.

Human trafficking is an issue that has limited literature, though in recent years, the issue has gained more public and political attention. Very little literature exists to show how Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) work to educate and rehabilitate survivors. After spending the summer of 2009 in Thailand visiting many organizations that work to combat trafficking in persons, I identified two NGOs whose work was both innovative and inspirational, and needed to be
Section D: PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR’S ASSURANCE

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- I assure that research will only begin after I have received notification of final IRB approval.

Signature of Principal Investigator ___________________________ Date (mm/dd/yyyy):

Section E: CONFLICT OF INTEREST (COI)

1. Is there any real, potential, or perceived conflict of interest on the part of any study personnel (e.g., financial or business interest, stock or stock options, proprietary interest, inventorship, consultant to sponsor)? ☐ Yes ☐ No

2. If yes, please identify personnel and explain. Important Note: Please review the UGA Conflict of Interest Policy. Final IRB approval cannot be granted until all potential conflict matters are addressed.

Section F: LAY PROJECT SUMMARY

Briefly describe in simple, non-technical language a summary of the study, its specific aim(s)/objective(s), and its significance or importance. Response should be limited to 250 words and easily understood by a layperson.

Human trafficking is an issue that has limited literature, though in recent years, the issue has gained more public and political attention. Very little literature exists to show how Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) work to educate and rehabilitate survivors. After spending the summer of 2009 in Thailand visiting many organizations that work to combat trafficking in persons, I identified two NGOs whose work was both innovative and inspirational, and needed to be
I propose a study that focuses on these three NGO shelter/school locations to be able to compare and contrast their methods, strategies and daily work.

I will interview and observe teachers, staff and students at three NGO school/shelters in Thailand which target human trafficking survivors. The specific topics for inquiry during data collection will target educational techniques used, relationship building between students, teachers and staff and outside the NGO, and perceptions regarding educational goals, skills, knowledge and social capital. I will also request access to school records of students and the NGOs in general. Permission to interview students is pending. See appendix.

The NGOs are located in geographically and culturally different locations and comparisons between the these NGOs will be made which take into account cultural context and various dimensions of trafficking that are being addressed by each NGO. The work of these NGOs will be further contextualized through examining economic, social, political and related elements of human trafficking issues in Thailand and internationally. The three research sites for research are: 1) the Child Protection and Development Center, 2) The Development and Education Programme for Daughters and Communities’ (DEPDC) Patak Half-Day School and 3) DEPDC’s crisis center Mekong Regional Indigenous Child Rights Home (MRICRH).

This study is a pilot study in July 2010 in preparation for my full dissertation research in summer 2011 tentatively, as recommended by the committee. The purpose of the study is to: establish connections to the NGOs to be studied, to secure reliable translators, field test interview questions, establish baseline data from available documentation provided by the NGOs and build familiarity of context.

My research questions are as follows: How do three NGOs shelter/schools in Thailand work to educate survivors of human trafficking through academic courses, extra-curricular activities, teaching strategies, relationship building and focus on particular skills and knowledge?. What goals do students, teachers and staff have for the educational program and students at three NGOs in Thailand? How do students, teachers and staff perceive the importance of relationships within the NGOs, social connections outside the NGOs, and the particular skills and knowledge taught in the educational program of three NGOs in Thailand?. How do NGO shelter/schools build students’ student capital during their stay at the NGO shelter/school?

Section 6: HUMAN RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

1. Provide a general description of the targeted participants (e.g., healthy adults from the general population, children enrolled in an after-school program, adolescent females with scoliosis), and indicate the estimated total number, targeted gender, and age. To add a row, bring cursor to outside of last row, and press “enter” key.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Targeted Population</th>
<th>Total Number</th>
<th>Targeted Gender</th>
<th>Specify age or age range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers at NGO shelter/schools</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Male and female</td>
<td>18 years and up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff at NGO shelter/schools</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Male and female</td>
<td>18 years and up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students at NGO shelter/schools</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Male and female</td>
<td>6 years to 17 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Identify the inclusion and exclusion criteria. If two or more targeted populations, identify criteria for each.

