

Title

A mixed methods study evaluating the perceptions of teacher educators in Myanmar of training that they have received which was funded by international development agencies - a Postcolonial analysis.

A thesis presented for the degree of Doctor of  
Philosophy

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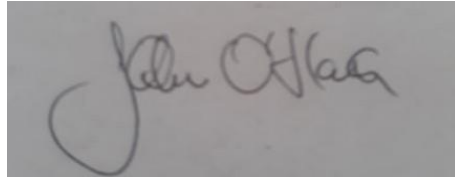
Prof Joe O'Hara

August 2023

## Declaration

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**Dedications:**

Thanks a million to the Myanmar teacher educators who participated, my Mam, Dad (we all miss you), siblings, friends, colleagues, and supervisor.

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## List of abbreviations

- ASEAN – Association of South East Asian Nations
- BC – British Council
- CESR – Comprehensive Education Sector Review
- CPD – Continuous Professional Development
- LCA – Learner Centred Approach
- TCA – Teacher Centred Approach
- EfECT – English for Education College Trainers
- TE – Teacher Education
- E(D)C – Education (Degree) College
- OECD – Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
- PISA – Programme for International Student Assessment
- UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
- UNICEF – United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund
- MOE – Ministry of Education (Myanmar)
- NESP – National Education Strategic Plan (Myanmar)
- NGO – Non-Governmental Organisation
- AusAid – Australian Aid
- JICA – Japanese International Cooperation Agency
- DFID – Department for International Development
- TCF – Teacher Competency Framework
- ITE – Initial Teacher Education
- DTED – Diploma in Teacher Education
- PTT – Pre-Primary Teacher Training programme
- IOE – Institute of Education
- TEO – Township Education Officer
- ATEO – Assistant Township Education Officer
- NLD – National League for Democracy
- DHE – Department of Higher Education
- DBE – Department of Basic Education
- DERPT – Department of Educational Research, Planning, and Training
- STEM – Strengthening Teacher Education in Myanmar
- GRM – UNESCO Global Monitoring Report
- ODL – Open and Distance Learning
- TPD – Teacher Professional Development
- HEI – Higher Education Institute
- EFA – Education for All
- MDG – Millennium Development Goals
- CFS – Child-Friendly Schools
- WB- World Bank
- GPA – Global Partnership for Education

Note on terminology – both Myanmar and Burma will be used interchangeably throughout this thesis. Also, the LCA and interactive methodologies will be used interchangeable



## Abstract

**A mixed methods study evaluating the perceptions of teacher educators in Myanmar of training that they have received which was funded by international development agencies - a Postcolonial analysis (Author: John O'Hara).**

The intention of this Mixed Methods study was to engage with teacher educators (TEs) in Myanmar to give them the opportunity to evaluate training that they received which was funded and provided within the Education and Development sector, using the English for Education College Trainers (EfECT) project as an instrumental case study, and to discuss these opinions using Postcolonial theory.

Prior to the 2021 Coup, Myanmar was undergoing an era of educational reform. The Education and Development sector, which is underpinned by the theories of Human Capital Theory and Democratisation, had a significant influence in this reform (NESP 2015; Maber et al. 2019; UNESCO 2016; Borg et al. 2018).

The educational context of Myanmar is one which is characterised by the historical Royal and Religious provision of education, an era of colonial rule, and a troubled era of independence, dominated by the military (Maber et al. 2019; Lwin 2000; Myanmar EGRESS 2015). In relation to teacher education colleges, this has led to a situation whereby classes are large, the infrastructure is inadequate, the dominant pedagogy is teacher centred and the conceptualisation of the relationship between teachers and learners is rigid and hierarchical (Borg et al. 2018; British Council 2015; Hardman et al. 2016).

While, it seems that the underlying theories that underpin the Education and Development sector converged with the interests and opinions of the TEs e.g., in relation to making classes more engaging, and developing 21<sup>st</sup> century skills, there were also clear divergences, e.g., infrastructural, structural and historical/cultural obstacles and considerations. The purpose of this thesis is to explore these convergences and divergences.

## Chapter 1 – Title and Introduction

The title for this project is ‘A mixed methods study evaluating the perceptions of teacher educators in Myanmar of training that they have received which was funded by international development agencies - a Postcolonial analysis.’ This can be recast as the following research question, what are the findings of a Postcolonial analysis of the opinions of TEs of training that they received which was funded and provided within the Education and Development Sector?

It should also be noted that, due to the military coup which took place in February 2021, and subsequent descent into political, social, and economic upheaval, the time-frame of this project is delimited prior to this coup.

### 1.1. Introduction

Myanmar is a country that seems to be in a perpetual state of transition. Transitioning from Royal Burma under a millennium of Kings, to falling under British colonial control in the 1800s, resulting ultimately in the exile of King Thibau in 1884 to India (Myint 2007). Upon independence in 1948, there was a brief spell of democratic rule until 1962. From then the country underwent the autocratic rule of the Military Junta up to the contested and largely nominal election of President U Thein Sein in 2010 (Lall 2020). This was followed by the National League for Democracy (NLD) sweeping to power in the 2015 elections, and finally, the military coup which took place in February 2021. This is, of course, a chronic oversimplification of the long and complex history of this country, but one thing that is uncontested, is the impact this political upheaval and uncertainty has had on the provision of basic education (Lall 2020; Mieke 2019; Myint 2007; Lwin 2000).

This sector has been underfunded and under-resourced since the fall of Royal Burma in 1884 until 2014. That year saw the publication of the Comprehensive Education Sector Review (CESR), which argued for the modernisation of the Education system as a whole (MoE 2014). Until this point, there had been no national plan in place to evaluate the impact of this underfunding or put policies in place to improve it. As such, the CESR marked the beginning of a reform process in the provision of basic education in Myanmar, which was widely welcomed (Mieke 2019; UNESCO 2016). However, the necessity to invite development partners into the country in order to collaborate on this reform

process became clear, and as a result, a multitude of multi and bi-lateral donors, as well as a plethora of Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) engaged and collaborated with the Myanmar Ministry of Education (MoE) in order to work towards the goals of this reform process (British Council 2015; UNESCO 2016; Mieke 2019).

## 1.2. Rationale for the Study

As stated, Myanmar is undergoing an era of reform in the provision of its basic education, and the current model of governance, policy development and provision within this reform process ensures that international funding and expertise have a disproportionate influence on the direction that this reform is taking (NESP 2015; Lwin 2000; Maber et al. 2019; UNESCO 2016 a, b, c).

Funding for projects is arriving from the UK, the US, the World Bank, UNESCO, Australia and Japan, to name but a few (UNESCO 2016a; DFAT 2017; Borg et al 2018; Maber et al. 2019). The make-up of this funding ensures that overseas expertise and strategic policy objectives, both of which are overwhelmingly from the Global North, inform the content and staffing of projects working towards this reform agenda. This includes decisions that are made related to the development of curriculum and the corresponding training in teacher education (Lopez Cordozo 2019; Lall 2020; British Council 2015).

In relation to teacher education, which is the focus of this project, there has been little, if any, representation of local staff, or consideration of the local and historical context that the training is taking place in. Within teacher education, there has been a focus on human capital production, twenty first century skills, and the hidden curriculum of developing democratic principles through the use of the learner-centred approach (Borg et al. 2018; British Council 2015; Hardman et al. 2016, Lopez Cordozo 2019; UNESCO 2016). The purpose of this project is to assess whether this model leads to sustainable training for teacher educators in Myanmar.

As such, this project is related to whether the current funding and policy flow in an education and development context – specifically teacher education – contributes to the provision of sustainable Continuous Professional Development (CPD) for teacher educators in Education Colleges in Myanmar, using the English for Education College Trainers project (EfECT), which was

funded and provided by Department for International Development (DfID) and the British Council, as an instrumental Case Study. This research is being undertaken in the context of the aforementioned educational reform that is currently taking place, and the history of the provision of basic education in Myanmar, which has intimate ties with Royal patronage, its provision via the Buddhist Monkhoo (Sangha), and the location of the Buddhist Monastery (Dhammasami 2018).

From a literature review of the Education and Development sector, it has been found that the current model, which is dictated by a policy and funding flow from the Global North to the Global South, prioritises features of Western epistemologies in a general sense, and, more specifically to this project, approaches to teacher education. One of the key reasons behind this is related to the strategic goals of funders and the impact these have on the key performance indicators for the projects that these funders put to tender. This is compounded by the role of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in the provision of these programmes and the upward accountability they have to funders, as well as the lateral competition with fellow providers for the purposes of strengthening their brand. This model has led to a situation whereby Western epistemologies are privileged, and very little consideration and representation is given to local contexts and needs (Hardman et al. 2016, Lall 2011, 2020; Borg et al. 2018; Spivak 1988; Bhabha 1994; Andreotti 2011). These local contexts and needs are related to; the contemporary influence of the historical provision of basic education, logistical and infrastructural considerations, the structure of the education system, and generational considerations. It is hoped that this project will give representation to the local context of Myanmar via engagement with TEs via a survey and semi-structured interviews (Anderson 2011; Dembele and Miario-il 2013; Harber 2016; Levin 2012).

### 1.3. Purpose Statement

The study addressed the perceptions of teacher educators (TEs), including attitudes, opinions, feelings, and beliefs in Myanmar of training they received that was funded by international development agencies, using the English for Education College Trainers (EfECT) project as an instrumental Case Study. An explanatory sequential mixed methods design was used in order to generate

data from TEs about this project. It involved collecting quantitative data first and using this data to facilitate the purposeful sampling of participants for the qualitative interviews, then explaining the quantitative results with in-depth qualitative data. In the first quantitative phase of the study, survey data was collected from TEs in Myanmar to establish their attitude and beliefs towards the provider and contents of training that they received that was funded by international development agencies, and provided by NGOs, i.e., DFID, the British Council and the EfECT project. The second qualitative phase was conducted as a follow up to the quantitative results to help explain them. In this exploratory follow-up, semi-structured interviews were undertaken to explore the TEs' attitudes and beliefs towards teaching and whether they were compatible with the strategic and pedagogic goals of international development agencies in more depth.

#### 1.4. Theoretical Framework

The attitudes of teacher educators towards the British Council and the EfECT project was evaluated using a Postcolonial theoretical lens. The significance of the Postcolonial perspective from the point of view of education and development is that all cultures are shaped by events of the past and that nothing can be understood in isolation from its past (Gandhi 2019). A study which neglects an analysis of the historical antecedents to any present-day phenomenon is not covering the whole story and will lack an important dimension to any explanatory power it might otherwise have (Philips and Schweisfurth, 2014). It is from this perspective, one that privileges Northern epistemologies and in-so-doing, applies this epistemology in an ahistorical, apolitical, unproblematised, and decontextualised manner, that this project was undertaken.

Postcolonial theory pushes back on this Northern epistemological hegemony by historicising, politicising, problematising, and contextualising this epistemology in a Postcolonial context, thus facilitating the ultimate objective of this thesis, which is to give teacher educators a platform to express their opinions about training that they received, which was conceived, funded, developed, and provided within the dominant funding and policy flow in the Education and Development sector.



## 1.5. Significance of the Study

As stated, Myanmar is undergoing an era of reform in the provision of its basic education, and the current model of governance, policy development and provision of CPD within this reform process ensures that international funding and expertise have a disproportionate influence on this reform. The origin of this funding ensures that overseas expertise and strategic policy objectives inform the content and staffing of projects working towards this reform agenda, and decisions that are made related to the development of curriculum and the corresponding CPD (Lopez Cordozo 2019; Lall 2020; British Council 2015).

However, this training was not provided in a vacuum. The educational context of Myanmar is one whereby there is a successful legacy of the Royal and Religious (Buddhism) provision of education over the span of a millennium in providing state education. The turmoil that followed British colonial expansion into Myanmar, and the impact this had on the provision of education was profound. Not to mention the era of independence, which has been dominated by the military, and has led to the longest civil wars on the planet, parallel education systems, underfunding, and an overtly Bamar nationalist curriculum (Maber et al. 2019; Lwin 2000; Myanmar EGRESS 2015). The legacy of each of these factors in education colleges is one whereby classes are large, the infrastructure is inadequate, the dominant pedagogy used is the Teacher Centred Approach (TCA), and the conceptualisation of the relationship between teachers and learners is rigid and hierarchical (Borg et al. 2018; British Council 2015; Hardman et al. 2016).

It is within this context whereby, on the one hand, the education and development sector have a clear set of goals, and on the other, a millennium old education system that has undergone substantial turmoil over the last 150 years, that the opinions of TEs in Myanmar of CPD that was funded and provided by the education and development sector was sought

As such, the intention of this research is to engage with teacher educators in Myanmar in order to give them the opportunity to evaluate the training that they have received which was funded and provided by the international

development sector, i.e., the English for Education College Trainers (EfECT) project.

## 1.6. Thesis Structure

### Chapter 1 – Title and Introduction

This chapter gives an overview of the rationale for the study, the topic of the literature review, the context in which the project took place, the methodologies used, and theoretical framework that has helped to guide it, as well as the potential impact this study may have.

### Chapter 2 – Context of the Project

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the Myanmar education system, and details of the historical, social, religious, and political context in which this study took place. Of key consideration here is to provide the context with which the Education and Development sector engaged in Myanmar.

### Chapter 3 – Literature Review

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section gives an overview of the theoretical underpinnings of the Education and Development sector as a whole, and the role these have played in the development of the 2015 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The second section looks at how these theories and goals have informed the broad policies of multi-and bi-lateral donors and the role of NGOs therein. The third section focuses explicitly on this sector's engagement with teacher education in development contexts, and how this engagement is informed by standard practice from the Global North.

### Chapter 4 – Methodology

This chapter gives an overview of the worldview which was used in this project, i.e., a Mixed Methods dialectical approach, which incorporates both post-positivist and constructivist ontologies, and provides an explanation as to why this approach was compatible with the research question. It also presents the theoretical framework that was used (Postcolonial theory), its suitability in being applied in an Education and Development context, as well as how this theory provided a framework with which the researcher considers his reflexivity

in this project. The reasoning behind using the EfECT project as an instrumental Case Study is also presented. This involved considerations as to the manner in which this project is indicative of the dominant features of the Education and Development sector, and in-so-doing providing a justification for its instrumental use. There is also a discussion on the use of an explanatory sequential Mixed Methods research design in order to generate data from teacher educators in Myanmar of their opinions, attitudes, feelings and beliefs of the project, as well as the multitude of considerations related to the identification of variables in the survey, the development of the survey, sampling, the use of semi-structured interviews, thematic analysis, data mixing, and ethical considerations.

#### Chapter 5 – The EfECT Project – An Instrumental Case Study

This chapter provides an overview of the EfECT project accompanied by an analysis of the project using the themes that emerged from the literature review in order to justify its use as an Instrumental Case Study.

#### Chapter 6 – Findings and Analysis

This chapter details the findings from the explanatory sequential mixed methods component of the study. The purpose of this approach was to give teacher educators who participated in the EfECT project an opportunity to express their attitudes, opinions, feelings and beliefs about the EfECT project, its provider, and its suitability to their context.

#### Chapter 7 – Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter uses key principles from Postcolonial Theory to discuss key considerations from the thesis. Firstly, the manner in which the EfECT project is indicative of Said's (1979) notion of representation put forward in his book, *Orientalism*, and how this situates the EfECT project within the dominant modernist worldview, characterised by the market economy and democratic institutions, will be looked at. It also looks at the data from the teacher educators from the perspective of Spivak's (1999) separate notion of representation, which was put forward by her essay *Can the Subaltern Speak* from the perspective of giving TEs a voice in relation to whether the EfECT project responded to their expectations and needs in their context. Thirdly, it

looks at the data from the teacher educators in relation to Bhabha's (1994) concept of Mimicry and the associated elevated status that is given to the institutions of former colonisers, and correspondingly, the lack of status given by former colonial powers to local institutions. Finally, this chapter provides a series of conclusions and recommendations for further study.

## Chapter 2 – Context of project

As stated in the introduction, this project will look at the attitudes and beliefs that TEs have towards training that they have received that was funded by the Education and Development sector (using the EfECT project as an instrumental Case Study), in order to assess whether this model leads to sustainable Continuous Professional Development (CPD) for TEs in Myanmar. As such, an historical overview of education in Myanmar will be presented in order to contextualise the education reform process, which began with the election of U Thein Sein in 2010.

Prior to 2010, the history of education in Myanmar can be divided into three eras, Royal, Pre-Colonial (11<sup>th</sup>/12<sup>th</sup> century to 1885), Colonial (1824-1948), and Independent (1948-present). Since 2010, the reform process has included government-led initiatives which have been supported by multi- and bi-lateral funders, and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) (UNICEF 2013; Lall 2011, 2020; Shah and Cordozo 2019).

This research project is focused on teacher education in Myanmar, which is delivered primarily through 22 Teacher Education Colleges (ECs) and two Universities of Education (MOE 2015). These institutions prepare teachers for the state basic education sector which comprises five years of primary education (Kindergarten to Grade 4, four years of lower secondary and two years of upper secondary education). There are 47,363 basic education schools in Myanmar reaching approximately 9.26 million students (MOE, 2016). Each EC is led by a principal and has three kinds of TEs, academic TEs teach subject knowledge, methodology TEs teach pedagogy (including for specific subjects), while co-curriculum TEs teach agriculture, domestic science, music, fine arts, industrial arts, technical handicrafts and physical education. Around a third of TEs are expected to teach their subjects through English, and the official methodology that should be used is the child-centred approach (British Council 2015, p. 28; Lall 2020). TEs do not necessarily have teaching experience in schools themselves and most will have not received any specific pedagogical training (Borg et al. 2018, p. 76).

In this section of the thesis an overview of the three eras of education in Myanmar will be presented.

## 2.1. Background and Context

In terms of offering a brief overview of Myanmar, it is a country of approximately 54 million people, and is made up of 8 national races. These include the majority Bamar of the lowland Ayerwaddy river valley; Shan, Chin, Kachin, Mon, Kayin, Kayah and Rakhine. Roughly 90% of the population describe themselves as Theravada Buddhist, with the remaining 10% divided up between Christian, Muslim, and Animism. The name of the country was changed from Burma to Myanmar in 1989. There is no consistency in how the country is referred to in the literature, as a result, both terms will be used interchangeably from here-on-in (Mieke and Cardozo, 2019; Myint, 2007).

## 2.2. Royal, Pre-Colonial Period

Royal, pre-colonial Burma was dominated – as the title suggests – by successive royal families and Theravada Buddhism. The royal, religious and nation building connotations related to the role of Theravada Buddhism, both in Myanmar and the broader region – which included the exclusive monastic provision of education – needs to be explored further in order to develop a fuller picture of the cultural importance of pre-colonial Myanmar in the current conceptualisation of teaching and teachers, dominant methodologies used, and status of teachers in local communities.

The evolution of Theravada Buddhism in Myanmar and the broader region was a result of a number of factors, including; which monasteries succeeded in competitions to win royal sponsorship in the mediaeval period, and how Buddhist history came to be written at points of marked identity formation: that is, when big political changes led a group or community to redefine themselves. Key periods when this happened differ from region to region, but the eleventh to twelfth centuries marked one such watershed in South Asian and South East Asian countries, as did the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Indeed, prior to the texts being written down about 500 years after the Buddha's death, Buddhism had been an oral religion, whereby chanting the teachings of the Buddha was considered a necessary way to ensure the passing on and survival of the teachings from one generation to another, and from one community to another (Crosby 2014, p. 3).

In considering the role of Theravada Buddhism in community and nation building, the physical reminders of the Buddha – which include physical remains, items he used, reminders of him, that is, symbols, images and paintings and texts containing his teachings – represent the Buddha’s ongoing influence in the world following his death, populating the Theravada realm, as well as authorising and providing spiritual and secular power there (Crosby 2014, p. 43). The presence of relics, images and other representations of the Buddha across the Theravada world allows the worshipper to make a connection across time with the Buddha, and with the events and the sacred landscape of the past. This brings the Buddha, and the power he offers into the present creating a new landscape in which his inspiration and protection are accessible. This in turn allows the Buddha, either in general or through specific images, relics, or other reminders, to act as a frame of reference for community building, from the village level to the national level. At the level of local communities, the collective focus on Buddha worship then creates a safe, harmonious space in which people are well-disposed and cooperative (Crosby 2014, p. 61).

Within this context, the three general features of Theravada Buddhism in royal Burma were; it was a monastic religion; enjoyed royal patronage, and was an educational institution; and was only available to men (Dhammasami 2018, p. 10). Monastic education is recorded to have started as early as the eleventh century amongst the lowland Theravada Buddhist population, and specifically amongst the (majority) Bamar ethnic group. Consequently, there has been a close connection between the monarchy and the Sangha from the time Buddhism was introduced to Burma. The Sangha benefited from monarchs through material support for the upkeep of monasteries, particularly teaching monasteries (Mendelson 1975). The monarch, seeing the Sangha as the main source of moral legitimation for his political authority, not only endeavoured to maintain close ties with influential members of the order, but also contributed to its stability (Dhammasami 2018, p. 156). Education in royal Burma, according to Cheesman (2010; 48-49) was a key mechanism used by the monarchy to ‘civilise’ non-Buddhist groups into extending into the peripheral territories to assimilate people into the lowland polities. For this reason, monastic education played a key function in pre-colonial Myanmar as ‘... an explicit link between

the people and their religion, and by extension, their state. It transmitted standardised cultural and intellectual matters across all sectors of society. It instilled a valuable sense of discipline that allowed rulers to maintain control over their subjects and reinforced a respect for tradition and hierarchy' (Cheesman 2010; 49). Amongst the majority Buddhist population, monastic schools were highly effective in supporting the development of basic literacy skills in Burmese and Pali languages, and important elements of Buddhist doctrine (Shah and Cordozo 2019, p. 66). It's clear from the above that the link between Burmese Kings and Theravada Buddhism was a strong and enduring one.

Having presented an overview of the role of Theravada Buddhism in community and nation building, and the accompanying moral and spiritual legitimacy the religion gave the region's rulers, and looking at the features of Theravada Buddhism in royal Burma more specifically, an overview of the monastic provision of education in royal Burma will now be presented.

On considering the role of Theravada Buddhism in the provision of education in royal, pre-colonial Myanmar, an overview of the key beliefs and teachings of Buddhism is required. Firstly, perhaps the most fundamental belief of Buddhism is the Pali concept of Kamma (Karma in Sanskrit), in that it underlies religious practice, worship and education (Crosby 2014). Kamma is the view that good actions create a store of merit that leads to good experiences and rebirths and that bad actions create a store of demerit that leads to bad experiences and rebirths, which leads to perpetual existence in the cycle of suffering (Samsara). The ultimate goal within Buddhism is to achieve Nibbana or Enlightenment – freedom from the cycle of suffering. This belief underlies much Buddhist religious behaviour, which aims at 'making merit', that is, performing good action (Crosby 2014, p. 16). Secondly the Dhamma, the truth or teachings of the Buddha – which are the Buddhist scriptures, is eternal, in that it expresses 'the way things really are'. It takes a Buddha to realise this truth (Crosby 2014, p. 17). Finally, within this context, the Sangha (Monkhood) provides for ritual needs of the community and of the Buddha. At one end of the spectrum is the 'world renouncer' ideology, a life of meditation sought out by a small minority of monks, with relatively little ritual and social service for lay people. Across the rest of the spectrum are ritual, preaching, educational, and social roles that we



might more comfortably ascribe to priests (Crosby 2014, p. 199). The culmination of these three key teachings and beliefs within Buddhism – the goal of understanding Kamma, the preservation of the Dhamma, and the role of the Sangha – is to achieve Enlightenment and thereby escape the cycle of suffering (Crosby 2014, Dhammasami, 2018). Within this context, it is clear why the three gems of the Buddha, the Dhamma, and the Sangha are considered to be essential for the endurance of Buddhism (Han Tin, 2008).

Consequently, education at this time meant the study of morality as understood in the Buddhist religion; it was about ‘the development of moral and spiritual character’ here and hereafter, ‘mere learning devoid of this purpose was considered worthless’ (Rahula 1959 p. 290). As stated earlier, throughout Buddhist education the dominant theme was Kamma, which was represented through the scripture of the Buddha (Dhamma), and protected and taught by the Sangha (Dhammasami, 2018 p. 18).

However, despite their focus on the teaching of Kamma and the Dhamma, entrance into the Order of those seeking education, rather than salvation, forced monasteries to include in their curriculum subjects not directly related to attaining Nibbana, subjects later to be called secular subjects. The point here being, the Sangha had to redefine their curriculum. The aim now was not only to educate those who wished to free themselves from suffering, but also those with worldly motives. Bearing this in mind, well before the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the Sangha produced a curriculum for general education that took into account the needs of both the Sangha and society. This included texts on basic moral and monastic training as well as on vocational subjects current at the time. Occasionally, secular arts and sciences were integrated in the monastic curriculum to fulfil these secular requirements of education. Ultimately, the curriculum was designed and modified by individual abbots to suit the needs of their students, and never adopted nationally, despite similarities in curriculum between monasteries. As a result, what texts were actually used to teach monks and novices in individual monasteries remains unascertainable (Dhammasami 2018, p. 19).

Indeed, the strength of this informal monastic education system was its flexibility and decentralised governance. By offering secular and religious

knowledge, monasteries served the educational needs of society as well as those of the Sangha (Dhammasami 2018, p. 3). In practice, the push by successive kings during the royal, pre-colonial era in Myanmar to standardise monastic examinations with an idealistic view of the curriculum, which wouldn't include secular subjects, was resisted by the Sangha in order to preserve this autonomy in the development of their curricula and use of teaching methodologies (Dhammasami 2018). The motivations behind this goal by the monarchy changed over time, from attempting to control conscription, to fostering a nationalism within Buddhism that was intrinsically linked to both land and kingdom (Dhammasami 2018). It wasn't until the beginning of British expansionism in the 19<sup>th</sup> century into Myanmar, and the perceived imminent threat to Buddhism that the Sangha decided to adopt an exam system and corresponding curriculum on a widespread basis. This served to highlight that, notwithstanding the worldly motives of some novices and the inclusion of secular subjects, the primary purpose of education provided by the Sangha was the preservation of the scriptures, which according to David Wyatt, required of the monkhood 'a relatively high degree of scholarship and wider distribution of literacy' (1994, p.6, as referenced in Cheesman 2003).

Two dominant methods of teaching in monasteries emerged in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, both before and just after the reign of Mindon, the last king of Burma. These were the Mandalay method and the Pakokku method. As previously mentioned, in the latter period of the royal era of Myanmar, many monasteries adopted the formal examination system, which successive kings had attempted to implement with varying degrees of success. The teaching methodology which trained novices to pass these exams became known as the Mandalay method (Dhammasami 2018). In parallel, it was the opinion of a minority of monasteries that aspirations to pass a worldly exam corrupted the purity of motivation for novices, and they consequently studied the Dhamma for the purpose of spiritual and moral development only. This system became known as the Pakokku method (Ibid).

While the curriculum for the Mandalay method had a narrower focus than the Pakokku method, similar methodologies were used by both. Understanding of the texts was considered the key to success, and as such memorising, paraphrasing, and summarising were key features of both the Mandalay and

Pakokku methods (Ibid). Rote learning and chanting facilitated this process. Each tradition had its own excellence and, perhaps, shortcomings. The Pakokku student was valued for their mastery of a wealth of information, and for the ease with which they could locate any reference within the Canon. The Mandalay student, however, was marked by their mastery of grammar and logic. It was felt that any deficiencies in either method were remedied when one came to teach; graduates of the Pakokku method had a lot of information at their fingertips, and learnt coherence and logic through his teachings; while graduates of the Mandalay method were skilled in grammar and logic, and learnt to apply them practically by acquiring more information (Dhammasami 2018, p. 80-81).

Thus, it can be seen from the above that the history of royal, pre-colonial education in Myanmar is a long and rich one. The interplay between religion, community and nation building, and royal patronage created a situation whereby there was a tension in the perceived role of education. On the one hand, it was thought that secular or worldly skills should be taught for novices who intended to return to the lay world and thus wanted skills to be able to thrive there. On the other hand, there was the belief that education within Buddhism should be confined to the Dhamma and the ultimate goal of enlightenment, however many lifetimes that may take. Either way, the role of the Sangha and the monasteries they operated in played a fundamental part in the provision of this education. Indeed, the conceptualisation of teaching within this context is fundamentally tied to the social, spiritual and educational leadership role of the Sangha.

Bearing all of this in mind, teachers in Myanmar have traditionally been regarded as one of the five gems – which includes the three gems of the Buddha, the Dhamma and the Sangha, as well as parents and teachers – and considered on the same plane as the Buddha (who himself was a teacher). In such societies, teachers assume the role of substitute parents. This places a great amount of responsibility on them. The social roles of teachers and students are drawn so rigidly that expecting the latter to participate in dialogue and decision making is often deemed inappropriate (Han Tin 2008). The role Buddhism played in legitimising secular rule in royal Burma, coupled with the key community leadership and educational provision role of the Sangha,

ensures that the teaching and methodologies used during this era played a key part in the community and nation building process which was underway in Myanmar at the time, and contributes to their national identity today.

### 2.3. The Colonial Era

Myanmar was colonised by the British in phases during three Anglo-Burmese wars. The first war was from 1824-1826, which annexed areas along the southern seaboard; the second war was in 1852 and annexed the whole of lower Burma, with Rangoon (modern day Yangon) its administrative capital; the third was in 1885, after which the entirety of Burma was annexed into British rule and became a Province of British India (Lwin 2000; Myint 2007; Cordozo and Maber 2019). Thus, the royal era of Burma ended along with the royal patronage of its monasteries, who turned to the limited capacity of laypeople for their patronage to fill the gap left by the fall of the royal house (Myint 2007; Lwin 2000). The implications of the colonisation of Myanmar in terms of the role of Theravada Buddhism – via the Sangha – played in community and nation building, the provision of education, and in legitimising the secular rule of Royal Burma were to be fundamentally undermined, and inevitably lead to significant changes in Myanmar society, the role of the Sangha, and the provision of education.

Within this context, the roots of 20<sup>th</sup> century Burmese nationalism lay in growing Burmese perceptions that they were second-class citizens in their own country. There was a perception that British divide-and-rule policies and the loss of traditional authority structures, and the exploitation by the British and other foreigners of Burma's rich natural resources was fundamentally unfair. (Herbert, 1991). It was within this context that the nationalisation of the Sangha took root. As stated, the Sangha initially resisted the exam-oriented position of monarchs until the mid to late nineteenth Century. This acceptance of the Royal led exam system coincided with the British conquering of Lower Burma. Under this threat, the Sangha came to accept the King's idealism, and almost universally adopted the national exam system as an expression of nationalism in the face of this new threat. That was because Buddhism, of which monastic education was considered the foundation, was linked to the identity of Burma. When the nation and the monarchy were threatened by an

external enemy, the Sangha, too, felt threatened, and became nationalist (Dhammasami 2018; Crosby 2014).

The British colonial administration established an alternative to monasteries as the primary place of learning. Mass 'Western' style education, predicated on the teaching of the English language, was promoted and supported by the colonial administration. Graduates of these schools soon made their way into government service, to the exclusion of traditional leaders. Monastic schools quickly lost their prestige to the English language, church/government run schools and became seen as the poor man's bastion (Cheesman 2010, p. 51), and the colonial education system thus formed part of the British divide and rule tactics (Lwin 2000). This contributed to a decline in the demand for education in general, as most Burmese lacked access to the few English schools that had been set up. Firstly, this was due to the high fees and related costs involved, and secondly, some questioned if they wanted to participate in this colonial education system (Lwin 2000). As a result, literacy rates across the British administered areas dropped markedly.

By the 1930s, there was a multi-tiered system of schooling distinguished primarily by language of instruction and locus of control;

1. Vernacular schools (either Burmese or a recognised local language) that were run by local authorities.
2. Monastic schools which remained completely outside the state system.
3. Vernacular/English schools run by the colonial administration.
4. English only, private schooling opportunity open for the masses.

Thus, the fall of Royal Burma and its establishment as a province of British India had profound ramifications in every aspect of life, not least education. From an educational perspective, the state provision of education at the expense of the Sangha, and the corresponding demise of the prestige of monastic schools was perhaps the most pertinent change. The mainstreaming of secular education and its solely worldly role in Myanmar society was a dramatic change from the twin role of both the spiritual and secular functions of monastic education during Royal Burma.

## 2.4. Independence

Burma became independent in 1948 following the end of what was a catastrophic World War II for the country (Myint 2007). Education within independent Burma can be divided into four eras;

1. 1948-1962 was a democratic era.
2. 1962-2010 is characterised by the domination of all of Myanmar society, including education, by the Tatmadaw (Burmese military), which was headed by General Ne Win, who ruled from 1962-1988. Although the approach to education was consistent throughout this era, it can nonetheless be divided into two distinct military eras;
  - a. 1962-1988, which was a military junta with a socialist agenda under the auspices of the Burma Socialist Programme Party.
  - b. 1988-2010 was the era of the State Law and Order Restoration Council (SLORC), which was headed by the military and came into being as a direct result of the 1988 pro-democracy demonstrations led by Daw Aung San Suu Kyi.
3. 2010 to Feb 2021, which represented a shift from military rule to a limited form of democracy where the military are automatically allocated 25% of the seats in parliament, and they maintain uncontested control over key ministries, like defence and border affairs. This new political landscape was able to come about due to the passing of a contentious referendum to implement a new constitution in 2008 (Lwin 2000, Shah and Cordozo 2019, Myanmar EGRESS 2015). However, in the post 2021 coup context, parliament has been suspended and governance in Myanmar has been centralised through the military.
4. Feb 2021 to present whereby Parliament has been suspended and there is emergency military rule.

The legitimacy Theravada Buddhism has given the military junta in the independent era is noteworthy in that it is consistent with Royal, pre-colonial Burma. Since the beginning of military rule, relic tours have formed part of the relationship between China and Burma, in support of the Burmese junta's

aspirations to be seen as righteous rulers who protect the country's Buddhist legacy (Schober 1997; 225-226).

In terms of how the provision of education was perceived, the end of colonial rule in 1948 stratified education along several lines. Firstly, by loyalties or opposition to the colonial government, with monastic schools increasingly seen as the bastions of Burmese nationalism. Secondly, stratification happened by language of instruction, and thirdly, by educational opportunities and outcomes. As Lwin (2000; p. 5) notes, '*colonial education did not guarantee equality of opportunity in education for all citizens,*' and instead education during this time was marked by high levels of polarisation and alienation.

It was in this context that, in 1953, education was included as a key priority sector within the government's welfare state plans with the ambition that education support all citizens to gain literacy skills, support national reconstruction, imbue a sense of citizenship/allegiance towards the nation, and perpetuate practices of democracy. Additionally, a new curriculum was instituted which reorganised the education system into three levels; primary, middle and high school stages. Non-state education providers, specifically private schools, Christian schools, and Buddhist monastic schools were accepted and integrated into the post-independence system and given permission to maintain their autonomy under the 1951 Private Schools Act. These providers maintained similar approaches, including the teaching of English from an earlier age, the inclusion of religious education within the curriculum, and a focus on academic (or religious) education versus vocational education, which maintained a semblance of the stratified system that existed during the colonial era (Shah and Cardozo 2019, p. 67; Lwin 2000).

Following the country's military coup and installation of military rule in 1962, the direction and focus of education changed radically. Underpinning the new government's vision for education was the idea that it would promote livelihood opportunities, be founded in socialist moral values, and give precedence to science. Implicit in the government's plans for education was a clear push for the modernisation imperative. Priority was given to subjects that were perceived to advance economic growth and development, such as medicine, engineering and other maths and science-based disciplines,

particularly at the university level. Barring Buddhist monastic schools in rural areas, all other types of non-state schools were nationalised (Lwin 2000).

The monastic system was also revived under the Burmese socialist party rule as all schools were nationalised but could not reach across the whole country. Over time, however, monastic schools were also more tightly regulated and controlled by the state. All monastic schools were required to register with the government and accept ongoing state oversight, and later were centralised under the control of one common council. These policies served to reduce the power of individual monks and more tightly ascribe the educational programmes within monastic schools to only teaching its own novices (Cheesman 2010). By 1980, according to Martin (2013; 186), *'the education activities of monks were monitored and censored, as was the curriculum'*. In 1993, the government recognised that it could not effectively provide mass education to all, and opened the door to monastic schools teaching to a wider section of the community. Monastic schools were required to open under the provision that they register themselves with the government (Shah and Cordozo 2019, p. 69).

After 1962, Burmese was affirmed as the language of instruction and, with occasional variances, little space was given to the inclusion of other indigenous vernacular languages. A narrative was developed in the curriculum during the military regime that focused on stressing the 'Burmanness' of the nation, stressing Burmese culture as the norm of national identity, and important for the sake of national unity (Walton 2012, Salem-Gervais and Metro 2012). This sense of identity also extended to religion. While post-independence regimes had sought for the secularisation of schooling, the government's platform of socialism included in it the blending of material and religious elements of society. In schools, this extended to students paying homage on a daily basis to 'Five Gratuities,' also known as the five Gems, that included Buddha, Dhamma, and Sangha as well as teachers and parents (Maher 2019, p. 69).

As Myanmar has signed the 'Education for All' declaration, monastic schools today are seen as part of the solution to provide education across all sections of society and across the country. Only by including the monastic schools will the Myanmar government be able to demonstrate that there is a genuine



movement to promote universal education. Consequently, today monastic schools are going through interesting times and are in a more prominent position than at any time since independence. The ministerial language referring to monastic schools is reflecting these changes as what was formerly seen as 'non-formal' education is today increasingly referred to as 'formal'. The monastic schools can register with the Ministry of Religious Affairs and there is now a formal structure with monastic school committees at township, state/division and national level. Whilst there are still significant restrictions, advocacy at the National Committee level led to an agreement for Monastic schools to be included in the government sponsored (although limited) child centred teacher training programmes (Lall et al. 2013, p. 8).

An important consideration in both the provision and conceptualisation of education in Myanmar is that, since 1962, Myanmar has been in a constant state of civil war in the ethnic minority states of Shan, Chin, Kachin, Mon, Kayah and Kayin (Myint 2007). Their grievances stem from the Military government's unwillingness to accept the conditions of the Panglong Conference (1946-1947) which was convened by General Aung San – Daw Aung San Suu Kyi's father, and the person who is considered to be the father modern Burma due to this pivotal role in negotiating Burma's independence from Britain following the end of World War II (Myint 2007, Maher 2019, Lwin 2000). The conference agreed to the implementation of a federal system with Shan, Kachin and Chin States upon independence. After ten years, these states could decide to become independent or remain a part of the federal Burma. The military government has not recognised this agreement and ethnic minority states have fought for autonomy ever since (Myint 2007, Maher 2019). The impact this had on education has been significant. The concern that federalism would result in a weakened national state was countered by promoting a discourse of national unity, which denied cultural and religious plurality and allowed the enactment of increasingly restrictive and oppressive policies by the ruling junta. These policies consolidated political and economic power for the military at the expense of civil liberties across the population and prompted an increase in both political and ethnic resistance (Holliday 2011; 59). The ethnic conflicts are therefore intrinsically linked to the pro-democracy struggles, despite the

tendency to approach these conflicts independently (Mieke and Cordozo 2019, p. 38).

The role education played in disempowering ethnic minorities during the military junta era is striking. According to Callahan (2003 cited in Lall and South 2013), the precedent set during this time worked to assimilate and disempower ethnic minorities. From an early age, education quickly became a politicised mechanism for the military state to 'prevent children from learning how to think' by 'invoking ideas of loyalty and the image of obedient citizens (Lwin 2000; 15-16). To counter the repressive nature of the state-run education system, and its lack of capacity in providing education to remote and conflict affected areas, parallel education systems have been provided by local townships and militias which has put ethnic languages, culture and local needs at the fore (Lorcan 2008, Higgins 2019).

In relation to a legal right to access state education since independence, the controversial nature of legislation surrounding citizenship is a very important consideration. Upon Myanmar's independence from British colonial rule in 1948, the first Myanmar citizenship law was passed. The content of this law was based on the country's long history of conflict and diverse ethnic backgrounds. At that time, nationalism bonded the diverse ethnic groups of Myanmar together and a lot of nationalistic ideas were translated into the law (Lall et al. 2013, p. 10).

The two Citizenship Acts were based on sections 10, 11 and 12 of the 1947 Constitution of the Union of Burma. According to the Constitution the right of citizenship in Burma was defined in the following way

1. Any person whose parents belong or belonged to any of the indigenous races of Burma, or
2. Any person, born in any of the territories included with the Union, at least one of whose grandparents belong or belonged to any of the indigenous races of Burma, or
3. Any person born in any of the territories included within the Union, of parents both for whom are or if they had been alive at the commencement of this Constitution would have been, a citizen of Burma, or

4. Any person born in any of the territories at the time of birth was included within the British colonial dominions, and who has resided in any of the territories included within Burma for a period of not less than eight years in the ten years preceding the date of commencement of this constitution or immediately preceding the 1<sup>st</sup> of January 1942, and who intends to reside permanently there in and who signifies his election of citizenship of the Union in the manner and within the time prescribed by law, shall be a citizen of Burma (Tun Tun Aung, 2007).

During the 1970s the 1948 Citizenship Act was reviewed for six and a half years and in 1982 the new citizenship act was enacted (Lall et al. 2013, p. 11).

According to General Ne Win who introduced the law at the president's house on the 8<sup>th</sup> Oct 1982, the law was written so as to protect Myanmar from foreign subjugation. Ne Win emphasised the fact that Burma had been annexed as of 1824. *'During this period between 1824 and the time when we regained independence in Jan 1948, foreigners, or aliens, entered our country unhindered under various pretexts. We, the natives of Burmese nationalism, were unable to shape our own destiny* (Ne Win, 1982). He distinguished between true nationals, and guests and those born of mixed unions and explains the difference between citizens, guests who have registered for citizenship (associate citizens) and guests who have not registered for citizenship within the legal time frame (naturalised citizen). In his speech Ne Win emphasises that since the grandchildren of these associate and naturalised citizens will become full citizens in the future, there would only be full citizens within two generations (Lall et al. 2013, p. 11).

*There are three types of citizens at present as said earlier. There will only be one type in our country at some time in the future, that is there will be only citizens. When the grandchild is given citizenship, he will, just like any other citizen, become a full citizen* (Ne Win 1982).

The 1982 Citizenship Law, which is still in effect, contains special provisions for ethnic groups who came into the country after the beginning of the first Anglo-Burmese War. It also states that the Council of State can determine whether an ethnic group is national or not. (Lall et al. 2013, p. 11-12).

Under the 1982 Citizenship Law there are two types of citizenship: 1) Native Citizenship and 2) Legal Citizenship

1. Native citizens: Nationals such as Kachin, Kayah, Kayin, Chin, Bamar, Mon, Rakhine, Shan and other ethnic groups who have been settled in the territory of Myanmar since 1823 and their descendants. No one can revoke their citizenship without a strong reason. A 'Certificate of Citizenship' is issued to them.
2. Legal Citizen: Citizens who are not nationals but qualify to become a Myanmar citizen according to the legal framework. The 3<sup>rd</sup> generation of residents who arrived before 1948 will be issued 'Certificate of Citizenship' automatically even though they are not 'nationals. Within the legal citizenship category there are two sub-categories
  - a. Associate citizens – people who became Myanmar citizens according to the 1948 citizenship law. A 'Certificate of Citizenship' is issued for this category.
  - b. Naturalised citizens – people who had been residing in Myanmar before independence (4<sup>th</sup> Jan 1948) and their descendants who have strong supporting evidence and documents that they were eligible for citizenship under the 1948 citizenship law. A 'Certificate of Citizenship' is issued for this category (p. 12).

These legal requirements have had profound ramifications on the conceptualisations of the rights and responsibilities of citizens in Myanmar – not least access to education –. Indeed, the main findings of a report undertaken by Myanmar EGRESS in 2015, who are a non-profit organisation founded by Myanmar scholars and social workers in order to forward the agenda of modern nation state building in Myanmar (Ibid), found that:

- There were differing expectations on rights by ethnicity: Equal rights for all were a theme that transcended all questionnaires. There were, however, regional differences on whether the fairness was based on access to resources (Bamar) or a federated concept of ethnic rights and national rights (other ethnic groups).

- There was a growing sense of Buddhism as part of the national identity that serves to discriminate/divide more than unite. Indeed, a very large number of respondents within the Buddhist ethnic groups – i.e., not only Bamar respondents, equate citizenship with religion, or seem to think that in order to be Myanmar one has to also be Buddhist. This religious nationalism if not dealt with carefully could serve to alienate other groups with a different religious identity (p. 3).

The implications all of this has had on the current state of Myanmar education are profound, and indeed represents the basis upon which the reform process has been undertaken. From language of instruction, access to basic education, the learning objectives of the curriculum, the provision of education, and state funding for basic education – all of these factors have been fundamentally influenced by the political makeup of Myanmar since independence.

## 2.5. Educational Reform: 2010 – Present

The most recent era of Myanmar independence up to the 2021 coup has been characterised by widespread reform. This has been achieved by the lifting of Western sanctions, invitations from successive governments to development partners to facilitate the reform process, and the election of the National League for Democracy (NLD), which is headed by the once lauded Nobel Peace Prize Laureate, Daw Aung San Suu Kyi (Mieke and Cardozo 2019; UNESCO 2017; Lall et al; 2013; The World Bank 2015). This section will focus on the impact this aforementioned political makeup has had on the education system in Myanmar, the motivations behind the reform process, the development partners involved, an overview of the various projects that have taken place, and the objectives of key actors in the reform process (Lwin 2000, Myint 2008, Shah and Cordozo 2019, Lall et al. 2013, UNESCO 2016, 2017, Hardman et.al 2013, Hardman et al. 2016).

As previously stated, the educational reform agenda began in earnest in 2010 after the first general election held since 1990, when the military government refused to accept the results (Myint 2007). Since 2010, the Myanmar government has invited multiple development partners to evaluate the system as it stands, make recommendations for improvement, and undertake projects to achieve these improvements in collaboration with Non-Governmental

Organisations (NGOs). The pillars of this reform movement were The Comprehensive Education Sector Review (MOE 2014) and the National Education Strategic Plan 2016-2021 (MOE 2016) - undertaken in participation with development partners. This section will provide information related to the development partners who have undertaken studies of the education system in Myanmar, along with the recommendations from their findings, and the projects which are currently underway and have recently been completed. The studies done by development partners in this context have included; teacher education, governance, literacy, deployment, language of instruction, gender, curriculum, quality assurance, and teaching methodologies.

#### 2.5.1. The Comprehensive Education Sector Review (CESR)

In the summer of 2012, Myanmar embarked on a Comprehensive Education Sector Review Programme (CESR). The political context of the CESR is important to consider in establishing the motivations and objectives behind it. In his inaugural speech on 30 March 2011, President U Thein Sein committed the government to a wholesale reform of the education sector as part of a broader package of reforms that aimed to herald the country's transition to a liberal democratic state. The Framework for Economic and Social Reform (November 2012) subsequently set out a policy framework for reforms to the education system that would consider issues of access, quality and management within all levels of the sector. In Feb 2012, the MOE agreed to undertake a Comprehensive Education Sector Review (CESR) as a response to this agenda. It was argued in the Terms of Reference for the review that it was;

*... required in order to ensure that there is a full and comprehensive understanding of the current status of education in Myanmar, regarding access and quality across the sub-sectors; as well as current strengths and gaps in policy, capacity, management systems, financing and partnership. This will support the implementation of priority reforms and the assessment of realistic policy options to form the basis of a costed, strategic education sector plan. These, in turn, have the potential to address the challenges and greatly accelerate progress towards realisation of Myanmar's education and socio-economic goals (MOE 2013, 2).*

The CESR was in 3 phases, producing a comprehensive education plan by the summer of 2014. The education consortium was led by UNICEF, closely supported by donors and development partners (DPs) such as AUSAID and the World Bank amongst others. The MOE invited all interested DPs to take part, and many took the opportunity to engage with the ministry for the first time. Their focus was mostly on reviewing state education and the formal sector around the country (Lall 2015, p. 11).

The primary rationale for this reform has been and continues to be driven by an imperative to 'modernise' an education system that is perceived to be antiquated and irrelevant to Myanmar's current position in the regional and international global political economy. Specifically, Myanmar's democratisation as well as accession to ASEAN (Shah et al. 2019, p. 89). The CESR's responsibilities encompassed all sectors of teaching and learning, from early childhood education to Higher Education and involved a wide range of ministries and departments that had a stake in education. After the first phase of work, proposals under consideration by the CESR included increasing basic education from 11 to 12 years, and changing teachers' career structures. The former could resolve the time crunch teachers face to cover the curriculum, although practicalities of such a transfer are complex. The latter is particularly important as teachers who want to get promoted move to secondary schools, resulting in large student teacher ratios in primary schools with the least experienced teachers teaching these classes. The CESR also reviewed language policies (including the teaching of English) and recommended the translation of textbooks into ethnic languages (Lall 2015, p. 11).

The CESR process aimed to develop a strong evidence-base and use such evidence to drive policy decision-making. The use of data, and particularly the employment of evidence-based decision-making was driven by a belief, particularly amongst the international community, that doing so would result in greater transparency, and force issues to be decided on the basis of data, rather than political agendas (Shah et al. 2019, p. 91). However, in relation to teacher education, according to UNESCO (2017, p. 15) capacity within the MOE to take on evidence-based teacher education reforms and the understanding of the fundamentals of teacher education and curriculum development at all levels is still developing, and needs continued support (p. 15). This is

demonstrable of the fact that, although the CESR was an important exercise in evaluating the state provision of education relative to the objective of having a ‘modern’ system, which is fit for their domestic political and economic context, as well as their broader regional economic considerations, there are infrastructural limitations to their capacity to undertake the recommendations in a transparent data driven manner.

#### 2.5.2. The National Education Strategic Plan (NESP) 2016-2021

The findings of the CESR played a significant role in the drafting of the National Education Strategic Plan (2016-2021) (MOE 2016). Launched in Feb 2016, the NESP identified nine transformation shifts, of which teacher education and management were a key part. Addressing the importance of the recognition of prior informal learning, quality assurance of higher education as well as certification of vocational learning were also addressed – all of which hints at the development of a national framework for qualifications. Access, quality and inclusion, as well as Continuous Professional Development (CPD) for teachers and teacher education were also addressed (MOE 2016). It specifically refers to the establishment of a Teacher Competency Framework (TCF) as a fundamental component of a teacher quality assurance system where competence is assessed against standard teacher competencies outlined by the MOE (UNESCO 2017, p. 11). The MOE is considering the ways in which the TCF can contribute to an improved teacher promotion system, teacher career regime and teacher performance assessment system. Donors and multilaterals are waiting for the latest version of the TCSF to align with various aspects of their programmes (UNESCO 2017, p. 23).

The 2016 NESP argues that;

*Myanmar has embarked on a period of profound political, economic and social change involving three major transitions to; a democratic governance system, a market-oriented economy, and peace within its border area (p. 32).*

The language of modernisation is inherent in the Ministry of Education’s (MOE’s) vision and motto which are to ensure that the country’s education system, ‘promotes a learning society capable of facing the challenges of the Knowledge Age’ and that it helps to build a ‘modern developed nation through



*education'*, respectively (MOE 2013; 1). This is also reflected in the rationale for the CESR and ensuring development of the National Education Strategic Plan (NESP). The NESP chapter on access, quality and inclusion stresses the importance of improving inclusive access to quality education provision from a human capital and economic development paradigm. Specifically, the chapter, citing research from the World Bank, argues that improving access will; *'...have a high impact on poverty reduction, although its impact will not be realised in the short term'* (NESP 2016, p. 3). In sum, the key driver for reforms at present is focussed on improving educational service delivery to ensure that the education system promotes, rather than hinders, broader macro-economic reform processes (Shah et al. 2019, p. 89).

### 2.5.3. Teacher Education and the Reform Agenda

There have been a number of studies evaluating the provision of basic education more broadly, and teacher education more specifically since 2010 (Lall 2011; Lall et al. 2013; Lall. 2015, 2016, 2020; Hardman et al. 2013; The World Bank 2015; British Council 2015; Borg et al. 2018; Hardman et al. 2016; UNESCO 2016(a), (b), (c); UNESCO 2017; Cardozo and Mieke et al. 2019). Most of these studies have either fed into or been influenced by the CESR (2014) and the NESP (2016) and have contributed to the prominent position that teacher education possesses in the reform agenda (NESP 2016). The aspects of teacher education that have been covered in these studies are, recruitment, deployment, language policy, curriculum appropriateness and reform, pedagogic approach, teaching practice, academic governance, quality assurance and certification, teacher professionalism, educational infrastructure, mode of delivery, career progression and promotion, gender, and the role of civil society in administering the provision of universal basic education by the state. An overview of the findings of these studies of teacher education in the reform process will be presented, and their recommendations for reform will also be touched on.

Firstly, successful recruitment is seen to be tied to the quality of the students who undertake initial teacher education (ITE) and this is related to the corresponding social and professional status the job has in any given society (Lall et al. 2013; Lall 2015; Hardman et al. 2016, Darling-Hammond et al. 2012). It is generally recognised that the quality of recruitment for teacher education

in Myanmar is low (Lall et al. 2013, Lall 2015, Hardman et al. 2013, Hardman et al. 2016). This is due to the extremely low remuneration for teachers, the relatively low matriculation scores required for entry into the programmes, the perception that conditions of teaching roles are difficult – due to lack of resources, poor infrastructure and a lack of control over deployment (Lall 2015, Hardman et al. 2016). There also seems to be consensus in the literature that recruitment will remain an area of concern until these underlying causes are addressed (Lall 2015, Hardman et al. 2016).

Deployment, career opportunities, and remuneration are all consistently present in the reform agenda of basic education in developing contexts, and this is very much the case in Myanmar as well (Samberg 2012; Bird et al. 2013; Broch 2016; DFID 2010, 2013). Indeed, these features of the basic education system in Myanmar also have a gendered component to them. Graduates of ITE have no control over where they are deployed and could easily be sent to a remote ethnic area, which may be in an area of conflict, where the first language is not Myanmar, where there is very limited access, and multi-grade classes (Lall et al. 2013; Lall 2015; Hardman et al. 2013; Hardman et al. 2016). These are considered hardship posts, which are rewarded by expedited career progression and increased salaries (Ibid). Due to the remoteness, lack of access and security concerns associated with these hardship posts, lack of training in multilingual contexts and multi grade classes, newly graduated female teachers are extremely reluctant to take them up and consequently miss out on the career development and salary opportunities of these postings. This is one of the reasons why men are disproportionately represented in senior management roles compared to women. According to a study by Lall et al. (2013), this is a source of frustration among female teachers and is considered to be one of the many reforms which should be prioritised, as it is seen by female teachers to be an unfair advantage for men.

Indeed, as previously stated, the promotion system in Myanmar is heavily related to years of experience and qualifications, with no weight given to process variables. Promotions are tied to the age of students in basic education, with secondary school teachers being the most experienced, best qualified and on the highest salaries. Conversely, primary school teachers are often newly qualified teachers on extremely low salaries (Lall et al. 2013, Lall 2015,

Hardman et al. 2013, Hardman et al. 2016). While this has been recognised in the literature as a problem, there is currently no provision in the NESP to reform this promotion system (MOE 2016).

The lack of training in multi-grade and language contexts, and the strong correlation this has with deployment puts the curriculum in teacher education in a prominent position in terms of preparedness upon graduation to meet the demands of many of the postings. Teacher trainees in Myanmar are required to have graduated with a matriculation from high school. Many of them are younger than their peers in the region as schools start at the age of 5 and only run for 11 years, meaning that many enter the ECs between the ages of 16 and 17. The two pathways to ITE are as follows:

1. The undergraduate Diploma in Teacher Education (DTEd) is a two-year full-time post matriculation course.
2. There is also a new Pre-primary Teacher Training programme (PTTT), which is a four months post-graduate qualification to become a primary school teacher.

The DTEd allows teachers to teach at middle school level. Although they will start as primary assistant teachers when they graduate then move up to middle schools after 5 years, when they can become junior assistant teachers (JAT) (Lall 2015, p. 10; UNESCO 2016). If teacher trainees want to become secondary school teachers or move on to administrative posts in education, they need a B. Ed degree that can be acquired at the Institutes of Education (IoE) in Yangon and Sagaing, for those in Lower and Upper Myanmar respectively. Students can either study at the IoEs straight after leaving secondary school for 5 years to get the B. Ed, or after taking their diploma at one of the ECs. In that case they have to complete a 3-year course at the IoE (Lall 2015, p. 10; UNESCO 2016).

According to Hardman et al. (2013) the curriculum for ITE is considered to be overloaded with theory at the expense of practice, and is outdated. The general curriculum of Initial Teacher Education (ITE) in Myanmar covers;

1. Subject content knowledge; knowledge and understanding of school subjects in the basic education curriculum (referred to as academic subjects and are taught by academic TEs.

2. Pedagogic content knowledge; teaching methods and ways of assessing learning related to specific subject areas and matched to the capabilities of learners (referred to as methods and co-curricular courses, and are taught by methodology and co-curricular TEs).
3. Professional Studies; understanding of how children learn, knowledge and skill in classroom management and pastoral care, craft knowledge of effective techniques to promote learning, acquisition of professional identities as a teacher, awareness of relevant educational legislation, responsibilities etc.
4. Teaching practicum; opportunities to practise teaching under supervision from teachers, head teachers and assistant township education officers (ATOs).

In Hardman's observation of training sessions in Education Colleges (2013), it was found that the model of teaching the students were being presented with was essentially transmission-based, stressing hierarchical learning of knowledge and conventional teacher-fronted classroom organisation. It was also evident that key areas in teacher preparation, such as multi-grade teaching, the teaching of languages other than Myanmar and inclusive education, were largely absent from the curriculum (Hardman et al. 2016). The overloaded curriculum also meant there is too much focus on lecturing and rote learning in the lessons observed, with tutors using closed questions and cuing choral responses from the students with little opportunity to practise important skills and concepts that are central to the practice of teaching (Hardman et al. 2013). This centralised education college curriculum, while creating a uniformity in approach, appeared to be too general, overcrowded, and in need of radical reform to develop specialism and expertise in the different phases of basic education (early years, primary, middle and secondary school). The academic day for students was also overcrowded with little opportunity provided for private study, reflection and the practising of teaching skills (Hardman et al. 2013).

The centralised nature of the teacher education curriculum is indicative of the centralised nature of academic governance and decision-making in the education sector more generally. Since taking office in April 2016, the Myanmar NLD Government announced that improving the quality of teachers was to be

the priority within their education reform agenda – this situation is now in flux due to the military coup which took place in February 2021.

However, no cohesive and comprehensive framework, under which clear teacher education policies and strategies have been articulated. As such, there is no high-level coordinating mechanism for teacher education. In other countries, coordinating mechanisms are used to ensure coherence and coordination across the education sector. Such coordinating systems vary from the creation of external inspectorate bodies to assess quality, through to school-based quality assurance systems. The absence of a high-level coordinating mechanism for teacher education has resulted in responsibility for planning for teacher education becoming spread across several departments. The Department of Higher Education (DHE) is responsible for the ECs, while other forms of in-service training are administered by the Department of Basic Education (DBE) and the Department of Educational Research, Planning and Training (DERPT) (UNESCO 2017). The result of this centralisation of the academic governance in ECs is that the curriculum is rigid and inflexible, and there is a lack of representation of stakeholders in governance structures with either reporting or decision-making powers.

Teacher shortage has proven to be a consistent problem in Education and Development (Moon and Umar 2013; UNESCO 2016), and Myanmar is no exception in this regard. The training and recruitment of para-qualified and unqualified teachers has been a short-term measure undertaken in many educational reform contexts in the developing world (Moon and Umar 2013, UNESCO 2016), and again, Myanmar is no exception. More recently in 2013, and as a part of the education reforms and a way to increase the number of teachers in schools, uncertified teachers who have been working at monastic or private schools have been training and are then employed at a lower salary and without benefits. After a year they can become permanent staff. Since the start of the policy an additional 72,000 teachers (representing nearly a quarter of all teachers employed) have been recruited and deployed in this way (Lall 2015, p. 10). However, there are fewer ethnic minority teachers than there are Bamar counterparts, in part because the matriculation exam is offered only in Burmese, which is not the mother tongue of many of the ethnic students (Lall 2015).

The importance of teaching practice (practicum) in ITE is almost universally acknowledged (Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012; Mattsson et al. 2011; Menter et al. 2018; Sahlberg 2012; Goodwin 2012). However, the model on how to go about maximising the impact of practicum is contested (Kennedy 2016; Draper 2012; Levin 2012; Darling-Hammond 2012). The fundamental basis of this contestation lies in whether the practicum should be school-led or university-led. The school-led model puts teachers as mentors in a central role, thus seemingly prioritising practice at the expense of theory, and the university-led model provides more access to research and developing research literacy, at the perceived expense of practice (Cochran-Smith 2017, Mutton 2016). In Education and Development literature, there is an overwhelming preference for the school led model of ITE (UNESCO 2011; Moon and Wolfenden 2013; Hardman et al. 2013; Hardman et al. 2016). This model is seen to address the issue of a lack of space in the university model, offers more access to remote areas due to the potential for a dispersed mode of delivery, is cheaper, and maximises the use of the existing system (UNESCO 2011; Moon 2013; Hardman et al. 2013; Hardman et al. 2016) This preference holds true in the case of Myanmar.

Teaching practice in Myanmar has been recognised in the CESR (2014) and NESP (2016) as being in urgent need of reform. This is due to the fact that there are perceived to be weak partnerships with schools, teacher educators don't play any role in observing or assessing the trainees, head teachers and Township Education Officers (TMOs), who are responsible for mentoring and assessing the trainees, have not received the necessary training to act as mentors, and trainees spend a lot of their time observing classes and helping with administrative tasks instead of actually practising their teaching (Hardman et al. 2013; Hardman et al. 2016, Lall et al. 2013). The culmination of these factors ensures that trainees feel unprepared to take on the responsibility of teaching their own class on graduation (Lall et al. 2013; Lall 2015).

The NESP (2016) has confirmed the Ministry of Education's ambitions to strengthen partnerships between ECs and schools, and the literature on the reform of teacher education in Myanmar (Hardman et al. 2013; Hardman et al. 2016) strongly recommends implementing a school led model of teaching practice. The school-based partnership model is intended to promote a

collaborative framework of shared values and goals built around the development of teacher competencies expected of an 'experienced' and 'expert' teacher. Such a partnership will ensure long-term and sustained cooperation and collaboration and will strengthen the theory-practice nexus. It is also believed that this approach will help build clear roles and responsibilities for each partner at different points in the teacher education continuum (Hardman et al. 2013, p. 27). While the importance of teaching practice is consistent within the literature, the contested nature of the mode of delivery – school-led versus university-led – has not been addressed here and will be explored further in the next chapter.

The professionalisation of teaching is a consistent theme in the studies that have been undertaken on teacher education in Myanmar (UNESCO 2017; Hardman et al. 2013; Hardman et al. 2016) and is strongly represented in the NESP (2016). The expectation is that this professionalisation of the teaching profession will be achieved by enhancing representation in governance structures, clarifying professional competencies, and enhancing accountability via a teaching competency framework, improve the quality of pre- and in-service teacher education and continuous professional development (CPD), and improving the quality of teaching practice by enhancing partnerships between Education Colleges and schools (NESP 2016; UNESCO 2016).

Within the context of professionalising the teaching profession in Myanmar and in partnership with the Government of Australia and UNESCO, the Strengthening Teacher Education in Myanmar (STEM) programme has been working with the Myanmar Government MOE since July 2014 to address critical issues in pre-service teacher education. Through STEM, UNESCO has provided the MOE with technical and capacity-building support for the development of a key teacher policy framework, the restructure and redesign of pre-service teacher education curriculum and programmes, and the strengthening of Education Colleges (EC) institutional management and IT technology (UNESCO 2017; UNESCO 2016a, b, c).

Against a shifting landscape of centralisation and some preliminary decentralisation shifts, the government, supported by UNICEF and other international donors, has been driving the first step towards a new system of

teacher accountability. This new system referred to as the 'competency framework' is not necessarily unique to Myanmar. The competency framework aims to enhance accountability through identifying competencies for various educators- including teachers at different levels, teacher educators as well as management staff – through a participatory process of consultation. They are also seen to provide codes of conduct for these various educators at different scales. These jointly agreed compilations of competencies then are foreseen to be used to hold those different educational stakeholders accountable for their work (Higgins and Paul 2019).

Robertson (2012) has, however, suggested that there is a danger that the generic nature of competency frameworks and a looming lack of context – and conflict – specificity is largely unresponsive to the needs of Myanmar's diverse regions. Firstly, drawing unproblematically on international best practices might not be the ideal solution in a conflict-affected situation, where numerous educators are operating in non-state and other parallel systems. There are other systems of teacher accountability operating in the country, such as community-based systems of teacher support and control, which are largely ignored and marginalised. Here, accountability is more framed at local levels around the appropriateness of the background of the teacher (e.g., ethnicity, language, gender, age, commitment to locality, and the importance of local knowledge). Secondly, given the fractured nature of the education system, a generic competency framework developed at the central (majority-dominated) level potentially exacerbates tensions and feelings of being ignored and excluded. Thirdly, then, the internationally driven, neoliberal-inspired efficiency agenda that drives such a framework to shift responsibility to local levels and individual teachers (Robertson 2012), has the potentially negative effect of continuing or reviving authoritarian/coercive systems of control over teachers, rather than providing much needed support in difficult working conditions. Finally, these competencies are often developed with an image that is much more favourable than the actual under-resourced school reality most Myanmar teachers face (Higgins and Paul 2019).

As such, the success of drafting and implementing a teaching competency framework is not without its problems, especially when considering that the approach taken by the Ministry of Education has been to adopt a Western



approach. The nature of the professional accountability within this framework pivots around the use of a Learner Centred Approach (LCA), the implementation of which is also something that has proven to be problematic in Myanmar's educational reform agenda.

Indeed, the pedagogic implications of the educational reform process in Myanmar relates strongly to the implementation of the LCA (NESP 2016, Lall, 2011, Lall et al. 2013, Lall 2015). As previously stated, the pedagogic model that has been used in Myanmar is a teacher-fronted transmission model, where rote learning, choral response, and the use of closed questions are common, with very little variation in interactive patterns. There is perceived to be little, if any, learner autonomy, critical thinking is perceived to be under-developed, with higher-order thinking skills and problem solving neglected (Lall 2011; Hardman et al. 2013; Hardman et al. 2016). Within this context, international aid and education organisations see LCA as a much more progressive form of teaching and learning. Therefore, it is promoted as a panacea to Myanmar's many education challenges.

The LCA arrived in Myanmar through funders such as UNICEF and JICA in the later 1990s/early 2000s. Although the LCA is government endorsed and UNICEF and JICA started to train teachers in the state sector, it is hardly applied in state schools. However, today, the LCA has been embraced by national and local NGOs and is rolled out through monastic school networks aided by international NGOs with international aid money, which often also benefits commercial teacher training providers and consultants who charge high fees for their training packages. The net effect of the interplay of the aid money, the international education and local network has resulted in a 'policy flow' from the Global North to the Global South with little attention paid to local teacher and parent voices (Lall 2011, p. 220).

The LCA stands in contrast to a highly prescribed curriculum where a great deal of judgement and decision-making is removed from the classroom teacher. Historically, there has been a struggle between the teacher centred approach, which focuses on performance (outcomes, measurement and management) and the LCA, which has learning (process, construction and participation) at its heart. This dispute continues today, as many Western countries have returned

to a teaching methodology which favours performance and measurement and has consequently eroded the child centred learning approach as schools operate in an increasingly competitive environment. However, in many developing countries there is an increased push to operate in an LCA environment. – something supported by international organisations such as UNICEF and JICA, western aid and development budgets from ministries such as the UK Department for International Development (DFID), as well as an ideological position that LCA is the ‘better’ way of teaching and learning and something which should be brought from the West to the developing world as a policy flow. A critical engagement with the approach is generally not encouraged. Consequently, what can be witnessed in schools across Asia and Africa today is more often than not linked to UN and other developmental organisations who have built LCA-based educational programmes suited for schools in developing countries (Lall 2011, p. 224; Schweisfurth 2015).

At a global level there has increasingly been a convergence in discourse, values and policies resulting in policy borrowing where similar solutions are being offered for differing problems in different settings. Mostly this is manifested in the spread of privatisation policies (Draxler 2016). Part of the international structures which have helped establish similar economic practices in developing countries are the World Bank and the IMF. Their advocated structural reform programmes across developing countries have ensured that the message of the efficiency and effectiveness of the markets as providers of public services such as education has reached developing countries. The push for the LCA is in a way a similar form of convergence of discourse, pushed by international agencies such as UNICEF, focusing on ‘effective’ teaching. The Western idea that the LCA is a ‘good’ way of teaching and all other ways are ‘bad’ has led to changes in education policies in developing countries such as India and Pakistan. In Myanmar the MOE has also endorsed the new method and allowed for its teachers to be trained. (Lall 2011, p. 225).

As such, in many ways, the LCA has become a central part in the globalised education policy that is exported by UN agencies and international aid and development ministries and facilitated by their corresponding budgets. Whilst the exporting institutions and countries have tried very hard to ‘sell’ the policy to the Myanmar government and its MOE, they have had much more success in

the semi-formal monastic systems, largely because the monastic schools are underfunded and do not have access to any form of training. The aid money which is distributed to these schools comes in the form of teacher training and workshops which promote this approach. In doing so, the NGOs and Northern governmental departments for development have created alliances with the monastic networks and managed to circumvent the state. Local NGOs that have picked up training contracts have developed a cascading model where one trainer trains a number of teachers as trainers or training them how to apply the methodology. The two types of training are distinct, but often those who have received some training are expected to be able to train others even if they were not actually trained as trainers. Education consultants operate across the country, promoting their particular brand of training and the LCA (which is often paid for again by NGOs) (Hardman 2013, p. 225).

The use of development partners in the reform process and the role of NGOs within this relationship has proven to be problematic as well. One of the features of the role of development partners and NGOs in the reform agenda of basic education systems in a development context is the lack of collaboration and communication between stakeholders, which leads to an inefficient use of resources, with confusion and duplication of training being common (Kaldor 2003; Anderson 2011; Strutt and Keep 2010; Prakash and Gugerty 2010). Again, this has proven to be the case in Myanmar, with duplication of training in monastic contexts and a lack of collaboration and communication in the UNESCO STEM project contributing to a lack of progress in achieving their objectives (Lall 2011; UNESCO 2017).

Prior to 2016, collaboration between development partners, the military government, and NGOs has led to a significant amount of distrust in ethnic areas who often provide parallel education systems, which do not receive any funding or training. Considering the Bamarisation of the education system in terms of the prominence of Myanmar as the language of instruction, and the central role of Buddhism in expressions of national identity, along with the often brutal military suppression of autonomous/federal aspirations, any alignment with the military regime has been seen to support their politics, ideology and military conflicts with these ethnic areas (Lorch 2008; Mieke and Cardozo 2019).

In Myanmar's context, the adoption of the LCA calls for a conceptual shift from teachers as transmitting knowledge to their students in a hierarchical top-down manner, to a facilitative and flexible approach which puts the students and their needs and interests at the centre of the lessons, thus relinquishing much of the authoritative capital that is symptomatic of their historical cultural context (Dhammasami 2018; Crosby 2014; Lall 2011). It was found that teacher educators are not able to challenge the strong images that teaching students bring to their training shaped by their earlier educational experiences because many teacher educators generally hold the same beliefs and perpetuate a transmission mode of instruction (Hardman et al. 2016). Because of their own experiences of being taught in primary and secondary school, student teachers and untrained and under-trained teachers usually have strongly formed images of good primary teachers prior to starting their training. Often these models are essentially transmission-based which stress hierarchical learning of knowledge and conventional teacher-centred classroom organisation. Hardman et al. (2013) have suggested that this re-conceptualisation of the role of teachers and teaching should be a core component in the curriculum reform. It was suggested that the incorporation of reflective practice with the goal of trainees taking ownership of this re-conceptualisation be a key to its success (Hardman et al. 2013, p. 6-7). This is no small task considering the historical connection between the provision of education and the Sangha. The cultural and societal conceptualisation of teachers in Myanmar has evolved over a millennium, and how to go about making this conceptual shift within this historical cultural religious context is not yet clear (Dhammansani 2018).

There are also practical considerations, as well as conceptual considerations in the adoption of the LCA. These include insufficient teaching aids, inappropriate class sizes and large student to teacher ratios, small class spaces and outdated curriculum in other subjects, especially the science subjects (Lall et al. 2013)

Thus, the deficiencies of the state-run education system in Myanmar have been well documented and are consistent with the broader literature related to education and development, which will be explored in the next chapter.

Indeed, in a study by UNESCO (2017) it was found that the culmination of the above features of the teacher education system in Myanmar has resulted in a number of challenges, including;

1. Unqualified teachers. It is estimated that 25% of Myanmar's teachers are not qualified.
2. Inexperienced graduates. New graduates from ECs are young (between 18 and 19 years old, and in rural areas can be as young as 15 or 16 years old) and lack teaching experience, with practical experience limited to observations.
3. Promotion system follows a schooling structure. Primary schools are mostly staffed with the less experienced and capable teachers. The promotional system is based on the school structure of the newly graduated or hired teachers starting in primary schools and promoted to secondary school teaching positions.
4. School leadership positions receive inadequate training. The leadership (head teachers), management and assessment (Township Education Officers (TEO) and Assistant Township Education Officer (ATEO) positions within the school system are not provided with relevant training and are overloaded with administrative tasks. Examples of relevant training includes management and leadership training for head teachers (p. 13).

These observations along with the push for pedagogic renewal from teacher- to learner-centred, language of instruction in ethnic areas, multi-grade classes, deployment, and teacher professionalisation; and the centralisation of governance structures means that achieving the objectives of the reform process will be protracted and difficult.

## 2.6. Conclusion

Interestingly, very few, if any of the studies conducted by development partners mentioned above take into account the historical, cultural, and religious legacy of royal, pre-colonial Myanmar or the impact of one hundred plus years of colonial rule. The link these eras have to the conceptualisation of teachers and teaching from royal Burma to now, along with the nationalisation of Buddhism during the colonial era are substantial. Both of these features have a direct impact on contemporary education policy and pedagogy. As previously stated, the Sangha were originally the sole providers of education in royal Burma, and indeed still play a key role in the provision of basic education in remote and poor areas. This historical legacy within the provision of education

has had the result of teachers being included as one of the five gems of Buddhism, the result being the leading social role of teachers, and the deference of their students. The legitimacy Theravada Buddhism gave the Military Junta, and the use of Buddhism as expressions of nationalism in the contemporary education system are a direct result of British colonial rule. Indeed, key impacts of the 1982 citizenship act have been to tie being Buddhist with being Myanmar, and the exclusion of entire ethnicities from citizenship, thus depriving access to basic education. The consideration of these factors is key to addressing this research question.

## Chapter 3 - Education and Development – Literature Review

### 3. Introduction

The purpose of the English for Education College Trainers (EfECT) project was to improve the English proficiency of Myanmar's teacher educators (TEs) and to introduce them to modern methodology (British Council 2015, p. 9). The fact that this project was conceived, developed and provided in the Education and Development sector, with the UK's Department for International Development (DfID), and the British Council funding it, suggests that an overview of this sector is required in order to provide the backdrop in which the EfECT project took place.

In order to achieve this, the literature review will be divided into three broad sections. The first section will look at the theories of development behind the International Development Goals (such as the Sustainable Development Goals).

The second section will look at the manner in which these theories and goals inform policies implemented and pursued by the existing donor-governance structures, and the role of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in the provision of these policies. Finally, the third section will look at the impact these policies have on the provision of continuous professional development in the Education and Development sector for teachers and teacher educators. An evaluation of how these features of the education and development landscape support the use of dominant models of teacher education from the Global North will be a running theme throughout the third section.

It is also expected that, through an evaluation of the current state of the Education and Development sector, the conclusion of this chapter will identify key considerations to justify the choice of the theoretical framework that was used in this thesis, i.e., Postcolonial theory

### 3.1. Theories of Development

The first port of call in this evaluation of the education and development landscape is to address the dominant theories of development. These theories stem from and inform the political and economic ideologies that influence decision making in the governance structures of aid donors. They inform the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the development of policy, provision of aid, and practice in teacher education and basic education classrooms in developing contexts the world over.

#### 3.1.1. Human Capital Theory

Both theoretically and empirically, the notion of economic growth has been at the heart of development thinking and has dominated policy and research at national and international levels" (Fagerlind and Saha 1983, p. 63, as cited in Thomas and Burnett 2016). It has been forty years since this was written; since then, the emphasis on different aspects of development has become more balanced, but the hegemony of economic discourses within development studies and its educational branches largely prevails. The indicators that have been used in assessing the economic development of a country include; per capita GNP, percentage of people below the poverty line, and unemployment statistics (Phillips and Schweisfurth 2014). A central ideology that has emerged

since the early 1980s from this economic perspective of development and the role of education in achieving them is Human Capital Theory (HCT) (Ibid).

The relationship between education and economic development is considered axiomatic (Phillips and Schweisfurth 2014). The more economically developed a nation is, generally speaking, the more educationally developed it will be, with increased levels of literacy and a higher average level of qualifications. The question is; which came first? Human Capital Theory posits that investment in education creates a workforce able to drive economic growth (ibid). In this theory, capital refers to factors of production that generate goods and services in a market led economy (Thomas and Burnett 2016). The modern preoccupation with education's primary goal being that of preparation for the market economy, which is commonly conceived as being achieved along stratified class lines, is a strong principle of Human Capital Theory (Schweisfurth 2015). The connection this has to education is clear, in that when human capital is properly applied in such a way that it captures variation in skills imparted by education, which influences capacity to participate in the market economy, the relationship between education and development is robust (Babb and Kentikelenis 2021; Thomas and Burnett 2016; Phillips and Schweisfurth 2014).

Human capital theory employs the idea that as more educated workers come into the labour market, an order is established whereby educated workers receive higher returns for their skillset (Lauder and Brown 2016). This theory is epitomised by the Washington Consensus, which Williams (1990) summarises as;

*'That Washington urges on the rest of the world prudent macroeconomic policies, outward orientation, and free-market capitalism.'* (p. 1)

This includes opening countries to free-trade; privatisation of state assets; user-pay policies – especially in tertiary education; state deregulation; and the protection of private property rights. The reason this list of policies is so significant is because the Washington Consensus encourages developing countries to mimic the conditions of the competitive markets of orthodox economics (Babb 2021; Lauder and Brown 2016). The neo-liberal principles are



clear to see; de-regulation, private acquisition of wealth, and privatisation being the hallmarks of orthodox economies (Ibid).

The application of Human Capital Theory calls for a shift in focus from access to education to the outcomes of education (UNESCO 2000, 2015; World Bank 2011, 2020). This shift has become a key feature in how education is perceived to fulfil its role in this economic perspective. Indeed, many education stakeholders, including economists, argue that learning outcomes are the real driver of the economic benefits of education (Hanushek et al. 2012; Hanushek 2013). Additionally, non-cognitive, or “character skills” learned in education programmes such as engagement, initiative and persistence learned as early as pre-primary have been shown to have a significant impact on long-term economic health and well-being outcomes for individuals, society and academic competencies (Hackman et al., 2013).

This is particularly true in the context of the ever-growing importance of the knowledge economy. While economic development is not a linear phenomenon, until recent years, the most industrialised countries have enjoyed sustained periods of economic growth, as evidenced by increases in per capita income. They are also marked by a growth in non-farming sectors of the economy, including industry and, increasingly post-industrial “knowledge economy” sectors, and exponential growth in the use of transport and communications technology, with a corresponding and related increase in energy consumption. There are more telephones and computers in use; more newspapers read; and more cars on a better developed road infrastructure (Phillips and Schweisfurth 2014, p. 80). The knowledge economy of the twenty-first century demands a set of new competencies, which include not only computer literacy, but also such soft skills such as problem solving, analytical skills, group learning, working in a team-based environment, and effective communication (Dahlman and Utz 2005; Songkram et al. 2021; Siddiq et al. 2016; World Bank 2018). There have, however, been suggestions that these skills have always been needed and are not exclusive to the twenty-first century (Tabulawa 2009). Nonetheless, on a macro level, a key take-away from Human Capital Theory is that the purpose of the learning outcomes of education policies is to prepare citizens for the twenty-first century market led knowledge economy.

### 3.1.2. Capabilities and Rights Based Approach

An alternative to this economic perspective is that development is seen as a process that enhances the effective freedom of the people involved to pursue whatever they have reason to value (UNDP 2012). This view of human development is a culturally conditioned view of economic and human progress. Poverty, in this view, implies not only a lack of essential goods and services, but also a lack of opportunities to choose a fuller, more satisfying, more laudable and valued existence. The choice can also be for a different style of development, based on different values from those of the highest income countries (Anderson and Winthrop 2016). Within this context, the right to education is reaffirmed in numerous international and regional treaties, including the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UN 1948, Article 26), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC 2010) and the UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (UNESCO 1960). In addition, this right does not only make free and compulsory primary education and the full availability of secondary education for all, but also the right to quality education. As such, the full realisation of the right to education involves the accomplishments of adequate learning outcomes by all (Anderson and Winthrop 2016).

As a natural extension of this Rights Based approach, Haq (1995) explains that the key purpose of development (and hence of the public good) is to enlarge people's choices to lead good lives. He argues that we often value achievements that do not show up in income or growth figures, such as access to knowledge, better nutrition, and health services, more secure livelihoods, security against crime and physical violence, satisfying leisure hours, political and cultural freedom, and participation in community activities. The objective of development should then be to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives. The key premise of this theory of development and the role of education therein is that, on a national level, policy is developed, whose aim is to improve the lives of citizens. Education is conceptualised as a key component in the provision of these policies and for this reason is critically important in a development context.

The Capabilities Approach, first postulated by Amartya Sen (1993), best exemplifies this perspective of development (Tao 2013; Sen 1993, McGrath

2012). Sen suggested that, instead of focusing on the development of the economic means that might facilitate a good life, we should instead focus on the actual living that people manage to achieve; and more importantly the freedom that people have to achieve the types of lives they want to lead (Sen 1993). This alternative view postulates that development is the progressive activation of a range of freedoms, including political rights and choice, freedom from coercion and freedom from income poverty (Thomas and Burnett 2016). Sen (1993) argued that focusing on capabilities is paramount because they serve both instrumental and constitutive roles. Instrumentally, expanding capabilities can be viewed as a principle means of development both for an individual or a society; in addition to this, expanding capabilities could also be viewed as the primary ends of development, as Sen believes intrinsic capabilities such as being literate, nourished and enjoying political participation, amongst others, are substantive freedoms that enrich human life (Tao 2013).

The tension between Human Capital Theory and the Capabilities Approach is exemplified by the distinction between knowledge as a public and private good. The economist Paul A. Samuelson (1954, p. 387, as cited in Walker 2016) is usually credited as the first to develop a theory of public good, which he defined in opposition to private goods as *“goods which all enjoy in common, in the sense that each individual’s consumption of such a good leads to no subtraction from any other individual’s consumption of that good”*. Public goods possess a property called non-excludability, that is, it is impossible to exclude any individuals from consuming a good (Walker 2016). Knowledge is considered a public good and is a key capability that drives development (Stiglitz 2003). However, an increasing feature of the modern provision of education is that university-produced knowledge can be excludable through intellectual property rights, patents, commercial distribution, the selection of students and so on (ibid). In this approach, access to knowledge is managed by the market economy and thus invokes the class distinctions that are fundamental to Human Capital Theory. The two distinct approaches of Human Capital Theory and the Capabilities Approach view knowledge in competing ways. Thus, it can be argued that the dominant theory of development has the potential to

impose both a definition of knowledge as both a public or private good, and consequently who has access to it. These are indeed fundamental issues.

### 3.1.3. Democratisation

Another perspective of development, which takes in elements of both Human Capital Theory and the Capabilities approach is democratisation. It is argued that, despite the problems often associated with establishing and maintaining democracies in developing countries, democracy ought to be the end goal (Sen, 1999). Sen, in "Development is Freedom " (1999), argues that democratic rights and freedoms facilitate development of all kinds, including economic development; but that more importantly, the substantive freedoms that come with democracy are among the constitutive components of development. Its direct or indirect contribution to economic growth is not the point, democracy is development.

John Dewey's (1916) concept of education for democracy has reappeared today in the form of "the development of active citizenship", currently at the head of the agenda of many educational policymakers (e.g., the concept of Global Citizenship in the SDGs). Dewey has been hugely influential in positing links between particular forms of education and democratic societies. In his view, *"The conception of education as a social process and function has no definite meaning until we define the kind of society we have in mind (Dewey 1916: 213)* and a democratic society was the goal. In this view, the goals of education are about empowering learners to act successfully within democratic structures rather than critically resisting and challenging (Inglis 1997). Behind this lies the assumption that democracy is the most important concept in the world today, and that democracy needs to be learnt formally. The act of taking part in deciding how society is to be governed is fundamentally a learned activity – citizenship is one of the fundamental roles to be learned and performed by men and women. (Hannah 2021; Veugelers et al. 2019).

This is sometimes taken to imply that un-schooled or inadequately schooled persons do not learn citizenship (Rogers 2016). Such beliefs indicate that citizenship needs to be taught; they must be provided with opportunities to learn active citizenship (Hannah 2021), to learn free elections, freedom of the press, and the rights of individuals to express themselves freely, the

institutionalisation of opposition to government, the participation of all people in framing and making decisions that affect them (Medel-Anoneuvo 2002; Tarrant and Thiele 2016). From such freedoms, the unschooled are often thought to be excluded, they must be brought into the Western form of citizenship that is highly normative, democratic citizenship (Prakash and Esteve 1998; Holma 2021). Such an approach assumes that there is only one form of democracy, that the principles of democratic life are universal and uncontested, and that this is the only citizenship that needs to be taught (Rogers 2016).

The explicit application of education to the end goal of democracy manifests itself in multiple ways. Education for democracy has to start with education through democracy (Biesta 2006; 2019): that is, students experiencing democratic relationships in the learning environment. This means power sharing between teachers and learners, with learners exercising greater control over the curriculum, activities and assessment than in traditional classrooms. The prefiguring of future relationships enacted in classroom life prepares learners for their roles as adult democratic citizens (Apple and Beane 1999; Fielding 2007). The Learner Centredness of these pedagogies of democracy are self-evident, yet the paradigmatic shift required in many development contexts for its implementation is not. This will be returned to at a later point.

#### 3.1.4. Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

A significant trend in development assistance has been a unified stance among different countries to work towards shared development goals, such as the Education for All (EFA) declaration (1990), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (2000) and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (2015). These shared development goals are heavily influenced by the previously mentioned theories of development. In the increasingly interconnected world of development assistance, international networks consisting of multilateral and bilateral agencies, NGOs present progressively more unified stand which sets global standards for education. Such coordinated efforts not only consolidate work that might otherwise be piecemeal, contradictory or overlapping: they send a message regarding accepting global norms in education (Schweisfurth 2015, p. 41). This unified stance has also facilitated concerted efforts in chosen areas, but is not without its critics, some of whom argue that the power balance still resides with the north, and with powerful multilateral agencies

such as the World Bank, the OECD and the IMF (Schweisfurth 2015; Thomas and Burnett 2016; Lauder and Brown 2016).

These unified stances can be traced back to the Sustainable Development (SD) movement, which is most often traced back to the Brundtland report, where SD is defined as:

*Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (United Nations, 1987, p. 41).*

SD is characterised by the pillars of environment, economy and society, with culture as the underlying foundation, or in some cases a fourth pillar (Sprague 2016, p. 51). In parallel with these features of Sustainable Development, there have been significant changes in the kind of education being promoted – from the education as a universal good for men and women in the 1950s/60s, to the instrumentalist functional literacy of the 1970s and literacy for empowerment in the 1980s/90s (Joshi and Ghose 2012). From 2000 onwards, there has been a shift from a socially transformative agenda to market orientated agendas, with an emphasis on skills to train and prepare adults for the market (Ibid). Despite these indications of changes in curriculum objectives, schooling tends to be treated as uniform across cultural contexts and institutions, often conflating literate and educated (Robinson-Pant 2016, p. 79).

The world declaration on Education for All (EFA) proclaimed in Jomtien, Thailand in March 1990, sought an expanded vision and a renewed commitment to ensuring that everyone “*be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs*” (Article 1). The declaration also gave recognition to the importance of the quality of school and other educational provision. “*The focus of basic education must ... be an actual learning acquisition and outcome, rather than exclusively on enrolment*” (Article 4) (Dladla and Moon 2013, p. 7; UNESCO 1990). The Jomtien declaration created the agenda for a range of national and international activities around expanding provision and improving the quality of basic education. But progress was slow, and the turn of the century provided a further milestone opportunity to restate commitments. The declaration of the meeting in Dakar, under the auspices of UNESCO and the specifications of a series of comparable

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in 2000 gave renewed and expanded impetus to Jomtien's ambitions (Ibid). The Dakar framework for action spoke of the need to *"enhance the status, morale and professionalism of teachers"* and in what has since become a recurrent theme, spoke of the importance of harnessing *"new information and communication technologies to help achieve EFA goals"* (Ibid). Although a concern with quality was central to the Jomtien declaration, the identification of the significance of teachers has only slowly emerged, not the least because of the availability of increasing evidence about the problems of teacher supply, retention, training and status (Dladla and Moon 2013 p. 8).

An interesting observation regarding the MDGs is that they drew very heavily on the set of "international development targets" proposed in 1996 by the Development Assistance Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Although international policy rhetoric often points to the fact that the MDGs were agreed by all governments as evidence for their Southern ownership, it is salient to stress that the real origins of the MDGs were in the OECD, a membership agency of the richest countries who defined by their democratic and market led ideals (King 2007).

It is in this context that the latest round of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were published in September 2015 (UN 2015). The 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for the 2030 Agenda highlights five core values packaged as the 5 Ps.:

- People – ending poverty and hunger, in all their forms and dimensions, and ensuring that all human beings can fulfil their potential in dignity and equality and in a healthy environment.
- Planet – protecting the planet from degradation, including through sustainable consumption and production, sustainably managing its natural resources and taking urgent action on climate change.
- Prosperity – ensuring that everyone can enjoy prosperous and fulfilling lives in harmony with nature.
- Peace – fostering peaceful, just and inclusive societies which are free from fear and violence.

- Partnership – mobilising the means required to implement the agenda through a revitalised global partnership (UN 2015).

SDG 4 is explicitly related to education, and “ensures inclusive and equitable quality education and promotes lifelong learning opportunities for all” (UN 2015). There is also a focus on teacher supply, and enhancing access to higher and vocational education (McGrath, 2018 p. 201-202). Education plays a key role in the remaining 16 SDGs; through poverty alleviation; sustainable farming and food production, understanding nutrition; reproduction health and general well-being; development of renewable energy; and sustainable industrialisation (Ibid).

When applying the previously mentioned theories of development to the SDGs, the following can be deduced; the human capital orthodox discourse is still powerful in the 2015 SDGs. In terms of the 5 Ps, ending poverty and hunger, prosperity, and partnership have explicit Human Capital Theory Components in that it is presumed that each of these will be achieved through the market economy – the role of education being preparatory, with supply and quality of teachers being paramount to achieving this goal (McGrath 2018). In terms of peace and planet, there is a clear connotation with the Capabilities Approach, in that these are fundamental requirements for being able to meaningfully engage in any capacity. There is also the premise that all of the Ps can only be achieved in a Western democratic political system which provides for inclusion, accountability and transparency. The SDGs have provided a framework within which the Education and Development sector operates. Due to the dominance of market led and democratic principles that underpin these goals, one can deduce that the policy flow within this sector is clearly from the Global North to the Global South.

The next section looks at governance structures and policy development for the provision of aid in the hope of achieving these goals.

### 3.2. Governance Structures in the Education and Development Sector

Aid or official development assistance to education has involved financial or technical support for education from richer donors to poorer recipients. Where aid is from one national government to another, it is known as bilateral; where



there are multiple sources of funding coordinated by an international agency, such as UNESCO, UNICEF or the World Bank – each of whom receive the majority of their funding from member states (unesco.org 2023; unicef.org 2023; worldbank.org 2023), this is known as multilateral aid. NGOs have also played a very significant role in aid to education, from large international NGOs such as Oxfam, to much smaller organisations (Philips and Schweisfurth 2014, p. 93). As already stated, the policies that are developed by these multi- and bi-lateral institutions are guided by the international development goals – the most recent of which is the SDGs (2015), which are in turn influenced by the aforementioned theories of development. This section will look at the manner in which these development theories underpin the policies of multi- and bi-lateral donors and how they relate to the SDGs.

### 3.2.1. UNESCO, UNICEF and the Sustainable Development Goals

Unsurprisingly, the SDGs have become a central component through which multilateral governance in the Education and Development sector have framed the provision of their aid. This is most acutely demonstrated through the concept of global citizenship, which has been defined in the following way by the Global Education First Initiative

*“To reorient education and learning so that everyone has the opportunity to acquire the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that empower them to contribute to sustainable development” (2013, p. 8).*

UNESCO, which provides global and regional leadership in education, strengthens education systems worldwide and responds to contemporary global challenges through education (unesco.org 2023), has deduced that the fractured nature of our world and the tragedies of poverty and conflict require schools to promote a Global Citizenship that addresses issues such as environmental sustainability and peace building. In order to tackle these problems, core transferable skills are required, such as critical thinking, communication, cooperation, problem solving, conflict resolution, leadership, advocacy – and the promotion of core values such as tolerance, appreciation of diversity and civic responsibility (UNESCO 2014, p. 295; Anderson and Winthrop 2016; Robinson-Pant 2016).

Inclusion in education is also a key component in UNESCO's ambitions of instilling Global Citizenship into their educational policies and programmes. For UNESCO inclusive education is;

*A process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all children, youth and adults through increased participation in learning, cultures, and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education. It involves changes in content, approaches, structures and strategies, with a common vision that covers all children of the appropriate age ranges and a conviction that is the responsibility of the regular school system to educate all children (UNESCO 2009, 8-9).*

Indeed, UNICEF, who work around the world to support quality learning for every girl and boy, especially those in greatest danger of being left behind (unicef.org 2023), has also taken up inclusion as a central component of their development aims (Jones 2005). However, this high level and holistic approach to inclusive education has been criticised for not being sufficiently attuned to local realities in developing countries (La Fanu 2016), which has become a consistent theme thus far, i.e., a global solution to a local problem. Both UNICEF and UNESCO would counter that it is their role to promote an enlarged vision of educational opportunity, rather than be constrained by local contexts (La Fanu 2016).

One of the primary mechanisms through which UNICEF have pursued these policies of Global Citizenship and inclusion is through Child Friendly Schools (CFS). According the UNICEF (2009) a CFS;

- Is child-centred – encourages participation, creativity, self-esteem; promotes a structured child-centred curriculum and teaching-learning methods appropriate to the child's developmental level, abilities, and learning style; and considers the needs of children over the other actors in the system.
- Promotes quality learning outcomes – encourages children to think critically, ask questions and express their opinions – and learn how to learn; helps children master the essential enabling skills of writing, reading, speaking, listening, and mathematics and the general

knowledge and skills required for living in the new century – including useful traditional knowledge and the values of peace, democracy, and the acceptance of diversity

- Provides education based on the reality of children’s lives – ensures that curricular content responds to the learning needs of individual children as well as to the general objectives of the education system, and the local context and traditional knowledge of families and the community
- Enhances teacher capacity, morale, commitment and status – ensures that its teachers have sufficient pre-service training, in-service support and professional development, status and income
- Is community-based – strengthens school governance through a decentralised, community-based approach; encourages parents, local government, community organisations, and other institutions of civil society to participate in the management as well as the financing of education; promotes community partnerships and networks focused on the rights and well-being of children (Schweisfurth 2015 p. 152; UNICEF 2009)

In order for these goals to be met, UNICEF expects governments to play a significant role in scaling up child friendly provision. They therefore expect school leaders and teachers to form “*broad-based alliances*” with “*communities, local governments, civil society and the private sector*” to identify ways in which their schools can become more inclusive, with local education authorities and teacher-training colleges providing additional inputs, for instance, by providing high quality learning resources and continuing professional development for teachers (UNICEF 2009, p. 113).

In terms of tying these CFSs and the concepts of global citizenship and inclusion to the theories of development and the SDGs, they clearly align with the Human Capital Theory, Capabilities Approach, Democratisation. Flavours of all of the 5 Ps can be found in the objectives of CFSs. There are democratic principles in the governance structures and accountabilities, and many of the skills CFSs develop could easily be considered compatible with the knowledge economy, such as

critical thinking, problem solving and collaboration. The criticisms of both of these multilateral organisations in relation to the application of global solutions to local problems is pertinent for this research, a key premise being that the dominant financial and policy flow from the Global North to the Global South does not take local contexts into consideration in high level decisions that dictate the content and provision of Continuous Professional Development (CPD) for teacher educators in developing contexts

### 3.2.2. The World Bank and the Sustainable Development Goals

While Global Citizenship and Inclusion are important considerations for the World Bank (WB), it generally takes a more economic approach to development, and that this reflects the fact that the Bank is essentially “*a borrowing and lending financial institution*” (Jones 2005, p. 94) that is predominantly and disproportionately staffed by economists (Menashy 2013; Auld et al. 2019). In Learning for All (World Bank 2011), the WB outlines its ten-year strategy for promoting global educational development. In this policy document, the WB’s strategy is broadly inclusive. It reaffirms the Bank’s commitment to achieving universal access to education, and stresses the importance of educational quality, noting “*quality needs to be the focus of education investment, with learning gains as a metric of quality*” (World Bank 2011, p. 5). The document also recognises that education systems should particularly focus on meeting the needs of marginalised groups, namely girls, people with disabilities and ethno-linguistic minorities (World Bank 2011).

However, Learning for All does not attempt to identify the diverse complex and evolving educational needs of young people and, in the light of this, specify the various forms inclusive provision should take. Rather, inclusive education is defined principally in Human Capital terms, i.e., an economically productive population, enjoying “*better health and reduced fertility*”, possessed of “*an enhanced ability to adopt new technologies and/or cope with economic shocks*”, and engage in “*civic participation and ... environmentally friendly behaviour*” (World Bank 2011, p. 13). In its lack of concern for the needs of the whole child, Learning for All therefore lacks inclusiveness (La Fanu 2016, p. 213).

Human Capital Theory’s influence can also be detected in the World Bank’s enthusiasm for encouraging competition between education providers and

providing choice for education consumers, coupled with the organisations' positive attitude towards low-fee private schools (Menashy 2013, p. 751), which invokes the previously mentioned tension that exists between education being a public or private good. In addition, it can be posited that the system-centred approach of both UNESCO and the WB is informed by Western managerialism – a theory that assumes “all aspects of organisational life... should be controlled (Hoyle and Wallace 2005, p. 68; World Bank 2018). Within this managerial approach, the dilemma of moving away from a centrally controlled and organised system to harness market forces, while at the same time removing the levers of government that enable inequalities to be minimised, is ever present. (Hanbing and McCormack 2013).

It is clear to see that the WB has the same goals in mind as UNESCO and UNICEF – which can easily be aligned with the 5 Ps of the SDGs, but have a purely economic perspective in terms of how these can be achieved and the nature of their outcomes. Again, the global applicability of the Learning for All initiative, which frames the manner in which aid is distributed by the WB, is relevant for this study due to the ahistorical, apolitical, decontextualized and seemingly unproblematized application of their beliefs to local contexts.

### 3.2.3. Bi-Lateral Governance and the SDGs

While bi-lateral donors prescribe to the SDGs – and their predecessors – they are more inclined to follow economic theories of development, with Human Capital Theory, preparation for the twenty-first Century knowledge economy and democratisation being central to their goals (McGrath and Gu 2016).

Development assistance by bi-lateral donor has been characterised in the following ways by King (1999) and Shields and Menashy (2019):

- That it is declining, with many countries reducing their aid budgets in real terms.
- That bi-lateral governance structures have pivoted towards partnerships with the private sector.
- That governments are giving bilateral aid that is consistent with their own policies, which includes global sustainability and that there seems to be a growing focus on the global responsibilities of all nations in relation to sustainability and development targets.

- There has also been movement from donor projects to Sector-Wide Approaches to Aid (SWAPs) in the provision of aid.

Indeed, the prevalence of SWAPs as the preferred approach to the provision of aid reflects the imperative for donors in development cooperation to allow recipients to possess a greater sense of ownership over the development process, with aid more likely to involve transfers of funds directly to government departments, with the southern partner and the funder collaborating on making key spending decisions (Hope 2014; Riddell and Zarazua 2016). While this model was a feature of the EfECT project in terms of engaging with the MOE, the funding was distributed by the DFID and the British Council (British Council 2015). Additionally, the Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) for EfECT were determined by the funders (British Council 2015).

In keeping with the move towards partnership with privately owned entities, the World Bank, USAID and DFID, along with a number of other multi-and bilateral development institutions, have moved to promoting publicly supported private education and use of Public Private Partnerships (PPPs) for a range of education initiatives in the developing world (Draxler 2016, p. 449). Thus, the conditionality of private sector involvement has crept into donor decision-making by bi- and multi-lateral funders in the Education and Development sector. A case in point is the fact that the largest single-funded mechanism for education, Global Partnership for Education (GPE), has the corporate education giant Pearson as a voting representative of the private sector on its board (ibid).

Although the Washington Consensus is arguably less pervasive at the multilateral level, a number of bilateral agencies have developed huge enthusiasm for market solutions. Part of this may be seen in a new form of tied aid, where agencies, such as DFID, are now seeking to promote the interest of major private sector education organisations, such as Pearson, in building new markets in the South. (McGrath and Gu 2016, p. 476). This involvement of the private sector in bi-lateral aid is indicative of a drive for market led solutions to development and is thus tied to Human Capital Theory.

The increasing importance in bi-lateral aid of new Public-Private Partnerships (PPP) is part of a complex mix of Northern education exports. The rise of

national qualification frameworks internationally, for instance, has seen national public education organisations from the Global North play an active service provider role in setting up new systems (McGrath 2010). For organisations such as the Scottish Qualification Authority, this export work is part of the requirements under new public management for them to develop stronger cost-recovery models (Ibid).

Another example is the public higher education institutions of Britain and Australia being particularly active in exporting Northern Higher Education to the South. This export of educational services has been mirrored at lower levels of education systems as well, with elite private schools opening branch campuses in East Asia and vocational institutions seeking to attract greater numbers of international students and, more occasionally, entering into joint delivery models overseas (McGrath and Gu 2016, p. 472). Critics argue the unprecedented expansion of international education has played an important role in reinforcing the inequalities in flows of knowledge and skills between the North and the South (ibid). This enhances the dependency of policy-makers and service providers in the South on Northern expertise, resources, and funds.

The PPPs that have become a key feature in bi-lateral governance and policy development has a strong Human Capital perspective. This is compounded by the alignment of bi-lateral aid with national sectoral policy, and private sector market expansion. Increasingly, it is becoming clear that, through the World Bank and the dominance of PPPs in bi-lateral governance, Human Capital theory and the preparatory role of education for the twenty-first century knowledge economy are central to how aid is administered. Indeed, as previously stated, the enhanced role of PPPs in bi-lateral aid provision in the Education and Development sector has further entrenched the dominant policy and funding flow from the Global North to the Global South, thus privileging the epistemologies of the former over the latter.

#### 3.2.4. Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

NGOs play a key partnership role in the development and education landscape with Mundy and Murphy (2001) and Brass (2016) pointing out that the role for civil society envisioned by the EFA multilaterals remained one of service provider rather than policy advocate. A key factor to consider within this service providing role is how NGOs use discourse and espouse norms that align

with the interest of international organisations and donors (Magrath 2016, p. 434). In the field of international and comparative education, some scholars have been relatively positive about the impact NGOs are having on global educational governance. In their wide-ranging study of national education coalitions affiliated with the Global Campaign for Education, Verger and Novelli (2012) have found that these coalitions *“have made significant symbolic, procedural and political impacts on their respective national educational landscapes over the last decade”* (p. 173). Case studies drawn from Southeast Asia, Latin America, and Africa have shown that civil society organisations play a role in promoting local participation in education policy, gathering alternative data on education access and quality, and advocating for a holistic understanding of education for all that encompasses lifelong learning (McCormick 2012; Brass 2016).

This perspective of the role of NGOs is benign in terms of policy development, but key to policy implementation and engagement on a local level. However, many scholars warn against the perspective that NGOs are *“doing good”* (Anderson 2011; Brass 2016; Akhtar and Rata 2022). These organisations have no direct legal ties to the citizenry on whose behalf they claim to speak (Ibid) and many have argued that upward accountability to donors often takes precedence over downward accountability to the population on whose behalf an NGO works. Furthermore, those that are able to have their voices heard in global policy are often Northern-based well-funded NGOs with direct ties to international organisations, leaving smaller civil society groups underrepresented (Brexell et al. 2010). Although terms like *“partnership”* and *“community participation”* have become central to international development discourses via the SDGs, there has been considerable effort to critique how these terms mask unequal power relations with a false sense of representation (Ferguson 1990; Vavrus and Seghers 2010; Akhtar and Rata 2022). Questions arise about who is empowered to speak for whom and who has the authority to set the agenda for advocacy campaigning.

In their study of Ghana’s national education coalition, Strutt and Kepe (2010) found that dependency on donor funds and NGO support meant that organisation’s focus moved more in line with these international players than



the local population on whose behalf they work. This led the authors to agree that:

*The system remains entrenched in a notion of power hierarchy so deep that relinquishing implementation has done nothing to erode the paramount role that decision making and funding continue to play. Thus, while development may now be implemented by the national countries, there has been no willingness on the part of donors, international organisations, and NGOs to relinquish, or at least share their decision-making power (p. 37)*

This firm perspective views these organisations as largely motivated by instrumental needs such as financial security and brand awareness, rather than assuming that partnership is an effective impactful way to engage in political advocacy. Indeed, Prakash and Gugerty (2010) have argued that civil society organisations are as likely to compete as to collaborate with other actors in their advocacy field.

As is clearly demonstrated, there is no consensus on the impact NGOs have in their role in Education and Development. What is clear however, is the alignment of their strategies with the donors who fund their work – which is also connected to the previously discussed theories of development, that inform regional and international development goals.

### 3.3. Implications in aid receiving countries

Having looked at the theories of development that inform development goals, which impact on multi-and bi-lateral governance, and the role of NGOs within this landscape, it is now time to look at the impact all of these elements of the Education and Development sector have on the provision of Continuous Professional Development (CPD) that is funded within this sector, and pedagogic practice in teacher education and basic education classrooms in development contexts. This section will look at the implications of the application of features of the Education and Development sector in general, in parallel with how they correlate with practice in the Global North.

### 3.3.1 Language Policy

Perhaps the most ubiquitous aspect of the pedagogic implications of the prevailing Education and Development landscape is Language Policy. It is influenced by Human Capital Theory, the Capabilities and Rights based approach, and Democratisation. It manifests itself throughout the policies of multi- and bi-lateral governance, and is a key component in the provision of services of which NGOs take the lead. All of this being said, there is an indisputable fact in terms of language policy; fluency in the language of instruction stands out as a significant predictor of learner success in both reading competencies and curriculum content (Gove and Cvelich 2011; Agrawal 2014; Alidou et al. 2006; Jeong and Hardy 2022). Good communication, clear understanding of new content and the ability to think critically about one's world are central to learning for development – and these features of good learning are only found when the medium of communication is one that the learner understands well (Trudell et al. 2016).

This fact is often at odds with multi- and bi-lateral donor policy and national language policy. Language choice in educational contexts carries significant political and cultural meaning. National policy regarding language and education, and the implementation of that policy at various levels of society, reflect deeply held and frequently contested identity issues (Kone 2010; He and Liao 2021).

Language policy mandates the language(s) to be used for instruction and testing. It also determines which languages will be taught in schools, when and for how long they will be taught, by who and how they should be taught. In the educational context, language policies are initiated primarily through formal government documents and are meant to be supported and implemented by teachers, materials, curricula and examinations (Shohamy 2006; He and Liao 2021). Within this policy landscape, the attitudes and priorities of headmasters, teachers and parents about language and education generally decide school language practices (Trudell and Piper 2013). While formal policy discourse may mandate particular uses of particular languages, local language practices often regularly override that discourse (Hornberger and Johnson 2011).

Thus, the implications of language policy are potentially many and varied. The formal education system is seen as central to shaping the social and cultural behaviours of young people, generating powerful, and to some extent convergent or global constructions of an educated person (De Costa et al. 2018). The institutions that deliver mass schooling encourage mastery of the knowledge and beliefs that have global (though predominantly Northern) currency and ideological grounding. When this knowledge and these beliefs coincide with what the child learns at home, as is the case in much of the Global North, there are few disconnections for learners. However, when Northern knowledge and beliefs are applied to a sociocultural and linguistic context that values other sorts of knowledge, it is usually to the detriment of children's sense of local belonging and expertise in locally valued skills – most certainly including their home languages. Indeed, the language choices made in these classrooms are also central to “the disconnection between home and school” (Albury 2016; Ransool 2013; Ferguson 2013; Collins and Blot 2003). Damage is done to the community as well, in the form of what Prah (1995, p. 65) calls a “cultural recession”, in which local culture, values and language are rendered insignificant.

In this context it is perhaps unsurprising that a dominant perspective regarding Language Policy is that local languages are considered to have no place in mediating global culture, and in-doing-so, language policies can unwittingly privilege Northern epistemologies (Trudell et al. 2016, p. 143). In this environment, local communities in the Global South are at the receiving end of an education system which ignores the knowledge, culture and language competencies that make them unique, and which more than likely does not meet the knowledge needs of their children. Assessing this system in Africa, Dei (2008) describes it as highly damaging to Africa's citizens:

*It has been an education that has for the most part failed to deeply cultivate self-esteem and pride in peoples of African descent. It will and still is a Eurocentric education, and it continues to distort, misappropriate and misinterpret African human condition and reality (2008, p. 231).*

Indeed, a 2010 report from the Asian Development Bank argues that such siloed, exclusionary structures and processes actually “push” students out of the formal school system (Asian Development Bank 2010, p, 36).

Within this language policy landscape, the global hegemony of English as the language of business, science, politics and academia, along with the dominance of bi-lateral agencies such as DFID and USAID, heightens its importance relative to indigenous languages (Rassool 2013; Ferguson 2013). Indeed, within the context of this study, the implications of Language Policy on CPD that is developed and administered by the Education and Development sector in teacher education in Myanmar are significant.

### 3.3.2. The Quality Imperative

The evolution in the shift in focus from access to education to include quality of education in the Education and Development sector has already been mentioned. With this in mind, this section of the literature review will look at what quality is, how it’s measured, and its impact on teacher education and classroom pedagogy, and how these policies are consistent with practice in the Global North.

#### 3.3.2.1. Conceptualisation of Teachers, Teaching and Pedagogy

In order to address the quality imperative in pedagogy within the Education and Development context, addressing the lack of consensus around the conceptualisation of teaching and teachers, and indeed pedagogy, should be explored (Alexander 2016).

The main trend in relation to teacher education in a development context has been to strengthen the practical relevance and appropriateness of programmes (Ibid). Despite this seemingly logical perspective, clarification of the conceptualisations of teaching and pedagogy are needed for this logic to hold true. In order to support this goal, it can be claimed that there are high-level observable structural invariants in teaching and learning that are encountered across cultures and systems (Alexander 2016, p. 130). These include;

1. Teaching, in any setting, is the act of using method x to enable students to learn.

2. Teaching has structure and form. It is situated in and framed by space, time and patterns of organisation; and it is undertaken for a purpose (Alexander 2016, p. 127).

Despite this high-level and generally applicable account of what teaching and learning is, in order to develop a consensus in the conceptions of teaching, teachers, and pedagogy, a more substantive engagement with the development agenda is required. To achieve this requires sustained commitment and cooperation across the range of authorities and influences that impinge on the lives of teachers and schools (Moon and Umar 2013).

Within the context of addressing the quality imperative through the practical relevance of programmes and an enhanced discourse between key stakeholders, a conceptualisation of teachers is important. Without teachers there is no teaching and without good teachers the learning potential of many children will remain untapped. The association between teacher quality and learning outcomes is both self-evident and empirically demonstrable, yet the lack of consensus of the meaning of quality is compounded by the lack of consensus in the conceptualisation of teachers and teaching (Alexander 2016).

It is within this context of conceptualising what good teaching is that the professionalisation of the role has taken root internationally. An increased international focus on teacher quality via more competitive salaries and better and clearer CPD paths, has brought with it an increased focus on the use of standards and accountability as a means of encapsulating expressions of what it means to be a good or satisfactory teacher (Kennedy 2016, NESP 2016; Li 2016). Indeed, the OECD asserted that 'there is widespread recognition that countries need to have clear and concise statements of what teachers are expected to know and be able to do' and that countries should have "*profession-wide standards and a shared understanding of what counts as accomplished teaching*" (OECD, 2005, p. 9-10).

Standards serve as a common-sense outline of what teachers should know and be able to do, a facet of accountability and quality assurance, and a means of promoting quality improvement. Standards are also often taken to denote a common, or standard, level of teaching. The implication is that teaching standards should provide some written and agreed quality threshold that can

be uniformly applied to all teachers (Kennedy 2016, p. 146; Li 2016). In the Global North, the culmination of rigorous inspections against these professional standards and performance management, coupled with the relentless pressure on teachers and schools to position themselves favourably in national and international league tables, have created a culture of compliance in some of the states that have adopted and enforce teaching standards (Menter 2016, p. xii). This approach of advocating and imposing professional standards to guide teachers' practice, on the assumption that this will improve students' outcomes, seems to have been broadly accepted as a logical way forward by policy makers globally (Kennedy 2016, Li 2016; NESP 2016).

Indeed, within the Education and Development sector, the pursuit of the professionalisation of the teaching profession is a policy that has very much been exported from the Global North, and has become one of the strongest similarities in the provision of teacher education internationally. There have been moves towards the professionalisation of teaching in Finland (Sahlberg 2012), Singapore (Goodwin 2012), The UK (MacBeath 2012; Kennedy 2016), Hong Kong, (Draper 2012), Canada (Levin 2012), The United States (Darling-Hammond, 2012), Ireland (Kennedy 2016), Australia (Mayer et al. 2012), China (Li 2016), and indeed, Myanmar (NESP 2016).

Under the influence of neoliberal governments in the 1980s, cultures of accountability and control developed rapidly, leading to the emergence of teacher education systems dominated by standards and frameworks which set out explicitly what it was that teachers should be able to do and setting conditions for the provision of teacher education (Menter 2016, p. 3). Within this context of compliance and accountability, professionalisation is characterised by;

- a. Competitive salaries (Sahlberg 2012; Goodwin 2012)
- b. Continuous Professional Development and clear career paths (Sahlberg 2012; Goodwin 2012)
- c. A culture of accountability (Cochran-Smith 2018)
- d. Profession-wide capacity building (Levin 2012), and
- e. The publication and enforcement of Teaching Standards (Kennedy 2016).