a. List inclusion criteria. All teachers, staff and students at Community Development and Protection Center (CPDC) in Pattaya, Thailand, will be included, which includes three teachers, the director, and the approximately 30 students. The number of teachers and students may change prior to the summer, dependent on funding and the number of students who leave the shelter or arrive at the shelter. The population is transient, and therefore difficult to pinpoint an exact number. DEPDC has two campuses that I will include in the study, the Patak Day School and the Mekong Regional Indigenous Child Rights Home (MRICRH). DEPDC in Mae Sai is a larger organization serving a larger number of students, employing more teachers and staff, and having more reliable funding sources. I intend to interview the Director, Chief Advisor, Assistant Director and the Project Coordinator of Child Protection and Rights, the two international volunteers, the two general affairs volunteers, the 15 members of the Education and Development department which consists of 10 teachers and 6 volunteers, the Child Protection and Rights Department which consists of 6 staff and 5 volunteers. The number of students at DEPDC also varies from time to time. During my visit to DEPDC in the summer of 2009, I observed approximately 50 students in the Day School and approximately 10
students at the Mekong Regional Indigenous Child Rights Home. Both organizations have their own unique inclusion criteria, which will be considered the inclusion criteria for student interview subjects. Though, inclusion criteria is not known in detail to field study, this criteria will be included explicitly in the final report.

b. List exclusion criteria. Staff or volunteers that are not directly involved in the education and rehabilitation of students at the NGO shelter schools. Students to be interviewed will be those chosen by the teachers, staff and directors of the shelters. They work on a daily basis with the students and will only select students who they deem appropriate to interview.

3. If the research will exclude a particular gender or minority group, please provide justification. Both NGOs serve male and female students so both genders will be included in the study.

4. Will participants receive any incentives for their participation (e.g., payments, gifts, compensation, reimbursement, services without charge, extra class credit)?  Yes  No
   a. If yes, please describe. For multiple sessions, include scheme to pro-rate incentives. I will donate gifts to each NGO to express appreciation for participating in my study. These gifts will be determined by the teachers and staff after arrival, as they will be based on the NGOs need at the time of the study. These gifts will be sports equipment and educational materials deemed useful by the teachers and staff. The gifts will not exceed a total value of $50 US for each organization.
   b. If offering extra class credit, describe a comparable non-research alternative for receiving incentive.

Section H: RECRUITMENT AND ELIGIBILITY OF PARTICIPANTS

1. Describe how potential participants will be initially identified (e.g., public records, private records, etc.). During the Summer of 2009, the researcher attended a fellowship through a Washington D.C based NGO named Prevent Human Trafficking for their Summer Study Program. The researcher visited both NGOs selected as sites for the study during this trip. The NGOs offered presentations of their current efforts and the researcher and other attendees spent time at both NGOs working with students and staff.

2. Describe when, where, and how participants will be initially contacted. Since the 2009 Summer Study Program, I have stayed in contact with the NGOs through email and telephone. I have requested that I be able to return to conduct my study in July of 2010, and both NGOs have agreed to participate. Permission to interview teachers, staff and students has been tentatively granted in an informal manner through email. Once I arrive at the research location, I will meet with the director and other staff to establish a time and place to request participation from teacher, staff and students and begin asking individual teachers and staff for their participation in the study. Once the teacher and staff participants are determined through verbal consent, I will meet with students, with both a translator/interpreter and staff member present to request the students’ participation, and the request for participation will take place at a location at the shelter determined by the director and staff based on availability of space at the organization. Teachers, staff and students will be approached once I arrive at the shelter, but contact via email, with the organization will facilitate this process and streamline the requesting of participation and determination of an appropriate location within the organization’s facilities to request participation and conduct interviews.

3. Advertisements, flyers, and any other materials that will be used to recruit participants must be reviewed and approved before their use. Check all that apply below and submit the applicable recruitment material/s.

   □ No Advertising  □ Bulletin boards  □ Electronic media (e.g., listserv, emails)  □ Letters
   □ Print ads/flyers (e.g., newspaper)  □ Radio/TV  □ Phone call  □ Other [please describe] I met with both organizations in the Summer of 2009, and visited all three campuses on this trip. I have stayed in continuous email communication with the directors and other staff about my research interests and they have granted informal permission via email.

4. Describe any follow-up recruitment procedures.

5. Describe how eligibility based on the above inclusion/exclusion criteria will be determined (e.g., self-report via a screening questionnaire, hospital records, school records, additional tests/exams, etc.). Students at shelters have been selected by the NGO shelters because of their status as Human trafficking survivors. The NGO inclusion criteria are also the inclusion criteria for students in the study.

Section I: RESEARCH, DESIGN, METHODS AND PROCEDURES

1. Describe the research design and methods of data collection.

   The research design is qualitative in nature, consisting of observations and interviews of teachers, staff and students at two NGOs in Thailand, and analysis of available documentation provided by the NGOs. CPDC has one
campus that will be studied and DEPDC has two campuses that will be studied: Patak Half-Day School and MRICRH. I will take a qualitative approach focusing on how teachers, students and staff perceive the work of the NGOs using triangulation of sources (multiple NGOs), types of subjects (teachers, staff, students), data gathering methods (interviews, observations, documents). The study will also incorporate ideas of social capital theory to look at how teachers and staff build relationships with students, how important these relationships are to, or are perceived to be, to the overall success of students. Finally, I will look at goals that students set for themselves, and the goals that teachers and staff set for the students, particularly in terms of educational and occupational attainment, and how these relate to the particular skills and knowledge that are taught in the shelter/schools, including but not limited to: academic course content, academic skills, survival skills, vocational training and social skills.

Data collection to be used will include observations using field notes and interviews using audio recording. Observations at each NGO will be done for the first day of arrival, and will continue throughout the stay in order to use constant comparative method to analyze the context. DEPDC, which has two campuses to be included in the study, will be the first NGO to be visited. The first day of observations will be followed by interviews with teachers, staff. Interviews will be conducted with the assistance of a hired translator/interpreter recommended by a colleague. Some teachers and staff are fluent in English, and translator will be used only with non-fluent English speaking subjects. Teachers and staff will be interviewed once each, with each interview lasting from 30 minutes to one hour. After completion of teacher and staff interviews, students will be interviewed once each, with interviews lasting from 30 minutes to one hour. The number of student interviews will be determined by time constraints, with the intention of interviewing all of the students at the NGOs.

Observations will be conducted using detailed field notes in order to establish context, focusing on physical characteristics of each NGO campus, as well as interactions between teachers, staff and students. Interviews will focus on educational techniques used by teachers and staff, perceived strengths and weaknesses of students by staff, perceived strengths and weaknesses of students by themselves, how teachers and staff establish and maintain relationships with students, how important relationship building is to the success of students, what skills and knowledge are valued by teachers and students, what forms of social capital do students already have and what forms of social capital do NGO shelter/schools attempt to build. Interviews will be audio-recorded with a digital audio recorder and transcribed at a later date, and with the agreement of participants. If a particular participant agrees to be interviewed but not audio-recorded, interviews will be conducted with a translator and answers will be written on paper by the researcher. The tentative schedule for each NGO visit is as follows: day one-observations, day two-interview teachers and staff, day three- finish interviews with teachers and staff and begin student interviews, day four and five- complete student interviews. Follow-up interviews will not be done for the pilot study for any participant.

2. If applicable, identify specific factors or variables and treatment conditions or groups (include control groups).
3. Indicate the number of research participants that will be assigned to each condition or group, if applicable.
4. Describe in detail, and in sequence, all study procedures, tests, and any treatments/research interventions. Include any follow-ups. Important Note: if procedures are long and complicated, use a table, flowchart or diagram to outline the study procedures from beginning to end. Observations will be conducted on the first day at each NGO shelter schools. Interviews with Teachers and staff will follow the first day of observations. Interviews with students will follow Teacher and Staff interviews. Interview data and interpretation of the data will be shared with key informants familiar with Thai culture and context to verify interpretations and translations of interview answers. Informal observations will continue throughout the stay at the research location in order to add additional context and insights as they occur.
5. Describe the proposed data analysis plan and, if applicable, any statistical methods for the study. Standardized open ended interviews will be analyzed for common themes through processes of coding and analytic induction. Interviews and observation field notes will be analyzed for evidence of social capital building, relationship building for students, and themes in the value placed on particular skills and knowledge. Analysis will take a phenomenological approach regarding the valuing of particular individual’s perceptions of education and relationship building.