Within the context of this study, whereby the English Department of Education's teaching standards were heavily drawn upon in the development of the curriculum for the EfECT project (Borg et al. 2018), a quick overview of these teaching standards is necessary. Whitty et al. (2006) proposed four models of professionalism within the teacher and teacher educator landscape;

1. Traditional professionalism, which positions teachers as trusted members of society who exercise autonomy by virtue of their knowledge and expertise.
2. Managerial professionalism, in which the state takes a much more assertive role in specifying what teachers are expected to achieve rather than leaving it to professional judgement alone.
3. Collaborative professionalism, which focuses on interprofessional collaborations rather than collaborations across and within teaching.
4. Democratic professionalism, which, while acknowledging the need to form strategic alliances across and beyond professional boundaries, has at its core a notion that teachers are agents for change.

The English Teachers' Standards (DfE 2013) convey an explicit managerial purpose, evident in the wording which instructs users to "implement" them, rather than to reflect on them, or draw on them (Murray and Mutton 2016, p. 150). This managerial tone along with the lack of engagement with teachers and corresponding consensus building suggest that these standards are not developmental or aspirational. Overall, the document conveys a behaviourist/performance-based perspective on teaching and does not consider issues of values, beliefs and attitudes (Murray and Mutton 2016, p. 150).

One mechanism through which the professionalisation of teaching has been pursued is through the use of teaching practice (Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012; Menter et al. 2018, Dlada and Moon 2013; Li 2016; NESP 2016). Internationally, policy has generally been directed towards providing beginning teachers with more school-based experiences (Mattsson et al, 2017, p. 17). Darling-Hammond and Lieberman (2012, p. 167) state that "*connecting theory and practise through both the design of thoughtful coursework and the integration of high-quality clinical work in settings where good practice is*

*supported represents leading practice in teacher education.*” This belief was supported and strengthened by Mclean Davies et al (2013, p. 96) who stated that teachers should be able to assess the learning and learning needs of every student and provide appropriate interventions to move that learning forward. Teachers must also have professional capabilities to evaluate the impact they are having on each student. Moreover, teachers must be expert in gathering evidence and using sound clinical judgement to create appropriate learning strategies to meet each learner’s needs. Clinical judgement is only possible if the practice is underpinned by a well-defined body of knowledge, keen observational skills and highly developed analytical skills (McClean Davies et al, 2019, p. 96). The practicum turn in teacher education seeks to develop and enhance these skills in trainees. The skills that are needed to support these professional requirements are;

- An awareness of the centrality of the clients
- A complex professional knowledge base
- The use of evidence and a community of practice operating with shared standards (Menter et al., 2018, p. 5).

These are common features in the practicum requirements in many Teacher Education programmes around the world (Menter et al. 2018, Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012, Sahlberg 2012, Goodwin 2012, MacBeath 2012, Draper 2012).

The role of a mentor is key in order to achieve these goals. It is recognised by international literature that one of the key issues within teacher education programmes is the variability in the support provided to beginning teachers, and in particular in the quality of mentoring (Hobson et al. 2009). Zeichner and Bier (2014, p. 107) identify *“the under-resourcing of clinical experiences”* as being a key factor in issues of quality, but other issues have been identified, such as,

- a. An over-reliance on the personal, practical experience of the mentor in guiding new teachers in their development, and relatedly, an over-reliance on the idiosyncratic nature of the particular school context in question. This can lead to a tendency for more prescriptive and less innovative practice and little opportunity to evaluate the success or



otherwise of the approach taken in light of the evidence of alternative approaches – or teaching by proxy (Edwards and Proteroe 2004, p. 182).

- b. Too heavy a focus on the performance of trainee teachers in relation to meeting the prescribed professional standards; issues in terms of the relationship between mentor and mentee; the need for mentors to acquire a more developed understanding of theoretical approaches to mentoring and the needs of teachers as learners.

A key take-away from this is that, although experiential learning within the workplace is very important in helping teachers to develop their understanding of what works in practice, learning from context alone can be limited as it ignores alternative – and potentially superior – approaches or solutions outside the immediate environment (Peiser 2016, p. 164). It can thus be argued that, although the use of teaching practice is perhaps the most universal feature of teacher education, there is potentially significant variation in terms of the quality of this practical experience due to the variation in the role and expertise of the mentors who guide trainees through this process.

However, poor teacher motivation and lack of “ownership” of the training provided have been given as reasons why professional development initiatives, which are underpinned by the use of teacher standards, have faltered in developing contexts (Dheram 2007). Banks and Dheram (2013) have suggested that a prevailing attitude of textbook-reliance and trainer dependence in India has prevented teachers from taking responsibility and addressing their own specific needs (p. 83).

While the pursuit of the professionalisation of the teaching profession within the Education and Development sector has been characterised by the use of teaching standards (Borg et al. 2018; British Council 2015; Dheram 2007), it is not limited to this. For example, in Nigeria, collaborative work is ongoing with DFID on the restructuring of the college education system. This involves the development of Teacher Standards in parallel with the development and introduction of new college programmes as well as the concomitant new college structure and the minimum standards for college management (Ibn Junaid and Moon 2013, p. 98-99).

In the context of the professionalisation of teaching, generally speaking, within the Education and Development sector, a deficit model for understanding teachers' professionalism and status tends to prevail in academic and policy discourse on teachers. In other words, discussion, and to some extent policy interventions tend to focus on the attributes perceived to be lacking in teachers, principally; knowledge of a range of pedagogic methods and approaches, subject expertise, professional commitment and work ethic – all of which are usually reflected in teaching competency frameworks, and are indeed the hallmarks of the EfECT project (VSO 2002, p. 14; Dlada and Moon 2013, p. 10; Menter 2016; Borg et al. 2018).

The use of professionalisation, which is supported by teaching practice, and a deficit model in conceptualising teaching as key steps in addressing the quality imperative should be supported by a clear conceptualisation of pedagogy and its role in addressing the quality imperative. Leach and Moon (2008) have stated that, at its core, pedagogy must *"have the purpose of allowing children and others to forge their own ways and identities"* (p. 5-6). Pedagogy in the context of this study is understood as *"a dynamic process informed by theories, beliefs and dialogue... realised in the daily interactions of learners and teachers and real settings"* (Ibid p. 6) rather than a formula or set of techniques to ensure effective teaching (Bukler and Gafar 2013, p. 118-119). Indeed, Leach and Moon propose five pillars of pedagogy – voice, relationships, community, language and imagination (Ibid). These pillars of pedagogy have been applied to African contexts. For example, in 2000 Sudan introduced a dimensions-based curriculum designed to encourage pupils to think critically, solve problems and take responsibility for their learning (Alarky, 2009). Ghana's curriculum targets high-level cognitive objectives, values and practical skills and emphasis is critical thinking, problem-solving and pupil voice (Attar, 2000).

This conceptualisation of pedagogy is principles led, which is subject to local variation, and is influenced by the role of teachers within schools and the wider community – and political and economic considerations. When considering this capacity for variation in pedagogy, it is widely understood that teacher ability and resources are not the sole determinants of education quality; low morale and low self-esteem also negatively affect teacher motivation and impact on the quality of teaching teachers are able to provide (Mpokosa and Ndaruhutse,

2009; VSO 2002; World Bank 1990). Here morale is understood as *“the quality of lives within a community that involves being known and appreciated, having professional knowledge valued, and being given the freedom to act”* (Buckler and Gafar 2013, p. 118).

It is for these reasons that the prospect of a single, global measure of the quality of teaching applied across all cultural and pedagogical contexts is nothing if not deeply alarming. On a principles level there are some features of teaching, teachers, and pedagogy that seem to hold true cross-culturally. However, the local component of teaching and its inherent potential for variation therein deems it almost impossible to move beyond the general application of high-level principles to practise in a teacher education or basic education classroom. Again, the ahistorical, apolitical, and decontextualized application of the concepts of professionalisation and pedagogy is characterised by the application of epistemologies from the Global North to the Global South.

#### 3.3.2.2. Pedagogic Renewal

Pedagogic renewal is taken to mean “planned qualitative change toward desirable teaching practice, i.e., practices that ensure hoped for student learning” (Dembele and Lefoka 2007, p. 534). This is a seemingly simplistic or narrow view of pedagogical renewal; but it is one that has far-reaching implications.

There are agreements within the Education and Development sector on what practices are not desirable, namely rigid, chalk-and-talk, teacher-centred/dominated, lecture-driven pedagogy, which places students in a passive role and limits their activity to memorising facts and reciting them back to the teacher (Dembele and Miaro-il 2013, p. 331; Schweisfurth 2015, Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012; Lall 2011; Hardman et al. 2016; Hardman 2021). This kind of pedagogy is generally labelled “traditional” teaching.

There is also principled agreement on what practices are desirable, namely participatory, more interactive, child-centred, adventurous pedagogy characterised by cooperative learning and inquiry, with a view to foster conceptual understanding, critical thinking and problem-solving skills – generally labelled “modern” teaching (Schweisfurth 2015). These desirable practices fall under the general category of “open-ended” instruction, and are

closely aligned with the concept of global citizenship and inclusion advocated by UNESCO and UNICEF, and developing 21<sup>st</sup> Century skills as advocated by Human Capital Theory.

It is perhaps unsurprising that one of the striking features of pedagogical renewal in a development context is an attempt to switch to child/learner-centred, activity-oriented pedagogy, away from teacher-dominated instructional practices (Schweisfurth 2015; Hardman 2021).

In terms of further conceptualising the learner centred approach (LCA), it should be noted that it posits that human beings learn by actively constructing and assimilating knowledge rather than through the passive addition of discrete facts to an existing store of knowledge (Kadir and Hardman 2008; Bremner et al. 2022). Students are not blank slates at the beginning of their course. Their prior knowledge and skills influence how they will respond to course content and how they respond to methods to teach the course. Consequently, a learner-centred approach is also influenced by diagnostic testing. By knowing what a student brings to the classroom, instructors can help students build new knowledge in areas where they are less knowledgeable (Morrone and Tarr 2005; Bremner et al. 2022). Furthermore, an LCA should be culturally responsive because cultural and individual differences can impact students' reactions to different teaching approaches (ibid).

Bearing all of this in mind, according to Weimer (2002) and Shal et al. (2022) the five elements needed for a classroom to have a Learner-Centred Approach are;

1. The balance of power needs to shift from the traditional authoritarian power structure to a structure that gives students more control.
2. The development of students as learners should take precedence over the need to cover the content. Instructors need to consider students' prior knowledge and to design instruction to build on and change existing conceptions. Furthermore, students need to construct knowledge actively, rather than passively receive the information.
3. The focus must shift from the instructor to the learner.
4. This approach should help students develop as independent, self-regulated learners.

5. Evaluation and learning goals need to be inextricably linked so that evaluation promotes learning.

Indeed, school learning which connects to a learner's wider, personal agenda is more likely to transfer between home and school. Thus, by providing a socio-cultural context for tasks that is wider than the school, those aspects of school learning that are transferable due to their occurring as part of students' lives beyond school become not only embedded in the processes of school learning, but also the cultural context of the classroom. This in effect shapes school into something tangible rather than temporary and obscure (Adams, 2007). The tension in Developing contexts between this key LCA principle of connecting learning inside and outside the classroom on the one hand, and Language Policy and privileging of Northern epistemologies on the other, would most certainly be an obstacle to achieving the full benefits of this approach.

The LCA has also evolved and been applied in political, economic and cultural contexts. The aforementioned neo-liberal model has been the dominant basis for all politics since the 1990s and is seen by multi-and bi-lateral donors as the only alternative to eliminating poverty and promoting development (Drange 2011). As previously mentioned, there is also the tendency for knowledge to become privately owned, and as such public policy deliberations in general, and specifically in education, becomes increasingly reduced to market calculations (Fleury and Garrison 2013). This economic context in which the LCA has come to the fore is clearly influenced by Human Capital Theory, and is characterised by the development of skills that are deemed suitable for meaningful engagement with the market economy, including problem-solving, critical thinking, and collaboration.

Since the Reagan and Thatcher administrations, education has increasingly become a consumable private good, rather than a democratic public one (Ibid). Since schools are one of the primary locations for the application of political will, it seems appropriate to consider what the key functions of a school within this dominant model are;

In the context of a democratic, neo-liberal society, Greer (1999) identified the role of the school as follows;

1. The school enables the orderly, and reliable production and reproduction of society in a system of social cooperation from one generation to the next.
2. They have deep and long-term social effects and in fundamental ways shape citizens' character and aims, the kind of persons they are and aspire to be.
3. The school plays a vital educational role with regard to the nature of the society's political conception of itself. Although it is not the only place, it is one of the places where we learn about our rights, liberties and responsibilities as members (future citizens) of a society. We learn what we can claim and should expect.
4. The school is a crucial institution within which the moral development of children takes place. The school is second only to the family in this regard. It (ideally) enables children to develop civic virtues such as reasonableness, a sense of fairness, and civility, readiness to compromise, toleration and mutual respect.

While these functions of schools are tailored to a democratic, neo-liberal society, it is clear that aspects of these functions can be universally applied. For example, it can be argued that schools in general produce systems of social cooperation from one generation to the next, frame the expectations of future citizens, play a vital role in the society's political conception of itself, and develop morality in children. The culmination of these factors ensures that schools are a norm maintaining institution.

In relation to the application of the LCA, the experiences of most, if not all, countries can be summed up as follows: attempts to institutionalise child-centred pedagogy both in schools and teacher education institutions have produced inconclusive results (Schweisfurth 2015; Moon 2013).

Tabulawa (1997, 2009; McCowan et al. 2022) provided a compelling explanation of why it is proving so difficult to implement child-centred pedagogy in Botswana and Sub-Saharan Africa. In their view, the inconclusive results have often been rationalised in simplistic, technical terms, such as lack of resources and/or poorly trained teachers, whereas the real explanatory factors have to do with teachers' assumptions about the nature of knowledge

and how it ought to be transmitted, their perceptions of students, and what they consider to be the goal of schooling. Students' epistemological assumptions as well as social factors such as authoritarianism inherent in Botswana society must also be factored in. These assumptions (teachers' and students'), Tabulawa argued, are incongruent with the basic tenets of child-centred pedagogy; taking them for granted when affecting change in classroom practices can lead to disappointing results.

This is consistent with the assertion that; breaking the mould of traditional teaching to embrace and use open-ended/learner-centred instructional approaches is extremely difficult for teachers because it requires changing deeply rooted beliefs about knowledge, teaching, learning, learners and the purpose of schooling (Dembele and Miaro-il, 2013 p. 193). Clearly, the conceptualisation of teachers and teaching was a key consideration for Tabulawa, in that there is an incompatibility between the role of teachers within a LCA and that of the traditional conceptualisation of teachers and knowledge in Botswana. Indeed, the conceptualisation of teachers and their relationships with their students in the context of the contemporary legacy of the Royal and Buddhist provision of education in Myanmar is a key consideration in this project.

As already noted, it is proving quite difficult to implement child-centre, active pedagogy as a desirable practice on a large scale. Teachers are typically unprepared, and lack needed support from school heads and a supervisor to implement this approach. This does not mean, however, that the ideal of child-centred pedagogy should be abandoned. It is simply a call to be cognisant that implementation of such a pedagogy poses formidable challenges, even in contexts where the requisite conditions are in place (Dembele and Miaro-il 2013; Schweisfurth 2015). In the context of the EfECT project, and the key goal of training teacher educators in 'modern' teaching methodologies, the role of the LCA and concomitant inconclusiveness in the effectiveness of its application are axiomatic.

The next section will look at the problems of the measurement of quality in the context of teaching, teachers and pedagogy.

### 3.3.2.3. Measurement of Quality

While there is a lack of consensus in the conceptualisations of teaching and pedagogy in relation to addressing the quality imperative in the Education and Development sector, equally, there is a lack of consensus in the conceptualisation of the measurement of quality.

The underlying principle in addressing the quality imperative and establishing a situation whereby measurement is achievable is that; today's most successful communities (businesses, schools) have one thing in common – they know how to transform individual expertise into collective knowledge. They are places where each individual contributes their particular expertise to a shared learning history. The creation of new knowledge is everyone's most important work; joint learning leads to innovation and growth as well as creativity and the development of self-esteem on the part of individuals. Researchers often refer to this as distributed learning (Leach and Moon 2008; Phan and Coxhead 2017).

If distributed learning is the goal, models of continuous professional development and quality assurance within the provision of education must be able to operate at sufficient scale, but must also adequately equip teachers with knowledge and skills such that their classroom practices create genuine opportunities for student learning, agency and growth. This applies equally to training new teachers through teacher education programmes, to up-skilling the large numbers of currently practising unqualified or under-qualified teachers through in-service training (Power 2013, p. 213).

In order to achieve the sufficient scale required to measure the quality of teaching, teacher salary based on qualifications, years of experience and exam results have been used as proxy measurements. The appeal of these variables rests in the conviction that higher teacher pay may result in improved pupil achievement either through increased teacher effort, or by attracting a better pool of applicants in a given school or by creating an incentive for teachers to retain their more valuable jobs (Kingdon and Teal 2007; Jain and Prasad 2018).

It has also been well demonstrated that in order to attract highly competent candidates into teaching, remuneration must at least be on par with that of other professions requiring similar levels of qualifications (e.g., Hanushek and Woessmann 2010; UNICEF 2010). As such, teacher wage structures typically



reflect the assumption that effectiveness and quality increase progressively with years of schooling, teaching certificates and experience, and are therefore determined by rigid formulae of seniority, experience and education level (Lall 2016; Borg et al. 2018). If true, this provides a rationale for schools to adopt “performance related pay” mechanisms and offers a tool for policy-makers to channel limited resources to improve pupil learning. (Aslam and Kingdon 2013, p. 179).

Alternatively, it has been progressively shown that these characteristics, which are typically associated with educator quality (and which largely determine salary structures), such as tertiary degrees, teaching certificates, or years of experience, do not systematically produce desired learning outcomes or indeed guarantee sound pedagogical practice within the classroom (Hanushek and Woessmann 2010; Nordstrum 2013).

In contrast, the 2005 UN Global Monitoring Report stated that pupil attainment improves the better qualified the teacher. Indeed, this contention was supported by Hanushek et al. (2019), who contends that countries which recruit teachers from the top third of the academic cohort perform better in international testing. The result of this lack of consensus in how to measure the quality of teaching is that national or regional education systems cannot assume that incremental and linear pay raises for their teacher workforces, allocated according to seniority and educational level, will inherently reinforce the desired behaviours present in professionals and pedagogues of “good quality”. Indeed, given the proportion of educational spending allotted to teacher salaries, low- and lower middle-income countries, for which resource scarcity (and hence cost-effectiveness) is an acutely important consideration in the development of policy, cannot afford to make this assumption (Nordstrum 2013, p. 42-43).

Another proxy measurement of quality put forward by Hanbing and McCormack (2013), is that the only existing national system of accountability of teachers is the student examination system. This tends to reinforce traditional teaching, which reforms are trying to improve upon. They also argue that the stress on peer support, sharing practice and school involvement in professional

development might reinforce traditional approaches, making this a difficult mechanism for reform.

An alternative to measuring quality via qualifications, years of experience, and examination results is looking into process variables. It has been suggested that “the *usually un-measured teaching process variables – that is the teaching strategies used, impact student achievement strongly*” (Dlada and Moon 2013 p. 13). Lesson planning, involving students by asking questions during class and quizzing them on past material, all substantially benefit pupil learning (Aslam and Kingdon 2007; Esteves et al. 2021), all of which align with the LCA. Dlada and Moon (2013) point to omitted variables and measurement difficulties as the major obstacles in evaluating the quality of teaching. However, they cautiously infer that much of the variation in test scores (at least about one fourth) is likely due to teacher differences. In a clear nod to the previously discussed principles that underlie pedagogic renewal in development contexts, Dlada and Moon (2013) stated that the way a teacher teaches may be more significant than experience or level of qualification (p. 12).

#### 3.3.2.4. Using International Comparison to Measure Quality

The principal aim of the use of comparison within the provision of education the world over is to identify good practice elsewhere, and that such good practice might be seen as potentially adoptable to local contexts. Lessons might be learnt from foreign examples and contribute to attempts to reform that could benefit from perceived advantages. Indeed, this approach is widely used in the Education and Development sector, whereby practice from the Global North is regularly perceived as a policy solution to the provision of basic education in developing contexts (Phillips and Schweisfurth 2014; Borg et al. 2018).

Analysis of the transfer of ideas from one setting to another is a highly complex matter to which comparativists have devoted considerable attention (Phillips and Schweisfurth 2014, p. 17). Indeed, Phillips and Schweisfurth highlighted the importance of local contexts when comparing education systems when they stated that:

*It would be axiomatic to expect that comparativists will take into account the historical, social, economic, cultural etc., contexts in which*

*education phenomena are observed, and that they must be sensitive to and knowledgeable about what these contributing areas of expertise can offer. We can only properly understand an educational phenomenon in terms of the contextual factors that have created and shaped it. Indeed, it is essential in comparative studies to insist on the centrality of context for degrees of explanatory power (p. 12).*

However, Phillips and Schweisfurth (2014) went on to state that Postmodernism (or poststructuralism) offers critiques of the grand narratives of Western epistemology, which is overwhelmingly made up of white, male and western points of view, and therefore are seen to serve white, male and western interests. Instead, it adopts a diversity view, which acknowledges and celebrates that individuals and groups of individuals have equally valid but different perspectives, and an equal right to constitute knowledge, thus providing a more level playing field in the privileging of different epistemologies.

On considering the key role that comparative education has played in the provision of education in both the Global North and Global South, it has been claimed that comparative education has been late in addressing issues of postmodernity (Phillips and Schweisfurth 2014; Andreotti 2011). Its increasing importance and redefining role were predicted by Gottlieb (1998);

*The “postmodern turn” in comparative education, if and when it takes place, will most likely result in a (different) construction of knowledge. The destabilisation of the dominant modernist genres of discourse and the opening up of space for the actors’ voices and authority will introduce indigenous knowledge and new categories into the semantic universe of comparative education, through the typical interpretive underlying metaphors of culture and text (p. 36).*

It is within this context of the tension between the grand narratives of modernism, and the diversity of postmodernism that the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), which is developed and managed by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has become increasingly important as a tool through which quality is measured, and thus, the quality imperative addressed. The OECD has been playing a key

role in maintaining and promoting the principles of neo-liberalism since its creation. Throughout its history, the OECD has assisted countries in fostering good governance and reforming and improving their economic policies to generate greater economic growth. The success of these efforts helped build a wider consensus for market economies and democracy (OECD 2006).

The OECD's education work developed substantially in the 1990s and culminated in the first round of PISA in 2000. Since then, PISA has become a globally influential assessment on the back of the soft power of the headlines that it generates, and its capacity to change the way people think about education. It is important to remember that PISA was developed to assist the OECD with its economic mandate and that this rationale informed the assessment's framework and continues to guide its development (Seller et al. 2017).

PISA attempts to predict the quality of the workforce and the future competitiveness of a nation's economy from the test scores of 15-year-old students, in a test independent of their curriculum, who are in school during the year of testing (Michael 2017). The choice to focus on students' ability to use what they had learned in schools in situations that were close to both future professional needs and everyday life, instead of simply assessing academic learning proved to be an important innovation of PISA (Ibid). This approach was influenced by the Human Capital theory, which was well perceived within the OECD during the inception of PISA. However, the choice did not receive unanimous support, since some people, mainly educationalists, considered that such a predominantly utilitarian perception of education was too greatly influenced by economic priorities and did not allow for the evaluation of all the goals of education (Michael 2017). Consequently, while taking into account, as much as possible, the diversity of education goals and priorities among countries, PISA aimed at identifying some basic universal challenges brought about by the new globalised world economy, and defining the required common key competences to face them (ibid).

PISA's effectiveness as evaluation of the quality of national education systems is commonly attributed to three factors, its acceptance as a universal measure of education quality, its perceived economic significance, and the promise of

policy solutions in the form of prescriptions of best practice (Grey and Morris 2018, p. 110) The economic and curriculum independent nature of PISA has been interpreted by Human Capital Theorists such as Hanushek and Woessmann (2015) in such a way as to claim that improvements in economic growth are the result of rising PISA scores (Grey and Morris 2018, p. 109). As such, high performing education systems identified as strong performers and successful reformers by PISA have become reference societies upon which national education reform policies are pursued (Hulme 2016, p. 39).

Consequently, it can be argued that international organisations such as the OECD, UNESCO and the World Bank are entrepreneurs of convergence that use soft governance mechanisms to influence national education policies (Martens et al, 2010, p. 18). In this context, education is positioned as a source of economic growth and a means for individuals to overcome disadvantages. Teachers' roles are increasingly seen as transformational and are positioned as a source of salvation and blame (Weisberg et al. 2009; Li 2016).

There are clear examples of the use of international benchmarking through the use of PISA in evaluating education systems the world over. Indeed, many governments and certainly the world's media treat the performance of a sample of 15-year-olds in the PISA tests to a single moment in their educational journey as a valid and reliable measure of the performance of entire education systems, with documented influences on educational policy in many of the participating countries. (Alexander 2016, p. 120; Breakspear 2012). For example, In Brazil, traditional teaching methods predominate with little use of co-operative active pedagogic strategies. These problems of teacher quality contribute significantly to the ongoing concern about the overall progress of pupils in key curriculum areas. Despite the impressive progress Brazil has made, 60% of students, using PISA data, lack basic numeracy skills. On the basis of the national testing systems. in 2009 50% of primary school leavers lacked basic literacy skills, roughly the same as in 2003 (World Bank, 2010, 2020).

Alternatively, Michael (2017, p. 210) pointed out that, between 2001 and 2008 the most obvious use of PISA results in all countries was to justify the main stakeholders' pre-existing opinions and stances rather than as the basis of a debate about the explaining factors of PISA results and policy measures that

were likely to improve these results. This policy developing process is framed within a narrative of future economic success being dependent on improving educational quality (Grey and Morris 2018, p. 109), and education policy reflecting both the dominant (and contested) values of a particular nation, revealing how those in power desire to shape the education of those who shape the lives of society's future citizens and participants (Menter 2016, p.3). Thus, PISA can be seen as a vehicle with which policy makers, on either an international or national level, pursue their ideological agenda.

There are diverging arguments in relation to the importance and role of international comparison in teacher education, and the impact of PISA on governments that are keen to undertake educational reform. Meyer and Benevot (2013) and Grek (2012) have put forward the notion that the OECD's promotion of PISA data creates weak governance, where local policy makers with high hopes for what they can gain from data-driven policy-making become dependent on the OECD as an external authority with no local and contextual expert knowledge. The implications of this in teacher education is potentially significant. It encourages the critical analysis of policy as transcendental and ahistorical ideas that are presented as lessons derived from comparison (Hulme 2016, p. 38). Indeed, supranational policy texts work to universalise (and normalise) particular readings of the qualities and characteristics of what is perceived to be an effective teacher and models of teacher education that correspond with this perception (Hulme 2016, p. 38). This has led to international organisations circulating context indifferent solutions to complex and embedded educational problems (Lingard and Sellar 2013).

This drive for international comparison, which is fed by the desire to develop and expand economically, is dominant despite the fact that there is no strong association between national economic competitiveness and students' performance on PISA (Sellar et al. 2017). Indeed, school factors have been shown to have a relatively minor impact on performance on standardised tests – accounting for around 20% of variation in standardised assessment (Ibid). In contrast, out of school factors such as cultural background or socio-economic status account for around 60% of variance. So, it makes sense that students with similar cultural and/or socio-economic backgrounds perform similarly and that standardised testing is more indicative of a students' cultural or socio-

economic background than it is of the education system in which they are being tested (Sellar et al. 2017 p. 63). These cultural and socio-economic subtleties are most certainly lost on the media attention given and the reform policies pursued by governments on the back of PISA results (Hopfenback and Gorgen 2017; Michael 2017; Grey and Morris 2017).

Bearing in mind its influence, it could be observed that, through PISA, the OECD has become a modernist norm maintaining institution. Through its mandate of disseminating the principles of neoliberalism, and the hegemony it has increasingly been enjoying in recent years as a global authority on education, it could be said that PISA evaluates how effective national education policies are at producing a workforce within the context of neo-liberal economic and political agendas. Thus, it can be argued that the drive to include international comparison in education policy reform is ideologically, politically, and economically driven. The implications of this culture of international comparison are potentially far reaching.

In the context of this research, the universalisation and normalisation of the role of education and of effective teaching by “entrepreneurs of convergence” and the resultant application of decontextualized and ahistorical policy borrowing and solutions to local contexts are particularly pertinent.

#### 3.3.2.5. Donor Governance and the Quality Imperative

This section will address the impact of the lack of consensus in the conceptualisation of teaching, teachers, and pedagogy, pedagogic renewal via the implementation of the LCA, and the measurement systems used to address the quality imperative have had an impact on the policies of donor governance.

For instance, as already stated, although a concern with quality was central to the Jomtien declaration, the identification of the significance of teachers has only slowly emerged (Dlada and Moon 2013, p. 8). The Dakar framework for action – which was a key document in the development of the MDGs – spoke of the need to “*enhance the status, morale and professionalism of teachers*” (Dlada and Moon 2013, p. 7). As a result, perhaps unsurprisingly, successive reports from UNESCO have focused attention on teachers and teacher education (UNESCO 2016, 2017). Indeed, the 2005 Global Monitoring Report (GRM) “The Quality Imperative” (UNESCO 2005) established something of a

benchmark in giving prime focus to teacher pedagogic practice as an important determinant of the quality of schooling, in which it was found that *“in many countries, present styles and methods of teaching are not serving children well”* (p. 230). The UK’s DFID (2010) recently called for the prioritisation of teachers and teaching: *“bringing together the conditions for quality only bear fruit when interventions reach into classrooms, and impact on teaching – which requires above all a focus on teacher practice and pedagogy”* (p. 30). All of this is taking place as more and more developing countries are agreeing to participate in international benchmarking of educational performance, and the consequent increase in political engagement with the quality of teachers and teaching (Bird et al. 2012, p. 28). As can be seen; multilateral, bi-lateral agencies and national governments are all responding to the quality imperative.

All of this is indicative of what the US National Research Council (2003) refers to as a six-fold problem of evidential selectivity in funding and policy flow within the Education and Development sector. First, the preferred evidence is top-down. It reflects the world, the preoccupations, the priorities and the experiences of policymakers rather than those of teachers and children. Second it may privilege a supposedly international but essentially Western perspective over an indigenous one. Third, its view of school and classroom life may be generalised, coarse-grained, un-nuanced, and perhaps simplistic. Fourth, it’s understandable pursuit of what can be measured removes from the agenda and consciousness of policymakers those vital aspects of education that quantification cannot access. Fifth, it ignores a substantial tranche of evidence of which, in the interests of competent and democratic policy making, policymakers, or at least their advisors, have a duty to be aware. Sixth, it is self-sealing and self-reinforcing (Alexander 2016 p. 126).

Consequently, it can be inferred that, when donors include the quality imperative as a precondition for the distribution of aid, this manifests itself in the skewing of policy towards a Western perspective of the role of education, which are heavily influenced by the previously mentioned theories of development.



### 3.3.3 Using Teacher Education to address the Quality Imperative

The role of teacher education has become an increasingly important component of the policies of donors in addressing the quality imperative. Indeed, many donor programmes support upgrading programmes that attempt to provide education to the hundreds of thousands of unqualified or under-qualified teachers in the school system (Moon and Umar 2013, p. 233). As a result, many of the international organisations concerned with the improvement of education in low-income countries are giving increased attention to teacher education. UNESCO, for example, launched its Teacher Training in Sub-Saharan Africa (TTISA) initiative in 2006 (2006). In their policy document they stated that:

*It is only now that people are starting to listen to those who saw the shortage of qualified teachers as a major impediment to national development and that national and international authorities are beginning to realise that the achievement of the MDGs, and the EFA objectives depends on the training of professionals capable of the long-term effort to promote education effectively, in particular through the training of teachers and managerial staff in the education system (TTISA) (p. 9-10).*

As such, addressing teacher shortage is a key component in addressing the quality imperative. At a conservative estimate, at least two million unqualified or underqualified teachers are working in the primary school systems of developing countries (UNESCO 2006).

The 2005 Global Monitoring Report (GMR) provides a critique of existing programmes of teacher education and training by setting out evidence to suggest that much existing pre-service training fails to provide new teachers with the necessary skills and knowledge to work effectively. The 2006 report (UNESCO 2006) is explicit in saying: “Teacher numbers are generally too low and PTRs (Pupil Teacher Ratio) generally too high in the countries farther from attaining universal primary education ... a major shortage is looming (p. 84). UNESCO went further in stating that: “*sustained progress in education quality depends on making sure that all schools have sufficient teachers, that the*

*teachers are properly trained and supported, and that they are motivated. None of these conditions are currently being met” (UNESCO 2013, p. 83).*

In terms of whether teachers are properly trained, the above section related to the quality imperative and the role of the professionalisation of teaching addresses this.

An interesting interpretation of how to address the shortage of qualified teachers, non-qualified and under-qualified teachers is that it has become increasingly clear that traditional, full-time campus-based courses do not have the capacity to deal with such large shortages in the numbers of qualified teachers and the quality of their teaching. Part-time, in-service, school-based programmes have become an increasingly routine mode of educating and upgrading teachers at scale (Moon 2008; Moon and Umar 2013).

In response to this assertion, a school-based model has been put forward to address this lack of capacity (Moon and Umar 2013). Power et al. (2009) describe a school-based model of teacher education and teacher professional development (TPD) as a particular instance of Open and Distance Learning (ODL). They argue that a school-based ODL approach to teacher education and TPD enables student-teachers to study in their own time, and allows them to keep their employment, continue to care for their families and to hold their responsibility in their community. Such models of teacher education and TPD allow teachers in remote areas to participate, whereas attending a conventional course would involve long travel (often slow because of poor rural infrastructure), extra cost and further time away from personal commitments and responsibilities. For these reasons, they argue such an approach is particularly suited to a development context (Power et al. 2013). Moon (2008) outlines possible foundations for such architecture, with four important assertions:

- The bricks and mortar institutions of 20<sup>th</sup> century teacher education and TPD cannot hope to meet the needs of the 21<sup>st</sup> century
- Most teacher education TPD will happen in schools, not in institutions
- To impact on student achievement, teacher education and TPD will be practically focused on improving the day-to-day work of teachers

- New technologies, particularly new forms of communications, have the potential to transform professional learning (p. 213).

This approach is indicative of an emerging theme in developed contexts; that of multiple entries to teacher education. In some parts of the world (England and the US) governments have diversified the routes into teaching. This has usually meant loosening the control held by higher education and the university sector and allowing other providers (groups of schools working as a consortium for example) to play a role. These new providers could be public bodies or private organisations (Moon and Umar 2013).

The widespread application of this entry route to teacher education in England has highlighted some interesting findings. England has gone further than most in making education more of an open market; trying to make access easier, sidestepping the traditional requirements of the university teacher education courses, and opening up teacher education providers to a wider market. This has led to multiple routes in teacher education (Mutton 2016, p.204). One of the direct consequences of this market-driven approach to teacher education under the 2010 to 2015 coalition-government in the UK, was the introduction of School-Direct. The key policy aims of School-Direct are to enhance the role of schools in teacher education by building on the best practice that already existed, and to encourage the development of more collaborative partnerships working, particularly in relation to the recruitment of trainees and the planning and delivery of teacher education programmes (Mutton 2016, p.204).

The central belief behind this approach is that teaching is a craft to be learned through an apprenticeship model, whereby the apprentice (trainee) learns the skills of their trade from expert craftspeople (teacher educators) in their workshop (the classroom) (Grey and Morris 2018, Cochran-Smith 2016, Menter et al. 2018). Within this model, all teacher education providers now have to demonstrate compliance with imposed regulatory structures, such as a teacher competency framework, and follow models of managed professionalism to meet corporate goals set by both the government and its agencies (Murry and Mutton 2016, p. 69). The clear implications being that; more time spent learning on the job and in schools will automatically lead to better student and learning and more effective teacher education (Murry and Mutton 2016, p. 71).

In England there is an unwavering belief that gaining more experience in schools by extending the practicum will automatically lead to better quality learning for pre-service teachers. Despite the importance of research-informed knowledge in teacher education, the 2011 English Teacher Competency Framework has been found to focus on teachers' behaviour, rather than on their attitudes and their intellectuality and contain very little explicit reference to teachers' engagement with and in research (Murray 2016, p. 188).

The potential tensions here are clear. If a school regards the purpose of training programmes as essentially to prepare teachers to work in the specific context of that school, then it is likely that the focus will be on the enculturation of those teachers into the specific practices and ways of working in that one particular setting. What may be of lesser priority, perhaps, is the development of beginning teachers' capacity to be responsive and innovative in the face of contexts which will inevitably change, often as a result of local or national policy trends (Menter et al. 2018, p. 16). This can lead to the aforementioned "teaching by proxy". This inevitably leads to a tendency for more prescription (following existing tried and tested approaches), less innovative practice and little opportunity to evaluate the success or otherwise of the approach taken in light of the evidence of alternative approaches (Menter et al. 2018, p. 17). This can create a situation whereby newly qualified teachers are school ready, but not profession ready. Indeed, McIntyre (2009, p. 603) argues that, in England, this partnership, which doesn't prioritise research literacy, and is geared more towards the practice end of the theory practice divide, is aimed only at preparing beginning teachers for the status quo, and very deliberately being planned to avoid them being encouraged to think critically of that status quo.

By contrast, one of the potential positive consequences of this approach to teacher education is that it brings different aspects of expertise that exist in schools and communities together on a more equal plane with academic knowledge. This broader view about the kinds of expertise that are needed to educate teachers expands opportunities for teaching and learning, as new synergies are created through the interplay of knowledge from different sources (Menter et al. 2018, p. 16). Indeed, it is this interplay between knowledge from different sources that is considered the key strength of this model in an Education and Development context, in that moving away from a

Higher Education Institution (HEI) led model draws on more accessible expertise in the local schools and colleges, which in turn facilitates the process of reaching more trainee teachers in teacher education programmes.

Despite the contested nature of this school led model, the belief in this school of thought in a developing context is that unless a school-based approach is adopted, millions of teachers will lose contact with all forms of education and training. Advocacy of a school-based approach does not presuppose one particular form or model of such training (Anamuah-Mensah et al. 2013, p. 204). Some school-based approaches to such training that have gained currency recently (like the English School Direct model) involved peer support, mentoring by experienced teachers and other strategies that would not be possible given the context of many low-income country school systems. However, building training approaches around the school is now, it is believed, an urgent priority. (Ibid).

As has been touched upon, this School Led Model of teacher education has brought into sharp focus the perennial issues around the theory practice divide (Menter et, al. 2018, p. 5). Central to teacher education policy and reform is a shared conceptualisation of the nature of professional knowledge that teachers require, both in their initial training and subsequently as they become more experienced in the classroom, and a shared agreement as to what sort of qualities teachers need (Mutton 2015, p. 216). The role of theory and research within this context has become a contentious and divisive one. A key element of the theory practice divide is the notion of the theory-practice gap, which is based on the perceived failure of the university model of teacher education, which presumably emphasises theory, values and beliefs at the expense of actual teaching practice, thus leaving new teachers on their own to implement or translate (university produced) theory into (classroom-ready) practice (Cochran-Smith 2017, p. xii).

The theory practice divide is an area of significant divergence in teacher education internationally, with countries such as Finland (Sahlberg 2012), Singapore (Goodwin 2012), The UK (MacBeath 2012; Kennedy 2016), Hong Kong, (Draper 2012), Canada (Levin 2012), The United States (Darling-Hammond 2012), Ireland (Kennedy 2016) and Australia (Mayer, Pecheone and

Merino 2012) displaying considerable variation in the roles of theory and practice and the ideology behind these variations. These divergences were expertly summarised by Furlong et al (1996), when they suggested that there are three dominant models of partnership within teacher education, and that these models have an influence on the nature of the theory practice divide:

1. The Collaborative Model

At the heart of this model is the commitment to develop a training programme where students are exposed to different forms of educational knowledge, some of which come from schools, some of which come from Higher Education Institutions (HEI) or elsewhere. Teachers are seen as having an equally legitimate but perhaps different body of professional knowledge from those in HEIs. Students are expected and encouraged to use what they learn in school to critique what they learn within the HEI and vice-versa. It is through this dialectic that they are expected to build up their own body of professional knowledge. For the model to succeed, teachers and lecturers need opportunities to work and plan together on a regular basis. Such on-going collaboration is essential if they are to develop a programme of work for the student that is integrated between the HEI and the school (1996, p. 44)

2. The HEI-led model

This model is led by those in the HEI though sometimes with the help of a small group of teachers acting as consultants. The aim, as far as course leadership is concerned, is to utilise schools as a resource in setting up learning opportunities for students. Course leaders have a set of aims which they want to achieve and this demands that schools act in similar ways and make available comparable opportunities for all students. Within this model, quality control – making sure students all receive comparable training opportunities – is a high priority (1996, p. 45, 49).

3. The Separatist (or complimentary) model

The final model of partnership is a separatist one where school and HEIs are seen as having separate and complementary responsibilities but where there is no systematic attempt to bring these two

dimensions into dialogue. In other words, there is partnership but not necessarily integration. In the course integration is something that students themselves have to achieve (1996, p. 47).

What all three models have in common is that they acknowledge that both schools and universities contribute to teachers' professional learning in distinctive ways, and that while both are necessary, neither alone is sufficient (Mutton 2016, p. 202). While teacher education programmes used to be underpinned by specific pedagogical principles, they also have to take into account the need to adhere to statutory measures of accountability, including the requirements to assess teachers' competence in relation to designated professional standards. This inevitably gives rise to tensions as an increased focus on performance further reduces the opportunity for teachers (and beginning teachers in particular) to engage in developing professional knowledge and understanding through an informed critique of both the practical and contextualised perspectives of teachers and also the idealised, theoretical and research-based perspectives of university staff (McIntyre 2009, p. 605). The multiple models of teacher education, coupled with the divergence in opinions of the role of theory and practice in teacher education internationally, compounds the lack of consensus and variability that exists in the theory and practice debate.

In many countries, since the 1980s and 1990s, there has been an emphasis on competences and then standards, which made little or no reference to theory or research (Menter 2017, p.26). This is the case despite the fact that the OECD claims that in order to address the needs of lower achievers and in so doing raise educational attainment, teachers will require a wide pedagogical repertoire that meets the individual needs of students, coupled with expertise in supporting students' meta-cognitive processes (2012). It is very difficult to see how teachers can acquire such a repertoire without research-based Teacher Education (Peiser 2016, p. 164, Mincu 2014, p. 4). Indeed, the British Education Research Association (BERA) have stated that having research-literacy dictates that teachers should be familiar with a range of research methods, with the latest research findings and with the implications of this research for day-to-day practice, and for education policy and practise more broadly (BERA and RS 2014, p. 40). Research-informed teacher education

reaches further than promoting theoretical understanding in its own right. It also advocates evidence-based instruction that makes a practical contribution to the lives of young people. Furthermore, research literacy not only empowers teachers to become autonomous evaluators and improvers of their work, but also enhance professional identity (Peiser 2016, p. 164). Thus, there are many possible advantages to the development of research literacy in teachers.

An interesting feature of the theory practice divide is that teacher educationalists have problematized the concept that certain processes inevitably lead to desired goals due to the complexities of diverse educational settings and the particularity of beliefs and practices of individual teachers (Peiser 2016). In light of this knowledge, research in teacher education has had to become relevant to the context in which student teachers find themselves and take account of teachers' beliefs and values (Peiser 2016, p. 165). This implies that the local application of research skills by teachers is key to reaping the full rewards of research literacy, which is anathema to the aforementioned entrepreneurs of convergence.

In developing contexts, another area of concern in teacher education in addressing these quality concerns is attrition rates. Attrition rates are perceived as high, particularly in remote rural areas (Bird et al. 2013, p. 23). Where salaries are low, teachers may take on additional work, which in turn, impacts on status (Bird et al. 2013, p. 25). The issue of deployment, which features in the top two or three concerns raised by teachers, particularly female teachers, after pay, is a central issue in attrition rates (VSO 2002; Lall 2016). The 2005 GMR suggests that the perceived unfairness in teacher deployment is one of the most important reasons to explain why some teachers leave the profession (Ibid). This ranks even higher than achieving the internationally accepted pupil-teacher ratio of 40-1. (World Bank 2006).

The culmination of these factors suggests that capacity and context are key to creating a general acceptance of quality and a culture of concern around generally acceptable levels of educational provision. However, in pursuing quality, policy makers must be realistic about the resources available. With this in mind, current teacher education and training involves someone playing the trainer role, the teacher educator. The lack of people with the experience and



qualifications to play this role appears to be a major problem for pre-service training. In systems with acute teacher shortages and very large numbers of unqualified teachers, it is likely that the teacher education role will be problematic (Banks and Dheram 2013 p. 89-90).

As Cochran-Smith (2017) has suggested. If teacher education policy reflects both the dominant (and contested) values of a particular nation (p. xii), then the dominant model of teacher education in a given country, and the reasons for this dominance is telling. The variation and convergence in teacher education that exists throughout the developed world in terms of professionalisation, practicum, international comparison and the theory practice divide is informative in terms of the values and expectations these countries have of their basic education systems. Indeed, the potential for this contextualised variation in teacher education policy is a key premise upon which this research is based, in that, the impact of the infrastructural, structural, and historical context of Myanmar on practice in teacher education is a key consideration.

As has been illustrated, the most pressing issue in terms of addressing the quality imperative for teacher education in a development context is the substantial shortfall in qualified teachers and attrition rates. This is compounded by the lack of consensus in the conceptualisation of teaching, teachers and pedagogy, the quality measurement systems, and inconsistent language policies. It has also been demonstrated throughout this section that the key features of addressing the quality imperative in an Education and Development context align with the dominant theories of development discussed in this chapter, as well as standard practice in developed contexts.

### 3.4. Conclusion

The aim of this literature review was to contextualise the Education and Development landscape that the EfECT project was conceived, developed, and provided in. This was achieved by looking at the dominant theories of development, how these theories inform international development goals, and the impact these goals have on decision-making processes by multi- and bi-lateral donors. The role of NGOs has also been looked at through the prism of service providers. The potential impact that all of these factors have on the

pedagogy of development was also looked at. A key finding from this literature review is that the dominant theories of development – which inform everything thereafter – closely align with dominant practice in the Global North, which is made up of a democratic, market-led approach to development.

In a proceeding chapter the, key principles of the Education and Development sector will be used to evaluate the EfECT project in the hopes of demonstrating the manner in which its conception, development, and provision are framed within the theories that underpin the SDGs, and their practical manifestation via language policy considerations, the conceptualisation of teaching, teachers, and pedagogy, as well as considerations related to the quality imperative. Ultimately, the evaluation of EfECT using these themes from the literature is to justify its use as an instrumental Case Study in this project.

It is also hoped that this chapter demonstrates that the general thrust of the Education and Development sector is dominated by strategic considerations and practice from the Global North. This feature of the sector lends itself to the concept of providing a global solution to a local problem, and is characterised by the apolitical, ahistorical, and decontextualized application of the dominant world view – one characterised by the application of market economy considerations and democratic principles to developing contexts, and that this privileging of the epistemologies of the Global North be problematised.

## Chapter 4 – Methodology

### 4. Introduction

As has already been established, the key motivation for this research is for teacher educators in Myanmar to express their attitudes, opinions, feelings, and beliefs about the CPD that they have received which was funded and provided by the Education and Development sector, using the EfECT project as a Case Study. It was decided that, in order to achieve this goal, a Mixed Methods Research Design would be used for this project. Jennifer Green (2007), in her book, *A Mixed Methods Approach to Social Enquiry*, stated that:

*A mixed methods way of thinking involves an openness to multiple ways of seeing, and hearing multiple ways of making sense of the social*

*world, and multiple standpoints on what is important and to be valued and cherished. A mixed methods way of thinking rests on assumptions that there are multiple legitimate approaches to social inquiry, that any given approach to social inquiry is inevitably partial, and that thereby multiple approaches can generate more complete and meaningful understanding of complex human phenomena. A mixed method way of thinking means genuine acceptance of other ways of seeing and knowing as legitimate. A mixed methods way of thinking involves an active engagement with difference and diversity (p. xii).*

These features of a mixed methods approach seemed compatible with the overall objective of this study, in that the *'active engagement with difference and diversity,'* and providing as complete and meaningful and understanding of the complex context in which the EfECT project took place seemed to be exactly what the goals of this project were. This complexity lies in the engagement between different cultures, histories, worldviews, and education systems.

Thus, it was deduced, on the back of extensive reading (Creswell and Creswell, 2018; Creswell and Plano Clarke 2018; Green 2007, Tashakori et al. 2020) that a mixed methods approach was best placed in order to provide a research design for a dialogue to take place between each of these elements of this project. This includes the Education and Development Sector on one hand, which operates within the framework of Human Capital Theory; the principles of democratisation, and the strategic and policy objectives of the Global North, and the Myanmar context on the other. The Myanmar context is characterised by the legacy of the Royal provision of education, which was located in Buddhist monasteries and provided by Buddhist monks, their colonial encounter with Britain, which was characterised by the complete, total, and utter undermining of the existing Royal and Monastic provision of education, and finally their troubled era of modern independence, which has been fraught with political violence and unaccountable military leadership, which chronically underinvested in education. This complexity has been compounded by the democratic reform that began in 2010 and culminated with the election of the NLD in 2015. This democratic reform took place in parallel with the emergence of the political will for educational reform, that has subsequently been upended by the military coup which took place in February 2021.

The complexity of this context dictated the necessity for a research design that gave the TEs the opportunity to express themselves, but that also allowed for the intricacy of the context that this project was taking place in. Indeed, Postcolonial theory played a key role in framing the methodology of this project through its ability to offer a theoretical lens and vocabulary with which this context was represented and analysed. A mixed methods approach, in taking advantage of the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods, seemed best placed to achieve this.

Ultimately, this chapter seeks to justify this choice of theory and method, as well as setting out the multiple phases, and steps within each phase, that led to the data which is presented in the next two chapters of this thesis, and made a significant contribution to the Discussion in the final chapter of this thesis.

#### 4.1. Worldview/Paradigms

Clarification of a researcher's worldview or preferred paradigm is a necessary component of any social science research design. Paradigms refer to an integrated set of assumptions about the nature of the social world, about the character of the knowledge we can have about the social world, and about what is important to know (Greene 2007; Braun and Clarke 2013; Creswell and Creswell 2018; Creswell and Plano Clark 2018; Erickson 2018; Denzin and Lincoln 2018). The purpose of this section of the research design is to present an overview of these paradigms, and to state which paradigm(s) have been used in this study and its/their impact on the research design.

Historically, the dominant purpose of social research has been to develop sound explanations for social phenomena in order to better predict and control them, which follows the model of the natural sciences (Ibid). As the Enlightenment of the 18<sup>th</sup> century developed, quantitatively based inquiry became the standard for physical science, the purpose of which was the search for general laws that would apply uniformly throughout the physical world and for causal relations that would be universally applied. This became a worldview, assuming not only a 'realist' ontology – that the physical world existed apart from humans' awareness and conceptions of it, but also an assumption that its processes were so consistent and stable that clear discovery of cause and clear prediction would be possible (Erickson 2018, p. 37). Enlightenment

philosophers saw the possibility that social processes could be mathematically modelled and that theories of the state and of political economy could be formulated and empirically verified in ways that would parallel physics, chemistry, and astronomy (Ibid). Within this purpose the concept of critical realism, i.e., there is a real reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible, has become an increasingly strong feature in the paradigm that has become known as post-positivism (Lincoln et al. 2018).

Consequently, social science in most Western societies was dominated by a post-positivist paradigm through much of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Greene 2007; Braun and Clarke 2013; Creswell and Creswell 2018; Creswell and Plano Clark 2018). The assumptions of this paradigm characteristically involve standardised, a priori, quantitative designs and methods with the central idea being that only events which can be observed, or that only propositions which are (at least in principle) testable, have a claim to truth (Ashworth 2009, p. 10).

A key feature of post-positivism is that it is reductionistic. The intent is to reduce ideas into a small, discrete set to test, such as the variables that comprise hypotheses and research questions. The knowledge that develops through a post-positivist lens is based on careful observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists 'out there' in the world. Thus, developing numeric measures of observations and studying the behaviour of individuals becomes paramount for a postpositivist (Creswell and Creswell 2018, p. 7).

Within post-positivism there are laws or theories that govern the world, and these need to be tested or verified and refined so that we can understand the world. Thus, in the scientific method – the accepted approach to research by postpositivist – a researcher begins with a theory, collects data that either supports or refutes the theory, and then makes necessary revisions and conducts additional tests (Creswell and Creswell 2018, p. 6-7). Post positivists hold a deterministic philosophy in which causes (probably) determine effects or outcomes. Thus, the problems studied by post-positivists reflect the need to identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes, such as those found in experiments (Ibid).

Among other key characteristics of post-positivism are the following:

- There is a single, unitary real world, within which the events of interest in social science take place. This is realism.
- The individual is part of this real world, and as such processes as memory, emotion and thought are events in the real world with defining enduring characteristics.
- The world can be described in terms of measurable variables which can interact with others in determinate ways.
- The models (mathematically formulated if possible) will show how variables interrelate, especially how they relate to each other in a cause-and-effect fashion.
- The purpose of research is to test hypotheses regarding relationships between variables, and to teach, by close approximation, theories which can begin to be regarded as having the status of scientific laws.
- Data, evidence, and rational considerations shape knowledge. In practice, the researcher collects information on instruments based on measures completed by the participants or by observations recorded by the researcher.
- Being objective is an essential aspect of competent inquiry; researchers must examine methods and conclusions for bias. For example, standards of validity and reliability are important in quantitative research (Philips and Burbules 2000, as cited in Creswell and Creswell 2018; Ashworth 2009, p.10).

This need to identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes in social situations is a key component of post-positivism that will be returned to later in this research design.

During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, there was a proliferation and general acceptance of multiple other paradigms. Most prominent of these is the interpretivist/constructivist assumptions, the basis of which are that the social world cannot be apprehended independent of the perspectives and interests – including power interests – of the researcher (Greene 2007; Ashworth 2009; Braun and Clarke 2013; Creswell and Creswell 2018; Creswell and Plano Clark 2018; Erickson 2018; Denzin and Lincoln 2018). Research in an interpretivist or

a constructivist framework characteristically seeks in-depth contextual understanding with an eye to legitimisation of local and practitioner knowledge. (Ibid). Thus, the purpose of inquiry within a social constructivist ontology in the social sciences is understanding rather than proof or prediction (Erickson 2018, p. 38).

Postmodernism has proven to be a key component in the development of this understanding. Foucault (1977, as referenced in Erickson 2018) showed how power could be exercised over local social actors without physical coercion through the knowledge systems that were maintained discursively and through surveillance by secular 'helping' professions – modern successors of premodern religion – whose ideologically ratified purpose was to benefit the clients they 'served by controlling them – medicine, psychiatry, education, and modern prisons. His notion of discourse as embodied in the conventional common sense of institutions is akin to Gramsci's (1988, as referenced in Erickson 2018) notion of 'cultural hegemony', an ideological means by which control can be exercised non-violently through common-sense rationalisation justifying the exercise of such power. Power and social structures are thus seen to be strongly influential processes, even though the influence is partial, indirect, and contested – local actors are considered agents, not simply passive rule followers (Erickson 2018, p. 49-50). As a consequence of these successors to pre-modern religion and cultural hegemony, different contexts present different constellations of people, interactions and events. Thus, what is meaningful to a given individual or group is context specific rather than universal (Greene 2007, p. 37).

According to Guba, Lincoln and Lynham (2018), constructivism adopts a relativist ontology (relativism), a transactional epistemology, and a hermeneutic (interpretative), dialectical methodology. Users of this paradigm are oriented to the production of a reconstructed understanding of the social world. We construct knowledge through our lived experiences and through our interactions with other members of society. As such, researchers must participate in the research process with subjects to ensure the production of knowledge that is reflective of their reality (Ibid). Constructivist approaches rely heavily on naturalistic methods (interviewing and observation and analysis of

existing texts). These methods ensure an adequate dialogue between the researchers and those with whom they interact in order to collaboratively construct a meaningful reality. General meanings are emergent from the research process (Angen 2000 as cited in Guba, Lincoln and Lynham 2018). Thus, due to the fact that Constructivism connects action to praxis and builds on anti-foundational arguments, the traditional positivist criteria of internal and external validity are replaced by the concepts of trustworthiness and authenticity (Denzin and Lincoln 2018, p. 98).

Constructivists aim for contextualised understanding of the meaningfulness of humans' lived experiences. As a result, this form of social knowledge is not generalisable nor propositional in form, but rather multiplicity, dynamic, and contingent (Greene 2007, p. 38). Constructivists' knowledge claims are warranted by the persuasive power of the account. Constructivists do not claim truth-status for what they come to know, because there are multiple truths or multiple meanings of human experience in any given context. Good method supports persuasive interpretive accounts. However, such accounts are at their core interpretations – by the person of his or her experience, but the inquirer of the person's interpretation of his or her experience, and then by the reader of the inquirer's interpretation of the person's interpretation of his or her experience (Van Maanen 1995, as referenced in Greene 2007). These three moments of interpretation encapsulate the non-foundationalist epistemology that significantly distinguishes constructivist paradigms from the foundational premises of post-positivism (Greene 2007, p. 39).