6. Anticipated duration of participation.
   a. Number of visits or contacts: 2 visits/contacts
   b. Length of each visit: one day of observation and one 30 minute to 1 hour interview
   c. Total duration of participation: 2 days
Section J: DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

List and describe all the instruments (interview guides, questionnaires, surveys, etc.) to be used for this study. Attach a copy of all instruments that are properly identified and with corresponding numbers written on them. To add a row, bring cursor to outside of last row, and press "enter" key.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Brief Description</th>
<th>Identify group(s) that will complete</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Interview guide for teachers</td>
<td>Using standardized open ended questions</td>
<td>Teachers at NGOs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Interview guide for staff</td>
<td>Using standardized open ended questions</td>
<td>Staff at NGOs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Interview guide for students</td>
<td>Using standardized open ended questions</td>
<td>Students at NGOs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section K: RISKS AND BENEFITS

1. Risks and/or discomforts

Describe any reasonably foreseeable psychological, social, legal, economic or physical risks and/or discomforts from all research procedures, and the corresponding measures to minimize these. Important Note: If there is more than one study procedure, please identify the procedure followed by the responses for both (a) and (b).

a. Risks and/or discomforts. NGO teachers, staff and students may experience discomfort during observations or interviews, particularly at the beginning of the research process. Having visited prior may help to reduce discomfort. Though interviews will not target the students’ past, in terms of their human trafficking experiences, they may relay stories of these experiences which may bring forth strong emotions. Being that the study is focusing on the current educational experience at the shelter, and interview questions will not involve the students’ past. Breach of Confidentiality would be an issue, so confidentiality of participants will be assured to participants, and participants can discontinue participation at any time to minimize this issue and all identifiers of participants in the field notes and transcriptions will be maintained in a secure location at all times. Teachers, staff and student interviews will be coded by participant in order to maintain the confidential identity of each subject.

b. Measures to minimize the risks and discomforts to participants. Interviews will be semi-structured allowing for interviewees to lead discussion according to their own comfort level. If an interview subject becomes uncomfortable during the interview, interviews can be postponed or cancelled. All teacher, staff and student interviewees will remain confidential and will be assigned coded pseudonyms. All information connecting pseudonyms will be kept only on researchers password protected laptop computer. Field notes, which will be transferred to electronic format, will also be kept on the laptop and hard copies will be destroyed after transcription. Audio recordings will also be deleted and destroyed after transcription. Any participants that agree to interview but refuse audio-recording will be interviewed with the use of a translator, and answers will be written on paper by the researcher. All identities of teachers, staff and students will be coded and confidentiality will be maintained and interviewees will be told of this confidentiality. Records tracing the identity of research participants will be kept in a password protected laptop computer which will be either on my person or locked in a secure location throughout the study. Confidentiality of identity will reduce discomfort to participants, and if other discomforts arise, each research location has appropriate staff to deal with student, teacher or staff emotional discomfort, including counselors and volunteers.

2. Benefits

a. Describe any potential direct benefits to study participants. If none, indicate so. Important Note: Please do not include compensation/payment/extra credit in this section, as these are "incentives" and not "benefits" of participation in research; any incentives must be described in Section G.4. No direct benefits anticipated.

b. Describe the potential benefits to society or humankind. NGOs and other organizations throughout the world do work similar to the work of DEPDC and CPDC, and the insight that will be gained from this study can be applied to the work of others. Describing and analyzing the work of these two Thai NGOs is important for showing the efforts of innovative educators as well as understanding how and why particular practices are successful or not. Raising awareness of the human trafficking issue and the work of NGOs to educate survivors and prevent further exploitation is important, not only for NGOs that do this kind of work, but for other social justice actors.
3. Risk/Benefit Analysis
   a. Indicate how the risks to the participants are reasonable in relation to anticipated benefits, if any, to participants and the importance of the knowledge that may reasonably be expected to result from the study (i.e., How do the benefits of the study outweigh the risks, if not directly to the participants then to society or humankind?). Risks and discomforts are foreseeable minimal, yet the opportunity to spotlight the efforts of these organizations offers a chance to increase funding avenues for these NGOs, improve the notoriety of the NGOs on a larger scale, raise awareness of the important related issues, and improve the practices of these and other organizations.

4. Sensitive or Illegal Activities
   a. Will study collect any information that if disclosed could potentially have adverse consequences for participants or damage their financial standing, employability, insurability, or reputation (includes but not limited to sexual attitudes, preferences, or practices; HIV/AIDS or other sexually transmitted diseases; use of alcohol, drugs, or other addictive products; illegal conduct; an individual’s psychological well-being or mental health; and genetic information)? 
   No
   b. If yes, explain how the researchers will protect this information from any inadvertent disclosure.

5. Reportable Information
   a. Is it reasonably foreseeable that the study will collect or be privy to information that State or Federal law requires to be reported to other officials (e.g., child or elder abuse) or ethically might require action (e.g., suicidal ideation, intent to hurt self or others)? No
   b. If yes, please explain and include a discussion of the reporting requirements in the consent document(s).

Section L: DATA SECURITY AND FUTURE USE OF INFORMATION

1. Data Security
   Check the box that applies.
   □ Anonymous – The data and/or specimens will not be labeled with any individually-identifiable information (e.g., name, SSN, medical record number, home address, telephone number, email address, etc.), or labeled with a code that the research team can link to individually-identifiable information.
   □ Confidential – The responses/information may potentially be linked/traced back to an individual participant, for example, by the researcher/s (like in face-to-face interviews, focus groups). If necessary, provide additional pertinent information.
   □ Confidential – Indirect identifiers. The data and/or specimens will be labeled with a code that the research team can link to individually-identifiable information. If the data and/or specimens will be coded, describe below how the key to the code will be securely maintained.
      □ Paper records will be used. The key to the code will be secured in a locked container (such as a file cabinet or drawer) in a locked room. The coded data and/or specimens will be maintained in a different location.
      □ Computer/electronic files will be used. The key to the code will be in an encrypted and/or password protected file. The coded data file will be maintained on a separate computer/server.
      □ Other (please specify), or provide additional pertinent information. Pseudonyms will be assigned to all interviewees, including teachers, staff and students, and coding of pseudonyms will be maintained on a password protected laptop. Coding that can be traced back to individual participant identity will be destroyed after transcripts are completed.
   □ Confidential – Direct Identifiers. The data and/or specimens will be directly labeled with the individually-identifiable information.
      □ Paper records will be used. The information will be secured in a locked container (such as a file cabinet or drawer) in a locked room.
      □ Computer/electronic files will be used. The information will be stored in an encrypted and/or password protected file.
      □ Other (please specify), or provide additional pertinent information.

If “Confidential” is marked, please answer all the following:
   Explain why it is necessary to keep direct or indirect identifiers. It is important to keep indirect identifiers for the interview subjects as I will be comparing two NGOs and three campuses, both with teachers, staff and students. Mixing
these two sites together may be detrimental to a significant portion of the study and the analysis of the data. Confidentiality, however, is also important as these students, teachers and staff may not want to be identified. This is why identifiers and the key to pseudonym coding will be destroyed after interviews have been coded and transcribed. The only linking information that will be kept after transcriptions will identify the location of the interview (CPDC or DEPDC) and type of interviewee (teacher, staff, student).

Identify who will have access to the individually-identifiable information and/or the key to the code. Only the researcher will have access to individually-identifiable information, and links between coded pseudonyms and real identities of participants will be destroyed once transcription of interview data is complete.

☐ Public. Information will be individually-identifiable when published, presented, or made available to the public.

2. Future Use of Information

If individually-identifiable information and/or codes will be retained after completion of data collection, describe how the information will be handled and stored to ensure confidentiality. Check all that apply.

☐ All data files will be stripped of individually-identifiable information and/or the key to the code destroyed.
☐ All specimens will be stripped of individually-identifiable information and/or the key to the code destroyed;
☐ Individually-identifiable information and/or codes linking the data or specimens to individual identifiers will be retained. If this box is checked, describe:
  a. Retention period.
  b. Justification for retention.
  c. Procedure for removing or destroying the direct/indirect identifiers, if applicable.
☐ Audio and/or video recordings (if applicable) will be transcribed/analyzed and then destroyed or modified to eliminate the possibility that study participants could be identified.
☐ Audio and/or video recordings (if applicable) will be retained. If this box is checked, describe:
  a. Retention period.
  b. Justification for retention.
☐ Other (please specify), or provide additional pertinent information.

Section M: CONSENT PROCESS

Important Note: The IRB strongly recommends the use of consent templates that are available on the IRB website to ensure that all the elements of informed consent are included (per 45 CFR 116). If more than one consent document will be used, please name each accordingly.