As previously stated, qualitative research involves collecting data in the form of naturalistic verbal reports – for example, interview transcripts or written accounts – and the analysis conducted on these is textual. Thus, the concern is with interpreting what a piece of text means rather than finding the numerical properties of it. The interpretation is then conveyed through detailed narrative reports of participants' perceptions, understandings or accounts of a phenomenon. For most qualitative researchers, this approach is consonant with a theoretical commitment to the importance of language as a fundamental property of human communication, interpretation and understanding. Given that we tend to make sense of our world and express that sense-making to ourselves and others linguistically, qualitative researchers emphasise the value



of analytic strategies that remain as close as possible to the symbolic system in which that sense-making occurs (Smith 2009, p. 2).

The differences in ontology in social inquiry go beyond the first-level distinction between realism and relativism, i.e., the realist assumption that there is a social world independent of our knowing and relativist assumption that the social world cannot be apprehended independent of the perspectives and interests of the researcher). Whether one is a realist or relativist, there remain questions about what the social world we are trying to study is like – is it uniform and relatively stable from one place and time to another, or is there variation, and, if so, how does it vary, how often, how quickly? There are also questions of epistemology in social inquiry – assumptions about the nature of knowledge and knowing. Can we as inquirer, in the midst of all the noise in the world outside us and within us, have relatively consistent knowledge of the social world, or is that world and our apprehension of it so mutually constitutive, so confounded, that no consistency or confidence in our knowing is justifiable? Is the social world really there, or is it constructed by people in interaction with one another? Are there only contextual truths, or are there some understandings about human behaviour that are true across different settings? How are the predispositions and standpoints of the inquirer present in the knowledge that is generated in a given study, and is this really a problem? (Green 2007, p. 15-16; Erickson 2018, p. 54).

It is within the context of this polarisation of paradigms, epistemologies and associated methodologies that mixed methods research has developed as a bridge across the divide of realism and relativism or post-positivism and constructivism. A mixed methods way of thinking is a stance or an orientation toward social research and evaluation that is rooted in a multiplicity of paradigms and that actively invites researchers to participate in dialogue of multiple ways of seeing and hearing, multiple ways of making sense of the social world, and multiple standpoints on what is important and to be valued and cherished. A mixed methods way of thinking rests on assumptions that there are multiple legitimate approaches to social inquiry and that any given approach to social inquiry is inevitably partial (Greene 2007, Creswell and Plano Clark 2018).

There are three pillars to a mixed methods design. First, with respect to philosophy, a mixed methods way of thinking actively engages with epistemological differences in order to (1) respect multiple ways of knowing, from the post-positivist proposition to the constructivists design for understanding; and (2) understand and respect some of the deep contradictions posed by different epistemological traditions; yet (3) not get stuck in these contradictions nor feel forced to choose sides – that is, to choose just one way of knowing but instead (4) invite multiple ways of knowing into the same study so that it may be deeply and generativity enriched (Green and Caracelli 1997, as referenced in Greene 2007, p. 27). Second, with respect to methodology, mixed methods social inquiry, by definition, includes a diversity of methodological traditions, inquiry designs methods for data gathering and analysis, and forms of interpretation and reporting (Greene 2007 p. 28). Third, a mixed methods way of thinking is a dialogic engagement with difference, substantiated by the recognition that epistemology, methodology, and ideology are intertwined, that ways of knowing and understanding are also ways of valuing (Greene 2007, p. 28).

This dialectical perspective (Green 2007, Greene and Caracelli 1997, Greene and Hall 2010; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2020, as referenced in Creswell and Plano-Clarke 2018) recognises that different paradigms give rise to contradictory ideas and contested arguments. These contradictions, tensions, and oppositions reflect different ways of knowing about and valuing the social world, which can contribute to new and different insights. Jennifer Green (2007, p. 96) goes on to state that in the dialectic stance to mixed methods research

- Paradigms are constituted by sets of interconnected philosophical assumptions regarding reality, knowledge, methodology and values. The assumptive sets of different paradigms are different in important ways, but paradigms themselves are historical and social constructions and so are not inviolate or sacrosanct.
- Paradigmatic assumptions importantly guide and direct practical inquiry decisions along with context and theory. Important paradigm differences should be respectfully and intentionally used together to engage meaningfully with difference and, through the tensions created

by juxtaposing different paradigms, to achieve dialectical discovery of enhanced reframed, or new understanding (Green and Caacelli, 1998a; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2003, as referenced in Creswell and Plano-Clarke 2018, p. 69).

This stance emphasises using multiple worldviews (e.g., constructivism and post positivism) in a dialogue during the study instead of using a single worldview such as pragmatism.

For the purpose of this project, a mixed methods approach with a dialectical perspective was used. The post-positivist needs to identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes in social situations, and the constructivist desire to seek in-depth contextual understanding with an eye to legitimisation of local and practitioner knowledge are the basis of the role that worldviews played in this research.

#### 4.2. Postcolonial Theory

Within the Education and Development sector, Postcolonial perspectives are sometimes associated with Postmodernism because of their emphasis on a plurality of voices and critical perspectives on how the “Other” is construed in education and educational research (Philips and Schweisfurth (2014). As such, Postcolonial theory was used to frame this study and provide a guide, not only in terms of the type of data that will be gathered, but also in terms of the theoretical lens that will be used to discuss the data in the final chapter of this thesis.

According to Rizvi et al. (2006), Postcolonialism highlights the history and legacy of European colonialism, thus facilitating an understanding of how Europe was able to exercise colonial power over 80% of the world’s population, and how it continues to shape most of our contemporary discourses and institutions—politically, culturally and economically (p. 250). The central tenet of this exercising of colonial power, according to Postcolonial theory, is that a local epistemology (European/Enlightenment - The philosophical and scientific revolution which took place in eighteenth century Europe) has been universally applied in ahistorical, unproblematic, apolitical, and unexamined ways in Colonial and Postcolonial contexts (Moore-Gilbert 2000; Gandhi 2019; Andreotti 2011, Rizvi et al. 2006; Milligan and Tikly 2016; Finn 2015; Nichols

2010; Said 1978; Spivak 1988, 1999, 2004; Bhabha 1994). This universal application of European epistemology manifests itself through the colonial legacy of many European countries and is composed of notions of Modernity; the self as defined via the opposition of the Other; subalternity; and representation (Ibid). The field is a diverse one, with disagreements, inconsistencies, contradictions, and criticisms abounding (Nichols 2010; Gandhi 2019; Moore-Gilbert 2000). The purpose of this section of this research project is to clarify the aforementioned features of Postcolonial theory by interrogating their genesis, and applying these features of Postcolonial theory to the Education and Development context in Myanmar via a case study of the English for Education College Trainers (EfECT) project, which was funded by the department of Foreign Affairs in the UK, and the British Council (Borg et al. 2018; British Council 2015). The findings of this application were used to frame the items in a survey and the research questions that were asked in semi-structured interviews with Teacher Educators (TEs) in Myanmar, and feed into considerations related to the reflexivity, positionality, and complicity of the researcher in the context of this project.

Modernity is inextricably linked with the Enlightenment, which, according to Gandhi (2019, p. 29) defines humanity to be the manner in which man knows things. As a result, it is interested in the structure of epistemology or the basis and validity of knowledge. One of the key components of the Enlightenment lies in the all-knowing and self-sufficient Cartesian 'Self' or 'Subject', which, according to Gandhi (2019), 'violently negates material and historical alterity/Otherness in its narcissistic desire to always see the world in its own self-image' (p. 39). Postcolonial theory's interest in the Cartesian subject lies in the fact that it is heavily associated with European ethnocentrism, which Andreotti (2011) defines as an unacknowledged and naturalised desire to possess and produce universal and unequivocal knowledge (p. 2). The Enlightenment also privileged concepts such as individualism, freedom, progress, liberation, and universal reason, and the institutions engendered by them (such as scientific rationality, the nation-state, and liberal democracy) (Andreotti 2011). Thus, the conflux of local European epistemology, and European colonial expansion (predominantly from the 17<sup>th</sup> century to the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century), created a situation whereby European epistemology

was privileged and local epistemologies were side-lined (Nichols 2010; Rizvi et al. 2006).

Postcolonial theory is very heavily influenced by poststructuralism, which, according to Prasad (2012), is suspicious of the Enlightenment and of the key features of modernity (i.e., the Cartesian subject and European ethnocentrism). It rejects the grand narratives of modernism and, instead, proposes a more fractured worldview with fierce competition over power and knowledge (Moore-Gilbert 2000). In this regard, Vanessa Andreotti (2011) says of Poststructuralism that:

*“Poststructuralism assumes that language is a discursive practice that is ideological and unstable, which implies that interpretations of the world create the world or reality itself. This statement prompts two competing interpretations. One, that there is no absolute world ‘out there’ (no absolute reality, just the realities constructed in language). Two, that the world ‘out there’ (as it is experienced by different people) cannot be described in language in ways that are objective (with universal validity and intelligibility) or uncontaminated by culture, and that the construction of one’s world through (collective) discursive practices is permeated with power (p. 87)”.*

The two Poststructuralist theorists who have most heavily influenced Postcolonial theory are Michel Foucault and Jacques Derrida (although there are others) (Gandhi 2019; Moore-Gilbert 2000). Edward Said’s ‘Orientalism’ (1978), which is considered by many to mark the beginning of Postcolonial theory, proposes that Orientalism – or the project of teaching, writing about, and researching the Orient – has always been a fundamental component to European’ imperial adventures in the ‘East’. Accordingly, it claims that the ‘Western style for dominating, restructuring, and having authority over the Orient’ (Said 1978, p. 3) is inextricably linked to the Western style of studying and thinking about the Orient. (Gandhi 2019, p. 68).

Said’s Orientalism is influenced by Foucault in two key ways; first of all, in its articulation of what power is and how it operates. Foucault rejects the conception of power as a force which is based upon simple repression or juridical sanction in (post-) Enlightenment (western) societies, or as something

which trickles downwards from institutions at the top like royalty or the state. In place of what 'The History of Sexuality' (1976) describes as the 'repressive hypothesis', Foucault sees power as an 'impersonal' force operating through a multiplicity of sites and channels, constructing what he calls a 'pastoral' regime, through which it seeks to control its subjects by 're(-)forming' them, and in so doing, making them conform to their place in the social system as objects of power (Moore-Gilbert 2000, p. 36). Power, according to Foucault (1980) is employed and exercised through a net-like organisation. And not only do individuals circulate between its threads, but they are also always in the position of simultaneously undergoing or exercising this power. Foucault further explores the contiguity of power and knowledge in order to explicate the ways in which knowledge transforms power, changing it from a monolithic apparatus accumulated within the State into a web-like force which is confirmed and articulated through the everyday exchanges of 'know how' or information which animate social life (Gandhi 2019, p. 74). Orientalism attempted to connect elements of this theory to the study of the connections between Western culture and imperialism, to argue that all Western systems of cultural description are deeply contaminated with what Said describes as 'the politics, the considerations, the positions, and the strategies of power (Said 1978, p. 150).

Secondly, Said adapts from Foucault the argument that 'discourse' – the medium which constitutes power and through which it is exercised – 'constructs' the objects of its knowledge. As Foucault puts it in *Discipline and Punish* (1975), discourse produces reality; it produces domains of objects and rituals of truth (as cited in Ahmad 1992, p. 5-7). In Said's work, then, these conceptions of power and discourse are applied to Orientalism and thus transform the 'real' East into a discursive 'Orient' (Moore-Gilbert 2000, p. 36-37). Thus, in Said's view, Orientalism operates in the service of the West's hegemony over the East primarily by producing the East discursively as the West's inferior 'Other', a manoeuvre which strengthens – indeed, even partially constructs – the West's self-image as a superior civilisation. It does this principally by distinguishing and then essentializing the identities of East and West through a dichotomising system of representations embodied in the

regime of stereotype, with the aim of making rigid the sense of difference between the European and Asian parts of the world (Ibid).

Thus, Orientalism becomes a discourse at the point at which it starts systematically to produce stereotypes about Orientals and the Orient, such as the heat and dust, the teeming marketplace, the terrorist, the courtesan, the Asian despot, the child-like native, the mystical East (Gandhi 2019). Orientalist discourses represent the Orient as the negative, underground image or impoverished 'Other' of the West. These stereotypes, Said tells us, confirm the necessity and desirability of colonial government by endlessly confirming the positional superiority of the West over the positional inferiority of the East. What they deliver, in his words, is the unchanging image of a subject race, dominated by a race that knows them and what is good for them better than they could possibly know themselves (Said 1978, p. 35, as cited in Gandhi 2019, p. 76-77). Thus, the central tenet of Said's Orientalism is that during the European colonial encounter with the East (specifically Arabia and North Africa), Enlightenment features of the self, power, and knowledge were used by Europe to 'represent' the Orient as the inferior Other. This validated Europe's Cartesian 'self' and also legitimised Europe's violent and aggressive colonial expansion into this part of the world, and even turning this aggressive and violent expansionism into a benevolent act, or as Andreotti (2011) puts it, the white man's burden. Indeed, Said argues that these principles of representation from the West to the East, and its role in defining the 'self' and the 'Other' continues to this day (1978). This notion of representation within Orientalism will be returned to later in this discussion.

Homi Bhabha, who pursues a psychoanalytical analysis of the European colonial encounter, criticised Said for – what he perceived as – his oversimplification of this encounter (Bhabha 1994; Moore-Gilbert 2000). For Bhabha, the broad and singular use of stereotype put forward by Said in Orientalism, and the concomitant assertion that non-Oriental people could never fully understand the Orient, demonstrated that in criticising Europe for its essentializing of the Orient via the use of stereotype, Said was himself essentializing the Occident (Moore-Gilbert 2000). Bhabha goes further by stating that Said's interpretation of stereotype ignores the concept of fixity, which is fundamental to it. For Bhabha:

*“Fixity as the sign of cultural/historical/racial difference in the discourse of colonialism is a paradoxical mode of representation: it connotes rigidity and an unchanging order, as well as disorder, degeneracy, and demonic repetition. Likewise, the stereotype, which is its major discursive strategy, is a form of knowledge and identification that vacillates between what is always ‘in place’, already known, and something that must be anxiously repeated... it is this process of ambivalence that gives the colonial stereotype its currency; ensures its repeatability in changing historical and discursive conjunctures, informs its strategies of individuation and marginalisation, produces the effects of probabilistic truth and repeatability, which, for the stereotype must always be in excess of what can be empirically proved or logically construed (1994, p. 94-95).*

This ambivalence in the application of stereotype contributes to, what Moore-Gilbert (2000, p. 117), refers to as Bhabha’s interpretation that the regime of stereotype represents evidence not of the stability of the ‘disciplinary’ gaze of the coloniser, or the security of his own conception of himself, but of the degree to which the coloniser’s identity (and authority) is in fact fractured and destabilised by contradictory psychic responses to the colonised Other. Consequently, according to Bhabha, the colonial subject can be:

*Both savage (cannibal) and yet the most obedient and dignified of servants (the bearer of food); he is the embodiment of rampant sexuality and yet innocent as a child; he is mystical, primitive, simple-minded and yet the most worldly and accomplished liar, and manipulator of social forces (Bhabha 1994, p. 118).*

Another important aspect of this ambivalence in the identity of the European Cartesian ‘self’ relative to the colonised ‘Other’ is the concept of mimicry. For Bhabha (1994), mimicry is one of the most elusive and effective strategies of colonial power and knowledge (p. 122). The concept of mimicry is the desire to create a reformed and recognisable Other, as a subject of difference, that is almost the same, but not quite (Ibid). According to Andreotti (2011), when the coloniser sees the colonised as a possible equal (but necessarily inferior), this created colonial subjects who produce ‘translated’ copies of the coloniser’s



cultural habits, assumptions, institutions, and values. Ashcroft (2000) goes on to state that mimicry exposes a crack in the certainty of the coloniser of the validity of the right to control the behaviour of the colonised Other: *“Mimicry reveals the limitation in the authority of colonial discourse, almost as though colonial authority inevitably embodies the seeds of its own destruction”* (140). Mimicry is thus a complex strategy of regulation and discipline, which appropriates the ‘Other’ while demonstrating uncertainty in the ‘Self’.

The result of mimicry, Bhabha suggests, is that, during the colonial era, the colonising powers did not learn the local languages or about the local culture because they were deemed inferior, and that it was the responsibility of the colonised peoples to learn the language and culture of the colonisers. This created a new class of people who acted as an intermediary between the coloniser and colonised. The legacy of this policy is one of a heightened status of the language of the former colonisers in Postcolonial contexts, and institutions that represent their culture (Bhabha 1994; Gandhi 2019; Moore Gilbert 1997; Andreotti 2011). In this study, the concept of mimicry could explain the choice of the use of English in the training and the acceptance of this by all of the local stakeholders, and their respect of the International Non-Governmental Organisations in delivering this training.

The final aspect of Postcolonial theory that will be addressed is the concept of the subaltern and the related features of representation that were put forward by Gayatri Spivak in her 1988 essay *‘Can the Subaltern Speak?’*. In this essay Spivak drew heavily from Gramsci’s idea of the ‘subaltern’ which represents groups of oppressed peoples who exist at the periphery of the dominant cultural hegemony (Finn 2015). Spivak also drew heavily from Derrida’s notion of deconstruction which was put forward in *‘Of Grammatology’*. Spivak stated that, in terms of the Western ‘Self’ and the colonised ‘Other’, she argues that people should engage in a persistent critique of hegemonic discourse and representations as they inhabit them. For her, deconstruction *“points out that in constructing any kind of an argument we must move from implied premises, that must necessarily obliterate or finesse certain possibilities that question the validity of these premises in an absolute way”* (Spivak 1999a, 104). She also insists that:

*Deconstruction does not say there is no subject, there is not truth, there is no history. It simply questions the privileging of identity so that someone is believed to have the truth. It is not the exposure of error. (1994, 278, as cited in Andreotti 2011, p. 45-46).*

In applying these features of Deconstruction in *Can the Subaltern Speak?* Spivak addresses the formation of the “Other” of Europe, which involves the making of a European “Self”, as well as that of the colonial subject as “Other.” The text also highlights the fact that Foucault’s previously mentioned analysis of power and discourse, remains within Europe, or within ‘the exploiter’s side of the international division of labour (280/248, as cited in Birla 2010, p. 89). Indeed, it is via the endurance of the international division of labour from the imperial era to present day that Spivak intimately connects imperialism and Globalisation (Nichols 2010). Spivak believes colonialism is continuing today in the form of the ‘financialization’ of the world. If, in the period of colonisation, a local (European) set of assumptions of reality and of European supremacy was violently imposed on other people as universal (what Spivak calls an ‘epistemic violence’), it can be argued that this could be happening again in the discourse of the global dimension through the concept of globalisation (Andreotti 2011, p. 115-116).

The notion of ‘sanctioned ignorance’ is an important consideration in terms of explaining the endurance of the skewing of the international division of labour in favour of the Global North, which is overwhelmingly made up of former European colonising countries, at the expense of the third world, which is overwhelmingly made up of former colonised countries (Spivak 1988, 1999). For Spivak (1988, 1999), the epistemic violence of imperialism has universalised and naturalised Western superiority and dominance, and this naturalisation occurs via the disavowal, or foreclosure of the history of imperialism and the unequal balance of power between the ‘First’ and ‘Third’ Worlds in the global capitalism system. This disavowal or foreclosure of colonialism creates a discourse within modernism in which colonialism is either ignored or placed securely in the past, so that we think that it is over and does not affect – and has not affected – the construction of the present situation.

Spivak calls this a 'sanctioned ignorance' (constitutive disavowal) of the ordeal of colonialism in the creation of the wealth in the 'First-World' today, as well as the role of the international division of labour and exploitation of the Third-World in the maintenance of this wealth (Andreotti 2011). Andreotti goes on to state that this ideology produces the discourse of 'development' and policies of structural adjustment and free trade, which prompt Third world countries to buy (culturally, ideologically, socially, and structurally) from the First world thus ignoring both its complicity with and production by the imperialist project (Spivak 1988 as cited by Andreotti 2011). Within the concept of sanctioned ignorance, poverty is constructed as a lack of resources, services, and markets, and of education (as the right subjectivity to participate in the global market), rather than a lack of control over the production of resources (Biccum 2017) or enforced disempowerment. This sanctioned ignorance places the responsibility for poverty upon the poor themselves and justifies the project of development of the Other as a 'civilising mission' (Andreotti 2011, p. 38-39).

The culmination of this analysis in *'Can the Subaltern Speak?* is that, according to Spivak, the rural poor – especially women – in Postcolonial contexts outside of Europe (in her example the widow sacrifice of Sati in the province of Bengal in India is used) do not have representation to political hegemony and as such their interests and desires are not represented in governmental policy (Spivak 1988, 1999; Gandhi 2019; Moore Gilbert 1997; Andreotti 2011). She exemplifies this opinion with the famous line: "*white men protect brown women from brown men*" (2010, p. 50). The premise being, that both the universalisation of European epistemology, and the local culture do not give women a voice, and as such, their interests and desires do not have cultural or political representation in the existing political hegemony, as such, they are silenced – they are subaltern.

In terms of this project, the intention is to apply the features of Postcolonial theory – i.e., representation of the East from an Orientalist perspective, the use of stereotype and mimicry, sanctioned ignorance, and the concept of the subaltern not having cultural or political representation in official decision-making processes – to the needs analyses of the EfECT project (British Council 2015), relevant findings from the monitoring and evaluation (Borg et al. 2018), as well as the data that was generated by this project. The hope was that the

application of these features of Postcolonial theory would help to frame the survey and interview questions for semi-structured interviews of teacher educators in Myanmar who were the recipients of this training.

#### 4.3. Reflexivity

Reflexivity is the process of reflecting critically on the self as researcher, the human as an instrument. It is related to experiencing the self as both inquirer and respondent, as teacher and learner, as the one coming to know and the self within the processes of research itself. Reflexivity forces us to come to terms not only with our choice of research problem and with those with whom we engage in the research process, but with ourselves and with the multiple identities that represent the fluid self in the research setting (Lincoln et al. 2018, p. 143). Reflexivity in a study (past historical, social, cultural experiences, personal connections to sites and people, steps in gaining entry, and sensitive ethical issues) is related to how these may shape interpretations in the study (Creswell and Creswell 2018). It encourages researchers to reflect on their role in the study and their personal background, culture, and experiences hold potential for shaping their interpretations, such as themes they advance and the meaning they ascribe to the data. This aspect of the methods is more than merely advancing biases and values in the study, but how the background of the researchers actually shapes the direction of the study (Creswell and Creswell 2018, p. 182).

The application of these features of reflexivity to this research project has encouraged the researcher to consider a multitude of issues. For example:

- i. The impact of my race (white); gender (Male); age (40-45); and work experience (I was a trainer on the EfECT project) had on my positionality in the interview process.
- ii. How my experience as a trainer on the EfECT project, and my background combined to give the impression that my choice of theoretical lens was an organic one.
- iii. My complicity in maintaining the status quo with regard to the privileging of western epistemology.

Firstly, with regard to the first consideration, each of these factors afforded me a privileged position in Myanmar society. Myanmar is a patriarchal country,

with women being under-represented in senior positions in religion, the private sector, and the public sector – including education (Lall 2011); age is a determinant for respect in Myanmar culture (Dhammasami 2018); and teachers are considered community leaders and automatically senior members of communities (Crosby 2014). Due to the fact that I was training the teacher educators, with one of the students being the vice-principal of the education college, I was accorded de facto seniority over all staff members in the Education College – except the principal. Due to the relatively small number of teacher educators in Myanmar (1500-2000), and the lack of control teacher educators have over their deployment, it cannot be guaranteed that the participants in the interviews were not aware of all of these facts. This privileged position could have put pressure on teacher educators to give answers that they believed I would like to hear as opposed to accurately representing their feelings or experiences.

The extent of the potential for deference cannot be understated, and I will attempt to do it justice with an example. Teachers' day, unsurprisingly, is a very popular holiday in Myanmar that is widely celebrated. On this day in the first year of the project, I and my colleague (another white, male, English speaking trainer) were invited to the religious room on campus. When we entered, 70-80 TEs (all women, and about 90% of the entire TE staff in the EC), were sitting on the ground. We were greeted by the head of the English department and were asked to walk onto a stage to sit on two large, ornate, oversized, and intricately decorated teak chairs facing the room of TEs – it's not a stretch to suggest that they looked like thrones. When we sat on the chairs, the Master of Ceremonies convened the meeting to explain that Myanmar culture dictated that the TEs must worship my colleague and I. That as their teachers, their unqualified respect was demanded, and that this respect must be given by worshipping them the same way they would worship an Abbot in a Buddhist monastery. The TEs, while still sitting on the floor, began to bow with their arms outstretched on the floor in front of them. They did this for 5 minutes. I had never, and indeed have never felt so overwhelmed or uncomfortable in my life. I felt like a fraud. How dare I sit on this chair in front of these dedicated professionals, in their Education College, in their hometown, in their country, and accept this adulation from them. It was at this moment that I was struck by how willing my

colleague appeared to be to accept this demonstration of their unconditional respect, and I wondered, how could it be that he felt he deserved it?

The second consideration is one that has taken up a lot of time. While working on the EfECT project, I was struck by anecdotal evidence that very little regard was given to the history of the provision of education in Myanmar, the TEs' qualifications and experience, and the curriculum, material and assessment in the provision of basic education by the British Council and the trainers. There was a prevailing belief that everything the TEs were doing was wrong, everything teachers in basic education schools were doing was wrong, and that they had to 'relearn' to do it 'the way we do it.' This included, again anecdotally, a belief that the TEs were incapable of 'doing' critical-thinking or problem-solving activities. These prevailing beliefs made me feel very uncomfortable.

The fact that the British Council were the lead providers of this programme, and that the majority of the funding came from DfID in the context of their colonial encounter with Myanmar, was also not lost on me.

The lack of any local representation in the trainer, middle management, or senior management roles was also telling (although one local trainer was hired at the tail end of the project, who had a PhD, a qualification that was in no-way-shape-or-form a requirement for any foreign staff member on the project).

This lack of local representation, lack of ability to speak the local language, and seeming lack of knowledge about the history of the provision of education in Myanmar, made me wonder, not only why the British Council believed they were in such an authoritative position to 'know what was best' for the education system in Myanmar, but also why none of the trainers seemed to question this sense of authority. This is where the Postcolonial feature of sanctioned ignorance, and interrogating the unexamined, apolitical, unproblematic, and ahistorical application of Western epistemology to non-western contexts became very attractive. On reading Postcolonial theory, I realised that this is what I believed the British Council were doing. They were unproblematically applying what they believed to be a better way of teaching to a context that they did not fully understand, and they did this without giving a second thought to whether it was appropriate or not – at least that was what

I believed. I felt, for the first time, like I had the jargon to be able to accurately explain how I felt and what I believed. This is what Postcolonial theory gave me.

This was compounded by the fact that I am Irish, which is obviously a Postcolonial context in-and-of-itself. I felt an affinity with the TEs because I believed, on some level, that many of the trainers on the project felt the same way about me as they did the TEs. Microaggressions, like thinking Ireland is still a part of the UK, thinking that we use the Sterling, and constantly feeling like I had to defend the legitimacy of my identity as an Irish person, all added to the sense of appreciation I have for Postcolonialism for giving me a framework and vocabulary to help explain my feelings and experiences.

Finally, Postcolonialism has encouraged me to think about my role, or my complicity, in reinforcing the privileging of Western epistemology. In contributing to the policy goal of International Development Partners to promote human capital production and the concomitant maintenance of the status quo in the international division of labour; in taking advantage of the legacy of mimicry and the inflated status it gives to the English language and the British business and cultural institutions; to being a part of the system that does not give a voice to the people it purports to help with the goal of ensuring that globalisation, which can be seen as a legacy of colonialism, continued to benefit wealthy nations at the expense of poor ones. I feel complicit in all of this.

#### 4.4. Purpose Statement – the use of a Case Study and Mixed Methods.

Due to the fact that this study addresses the perceptions of teacher educators (TEs) in Myanmar of training they received that was funded by international development agencies, the EfECT project as an instrumental Case Study, and an explanatory sequential mixed methods design via a survey and semi-structured interviews were used.

According to Yin (2018) and Stake (1995), the need for case studies arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena. Case studies allow the researcher to focus in-depth on a case and to retain a holistic and real-world perspective. In order to put an even finer point on it, according to Yin (Ibid), a Case Study Investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the case) in depth and

within its real-world context. According to Stake (Ibid), cases are specific, complex, functioning things that hold the interest of a researcher both for their uniqueness and commonality.

Stake (1995) stated that, in the use of Case Studies within the Education sector, it is useful to try to select cases which are typical or representative of other cases. However, he also stated that we do not study a case primarily to understand other cases, our first obligation is to understand this one case. Bearing this in mind, Stake (Ibid) goes on to state that when a Case study is instrumental to accomplishing something else, it is considered to be an instrumental Case Study.

The purpose of a Case Study in this project is to develop an understanding of whether the dominant features of the Education and Development sector, which includes an almost entirely unidirectional policy flow from the Global North to the Global South, is compatible with the current Myanmar context, and their needs (Lall 2011,2013, 2015, 2016; UNICEF 2013; Hardman et al. 2016; Stake 1995). The EfECT project's uniqueness lies in the fact that it was provided to teacher educators in Education Colleges in Myanmar at a time of political transition and educational reform, and its commonality lies in its shared features with the Education and Development sector. As such, in the context of this study, the EfECT project is being used in an instrumental way.

Within this study, which seeks to gather data on teacher educators (TEs) opinions of training that they have received which was provided within the dominant policy and funding flow in the Education and Development sector, there is a need for the case to share the general features of the Education and Development sector. The premise being, in teacher educators providing their opinions about the EfECT project, firstly, they are providing their opinion about the project, i.e., this one case, but also, indirectly they are providing their opinions on the Education and Development sector as a whole.

In order to fulfil Stake's (Ibid) requirement for a criterion based approach to the use of an instrumental Case Study, and on considering that Umit (2005, p.4) suggests that data in Case Studies can be gathered using a range of methods, including documents, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant-observation and physical artefacts in an instrumental way, an



overview of the EfECT project was presented and analysed using the dominant features of the Education and Development sector that were explored in the literature review. This was undertaken in order to demonstrate the effectiveness of the EfECT project being used in an instrumental way. This involved evaluating the project using the following themes:

1. Policy flow from the Global North to the Global South.
2. Human Capital Theory.
3. Language Policy
4. Pedagogic Renewal.
5. Conceptualisation of teachers.
6. Measurements of quality.
7. Professionalisation of teaching.
8. The role of practice and mentors therein.

Yin (2018) contends that bounding the case study is an important step. This involves identifying the participants in the Case Study, which has implications in terms of sampling, and also considering the time-frame of the Case Study. In the context of this project, the participants in the data generation stage were teacher educators who participated in the EfECT project, which was part-funded, developed and provided by the British Council (with DFID providing the majority of funding) (Borg et al. 2018).

In terms of the time-bounded nature of the project, this is more difficult to define. In terms of start and end dates, these are clear. The EfECT project began in August 2014 and ended in September 2016 (Borg et al. 2018). However, sustainability was a key component of the project, so its impact was intended to be indefinite (Ibid). As a result, opinions about the EfECT project and its impact will be sought.

Finally, the choice of the EfECT project was an obvious one due to the fact that the project was known to the researcher, having been an EfECT trainer. This ensured that the researcher had familiarity with the context, and had access to participants in the project in order to gather data.

An explanatory sequential research design, also known as a development design, was used in this project to gather data from TEs regarding their

attitudes, opinions, feelings, and beliefs related to the EfECT project (Creswell and Plano Clark 2018; Greene 2007). The explanatory sequential design is a mixed methods design in which the researcher begins by conducting a quantitative phase and follows up on specific results with a subsequent qualitative phase to help explain the quantitative results. The qualitative phase is implemented for the purpose of explaining the initial results in more depth, and the name for the design – explanatory – reflects how the qualitative data help explain the quantitative results (Creswell and Plano Clarke 2018, p. 77).

In a mixed methods explanatory sequential/development study, the results of one method are used to inform the development of the other method, where development is broadly construed to include sampling and implementation as well as actual instrument construction. By definition, methods in an explanatory sequential/development mixed methods study are implemented sequentially. Most often, both methods would be assessing a set of constructs or phenomena. And the second method may assess all of the constructs assessed in the first method, or a subset of them. The mixed methods development rationale aims for better understanding via capitalising on inherent method strengths (Greene 2007, p. 102).

In terms of the explanatory sequential mixed methods design that was adopted in this study, it involved providing a justification for the case first, then collecting quantitative data via a survey of the attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and feelings TEs have towards the EfECT project, and using this data to facilitate the purposeful sampling of participants for the qualitative interviews, then explaining the quantitative results with in-depth qualitative data. In total, there were 7 phases to this process, including:

Phase 1 – Identification and evaluation of an instrumental Case Study (see above).

Phase 2 – Identification of Variables, Development and launch survey.

Phase 3 – Quantitative Descriptive Analysis.

Phase 4 – First Mixing of Data.

Phase 5 – Qualitative Data, Semi-structured interviews.

Phase 6 – Thematic Analysis.

Phase 7 – Second Mixing of Data.

In the second, third, and fourth quantitative phases of the study, survey data was collected from TEs in Myanmar to test the cultural appropriateness of training that they received from international development agencies (using the EfECT project as a Case Study). The purpose of this phase was to assess whether teacher educators' attitudes and beliefs about teaching are compatible with the strategic and pedagogic goals of development agencies.

The fifth, sixth, and seventh qualitative phases were conducted as a follow up to the quantitative results to help explain them. In this exploratory follow-up, semi-structured interviews were undertaken to explore the TEs' attitudes and beliefs towards teaching and whether they are compatible with the strategic and pedagogic goals of international development agencies in more depth. Although some planning was done for the questions in the second qualitative phase, there was also an emergent component to phase two. This lies in the fact that unexpected findings from the first quantitative phase were included for further exploration in phase two.

Due to the ongoing political and social turmoil in Myanmar, which began in February 2021 with the military coup, and the fundamental and profound impact this has had on every element of Myanmar society, not least education, the literature, data, findings, and discussion in this project are indicative of the political and social context of Myanmar prior to the coup. This decision has been dictated by safety and security considerations, as well as the speed with which events are unfolding.

#### 4.4.1. Population, sampling, and setting.

Due to the current political context in Myanmar, a Snowball Sampling Methodology (SSM) was used in this project. This is a technique for finding research subjects where one subject gives the researcher the name of another, who in turn provides the name of others, and so on (Cohen and Arieli 2011; Fowler 2014). In this method, the sample group grows like a rolling snowball. Most of the cases in which SSM has been used are characterised by less-than-optimal research conditions where other methodologies are not applicable. It is suggested that SSM has unique advantages, utilities and applications for research conducted in conflict environments when used with care. Indeed, the use of SSM in some research environments may be the only effective methods

and the deciding factor in whether research can be conducted at all (Cohen and Arieli 2011, p. 424).

In this project, quota sampling was used to ensure the effective targeting of participants. This was a process whereby there was an initial stage of the preparation in which the research population was analysed and subgroups were identified and quantified in advance according to their relative size. In this case, of an estimated population of 1500 TEs who participated in the EfECT project, a representative sample would be 306 for the survey. After this initial preparation, the researcher established contact, familiarity and trust with members of the subgroup (i.e., TEs) in order to initiate the beginning of a snowball sample (Cohen and Arieli 2011, p. 428). This was achieved through my contacts in Myanmar via email. This system would also be used for the interview component of the research (please see below).

Representativity is the central limitation of SSM (Fowler 2014). Convenience sampling, by definition, is usually not random or representative, so it often results in selection bias and external and internal validity limitations (Valdez and Kaplan 1999; Moore and Hagedorn 2001). That is the main reason why SSM usually serves as a 'second best' methodology. In SSM, the research subjects are not collected randomly, as expected by 'pure' sampling principles. Rather, they are dependent on the referrals of the respondents first accessed on the willingness of the research subjects to participate – hence the common claim that most snowball samples are biased and cannot be generalised (Griffiths et al. 1993). It is claimed that despite this significant limitation, it is possible to increase the representativity of SSM by sufficient planning of the sampling process and goals, and using quota sampling (Cohen and Arieli 2011, p. 428). Each of these approaches were used in this study, which culminated in a total of 52 respondents to the survey. This is far below a representative sample of the population. However, in the spirit of using SSM in conflict settings, something is better than nothing.

#### 4.4.2. Ethical Issues anticipated

There were a number of ethical issues which needed to be taken into consideration in this research design.

Firstly, due to the fact that the researcher has worked for the British Council in an Education and Development context in Myanmar, coupled with the pre-existing deference Myanmar students have towards their teachers (this was already discussed in the section giving background information on Myanmar in order to contextualise the research), there was the possibility that positionality may have been problematic in the interviews, and that the participants may have been intimidated by the experience. It was expected that the quantitative phase of the research would offset this by giving participants the opportunity to anonymously participate in the survey, and by anonymising all of the participants who took part in the process.

In terms of the language component of this research, as already stated, the survey was translated into Myanmar and administered as such. However, the interviews were conducted in English and only students who have achieved a level B1 or B2 in the APTIS exam – an English Language proficiency exam that all participants in the EfECT project undertook – were chosen for interviews. The APTIS uses the global descriptors in the Common European Framework for language teaching, learning, and assessment (2007) for their grading system. The global descriptors for level B1 and B2 state that speakers of a language with these levels.

- (B2) Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and independent disadvantages of various options.
- (B1) Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans (CEF 2007, p. 24).

These language skills, coupled with the fact that the participants in the interviews have participated in the EfECT project, which was conducted in English, would ensure that interviewees had the general language skills and specialised knowledge of teacher education to be able to engage in the interviews in a meaningful way with the goal of achieving the enhanced understanding of the attitudes, opinions, feelings and beliefs that were established by the quantitative phase of the research.

I received my research ethics application approval on 21 Oct 2021. There was extensive engagement with DCU's Data Protection Office and the Research Ethics Committee. One of the primary difficulties was the pivot from what was intended to be a face-to-face data gathering process to an entirely online one in the context of Covid-19. This was further complicated by the politically volatile context in Myanmar, which comprises the military coup, its popular resistance, and the corresponding hyper-surveillance, political violence, summary executions, and internment without trial that has, unfortunately, become a normal part of life for people in Myanmar. Unsurprisingly, there were multiple enquiries in the REC application in terms of the safety of the participants' data, the level of surveillance, and the potential sensitivity of the topic. In consultation with my supervisor, and in storing all of the data in my secure DCU drive account, using my DCU end-to-end encrypted zoom account for the interviews, not discussing the political situation during the interviews, turning off the cameras during the interviews, and using pseudonyms, I was able to address these concerns with the Data Protection office and the REC, and was awarded ethical approval.

#### 4.4.3. Researchers' resources and skills

I have completed 5-credit NFQ level 9 modules on Mixed Methods, Quantitative, and Qualitative Research Methods in Education in the Institute of Education in DCU. I have also received beginner training on SPSS and NVIVO, and I have completed intermediate training in each of these data analysis software as well.

The skills that I developed from completing these accredited and non-accredited programmes in DCU proved invaluable in gathering, organising, presenting and analysing the data that was generated for this project.

## 4.5. Methods Used

### 4.5.1. Phase 1 – An Instrumental Case Study,

As previously stated, (please see section 4.4), an evaluation of the EfECT project was undertaken in order to justify its use as an instrumental Case Study. A key theoretical lens in this evaluation is Edward Said's (1979) concept of representation in his seminal book, 'Orientalism.' As previously stated, Said suggested that the project of teaching, writing about, and researching the Orient has always been a fundamental component to European' imperial adventures in the 'East'. Accordingly, he claimed that the 'Western style for dominating, restructuring, and having authority over the Orient' (Said 1978, p. 3) is inextricably linked to the Western style of studying and thinking about the Orient (Gandhi 2019, p. 68). The manner in which the 'East' is represented within this power dynamic will be used as a guide to frame the evaluation of this Case Study.

### 4.5.2. Phase 2 – Survey: Identification of variables

According to Creswell and Creswell, survey research provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population (Creswell and Creswell 2018, p. 12). Additionally, Fowler (2014) found that standardised measurement that is consistent across all respondents ensures that comparable information is obtained about everyone who is described. Without such measurement, meaningful statistics cannot be produced (p. 3). On considering that the purpose of the quantitative component of this research design is to establish the attitudes, opinions, beliefs and feelings of TEs who participated in CPD that was funded and provided by the Education and Development sector, a survey seemed best placed to generate this data in a standardised and reliable manner.

As such, the second quantitative phase of this study consisted of a survey which was administered to teacher educators who participated in the EfECT project in Myanmar. The survey instrument consisted of generating background information about the teacher educators, along with a maximum of seven items in each of the 6 Manifest Variables (see below table).

The survey was sent to an initial cohort of 7 TEs who were asked to complete the survey and send the link to their colleagues, who were, in turn, asked to forward it again to TEs who had completed the EfECT project. A total of 52 TEs completed the survey.

The Latent variable for this survey is the Appropriateness of training given by International Development Partners (IDPs) and the associated Guiding Question is: Does the training provided by development partners to teacher educators in Myanmar take account of contextual or cultural features? The EfECT project's role as an instrumental Case Study is key here. This project was conceived, developed and delivered within the dominant funding and policy flow within the Education and Development sector, and is, as such, the practical application of the dominant features of this sector, which were interrogated in the literature review.

In the context of this study, Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak's invocation of the concept of representation in 'Can the Subaltern Speak?' (1988, 1999) is key. In her essay, Spivak suggests that the rural poor in Postcolonial contexts outside of Europe (in her example the province of Bengal in India is used) do not have representation to political hegemony and as such their interests and desires are not represented in governmental policy (Spivak 1988, 1999; Gandhi 2019; Moore Gilbert 1997; Andreotti 2011). When considering the previously discussed strategic goals of development partners, and the disproportionate role they have played in the development of training for TEs in Myanmar, it can be argued that the current funding and policy flow within the development sector does not give representation to the interests and desires of the people they are purporting to help. This is a key premise upon which this entire project was undertaken, and was key to informing the Guiding Question for the Latent Variable.

The literature review for this project demonstrated that the dominant funding and policy flow within the education and development sector – including teacher education – is from the Global North to the Global South (Lall 2011, 2013, 2015, 2016; UNICEF 2012; Hardman et al. 2016). Consequently, in order to operationalise this Guiding Question, an analysis of the dominant features of teacher education in the Global North needed to be undertaken in the



literature review in order to clarify the theory that informed the training that is provided to teacher educators in development contexts. This included taking account of the Professionalisation of teaching which is often characterised by the publication and enforcement of teaching standards.

International comparison is another key consideration when attempting to operationalise the guiding question. Of significance here is the consideration of the Human capital theory approach to education, which states that there is a connection between education and economic development, and this is considered to be the primary role of education, to prepare students for work in the twenty first century workplace. The literature clearly states that the Human Capital theory approach to education is a key driving force in the learning outcomes of national education systems, and indeed, the Education and Development sector. Tied to this is the OECD's Programme of International Student Assessment (PISA), which evaluates how prepared students in national education systems the world over are for entering the workplace of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Indeed, the international dimension of this evaluation process of education systems has encouraged some commentators to refer to organisations like the OECD, UNESCO, and UNICEF as entrepreneurs of convergence. (Murray 2016; Breakspear 2012; Grey and Morris 2008; Michael 2017; Hulme 2017; Martens et al. 2010; Weisberg et al. 2009; Li 2016).

The theory and practice divide is another feature of the Western model of teacher education that is necessary to evaluate in order to operationalise this guiding question. This divide asks the question, how big a role should universities and the development of research skills have in teacher education. The answer to this question demonstrates where teacher education policy lies on the spectrum in the theory practice divide. If research literacy is considered important, then universities play a key role in teaching because they possess the resources and expertise to develop this skill in their trainees. However, if practice is seen as the key, then research skills – and the role of universities – do not need to be developed. Within the Education and Development sector, the latter is seen as a policy solution to both address the dearth of qualified teachers, and also upskill the unqualified and para-qualified existing teachers.

This is followed by the key roles of the Capabilities Approach and Democratisation in the policy and funding flow within the Education and Development sector. In other words, international development partners consider that access to quality education is key to human capital development and democratic objectives in education, and the role this plays in removing obstacles in the pursuit of one's interests and desires. Within the context of Pedagogic Renewal, the Learner-Centred approach is considered to be best placed to develop these skills (Sen, 1999; Dewey 1916; Lall 2013; Cammaroto 2011; Inglis 1997; Harber 2016). The LCA is seen to have cognitive benefits because people are believed to learn better when they have an element of control over their learning; emancipatory benefits because the collaborative, transparent, accountable elements of the LCA are seen to develop democratic principles in the classroom, which spill out to society at large; and preparatory benefits due to the fact that the problem solving, independent learning, and delegating elements of the LCA develop the skills that are deemed to be required in the twenty first century workplace (Schweisfurth 2015). As such, the Manifest Variables of "Modern Teaching Skills," and "Teaching Methodologies Used", and were derived from the dominant theories of development, their associated skills, and the role of the LCA in developing these skills.

The literature provided ample discussion on the apolitical, ahistorical, and decontextualised application of Northern epistemologies to development contexts. Often there are infrastructural constraints to the application of the LCA in terms of class size, and fostering a sense of belonging, and the language of provision in the CPD that is funded and provided with the Education and Development sector. The level of education, years of experience, and students' exam results are seen as proxy measurements of quality, along with the pedagogic renewal which is characterised by a pivot from the TCA to the LCA (Dembele and Miaro-il, 2003; Schweisfurth, 2015; Darling-Hammond and Lieberman, 2012; UNESCO 2015; Tabulawa 1997; Lall 2011; Lall 2013). As such, the Manifest Variable "Suitability of Methodologies Used" was derived from these local considerations, as well as the items related to years of experience, and level of education, and type of teacher educator.

The influence of local culture and the historical provision of education on teacher educators' conceptualisation of teaching and teachers is also a key consideration in the operationalisation of the guiding question. The Buddhist Monkhood (Sangha) were originally the sole providers of education in royal Burma, and indeed still play a key role in the provision of basic education in remote and poor areas. This historical legacy within the provision of education has had the result of teachers being included as one of the five gems of Buddhism, the result being the leading social role of teachers, and the deference of their students.

The legitimacy Theravada Buddhism gave the Military Junta in Myanmar, and the use of Buddhism as expressions of nationalism in the contemporary education system are a direct result of British colonial rule. Indeed, key impacts of Myanmar's citizenship legislation have tied being Buddhist with being Myanmar, at the exclusion of entire ethnicities from citizenship, thus depriving them of access to basic education (Lall et al. 2013; Lall 2011; Dhammasami 2018; Crosby 2014; Hardman et al. 2013; Mieke and Cordoz0 2019; CESR 2014; NESP 2016; UNESCO 2016; British Council 2015; Lwin 2000). On considering the legacy of a teacher centred approach from the Buddhist provision of education in Myanmar, along with the characterisation of the TCA being less than optimal in terms of the theories of Human Capital Production and Democratisation, the Manifest Variable related to "Traditional Teaching Methods' emerged from these considerations.

Another aspect of Postcolonial theory that is of significance for this study is Homi Bhabha's concept of Mimicry (1994). As previously stated, Bhabha suggests that, during the colonial era, the colonising powers did not learn the local languages or about the local culture because they were deemed inferior, and that it was the responsibility of the colonised peoples to learn the language and culture of the colonisers. This created a new class of people who acted as an intermediary between the coloniser and colonised groups. The legacy of this policy is one of a heightened status of the language of the former colonisers in Postcolonial context, and institutions that represent their culture (Bhabha 1994; Gandhi 2019; Moore Gilbert 1997; Andreotti 2011).

In this study, the concept of Mimicry could explain the attitudes and feelings the TEs have towards the British Council in delivering this training. As such, the Latent Variables of: “Opinions of TEs towards the British Council’s knowledge of their Education System,” and “Opinions of TEs towards the British Council’s knowledge of the traditional role of teachers” were developed in order to establish their opinions of the British Council in a general sense along with their feelings related to their suitability in providing the training in the first place, as well as whether the training was regarded as successful.

In terms of addressing the language of provision, i.e., English, key considerations from the literature in relation to Language Policy suggest that there are issues related to ability to access and engage with the material (Trudell et al. 2016), political and social considerations (Gove and Cvelich 2011, p. 16, Alidou et al, 2006), and the privileging of Western epistemologies via language of provision relative to local languages (Trudell et al. 2016). It is also related to Bhabha’s concept of mimicry and the elevated status that the institutions, and by extension language, of former colonies in Postcolonial contexts. As such, the item in the survey related to preferred language of provision emerged from these considerations. Local considerations related to type of TE, years of experience, and age of TEs were also taken into account.

Local infrastructural and structural considerations related to classroom size, type of furniture, and type of TE (academic, methodology, co-curricular) were also taken into consideration in drafting the descriptive component of the survey.

As has been demonstrated, the Latent and Manifest Variables, as well as many of the descriptive items in the survey were informed by the context of the project (i.e., teacher education in Myanmar), the literature review, and the theoretical framework being used in this study. As will be discussed below, the findings from a descriptive analysis of these Variables and items informed the sampling, questions, and thematic coding of the interview stage of this project. Bearing all of this in mind, the quantitative research questions that were used

in the interview stage in order to more fully understand the data from these  
Manifest variables were:

- Quantitative Research Questions
  - What are the opinions of TEs towards the British Council's knowledge of their education system?
  - What are the opinions of TEs towards the British Council's knowledge of the traditional role of teachers in Myanmar?
  - What are the opinions of TEs towards the language of provision of the EfECT project?
    - Does age, type of TE and years of experience impact these feelings?
  - How important do TEs regard teaching 'traditional' teaching skills to their trainees?
  - How important do TEs regard teaching 'modern' teaching skills to their trainees?
  - How often do TEs use the Learner Centred Approach in their classes?
  - How suitable do TEs believe the Learner Centred Approach is to Myanmar?

4.5.2.1. Table 1 – Overview of quantitative survey instrument

Latent Variable					
Appropriateness of training given by International Development Partners (IDPs)					
(Guiding Question)					
Does the training provided by IDPs to teacher educators in Myanmar take account of contextual or cultural features?					
Manifest Variable 1	Manifest Variable 2	Manifest Variable 3	Manifest Variable 4	Manifest Variable 5	Manifest Variable 6
Opinions of TEs towards the British Council's knowledge of their Education System.	Opinions of TEs towards the British Council's knowledge of the traditional role of teachers.	Traditional teaching skills.	Modern Teaching Skills.	Teaching Methodologies used.	Suitability of teaching Methodologies.
Operationalisation 1	Operationalisation 2	Operationalisation 3	Operationalisation 4	Operationalisation 4	Operationalisation 5
According to TEs, how much does the British Council know about the Myanmar history of education	According to TEs, how much do the British Council know about the traditional role of teachers in Myanmar	What traditional teaching skills are important for trainees to learn in Myanmar?	What modern teaching skills are important for trainees to learn in Myanmar?	How often do the TEs use the LCA?	How suitable is the LCA to Myanmar context?
3 Items	4 items	5 items	4 items	7 items	7 items

Cronbach's Alpha .739	Cronbach's Alpha .637	Cronbach's Alpha .83	Cronbach's Alpha .725	Cronbach's Alpha .783	Cronbach's Alpha .859
Shapiro-Wilk .000	Shapiro-Wilk .000	Shapiro-Wilk .000	Shapiro-Wilk .000	Shapiro-Wilk .000	Shapiro-Wilk .000

#### 4.5.2.2. Assumptions and Limitations

The language that was used in this research needed some thought. Although the researcher lived in Myanmar for a number of years, I have not developed the necessary level in the Myanmar language to be able to engage with teacher educators in a meaningful way. In order to offset this, and to increase the number of potential participants, a back translation of the survey instrument was undertaken. This process involved:

1. The researcher developed the survey.
2. The researcher's sourced a translator in the country to translate the survey.
3. This translated survey was sent to another translator in the country who translated the survey back to English.
4. This back translation was then compared with the original English language version of the survey.
5. It was found that the back-translation accurately reflected the original English Language survey.
6. A bilingual version of the survey was used.

However, as is always the case, there may be slight differences between the original English language version and the translation (Spivak 2016).

Another important consideration is that there were difficulties in accessing teacher educators in the context of Covid-19 and the Military Coup, and this had a substantial impact on the sample size for the survey and the sampling methodology used (please see above section).

#### 4.5.2.3. Instrumentation

In terms of the survey instrument, according to Fowler (2014, p. 99), designing a good survey instrument involves selecting the questions needed to meet the research objectives, testing them to make sure they can be asked and answered as planned, then putting them into a form to maximise the ease with which respondents can do their jobs.

He goes on to state that, self-administered questionnaires, which were used in this project,



1. Should be self-explanatory.
2. Should be restricted to closed answers.
3. The question forms should be few in number.
4. The questionnaire should be laid out in a way that seems clear and uncluttered.
5. Provide redundant information to respondents, by having written and visual cues that convey the same message about how to proceed (Fowler 2014, p. 105).

As previously stated, one of the steps taken in order to achieve these goals was the completion of a back translation of the survey (please see above). Once the back translation was completed, the survey was piloted with native speaking Myanmar participants, with the opportunity to give feedback on the clarity of the questions and ease of use of the survey instrument. This process was completed via email (Johnson and Christensen 2014, p. 212). All of the participants provided feedback via email and it was found that all of them understood the questions, and could easily complete the survey so no further changes were made.

The survey was tested by Cronbach alpha to measure the internal consistency amongst the items – the extent to which all of the items in a test measure the same concept or construct (Tavakol and Dennick 2011). A value of .7 or higher was needed to ensure statistical reliability (Tavakol and Dennick 2011; Fowler 2014; Hoy and Adams 2016). However, it should be noted that, according to Taber (2017), with Manifest Variables with less than 5 items, a lower alpha score may be useful due to the popular argument that by adding more items, the alpha score would increase. This approach has been met with some caution due to the possibility of redundancy in the extra items added. As such, in order to avoid the possibility for this redundancy, and in keeping with the recommendation by Taber (2017), in this study, for variables with less than 5 items, a Cronbach's alpha of .6 or higher was considered suitable.

#### 4.5.2.4. Procedures

The first part of this study involved a literature review of the education and development sector, the history of education in Myanmar, and the educational reform process which was underway until the military coup in February 2021.

There has also been clarification in terms of the theoretical framework that has been used, i.e., Postcolonial theory. As previously demonstrated, it was on the basis of the use of the English for Education College Trainers (EfECT) project as an instrumental Case Study, an analysis of this project using the literature review and theoretical framework that the Latent and Manifest Variables, as well as the individual items in the survey were identified. The below lists the procedure which was undertaken in order to generate data in the second quantitative phase of this project.

1. An instrumental Case Study was identified and research questions were developed.
2. A theoretical framework was identified i.e., Postcolonial Theory.
3. The questionnaire was designed.
4. A back-translation of the questionnaire was undertaken.
5. The questionnaire was revised taking into account findings from the back translation.
6. Ethical approval was sought from the research institution (awarded in Oct 2021).
7. A questionnaire piloted with a small group of participants (7 participants).
8. The questionnaire was revised and disseminated to the total survey sample.
9. The data that was generated was input into SPSS.
10. The data generated was cleaned.
11. Cronbach's alpha was calculated for internal consistency.
12. Shapiro-Wilk was calculated to check whether the data was normally distributed.
13. A descriptive analysis was undertaken of each of the Manifest Variables.
14. Chi-Squared tests were undertaken to check for statistically significant differences between groups.
15. A thesis has been produced that outlines the research problem and the purpose of the research, the research questions and hypotheses, the review of literature, the methodology and research methods, the theoretical framework, the data analysis, and the findings.

Using the previously discussed snow-ball sampling methodology, an online survey was sent to teacher educators with a total of 52 responses. In terms of analysing the data from the survey, a descriptive analysis of each of the 6 Manifest Variables of the survey was completed in order to answer the quantitative research questions, and where necessary, Chi-Squared tests were undertaken in order to clarify whether there are any statistically significant differences between groups of participants in the survey (Hoy and Adams 2016).

#### 4.5.3. Phase 3 – Quantitative Descriptive Analysis.

According to Hoy and Adams (2016), descriptive statistics is the process of simply describing relations without speculating about the cause (p. 17). Creswell and Creswell (2018) go slightly further in their characterisation of descriptive statistics in stating that surveys provide a quantitative description of trends, attitudes, and opinions of a population (p. 147). It is in this regard that a descriptive statistical analysis of the data from the survey was undertaken, i.e., to identify the trends, attitudes, and opinions of the participants in the survey of the items in this survey, including the 6 Manifest Variables. In order to do this, the following additional steps were taken (please note, some of these steps are duplicates of the above overall procedure):

1. A descriptive analysis of the data was undertaken in relation to age, years of experience, and type of TE.
2. Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each of the variables to test for reliability, with satisfactory results for all Manifest Variables (see above table).
3. Shapiro-Wilk was calculated to test for whether the responses were normally distributed (see above table). As expected, due to the fact that all of the items in the Manifest Variables are Ordinal, all of the responses were not normally distributed (Hoy and Adams 2016).
4. The number of non-responses were calculated for each of the items and have been reflected in the presentation of the descriptive data in the Findings and Analysis chapter.
5. A descriptive analysis of the frequency of responses for every item in the Manifest Variables was undertaken using SPSS. This included looking at the number and percentage of responses for each item in

each Manifest Variable. Due to the fact that the responses were not normally distributed, the mean, median, mode and standard deviation were considered to be of less importance.

6. This data was then input into tables for presenting and analysing in the Findings and Analysis chapter.
7. An analysis of these tables was undertaken in order to identify trends in responses for each of the themes in the Manifest Variables.
8. The data files were split into different descriptive features (e.g., age, years of experience, type of teacher educator) to highlight trends within these groups.
9. Chi-squared tests were undertaken to test whether there are any statistically significant differences between groups in their attitudes, feelings, opinions, and beliefs of the Manifest Variables and the items in the survey.