☐ The PI is attaching a copy of all consent documents that participants will sign.
☐ The PI is requesting that the IRB waive requirement to document informed consent. A signed consent form may be waived if one of the following criteria is met, check the box that applies.
  1. The only record linking the participant and the research would be the consent document and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality. Each participant will be asked whether the participant wants documentation linking the participant with the research, and the participant’s wishes will govern; or
  2. The research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to participants and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.

The consent script or cover letter that will be used in lieu of a consent form is attached. Yes

☐ The PI is requesting that the IRB approve a consent procedure which does not include, or which alters, some or all of the elements of informed consent set forth in 45 CFR 116, or waive the requirement to obtain informed consent. An informed consent may be waived if the IRB finds that all of the following have been met:
  1. The research involves no more than minimal risk to the participants;
  2. The waiver or alteration will not adversely affect the rights and welfare of the participants;
  3. The research could not practically be carried out without the waiver or alteration; and,
  4. Whenever appropriate, the participants will be provided with additional pertinent information after participation.

Provide justification for requesting a waiver. Students at the NGO shelter/schools are under the legal guardianship of the NGOs with the director having the power to grant permission to interview students. "NGO guardianship of students permission form" will be signed by the director at each NGO prior to beginning study. Students will be read an oral consent script prior to interviews. The consent script will be translated by an interpreter at the beginning of each...
interview. Teachers and staff will be given a written consent form, translated into Thai. Protecting student identity is of utmost importance in terms of Breach of Confidentiality and having an oral consent immediately prior to the interview will reduce additional documentation of individually identifiable information. Rather than discern between students of age of consent versus minor, a waiver will allow ALL students to receive the oral script, and therefore maintain confidentiality to a higher degree, as no paper consent form will be traceable to a particular student. Some students may not be native Thai speakers, be literate, or have the ability to read or write in Thai, as many regional dialects are spoken in the area. Translating a consent form into Thai may not address all of the students need to be given the description of the study and their role in the study. I have been assured that all students are Thai speakers and that interviews must be conducted with a Thai-English translator/interpreter. Though coding and voice recording will be other links to subject identity, steps will be taken to assure confidentiality.

Describe how, where, and when informed consent will be obtained from research participants (or permission from parent/s or guardian/s and assent from minor participants), if applicable. Guardian consent and permission to interview minors will be granted by the directors of the NGOs, who have guardianship over the students living at their organization. Minor Assent script will be read to All students by translator/interpreter and audio recorded. Consent forms will be translated into Thai and presented to teachers and staff prior to interviews.

Section N: VULNERABLE AND/OR SPECIAL POPULATIONS

1. Check if some or all of the targeted participants fall into the following groups. Important Note: Some targeted populations require compliance with additional Subparts and the completion of an Appendix or of specific section (see last column).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population Type</th>
<th>Required to Complete</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pregnant women, neonates, or fetuses</td>
<td>Appendix for Subpart B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prisoners</td>
<td>Appendix for Subpart C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentally-disabled/cognitively-impaired/severe psychological disorders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physically-disabled</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terminally ill</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economically/educationally-disadvantaged</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A specific group based on religion, race, ethnicity, immigration status, language, or sexual orientation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UGA Psychology Research Pool/Other UGA students/employees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (please describe)</td>
<td>Survivors of Human Trafficking living in NGO shelter/schools in Thailand</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Explain justification for including the group(s) checked above in this particular study. Essential to understanding how this very specific population is educated and rehabilitated.

3. Is there a working relationship between any researchers and the participants (e.g., PI’s own students or employees)?
   - Yes
   - If yes, please describe. Researcher has previously visited both sites during Summer 2009 study program trip to Thailand. Both NGOs welcomed collaboration with all of the program participants in the future.

4. Describe any additional safeguards to protect the rights and welfare of these participants and to minimize any possible coercion or undue influence. For example, amount of payment will be non-coercive for the financially disadvantaged, extra-careful evaluations of participants’ understanding of the study, advocates to be involved in the consent process, or use flyers to recruit participants instead of directly approaching own staff or students. The participants will be assigned pseudonyms to protect confidentiality. Students are living in the NGO facilities under the care of teachers and staff. Gifts will be determined by what is deemed useful and helpful to the NGO at the time of the study, particularly sports equipment and educational material.

Section O: COLLABORATIVE PROJECT OR OUTSIDE PERFORMANCE SITE

Check one of the two boxes below:

- This project does not involve any collaboration with non-UGA researchers or performance in non-UGA facilities.
- This project involves collaboration with non-UGA researchers or performance in non-UGA facilities (e.g., local public school, participants’ workplace, hospital). If this box is checked, list all sites at which you will conduct this research.
Attach authorization/permission and/or current IRB approval. Checkboxes below are not clickable so place “X” before or over the box. To add a row, bring cursor to outside of last row, press “enter” key, and copy/paste the previous cells.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Institution</th>
<th>Location (County/State/Country)</th>
<th>Authorization/permission letter and/or current IRB approval.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Development and Education Programme for Daughters and Communities (DEPDC)</td>
<td>1) Patak Half Day School and 2) Mekong Regional Indigenous Child Rights Home (MRICRH)</td>
<td>□ Attached  x Pending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mae Sai, Thailand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Help Network Thailand’s Child Protection and Development Center (CPDC)</td>
<td>Pattaya, Thailand</td>
<td>□ Attached  x Pending</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPORTANT NOTE:** If none of the following applies to your research, this is the END of the application form.

Section P: METHODS AND PROCEDURES THAT REQUIRE ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Check all that apply. **Important Note:** The items listed below are NOT an inclusive list of methods and procedures that may be used in research studies. Some procedures require the completion of an Appendix or of specific sections (see last column).

Method/Procedure                                      | Required to Complete |
------------------------------------------------------|----------------------|
☒ Student research (For student’s thesis/dissertation/others) | Section Q (below)    |
☐ Deception, concealment, or incomplete disclosure       | Section R (below)    |
☐ Internet research                                    | Section S (below)    |
☐ Blood sampling/collection                            | Section T (below)    |
☐ Clinical trial (Drugs, biologics, or devices)         |                      |
☐ Genetic analyses                                     |                      |
☐ Data/Tissue repository                               |                      |
☐ HIPAA (Protected health information)                 |                      |
☐ DEX/RAY                                               |                      |
☐ MRI/EEG/ECG/NIRS/Ultrasound                          |                      |
☐ Other (please describe)                              |                      |

Section Q: STUDENT RESEARCH

**Important Note:** The IRB recommends submission for IRB review only after the appropriate committee has conducted the necessary scientific review and approved the research proposal.

1. This application is being submitted for: ☐ Undergraduate Honors Thesis  ☑ Doctoral Dissertation Research  ☐ Masters Thesis Research  ☐ Other (please describe)

2. Has the student’s thesis/dissertation committee approved this research? ☐ Yes  ☐ No

Section R: DECEPTION, CONCEALMENT, OR INCOMPLETE DISCLOSURE

1. Describe the deception, concealment, or incomplete disclosure; explain why it is necessary, and how you will debrief the participants. **Important Note:** The consent form should include the following statement: “In order to make this study a valid one, some information about (my participation or the study) will be withheld until completion of the study.”

2. Debriefing Form is attached. ☐ Yes  ☑ No; if no, please explain.
Section S: INTERNET RESEARCH

If data will be collected, transmitted, and/or stored via the internet, the level of security should be appropriate to the level of risk. Indicate the measures that will be taken to ensure security of data transmitted over the internet. Check all that apply.

☐ A mechanism will be used to strip off the IP addresses for data submitted via e-mail.
☐ The data will be transmitted in encrypted format.
☐ Firewall technology will be used to protect the research computer from unauthorized access.
☐ Hardware storing the data will be accessible only to authorized users with log-in privileges.
☐ Other (please describe), or provide additional pertinent information.

Section T: BLOOD SAMPLING / COLLECTION

If blood will be collected for the purpose of this research, please respond to all the following:

1. Route/method of collection (e.g., by finger stick, heel stick, venipuncture):
2. Frequency of collection (e.g., 2 times per week, for 3 weeks):
3. Volume of blood for each collection (in milliliters):
4. Total volume to be collected (in milliliters):
5. Are participants healthy, non-pregnant adults who weigh at least 110 pounds? (Choose YES or NO)
   a. If no, indicate if amount collected will exceed the lesser of 50 ml or 3 ml per kg in an 8-week period and if collection will occur more frequently than 2 times per week.
6. Will participants fast prior to blood collection(s)? (Choose YES or NO)
   a. If yes, describe how informed consent will be obtained prior to fasting.