#### 4.5.4. Phase 4 – First Mixing of Data

The data gathered from the survey had a dual purpose for the third qualitative phase of this research design. Firstly, the demographic information from the descriptive statistical analysis of data related to gender, age, and type of TE was used in the purposeful sampling of participants for the semi-structured interviews in phase two (Creswell and Plano Clarke 2018; Creswell and Creswell 2018). Secondly, the findings from a descriptive statistical analysis of the Manifest Variables were used to draft interview questions in order to provide an explanatory power to the trends that were identified in the Manifest Variables (Ibid).

This is the first example of how the two different methods complement each other. Firstly, the survey data gave essential information in relation to age, gender, and type of TE for the purposeful sampling for the interview. The survey data also gave invaluable data in relation to what the attitudes, opinions, feelings, and beliefs are of TEs in relation to the six Manifest Variables. However, the nature of quantitative research is such that, while broad and shallow data offers strengths in terms of generalisability, it lacks the ability to provide the reasons behind these attitudes, opinions, feelings, and beliefs (Creswell and Creswell 2018; Creswell and Plano Clarke 2018; Green 2007). Thus, in playing to the strengths of both methods, the second interview

stage of this data gathering process would provide deeper and richer data to offset the shallowness of the survey data.

#### 4.5.5. Phase 5 – Qualitative Data Collection: Semi-Structured Interviews

In terms of the qualitative component of this project, interviews were deemed the most effective method to use. This conclusion was made based on Merriman's (2009) assertion that 'interviewing is necessary when we cannot observe behaviour, feelings or how people interpret the world around them' (p. 88). In the context of the depth of data that was required in order to offer an explanatory power to the quantitative data, and the imposed limitations on the data gathering process due to Covid-19 and the military coup in Myanmar, this approach seemed axiomatic.

Indeed, this decision was reinforced by Braun and Clarke (2013) when they stated that 'interviews are best suited to exploring understandings, perceptions and constructions of things that participants have some kind of personal stake in – people without a personal stake in a topic are unlikely to generate the rich and detailed responses you want from interviews' (p. 81). On considering that the central motivation behind this project was to give teacher educators the opportunity to express their attitudes, opinions, feelings, and beliefs about CPD that they have received that was funded by the Education and Development sector, and that fact that the descriptive analysis of the Manifest Variables from the survey established what these attitudes, opinions, feelings and beliefs were – without offering explanations, the use of interviews for the quantitative component of this data gathering process seemed the best choice due to the fact that it gave the participants the opportunity to do exactly this – explain the reasons behind their attitudes, opinions, feelings, and beliefs.

Regarding the use of semi-structured interviews, Smith and Osborne (2009) stated that semi-structured interviewing allows the researcher and participants to engage in a dialogue whereby initial questions are modified in the light of the participants' responses, and the investigator is able to probe interesting and important areas which arise (p. 57). Indeed, Brinkman and Kvale (2018) go further in stating that semi-structured interviews divine the 'descriptions of the life world of the interviewees with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena' – in this case, the attitudes, opinions, feelings, and

beliefs of TEs in relation to CPD that they received which was funded and provided by the Education and Development sector (p. 8). This approach to interviewing allowed the interviewee to draft questions and send them to the participants prior to the interview in order to give them time to think about their responses.

The questions that were used in the semi-structured phase of the interview were as follows:

- Qualitative Research questions
  - How do you feel about the British Council, why?
  - Do you think the EfECT project was successful, why?
  - What teaching approaches do TEs usually use in their classrooms and why?
  - How do TEs feel about the Learner Centred Approach (LCA) and why?
    - Does type of TE influence how they feel about the LCA, why?
  - How do TEs who have been teaching for a long time feel about the LCA? Why?
  - Do you think the training that was provided by the British Council is suitable to Myanmar's context and why?
  - Do you use the methodologies you learned in the British Council training? Why?
  - What are the challenges to using your preferred methodologies, why?

However, in keeping with Smith and Osbourne's (2009) contention that semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer to pursue topics and themes of interest to their study, in addition, there is a flexibility to enter, as far as possible, the psychological and social world of the respondent. As a result, the interviewee can introduce an issue of importance to them or that the interviewer had not thought of. In this environment, the interviewees act as an experiential expert on the subject matter and should therefore be allowed maximum opportunity to tell their own story (p. 59).

In terms of identifying participants in the interview process, and in keeping with the snowball sampling methodology that was used in this project, two TEs were emailed asking them whether they would like to participate in the interview process, and to forward the email to their colleagues using the following criteria:

1. They must have participated in the EfECT project.
2. They must have completed the survey.
3. They must have completed the APTIS exam and received a score of at least B1.

Through this process, 11 TEs were identified, 4 of whom were known to the researcher, and 7 of whom were not. The bi-lingual Plain Language Statement, and bi-lingual informed consent form were sent to and completed by all participants. In addition, at the beginning of each interview, the researcher confirmed that the participants had read the Plain Language Statement, if they had any questions, and requested oral consent.

#### 4.5.6 Phase 6 – Thematic Analysis

Eleven teacher educators representing a cross section based on a descriptive analysis of the survey data participated in the interviews (please see Chapter 6 for details). It is important to note at this point that, as stipulated by Creswell and Plano Clarke (2018), all of the participants in the interview stage of this process also completed the survey.

The interviews were conducted between November 2021 and January 2022, were transcribed and a thematic analysis was undertaken in order to identify themes and patterns of meaning across the dataset. As previously stated, predetermined codes were used, which were guided by the findings of the literature review as well as the findings from the descriptive statistical analysis of the items in the survey, including the Manifest Variables (Braun and Clarke 2013; O'Brien 2020).

In terms of the steps taken in the thematic analysis of the data, Braun and Clarke (2013), who identified 7 stages in the coding and analysis process in Thematic Analysis (p 202-203), were used as a guide. These steps include;

1. Transcription.

2. Reading and familiarisation; taking note of items of potential interest.
3. Coding – complete; across entire dataset
4. Searching for themes.
5. Reviewing themes (producing a map of the provisional themes and subthemes, and relationships between them – aka the thematic map)
6. Defining and naming themes
7. Writing – finalising analysis.

In terms of the transcription process that was carried out in this project, as stated, 11 interviews took place between November 2021 and January 2022 using the official DCU zoom account, and the transcription process was carried out by the researcher. This process entailed multiple steps, including;

- activating the transcription option on zoom,
- reviewing the interviews and editing the transcriptions (1<sup>st</sup> draft),
- downloading the edited transcriptions and converting them to a word document,
- reviewing and editing the first draft by adding capitalisation, punctuation, pausing and addressing any spelling errors (2<sup>nd</sup> draft),
- Finally, listening to and reviewing the 2<sup>nd</sup> draft to check that everything is accurate (3<sup>rd</sup> draft).

This iterative process ensured that, by the end of this process, the researcher had an intimate familiarity and knowledge of the contents of each of the interviews.

It was at this point that the 3<sup>rd</sup> drafts of the interview transcripts were uploaded to Nvivo. As stated, the codes for this were predetermined by the questions that were asked in the interviews, which were determined by the descriptive statistical analysis of items within each of the 6 Manifest Variables, and remaining items in the survey, which had been, in turn, identified via an extensive literature review.

Table 2 – coding in Nvivo

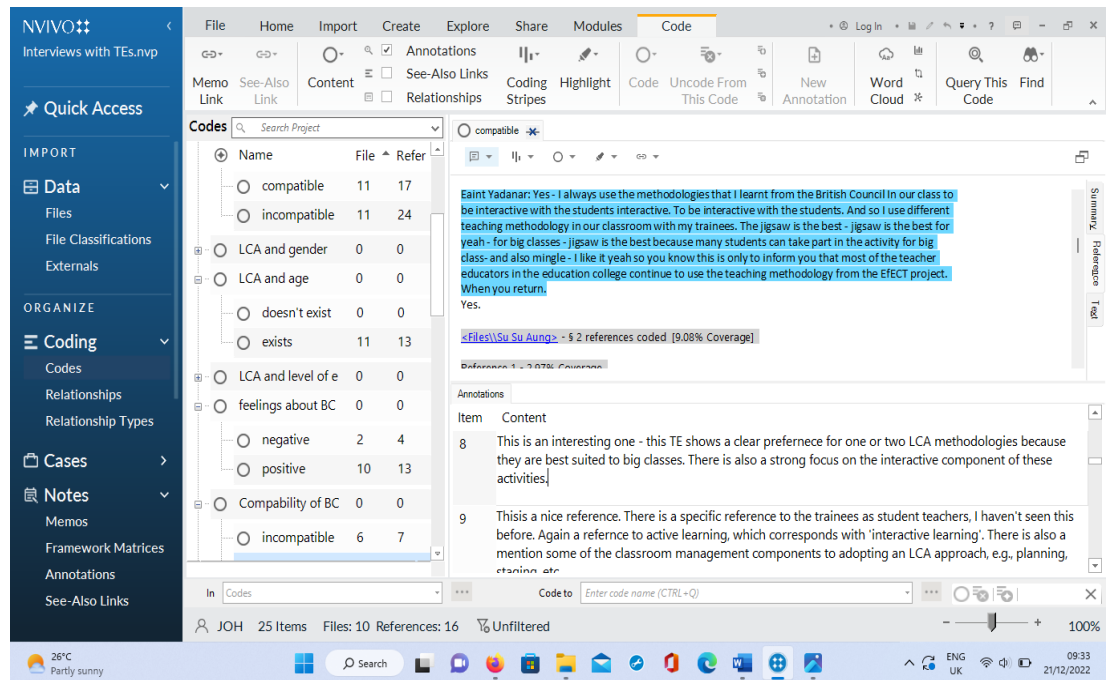


Name	Files	References	Created on	Created by	Modified on	Modified by
Compatibility of BC training with Myanmar Ed	0	0	28/03/2022	JOH	28/03/2022 0	JOH
compatible	10	16	28/03/2022	JOH	17/04/2022 1	JOH
incompatible	6	7	28/03/2022	JOH	17/04/2022 1	JOH
Compatibility of LCA with Myanamr	0	0	28/03/2022	JOH	28/03/2022 0	JOH
compatible	11	17	28/03/2022	JOH	17/04/2022 1	JOH
incompatible	11	24	28/03/2022	JOH	17/04/2022 1	JOH
feelings about BC	0	0	28/03/2022	JOH	28/03/2022 0	JOH
negative	2	4	28/03/2022	JOH	17/04/2022 1	JOH
positive	10	13	28/03/2022	JOH	17/04/2022 1	JOH
Feelings about LCA	0	0	28/03/2022	JOH	28/03/2022 0	JOH
negative	2	2	28/03/2022	JOH	15/04/2022 1	JOH
positive	11	20	28/03/2022	JOH	17/04/2022 1	JOH
Language of Provision	0	0	28/03/2022	JOH	28/03/2022 0	JOH

Each of the codes were divided into different sub-codes where appropriate, as can be seen by the above picture. This was a complete coding process, whereby everything that was of interest or relevance to answering the research questions was coded (Braun and Clarke 2013).

Following this complete coding process, each of the codes and sub-codes were analysed and annotations were written in order to identify the theme that emerged, and consider how these themes added an explanatory power to the attitudes and opinions that were expressed in the descriptive analysis of the Manifest Variables in the survey data, and in doing so, the process of Phase 7, which comprised of the second mixing the data began. Of significance here is whether the interview data supported, contradicted or contested the survey data.

Table 3 – annotations of codes



#### 4.5.7. Phase 7 – Second Mixing of Data

On considering that this annotation process was guided by the Manifest Variables and descriptive items in the survey, in that this qualitative data was being used to offer explanatory power to the attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and feelings that were expressed in the quantitative data, a more detailed mapping exercise was undertaken whereby the themes that emerged in the codes in the interviews were cross referenced with the variables in the survey data, taking into account whether this data supported, contradicted or contested by the thematic analysis of the interview data. Thus, the writing up of the findings stage began.

This was a protracted process, the bulwark of which was to build towards dialogue between the quantitative and qualitative data with the objective of using the strengths of both methods, i.e., the breadth of quantitative data and the depth of qualitative data, to enhance the researcher's understanding of the attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and feelings the TEs have of the CPD that they received which was funded by the education and development sector (i.e., the EfECT project). This was then cross referenced with the themes that emerged in the literature review in order to demonstrate the manner in which the data generated in this project aligned with them. The expectation being that the data was framed and guided by the key themes that emerged during the literature review process.

The questions for this phase of the data analysis were as follows:

- Mixed Methods Research Questions
  - In what ways do the interview data reporting the pedagogic beliefs and preferences of teacher educators – taking into account years of experience, type of teacher educator, and legacy of provision of education in Myanmar – help to explain the quantitative results about these preferences and beliefs in the survey?
  - In what ways do the interview data reporting the views of teacher educators about the training that they received from the British Council help to explain the quantitative results about this training reported on the surveys?

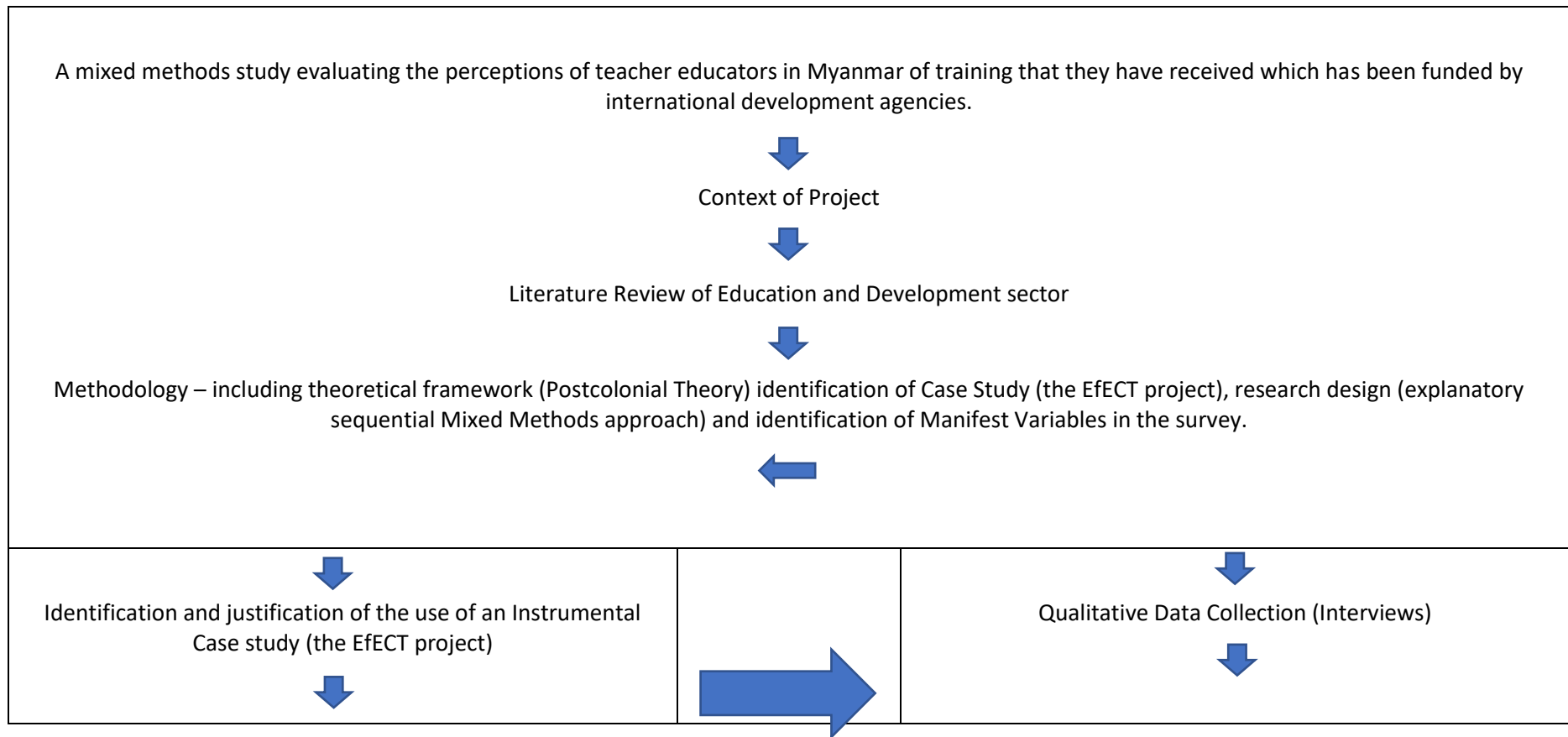
#### 4.5.8. Validity and Reliability Considerations

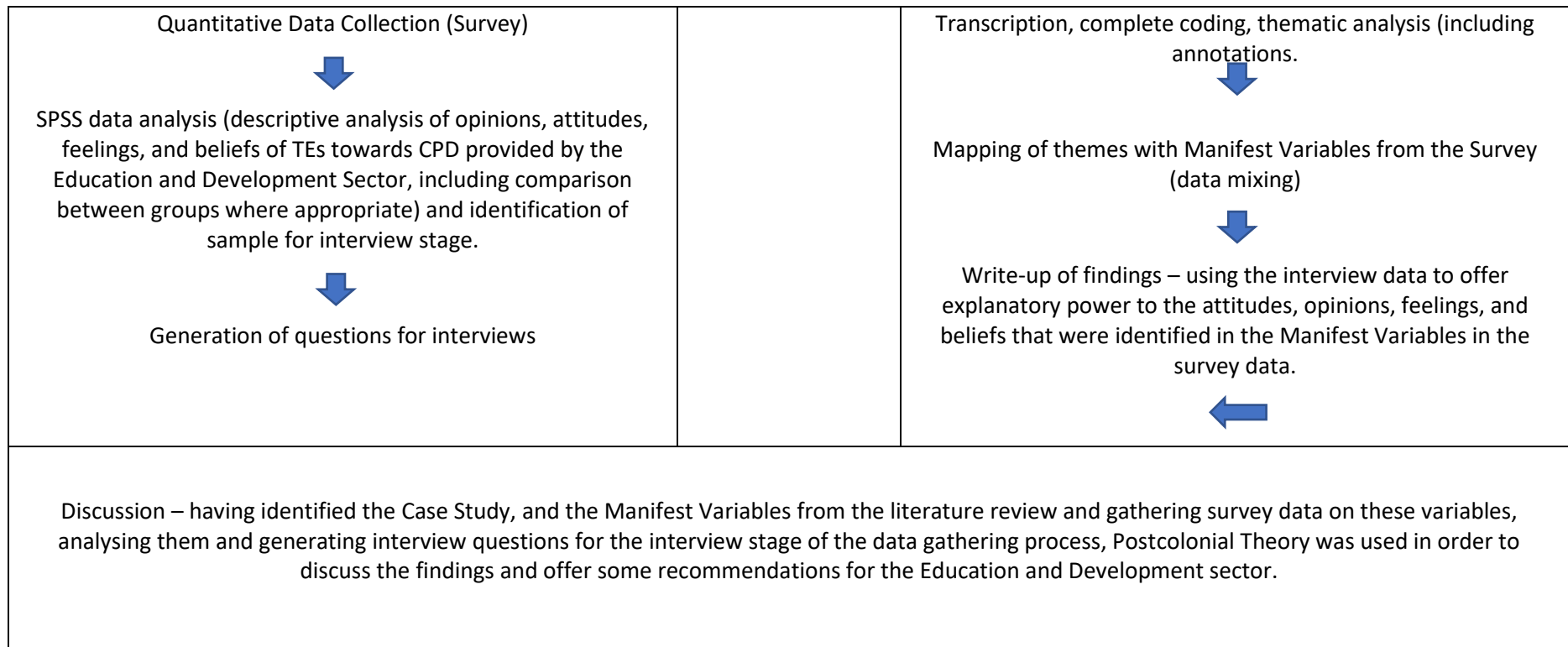
In order to address the validity of the qualitative dataset (i.e., to ensure that the dataset is measuring what it is intended to measure), and its reliability (i.e., the possibility of generating the same results when the same measures are administered by different researchers to a different participant group), the following steps, recommended by Creswell and Creswell (2018) and Braun and Clarke (2013) were taken:

- Member checking was used to determine the accuracy of the data by taking the final report back to participants and determining whether these participants feel that they are accurate. However, due to the sensitivity of the political context in Myanmar, this process was only completed with 2 participants – both of whom agreed with how their data was presented in the findings.
- Peer debriefing was used to enhance the accuracy of the account. This process involved locating a person (in this case, my supervisor) who reviewed and asked questions about the qualitative study so that the account would resonate with people other than the researcher. This strategy – involving an interpretation beyond the researcher and invested in another person – adds validity to an account.
- In order to address reliability, intercoder agreement (or cross checking) was used (Braun and Clarke 2013) whereby the principal researcher

asked a peer to review the dataset with the predetermined themes to check if the reviewer's findings match that of the principal researcher. In this case a colleague with a background in curriculum development, programme provision, and monitoring and evaluation in Education and Leadership in corporate contexts was asked to participate. Their findings were consistent with the researcher's.

4.5.9. Table 4 – Diagrammatic Overview of the Research Design for this Project.





#### 4.6. Structure of Findings Chapters

At this point, it is important to clarify how this methodological approach has impacted on the structure of the next two chapters. Firstly, in terms of Chapter 5, an overview of the EfECT project will be presented. This overview will be followed by an analysis of the EfECT project using the aforementioned theories that underpin the Education and Development sector. The purpose of this chapter is to justify the use of the EfECT project as an instrumental Case Study in this thesis.

Secondly, Chapter 6 is the presentation of the findings from the generation of data from the explanatory sequential mixed methods component of this research. This section will present and analyse the findings from the survey and interviews. This chapter will broadly be structured by the Manifest Variables from the survey, with data related to language of provision provided as well. A descriptive analysis of the survey data will be provided, followed by the data from the corresponding questions in the semi-structured interviews. The data will then be mixed in order to highlight the manner in which the qualitative data offers explanatory power to the quantitative data.

In keeping with the premise that Jennifer Green (2007) posited related to the fact that, in using a dialectical approach between two world views, i.e., constructivist and post-positivist, there needs to be a recognition that different paradigms give rise to contradictory ideas and contested arguments. Bearing this in mind, the final section of the Findings and Analysis chapter addresses these contradictions and contestations. As such the final section of this chapter is related to pertinent contradictions between the quantitative and qualitative data.

#### 4.7. Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to identify the Case Study and research design of this project, the worldview that underpins it, the theoretical framework that guides it, the reflexivity that challenges it, along with the multitude of decisions related to; phases, analytical tools, sampling, ethical implications, and reliability, and validity considerations that run throughout it.

An instrumental Case Study (The EfECT project) was used as a vehicle for TEs to express their opinions regarding the dominant policy and funding flow within

the Education and Development sector. This was coupled with the use of a mixed methods approach due to the fact that it maximises the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods, while seemingly cancelling out their weaknesses. This approach also provided a lightness-of-foot that was required in order to navigate the complexity of the study in-and-of-itself, while also allowing for the collection of data in what turned out to be the dual challenges of Covid-19 and the 2021 military coup. Both of these factors ensured a less than ideal sampling methodology was used (SSM), with the proviso that the generation of any data in a conflict setting is better than the generation of no data. Finally, the development of the data collection instruments (survey and semi-structured interviews), the procedures that were followed to collect, analyse, mix, and present this data were also presented, as well as the impact the research design had on how the findings were presented.



## Chapter 5 – Overview of the EfECT Project. An Instrumental Case Study

### 5. Introduction

As stated in the Methodology chapter, the EfECT project was used as an instrumental Case Study, which is indicative of the funding and policy flow from the Global North to the Global South that was explored in the literature review. In order to satisfy the criterion referenced nature of the use of a Case study in this manner, an overview of the project will be presented in this chapter. Accompanying this, an analysis of the project as an exemplar of the dominant policy flow from the Global North to the Global South within the Education and Development sector will be presented.

#### 5.1. Conception and Objectives of the EfECT Project

The genesis of the EfECT project was very much tied to the reform agenda implemented by President Thein Sein (see chapter 2). He approached British Prime Minister David Cameron in 2013, asking for support to improve the English proficiency of Myanmar's teacher educators (TEs) and to introduce them to modern methodologies (British Council 2015, p. 9).

The project took place in the context of initial teacher education (ITE) in Myanmar (please see the introduction to chapter 2 for more details). The project model was one whereby there were two international trainers stationed to each participating Education College. A key requirement for this role was the CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), which is provided by Cambridge English. These trainers reported to Cluster Managers, of which a key requirement was the DELTA (Diploma in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), also provided by Cambridge English. Finally, the Cluster Managers reported up to a Project Manager.

The literature review of the British Council's needs analysis deduced that the knowledge accumulation model (UNICEF 2013) in initial teacher education was the dominant model of delivery in Myanmar with an emphasis on transmitting theoretical knowledge about teaching, and that student teachers were lectured to in large groups much of the time (British Council 2015; Borg et al. 2018, p.

76). It was also found that there are similarities between TEs own perceptions of constraints to successful implementation of child centred approaches and those cited in wider research (Hardman et al. 2016; Schweisfurth 2015; Lall 2011; Westbrook et al. 2013).

This formed the basis for the EfECT project's approach, which aimed to develop more learner centred practices such as interactive group and pair work, in combination with encouraging elements such as dialogue with the whole class, and teacher questioning which were more likely to be compatible with existing structural constraints on pedagogy (British Council 2015; Westbrook et al. 2013). Indeed, this is reinforced by an analysis of previous projects, in which Borg et al. extrapolate that one explanation for the limited success of such initiatives was that they sought to radically change educational practices rather than build on these in a contextually appropriate manner.

For example, class sizes in Myanmar (in both schools and Education Colleges) are large and whole-class teaching is common. Thus, UNESCO argues for the importance of reforming teacher education through a move away from 'a rigid chalk and talk', teacher dominated, lecture driven and rote-learning, pedagogy (UNESCO 2015). However, an approach which builds on these existing features of educators' work and which promotes cultural continuity (Holliday 2001), is more likely to be effective than one which seeks to dismiss existing practices and to replace them with a wholly new pedagogy (Borg et al. 2018, p. 77). Clearly, while instructional skills and teacher knowledge needed to be key foci in efforts to improve the competence of teacher educators in Myanmar, it was also essential that input delivered on EfECT provided some continuity with teacher educators' existing practice (Borg et al. 2018, p. 77).

To this end, quantitative and qualitative research was undertaken in order to generate data on:

1. General English proficiency
2. Using English in the classroom/confidence using English as a medium of instruction
3. Awareness and understanding of effective interactive teaching and training methodology

4. Confidence using effective interactive teaching and training methodology
5. Understanding of and confidence in using teacher training and teaching resources (British Council 2015, p. 10).

Overall, the findings from this data supported the literature. It was found that, despite reform efforts, education in Myanmar is characterised, in both state schools and Education Colleges (ECs) by the continued dominance of a learning paradigm that emphasises knowledge accumulation, memorisation and reproduction (UNICEF 2012; Borg et al. 2018, p. 76).

Broad findings and recommendations from this data (2015) were:

1. A proposed approach to teaching English and raising English proficiency in a way that builds on the evident motivation of TEs to learn English and also the need to address areas for development, including weaknesses around speaking and listening.
2. A proposed approach to support teacher educators in moving towards an interactive approach to teaching takes into account barriers such as large class sizes, and the present exam system; usefulness of direct instruction when undertaken interactively and moves Myanmar teaching towards an approach which encourages 21<sup>st</sup> century skills such as communication skills, critical thinking skills, creative thinking skills, problem solving skills.
3. Myanmar's TEs are an ageing cohort, with 73% aged 40 or over and 37% aged 50 or over. While age brings wisdom and experience, it would be prudent to make steps now to ensure that those soon to retire are replaced with appropriately trained and supported successors.
4. The majority of teachers do not use English in the classroom, have a low level, and have concerns about lack of confidence in speaking.
5. The methodology component of the EfECT project needs to combine training around child-centred practices such as interactive group and pair work, encouraging student questioning with best practice around more teacher-led or direct instruction pedagogies, such as dialogue

involving the whole class, demonstration and teacher questioning (see Westbrook et al. 2013) which are likely to be compatible with existing structural constraints on pedagogy.

6. Despite the three different types of TEs, and their different responsibilities, it is recommended that the methodology year be taught to mixed groups as the teaching skills that are being addressed are generic and apply to all TEs. Mixing will also allow TEs with different roles to learn and explore the different roles together.
7. The methodology course content for the EfECT methodology year should comprise a core curriculum around generic teaching methodology with divergent elements addressing issues specific to teaching primary and secondary age phases respectively. Additional content around the practical skills involved in teacher training will be required for the methodology TEs (British Council 2015, pp. 6-8).

According to Borg et al. (2018), all of the above taken together demonstrates that the goal of the EfECT project should have been to enhance the competence of initial teacher educators in Myanmar because it was deemed, from the needs analysis, that many of the TEs had limited or no teaching experience in schools and had not had opportunities to develop their own core instructional, and more broadly professional skills (British Council 2015). It was felt that, before more advanced work on teacher educator competencies (such as, for example, how to observe and give feedback on teaching) would be feasible, it was first necessary to develop the more fundamental areas of teacher educators; work – i.e., their competence as teachers (Borg et al. 2018, p. 76).

In the context of these findings, and following from discussions between the British Council, Department for International Development (UK based) and the Myanmar Ministry of Education, the decision was made to devote one year to improving the English proficiency of the TEs and a further year to support the TEs around methodology (British Council 2015, p. 9).

Having taken all of the above considerations into account, it was decided that the objectives of the project were;

1. To improve the English language proficiency of TEs in Myanmar's state training colleges
2. Development of classroom teaching methodology competence of Myanmar's TEs
3. Development of Teaching Training competence of Myanmar's TEs
4. Greater access to and better understanding of how to utilise modern training resources and materials for Myanmar's TEs (British Council 2015, p. 12).

The Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) for the project were: when end-project and baseline results are compared, 75% of TEs will improve their;

1. English score by one CEFR level
2. Overall confidence
3. Confidence using English generally
4. Confidence using English for teaching
5. Confidence in using interactive teaching methodologies
6. Confidence using teacher training/teaching resources
7. Theoretical knowledge of teaching methodology
8. Observation score on four of six competency indicators
9. Observation score on reflecting on their teaching
10. Observation score on questioning skills
11. Observation on interactive teaching
12. Observation score on using resources (Borg et al. 2018, p. 85).

There were two trainers placed in each of the Education Colleges which participated in the project. Each trainer needed a minimum of a CELTA (English Language teaching certificate), with the DELTA (Diploma in English Language Teaching) very highly regarded, and indeed was a prerequisite for a role in middle or senior management.

The first year of the project used a general English course book called Life, and the second year of the project used material developed by the British Council specifically for the EfECT project called Foundations in Teaching (British Council 2014; 2015; 2017).

Year	General Objective	Material
1	English Proficiency	Life
2	Teaching Methodology	Foundations in Teaching

EfECT used competency frameworks to inform, promote, and measure changes in teaching performance (British Council 2017, p. 1). Teacher competence is multi-faceted and is defined through complex interactions among a range of behavioural, cognitive, metacognitive, interpersonal, attitudinal and affective attributes (Campbell et al. 2004; Coe et al. 2008). According to Borg et al. (2018), it was therefore deemed necessary to make decisions about which core aspects of teacher educators' work to target. These decisions were informed by various sources, both theoretical and practical. One was the literature on instructional effectiveness (for example, Coe et al. 2014; Hattie 2009) and various widely-cited frameworks of competences (such as Danielson Group 2013; Marzano and Toth 2013) and standards (Department of Education 2011, National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2016) that define what teachers should know and be able to do. Collectively, such sources repeatedly note that effective teaching is underpinned by sound knowledge and skill in domains such as planning, classroom management, explanations and instructions, questioning techniques, and assessment for learning. Extensive needs analysis prior to the project, including observations of teacher educators' practices (in 29 classes across 15 ECs), confirmed that a focus on such core instructional skills and the theoretical knowledge underpinning them would be beneficial. Both the propositional and practical dimensions of teaching knowledge were thus targeted (Borg et al. 2018, p. 76-77). These references are key documents in the literature supporting the Foundations in Teaching curriculum (please see Appendix A).

In addition, reflective practice and addressing teacher confidence were introduced in this project (British Council 2017, p. 2). The justification behind including these in the project is that teacher competence is not limited to performance in the classroom and the knowledge that underpins it. As Darling Hammond (2010) notes, it is also influenced by a range of broader professional and affective attributes i.e., reflective practice and teacher confidence (Ibid). According to Borg et al. (2018), accounts of attempts to promote reflective practice in developing contexts (for example, Minnis 1999; O’Sullivan 2002; Sangani and Stelma 2012) highlight challenges that often arise as a consequence of conditions – such as hierarchical educational systems, a lack of teacher autonomy and lack of analytical skills in teachers – that are not conducive to teacher reflection. It was believed that such issues were likely to be equally pronounced in Myanmar. As a result, another objective of this study was to evaluate the extent to which EfECT did foster reflective practice among the teacher educators in Education Colleges (British Council 2015, 2017; Borg et al. 2018)).

The teaching competency framework used in this project was based on the British Council’s ‘Teaching for Success’ approach, and consisted of 13 indicators under 6 headings, reflecting areas that emerged from the initial needs analysis (British Council 2017):

Table 6 – British Council’s Teaching for Success indicators	
Reflective practice	TE identifies areas of strength, areas for improvement and ways to improve it.
Questioning	TE asks questions to engage learners in the learning content (to check for prior knowledge, open-ended questions, responding to learner contributions with follow-up questions)
	TE asks questions with clear instructions
Interactive classroom management and feedback	TE sets up activities with clear instructions
	TE monitors and interacts with individual/group of learners where appropriate to provide feedback
	TE evaluates and comments on learner contributions in feedback
	TE uses paired or group work to encourage active participation of learners

	TE calls on learners to answer questions individually
Resources	TE makes effective use of the board and learning aids
	TE adapts course-book in a motivating way
Planning	Lesson plans contain clear, well-written learning outcomes
	Lesson is staged logically and coherently
Assessment of Learning	Learning outcomes are referred to and assessed throughout the lesson to consolidate learning

## 5.2. Monitoring and Evaluation of the EfECT project

<sup>1</sup>The monitoring and evaluation of the Key Performance Indicators were carried out via the quantitative and qualitative acquisition of data related to TEs confidence – via a questionnaire administered at the beginning, middle and end of the project, knowledge of methodology – via a Teaching Methodology Questionnaire (TMQ) (Appendix D) administered at the beginning and end of the second year, and teaching practice – via formal observations with an British Council developed observation tool, administered at the beginning middle and end of the second year. A reflective practice journal was also kept (Borg et al. 2018) (Appendix D).

Against the projects KPIs, EfECT was successful in improving TEs’:

1. English proficiency
2. Overall confidence in their use of English and their teaching ability
3. Theoretical knowledge of teaching methodology
4. Observed classroom competence, overall, and specifically related to questioning, interactive teaching and using resources.

In contrast, the project did not meet three KPIs related to improving TEs’:

1. Confidence in using interactive teaching methodology
2. Confidence in using teacher and teacher training resources

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<sup>1</sup> Please see appendices for samples of the confidence questionnaire, TMQs, Observation tool, and Reflective Practice Guidelines.



### 3. Ability to reflect on their teaching.

An evaluation of these findings from Borg et al. (2018) found that Several of the EfECT project's KPIs targeted improvements in TEs' reported confidence, and most of the KPIs that were not met were confidence-related. In interpreting this outcome two factors are particularly relevant (Borg et al. 2018, p. 84). EfECT assessed TEs' knowledge of teaching methodology through the teaching methodology questionnaire (TMQ) and over 81% of the TEs improved their TMQ score at end-project compared to the start of the Year 2. This result, though, should be interpreted cautiously. The TMQ required TEs to match concepts (for example, assessment for learning) to explanations. Thus, while teacher knowledge is recognised as a key element in teacher competence (Hammerness et al. 2005), it is a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon and several different kinds of propositional and procedural teacher knowledge have been identified (Shulman 1987; Verloop et al. 2001). It must be acknowledged, then, that the kind being assessed here – receptive factual knowledge demonstrated through a matching exercise – was rather basic (Borg et al. 2018, p. 82-83).

The observational ratings at the end of the project showed that almost 97% of TEs improved their overall teaching competence compared to baseline (Borg et al. 2018, p. 84). However, it was found that the observation instrument was somewhat imbalanced; for example, areas such as 'reflection' and 'assessment' were each represented by one indicator, whereas for 'interactive classroom management and feedback' there were five. These variations will have influenced the extent to which change might be detected when baseline and end-project assessments were compared; assessment based on single-item descriptors also carry with them the risk of being less trustworthy (Ibid).

Also, the design of the project prioritised input through formal classes over practice-based learning, and thus while TEs were able to demonstrate target teaching behaviours when they were formally observed, their practices at other times remained undocumented. In a focus group interview in Year 2, TEs described many examples of the kinds of changes they were attempting to implement in their classes; however, there was a lack of extended direct evidence of TEs' classroom practices and questions therefore remain about the

quality and sustained nature of any changes the TEs were making. The realisation that trainers needed to support more closely TEs' emerging classroom practices impacted significantly on the revised project model adopted in the Extension phase of the EfECT that ran from September 2016 to August 2017 and in which micro-teaching, teaching practice and professional portfolios were key elements (Borg et al. 2018, p. 84).

The end-project assessment of reflection showed that just over 68% of TEs achieved an improved rating compared to baseline. This fell short of the target of 75% defined in the KPIs. According to Borg et al. (2018) reflective practice is not a feature of professional practice in Myanmar, a natural consequence of the educational paradigm which has been dominant in the country for many years. It was deemed that learning in Myanmar is conceived of as the accumulation and reproduction of knowledge, the critical examination of experience is not part of this equation. At the start of EfECT then, TEs' will have generally lacked awareness of the concept, and in Year 2 they were introduced to it together with strategies through which they could reflect on their teaching. Opportunities to apply those strategies in a scaffolded context were, however, limited. The project model meant the bulk of study time was dedicated to formal classes (English language and teaching methodology), and discussions between trainers and TEs about the changes the latter were making in their classrooms, trainers were not able to visit TEs' classes to support in a more structured way the development of pedagogical tradition which mitigated against reflection and the historical and political context in which the project was set (Borg et al. 2018, p. 84).

The majority of the KPIs were achieved according to the data that was gathered by the British Council, and the project was deemed a success by the British Council (Borg et al. 2018; British Council 2017).

### 5.3. EfECT as an Instrumental Case of the Education and Development Sector

As stated earlier, the literature suggests that the policy flow in an education and development context from the Global North to the Global South is almost entirely unidirectional (Lall 2011, 2013, 2015, 2016; UNICEF 2012; Hardman et al. 2016). Key features of the education and development landscape that are

central to the facilitation of this unidirectional policy flow are; Human Capital Theory (Philips and Schweisfurth; 2014; Thomas and Burnett, 2016); Democratisation (Thomas and Burnett, 2016); features of multi- and bi-lateral aid (Rogers, 2016; Haq, 1995; McGrath and Gu, 2016); the role of NGOs (Magrath, 2016; Kaldor, 2003, Anderson, 2011); pedagogic renewal and the associated implications related to the shift from the teacher-centred to learner-centred approach (Brock, 2016; Robinson-Pant, 2016); language policy (Trudell et al., 2016; Schweisfurth, 2015); conceptualisation of teachers and the role the professionalisation of teaching therein (Alexander 2016; Moon and Umar, 2013; Kennedy 2016); and measurements of quality via international comparison (Murray 2016; Breakspear 2012; Leach and Moon 2008; Power 2013; Michael 2017), the role of practicum (Darling-Hammond and Lieberman, 2012; Menter et al. 2018), and the theory practice divide (Menter et al, 2018). All of these features of the education and development landscape have been dealt with in the Literature Review.

This section will cross reference EfECT with the features of the education and development landscape, and the features of teacher education that are exported from the Global North to the Global South. The hope is that this criterion referenced evaluation is to present the EfECT project as an instrumental Case Study of the Education and Development sector. The ultimate goal of which is to demonstrate its similarities with the broader education and development sector.

Firstly, one of the features of the EfECT project that Borg et al. (2018) believe breaks from the dominant Global North to Global South policy flow, is the inclusion of direct instruction in the pedagogic renewal that EfECT was attempting to achieve. It was suggested that this feature of the EfECT project demonstrated cultural continuity by responding to the size of the classroom, the exam system, and the dominant pedagogy of the Myanmar education system. As can be seen from Appendix A (Foundations in Teaching Curriculum and References) and Appendix C (EfECT observation tool), direct instruction made up a minority of training and evaluation in the project. It accounted for one of eight chapters in the Foundations in Teaching curriculum, with the remaining chapters being made up material that had the goal of making lessons more learner centred and interactive – this is also the case with the Teaching

Methodology Questionnaire (Appendix D). In the observation tool, all six categories are overwhelmingly focused on interactive and student-centred features of a classroom as well. Indeed, the use of the LCA is indicative of the prevailing belief in the Education and Development sector that the skills this approach is believed to instil are the most compatible with developing 21<sup>st</sup> century skills and instilling key principles in the democratic process.

Another interesting observation of the motivation behind the use of direct instruction in EfECT is that, while Borg et al. (2018) claimed it was culturally sensitive to Myanmar's context and needs, they did not take into account the historical role of teachers being intimately associated with the Sangha, the impact this history has had on the modern conceptualisation of teachers, and the leading role they play in society (Dhammasami, 2018). Indeed, in the introduction of Foundations in Teaching there are units on teachers' beliefs, how children and adults learn, and the role of a teacher. On analysing the literature used in the development of this material, it is clear that there are no references to Myanmar, its educational history, or the impact this history has on contemporary conceptualisations of teachers and teaching. The literature originates overwhelmingly from the English-speaking world and further supports the contention that there is an almost entirely one-way policy flow from the Global North to the Global South (British Council 2015). Indeed, this is also indicative of the apolitical, ahistorical, unproblematised, and decontextualised application of Northern epistemologies to local contexts, and the concomitant privileging of the former over the latter.

Additionally, the fact that the entire project was conducted in English as the medium of instruction further demonstrates the lack of cultural continuity. With only one third of teacher educators being required to teach in English, it can be argued that the use of English as the medium of instruction serves to elevate the status of English as the language of reform and modernity, and decreases the capacity of local languages to engage with these aspirational concepts. Indeed, this is compounded by the key requirements of the CELTA and DELTA in training and mid-management positions.

The culturally continuous nature of the EfECT project is further undermined by the use of a competency framework. As discussed earlier, this competency

framework underscored the observation tool and the entire curriculum of Foundations in Teaching. The literature on instructional effectiveness (for example, Coe et al. 2014; Hattie 2009) and various widely-cited frameworks of competences (such as Danielson Group 2013; Marzano and Toth 2013) and standards (Department of Education 2011, National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2016) that define what teachers should know and be able to do, are also overwhelmingly from the Global North, accompanied by a managerial approach whereby trainers prescriptively applied competency standards to teacher educators' practice.

These factors taken together suggest that the inclusion of direct instruction in the methodology training as a demonstration of the culturally continuous nature of the EfECT project, does not hold up to scrutiny.

While there are undoubtedly benefits to considering infrastructural constraints and existing features of the exam system in Myanmar, the suggestion that EfECT was a culturally continuous project seems to be an overstatement. This is due to the lack of consideration in the literature review of the needs analysis and the curriculum for Foundations in Teaching of the historical/cultural legacy of education in Myanmar, and its impact on contemporary practice. Indeed, the fact that teacher educators were treated as trainees, and that addressing their lack of competence as teachers was a priority goal of the project, clearly indicates the lack of importance of the teacher educators' prior knowledge, prior experience and teaching beliefs. This is in keeping with the general approach in the education and development sector of a deficit model for understanding teachers' professionalism and status. In other words, discussion, and to some extent policy interventions tend to focus on the attributes perceived to be lacking in teachers, principally; knowledge of a range of pedagogic methods and approaches, subject expertise, professional commitment and work ethic – all of which are usually reflected in teaching competency frameworks (Dlada and Moon, 2013, p. 10; Menter, 2016).

Furthermore, on analysing the references for the Foundations in Teaching material (Appendix A), it is clear that the overwhelming majority of the material was drawn from the UK (specifically England) and the United States. The Times Higher Education Supplement, the Guardian, the English Department of

Education, and publications by practitioners based in England and the US feature very strongly in the material used for Foundations in Teaching.

Chapter 4: Classroom Management, and Chapter 5: Effective Interactive Patterns are heavily influenced by the belief that a learner centred approach to teaching and learning in basic education is a requirement for students – as future citizens – to become responsible and active members of a democratic society (Schweisfurth 2015; Phillips and Schweisfurth 2014). This is in keeping with goals of multi- and bi-lateral donors of supporting the development of a Western style democracy (Rogers 2016). Further, the chapter on critical thinking is heavily influenced by Human Capital Theory, whereby the primary goal of an education system is to prepare its graduates for the twenty-first century market economy (Hanushek et al. 2013).

In relation to teacher education, the EfECT project clearly draws on the dominant features of Northern practice. Considerations to take into account to this end are:

- a. In terms of the professionalisation of teaching, the use of a competency framework to establish what teachers should be able to do, and as a tool to generate quantitative data on the success of the project clearly draws from the Western model. This is testament to the fact that there needs to be a transparent set of standards that all teachers should meet, and that the quality assurance policies and procedures coalesce around these standards to provide quantitative data as evidence that they are met.

This feature of the EfECT project is indicative of the lack of consensus around the conceptualisation of teaching and teachers, and indeed pedagogy, (Alexander 2016). Indeed, the prospect of a single, global measure of the quality of teaching applied across all cultural and pedagogical contexts is nothing if not deeply alarming.

- b. The very fact that there is such an international presence in the literature for the curriculum for Foundations in Teaching, and

the use of the English Teaching Competency Framework as a benchmark for teaching practice are testament to the importance of International Comparison in the EfECT project.

- c. The highly controlled and prescriptive nature of the observation instrument is indicative of the English approach to the theory/practice divide, which wilfully disregards the role of research literacy in Initial Teacher Education and elevates the importance of the mentor mentee relationship. Indeed, the key requirement of the CELTA and DELTA for trainers and mid-management on the project, coupled with the prescriptive use of teaching standards, does suggest that the role of the trainer is consistent with that of the English School Led model of teacher education. One whereby there is an over-reliance on the personal and practical experience of the trainer in guiding the experience of teacher educators on the project.
- d. And finally, the importance of practice in evaluating the success of the project is consistent with the importance of practice in Northern models of teacher education.

#### 5.4. Conclusion

All of the above clearly demonstrates that the EfECT project is indicative of the broader landscape of education and development, and that these features enable the unidirectional policy flow from the Global North to the Global South. As such, its use as an instrumental Case Study in this project is sound.

In terms of this study as a whole, the direct impact of this policy flow was related to teacher education. This was represented by the use of Northern practice – particularly England's, in the content of the material used in the methodology training, and the monitoring and evaluation of the project. Despite claims of the cultural sensitivity of the project, on deeper analysis, it is clear that the historical/cultural context of Myanmar education was not taken into consideration in the needs analysis and the development of the methodology curriculum, and this lack of consideration limited the capacity of the material to be culturally responsive. Additionally, Issues related to the specific features of teacher education in need of development in Myanmar,

such as gender, language of instruction, the curriculum, salary, the urban/rural divide, access to resources, class size, promotion, and academic governance were all neglected in this project.

On balance, it would appear that EfECT was successful at introducing teacher educators in Myanmar to Northern practice. However, claims of cultural continuity seem to be overstated due to the lack of consideration of the historical/cultural context of Myanmar's education system, and their contemporary impact.

## Chapter 6 – Findings

### 6. Introduction

The research question for this project is, what are the findings of a Postcolonial analysis of the opinions of TEs of training that they received which was funded and provided within the Education and Development Sector, using the EfECT project as an instrumental Case Study? The research is being undertaken in the context of educational reform, and the history of the provision of basic education in Myanmar (NESP 2016; British Council 2015; Dhammasami 2018). According to the literature, the current education and development model, which is dictated by a policy and funding flow from the Global North to the Global South, prioritises features of teacher education from the Global North.



The reasons for this are related to the strategic goals of multi- and bi-lateral donors in the Education and Development sector, and the impact these have on the key performance indicators of the projects that they fund. This is compounded by the role of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in the provision of these programmes, and the upward accountability they have to funders and lateral competition with fellow providers (McGrath 2016, McCormick 2012; Schnutten and Khan 2004).

It is within this context whereby, on the one hand, the education and development sector has a clear set of goals, and on the other, a millennium old education system that has undergone substantial turmoil over the last 150 years, that the opinions of TEs in Myanmar of CPD that was funded and provided by the Education and Development sector was sought.

As such, the intention of this research is to engage with teacher educators in Myanmar in order to give them the opportunity to evaluate the training that they have received which was funded and provided by the Education and Development sector, i.e., the English for Education College Trainers (EfECT) project.

As previously stated in the methodology chapter, in order to achieve this goal, an explanatory sequential mixed methods design was used. It involved collecting quantitative data first and using this data to facilitate the purposeful sampling of participants for the qualitative interviews, then explaining the quantitative results with in-depth qualitative data. In the first quantitative phase of the study, survey data was collected from TEs in Myanmar to identify their feelings towards the British Council and the EfECT project, and to assess whether TEs attitudes and beliefs about teaching are compatible with the strategic and pedagogic goals of development donors. The second qualitative phase was conducted to help explain the survey data. In this exploratory follow-up, the objective was to undertake semi-structured interviews to explore the TEs' attitudes and beliefs towards teaching and whether they are compatible with the strategic and pedagogic goals of international development agencies in more depth. The data mixing involved mapping the qualitative data with the quantitative data with the goal of identifying themes that support, contradict or contest the survey data. As such, each section is made up of an overview of the

quantitative data, an overview of the qualitative data, and dedicated sections of mixing the data in order to demonstrate how the latter supports, contradicts or contests the former.

The presentation of the data was informed by the Manifest Variables from the survey, and was made up of the following topics:

1. Sampling
2. TE's feelings about the British Council and the EfECT project
3. TE's feelings about the Language of Provision.
4. Teaching Methodologies used by TEs
5. Contradictions and Contestations

It should also be noted at this point, that this data was gathered in the context of the military coup which took place in February 2021. Many of the teacher educators were participating in the civil disobedience movement, and consequently had lost their jobs, pensions, livelihoods, and homes. As discussed in the methodology chapter of this thesis, this had a dramatic impact on the sampling methodology used, and led to a more involved and lengthy ethical approval process.

### 6.1. Sample

In terms of bounding the Case Study being used in this project (i.e., the EfECT project), data was gathered from the participants in the survey and interviews in order to ensure that there was universal participation in the project. Additionally, one of the key roles of the explanatory sequential mixed methods design was to ensure that, as much as possible, the characteristics of the survey sample match those of the interviewees. As can be seen below, 52 TEs participated in the survey, and 11 did so in the interview with the following profiles:

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	5	9.6	9.6	9.6
	Female	47	90.4	90.4	100
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Methodology	24	46.2	47.1	47.1
	Academic	22	42.3	43.1	90.2
	Co-curricular	5	9.6	9.8	100.0
	Total	51	98.1	100.0	
Missing	System	1			
Total		52	100.0		

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-9	22	42.3	42.3	42.3
	10-19	25	48.1	48.1	90.4
	20-30	5	9.6	9.6	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

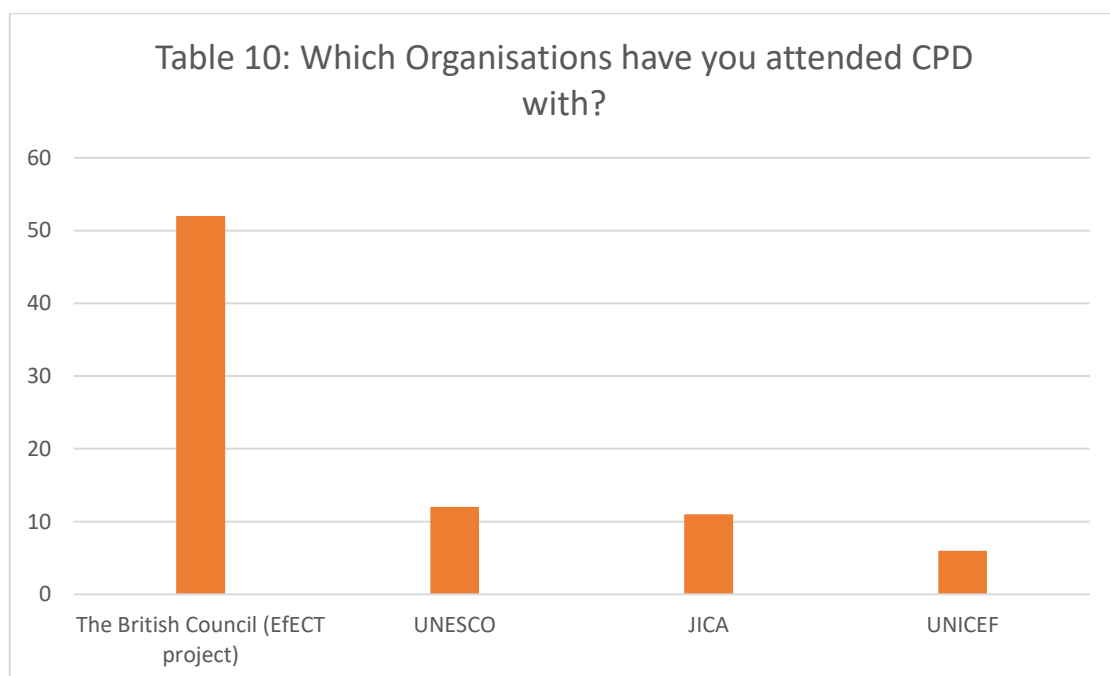


Table 11 – Gender of 11 Interview Participants		
	Male	Female
Number of TEs	2 (18%)	9 (82%)

Table 12 – Type of TE for the 11 Interview Participants			
	Methodology	Academic	Co-Curricular
Number of TEs	5 (45.5%)	5 (45.5%)	1 (9%)

Table 13 – Years of Experience for the 11 Interview Participants			
	0-9	10-19	20-30
Number of TEs	4 (35%)	6 (56%)	1 (9%)

Table 14 – Interviewee participation in the EfECT project		
	Participated	Didn't participate
Number of TEs	11 (100%)	0 (0%)

As the above tables demonstrate, all of the participants in both the quantitative and qualitative components of the data gathering process participated in the EfECT project. Additionally, the gender, type of TE, and years of experience profiles of the survey and interview participants broadly match.

## 6.2. TE's Feelings about the British Council and the EfECT project

Key opinions that were gathered from TEs in the survey related to their impression of the British Council's knowledge of the Myanmar education system and the traditional role of teachers therein. The reasoning behind this is related to Homi Bhabha's concept of mimicry, whereby, in a Postcolonial context, the institutions of the former coloniser are revered (Bhabha 1994).

### 6.2.1. Survey data – opinions of TEs about the British Council

Table 15 – Opinions of TEs towards the British Council’s knowledge of their Education System.						
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Unsure	Total
The British Council knows about history of the Royal Education	4 (8.1%)	21 (42.8%)	10 (20.4%)	1 (2%)	13 (26.5%)	49 (100%)
The British Council knows about history of Colonial Education	3 (6.3%)	28 (59.5%)	8 (17%)	1 (2.1%)	7 (14.8%)	47 (100%)
The British Council knows about the modern provision of education	15 (31.2%)	28 (58.3%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)	3 (6.2%)	48 (100%)

\*Cronbach’s alpha .739/Shapiro-Wilk .000

The above table gives an overview of the TEs responses to statements related to the British Council’s knowledge of Myanmar’s Education system.

When asked to respond to whether they believed that the British Council knew about the history of the Royal provision of education in Myanmar, 50.9% (n=25) either agreed or strongly agreed with this statement. It is noteworthy that 26.5% (n=13) of respondents were unsure about this, while the remaining 22.4% (n=11) gave a negative response to this statement. In terms of whether the TEs believed that the British Council knew about the colonial provision of education in Myanmar, 65.8% (n=31) gave a positive response, while 14.8% (n=7) were unsure, the remaining 19.1% gave a negative response. Finally, when asked about whether the British Council knew about the modern provision of education in Myanmar, an overwhelming majority gave a positive response, with 89.5% (n=42) of respondents giving a positive response, while 6.2% (n=3) were unsure and only 4% (n=2) gave a negative response.

Table 16 – Opinions of TEs towards the British Council’s knowledge of the traditional role of teachers.						
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Unsure	Total
The British Council knows about the importance of teachers in Myanmar society.	19 (38.7%)	29 (59.1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	49 (100%)
The British Council knows about the traditional authority of teachers in Myanmar.	7 (14.8%)	37 (76.5%)	3 (6.3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	47 (100%)
The British Council knows about the respect trainees should have for TEs.	9 (19.5%)	36 (78.4%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.1%)	46 (100%)
The British Council knows about the importance of teaching trainees to be good citizens.	23 (46%)	26 (52%)	1 (2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	50 (100%)

\*Cronbach’s alpha .637/ Shapiro-Wilk .000

The above table gives an overview of the TEs responses to statements related to whether the British Council had knowledge of the traditional role of teachers in Myanmar.

When asked to comment on whether they believed that the British Council knew about the importance of teachers in Myanmar society, almost all of the respondents (98%, n=48) gave a positive response. Indeed, almost all respondents (98%, n=45) also believed that the British Council knew about the respect trainees should have for TEs in Myanmar. When asked whether they believed the British Council knew about the traditional authority of teachers in Myanmar, 92.7% of participants in the survey believed they do so, and 98% (n=49) agreed that the British Council knew about the importance of teaching trainees to be good citizens.

The above findings from the survey data clearly demonstrate that TEs had extremely positive feelings towards the British Council as the provider of the EfECT project.

In terms of the first Manifest Variable, which related to the opinions of TEs towards the British Council's knowledge of their Education System, these results were slightly inconsistent in that, while there was an even split between TEs in terms of their opinions about whether the British Council were knowledgeable about the Royal provision of education in Myanmar (51.1% n= 25 strongly agree and agree; 48.1% n= 24 disagree, strongly disagree or unsure), a clear majority of participants believed that the British Council knew about the Colonial provision of education (65.8%, n=31), and an overwhelming majority did so when it comes to the contemporary provision of education in Myanmar (89.5%, n= 43). In terms of the TEs opinions in relation to whether the British Council knew about the traditional role of teachers, there were overwhelmingly positive responses in each of the four items in this variable. The culmination of these findings clearly suggests that the TEs who participated in this survey had very positive feelings towards the British Council and the EfECT project.

6.2.2. TEs' opinions about the British Council and EfECT project – Interview data  
TEs were asked what they think about the British Council and the EfECT project in the interview in order to contextualise and provide more depth to the findings from the survey related to TEs opinions of the British Council's knowledge about the historical and contemporary provision of education in Myanmar.

Equally, In the spirit of giving TEs the opportunity to share their opinions of the CPD that they received, in preparation for the discussion related to the use of methodologies that were associated with the EfECT project, and in invoking Gayatri Spivak's concept of representation that was so beautifully and eloquently conceived in her ground breaking essay "*Can the Subaltern Speak?*"

(1999), the TEs were asked whether they thought the EfECT project was successful.

On evaluating the published material related to the monitoring and evaluation of the EfECT project (British Council 2015; Borg et al. 2018), it is clear how the British Council, DFID and the VSO felt about whether the EfECT project was successful (please see previous chapter). However, there is very little, if any, information in this published material related to how the TEs felt about the project. As such, on looking at this through the prism of Spivak's concept of representation, it could be suggested that, in terms of the monitoring and evaluation of the project, the TEs were not represented. They didn't have a voice. It is within this context that the TEs were asked about their feelings regarding whether the EfECT project was successful.

There were three key findings to these questions. Firstly, TEs felt that the CPD provided by the British Council brought significant benefits to Myanmar's education system via mode of delivery, methods taught and the impact on their practice, and improvements in their English language skills. Secondly, they showed a strong sense of appreciation to the British Council as an organisation, as an agent of change, and the trainers who participated in it. Finally, the TEs drew a strong association between the British Council and the Learner Centred Approach (LCA), with the majority of them believing that there did need to be a pivot from the Teacher Centred Approach (TCA) to the LCA, or pedagogic renewal, and that the British Council had played a key role in this pivot.

### 6.2.3. Benefits for Myanmar's education system

As previously stated, a key theme that emerged when TEs were asked how they feel about the BC was that the organisation brought many benefits to Myanmar's education system. This was discussed directly by three TEs, TE 2, 4 and 8.

When asked her feelings about the BC, TE 2 was positive in her opinion in that she stated that she '*likes*' them. She then went on to focus on the applied nature of the professional development associated with the EfECT project, with



a multitude of references to that end, e.g., teaching methods, teaching techniques, active learning, problem solving, material development, etc. This was perhaps indicative of the perceived need to enhance the status, morale and professionalism of teachers, which is a key component to addressing the Quality Imperative within the education and development sector (Dlada and Moon, 2013).

*TE 2: I like the British Council. And, firstly, before I attended the British Council training, I never... I have no vocabulary, method teaching, and technique. When I attended the British Council class, I can get different kind of method, technique, activity, how to solve problems, and then how to use learning teaching and learning material, how to prepare teaching and learning material.*

When asked, 'Was the EfECT project successful?' 10 out of the 11 participants in the interview process gave a positive response (TE 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11) with TE 7 perhaps being the most emphatic when she stated:

*TE 7: Of course, the EfECT project in Myanmar was successful. This is hundred percent.*

While TE 5 didn't say whether she thought it was successful, she did state that she believed most TEs use 'the EfECT project's methods.' The fact that a lot of TEs used the methods does imply a willingness to buy-in to the wider reform agenda that the project was a part of (British Council 2015; Borg et al. 2018; NESP 2016).

*TE 5: I think most teacher educators use the EfECT project's methods.*

This declaration by TE 5 was repeated, albeit in a more measured way, by TE 1 and 7 when they gave a clear nod to the suitability of the project in the context of the wider reform agenda, in that many of her peers were 'trying to use the methodologies that they learnt in their classrooms after the EfECT project.' The use of the verb 'try' when describing whether the LCA is used throughout

Myanmar suggests that the all-encompassing nature of the change process, i.e., change involving three major transitions to a democratic governance system, a market-oriented economy, and peace within its border area (NESP 2016 p. 32) may have been overwhelming for some TEs.

*TE 1: In general, I see other teacher educators around me trying to use the methodologies that they learnt in their classroom after the EfECT project. So generally, I think the EfECT project was successful in Myanmar.*

*TE 7: I know... I think most of the teachers are trying to use LCA. I think so, I think teachers around me.*

In order to demonstrate how she felt about the EfECT project, TE 11 criticised the training provided by another provider to demonstrate the success of EfECT, with class size, the duration of the project, and the incremental nature of the change process appreciated by this participant.

*TE 11: Yes, yes, I think so because I have, I have had two kinds of organisation that I had received training from. One is British Council and one is UNESCO. I... I have met to 2 periods (of )10 days training organised by UNESCO. But that honestly, I don't like this, because the the (sic) class size is very big. For the second or second period in second period, I think there are 200 TEs, as in in our Education College Hall. Oh, this was so noisy, and we cannot do our activities very well. And the time is short, really short only five days. It's not okay for TEs... For British Council EfECT project, it is enough time, enough space, enough supporting, enough resources. It's very very very okay from British council.*

In support of these emphatic general responses, TE 8 was more specific in stating that she believed that the training delivered by TEs who attended the EfECT project was of a high standard. There was also a reference to 'earlier in Myanmar' which was a reference to before the EfECT project. The role of the

BC and all that it represented in terms of modernity, progress, and opportunity cannot be ignored here.

*TE 8: So, our (TEs who participated in the EfECT project) teaching is more interesting and more systematic than earlier in Myanmar. So, I think that these projects are very successful.*

TE 4 also focused on the professional development associated with the training that she received from the BC. There was a broad sense of appreciation for the opportunity to attend the training that they provided - she was *'happy with the BC... learnt a lot from them... have improved my profession.'* As with TE 2, the references were quite general but the sense of appreciation was clear. Indeed, this is consistent with the Education and Development sector as a whole, in that it is indicative of one of UNICEF's objectives in their pursuit of Child Friendly Schools. This policy seeks to enhance teacher capacity, morale, commitment and status – and ensures that its teachers have sufficient pre-service training, in-service support and professional development, status and income (UNESCO 2009).

*TE 4: And for me, I am happy with the British Council projects. I have learned a lot from the projects organised by the British Council. I have attended training courses organised by the British Council, so I have improved my profession with the help of the British Council. So, I'm happy with them and I like the projects of the British Council.*

TE 1, 2, 5, and 7 discussed a personal and professional component to their evaluation of the project in very general terms. These TEs had very positive feelings towards the training that they received with TE 7 referencing the future in terms of TEs having the opportunity to teach the *'new generation of primary teachers'* using the knowledge and skills that they learnt on the EfECT project.

*TE 1: Personally, (I think) the EfECT project was successful. As for me, the knowledge I received from EfECT facilitates my professional development.*

*TE 2: I liked the EfECT project because I can learn a lot of methodology technique. It is suitable for Myanmar primary and secondary curriculum. We can use this technique. So, I like, I like the British Council.*

*TE 5: It (The EfECT project) is very helpful to our continuous professional development. Yes.*

*TE 7: Because we get a lot of knowledge from EfECT project. So, we give (it) to our new primary teachers. If so, our new primary teachers, I teach our new generation of primary teachers will be using techniques from the EfECT project.*

Like TE 2, TE 1 continued on the theme of professional development by focusing on the impact it had on her practice. There was an interesting choice of adjective when she stated that the training that she received from the BC was *'closer to real teaching.'* This could be indicative of this TEs willingness to accept a global set of standards in education, which is exemplified by the LCA (Schweisfurth, 2015).

*TE 1: When I was in university in Myanmar, I learnt about educational theory, but in EfECT, I feel it is closer to real teaching.*

TE 8 discussed how the BC training helped TEs to realise how important it is to know your students' names. This may seem quite trivial, but it does speak to a few important considerations. Firstly, it is demonstrative of the reconceptualization of teaching, learning, and student teacher dynamics that is required in order to move from a TCA to a LCA one (Alexander 2016; Dlada and Moon 2013; Menter 2016). Secondly, she also talked about how knowing and using the trainees' names *"makes more close between the teacher and the student"*, and the effect this had in terms of trainees believing and respecting their teacher. Indeed, this is indicative of a key feature of the LCA in the literature, which suggests that it embraces a dynamic interaction between

instructors, learners and tasks, where learners can create their own truth due to their interaction with others (Cooper et al. 2006).

*TE 8: Yes, (The BC is) so helpful to our teaching. For me, most of our teachers Myanmar doesn't try to know our name. But our British Council teacher tried to know our name. Even just the name it makes more close between the teacher and the student and the student will believe with a teacher.*

#### 6.2.4. Strong sense of appreciation for the British Council and their trainers

When TE 5, 6, 10 and 11 discussed their feelings towards the British Council, there was also a significant sense of appreciation from them for being given the opportunity to receive training from the BC, with TE 5 stating that the BC '*gave support to Myanmar teacher educators, we can learn the teaching techniques and also the language skills,*' with a clear focus on both the methodology and language training associated with the EfECT project. While this demonstrated buy-in from these teacher educators in terms of pedagogic renewal, it also positively highlighted the language policy of the British Council in using English as their language of provision. This is suggestive of the dominant perspective regarding Language Policy in the education and development sector, in that local languages are considered to have no place in mediating global culture (Trudell et al. 2016; Morgan 2005; Kincheloe 2008; King and Aikman 2012).

*TE 5: Yes, I am very thankful and very thank you to the British Council because we have teaching methodology and also language from our British Council. I am very thankful to the British Council.*

TE 6 was very simple and direct in her response to this question, in that she was '*thankful*' to the BC, and was '*happy*' because she learnt a lot of information related to teaching methods, and '*English four skills,*' Similarly to TE 5, this TE seemed to give an equal level of importance to both the methodological and language components of the training.

*TE 6: Thank you BC teacher. I'm happy. I get more information, teaching method, and English four skills.*

TE 10 gave a very strong positive response when asked his feelings about the BC. There was a swell of appreciation for the opportunity to improve his English skills, with methodological training mentioned to a lesser extent. He stated that he 'loves' the BC on two occasions. TE 11 gave an equally effusive response when describing how she felt about the British Council, and also mentioned that she 'had heard' of the BC before but that the EfECT project was her first experience with them.

*TE 10: I love the British council because I, firstly, I learned about the English subject and English language proficiency from our teacher. And, and then I get a lot of knowledge, a lot of teaching methods from British Council project. I think I improve about English skills and communication skills. And I met very lovely teachers. I love it.*

*TE 11: The British Council is the greatest organisation I have had (experience with). I had heard about British Council, but I didn't receive anything before 2014. I had received the EfECT project, and this is the first one for me from The British Council, it is very wonderful and systematic approach about their training.*

TE 9 and 10 both equated their improved English skills and the methodology training with evaluating the project. TE 10 interestingly highlighted the value of the project for TEs specifically, with no reference to trainees. While TE 9 referenced 'new teaching strategy,' which could be associated with modernity and progress. Indeed, both TEs made reference to 'before' the project, which is indicative of the association the British Council and language of provision have with the concepts of modernity and progress (Trudell et al. 2016; Morgan 2005; Kincheloe 2008; King and Aikman 2012).

*TE 9: Before the EfECT project, I was afraid to speak English, as now my speaking improve... I improve the speaking... and I can learn and again new teaching strategy and using the teaching... many... strategies I can learn.*

*TE 10: I think this project was successful for Myanmar. Before this project, teacher educators did not have good English skills and teaching methodology a lot of. But now, after this project teacher educators are good at English skills, and teaching methodology and teaching learning process in Myanmar. So, this project was successful in Myanmar, especially for teacher educators in education colleges.*

TE 5 added another component to this answer which is worth noting. She discussed the fact that she had heard of the BC but never thought she would have the opportunity to attend training or classes with them because she lived in a small town, and they were only based in Yangon and Mandalay. This added to the sense of appreciation she had and was demonstrative of the status the organisation has in Myanmar. Indeed, it is also indicative of the prevailing belief that teachers and teacher educators in rural areas usually find it difficult to access CPD compared to their urban counterparts (Moon, 2013).

*TE 5: I had heard about the British Council. The office in Yangon and also Mandalay, but we are in \*\*\*\* and also my native town is a village, so we cannot go to Yangon. When the British Council gave support to Myanmar teacher educators, we can learn the teaching techniques and also the language skills so it is great. I hope to learn more from the British Council.*

TE 1 gave a positive opinion of the BC, in that she stated that she was satisfied with the BC trainers' qualifications and open-mindedness, and that their teaching style was systematic. This reference to the qualifications and open-mindedness of the BC trainers could be related to the dominant perspective from the Global North that the professionalisation of teaching addresses motivational issues and increases the quality of teaching (Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012; Sahlberg 2012, Goodwin 2012, MacBeath 2012; Cochran-Smith 2016). However, in developing contexts poor teacher motivation and lack of ownership of the training provided have been given as reasons why professional development initiatives falter (Dheram, 2007) and take away from teachers taking on a more facilitative and supporting role in class.

*TE 1: I really like the British Council. I really like them and I am satisfied with the teachers from British Council. (They are) qualified and open minded. And I like the teaching style of the teachers and I think the training is systematic.*

#### 6.2.5. Connection between the LCA and the BC – Agent of Change

While the above two sections to the responses TEs had when asked how they feel about the BC related to the benefits to the education system and a sense of appreciation for the opportunity to take part in the training provided by the BC, the association TEs drew between the BC, the EfECT project, and the LCA was also a strong feature of their responses, with TEs 1, 4, 3, 5, 7, and 9 discussing this.

TE 1 believed that the pivot from the TCA to the LCA was a key component in evaluating the EfECT project as successful. When discussing change, TE 4 used an interesting choice of word in '*belief*' in discussing TEs' attitudes towards the teaching profession. This could be related to the conceptualisation of teaching and teachers and the '*reform*' or '*change*' that was taking place representing pedagogic renewal (Power and Kalina 2009; Dembele and Miaro-il, 2003; Schweisfurth 2015, Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012). It is interesting that this TE mentioned planning in terms of how the time required for this increased since the project. This perhaps suggests that this wasn't a priority and could be related to the shift from the TCA to the LCA and the fact that, as will be discussed later, there seemed to be a consensus that the LCA was more work than the TCA, and planning may have been one of the features of the LCA that increased this workload. While TE 5 tied the success of the EfECT project with the broader educational reform process, by mentioning the '*new curriculum*'.

*TE 1: The new teaching techniques and strategies I use in my teaching in our classroom moved from TCA to LCA, so personally, I think that the EfECT project was successful.*



*TE 4: And yes of course. It can change because teacher educator teaching style and their belief towards the teaching profession and they are interested in planning lesson and more than before the project.*

*TE 5: Yes, it was successful. Also, we use different teaching methodology and to now. In the curriculum training project in new curricula different teaching methodology are also used in the new curriculum.*

TE 9 felt satisfied with the BC and believed that there were advantages to Myanmar's education through their provision of training to TEs. This is in keeping with the premise in the literature that local knowledge is set in opposition to global or Western knowledge, traditional as against modern, or subjugated and marginalised as contrasted with mainstream and dominant (Morgan 2005; Kincheloe 2008; King and Aikman 2012). In this regard, TE 9 talked about learning '*new teaching strategies and techniques*' and stated that the BC had '*supported Myanmar education to convert from the older education to the new education system.*' This offers clear support to the premise that Western values and ideals of success have permeated this TEs beliefs, not only about what quality education was, but also her opinion of her own education system and the overwhelming regard she gave one versus the disregard she gave the other. The TE had a clear end goal in mind for the reform process, i.e., the LCA, and stated that '*almost all teacher educators in education colleges can convert to the LCA system.*'

*TE 9: It is really helpful. I feel satisfied and there are advantages for Myanmar education. I learnt about new teaching strategies, erm, and techniques. The British Council has supported Myanmar education to convert from older education to the new education system. It is about moving to the LCA. Almost all teacher educators in education colleges can convert to the LCA system.*

TE 3 also alluded to the conceptual shift that is required to move from the LCA to the TCA (Power and Kalina 2009; Weimer 2002) as well by using some persuasive language to demonstrate the positive feelings he had towards the BC training, including: '*useful*' and '*effective*', and that he felt good about the

training he received. When asked to expand on the positive feelings he had, he mentioned the English language training component of the EfECT project, as well as enhancing his familiarity with the LCA. He discussed the fact that there was a pre-existing theoretical awareness of the LCA in Myanmar, but it was rarely practised and the BC modelled it and gave them the opportunity to apply it. Additionally, when referencing the LCA he used the phrase, '*your techniques*'. This may have been indicative of the prevailing feeling that the LCA, the BC, reform, modernity, and development all seem to have a substantial overlap, which is also reflected in the literature in terms of the LCA being the language of economic development and democratisation (Hackman, Pinto and Savelyev 2013; Phillips and Schweisfurth 2014; Dahlman and Utz 2005).

*TE 3: I think British Council training is a useful and effective training for Myanmar teacher educators. I feel good, effective... First, we improve the foreign speak English and we get many new methodologies. We had familiarity with LCA, Learner Centred Approach or CCA Child Centred Approach, but we can't... we rarely used this method in our classroom before the British Council training, and after we had many experience from British Council training, we can use your techniques teaching techniques in our teaching our classroom.*

In contrast to TE 3, TE 9 stated that her first encounter with the theory and application of the LCA was via the BC training, by stating that she first learnt about the LCA from the British Council training, and she seemed to think that's the case across Myanmar as well. Indeed, this was supported by the British Council's Needs Analysis, which stated that the overwhelmingly dominant pedagogy used in Myanmar was teacher centred (2015).

*TE 9: Yeah, in my country - in Myanmar in my Myanmar... I think... I firstly learnt about the LCA when I received the training from the British Council.*

When asked to elaborate on why TE 7 felt '*excellent and satisfied*' with the BC, she talked about the fact that she '*thinks my mindset changed according to the*

BC.' This could be interpreted as buying into the LCA and the aforementioned implications this has in relation to the conceptualisation of teaching, teachers, and their relationships with their students. Similarly, to TE 3, TE 7 also talked about the '*opportunity to learn a lot of your techniques.*' The use of the possessive adjective '*your,*' connected the BC with the LCA in a fundamental way and gave possession of the approach to the BC. Like TE 5 and 6, TE 7 also discussed being thankful and appreciative of the BC for the opportunity to attend the training. There was a very strong sense from the TEs that was a purely altruistic act by the BC to provide this training.

*TE 7: I feel excellent and satisfied about BC. Yes, um I think my mindset change according to BC, so a chance, an opportunity to learn a lot of your techniques and a lot of methodology. So, I'm... I'm happy with the BC and thank you so much for your teaching style and BC.*

When asked to expand on how TE 7's mindset had changed having received training from the BC, there were two aspects to this answer that are noteworthy. Firstly, she talked about lesson planning and the fact that, before the BC training, she thought that her lesson planning was good, but during and after the training she realised that her trainees '*will be successful if they are happy and if they get a lot of knowledge from me.*' This quote reinforced the notion that, by discussing the changing of her mindset, she was describing her buy-in to the LCA and the required reconceptualization of teaching-learning and the student-teacher dynamic and the corresponding pedagogic renewal of the teaching profession that is a requirement for the pivot from the TCA to the LCA (Dembele and Miaro-il 2003; Schweisfurth 2015; Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012).

*TE 7: Before the BC, before attending the British Council I believed that I was finished with my lesson planning. But after attending the British Council I felt that my student teachers will be successful if they are happy and if they get a lot of knowledge from me.*

TE 5 went further in relation to the training that she received from the BC being aligned with progress and modernity by discussing the role of the internet in her practice, and its increasing importance. Here she talked about the fact that the training she received from the BC was '*international*' because she had encountered it online, which gave her the impression that there was a global application of the BC training, as they compete in the global knowledge economy (Grey and Morris 2018). Again, the association between the BC, LCA, and modernity seemed to be very strong.

*TE 5: I think the methodology given by the British Council and I think it is international methodology because I found this teaching methodology online. For example, lesson plan and I can find on google search engine. So, I think it is an international methodology.*

#### 6.2.6. TE's feelings about the British Council and the EfECT project – Data Mixing

Thus, the consensus of the TEs in the interview data was an overwhelming sense of appreciation towards the British Council and that the EfECT project was successful, with the methodology that was taught, the project model that was used, the move towards professionalisation, and improved English skills, and their roles in the pedagogic renewal of Myanmar's educational reform process all being strong themes that emerged during the analysis of the data. Indeed, all of these themes were supported by the quantitative data, which demonstrated very positive feelings towards the British Council.

The items from the survey data that the interview data seemed to reinforce the most is related to whether the TEs believed that the British Council knew about the contemporary provision of education in Myanmar, with 89.5% of respondents either agreeing or strongly agreeing that this was indeed the case. The items related to the feelings of TEs towards the British Council's knowledge of the traditional role of teachers in Myanmar were also relevant here, all of which were overwhelmingly positive.

The interview data demonstrated a swell of appreciation for the positive impact that the training the BC provided had had on the contemporary provision of education in Myanmar, which had been primarily achieved through

the TEs' buy-in to pivoting from the TCA to the LCA and the key role the BC and the EfECT project had played in this pivot. It could also be indicative of the high regard the TEs have of the British Council as a provider of CPD and their expertise of Myanmar's context.

However, this data could be also interpreted in such a way as to suggest that there was a taken-for-grantedness on the part of the TEs in relation to how knowledgeable the BC was of the provision of education in Myanmar, and that this taken-for-grantedness contributed to buy-in from the TEs. In other words, the British Council's perceived expertise both of the education system in Myanmar and the effective delivery of training for modern methodologies contributed to the extremely positive data in relation to the TEs' opinions of the British Council's knowledge of the contemporary provision of education in Myanmar in the survey data, as well as the extremely positive feelings TEs had of the BC and the EfECT project in the interview data.

### 6.3. Language of Provision

While language of provision has already been briefly discussed in relation to the dominant perspective within the education and development sector, in that local languages are considered to have no place in mediating global culture (Trudell et al. 2016) and it in terms of the TEs evaluating the success of the EfECT project, it was also addressed in the survey and interviews as a topic in its own right. Indeed, it was a key consideration for many TEs in terms of evaluating the success of the project, with results from both the quantitative and qualitative data being predominantly inconclusive. In the survey data, there did seem to be some variation in responses in terms of the opinions of TEs when split into type of TE, age of TE and years of experience for TEs. Indeed, these factors were also prevalent in the interview data as well.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	English	20	38.5	38.5	38.5
	Myanmar	32	61.5	61.5	100
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

When asked what language they thought the EfECT project should have been in, the majority of participants stated that they preferred Myanmar language (61.5%, n=32), while the remaining 38.5% (n=20) preferred English. This distribution did not mirror the opinions of TEs in the interview component of the data collection process, with 4 of the eleven participants preferring Myanmar as the language of provision for their training, while the remaining 7 participants preferred English (please see table 21 below).

Anecdotally, this may be due to the fact that the survey component of the data collection process was bilingual, which increased the proportion of TEs who could meaningfully engage with the tool by omitting the need for a minimum ability in the English language. However, in the interview process, there was an effort made to ensure that participants had a minimum of level B1 in the Common European Framework for Language, Teaching, Testing, and Assessment. This potential difference in the English language abilities of participants in each stage of the data generation process may suggest that TEs with a lower level of English preferred the training to be provided in their local language, while the TEs with a higher level of English preferred the language of provision to be English.

**Table 18.** *What language to you think the CPD should be in – Type of TE?*  
(Myan=Myanmar)

Type of TE			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
.	Valid	Myan	1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Methodology	Valid	English	13	54.2	54.2	54.2
		Myan	11	45.8	45.8	100.0
		Total	24	100.0	100.0	
Academic	Valid	English	7	31.8	31.8	31.8
		Myan	15	68.2	68.2	100.0
		Total	22	100.0	100.0	
Co-curricular	Valid	Myan	5	100.0	100.0	100.0

When looking at the preferred language of provision in relation to type of TE, it can be seen that a slight majority of Methodology TEs preferred English as the language of provision (54.2%, n=13) compared to Myanmar (45.8%, n=11). This compared with a significant majority of academic TEs preferring the training

provided in Myanmar (68.2%, n=15), compared to English (31.8%, n=7). While all of the co-curricular TEs stated that they prefer Myanmar as the language of provision (100%, n=5).

**Table 19.** What language to you think the CPD should be in – Years of Experience? (Myan=Myanmar)

Years of Experience			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-9	Valid	English	11	50.0	50.0	50.0
		Myan	11	50.0	50.0	100.0
		Total	22	100.0	100.0	
10-19	Valid	English	8	32.0	32.0	32.0
		Myan	17	68.0	68.0	100.0
		Total	25	100.0	100.0	
20-30	Valid	English	1	20.0	20.0	20.0
		Myan	4	80.0	80.0	100.0
		Total	5	100.0	100.0	

When looking at years of experience, it can be seen that TEs with up to nine years' experience were evenly split in terms of their preferred language of provision (50%, n=11). For TEs who had been working for between 10-19 years in Education Colleges, the majority preferred Myanmar as the language of instruction (68%, n=17) compared to English (32%, n=8). While for TEs with between 20-30 years of experience, 4 (80%) of the 5 participants preferred Myanmar.

**Table 20.** What language to you think the CPD should be in - Age? (Myan=Myanmar)

Age			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
20-29	Valid	English	3	42.9	42.9	42.9
		Myan	4	57.1	57.1	100.0
		Total	7	100.0	100.0	
30-39	Valid	English	8	53.3	53.3	53.3
		Myan	7	46.7	46.7	100.0
		Total	15	100.0	100.0	
40-49	Valid	English	6	28.6	28.6	28.6
		Myan	15	71.4	71.4	100.0
		Total	21	100.0	100.0	
50-59	Valid	English	3	50.0	50.0	50.0
		Myan	3	50.0	50.0	100.0
		Total	6	100.0	100.0	
60+	Valid	Myan	3	100.0	100.0	100.0

When taking the age of the TEs into consideration, the above table shows that of the 7 TEs who participated in the survey aged between 20-29, 4 of them (57.1%) preferred Myanmar to the 3 (42.9%) who preferred English. For TEs aged between 30-39 years, 8 preferred English (53.3%) to the seven who preferred Myanmar (46.7%). Of the 21 TEs aged between 40-49, 15 of them (71.4%) preferred Myanmar as the language of provision, while the remaining 6 (28.6%) preferred English. For TEs aged between 50-59 years, the results were evenly split, with 3 (50%) preferring Myanmar and 3 (50%) preferring English, while of the remaining 3 TEs who were over 60 years old, all 3 of them (100%) preferred Myanmar as the language of instruction.

Chi-squared tests were conducted in order to ascertain whether there was a statistically significant difference in responses in relation to type of TE, age of TEs and years of experience of TEs, and their language preference for the EfECT project. These tests clearly demonstrated that age and years of experience did not have a statistically significant difference in their response (p value of .338 and .301 respectively). However, in relation to type of TE, this did demonstrate a statistically significant difference in responses, with a p value of .050

The results here are undeniable in terms of there being a strong preference for Myanmar as the language of provision for CPD. While there are some surprising findings, i.e., more Methodology TEs preferring English to Myanmar despite the fact that academic TEs teach through English, or that for TEs aged between 50-59 there was an even split in preference, overall, the clear preference was for Myanmar. This finding is demonstrative of the undisputed fact that fluency in the language of instruction stands out as a significant predictor of learner success (Gove and Cvelich 2011; Alidou et al, 2006; Trudell et al. 2016).

#### 6.3.1. Which is your preferred language of provision, English or Myanmar – Interview Data?

In terms of using the interview data to further develop the data from the survey, TEs were asked how they feel about the EfECT project being in English. In relation to whether they have a preference for Myanmar language or English as the language of provision, the interview data can be divided as follows.



Table 21 – Which language do you think was better for the EfECT project, English or Myanmar – Interview data?	Methodology	Academic	Co-Curricular	Total
Myanmar	3	1	0	4
English	2	4	1	7

On analysing the data, 5 different themes can be identified when TEs consider their preferred language of provision. They are the age of the TEs, their native language, a clear separation between learning English and learning methodology, type of TE, and the fact that English was considered important for teaching, teacher training and beyond.

### 6.3.2. A Generational divide

While the survey data shows that TEs between the ages of 30-39 and 50-59 were evenly split in terms of their preference for English or Myanmar as the language of provision for training that they receive, TE 5 drew on a generational divide in terms of having a preference for the language of provision. There was a belief that younger TEs (aged between 30-50) had a preference for receiving the training via English, whereas, teacher educators aged 50+ would have preferred their training in Myanmar because they would retire soon, which seemed to imply a deficit in motivation.

*TE 5: I think all the young teacher educators at the age between 30 and 40 at the age between 30 to 50. the teacher educators wanted to learn in English. But 50 years and above, I think they wanted like the training in Myanmar because of the language skills. But I think some of the teachers will (inaudible) after a few years to retire, they have to retire after a few year so young teachers might be left in the school.*

### 6.3.3. I am Myanmar – I understand Myanmar

TE 6 and 9 made the simple and effective point that TEs in general would have preferred if the methodology training that they received from the EfECT project had been in Myanmar language because they speak Myanmar, and it would

have been easier for them to understand the training. This opinion is in line with the previously mentioned uncontested truth that fluency in language of provision is a key indicator of success for participants (Gove and Cvelich 2011; Alidou et al. 2006; Trudell et al. 2016).

*John: If the EfECT project was in Myanmar language, or the methodology training was in Myanmar language, do you think that that would have been good?*

*TE 6: Yes, that is ok for me and most of the TEs. Myanmar language... We are Myanmar using the Myanmar language. So, Myanmar language is the same and easy for us to understand.*

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*TE 9: I think Myanmar language is good because many of the teachers and students are Myanmar, so English language is a little difficult for the teachers and students... if the EfECT project used Myanmar language it would be more good. Good about the... it would be more effective for the teaching and learning process and strategy, I think.*

While TE 10 stated that he liked the fact that the EfECT project was provided through English, he went onto state that 'some' TEs would have preferred Myanmar language due to comprehension issues.

*TE 10: Oh. This is good. I like this training, this system. But some of the teachers are not good at English skills so they can't, they can't do activities and other participation. So, most of the teacher educators like this training in English. But, for some - some of the teacher educators do not like this training so some of the teacher educators wanted to learn in Myanmar for this training. Some of them do not have good English skills, so they want to learn in Myanmar language.*

#### 6.3.4. I want to improve my English, but it has nothing to do with methodology

TE 8 described an emotional response to the use of English in that she believed

that TEs didn't like it. She also clearly delineated between improving English and methodology training in that she stated that she regarded the English language component of the project as an opportunity for her to practise her language skills, and as such she separated the need for English language skills from methodological training. This is interesting due to the fact that the literature suggests that English is considered the language of modernity, development, and progress, and local languages are ill-equipped to negotiate these concepts (Trudell et al. 2016). There is a strong case to suggest that this TE's opinion diverged from the literature and believed that, when Northern knowledge and beliefs are applied to a sociocultural and linguistic context that values other sorts of knowledge, it is usually to the detriment of a sense of local belonging and expertise in locally valued skills (Trudell et al. 2016).

*TE 8: The project is successful for to some extent. Because some teachers don't like to say it (speak) in English. For me, I think (the) English (training) is just my opportunities to practise my language.*

#### 6.3.5. Is type of TE an important consideration?

Bearing in mind that type of TE was the only variable that demonstrated a statistically significant difference in relation to preferred language of provision (p value .050), looking at the responses of TEs in the interview data relative to this variable is important.

TE 1 invoked the previously mentioned belief that fluency in the language of provision was a key determinant in evaluating the success of training by drawing on the distinction between types of TEs. She believed co-curricular TEs would have preferred the EfECT project being in Myanmar due to '*language difficulties*'.

*John: How do you feel about the EfECT project being in English and not in Myanmar language, how do you feel about that?*

*TE 1: I'm ok in English. But... I, but I think some co-curricular... co-curricular teachers have difficulty in English. I think.*

However, she went on to state that she believed that most TEs liked that the training they received from the EfECT project was through English, including herself.

*TE 1: Personally, personally I like the EfECT project being in English.*

*John: Do you think most of the teacher educators liked that it was in English, or do you think most of them wanted it in Myanmar? What do you think about how the other teacher educators feel?*

*TE 1: I think most of the teacher educators liked it being in English.*

This statement seems to be consistent with the premise in the literature that local knowledge is set in opposition to global or Western knowledge, traditional as against modern, or subjugated and marginalised as contrasted with mainstream and dominant (Morgan 2005; Kincheloe 2008; King and Aikman 2012), and that they were in contrast to the survey findings, which clearly demonstrated that the majority of TEs would have preferred it had the training been in English.

TE 4 drew on the official policy of academic TEs teaching through English (MOE 2016; British Council 2015; Borg et al. 2018) in stating that TEs felt confident teaching their lessons through English as a result of the language of provision of the EfECT project. Again, this was in stark contrast to the survey data when the majority of academic TEs demonstrated a preference for Myanmar as the language of provision over English.

*TE 4: And they (academic TEs) feel confidence in their teaching by using the English language in their lesson. And so, after the EfECT project, they are more confident in using the English language in their teaching, and they use more teaching methodology in their teaching.*

#### 6.3.6. English is essential for everyone

TE 2 went further in her positive feelings related to the language of provision in the EfECT project being in English in stating that English was essential for

everyone, and that any independent research that she did for her work was online and through English, again reinforcing the aforementioned premise from the literature that local languages are ill-equipped to mediate global culture.

*TE 2: I am very pleased because we need to try to use the English language. And English is essential for everybody. For my subject, physical education, this subject in Myanmar I cannot read books. I always search internet and they.... other countries can write in the English language. So, I need to try English.*

When asked about the language of provision, TE 3 discussed the fact that learning English from a native speaker was beneficial for improving comprehension and communication skills, however, there was no reference to the value of this language policy in terms of methodology.

*TE 3: It is good to teach British Council training in English. Using English as a teaching medium with a native speaker is very effective to improve listening skill and speaking skill, I think. Besides, the pronunciation is become correct and listening skills improve Improving or is better, and consequently, we can better understand the speaking of native speaker. I think.*

However, after some coaxing, he addressed the methodological component of the training. He stated that he regularly used the methodologies he learnt from the British Council, which was provided in English. This clearly demonstrates that this TE didn't have comprehension problems during the EfECT project, and consequently perhaps never gave language of instruction much consideration. Again, this was at odds with the findings from the survey data.

*TE 3: I think English I have many experience from the British Council training. I use the methodology from this course, I use and many methodologies in my classroom.*

With another reference to the ability of the English language to engage with their fields on an international level, TE 5 discussed this feature as a reason for her preference for the training being in English. She also discussed the fact that

she wanted to learn other subjects in English. In addition, there was a direct reference to the English language being associated with higher education more generally, all of which significantly elevated English in tandem with the relegation of Myanmar.

*TE 5: Yes, I like it (English language provision) a lot. As I mentioned earlier, English is an international language, so we have to, we have to learn other resources and teaching and learning material and google and other search engines in English. So, we need to... we must have much knowledge about English. So, I want to learn other subjects in English at the higher education, yes.*

Indeed, while clearly demonstrating a preference for English as the language of provision, TE 6 also seemed to associate learning English with the more general concept of learning and education in general when she stated that she was able to start studying again in a general sense because she improved her English language skills during the EfECT project.

*John: How do you feel about the EfECT project being in English?*

*TE 6: Yes, I am happy about that*

*John: Why are you happy that the EfECT project was in English?*

*TE 6: Yes, because my subject is Burmese. I am far from the English, and because of the BC training I was able to study again.*

TE 7 discussed the fact that she had a preference for the EfECT project being in English because she had the opportunity to learn methodology and English at the same time. This statement could be interpreted as an endorsement for English being the language of modernity and progress, with Myanmar language being unable to negotiate these concepts.

*TE 7: Because I think so we get methodology and English proficiency at the same time. So, I prefer English to Myanmar in teaching methodology.*

TE 11 also discussed the fact that Methodology training and improving English were seen to be beneficial. Again, this opinion seemed to suggest that English is a requirement whenever progress or modernity are being sought.

*TE 11: Well. I like I really enjoyed the training being in English because I think I can learn both methodology and both English language. I think its content language integrated learning, I think so. I'm really happy this one.*

#### 6.3.7. Language of Provision – Data Mixing

Thus, it is clear that, although there was a preference from the survey data in terms of language of provision, i.e., most participants preferred Myanmar, this did not translate to the interview data, with most preferring English. Their reasons for this were both contextual in relation to type and age of TEs, as well as more international when considering the importance attached to English in relation to accessing overseas expertise. A tension seems to be emerging here in relation to, on the one hand, the uncontested truth that proficiency in the language of provision is a key determinant to the success of any educational programme, and on the other, the elevated status that is given to English in terms of its ability to successfully negotiate modern teaching approaches and global expertise.

#### 6.4. Methodologies used

As previously stated, according to the literature, the preferred pedagogic approach within the dominant framework in the Education and Development sector is the LCA. This is related to the belief within this sector that the LCA is best suited to developing 21<sup>st</sup> Century skills in order for countries to be able to effectively engage with the modern-day market economy (Phillips and Schweisfurth 2015; Thomas and Burnett 2016; Lauder and Brown 2016). It is also believed to encourage collaboration and critical thinking, both of which are

regarded as beneficial for the market economy but also help to develop the skills and worldview that are required in a democratic society (McGrath 2012; Rogers 2016). These features of the education and development sector are very strongly represented in the EfECT project. As such, the TEs were asked how often they use learner centred methodologies, and how effective they are in Myanmar’s context.

#### 6.4.1. Methodologies used, frequency and suitability – survey data

Table 22 – Frequency of Learner Centred Methodologies used in Class.						
	Always	Often	Sometimes	Not Often	Never	Total
How often do you do group work?	20 (39.2%)	29 (56.9%)	2 (3.9%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	51 (100%)
How often do you do pair work?	13 (26.5%)	34 (69.4%)	2 (4.1%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	49 (100%)
How often do you ask Comprehension Check Questions?	22 (44%)	24 (48%)	4 (8%)	2 (4%)	0 (0%)	52 (100%)
How often do you ask open questions?	10 (20%)	34 (68%)	4 (8%)	2 (4%)	0 (0%)	50 (100%)
How often do you give feedback to your students' responses?	18 (36%)	28 (56%)	3 (6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	50 (100%)
How often do you encourage your trainees to ask the TE and other trainees questions?	19 (38%)	28 (56%)	3 (6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	50 (100%)
How often do you do peer feedback and review with your trainees?	10 (20.8%)	30 (62.5%)	8 (16.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	48 (100%)

\*Cronbach’s alpha .783/ Shapiro-Wilk .000

An overwhelming majority of participants gave a positive response when asked how often they used group work in their classes. Of the 51 participants who responded to this question, 56.9% (n=29) stated that they often used it and 39.2% (n=20) stated that they always did so. This leaves only 3.9% (n=2) stating



that they sometimes used group work, while no participants gave a negative response to this question.

Although, of the 52 participants who completed the survey, 49 responded to this question, the numbers were almost identical when asked how often the participants used pair work, with no negative responses, and only 4.1% (n=2) stating that they sometimes used pair work in their classes. Of the remaining 95.9% (n=47) of participants, 69.4% (n=34) stated that they often used pair work in their classes and 25.5% (n=13) said they always did so.

In terms of questioning, 50 participants responded to the first two questions, i.e., How often do you ask comprehension check questions, and how often do you ask open questions. The overwhelming majority of participants gave a positive response to these questions, with 48% (n=24) saying that they often asked comprehension questions and 44% (n=22) stating that they always did, while 8% (n=4) stated that they sometimes did so. When asked how often they asked open questions, 68% (n=34) said they often asked them and 20% (n=10) said they always did and 8% (n=4) sometimes doing so.

When asked how often they encouraged their trainees to ask the TE and other trainees questions, of the 50 participants who responded to this question, 56% (n=28) often did so, 38% (n=19) always did so, while only 6% (n=3) stated that they sometimes encouraged questioning in their classes

When asked how often they give feedback to their students, from a total of 50 responses, 52% (n=26) stated they often did so, 36% (n=18) always did, and 12% (n=6) sometimes gave feedback. In terms of encouraging peer feedback in their lessons, of the 49 participants who responded to this question, 62.5% (n=30) often did peer feedback in their lessons, 20.8% (n=10) always did so, and 16.7% (n=6) sometimes doing so.

Table 23 – Effectiveness of Learner Centred Methodologies in Myanmar.						
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Unsure	Total
Group Work is effective in Myanmar.	28 (56%)	22 (44%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	50 (100%)
Pair work is effective in Myanmar.	25 (52%)	23 (48%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	48 (100%)
Asking Comprehension Check Questions is effective in Myanmar.	20 (40.1%)	28 (57.1%)	1 (2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	49 (100%)
Asking open questions is effective in Myanmar.	14 (29.1%)	33 (68.7%)	1 (2.2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	48 (100%)
Giving feedback to your students' responses is effective in Myanmar.	26 (53.6%)	22 (44.8%)	1 (2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	49 (100%)
Encouraging your trainees to ask the TE and other trainees questions is effective in Myanmar.	28 (56%)	21 (42%)	1 (2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	50 (100%)
Peer feedback and review with your trainees is effective in Myanmar	20 (41.6%)	28 (58.4%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	48 (100%)

\*Cronbach's alpha .859/ Shapiro-Wilk .000

Survey data was also gathered by the participating TEs to determine whether they believed that the learner centred and interactive methodologies that made up the EfECT project's curriculum were compatible with Myanmar's educational context. Similarly to the section in the survey that asked about the frequency with which these methodologies were used, there was missing data from most of the items in this variable, with responses ranging between a few as 48 of the 52 respondents, to a full complement. Equally similar to the data related to the frequency of use of these methodologies, the responses of the TEs to whether these methodologies were compatible with the Myanmar context was overwhelmingly positive, with a positive response rate in the high

80s for all of the referenced methodologies. This is perhaps unsurprising considering the high rate of frequency with which the methodologies were used.

On evaluating the literature from the education and development sector, as well as the contextualisation of the historical and contemporary provision of education in Myanmar, it became clear that there may be a tension between the two. Myanmar was undergoing a fragile and fledgling democratisation process, which has recently been upended by the February 2021 coup. Until recently (and since the coup), Myanmar was a very heavily sanctioned country with a limited capacity to engage with the global market economy (UNESCO 2016). The legacy of the historical provision of education in Myanmar from both a Royal and colonial perspective is palpable, and the impact of the military junta's rule is all-encompassing (Dhammasami 2018; Maber et al. 2019). The culmination of these factors suggests that there might be a tension in Myanmar between the clearly stated goals of the education and development sector, and the contemporary and historical context of Myanmar. As such, TEs were asked about the importance of what would be considered 'traditional' skills, which are characterised by rigid chalk and talk and teacher led instruction (World Bank 2010; Hardman et al. 2016) which are influenced by the historical provision of education in Myanmar (Dhammasami 2018; Lwin 2000). They were also asked about the importance of 'modern' skills, namely participatory, more interactive, child-centred, adventurous pedagogy characterised by cooperative learning and inquiry, with a view to foster conceptual understanding, critical thinking and problem-solving skills (Schweisfurth 2015; Thomas and Burnett 2016) and decentralised decision making (Biesta 2006; Apple and Beane 1999; Fielding 2007), which are the hallmarks of the education and development sector.

Table 24 – What traditional skills are important to teach in your classes?						
	Very Important	Important	A little Important	Not at all important	No Opinion	Total
That Trainees respect TEs is important	8 (16.6%)	35 (72.9%)	3 (6.2%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)	48 (100%)
To be a good citizen is important	25 (52%)	20 (41.6%)	1 (2%)	2 (4.1%)	0 (0%)	48 (100%)
That the teacher knows best is important	20 (41.6%)	23 (47.9%)	2 (4.1%)	3 (6.2%)	0 (0%)	48 (100%)
Passing exams is important	6 (12.5%)	31 (64.5%)	2 (4.1%)	3 (6.2%)	0 (0%)	48 (100%)
Trainees must not make mistakes is important	4 (8.5%)	14 (29.7%)	18 (38.2%)	6 (12.7%)	5 (10.6%)	47 (100%)

Cronbach's alpha .83/Shapiro-Wilk .000

The above table gives an overview of the responses of participants in the survey when asked about the importance of the traditional role of teachers and students in Myanmar.

When asked whether it was important for their trainees to respect them, 89.5% (n=43) of respondents gave a positive response, while 93.6% (n=45) of respondents stated that teaching students to be a good Myanmar citizen was an important part of the role of a teacher, and 89.5% (n=43) of respondents believed that the teacher knew best in their classrooms. Additionally, when asked whether passing exams is important, 79% (n=37) believed it was. Finally, only 38.2% of TEs believed that trainees not making mistakes was important, which was the only item in this variable that did not have an overwhelmingly positive response.

Table 25 – What modern skills are important for you to teach in your classes?						
	Very Important	Important	A little Important	Not at all Important	No Opinion	Total
Teaching 21st century skills is important	34 (65.3%)	15 (28.8)	1 (1.9%)	1 (1.9%)	1 (1.9%)	52 (100%)
Collaboration with classmates is important	26 (54.1%)	19 (39.5%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)	48 (100%)
Making mistakes is an opportunity to learn	16 (33.3%)	27 (56.2%)	2 (4.1%)	2 (4.1%)	1 (2%)	48 (100%)
The inclusion of trainees making decisions about their education is important	17 (36%)	25 (50%)	4 (8%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)	50 (100%)

Cronbach's alpha .725/ Shapiro-Wilk .000

The above table gives an overview of TEs responses when asked what their opinion was on the importance of the modern role of TEs and trainees in their classrooms.

An overwhelming majority of 94.1% (n=49) of participants in the survey believed that teaching 21<sup>st</sup> century skills was an important role for TEs in their classrooms. Indeed, this overwhelming majority held true for each item in this scale, with 94% (n=46) believing that collaboration with their classmates was important, 89.5% (n=43) believing that making mistakes was an opportunity to learn, and 86% (n=42) believed that the inclusion of trainees making decisions about their education was important in their classrooms.

As is clearly demonstrated by the above data, all of the TEs who participated in the survey and the interviews used Learner Centred or Interactive methodologies on a regular basis, and gave very positive responses when asked how compatible these methodologies were to their context. However, on closer analysis of the findings related to the importance given to 'traditional' and

'modern' skills, there may be a tension between the two. This is demonstrated by the fact that an overwhelming importance by TEs was given to four of the five items within the variable related to the importance of teaching 'traditional' skills. According to the literature the development of these skills is heavily associated with a more hierarchical conceptualisation of the relationship between teachers and students, and thus, are more compatible with the TCA (Dembele and Miaro-il 2003, p. 331; Schweisfurth 2015, Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012; Hardman et al. 2016; Lall 2011).

However, when participants were asked to give their opinions on the importance of the development of 'modern' skills in their classes, the TEs gave an overwhelmingly positive response to all four items in this variable. As previously discussed, according to the literature, the development of these skills is considered to be more compatible with the LCA (Ibid).

As such, on the one hand, 'traditional' skills, which are more associated with the TCA, were very highly regarded by TEs, and on the other, 'modern' skills, which are more associated with the LCA, were equally highly regarded by TEs. The potential for tension here is clear to see, and was explored further in the interview process.

#### 6.4.2. Methodologies used – the interview data

The interview stage of the research design was used to explore in more depth the reasons or feelings behind the opinions given in the survey. When asked what methodologies they used in their classrooms, the TEs who participated in the interviews stated the following:

*TE 1: I usually use group work, pair work, presentation, discussion, erm... and mingle activity and feedback techniques in my class.*

*TE 2: I usually use think-pair-share, gallery walk, pass the paper, and demonstration, answer question, modelling, peer assessment.*

*TE 3: I usually use group discussion, problem solving method, brainstorming, and an open debate method.*

*TE 4: In my English class I usually use the group work, pair work, and then and sometimes I use the questioning method.*

*TE 5: ... we use many different teaching methodology like erm... jigsaw, mingle, mingle, and gallery walk.*

*TE 6: I usually use in my class, during the intro period; think pair share, one on one, nominate. During training time, I use pair work, group work, gallery walk, pass the paper, presentation, discussion, question and answer with open ended question...*

*TE 7: Mostly I use pair work, group work and discussion.*

*TE 8: Yes, especially I use question and answers method, and then I use Kingfisher (inaudible) gallery walk, sometimes I use I'm use carousal Learning.*

*TE 9: I'm a biology teacher, so I can use the, erm... methodology is erm group work and monitoring, modelling, observation and using the flip chat chart portfolio. I use the portfolio and that's all.*

*TE 10: As I always use group work or group discussion or demonstration but I um I always use group discussion in my class.*

*TE 11: There are different teaching methodologies and then I usually use student centred, learner centred method. For example; discussion method, inquiry-based approach.*

Bearing this in mind, one of the questions that was put to the participant in the interviews was, 'why do you use your preferred methodologies?'

#### 6.4.3. Direct comparison with their own learning experience

All of the TEs who participated in the interview process gave positive appraisals of the interactive methodologies they used by drawing on their own experience

as a learner. They also referenced the fact that they would have preferred it had their teachers used these methodologies and were aware of the positive learning environment the use of these methodologies could create in their classrooms. The importance of these methodologies in the development of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills was also discussed, which demonstrated an acute sense of responsibility in their role in the economic development of their country.

4 of the TEs who participated in the interviews discussed their own experience as a student in basic education in Myanmar and how this experience shaped their feelings towards the Learner and Teacher Centred approaches in their lessons (TE 5, 7, 8, and 10). Indeed, these references to their own learning experience were indicative of the general educational reform process, the primary rationale of which was to 'modernise' an education system that was perceived to be antiquated and irrelevant to Myanmar's current position (prior to the Feb 2021 coup} in the regional and international global political economy. Specifically, Myanmar's democratisation as well as accession to ASEAN (Shah et al. 2019).

In this regard, when asked why she liked Learner Centred or Interactive methodologies, TE 5 gave a concise and informative overview of the methodological landscape of Myanmar by referring to her own experience as a student, and how the EfECT project seemed to mark the beginning of the reform process from the TCA to LCA.

*TE 5: As for this question, I can answer by dividing into two portions. Before the EfECT project – before the EfECT project, we always taught by lecture method, and also when I was a student and I also learned by lecture method and after that, when the EfECT project came to our Myanmar and so the teaching methodology is also changing. teacher educator starts to use different teaching methodology.*

When discussing her preference for Learner Centred and Interactive methodologies, TE 7 made reference to her childhood in that, when the TCA was used, the students' primary role was as a listener. However, the LCA



expanded this role to include responding, giving their opinion, giving their ideas, and this richer environment led to, not only the students learning from the teacher, but the teacher learning from the students, and the students learning from each other.

*TE 7: Yeah, I feel great and satisfied with this approach because, in my childhood most of my teacher(s) taught me using the teacher centred approach. So, I listened to all of what the teachers said, but in the learner centred approach, they can... all students can respond, can give their opinion, give their ideas to the teacher so we can learn from the teacher, we can learn from students. So, I like this.*

TE 10 made another reference to his personal experience with education being dominated by the TCA. This TE talked about the fact that nobody knew about the LCA when he was younger, and how the 'new generation' knew about it and it developed 21st century skills.

*TE 10: I like the learner centred approach because long long ago when I was a student in Myanmar, we didn't know about the learner centred approach. Our teachers didn't know about learner centred approaches. They knew about TCA long long ago. Now, a new generation, all of our teachers, and me and many or all of my students know about learner centred approach, and I think the learner centred approach is suitable for Myanmar and for education and and twenty first century skills.*

TE 8 talked about the LCA in direct opposition to her childhood experience, and discussed how, as was identified by Borg et al. (2018) as a key performance indicator of the EfECT project, the LCA encouraged a reflective component to her teaching, in that one of its primary outcomes was thinking about why you are teaching or learning something and how it can connect to their 'real life situation.' Indeed, this is also demonstrative of the key role meta-learning plays in the application of the LCA, which is the belief that learners need to learn about learning and begin to make sense of their own learning experience and those of others (Adams 2006). This was in direct contrast to her childhood experience of the TCA, where they didn't ask questions or think about why they were teaching or learning something. She explicitly mentioned critical and

creative thinking, which can be tied to Human Capital Theory and Democratisation. She also talked about being brave in relation to the LCA, which was in direct contrast to the fear other TEs mentioned students had towards asking questions in class, and open mindedness.

*TE 8: Yes, I like the learner centred approach because whenever I do teaching in my class and I always think of the past situation in my childhood. So, at this time, we have to learn with our teacher centred approach. We didn't have to ask questions and we didn't think of why we had to learn this topic, what will be the result, and what can I do in my future. So, whenever I teach, I want to use LCA because I want my students to know why they have to teach this topic. How this topic connects to our real-life situation... If I have to say more about this topic. I want to remind students to be brave in their real-life situation. I want them to be open minded and... So, I like this method so much.*

TE 1 supported this transformative role of the Learner Centred Approach by describing the 'traditional' conceptualisation of the teacher-student relationship, whereby the teacher was an authority who commanded the respect of their students and the surrounding community (Dhammasami 2018). This created a situation whereby students were afraid to ask questions, and the LCA was seen by this TE as a way to 'solve this problem' in Myanmar. This could be interpreted as 'traditional' being portrayed in a negative light, and the LCA was seen as the methodology of modernity and progress (Hackman et al. 2013), and indeed could solve the 'problems' of the traditional approach to education in Myanmar.

*TE 1: Okay. I think the LCA is a suitable teaching methodology for Myanmar, because, according to the Myanmar culture, students are worried to ask questions to the teachers. And most of the students feel... that to present their ideas – even if that they have a brilliant idea, they don't want to do it because of our Myanmar culture. So LCA gives them a solution for this. I think LCA can solve these problems.*

TE 7 supported TE 1 here by stating that there was a clear distinction drawn between traditional and modern, which was a persistent theme and is consistent with the literature (Apple and Beane 1999; Fielding 2007; Dembele and Miaro-il 2003; Kincheloe 2008; King and Aikman 2012; Schweisfurth 2015; Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012; World Bank 2010). She discussed a change in the mindset and a fundamental rethinking of the teacher-student relationship, whereby the teachers' role was to instil confidence in students, encourage them to ask questions, and pursue their interests. Similarly to TE 1, there was also a reference to attempting to take away fear from students, in that students were often afraid to ask their teachers/TEs questions, and how this was related to the traditional role of teachers in school and the local community as being highly respected. This could then, of course, be tied to Buddhism and the deference that is afforded to teachers within the Buddhist tradition of education (Dhammasami 2018; Crosby 2014; Lwin 2000). There was also a reference to the importance of students learning things happily and freely.

*TE 7: The old generation teaching style and mindset... our new generation will be watching their students' opinion and their mindset to be creative. So, they can be confident about everything they want to know, so they can ask things and then don't be afraid and be free in their mind, and then they can learn everything happily and freely. I think so.*

TE 8 gave an indication as to the novelty of the LCA in this context, which is in keeping with Hardman et al. 's (2016) assertion that it was largely absent in Myanmar teaching prior to the onset of the reform agenda. This TE talked about how they had learned a lot about the LCA in theory while they were studying their B. Ed and M. Ed, but they had never seen it or used it in practice. Consequently, they learnt about the LCA while being taught using the TCA. Similarly to TE 3, TE 8 stated that the training they received from the BC was the first time they encountered the LCA in practice and this was an invaluable experience for this TE due to the fact that, up to the EfECT project, the

theoretical understanding was present, but the practical experience wasn't, and the EfECT project addressed this imbalance.

*TE 8: I heard... I heard about this approach just in a book (B. Ed and M. Ed). I didn't have the opportunity to implement it in my real-life situation. After that (the EfECT project) I know why I have to use this approach in our teaching and learning process in our classroom. So, I'm trying to use this approach as much as I can.*

#### 6.4.4. Positive learning environment

Another interesting finding to this question was related to the positive learning environment these Learner Centred or Interactive methods had on the TEs' lessons. To this end, TE 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 stated that they like the LCA because it created a positive learning environment and an interesting learning experience for their learners primarily because it encouraged them to be more active and motivated in their lessons. This is indicative of the principles of learning that underpin the LCA, in that it engages students in a contextually appropriate manner, and encourages the co-creation of knowledge with the support of their teachers (Power and Kalina 2009; Adams 2006; Cooper et al. 2006).

*TE 1: I believe the LCA – the learner centred approach – helps me to create a positive learning environment, and an active teaching and learning process.*

*TE 2: I am very interested in teaching learner centred approach. I think I can see students... can be more active.*

*TE 4: Although it is difficult to get the trainees to talk and think... because I want to make my class and be active. And (that) they (the trainees) are interested in my teaching and they are interested. I want to motivate them.*

*TE 5: Erm... I think LCA is... LCA is the best method and the best approach the best approach – but, but it is difficult to implement the LCA in Myanmar.*

*TE 6: I like it, because teacher and student teacher can enjoy the lesson and work together.*

*TE 7: From my point of view, if I'm happy, I will learn everything. So, like me, my students, when they are happy, they can learn, and they can get a lot of knowledge as much as I can get.*

*TE 8: Oh yes, and to be more interested in my learning and then to motivate my students, and to participate in my teaching and learning process.*

Indeed, TE 11 commented on the confidence the TEs developed having attended the BC training. There was a reference to 'new' and 'reflect', both of which are heavily associated with Learner Centred / Interactive teaching.

*TE 11: Yes, I use the methodology that I have learnt in the British Council training, yes, definitely yes. Why? Because I think the first one is when I use the methodology because (when) I learnt (them) I was happy. This is the first one, I feel confident in my teaching. I learned from new things so when I reflect and re-teach, I am happy at that time. I am, I feel I am more meaningful teacher as a teacher educator than before.*

This was expanded upon to include discussion with colleagues, and graduates of the teacher training programme who used these 'meaningful' methods with their students in their classes.

*TE 11: I can share my methodology to my colleagues, and to do my trainees when the trainees or trainees told me how they did the how the how the use my techniques in the classes in primary school. I was*

*happy, at that time, I was happy and I answered what they need. If they ask me some questions I answered, how do, how to solve their problem it. I am happy at that time.*

When asked to elaborate on the nature of a positive learning environment, TE 1 and TE 7 stated that the power dynamic in the classroom needed to be decentralised. This was represented by the fact that the teacher talked less, there was more interaction in general in the class, that students and teachers needed to work together, and that the teacher was responding more attentively to their learners' needs and helped to develop the skills that are required for the transition to a democratic form of government (McClelland et al. 2019; Menter et al. 2018; Power and Kalina 2009; Adams 2006; Weimer 2002).

*TE 1: The classroom... the classroom should be interactive to create a positive learning environment. Not only the teacher speak and the students only listen. We need to interact with each other and it makes the learning more fun.*

*TE 7: Yes, I think this is the most of suitable teaching method for Myanmar because we can change our teaching style, and then our students can have the opportunity to give their opinion, to give their idea as much as they can, so this is a more suitable teaching method.*

TE 3 gave some more specific examples as to the positive impact decentralising the power dynamic in a learner centred lesson had on student engagement. He drew a direct comparison with the TCA here - which is demonstrative of the fact that both approaches are seen to be opposite ends of the same spectrum. This TE conflated the TCA with rote learning, the fact that it took up a lot of time and was an obstacle to students being able to ask their teacher questions. This was in comparison with the LCA, which gave more time for students to discuss with their peers and ask the teacher questions. This went a little further than other comments in that hard examples of the weaknesses of the TCA and strengths of the LCA were given. It also falls into the traditional/modern

dichotomy that has characterised a lot of the discussion about the LCA and TCA thus far (Morgan 2005; Kincheloe 2008; King and Aikman 2012).

*TE 3: The teacher centred approach uses rote learning; it takes up a lot of time and students can't get the opportunity to answer questions or to question their teachers. But with the learner centred... the student gets a lot of time to discuss with their peers and they can get time to ask their teacher many questions.*

Indeed, TE 3 offered an interesting explanation as to why it was good for students to ask questions - going beyond the text, which is indicative of a level of engagement with the material that corresponds with the problem solving and analytical skills necessary to work collaboratively in the co-creation of knowledge (Dahlman and Utz 2005; Fleury and Garrison 2013). The premise here was that this can only be achieved via the LCA because it allowed for questioning, whereas the perception was that the TCA didn't.

*TE 3: In my personally, I think the trainees want to more information about the lesson beyond the lessons. Sometimes teachers give the student in the textbook in, erm the textbook script only what is in the textbook. But sometimes they want to know about why this effects of these facts and they want to know more about the information about the lesson.*

TE 6 supported this contention by stating that she liked the LCA because both the teacher and student could enjoy the lesson. She said that one of the features of the LCA was that the teacher and students worked together to complete tasks and this seemed motivating. The component of working together and collaborating pointed to a change in the conceptualisation of teaching from a teacher fronted approach to a more facilitative and collaborative role:

*TE 6: Some of the students are lazy. So, the teacher will use these teaching techniques so that they are... the student and teacher are working together... They (the trainees) can talk to each other, help each*

*other sharing knowledge, get friendship. Teacher educator can do helper, manager, giving feedback, monitor, observer, timer in Myanmar, yes.*

In keeping with the previously identified notion of the professionalisation of teaching, TE 6 gave more details of the role of the teacher within this pedagogic approach when she mentioned some of the classroom management components to adopting an LCA approach, e.g., planning, staging, etc.

*TE 5: Students in my education college (to herself). Yes, yes, because I have to learn I have to learn more techniques, how to prepare a lesson, time bound, how to observe, how to help student teachers, how to do get active learning*

TE 9 discussed many of the same topics as TE 1, 2, 4, 6, 7 and 8, in that she talked about the importance of responding to their learners' needs, when she discussed, '*participating in lessons, enjoying lessons, remembering lessons, being interested in lessons*' when the LCA was used. She also pointed towards the reconceptualization of the teaching, teachers, and their relationships with their students when she stated that she liked this approach because she could '*support*' her students.

*TE 9: Students can participate, (inaudible), and I can support them. They can, they can... they are interested in the topic, and they can remember the teaching and learning process... They're more interested in the lesson and this helps them to achieve their goals.*

Indeed, TE 1 discussed the fact that, although class size was big, attempting to overcome this obstacle in order to respond to their learners' needs by taking advantage of how the LCA could motivate students is worth the effort.

*TE 1: I think the EfECT project is appropriate in Myanmar education. Myanmar has big class sizes, but while we use or applying the methodologies and techniques in my lesson, we can motivate learners and they enjoy learning. So, I think it's appropriate.*



TE 11 echoed these sentiments related to the reconceptualization of teaching, teachers, and their relationships with their students by stating that, with Learner Centred or Interactive methodologies, the teachers and learners worked together, which meant that the teacher was also a learner and the students were also teachers.

*TE 11: I'm. I think in the learner centred approach it puts teachers... teachers and learners work together at the same time. Teachers always look at their student and how they how they are learning. How they are learning. So, the teacher is also as a learner.*

Indeed, TE 3 went further in drawing a direct comparison with the Teacher Centred Approach, and while the 'active' component to LCA lessons was very much appreciated, this TE specifically mentioned the fact that Learner Centred or Interactive methodologies reduced students' dependence on their teacher. This also directly addresses the fundamental change in the conceptualisation of teachers that needs to take place in order to transition from one approach to the other (Dahlman and Utz 2005; Fleury and Garrison 2013; Power and Kalina 2009).

*TE 3: The learners and the approach is more appropriate than the Centred... than the Teacher Centred Approach because any learners get a chance to participating in (the lesson) teaching actively and we will... we can reduce the learners' dependence on their teachers.*

#### 6.4.5. 21<sup>st</sup> century skills

The notion of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills was well represented in discussions with TEs in relation to why they believed Learner Centred and Interactive methodologies were suitable for the Myanmar context, with TE 1, 2, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, and 11 commenting on how Learner Centred and Interactive methodologies helped to develop these skills. The fact that these methodologies were seen as modern and future oriented compared to the traditional and stifling impact of Teacher Centred approaches is pertinent here. In terms of identifying what exactly these 21<sup>st</sup> century skills were, collaboration, critical thinking, problem solving, and enhanced communication skills were highlighted. Below are examples and

explanations as to why these features of the LCA were considered important, all of which are well represented in the literature (Thomas and Burnett 2016; Phillips and Schweisfurth 2014; Lauder and Brown 2016; Hackman, Pinto and Savelyev 2013; Dahlman and Utz, 2005; Tabulawa, 2008; Hanushek 2013).

TE 3 discussed the LCA being a global methodology, and how this was seen to be a good thing for Myanmar. He alluded to the fact that there was a theoretical awareness of the LCA in Myanmar but it was more difficult to find examples of it being applied, and the EfECT project filled this gap.

*TE 3: I think they are international methodology, global methodology; I think. Yes, it is very good for me, and I think all of the teacher educator. I think we're familiar with many methodologies and so that I study from many books and I see and I understand you're (The BC) using and giving methodologies that are very up-to-date.*

TE 6 went further by implying that the quality of the training that they had received was directly related to their opinion of the BC - in that, the BC clearly had a very high status and any training received from them demonstrated international and modern practice.

*TE 6: It's the BC giving the teaching methods - all of the teachers in the world are using, I think. And it. it is effective learning - it is effective learning for the world.*

This notion that the LCA was a global and modern methodology was supported by TE 1, 5 and 10. These TEs drew a direct correlation between the LCA, 21<sup>st</sup> century skills, and development. They then discussed students being more active, communicative, and expressing themselves more freely when using the LCA, and in relation to the development of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills, with TE 10 drawing a direct comparison between the training that he received from the BC and economic development in Myanmar.

*TE 1: Because when I use group work or pair work activities, students have the chance to share their ideas and experiences... to present their*

*ideas with the whole class. And so, I think it encourages collaborative learning and peer learning.*

*TE 5: Erm, I love it. I love it and I also I always try to teach my students with the learner centred approach because the learner centred approach can meet the 21st century skill. And students can, students are more active more communicated and freely express their opinion in the learner centred approach.*

*TE 10: This is appropriate training because Myanmar is a very low developed country for all sides, especially education. So, our country needs this training from other countries support. So, this is very suitable, I think not only higher education, but also low or basic education level as good as this is helpful. So, this project is very effective for Myanmar education sector.*

When asked to elaborate on what exactly 21st century skills were, TE 1 and 5 gave the examples of ‘*communication and collaboration*,’ with TE 5 explaining why these skills were important for 21st century skills by stating that communicating with other countries was essential and that:

*TE 5: We have to communicate with other countries... and we have to communicate with different people from around the world. So, we should improve communication skills, and we should improve collaborative skills by using team work.*

TE 8 lent heavily on the value of critical and creative thinking, and believed that the TCA stifled these skills, due to its use of ‘*parrot learning*,’ and as a result it was the biggest obstacle Myanmar faced in its educational provision. There was a clear nod to the LCA being seen as the method of development and progress, and the TCA being the traditional approach that was holding Myanmar back.

*TE 8: The biggest problem in Myanmar is because of the teacher centred approach - I think so. Because the teacher centred approach does not support critical thinking skills and creative thinking skills – and creative thinking skills, and... Everyone needs to know what they have to do and*

*why they have to do it. So, TCA.... But I think TCA it is a good teaching methodology. But for some times... I think you know about our situation in Myanmar, as we implement parrot learning more. This is because they didn't know why they had to teach this topic, or how it connects to our real-life situation. I think this is erm.... a pro (for the LCA).*

TE 9 discussed the fact that the Learner Centred Approach, or interactive learning, developed higher or creative thinking. She talked about how the trainees were future teachers and how developing these higher creative thinking skills would help people in Myanmar to 'get a better future.' Again, there was a direct connection being made here between the LCA and development / human capital production.

*TE 9: Learners or students can get to a higher creative level and development to get. Yeah - they can get the creative thinking and more practice and they get a creative thinking and they can get a better future so it's better for younger people.*

When asked to clarify what exactly it was about the LCA that developed 21st century skills, TE 11 talked about 'doing the task themselves,' and reflecting themselves, and that these developed their problem-solving skills. She went further by stating that she believed that teachers had a responsibility to teach these 21<sup>st</sup> century skills to their students.

*TE 11: I think teachers, no, learners can do themselves. So that it can improve their problem-solving skills and critical thinking skills, they can reflect themselves I think.... I think teachers have to responsibility to get to our learners to get 21st century skills, such as critical thinking skills problem solving skills, I think. So, they will get higher order thinking skills.*

#### 6.4.6. Methodologies Used – Data Mixing

In terms of using this interview data to give more depth to the survey data related to the methodologies the TEs used and were taught in the EfECT project, it can be seen that the TEs drew from a deep well of motivation in their use of interactive methodologies. One cannot help but see the connection

between the invocation of their own educational experience during their basic education, and their desire to provide a positive learning environment for their own trainees, with the LCA being at the centre of this positive learning environment. There was also the hyper awareness of their responsibility towards their country's development and the perceived role the LCA should play in developing twenty first century skills.

There is another interesting application of this interview data to the survey data, when considering whether the above responses favoured the development of 'traditional' or 'modern' skills. It is clear to see that the key themes that emerged from the interview data in this section supported the stated importance that was given to the development of 'modern' skills, without any real consideration given to the development of more 'traditional' ones. At this point it is important to highlight the fact that the development of both 'modern' and 'traditional' skills were regarded as important by the TEs who participated in the survey.

#### 6.5. Contestations and Contradictions

On considering the previously mentioned possibility of contestations and contradictions that can arise when mixing two world views (post-positivist and constructivist), and in keeping with the previously mentioned tension that exists between wanting to use the LCA and actually using it, along with the seemingly incompatible importance that had been ascribed to teaching both 'modern' and 'traditional' skills, the various contestations and contradictions that emerged from this data will be explored.

##### 6.5.1. Incompatibility of LCA with Myanmar context

As can be seen from the above findings, when asked what methodologies they used in their lessons, there was a near total consensus among teacher educators on the use of Learner Centred or interactive methodologies in both the survey and interview data. The above findings from the interview data also clearly demonstrated the fact that these positive feelings provided significant depth and explanatory power to the stated importance of 'modern' skills from the survey data, but it could be argued, these motivations did not allow for the stated importance of 'traditional' skills, that were also regarded as important by the TEs who participated in the survey.

On considering the fact that the purpose of the interview component of this research design was to explore the findings of the survey in more depth, it appears that this tension between the importance of developing modern and traditional skills played out in the classroom through the identification of multiple obstacles to the application of interactive or learner centred methodologies. These obstacles included infrastructural, systemic and conceptual/cultural barriers to the application of interactive methodologies.

#### 6.5.1.2. Class Size – survey data

Class size was addressed in the survey by asking teacher educators how big their classes were, and it was consistently raised by the TEs who participated in the interview process of the data gathering process as an obstacle to the implementation of the LCA.

Table 26 – What is the average size of your classes?					
	Class Size	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	30-39	18	34.6	34.6	34.6
	40-49	20	38.5	38.5	73.1
	50-59	11	21.2	21.2	94.2
	60+	3	5.8	5.8	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

#### 6.5.1.2. Class size and time pressures – interview data

When asked to choose their average class sizes, there was a considerable amount of spread in TEs' survey responses, with 34.6% (n=18) choosing the option 30-39, 21.2% (n=11) choosing 50-59 students, and 5.8% (n=3) choosing 60+. The most popular option for this question was 40-49 students, with 38.5% (n=20) choosing this option. Indeed, these findings were supported by the quantitative data. When asked about the average size of their class, there was a significant spread of responses, but the number of 40-49 students was strongly represented as well. Of the 11 participants in the interview process, the following answers were given when asked what the average size of their classes is:

*TE 1: There are 35 to 40 students in my class.*

*TE 2: There are 50 students in my class.*

*TE 3: My classroom is about... there are about 50 or 60 students in my classroom.*

*TE 4: And sometimes and I teach a big class and about 45 students and sometimes 50 or 60 and usually over 45.*

*TE 5: Yes, erm our classes are most of our classes have about 45 and 60 students but some of our classes size maybe above 60 but mostly 60.*

*TE 6: In the second year there are more than 50 in the first year there are 35. The coming PPTT seven will be 50*

*TE 7: Maybe 40 students.*

*TE 8: Yes, the class is from 50 to 70.*

*TE 9: My classes are not too big - about 35 to 40 students.*

*TE 10: I have 40 or 50 students in my class.*

*TE 11: I have many different classes; some are big some are small. Some are enough, for example, for my big class there are over 40 students for small classes there are less than 20.*

7 of the eleven participants in the interview process identified class size as an obstacle to their ability to use Learner Centred or interactive Methodologies in their classes (TEs 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 11).

When asked whether their class size made it easy or difficult to use their preferred Learner Centred methodologies, TE 1, 5, 10, and 11 stated that there

were difficulties in terms of classroom management, timing and feedback, which are consistent with Lall's (2013) and Harding et al.'s (2016) findings in relation to the negative impact class size can have on the application of the LCA. These TEs stated that it was difficult to '*control the class,*' '*monitor the groups,*' and that '*sometimes because of timing I can't give feedback for each group.*' Indeed, TE 11 also stated that due to the narrow size of the classroom, it was difficult to monitor their students as well. These comments were also at odds with the survey data, in that 88% of respondents (n=44) stated that they either often or always give feedback to their students. If the conditions in which feedback was given are so challenging, it is difficult to imagine this being done effectively.

Additionally, TE 1, 5, 10 and 11 stated, in more general terms, that it was difficult to apply their preferred approaches because of the class size. Interestingly, TE 11 stated that despite the LCA not being suitable for big classes, the teacher could try to teach '*as much as possible with the LCA.*' This implied that, despite these difficulties, this TE had very much bought into the reform agenda and associated pedagogic renewal that had been spear-headed by the EfECT project:

*TE 1: Difficult. it is difficult for class control and time... if the class size is big, I have difficulty to monitor the groups and... sometimes, because of timing I can... I can't give feedback for each group.*

*TE 5: I think LCA is... LCA is the best method and the best approach – but, but it is difficult to implement the LCA in Myanmar.*

*TE 10: My class is I think a little big because my class I have 40 or 50 students in my class. So, this class is a little big, I think.*

*TE 11: Oh. in Myanmar... for big classes it's not... suitable but the teachers can teach... as much as possible with the learner centred approach. For example. When I when I do an activity, the classroom is narrow so that is one the one the teacher cannot monitoring very well.*



Indeed, this was supported by TE 5, when she stated that, although LCA methods were her overwhelming preference, it was very difficult to implement them in a small classroom with a lot of students. However, despite these limitations, she could still use some methods in her lessons:

*TE 5: Some of the methodology are difficult to teach in classroom some are difficult, but I like think pair share. It is easy to use in a big classroom session. Think pair share is easy to do because students cannot move around the class, and when they take, he can turn their face and we can share the opinion.*

As was touched on above, the issue of the application of Learner Centred Methodologies taking a lot of time in class came up a number of times, which was indicative of an overloaded schedule for both TEs and trainers (Hardman, 2013). An example of this is when TE 4 stated that:

*TE 4: And sometimes I use the group work or pair work... and... because of that big class size and erm it takes too - it takes a lot of time to do the activity.... So, it is very difficult for big class size and it is it takes too much time. And although it is a good teaching methodology and if the class size can be reduced and for the small class size, it is very suitable teaching methodology and it is suitable for Myanmar.*

TE 7 also discussed the time limitations of the LCA in relation to assessment, in that the LCA took a lot of time and there wasn't enough left over to check students' learning to ensure that they were ready for their assessment. It is interesting in that there was a direct comparison with the TCA, which took up less time.

*TE 7: The most difficult (aspect of using the LCA), I think assessment. During our period (50 minutes) I teach a lesson and, in that time, I cannot check on student learning during the lesson.*

In keeping with the theme of pressures on time, TE 3 discussed their substantial administrative responsibilities and how the significant temporal investment for attending the EfECT project took away from the time they needed to be able to focus on their teaching. He also stated that 2 years was too long, and training over 4-6 months would have been more suitable. This would have given them the opportunity to spend time on what they'd learnt and try to incorporate it into their teaching, instead of non-stop training for two years with limited opportunities to apply the training.

*TE 3: Generally, I like, I like with the British Council training. However, I believe that it is not as effective as it should be, because we have many duties and function of our departmental work, and we can't get enough time to practice. And personally, I believe that four months or six months of consecutive training will be more effective, because we do and as always making practice and we focus on only our Training on our course. It is more effective for me personally, I think.*

Additionally, TE 10, stated that, when considering the differentiation that existed within the class, coupled with the class size, it was difficult to ensure that all students achieved the learning outcomes of the lesson using the LCA.

*TE 10: Because class is very big and they can't concentrate on my teaching or my activities. So erm, some students are lazy, some students are stupid, some students are slow. So, I think they can't get all my activities and methods. Some students can get many knowledge and many outcome from me. So, 40, 40, or 50 students are not using group work for me.*

However, he stated that the students would get '*many knowledge and many outcomes from me,*' which indicated a preference for the Teacher Centred Approach to ensure that all of the different students in his lessons '*get*' their knowledge, and thus, the LCA was not fit for purpose in a mixed ability class with so many students, which was again, at odds with the survey data.

This was supported by TE 7 in terms of offering a reason why it was difficult to implement the LCA with big groups. It was noted that it depends on the group, but if the lesson was easy, it was seen to be a good approach, however, if the lesson was difficult, using the LCA led to a lack of understanding on the part of the students and it was difficult for TEs to check their understanding. This TE stated that *'if the lesson is difficult and they don't understand, the learner centred approach is very difficult, I can't check all students in my class... I cannot check.'*

*TE 7: For example, if the lessons are easy, we can do with, me and my students we can do the learner centred approach easily and they can learn happily. But if the lessons are difficult and they don't understand, the learner centred approach is very difficult. I can't check all student in my class... I cannot check.*

#### 6.5.1.3. The Furniture – Survey data

While timing was considered an obstacle to the application of Learner Centred methodologies, another problem that TEs identified was in relation to difficulties in moving the furniture in their classrooms, with a strong representation in the survey and interview data. Indeed, this is consistent with the findings of Lall (2011) Hardman (2016), and the British Council's Needs Analysis (2015) in relation to them highlighting deficiencies in educational infrastructure. In the survey data, when asked whether it was easy to move the furniture in their classrooms, the results were evenly split. 50% (n=26) of participants stated that it is indeed difficult to move the furniture in their classes, while the exact same number (50% n=26) stated that it was not difficult to move the furniture in their classroom.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	26	50.0	50.0	50.0
	No	26	50.0	50.0	100.00
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

#### 6.5.1.4. The Furniture – Interview Data

In terms of the interview data, difficulties in moving the furniture were related to TEs ability to put students into small groups, students being able to move around the classroom, and TEs being able to effectively monitor the groups, thus having a negative impact on each students' ability to effectively participate in the lesson, with TE 2, TE 3, and TE 5 stating that:

*TE 2: It (a big class) is not okay. I cannot divide them into small groups only big groups.*

*TE 3: It's a little bit difficult for me to ensure that all student to participate in teaching learning process according to the sitting plan.*

*TE 5: Because the classroom is small, so student cannot move around their class because of the large population.... So, it is difficult, it is difficult to teach difficult to teach with the learner centred approach and to change their seating arrangements.*

Indeed, TE 3 went further in explaining the problems related to the classroom, its size and, and the difficulty in moving the furniture, in that, when using group work, students could only work with other students immediately beside them. This related to the size of the furniture, its weight, and the size of the classroom. They went on to say that their solution to this problem was to put the students face-to-face, mix the genders and have up to ten students in each group. Again, when considering the overwhelming majority of participants in both the survey and the interview stated that they use group work in their lessons, it is difficult to envisage how this could have been done effectively under these conditions.

*TE 3: Some sitting the chairs, erm, the students' chairs and desks cannot move easily to make.... this is a group of students grouping making a student grouping discussion. I mean the seating plan is, the seating plan... to prepare is very difficult for me because the students chairs and tables are difficult to move to another, how can I say...? another design.*

*John: How do you overcome that problem?*

*TE 3: Erm, I usually use face to face. In one groups 10 students and they make face to face and sometimes, and I mix boys and girls.*

#### 6.5.1.5. Comparison with EfECT classes

In keeping with the literature related to the size of class being an obstacle to the application of the LCA (Lall 2013; Hardman et al. 2016; British Council 2015), a comparison with the size of the classes on the EfECT project by TEs was regularly used in order to demonstrate the difficulties in using the LCA in their lessons, with TE 2, 4 and 7 highlighting the size of these classes as being suitable for the LCA approach, compared to their far larger groups:

*TE 2: I think it is... mostly class size is the problem for Myanmar education but not EfECT training.*

*TE 4: ... and the classes I attended for EfECT was, erm, 25 or 30, and I think this is a suitable class size for the teacher centred approach and we teach erm - we taught and we teach 45 or 50 students, and sometimes I face difficulty to do the activities.*

*TE 7: Not more progress in Myanmar education in the EfECT project because in my country the class size is big but the British Council class size is small.*

While TE 11 stated that, having demonstrated a preference for the Learner Centred Approach, that the ideal number of students in her class would be 30 students, she related this to the physical size of her classroom.

*TE 11: About 30 students would be enough for me... I don't think so some classrooms are not big enough for more than this number.*

There's an argument that the smaller class sizes on the project were a double-edged sword, in that it demonstrated how to use the method with small groups of highly motivated and well-paid project trainers, but not with big groups with TEs who make very little money and work in difficult conditions.

#### 6.5.1.6. Incompatibility of the LCA with Myanmar Context – Data Mixing

While the above data did not support the importance that was given to the development of 'traditional' skills by the participants in the survey, it did identify infrastructural constraints to the application of the LCA, and added another dimension to the potential tension that existed within TEs between wanting to use the LCA to provide a positive learning environment and develop twenty first century skills, and being able to do so within the constraints of their infrastructure. Indeed, the comparatively modest sizes of the EfECT classes (15-25 respectively) seemed to demonstrate to the TEs that the application of the LCA to small classes is optimal, and their class sizes, both in terms of the physical space and the number of trainees, was considered a legitimate obstacle to the LCA. Indeed, this seemed to have been compounded by the bulky and heavy furniture in the room, which didn't allow for any flexibility in terms of how the classrooms were arranged, although some TEs did seem to find work arounds for this problem. The culmination of these factors also contradicted the overwhelmingly positive response by TEs in the survey related to the suitability of the LCA to Myanmar's context, with class size and heavy furniture contributing to what many of the TEs perceived to be a difficult environment in which to use interactive methodologies.

#### 6.5.2. Resistance to change

When considering that the traditional teaching approach in Myanmar is Teacher Centred (Dhammasami 2018; Lwin 2000; Hardman et al. 2016), and that the goal of the reform process, of which the EfECT project seemed to have contributed to, was to modernise the education system via the use of the LCA (NESP 2016), the culmination of these factors, relating to class size, and difficulties in moving furniture led to a feeling among TEs who participated in the interview process that there was resistance to this change process. This was suggested by TE 7 when she stated the following:

*John: Do you think it will be easy or difficult to make this change, because the teachers have to change and the students have to change right?*

*TE 7: Yeah, yes, yes, yes, this is very difficult for me and for my students.*

When asked to elaborate further on what they needed to change in relation to attitude and beliefs and whether this change process was related to Myanmar traditions in education, TE 5 stated that it was. She mentioned that all students and teachers were familiar with the TCA, and that the nature of the change process needed to be comprehensive, with the very clear transition being from the TCA to the LCA.

*TE 5: All of the Myanmar students and teachers are familiar with and teach with the TCA. And also, when I am student, I was taught with and I learnt with the TCA. In order to change - in order to change to the LCA, the teachers' knowledge and the teachers' attitude are also to change, also have to take part in this changing process.*

TE 5 went further by discussing why the *'attitude'* of TEs was important in terms of obstacles to implementing the LCA. She stated that teachers wanted to be the decision makers in their lessons, thus taking that opportunity away from the students. This centralization of the power within a classroom was indicative of taking a TCA to the classroom and was in keeping with the traditional approach adopted in Myanmar. The notion that the key attractions to the TCA are its outcome based and managerial features is pertinent (Han Tim 2004; Lall, 2011). There was also tension here in terms of instilling democratic practice in the classroom in that this comment suggested that TEs were unwilling to decentralise decision making in their classrooms. The fact that this TE stated that this approach is *'liked'* by TEs was also indicative of the resistance to the change from TCA to LCA.

*TE 5: Some teachers want to teach the students to... teach the students by making decisions by themselves. And they do not give the opportunity*

*to the students and they say that erm, they can, they are the teachers, are the decision makers. Some teachers like this. So, for such a teacher it is difficult to implement the LCA.*

When asked why some TEs like being the only 'decision-makers' in their classes, TE 5 talked about how TEs and teachers had to 'change their mind, attitude, and teaching methodology.' That was a lot of change and the impetus and perhaps belief in the change process and the goal of this change was lacking. Indeed, this was explicitly stated by some TEs when they discussed the impact of age, and type of TE on beliefs and attitudes towards the LCA.

*TE 5: Some teachers like the TCA but they don't want to change from TCA to LCA. It is difficult and it is challenging work for teachers. Because we have to change our mind, our attitude, our teaching methodology. So, we have many different changes, many different changes, but some teachers don't want to change.*

#### 6.5.2.1. Resistance to Change – Data Mixing

The main findings from the above features of resistance to change that were highlighted by TEs is that the comprehensive nature of the reform process was potentially overwhelming for TEs, and that there seemed to be a belief that there was an unwillingness on the part of some TEs to move away from the TCA because its managerial style and performance related outcomes were attractive to TEs. This is of course conducive with centralised decision making, but is anathema to democratic principles. This last finding is interesting when considering that 86% (n=43) of participants in the survey gave a positive response when asked whether it was important for their TEs to be involved in decision making processes in their classroom. Again, this seemed to highlight the tension that existed between the development of 'traditional' and 'modern' skills in Myanmar classrooms.

#### 6.5.3. Generational divide – survey data

A generational divide in terms of the use of modern approaches to teaching emerged as a strong theme in the interview data. TEs were asked how old they were in the survey, with the following results:



Table 28 – Age of survey participants					
	Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20.29	7	13.5	13.5	13.5
	30-39	15	28.8	28.8	42.3
	40-49	21	40.4	40.4	82.7
	50-59	6	11.5	11.5	94.2
	60+	3	5.8	5.8	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

As can be seen from this table, 17.3% (n=9) of participants in the survey were 50 or older, with the remaining 82.6% being under 50. On closer analysis of the survey data related to how often TEs used interactive methodologies, the responses were so overwhelmingly positive that it is clear that the percentage of TEs in each age group overwhelmingly used these methodologies either always or sometimes. As such, the survey data is clear in relation to whether age was a factor in how often TEs used the LCA, i.e., it didn't. Indeed, in Chi squared tests checking for statistically significant differences between age and use of LCA methods, no statistically significant difference was found, with scores ranging between .156 and .934. Chi squared tests were also conducted to check for statistically significant differences in age and beliefs about the suitability of the LCA to Myanmar's context. Again, none were found, with scores ranging from .060 to .890. However, there was tension between the interview and survey data in relation to this issue, in that according to all of the TEs who took part in the interviews, age was indeed an important factor in terms of the impact it had on TEs attitude towards the LCA.

#### 6.5.3.1. Generational Divide – Interview Data

When asked whether the age of a TE has an impact on their feelings towards the LCA, all 11 interviewees stated that it did. This relationship between the age of the TEs and their feelings towards the LCA was consistently represented in a negative light, and seemed to be a contributory factor to the contradictions and contestations between data sets that appeared to be an increasingly pervasive feature of the use of the LCA in Myanmar.

Indeed, in the broader context of the move to professionalise the teaching profession via the introduction of Teaching Competency Standards and Framework in 2017 (UNESCO 2017), and the concomitant objective to increase teachers and teacher educators' accountability, this resistance that older TEs had to changes is perhaps demonstrative of the limitations of applying western practice to non-western contexts through its inability to be able to allow for the impact a cultural feature such as age could have on the buy-in to a reform process such as this.

The question that the participants were asked was, how do older TEs feel about the LCA? (Older in this context means about 50 or older) (Higgins and Paul 2019; Robertson 2012; Crosby 2014, Dhammasami 2018) This age was chosen because, in Myanmar TEs retire when they are 60, so they would be in advanced stages of their careers by the time they are 50. While the British Council's Needs Analysis did mention age as a factor in their evaluation, they were not in a position to be able to go into details as to why age was a significant factor to consider in the reform process.

TE 7 gave a succinct overview of the impact age had of the feelings TEs had towards the LCA when she discussed its impact on the buy-in to the reform process in Myanmar, in terms of the fear and annoyance they felt about it.

*John: How do older teacher educators, so 50 plus years, feel about the LCA and why?*

*TE 7: They feel... some teachers feel excited and some teachers feel not satisfied, not satisfied about this. I think so.*

*John: Why do you think that is?*

*TE 7: Some teachers, although they are older, they will continue to learn, they will continue to teach as much as they can. But some teachers, according to their age, some teachers feel annoyed about the*

*learner centred approach, about new techniques in the class... used in the class. I think so.*

*John: Do you think that there's resistance from some older teacher educators?*

*TE 7: Yes. I think so.*

*John: Okay, they feel annoyed, they don't feel satisfied, what do you think the reasons for these feelings are?*

*TE 7: Yes, I think so, most old people are afraid of the challenge of changing in Myanmar, so they cannot, they don't, they don't want to change, they don't want to be challenged. I think so like this.*

TE 2 discussed the age of TEs in terms of older teacher educators being resistant to change and having a strong preference for '*traditional teaching*.' She gave some examples of the types of activities they liked to use, including storytelling, lecture and presentation, while also stating that they didn't use interactive or learner centred activities.

*TE 2: Older teacher educator didn't want to do new activity, method and technique. They like traditional teaching, such as storytelling, lecture, and presentation. And they divided they didn't divided group work pair work. They would like to teach the whole class.*

When asked why older TEs did not like to do interactive activities in their classes, TE 2 simply stated that they '*cannot learn new techniques*.' This suggestion that there was a lack of ability to learn '*new techniques*' was echoed by TE 9. When asked to clarify whether older TEs in all ECs used the LCA, she stated that they didn't for the same reasons given by other TEs, i.e., preparation, practice, and a lack of ability to learn a new teaching method and the resultant lack of required commitment to pivot to the LCA.

*TE 9: They are their opinions they're they cannot learn the... LCA teaching you need to prepare and many, many practice need. They cannot, they cannot because some of the older teacher educators cannot learn and cannot learn a new teaching strategy.*

TE 6 discussed the notion of older TEs being resistant to creating something new, which presented the LCA as modern and progressive and the TCA as traditional and archaic, and indeed, gave the reasons of laziness and boredom as to why this resistance was there.

*TE 6: Yes, some of teacher educators are interested and some are less. Some teacher educators want to create something new and some teacher... some teacher educators want to use the TCA. They don't want to create new because I think they are lazy and boring.*

While TE 10 agreed with TE 2 and 6 in terms of older TEs being resistant to change, however, he gave a different reason in that he drew on the physical demands of the LCA in order to explain why older TEs did not use it. He also stated that older TEs who were in good health were better able to use the approach.

*TE 10: In Myanmar. In Myanmar older teachers about 50 plus years are not fast. They are slow and they are not healthy in classroom. So, I think they can't do anything for the classroom's teaching and learning process. So, the learner centred approach is not good for them. But some older teachers are good for learner centred approach. They are very active and very, very skilful and very talented for the learner centred approach in their classroom, but most of the older teachers are not good.*

TE 1 discussed the fact that older teacher educators (50+) were less interested in using the LCA because they were familiar with the TCA and were about to retire, so the incentives for them to put the effort in to make the wholesale change from the TCA to the LCA was substantially reduced. By contrast, this TE stated that '*only younger teacher educators try their best,*' which clearly implied

that there was a significant generational difference in terms of buy-in to the reform process. Interestingly, she contrasted this resistance to change of older TEs when describing departmental training and demonstrating of lessons, when she stated that 'older teacher educators' teaching was the best, which clearly implied that they used the TCA effectively.

*TE 1: It's just experience. About a third of older teacher educators are less interested in (the) LCA. They are used to the work and they are about to retire. Only the younger teacher educators try their best. They (older TEs) have difficulty to create learning materials and resources before the lesson. Because I have an experience in \*\*\*\* ETC in practical or first year students our department plan their lessons and create materials and resources to get out before the lesson. During our teaching or during our demonstrating older teacher educators' teaching was the best work, the best. Because they have a lot more experience of teaching than the younger teacher educators.*

TE 11 reiterated TE 1's argument in relation to TEs being near retirement as a key reason for their resistance to using the LCA, and also agreed with the generational divide in this regard in stating that she believed that older TEs felt that it was up to younger TEs to commit to the reform process and start to use the LCA.

*TE 11: Old teacher educators. This may be the same as the older teachers' attitude but there will be slightly different, because some older teacher educators are really interested in teaching and they really eagerly try to teach new things, like using LCA. But others, they don't think... they don't... they don't need to try more as they will get their pension. It is very near and I think they, in their minds, young TEs will have to teach (the LCA) instead of it being their duty.*

TE 3's response focused on a slightly different reason for older TEs resistance to the LCA when he stated that older TEs used the TCA due to the length of their exposure to and concomitant level of familiarity with the TCA. This was

demonstrative of a significant resistance to the change process and everything that it involved. In discussing this same topic of familiarity, TE 4 stated that older TEs 'don't believe in it (the LCA).'

*TE 3: I think it can be a little bit challenging for older teachers. Most teachers from Myanmar who are about over 50 years old are unfamiliar with the learner centred approach, before last decade. And on the other hand, they have more familiarity with a teacher centred approach throughout their life, and this is because they use light chat and discussion and memorising techniques in daily their classroom and their teaching. I think.*

*TE 4: I think it is that they don't believe in LCA. They are used to and familiar with traditional ways of teaching – TCA*

TE 5 shared the same opinion as TE 3 and 4 in terms of older TEs being resistant to the LCA due to the level of familiarity they had with the TCA. However, she also agreed with TE 2 and 11 in terms of a generational divide in its use. She went on to comment on the fact that, in her department, there was generational tension between younger TEs who wanted to teach in English because the material for her subject was more easily available, but older TEs wanted to teach in Myanmar, which she regarded as being less effective.

*TE 5: I think older teachers prefer the TCA. Because they don't want to change their teaching style, also they don't try to they don't try to learn new things. They are familiar with TCA. And in my education college, okay teachers in my education college... the curriculum is reformed. Firstly, and now education college retained Myanmar language - all of the courses are written in Myanmar language. But we new teachers want to teach English language in my educational psychology subject. And we teach and we want to teach in English language because it is easy... it's easy to find the resources, yeah there are many resources on the Internet, so we can use them, but the older teachers don't want to try this - they also want to teach in Myanmar*

TE 4, 8, and 9 stated that a significant source of resistance to implementing the LCA was related to the amount of time that it took. TE 4 stated that older TEs regarded it as a *'waste of their teaching style,'* which implied that the resistance was deeper than the amount of time it took. There was also a suggestion that there might have been issues related to their identity as teachers, and that older TEs thought that this approach was *'not useful.'* Indeed, TE 9 stated that older TEs believed that their students should have learnt in the same way that they learnt when they were a student or trainee.

*TE 4: In my opinion, and most of the older teacher educators and (they) don't like LCA because they think it takes a lot of time and... and it is a waste of their teachings style.*

*TE 8: As I mentioned earlier, they are older, and they had to learn with the TCA approach. So about maybe about 20 percent would like to change but others, maybe don't like to face the change and they think this approach is so time consuming and it's not useful... I don't think they (older TEs) believe that it's beneficial. They think it is more busy and so tired learning approach. So, for the time they learn - they have to learn - they're students have to learn how they learnt in their childhood life and... and they also implement this learning in the classroom.*

#### 6.5.3.2. Generational Divide – Data Mixing

One of the key themes from the interview data related to the potential for a generational divide in the attitude towards, and frequency with which the LCA was used was buy-in to the reform process being negatively associated with the age of the TEs. There was also a sense among some of the TEs who participated in the interviews that older TEs either didn't have the ability to learn new techniques, or didn't have the interest to do so because of the level of familiarity they had with the TCA, and the fact that there were close to retirement. These characteristics of older TEs were regarded as being demotivating in terms of investing the time and energy that was required to successfully negotiate this change process. The culmination of these features

related to older TEs led to the impression that the TEs who were interviewed in this research believed that the LCA was a young person's game, and this was reinforced by the suggestion that the physical demands of this teaching approach was prohibitive for older TEs.

The interview data related to the impact of age on the use of the LCA was at odds with the survey, and is perhaps the clearest example of a disconnect between the survey data and interview data thus far. This is due to the fact that there was no statistically significant difference between the frequency with which the LCA was used and the age of TEs, as well as the perceived compatibility of LCA methodologies with Myanmar's context and the age of the TEs. Yet every TE who participated in the interview process clearly stated that the negative relationship between age and use of and beliefs about the LCA existed. Anecdotally, a reason for this could be related to the fact that TEs had more of an opportunity to engage with the topic in the interviews than they did in the surveys. Indeed, this was a key reason behind using this research design, in that, the interview data was to be used to explore the reasons, attitudes, beliefs, and feelings behind the survey data, and that is exactly what happened here. However, instead of reinforcing and explaining the survey data, the interview data contradicted it.

#### 6.5.4. Performance versus Process

The participants in the interview were asked about whether and how often they use the TCA versus the LCA and their reasoning behind this choice.

On considering that the LCA stands in contrast to a highly prescribed curriculum where a great deal of judgement and decision-making is removed from the classroom teacher, historically, there has been a struggle between the TCA, which focuses on performance (outcomes, measurement and management) and the LCA, which has learning (process, construction and participation) at its heart (Lall 2011. Schweisfurth 2015), and this has proven to be the case with Myanmar as well. This contradiction associated with the application of Learner Centred methodologies to Myanmar classrooms in Education Colleges seemed to contribute to an objective choice by some TEs to use Teacher Centred Methodologies. Interestingly, the TCA was characterised in a positive light by some TEs when describing the reform process in Myanmar from the TCA to LCA,



with TE 1 discussing her positive experience of her basic education when she was taught using the TCA. She also discussed the fact that this approach was *'useful for us and for my students.'*

*TE 1: In Myanmar, when I was young, I learned from my teachers with the teacher centred approach, and I learned the lesson by heart, and it was not hard for me. And now I know I learned a lot of teaching methodology from them. I think I began to know that it (the TCA) is very useful for us and for my students.*

#### 6.5.4.1. Big classes, not enough time

In keeping with the earlier discussion on the time limitations of TEs in relation to assessment, curriculum overload, and non-teaching responsibilities, TE 4 stated that, as a result of the pressure class size put on the timing of Learner Centred Methodologies, she sometimes used the Teaching Centred Approach in order to ensure that she covered all of the key material in her lessons:

*TE 4: And sometimes I have no time and now we have the curriculum, and at that time... and it takes too long to do the group activity, and so I use the teacher centred approach, and give a lecture for the explanation about the lesson. And then, sometimes I give homework because of that time imitations.*

Interestingly, when asked whether she believed this was a similar situation for other TEs, her response was, *'I think, yes, maybe.'*

#### 6.5.4.2. New content, TCA or LCA?

Again, in keeping with the performative and outcomes measurement and classroom management perception of the TCA (Lall 2011, Schweisfurth 2015), TE 6 went even further by suggesting that, when new content was introduced to the lesson, the Teacher Centred Approach was used, while TE 7 stated that, when the content of the lesson was easy, the LCA was used but when it was difficult, the TCA was, when they stated that:

*TE 6: Teaching time is TCA. When the teacher needs to explain about the lesson, it is the TCA*

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*John: What do you do, then, if the lesson is difficult. Do you continue to use the learner centred approach, or do you change your methodology?*

*TE 7: To be honest, sometimes I change to the teacher centred approach.*

This contention that the suitability of the LCA was dependent on the time available in class and the difficulty of the material was supported by TE 3 and 8, in their belief that the LCA and TCA were more and less suitable for different subjects. When asked whether it was normal for trainees to ask TE questions in their lessons, TE 3 stated that this was not normal, because TEs were under pressure to ensure that trainees passed their exams, so they focused on giving their trainees facts.

There was also an implication with timing here as well. This process took up all the time in the lessons, so there wasn't any left over to do other activities. This TE went on to state that the LCA approach seemed to be more compatible with certain subjects, with history and geography given as examples of subjects where the LCA might not be effective because there was so much information that the students needed to know, and this was supported by TE 8. These were interesting interactions because it tied the effectiveness of the TCA directly with the curriculum and assessment, and the LCA was seen as a less effective approach to ensuring that trainees did well in their exams or indeed, learn the information they needed to know.

*John: In Myanmar, is it normal for students to ask teachers questions?*

*TE 3: In my opinion not. In the last decades the teacher, the teaching methodology is teacher centred approach. They focus on the facts and rote learning. So, the teacher wants the students to pass their examination with high marks and then, and then they give many important facts and give notes and the student write down their notes*

*so that the time is, so that the timing, the students don't get time to ask their teacher questions.*

*John: Okay, so the assessment puts pressure on the time in the lessons, is that correct?*

*TE 3: Yes, yes.*

*John: Do you think that's good or bad for the learner centred approach?*

*TE 3: I think some lessons it is good for some lessons, and but for most lessons it is bad. For example, some formula and some English vocabulary it's good, but in History or Geography it's not good, because there's so many different ideas and different Information to know for the student.*

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*TE 8: I think some subject is appropriate... appropriate with the LCA and some subjects are more appropriate with the TCA approach.*

*John: Can you give me some examples and reasons for that?*

*TE 8: Yes, so sometime for teaching Math we have to think all... we have to make our student to think of their prior knowledge and we need to connect this prior knowledge to our topic. So, it is important and is appropriate for LCA teaching. So, for History, for the subject like this it is more appropriate for TCA because... the teacher has to tell about the history and why the King, the King and their Kingdom had to suffer for his mistake. So, it's more appropriate for TCA. And then we can use LCA in this subject year at the end of their lesson why they have to do like this, how can I do in the future, not to be mistake like this.*

### 6.5.4.3. Is type of TE important?

Interestingly, the belief that the TCA and LCA were more suitable for certain subjects extended to type of teacher educator as well, in that, 8 of the 11 TEs believed that this was a definitive factor in how a TE felt about using the LCA in their classroom (TE 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, and 11). Whether the TEs who participated in the interviews were academic, methodology or co-curricular was an important consideration here. Please see the below table:

Table 29 – Type of TE – Interview data

	Methodology	Academic	Co-Curricular
TE 1	*		
TE 2			*
TE 3	*		
TE 4		*	
TE 5	*		
TE 6	*		
TE 7	*		
TE 8		*	
TE 9		*	
TE 10		*	
TE 11		*	

In cross referencing the TEs who believed that type of TE was an important consideration in terms of how they felt about the LCA, it is worth highlighting that 4 of the 5 methodology TEs, and the one co-curricular TE who participated in the interviews believed this to be the case, with 2 of the 5 academic TEs doing so. This was exemplified by TE 6 when she stated that:

*TE 6: Erm, I think the methodology and co-curricular teacher educators like the LCA. I think, I think... erm, some of the academic teacher educators don't use LCA... Most of academic teacher educator teaching in the classroom that I saw I saw their teaching – they don't use it.*

#### 6.5.4.4. Subject Mastery versus teaching techniques

In terms of looking into the reasons the methodology and co-curricular TEs felt this way, TE 1 introduced themes that are consistent throughout the responses, in stating that methodology teacher educators had more familiarity with *'methodology, teaching techniques, and strategies,'* and that academic TEs believed that, in order to achieve subject mastery, the TCA was a better approach to take in their lessons. The notion that academic TEs believed that subject mastery and using the LCA were incompatible was clear here and could be associated with the previously mentioned struggle between the TCA, which focuses on performance (outcomes, measurement and management) and the LCA, which has learning (process, construction and participation) at its heart (Lall 2011. Schweisfurth 2015). This could also be related to the legacy of the Royal / Buddhist provision of education and the approach that was used then to master the Dhamma and lay subjects, which would have been TCA (Dhammasami 2018; Crosby 2014; Lwin 2000; Shah and Cardozo 2019; Maher 2019).

*TE 1: Yes, I think... I think type of teacher educators affects the feelings teacher educators have towards the LCA. Because methodology teacher educators are more familiar with methodology, teaching techniques, and strategies... and they understand, they understand the importance of methodology to teach the students. And another reason is that some academic teacher educators have the belief that subject mastery is more important than methodology to teach the students.*

TE 5 elaborated on why methodology TEs were more familiar with methodology, teaching techniques and teaching strategies in discussing the fact that, on a structural level, there were implications in terms of whether type of TE affects their attitude towards the LCA. This was related to the fact that methodology TEs were taught about pedagogic practice, theories of education, and the psychology of learning in their universities, but academic and co-curricular TEs specialised in their subject, not how to teach it, and consequently found it difficult to use the LCA. Indeed, this was touched on by Borg et al. (2018) and the British Council's Needs Analysis (2015) in that recruitment for

academic TEs was generally directly from university, whereas recruitment for methodology and co-curricular subjects was often from the basic education system and Universities of Education.

*TE 5: Yes, yes, I am a methodology teacher, because I became familiar with theory, psychology, and methodologies from when I was a bachelor student. These topics are familiar with us so I know that I want to change to LCA. But some teachers, academic teachers and also co-curriculum teachers, and they came from a different university, and their university didn't teach them about methodology, psychology, and theory education and methodology psychology and theory, so they are far away from this subject. So, for these academic and co-curricular teachers will find difficult to teach the LCA. This is just my opinion.*

TE 3 and 5 agreed that academic TEs in general did not use the LCA, with TE 2 going even further in suggesting that their role was incompatible with the key objective of the training that took place in ECs, by stating that academic TEs were suitable for university programmes, where subject mastery was the goal, but not in Education Colleges. While TE 3 discussed how academic TEs didn't use the LCA because it was not necessary for them to, as it was only related to the teacher training component of the role, which fell within the remit of methodology TEs and not academic.

*TE 2: Different, very different. Academic can teach TCA. Methodology and co-curricular are the same. They need to they need to do more activity... Academic subject is suitable for university. Only university, not an Education Degree College.*

*TE 3: In my own view, yes. I think type of teacher educator (methodology, academic, co-curricular) may affect the feelings teacher educators have towards the LCA. Because some academic teacher educators such as geography, history, economics, etc., they sometimes said LCA is no need for them. It is for the methodology teachers. Especially, when we (the methodology) make the*

*demonstration teaching to the trainees for their bloc teaching, they (academic and co-curricular TEs) always avoid this process.*

Interestingly, the two academic TEs who agreed that type of TE did indeed impact feelings towards the LCA, shared the opinion that academic TEs were less inclined to use the LCA for the same reason as above, i.e., that they taught subject mastery. Additionally, TE 11 suggested that the academic TEs role was to support methodology TEs.

*TE 10: Especially methodology and co-curriculum teachers are more suitable LCA methods for their subjects and classroom activities. But academic teachers are suitable for TCA methods. For example, English academic and Myanmar Language and so on, but not all academic teachers.*

*TE 11: I think the type of Teacher Educator (academic, methodology, co-curricular) affects the feelings teacher educators have towards the LCA. Because it depends on the nature of subjects. For example; in co-curricular subjects lead to use LCA and more opportunity to use LCA. In academic subjects, we focus on subject content and we have difficulty to use LCA. For example, Mathematics academic is very difficult to teach. But I tried to use LCA in teaching Maths academic. In methodology, TEs have more chance to use LCA because methodology TEs have responsibility to apply LCA, and they have to train their trainees how to use LCA in their peer group teaching and their bloc teaching, whereas academic teachers have just helper to methodology teachers.*

#### 6.5.4.5. What about co-curricular?

However, while there was arguably consensus in terms of the compatibility between using the LCA and methodology TEs on the one hand, and the compatibility between using the TCA and academic TEs on the other, this consensus didn't hold in relation to the feelings TEs have towards co-curricular TEs. As the only co-curricular TE who participated in the interview process, TE 2 clearly drew a comparison between co-curricular and methodology TEs in terms

of their attitude towards the LCA.

*TE 2: Co-curricular and methodology are the same thing. Co-curriculum is essential. Because co-curricular helps students to be more strong, brave and clever.*

While TE 3, TE 5, and 9 (for TE 5, please see above) believed that, due to the practical nature of co-curricular subjects, they had less opportunities to use the LCA.

*TE 3: As well, co-curricular teacher educators also view (that the LCA) is not for them. Their subjects are practical activities, and they suppose only giving model action in front of the learners is enough.*

*TE 9: No, no not the same, not the same a little different I think a little different because co-curricular teacher educator are a little different, I think. Co-curricular erm teachers are... mostly they are, they are erm they are practical subjects mostly. For example, physical education. Some of them do not prepare the lesson plan and lesson plan teaching they can use physical exercise, physical exercise, they can do physical exercise.*

#### 6.5.4.6. Contemporary influence of historical Royal and Religious provision of Education

Moving away from the impact type of TE has on their feelings towards the LCA, there was also strong push back from TE 3 in relation to implementing the LCA and why it wasn't compatible with Myanmar and its context. The language of provision was mentioned, class size, and the historical influence of the conceptualisation of teaching, teachers and their relationships with their students and the effect this had on enhanced interaction in his lessons is considered problematic.

*TE 3: However, due to the size of the class and Myanmar educational tradition, I feel that It (the LCA) is not as effective as it should be.*



*According to the class, the size of class, the number of learner is high. And we speak Burmese or Myanmar instead of English. And, according to Myanmar tradition, student are afraid of their teachers and less interaction between trainer and trainee, I think.*

When asked to explain why students were afraid of their teachers, TE 3 pointed to the legacy of the Buddhist monastic provision of education and that the monks who taught the laymen were very highly respected and as such, the laymen had to obey the monk's teachings – and this was the root of the teacher and student relationships in Myanmar - this informed it and provided its boundaries (Dhammasami 2018; Crosby 2014, Lwin 2000).

*TE 3: It is, I think it is the Myanmar education is come from the Buddhist monastery teaching. In in history, the teaching is in monastery so monastery the monks and the layman, so the laymen is to obey the monks' teaching. I think it is the root of... How can I say? The history of teaching between the teacher and the students' relationship.*

TE 7 supported this contention that questioning in lessons was problematic when she stated that the TCA was the traditional approach in Myanmar because, as she put it, *'all students think that teachers are a noble person in our mind, so we cannot describe our opinion to our teacher. I think so - this is because we are afraid.'* This corresponded very strongly with the literature relating to the Royal, Monastic, and Sangha provision of education in Myanmar and its contemporary impact.

TE 7 went further by stating that this *'traditional'* approach in Myanmar was an obstacle to the implementation of the LCA. In terms of how she went about solving this problem, she said she was usually friendly and smiled a lot in class and this made the trainees feel comfortable enough to express their opinions.

*John: Okay, and do you think that is (apprehension to ask questions and to give opinions) an obstacle to the learner centred approach?*

*TE 7: Yes, yes, absolutely.*

*John: How do you think it's possible to solve that problem?*

*TE 7: For me, I smile I smile I usually smile to my students, and they can give they can tell everything and I accept them.*

Having declared that trainees and students in Myanmar were 'afraid to ask questions and give opinions,' and in-so-doing agreeing with TE 3 and 7's characterisation of the impact the historical provision of education had had on the modern conceptualisation of teachers, TE 1 gave some background information related to the widespread use and preference for the TCA. She stated that, 'younger people respect elders, and they are polite, they listen to elders, and they don't ask questions.' This situation poses obstacles to the LCA which requires a more egalitarian approach to the student teacher relationship, and puts questioning at the heart of its success. Indeed, questioning elders was considered 'rude' according to this TE. When asked whether this context was an obstacle to the implementation of the LCA, this TE stated that she believed that 'Myanmar traditions and teaching style' were indeed obstacles to it.

*John: why are Myanmar students afraid to give their opinion or ask questions do you think?*

*TE 1: I think this is according to the learning method - according to the methodology that the teacher uses, and Myanmar traditions... In Myanmar younger people respect to the elders to the elders and they are polite, and they listen to the elders and they don't ask the questions. The questions to the elders is rude, I think.*

*John: Okay, do you think the Myanmar traditions are an obstacle to the LCA?*

*TE 1: Yeah, Myanmar tradition and the teaching style of teacher I think. Maybe.*

#### 6.5.4.7. Performance versus Process – Data Mixing

Parallel to the belief that new content should be taught using the TCA, there was also a prevailing belief among TEs who were interviewed that the TCA was a more suitable teaching style for subject mastery, which was the goal of academic TEs, whereas the LCA was more suitable for developing teaching techniques, which was the responsibility of Methodology TEs. There were also discussions related to the suitability of the LCA in the context of the contemporary implications of the historical Buddhist provision of education in Myanmar, whereby the teacher student relationship was framed within a strict hierarchical structure, which was deemed incompatible with the required decentralisation of decision making within the pedagogy of a Learner Centred classroom.

As has been the case in all of the sections related to discussing the incompatibility of the LCA with the Myanmar context, the sections above related to the results of these contestations and contradictions demonstrated clear evidence of a tension between the survey and interview data in terms of the TEs stated preference for the LCA, and indeed its suitability to Myanmar's context. This section also goes a long way in providing more background on the tension that emerged in the survey regarding the TEs stated importance of teaching both 'modern' and 'traditional' skills to their trainees. The latter was seemingly heavily associated with the type of TE, classroom size and the resultant time pressures, a desire for a more centralised and teacher led classroom dynamic, and finally, the contemporary implications of the Buddhist historical provision of education. This final factor could be attributed to the continued presence of teachers on the list of 5 gems within Buddhism, which include the Buddha himself, Buddhist scripture, Monks, and Parents – all of whom are deemed to be teachers in their own rights (Crosby 2014).

#### 6.6. Conclusion

The use of the EfECT project as an instrumental Case study and an explanatory sequential mixed methods research design in this project has presented some interesting findings. At this point, it is important to restate the purpose of this research design. Firstly, the EfECT project was used in an instrumental manner

in order to understand the individual case, while being representative of the Education and Development sector as a whole. The survey was then used to gather data related to the attitudes, beliefs, and feelings that TEs have towards the EfECT project. Finally, the interviews were used in order to explore these attitudes, feelings, and beliefs through the TEs' evaluation of the British Council and content of the EfECT project. It can clearly be seen from the above findings that there are both convergences and divergences between the data sets.

In terms of the beliefs TEs had regarding the knowledge the British Council had of the existing education system and context, it is clear that the positive survey data was consistent with the interview data. This was characterised, on the one hand, by the overwhelmingly positive responses in these variables in the survey, and on the other through discussions in the interviews related to the swell of appreciation towards the BC for providing the training in the first place, and the elevated status they were given in terms of, not only being knowledgeable about the context, but also experts in the provision of 'modern' training. Indeed, the EfECT project in particular was regarded as a resounding success by TEs, primarily due to the mode of delivery, the focus on its positive impact on their practice and profession, and the associated improved English language skills through the language of provision. However, language of provision did also prove to be a source of divergence between the two data sets, in that the majority of survey participants clearly would have preferred it had the language of instruction been Myanmar.

One of the key findings from this chapter is related to the tension that became apparent between the importance given by TEs in the survey to the provision of 'modern' and 'traditional' skills to their trainees, in that an equal amount was given to each. This tension was related to the associated pedagogies with each, in that 'modern' skills are more heavily associated with the LCA and 'traditional' with the TCA. This tension was compounded in the survey data by the fact that a substantial majority of TEs gave an overwhelmingly positive response to the frequency with which they used learner centred methodologies, and their suitability with Myanmar's context.

Indeed, this tension played out in the interview data, in that all of the TEs stated that they frequently use learner centred methodologies, and drew from

their own experience as students in basic education in Myanmar as a motivation for this. Connectedly, they also stated that they want to create a positive learning environment and that learner centred methodologies achieved this, whereas teacher centred ones didn't. There was also an acute sense of responsibility on the part of TEs to contribute to Myanmar's economic development and democratic transition, all of which correlated strongly with survey data related to the use of learner centred methodologies and the importance of teaching 'modern' skills to their trainees.

However, infrastructural considerations, lack of buy-in to the reform process, generational considerations, curriculum overload, structural considerations related to type of TE, and the contemporary influence of the historical royal and religious provision of education in Myanmar all presented themselves as obstacles to the implementation of the LCA in Myanmar Education Colleges. These contextual, structural, and cultural considerations contributed to the aforementioned divergence between the overwhelmingly positive attitudes, opinions, feelings, and beliefs of TEs in the survey and the more balanced themes that emerged in the interviews.

## Chapter 7 – Discussion, Recommendations, and Conclusion

### 7. Introduction

This final chapter seeks to answer the question ‘What are the findings of a Postcolonial analysis of the opinions of Myanmar TEs of training that they received which was funded and provided within the Education and Development Sector?’

It is impossible to answer this question without first giving a full account of who the TEs are and what exactly it is they gave their opinions about. Hence the extensive contextualisation and background information in chapter 2, and the literature review of the Education and Development sector and the role of Northern practice of teacher education therein in chapter 3. The methodology chapter clarified the ontological and epistemological foundation of the research design, i.e., the use of an instrumental Case Study (the EfECT project) and a dialogical Mixed Methods design to generate data from the TEs about their opinions of this Case Study which sought to mix a post-positivist and constructivist understanding of the data, as well as the key theoretical concepts of Postcolonial theory that were used to frame the discussion.

From here, there was a discussion in chapter 5 of the EfECT project, its conception, development, provision, and monitoring and evaluation, and the manner in which this project is representative of the Education and Development sector as a whole. Chapter 6 presented, mixed, and framed a dialogue between the quantitative and qualitative data that was generated by the TEs about the EfECT project in particular, and the provision of education more generally in Myanmar.

Finally, in the discussion chapter, this data was discussed using key concepts from Postcolonial theory with the goal of answering the research question, which is accompanied by recommendations for further research and the Education and Development sector as a whole.

In terms of the Postcolonial component of this discussion, the intention is to problematize the socio-historical application of the theories that underpin the Education and Development sector to Myanmar. In order to achieve this goal, this chapter analysed the findings from the previous two chapters using the key features of Postcolonial theory which were discussed in chapter 4. As such, the layout of the discussion chapter is as follows:

- A Postcolonial discussion of the Case Study i.e., the EfECT project, plus recommendations.
- A Postcolonial discussion of the opinions of TEs towards the British Council and the EfECT project, plus recommendations.
- A Postcolonial discussion of the opinions of TEs towards the Language of Provision for the EfECT project, plus recommendations.
- A Postcolonial discussion of the opinions of the TEs towards the methodologies taught on the EfECT project, plus recommendations.
- A Postcolonial discussion of the Contestations and Contradictions from the data, plus recommendations.

### 7.1. A Postcolonial discussion of the Case Study – i.e., The EfECT Project.

In order to answer this research question, a Postcolonial discussion of the instrumental Case Study that was used as a proxy for the Education and Development sector is necessary in order to situate it within the theoretical framework used and to clarify what exactly it was that the teacher educators gave their opinion of.

In terms of discussing the EfECT project using a Postcolonial lens, Edward Said's concept of representation was used. As previously discussed in Chapter 4, this concept presupposes that Western systems of cultural description of the East are deeply contaminated with the politics, the considerations, the positions, and the strategies of colonial power (Said 1978, p. 150, as referenced in Moore-Gilbert 2000, p. 34). These representations of the East by the West within Said's Orientalism operate in the service of the West's hegemony over the East primarily by producing the East discursively as the West's inferior 'Other.' This

strengthens the West's self-image as a superior civilisation. It does this principally by distinguishing and then essentializing the identities of the East and West through a dichotomising system of representations embodied in the regime of stereotype, with the aim of making rigid the sense of difference between the European and Asian parts of the world (Ibid). Due to Britain's colonial legacy in Myanmar and the demonstrable policy and funding flow from the Global North to the Global South which was explored in chapter 3, for the purpose of this discussion, the West is personified by the British Council and the EfECT project, and the East is personified by the local educational context in Myanmar.

Within this framework of discussing the EfECT project and its Needs Analysis, there was a clear preference for one epistemology. By virtue of the fact that the literature and theories that underpinned the project were from the Global North, the funding was from the Global North, the fact that the project drew from Northern practice in teacher education, the overwhelming majority of the trainers were from the Global North (there was only 1 local trainer out of over 40), the language of instruction was English, and that all of the management team were from the Global North, it is fair to presume that all elements of this project were informed by the dominant world view from the Global North. This included all elements of the conception, development, delivery and evaluation of the project. This worldview is characterised by the dominant features of the Education and Development sector, namely, Human Capital Theory and Democratisation, with the reification of these theories being the LCA.

Equally, through the absence of local trainers, local management, and the local language it is fair to say that local epistemologies were absent in this project. This in-and-of-itself is indicative of a privileging of Northern epistemologies over local ones, and also situates practice from the Global North within teacher education as superior to local ones.

It could also be argued that one of the key aims of the project, which was to introduce TEs to modern teaching methodologies, is problematic. This could be interpreted as falling within the concept of pedagogic renewal, whereby there



is pivot from the TCA, which is considered traditional, to the LCA, which is considered modern. Again, the characterisation of the TCA as traditional positions it in opposition to modern. Through this positionality, coupled with the direct connection that has been made between the LCA, Human Capital Theory, and Democratisation in the literature review, Western epistemologies are seen as the best suited in negotiating modernity.

Additionally, this absence of meaningful consideration given to the local context is compounded by the fact that teacher educators were treated as trainees on the EfECT project, and that addressing their lack of competence as teachers was a priority goal of the project (Borg et al. 2018). This clearly indicated a lack of regard for the teacher educators' prior knowledge, prior experience and teaching beliefs. This stated objective of the EfECT project not only privileged Northern epistemologies, but also discursively positioned local practice as inferior to Northern through the participants' demotion from teacher educators to trainees, and in-so-doing created a dependency on the perceived expertise of the British Council in addressing this deficiency.

The culmination of this Postcolonial analysis of the EfECT project clearly demonstrates that the manner in which Myanmar education was represented by the British Council and the EfECT project was inferior to that of the Global North. Perhaps the most pertinent aspect of this representation was the demotion of teacher educators in the eyes of the project to that of trainees. This demotion was based on a value-laden evaluation of their practice, which was drawn from the dominant epistemologies of the Global North. There was little, if any, consideration given to the complexity of the cultural, structural, and infrastructural context in which this education was being provided.

As such, the manner in which Myanmar's education system was represented by the British Council reinforces the belief within Said's Orientalism that, through the Othering of the East, the necessity for 'colonial' governance is axiomatic. In the context of this discussion, this could be translated to mean that the superiority of the Northern practice within teacher education was self-evident. The above analysis does seem to support this contention.

### 7.1.1. Recommendations

There is one obvious suggestion in terms of using this analysis of the EfECT project to make a recommendation for improvement to the sector as a whole, i.e., use local expertise to facilitate a more holistic understanding of the Education system, and be aware of the value-ladenness of your world view in the publication of formal documentation related to any kind of monitoring and evaluation. The addition of these elements in all aspects of projects would dilute the impact of the politics, considerations, positions, and strategies of the Education and Development sector as a whole, and allow for the inclusion of local epistemologies, which is more representative of local attitudes, feelings, beliefs, and opinions about education.

### 7.2. A Postcolonial discussion of the opinions of TEs towards the British Council and the EfECT project.

A key consideration in answering the research question is, what are the opinions of teacher educators of both the provider of the training and the training itself? As such, the findings from chapter 6 which related to these topics will be discussed in this section. In order to contextualise these opinions, a necessary component of this section is to compare and contrast the TEs' opinions of the British Council and the EfECT project to the provider's opinion of Myanmar's education system.

For the purpose of analysing the opinions of TEs about the British Council and the EfECT project, Homi Bhabha's concept of mimicry was used (Bhabha 1994). Mimicry is seen as indicative of a destabilisation of the identity of colonial power through the creation of an intermediary class, i.e., between the coloniser and colonised. This instability lies in the fact that this intermediary class translated copies of the coloniser's cultural habits, assumptions, institutions, and values, and were thus seen to have the potential to elevate themselves to the level of the coloniser, i.e., 'almost the same, but not quite' (Bhabha 1994, 86). Through this process, local language and cultures were deemed inferior by

the coloniser and no effort was made to learn them by the colonisers. It was considered the responsibility of the colonised to learn the superior language and culture of the colonisers, which they very effectively did. This presented itself as a threat to the coloniser's sense of superiority and unnerved them.

In the context of this project, it is the legacy of this concept which is pertinent. A legacy which, through the enhanced status of this intermediary class, has ensured that the institutions, culture, and language of the former colonisers have a disproportionately elevated status. As such, the opinions of teacher educators of the British Council as an institution of the former coloniser, and the EfECT project as training which was provided by an institution of a former coloniser will be discussed using this concept. The English language component of the project will be dealt with in a separate section.

The overwhelmingly positive survey and interview data from the TEs in relation to the British Council and the EfECT project was a key finding in relation to the application of the concept of Mimicry to this study. As stated in Chapter 6, this data could be interpreted in such a way as to suggest that there was a taken-for-grantedness on the part of the TEs in relation to how knowledgeable the BC was of the provision of education in Myanmar and their expertise in teacher education. This was in contrast to the above discussion of the EfECT project, which, as previously argued, demonstrated a lack of appreciation for the prior experience and existing practice of TEs and was indicative of the West representing the East as their inferior Other. This tension that existed between the TEs' extremely positive opinions of the British Council and the EfECT project on one hand, and the manner in which education in Myanmar was represented by the British Council in their Needs Analysis on the other, can be explained by Mimicry. On considering its legacy, which includes the elevated status of the culture, institutions and languages of former colonisers, it could be argued that the extremely positive opinions TEs had of the BC and the EfECT project can be attributed to this legacy.

However, it should also be noted that, at face value, the overwhelmingly positive opinions the TEs had of the BC and the EfECT project, could just as easily be interpreted as just that, i.e., the project was a resounding success.

Notwithstanding this, an analysis of this data using Mimicry could suggest that this taken-for-grantedness on the part of the TEs demonstrated a lack of objectivity and criticality in the TEs' opinions of the British Council and the EfECT project. This lack of criticality was in conjunction with the cultural deference towards teachers that exists in Myanmar society (see chapter 2). The culmination of these factors perhaps supports the Mixed Methods research design that was used in this project. That is, by generating two datasets and mixing them, this lack of criticality and deference could be offset by the multiple opportunity to give their opinions, and more importantly by the mixing of the data to identify where the convergences, contestations, and contradictions are present, thus offering a more accurate representation of the TEs' opinions of the provider and project

#### 7.2.1. Recommendations

In terms of using this discussion to make recommendations for the sector as a whole, it is perhaps important for all stakeholders to be aware of the historical significance of their relationships. In the context of the EfECT project, this includes DFID and the British Council, both of which represent official governmental and cultural institutions of the British government, who of course, was the former coloniser of Myanmar; as well as local TEs. If the BC had recognised the potential contemporary impact of this relationship on the opinions of the TEs towards the providers of the programme, they would have perhaps engaged more critically and meaningfully with TEs. This may have led to a better understanding of the context, the result of which could have contributed to the development, monitoring and evaluation of the project. This would have perhaps made the KPIs of the project more representative of the interests and needs of the context, and less so of the sector.

#### 7.3. A Postcolonial discussion of the opinions of TEs about the Language of Provision of the EfECT project

One of the key considerations in terms of answering the research question was the TEs' opinions of the language of provision of the EfECT project, i.e., English. The data from chapter 6 related to language of provision was relatively

inconclusive compared to their opinions of the British Council and the EfECT project as a whole. It should also be noted that English was the official language of provision for academic TEs. As such, the choice to use English was made within this context of it having an official status.

In terms of offering a Postcolonial discussion of the opinions of TEs of the language of provision of the EfECT project, Spivak's concept of representation was used. Spivak's concept of representation is different to that of Said's', in that Spivak drew from Gramsci's idea of the subaltern representing groups of oppressed peoples who exist at the periphery of the dominant cultural hegemony, and thus are not represented by the dominant political class (Jones 2006; Finn 2015). Thus, whereas the agent in Said's version of representation is the coloniser, i.e., the manner in how the coloniser represented the colonised, the agent for Spivak is the colonised, in that they do not have access to the dominant cultural hegemony.

When considering the manner in which the discussion related to how the EfECT project represented the Myanmar education system, and the lack of local representation and epistemology in the development of the project, for the sake of this study, political hegemony is personified by the British Council and the EfECT project, while the subaltern are personified by the TEs. As such, the intention here is to provide the TEs the opportunity to give their opinion on the language of provision of the training that they received which was funded and provided in the Education and Development sector.

Also, of particular importance for Spivak's concept of representation is Derrida's theory of deconstruction, which Spivak interprets as a persistent critique of hegemonic discourses and the representations that inhabit them. (1994, 278, as cited in Andreotti 2011, p. 45-46; Spivak 1999, p. 104). In the context of this study, the dominant hegemonic discourse is represented by the theories that underpin the Education and Development Sector, i.e., Human Capital Theory and Democratisation, and the use of Deconstruction in this project is effectively to problematise the global application of these theories to the local context of Myanmar.

As stated in chapter 6, the mixing of data with regard to preferred language of provision was largely inconclusive. The survey data showed a clear preference

for Myanmar as the language of provision. However, this survey data is set in opposition to the interview data, which demonstrated a clear preference for English, with 7 of the 11 participating TEs preferring it.

While the findings from mixing both datasets were inconclusive, as stated, the survey data was clear-cut in that there was a strong preference for Myanmar. In relation to the premise that fluency in language of provision being a determining factor in the success of education programmes, this could be interpreted as problematic. Also, in framing the choice for English as the language of provision being influenced by the British Council's well documented expertise in providing English language educational programmes, it could be argued that this decision was not in the interests of the TEs and was more in line with the interests of the British Council. As such, in applying Spivak's concept of the subaltern to the relationship between the needs, opinions, and beliefs of the TEs relative to that of the British Council, it can be argued that their voice was extremely diluted or maybe entirely absent in this decision.

However, as previously mentioned, the interview data was far more positive in relation to English being the language of provision. The importance of English in engaging with the international community and personal aspirations for learning the language being key considerations in terms of this positive attitude. As such, while the argument for the lack of TE's voice in the decision-making process that led to the decision to use English as the language of provision is equally relevant in relation to the interview data, it does seem that this decision represented the interests and beliefs of the majority of the TEs who participated in the interview process.

Another key consideration in this discussion on the opinions of TEs of the language of provision of the EfECT project was problematising the dominant hegemonic discourse, which in this case is personified by the theories and practice of the Education and Development sector. In this context, it could be argued that, despite the lack of representation of the TEs in the decision to use English as the language of provision and the concomitant lack of awareness or appreciation of the fact that the majority of TEs within the survey data would have preferred had it been Myanmar, there did seem to have been a convergence of interests in the interview data.

It should be repeated at this point that the survey was bilingual and the interviews were conducted in English. Anecdotally, this could suggest that there was little if any English language skills required to complete the survey, whereas a minimum of a B1 in the CEF was required to participate in the interviews. This could easily be a determining factor in terms of the sample and skew each data set one way or the other.

However, this analysis does seem to support the contention that there are positive elements to applying global theories and practice to Myanmar, especially in terms of the use of the English language in CPD for TEs.

### 7.3.1. Recommendations

Interestingly, this is the first time that there was a divergence between the survey and interview data that was generated by the TEs. There is without doubt a potential impact on the sampling that was used for generating both datasets in terms of the language that was used in each one. However, there are two elements of this discussion that it would be difficult to disagree with. Firstly, the fact that there was such a strong preference for Myanmar in the survey data could be indicative of the previously mentioned premise that fluency in language of provision is a key determinant in predicting the success of an educational training programme. Secondly, the TEs were not asked by the British Council what language they would have preferred the training to be provided in. Indeed, not only were the TEs not asked this question, but there didn't seem to be any suggestion in the Needs Analysis or any of the published documentation related to the project that any language other than English was under consideration. The question as to whose interests this decision served best is pertinent and is definitive in terms of making a recommendation for the sector as a whole.

Bearing all of this in mind, the recommendation is simple and clear: engage with the institutions and people who are receiving the training and ask them which language they would like the training to be provided in, and provide it in that language. This would ensure that the interests of the people who are receiving the training are represented at a decision-making level.

#### 7.4. A Postcolonial discussion of the opinions of the TEs towards the methodologies taught in the EfECT project.

In terms of answering the research question, providing a Postcolonial discussion of the TEs opinions in relation to the methodologies that they were taught on the EfECT project, and indeed, the methodologies that they used in their lessons is important. For this element of the discussion, the previous notions of the subaltern and deconstruction which were used by Spivak in her concept of representation will be used again.

In relation to the opinions of TEs of the methodologies that they used and were taught on the EfECT project, the survey and interview data were in lockstep. In relation to the survey data, the frequency with which learner centred methodologies were used, along with their perceived suitability to Myanmar's context was overwhelmingly positive. Additionally, the interview data demonstrated the desire of TEs to provide a positive learning environment and contribute to Myanmar's development, both of which they believed could be achieved by using learner centred methodologies. Indeed, this contention is supported by the theories and practice that underpin the Education and Development sector as a whole

The previous argument related to the lack of representation of TEs within the conception, development, provision, monitoring and evaluation of the project holds true here, in that it was dominated by DFID and the BC with very little if any representation of TEs at a decision-making level. Despite this lack of representation of TEs, there was a convergence of the interests of all stakeholders due to the overwhelmingly positive data related to the methodologies used by TEs and their reasons for using them on the one hand, and the theories and practice that underpinned the development, provision and evaluation of the project on the other.

However, this symmetry did not hold true in terms of the TEs opinions related to the use of 'traditional' and 'modern' methodologies. As stated in chapter 6, despite the fact that the interview data was overwhelmingly positive in relation to the use of the LCA, the survey data clearly demonstrated that both



'traditional' and 'modern' teaching skills were regarded as equally important. This created a tension, in that, as stated in the literature review, traditional teaching methods are heavily associated with teacher centred methodologies, whereas modern methods are associated with learner centred ones.

In terms of discussing this data relative to Spivak's concept of representation, there are both clear-cut and more nuanced elements to it. On the one hand, it is clear that there is an alignment of interests in terms of the pedagogic renewal that underpins the Education and Development sector (i.e., from teacher centred to learner centred methodologies), which was characterised by one of the KPIs of the EfECT project being to train TEs in interactive methodologies. Despite the lack of engagement and representation of TEs in the development and evaluation of the project, this survey and interview data clearly aligned with this KPI, and in-so-doing supported the hegemonic discourse that underpinned it.

On the other hand, this focus on interactive methodologies did not take into account the importance that TEs attached to 'traditional' methodologies, particularly in the survey data. Although there was an attempt to apply direct-instruction to interactive methodologies in the EfECT project, this was indicative of the lack of representation of interests and needs of teacher educators in the development and evaluation of the project, and had the potential to be problematic, which, as will be demonstrated below, it was.

#### 7.4.1. Recommendations

The fact that the survey and interview data were so overwhelmingly positive towards the use of interactive methodologies, and the manner in which these opinions aligned with the theories that underpin the Education and Development sector as a whole, clearly suggests that the central role this approach played in the project represented the interests of the TEs as well as the BC. It would, however, have been more beneficial had the BC generated data from the TEs related the frequency of use and suitability of the LCA to Myanmar, as well as their confidence in using it. This would have perhaps given

an indication of the tension that emerged in the data for this project related to importance given to teacher and learner centred approaches.

As such, in terms of a recommendation emerging from this discussion, it is clear that, although the interests between all stakeholders, for the most part, aligned, this was done-so without any formal representation of the interests of the TEs in the decision-making process. Had a formal mechanism for TE representation been present, the tension that emerged in relation to the use of modern and traditional approaches may have been identified and incorporated in the development, monitoring and evaluation of the project.

### 7.5. A Postcolonial discussion of the Contestations and Contradictions from the data.

One of the key features of the findings chapter was related to the contestations and contradictions that emerged through the research design, i.e., a mixed method study which sought to engage in a dialogue between post-positivist and constructivist understandings of the Myanmar TEs' opinions of training that they received which was funded, conceived, developed, provided and evaluated within the Education and Development sector (i.e., the EfECT project). Through this dialogue, it became clear that, although there was near unanimity in relation to how positively the TEs regarded learner centred methodologies, tensions began to emerge between this positivity and the structural, historical, and infrastructural context of Myanmar Education Colleges. This section will draw on the aforementioned Postcolonial concepts in analysing the TEs opinions of the EfECT project in relation to these contestations and contradictions.

#### 7.5.1. Incompatibility of the LCA with Myanmar's Context

A key consideration in answering the research question is whether the use of the LCA is compatible with the infrastructural teaching context of Education Colleges in Myanmar. The data clearly demonstrated that there were infrastructural constraints to the use of interactive methodologies, which included the heavy furniture and class sizes - both in terms of the number of

students and the physical size of the room. Indeed, this was compounded by the significantly smaller class sizes of the EfECT project, which a number of TEs in the interviews believed to be the ideal size for the use of learner centred methodologies (i.e., 15-20 students).

In terms of applying Spivak's concept of representation to these infrastructural constraints, the starting point remains the same, i.e., that there was very little representation of the opinions and needs of the TEs, and that the dominant hegemonic discourse flowed from the Global North to the Global South. This lack of engagement with the TEs in the development, provision, and evaluation of the project led to a situation whereby basic considerations, such as the above, were not given the required level of consideration. While there was an effort made in the development of the project to use direct instruction in the EfECT project in terms of taking into account 'barriers' to the use of interactive methodologies, these infrastructural considerations were largely absent in the majority of the content of the curriculum, and the monitoring and evaluation of the project. These considerations were also an element of the TEs' teaching environment that trainees on the project were not exposed to due to the fact that the number of students in their classes were so much smaller than that of the TEs.

As such, unlike the previous sections on the opinions of TEs of the language of provision and methodologies taught in the EfECT project, where there was a convergence of interests between all stakeholders despite a lack of representation of the needs and beliefs of TEs, this was not the case here. The lack of representation of the interests and needs of TEs within the project led to a situation whereby this infrastructural context was not given the consideration it required, or fully understood.

This is also indicative of the use of deconstruction to challenge the dominant political hegemony of the Education and Development sector, which is underpinned by Human Capital Theory and the principles of Democratisation. This world view and the concomitant unproblematised privilege of Northern epistemologies at the expense of the local, did not seem to allow for the

requisite level of representation of these perceived obstacles to the application of the LCA in order for the British Council to have given them the legitimacy that they deserve.

#### 7.5.2. Resistance to Change

Perhaps the most fundamental premise upon which the Education and Development sector, and by association, the EfECT project, is based is change or pedagogic renewal. As such, in terms of answering this research question, the relevance of the teacher educators' attitudes and opinions to this change process is axiomatic. In terms of the data from Chapter 6 related to this topic, of particular note is the all-encompassing nature of the change process. Some TEs talked about the fact that teachers' knowledge, practice, and attitudes need to change and there was, perhaps unsurprisingly, resistance to this change process, which was characterised by the strong belief that this process was difficult.

While much was made of the TEs' confidence in using interactive methodologies in the BC's Needs Analysis, they were never asked what their opinions of them were. This lack of interest in the TEs' opinions about using the LCA was perhaps indicative of the Othering of Myanmar's education system by positioning the BC as superior and knowing better. In other words, in the eyes of the BC, the superiority of the LCA was axiomatic, so asking TEs their opinion about it was redundant. Knowing how confident they feel using a superior approach was perhaps considered more valuable data and is in keeping with the unproblematized application of Northern epistemologies and practice to Myanmar's context.

Another interesting finding was in terms of an opinion expressed by one TE related to the fact that it was believed that many TEs did not want to move away from the managerial and performance related style of the TCA. As stated in the literature review, one of the theories that underpins the use of the LCA within the Education and Development sector is its capacity to instil and develop democratic principles. TEs' unwillingness to move away from the TCA to the LCA undermined this principle.

The culmination of these factors represents more areas where the tension that emerged from the data in terms of the TEs' overwhelmingly positive feelings towards the BC, the EfECT project, and the methodologies taught on the one hand, and the limitations and obstacles of the infrastructural and social context in which the training took place on the other. Again, the lack of representation of the interests and beliefs of the TEs in the project, and the unproblematized application of Northern epistemologies and practice to Myanmar through its Othering by the British Council, led to the above elements of resistance to change not being given the recognition they deserved and being poorly understood.

Thus, in challenging this hegemonic discourse, it is clear that the context in which this training took place was a lot more complex than had been allowed for, and the infrastructural constraints and attitudinal incompatibilities of the use of the LCA does seem to challenge the dominant narrative within the Education and Development sector in terms of the suitability of the LCA and the theories that underpin it to the Myanmar context.

### 7.5.3. A Generational Divide

A Generational divide proved to be an important consideration in terms of answering the research question in-and-of-itself, but also in relation to the above topic on Resistance to change. As discussed in chapter 6, this topic was perhaps the clearest example of a disconnect between the quantitative and qualitative data that was generated by the TEs. On the one hand, the survey data didn't show any statistically significant difference between age and the use and/or perceived suitability of the LCA in their classrooms, but on the other, every TE who participated in the interview process unequivocally stated that age was a significant factor, in that the older TEs were less likely to use the LCA than younger ones.

In terms of how this data related to Resistance to Change, there were a number of reasons for this. On a structural level, the career stage of older TEs and their proximity to retirement seemed to suggest that these TEs' buy-in to the reform

process was limited. Additionally, there was a belief among the interviewed TEs that older TEs have physical limitations to using the LCA because it was seen as an active and physical approach to use. By contrast, their expertise in using the TCA was generally regarded as a strength by the participants in the interviews. It should be noted at this point that, while the majority of TEs who participated in the interviews were between the ages of 30-49 (n=39, 69.2%), 9 of the participants (17.3%) were over the age of 50.

While age was recognised in the British Council's Needs Analysis in terms of it bringing wisdom and experience, they also stated that it would be prudent to make steps now to ensure that those soon to retire are replaced with appropriately trained and supported successors (British Council 2015, p. 7).

Bearing all of the above in mind, there seemed to be a slight convergence in how the British Council and the teacher educators viewed age. For the TEs, age seemed to be an obstacle to the use of the LCA, yet they were regarded as being able to use the TCA very effectively. For the British Council, while they seemed to value the experience older TEs brought (although this was undermined by the demotion of TEs to trainees in the eyes of the project), their focus seemed to be ensuring that their successors were trained appropriately, i.e., in the use of interactive methodologies.

In terms of Said's concept of representation, as discussed earlier, the manner in which the experience and knowledge of the TEs were treated by the EfECT project was indicative of the British Council positioning its pedagogic practice as superior and that of the Myanmar education system as inferior. This was exemplified by the notion that older TEs should be replaced by appropriately trained successors. This was a clear reference to the pedagogic renewal which underpins the sector and the EfECT project.

In terms of Spivak's concept of representation, the data did seem to suggest a convergence of opinions in terms of the impact of age on the use of the LCA. However, while the British Council paid lip-service to the experience and wisdom older TEs brought to their classrooms, there did seem to be a genuine

appreciation for this from the TEs, particularly in terms of how effectively they were seen to use the TCA. This also alludes to challenging the hegemonic discourse of the EfECT project, in that, the unproblematic application of Human Capital Theory and Democratisation by the BC to Myanmar's education system relegated the TEs to trainees due to what was perceived to be their lack of knowledge and application of the LCA. This took place in parallel with the TEs having a high regard for the TCA and is exemplified by their appreciation for the skillset older TEs developed throughout their careers.

#### 7.5.4. Performance versus Process

The discussion on performance versus process is related to the qualitative data that emerged in chapter 6 which highlighted the TEs' frequency of use and reasoning behind using the TCA versus the LCA. It also related to the quantitative data on their feelings towards using 'modern' and 'traditional' teaching techniques. The topics that emerged from this aspect of the data related to a generally positive disposition of TEs towards the TCA, the time pressures associated with their class sizes and curriculum, the preference for the use of the TCA when new content was being presented in lessons the impact type of TE had on this, and the contemporary influence of the historical Royal and Religious provision of education in Myanmar.

On applying the above-mentioned principles of Postcolonial theory to the findings in this section, it could be argued that there was a significant divergence between the interests of the British Council and the manner in which it represented Myanmar's education system on the one hand, and the structural, historical and cultural context that informed the opinions of the TEs in this section on the other.

Firstly, there seemed to be aspects of the structural context of education colleges in Myanmar which lent themselves to a favourable opinion of the TCA. These structural features related to class size, the curriculum and associated time constraints, as well as type of TE, i.e., academic, methodology, or co-curricular, and the implications this had on whether subject mastery or teaching techniques was the goal of the curriculum. While there was a majority

of TEs in the interviews who were of the belief that Methodology TEs, whose remit is to develop teaching techniques, used the LCA, whereas academic, whose remit is subject mastery, used the TCA, the consensus seems to have been that the TCA was more suitable than the LCA within the majority of these considerations.

In terms of the time constraints and class size, the prevailing opinion was that the TCA covered more material in the time allocated for their lessons. It was also found that, when new material was introduced in their lessons the TCA was used, whereas, when the material was considered easy, the LCA was used.

Clearly, these opinions are in direct opposition to the findings from the survey data in terms of the regularity with which the LCA was used, as well as its suitability to the context. By contrast, this data was indicative of a high regard for the TCA, which was in keeping with the survey data related to importance given to the use of traditional methodologies. Thus, the mixing of this data suggests that the structural context of education colleges in Myanmar lent itself to the use of the TCA over the LCA in a significant number of circumstances. Having previously discussed that the manner in which Myanmar's education system was represented by the British Council as being characterised by its othering, and in-so-doing represented the interests and opinions of the British Council over that of the TEs, it is reasonable to contend that the impact of this structural complexity in Myanmar on the opinions and beliefs of the teacher educators had negligible representation in the development, provision, and evaluation of the EfECT project.

Having said that, there was an effort made in the project's curriculum to include the application of learner centredness to whole class instruction with the goal of achieving cultural continuity in existing practice and taking into account infrastructural 'barriers' to the use of the LCA. While this was welcomed, it was undermined by the central role of their confidence levels in using the LCA in Needs Analysis questionnaire, an overwhelming preference for interactive methodologies in the curriculum, as well as the absence of direct



instruction in observation tools for the monitoring and evaluation of the project (see Appendix A, B, C, and D).

The application of the previously mentioned features of Postcolonial theory to these findings presents convergences and divergences of interests between stakeholders. In terms of Spivak's concept of representation, the impact of the structural context of Myanmar's education system on the frequency of use and reasons for using the TCA at the expense of the LCA was not featured in the British Council's Needs Analysis. As such, it could be argued this structural context was not given sufficient representation in the development, monitoring and evaluation of the project. Indeed, the BC's Needs Analysis characterised the use of the TCA as the reification of a transmission-based accumulation model to teacher education, which in taking all of the above into consideration, could be argued as an oversimplification of the context and reasons for using the TCA.

This observation can be interpreted in two ways using Postcolonial theory. Firstly, it is indicative of Said's concept of representation, which positions the British Council and by association, Northern practice in teacher education, as superior to that of Myanmar's. Secondly, in applying Derrida's notion of Deconstruction, it challenges this dominant Northern hegemony by clearly demonstrating the preference and suitability of teacher centred methodologies in the majority of the circumstances discussed over that of learner centred ones.

The final component of this discussion, which related to the contemporary influence of the Royal and Religious provision of education in Myanmar, was perhaps the most clear-cut divergence between the interests and opinions of teacher educators and the British Council in relation to the EfECT project. The interview data in this section in chapter 6 clearly indicated that the legacy of the Royal and Religious provision of education was one which is framed by Buddhist traditions whereby teachers were very highly respected due to their presence within the 5 gems of Buddhism (please see chapter 2). This was a definitive characteristic of the student-teacher relationship in Myanmar and led to a situation whereby the nature of the student-teacher dynamic was rigid and

hierarchical. This type of student-teacher dynamic is anathema to many of the features of an effective learner centred classroom, such as the use of questioning, and the decentralisation of power from the teacher to the students.

The application of Postcolonial theory to this aspect of the findings represents the most clear-cut example of a divergence of interests between the stakeholders in the project. There was no mention of this historical and cultural feature of the provision of education in Myanmar in the British Council Needs analysis, the teacher educators were never asked their opinions or beliefs about the suitability of the interactive methodologies to this context, and it didn't feature in any of the monitoring and evaluation that was undertaken by the project.

In using Said's and Spivak's concepts of representation, it is clear that this historical and cultural legacy of the provision of education was not deemed an important enough consideration to be a factor in any element of the project, thus, through this 'sanctioned ignorance,' Northern practice in teacher education was positioned as superior to local. This is also indicative of the TEs' opinions and interests not being represented in the decision-making within the project. Thus, from the perspective of challenging the dominant political hegemony of the project, it is clear that the theories of Human Capital Production and Democratisation, both of which underpin the use of learner centred methodologies, were not compatible with the contemporary legacy of the historical and cultural provision of education within Myanmar.

#### 7.5.5. Recommendations

The recommendation that emerges from this discussion of the divergences and convergences between the data sets that were generated by the TEs is pretty clear-cut. There needs to be an acknowledgement of the potential for complexity, inconsistency, and at times outright contradictions in the context that the training is being provided. The unproblematized application of Northern theories and values to the evaluation of an education system in a non-Northern context creates a situation whereby the impact of local,

historical, cultural, and infrastructural considerations on the attitudes, opinions, feelings and beliefs of local stakeholders are not given the requisite level representation at a decision-making level. This creates a situation whereby the local context is poorly understood and consequently reduces the suitability of training that is provided in these contexts by the Education and Development sector.

As such, had the EfECT project gathered data from the TEs in relation to structural and infrastructural suitabilities and obstacles to the use of 'modern' methodologies, this could have been included in their Needs analysis and the monitoring and evaluation of the project. As is the case with each of the recommendations so far, this would have allowed for the interests of the TEs to be more represented at a decision-making level, and would have ensured that the project had been more responsive to the context and needs of the local stakeholders.

It should also be reiterated that there was no mention of the millennium old state provision of education in Myanmar in any of the published documentation related to this project. On considering the impact of this historical legacy of the state in the provision of education, the fundamental role Buddhism played, and indeed continues to do so in this provision, this does seem to be a significant oversight.

As such, a key recommendation that emerges from this Postcolonial discussion on the contestations and contradictions that emerged from this data is that, when training is provided within the dominant policy and funding flow of the Education and Development sector, developing a clear understanding of the historical provision of education of the context in which the training is being provided, and the impact this historical provision has had on the contemporary provision of education is of fundamental importance. Not including this information at the decision-making level of any project is tantamount to Spivak's concept of 'sanctioned ignorance,' which effectively permits the minimisation of the impact of the complexity of these contexts, and in-so-doing

justifies the blunt and all-encompassing application of Northern epistemologies to non-Northern contexts.

## 7.6. Conclusion

Thus, it is clear that the answer to the research question, which is ‘What are the findings of a Postcolonial analysis of the opinions of Myanmar TEs of training that they received which was provided within the Education and Development sector?’ is extremely complex.

Ultimately, the opinions of teacher educators of the EfECT project are very positive. There is broad consensus in terms of the need for pedagogic renewal and its effectiveness in contributing to the development of Myanmar through the inclusion of skills that are compatible with the modern-day economy. These positive opinions related to the need for pedagogic renewal is matched by the extremely positive feelings TEs have towards the British Council and the EfECT project. Indeed, these positive feelings contribute to a strong sense of buy-in by the TEs and a significant amount of trust in the training in terms of its suitability to Myanmar’s context, as well as the curriculum’s ability to develop the necessary modern skills that are required for the development of the country at large.

However, the complexity of the answer emerged from the dual impact of the dialogic mixed methods research design on one hand, and the use of Postcolonial theory in the discussion on the other. While the research design demonstrated convergences both within and between the data sets, it also exposed contestations and contradictions. Of particular note here is the tension that emerged in use of English as the language of instruction, the equal importance attributed to ‘modern’ and ‘traditional’ teaching methods, structural considerations such as type and age of TEs, as well as the contemporary impact of a long, rich, and extremely successful state and religious provision of education in Myanmar.

In terms of the Postcolonial discussion, the overriding observation is that, through the unproblematized application of Northern epistemologies to

Myanmar's context, the interests of the TEs were not adequately represented at a decision-making level in the project, at the expense of the interests of the provider being definitive. This led to the context being relatively poorly understood by the provider and as such, imposed restrictions on the suitability of the EfECT project to Myanmar's context.

Thus, it could be contended that a Postcolonial analysis of the findings of this project would dictate that, while there are convergences of interests between the TEs and the provider, the lack of engagement with TEs and the concomitant prioritisation of the provider's interests limited its suitability. As such, it could be argued that the answer to this question is the following

1. There are many elements of the EfECT project which were regarded as unmitigated successes. This included the trust TEs had in the provider and the training that was related to learner centred methodologies.
2. These successes seem to have been despite the lack of representation of TEs' interests and needs at the expense of the British Council's. Had there been more engagement with teacher educators, this could have enhanced the British Council's understanding of the context and improved the suitability and sustainability of the project.
3. Relatedly, an acknowledgement of and attempt to understand the long and complex history of the provision of education in Myanmar would have allowed for the project to be more responsive to the needs of the TEs, and in-so-doing, would have given more value to local epistemologies. This would have included the impact of Myanmar's colonial encounter with Britain on their contemporary relationship, the reasons for the positive disposition TEs have towards both the LCA and the TCA, infrastructural constraints on the use of the LCA, and finally, the importance of the contemporary influence of the Royal and Religious provision of education on the conceptualisation of teaching and teachers and their relationships with their students.

These features of the TEs' context are important and should have been given representation at a decision-making level in the project. Had Postcolonial

theory been used as a theoretical framework with which to undertake this project, these considerations would have been taken into account throughout. Accordingly, it is the belief of the author, that through the use of Postcolonial theory within the development and provision of CPD in teacher education in the Education and Development sector, questions related to the nature of the relationship between provider and stakeholder will be asked, the epistemological assumptions will be problematized, and the interests of the local stakeholders will be central.

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## Appendix A – The English for Education College Trainers – a Case Study. Foundations in Teaching Curriculum

EfECT Foundations in Teaching Curriculum and References (British Council 2015)		
Chapter	Unit	Reference
1. Introduction	1.1. Developing Thinking Skills 1.2. Teacher Beliefs 1.3. How children and adults Learn 1.4. The Role of the Teacher 1.5. Reflective Practice	<p>British Council. Learning Characteristics of different age groups. Adapted from Teaching English Primary Essentials</p> <p>Coe, R. et al. (2014). What makes great teaching? Centre for Evaluation and Monitoring, Durham University and the Sutton Trust</p> <p>Fisher, R (2010). Thinking Skills in Arthur, J., Grainger, T., and Wray, D. (Eds) Learning to Teach in Primary School. Routledge, Falmer</p> <p>Freire, P. (1970). Pedagogy of the Oppressed. Penguin</p> <p>Hardman et al., UNICEF and the University of York (2012). Baseline Study, Child-Centred Approaches and Teaching and Learning Practices in Selected Primary Schools in Child-Friendly School Focused Townships in Myanmar. UNICEF</p> <p>Hattie, J. (2009). Visible Learning: a synthesis of over 800 meta-analysis related to achievement. Routledge</p> <p>Kolb, D.A. (1984). Experimental learning: experience as the source of learning and development. Practice Hall</p>

		<p>Lemov, D. (2015). Teach like a Champion. Jossey-Bass. Includes lesson 12 given by Shadell Purefoy</p> <p>Morris, A (2006). Learning Together. Professional development through dialogue for education. VSO and NASWUT</p> <p>Mujis, D. and Reynolds, D (2011). Effective Teaching: Evidence and Practice. Sage Publications Ltd</p> <p><a href="http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk">www.teachingenglish.org.uk</a>  Suggestions for beginning reflective teaching  <a href="http://www.readinglits.manchester.ac.uk">www.readinglits.manchester.ac.uk</a>.  Evaluating Educational inclusion Ofsted, 2000  <a href="http://www.thoughtweavers.wordpress.com">www.thoughtweavers.wordpress.com</a>  Simple guide to Bloom’s taxonomy  <a href="http://www.funderstanding.com/theory/behaviourism">www.funderstanding.com/theory/behaviourism</a>  <a href="http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/learning-styles-teaching">www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/learning-styles-teaching</a>  <a href="http://www.funderstanding.com/educators/piaget">www.funderstanding.com/educators/piaget</a>  <a href="http://www.funderstanding.com/tag/lev-vygotsky">www.funderstanding.com/tag/lev-vygotsky</a></p>
2. Effective Whole Class Teaching	2.1. Direct Instruction 2.2. Structuring and Planning Direct Instruction 2.3. Clear Presentation and Modelling 2.4. Guided Practice, Checking Understanding, and Independent Seatwork 2.5. Feedback	<p>Hattie, J. (2009). Visible Learning: a synthesis of over 800 meta-analysis related to achievement. Routledge</p> <p>Hollingsworth, J. and Ybarra, S. (2009). Explicit Direct Instruction (EDI). The Power of the Well-Crafted, Well-Taught Lesson. Corwin</p>

	2.6. Pace	<p>Lemov, D. (2015). Teach like a Champion. Jossey-Bass. Includes lesson 12 given by Shadell Purefoy</p> <p>Mujis, D. and Reynolds, D (2011). Effective Teaching: Evidence and Practice. Sage Publications Ltd</p> <p>Petty, G. (2009). Evidence-Based Teaching. A Practical Approach, Second Edition. Oxford University Press</p> <p><a href="http://www.newteachers.tes.co.uk/">www.newteachers.tes.co.uk/</a> How to introduce pace and purpose into your lesson</p> <p><a href="http://www.readinghorizons.com">www.readinghorizons.com</a> A blog on how to increase learner engagement</p> <p><a href="http://www.edutopia.org">www.edutopia.org</a> A blog with tips on how to pace</p> <p><a href="http://www.theartofeducation.com">www.theartofeducation.com</a> Instructions on how to use a whiteboard</p>
3. Questioning Skills	<p>3.1. Why Questions</p> <p>3.2. Questions to Engage Learners</p> <p>3.3. Questions to Check Understanding and Application</p> <p>3.4. Questions to Develop Higher Order Thinking Skills</p> <p>3.5. Asking Questions to Include All Learners</p> <p>3.6. Giving Feedback on Learners' Answers</p>	<p>Dunn, D. (2012). How to be an Outstanding Primary School Teacher. Broombury</p> <p>Hardman et al., UNICEF and the University of York (2012). Baseline Study, Child-Centred Approaches and Teaching and Learning Practices in Selected Primary Schools in Child-Friendly School Focused Townships in Myanmar. UNICEF</p>

		<p>Hattie, J. (2009). Visible Learning: a synthesis of over 800 meta-analysis related to achievement. Routledge</p> <p>Lemov, D. (2015). Teach like a Champion. Jossey-Bass. Includes lesson 12 given by Shadell Purefoy</p> <p>Mujis, D. and Reynolds, D (2011). Effective Teaching: Evidence and Practice. Sage Publications Ltd</p> <p>Slattery, M. and Willis, J. (2001). English for Primary Teachers. Oxford University Press</p> <p>Spendlove, D. (2009). Putting Assessment for Learners into Practice. Continuum</p> <p><a href="http://www.education.gov.uk/publications/RR433.doc">www.education.gov.uk/publications/ RR433.doc</a></p> <p>DSCF (2008). The impact of parental involvement on children’s education</p>
<p>4. Classroom Management</p>	<p>4.1. What is Classroom Management</p> <p>4.2. Rules and Routines</p> <p>4.3. Grouping Learners</p> <p>4.4. Instructions</p> <p>4.5. Monitoring</p> <p>4.6. Using Teacher Aids</p>	<p>Dunn, D. (2012). How to be an outstanding primary school teacher. Continuum</p> <p>Harmer, J. (2007). How to Teach English. Pearson Longman</p> <p>Lewis. G. (2007) Teenagers. Oxford University Press</p> <p>Philip, R. (2007). Engaging Tweens and Teens: A Brain- Compatible Approach to Reaching Middle and High School Student. Corwin</p>



		<p>Ur, P. and Wright (1992). 5 Minute Activities. Cambridge University Press</p> <p><a href="http://www.teachenglish.org.uk/article/working-minimal-resources-teacher-training-mongolia">www.teachenglish.org.uk/article/working-minimal-resources-teacher-training-mongolia</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/monitoring">www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/monitoring</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/teacher-positioning-classroom">www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/teacher-positioning-classroom</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article-classroom-layout">www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article-classroom-layout</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/group-work-v-whole-class-activities">www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/group-work-v-whole-class-activities</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/teaching-large-classes">www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/teaching-large-classes</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.theteachersguide.com/classroommanagement.htm">www.theteachersguide.com/classroommanagement.htm</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.teacherversion.fan.com/classroom-management/resource5776.html">www.teacherversion.fan.com/classroom-management/resource5776.html</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.ameprc.mq.edu.au">www.ameprc.mq.edu.au</a></p> <p>A booklet summarising the findings of recent research projects on monitoring learner progress.</p>
5. Effective Interactive Teaching	5.1. Learner Centred Approach 5.2. Collaborative Learning 5.3. Pair Work 5.4. Group Work 5.5. Problem Solving 5.6. Discussions	<p>BBC school's website with teaching ideas, lesson plans an interactive content <a href="http://www.bbc.co.uk/http://www.bbc.co.uk/schools/0/">http://www.bbc.co.uk/http://www.bbc.co.uk/schools/0/</a></p> <p>Brookfield, S.D. and Preskill, S. (2005). Discussion as a Way of Teaching: Tools and Techniques for Democratic Classrooms. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers</p> <p>Budd Rowe, M. (1986). Wait Time: Slowing Down May BE A Way of Speeding Up! Journal of Teacher Education. Sage University Press.</p>

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		<a href="http://www.tes.co.uk/primary-teaching-resources">www.tes.co.uk/primary-teaching-resources</a> Website for the Times Educational Supplement with teaching resources <a href="http://www.collaborativelearning.org">www.collaborativelearning.org</a>
6. Preparation and Planning	6.1. Writing appropriate Learning Outcomes 6.2. Staging 6.3. Learner needs in Lesson Plans 6.4. Adapting Textbooks 6.5. Anticipating Problems 6.6. Application and Reflection	Blooms Taxonomy of Measurable Verbs from California State University Northridge.  Brown, H.D. (2001) Teaching by Principles. 2 <sup>nd</sup> ed.  <a href="http://www.humboldt-foundation.de/web/kosmos-cover-story97-3.html">www.humboldt-foundation.de/web/kosmos-cover-story97-3.html</a> <a href="http://www.kidsdiscover.com">www.kidsdiscover.com</a> <a href="http://www.educationworld.com/a_curr/archives/shore.shtm">www.educationworld.com/a_curr/archives/shore.shtm</a> <a href="http://www.educationoasis.com/instruction/bt/learning_objectives.htm">www.educationoasis.com/instruction/bt/learning_objectives.htm</a>
7. Assessment	7.1. What is Assessment 7.2. Formative and Summative Assessment 7.3. Assessment for Learning, background and Principles 7.4. Assessment for Learning, Strategies and activities	Black, P., and William. D. (1998) Assessment and Classroom Learning: Education Principles, Policy and Practice. March, vol. 5, no. 1, pp 7-74  Black P. and William. D. (2006) Inside the Black Box: Raising Standards through classroom assessment. Granada Learning  Freed, J.E., and Huba M.E., (2000) Learner Centred Assessment on College Campuses, shifting the focus from teaching to learning. Allyn and Bacon.  Mujis, D., and Reynolds, D (2011). Effective Teaching Evidence and Practice. Chapter 20. Sage Publications Ltd.  <a href="http://www.ncca.ie">www.ncca.ie</a>

		<a href="http://www.assessmentforlearning.edu.au">www.assessmentforlearning.edu.au</a> <a href="http://www.suttontrust.com/researcharchieve/great-teaching/">www.suttontrust.com/researcharchieve/great-teaching/</a>
8. Critical Thinking Skills	8.1. Introduction 8.2. Using Critical Thinking in Reading 8.3. Evaluating Arguments 8.4. Developing Critical Thinking Skills Through Debate	Cohen M (2015): Critical Thinking for Dummies. John Wiley and Sons Limited.  Downing, J. Learning to Think. Frontier Myanmar  Education Guardian online (2013) Debating in class how to encourage your students on the soapbox  Spiegelhalter. D (2010) Understanding uncertainty: how psychic was Paul? + Magazine.

Appendix B – Teacher Educator self-assessment questionnaire

**Bio data**

Gender	
Age	
Mother tongue	
Other languages spoken	
Highest level of qualification achieved	
Years of teaching experience	

<b>1. General English Proficiency</b>					
<b>(✓ - tick one box for each item)</b>	<b>Not at all confident</b>	<b>Not very confident</b>	<b>Average Confidence</b>	<b>Quite confident</b>	<b>Very confident</b>
Speaking English with colleagues					
Talking about familiar classroom and academic topics					
Giving my opinions in study contexts such as tutorials and staff meetings					
Pronouncing English clearly so that other people can understand me					

<b>2. Confidence using English in your role as Teacher Educator</b>					
<b>(✓ - tick one box for each item)</b>	<b>Not at all confident</b>	<b>Not very confident</b>	<b>Average Confidence</b>	<b>Quite confident</b>	<b>Very confident</b>
Giving short talks or presentations on classroom and academic topics to my trainees in English					
Setting up pair and group work activities in English					






<b>2. Confidence using English in your role as Teacher Educator</b>					
<b>(✓ - tick one box for each item)</b>	<b>Not at all confident</b>	<b>Not very confident</b>	<b>Average Confidence</b>	<b>Quite confident</b>	<b>Very confident</b>
Responding to difficult questions about the topics being studied					
Questioning trainees to check their understanding in English					
Using the internet to locate teaching resources					








<b>4. Confidence using effective interactive teaching and training methodology</b>					
<b>(✓ - tick one box for each item)</b>	<b>Not at all confident</b>	<b>Not very confident</b>	<b>Average Confidence</b>	<b>Quite confident</b>	<b>Very confident</b>
Creating a classroom atmosphere where the students feel comfortable and are happy and able to work together					
Explaining new concepts/ideas in a way that is easy to understand					

<b>4. Confidence using effective interactive teaching and training methodology</b>					
<b>(✓ - tick one box for each item)</b>	<b>Not at all confident</b>	<b>Not very confident</b>	<b>Average Confidence</b>	<b>Quite confident</b>	<b>Very confident</b>
Explaining a teaching technique, clearly, with relevant examples					
Using basic classroom management techniques such as varying the pace and timing, giving clear instructions and grading my language					
Preparing lesson plans that relate to students' language level, age, diverse backgrounds and interests					
Setting up class discussions in pairs or small groups					
Using a variety of classroom functions (eliciting, nominating, concept checking etc)					
Giving feedback to trainees					
Using in-class formative and summative practices to monitor and assess learners' participation and performance					



<b>4. Confidence using effective interactive teaching and training methodology</b>					
<b>(✓ - tick one box for each item)</b>	<b>Not at all confident</b>	<b>Not very confident</b>	<b>Average Confidence</b>	<b>Quite confident</b>	<b>Very confident</b>
Helping trainees develop appropriate study habits and learning strategies					
Motivating and engaging students in the lesson topic and encouraging critical thinking					
Providing leadership in developing, implementing and evaluating quality teacher education programs					

<b>5. Understanding of and confidence in using teacher training and teaching resources.</b>					
<b>(✓ - tick one box for each item)</b>	 <b>Not at all confident</b>	 <b>Not very confident</b>	 <b>Average Confidence</b>	 <b>quite confident</b>	 <b>Very confident</b>
Evaluating the suitability techniques and materials in different teaching situations					
Selecting suitable materials according to the aims of the lesson					

5. Understanding of and confidence in using teacher training and teaching resources.					
(✓ - tick one box for each item)	  Not at all confident	 Not very confident	 Average Confidence	 quite confident	  Very confident
Designing tasks to use the linguistic and communicative potential of materials					
Able to explain the reason for using techniques and materials					
Using ICT in the classroom, including using the internet to locate teaching resources					



## Appendix C – EfECT Observation Tool

TE Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Observer's name: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

	Observable Teaching Skills and Behaviours	Evidence*	1	2	3	4
<b>Reflective Practice</b>	TE identifies areas of strengths, areas for improvement and ways to improve	Reflection				
<b>Questioning</b>	TE asks questions to engage learners in the learning content (to check for prior knowledge, open ended questions, responding to learner contributions with follow-up questions)	LP/Obs				
	TE asks questions to gauge learning (to check and recall)	LP/Obs				
<b>Interactive Classroom Management and Feedback</b>	TE sets up activities with clear instructions	Obs				
	TE monitors and interacts with individual/groups of learners where appropriate to provide feedback	Obs				
	TE evaluates and comments on learner contributions in feedback	Obs				
	TE uses paired or group work to encourage active participation of learners	LP/Obs				
	TE calls on learners to answer questions individually	Obs				
<b>Resources</b>	TE makes effective use of the board and learning aids	LP/Obs				
	TE adapts coursebook in a motivating way	LP/Obs				
<b>Planning</b>	Lesson plans contain clear, well-written learning outcomes	LP				
	Lesson is staged logically and coherently	LP				
<b>Assessment of learning</b>	Learning outcomes are referred to and assessed throughout the lesson to consolidate learning	LP/Obs				
<b>Comments:</b>						

**Observation:** Base line/Mid/End

\* (LP=Lesson plan; Obs=Observation of teaching; Reflection = Pre and post lesson discussions)

## Appendix D – Teaching Methodology Questions

### Teaching Methodology Questions

Teacher Education Name:

Education College:

Trainer:

Note: In the version given to the students, there is a Myanmar language translation of the examples, but not the methodology.

#### Module 1 Introduction to methodology

Match the areas of methodology (A-F) to examples below (1-6):

- A. Connectionist teachers
- B. Discovery-learning
- C. Developmental stages of learning
- D. Blooms taxonomy
- E. Inclusion
- F. Reflective practice

1. Equal opportunities for all earners, whatever their age, gender (male or female), race or ability.
2. This is when teachers try out new classroom activities and teaching techniques or think about part of a lesson. After the lesson, the teacher thinks about how it affected the learning and what they will change in the future.
3. These teachers believe good teaching means choosing the easiest and quickest method for learners to solve problems. They believe in making links between different parts of the curriculum.
4. 5–8-year-olds like learning through play and respond well to routines. Teenagers have lots of knowledge and they can apply a range of thinking skills independently.
5. A system of categories of learning behaviour – Educators use it to assist in the design and assessment of learning.
6. In this classroom the teacher does not give the learners the answers. Learners use their existing knowledge to solve problems and through this process learn new facts and ideas.

#### Module 2 Direct Instruction

Match the areas of direct instruction (A-F) to the examples below (1-6).

- A. What is direct instruction?
- B. Structuring and planning direct instruction
- C. Modelling
- D. Effective feedback
- E. Pace

## F. Independent seatwork

1. It is important to demonstrate each activity in advance so learners can do the activity correctly.
2. It should link to the learning outcomes of the lesson, and show learners how they are doing against reaching the learning outcomes. It tells them how they can improve.
3. This is an opportunity for students to work independently. The teacher monitors the students working alone.
4. This is whole class teaching. The lesson is teacher led and the teacher directs learning through presentation of key concepts, questioning, and individual work.
5. Teachers control the classroom through timing, variety of activities and interaction patterns.
6. The stages of a direct teaching lesson could be 1) Focus activity 2) Explain the objective 3) Demonstrate the knowledge or skill 4) Guided practice 5) Feedback.

### Module 3 Questioning

Match the areas of direction instruction (A-F) to the examples below (1-6).

- A. Questions to check understanding
- B. Questions to recall knowledge
- C. Closed questions to review learning
- D. Open questions to engage learners
- E. Questions to deepen learning
- F. Open questions to review learning

1. 'OK class, remember yesterday's lesson. What is the name of the largest planet?'
2. 'Think about the lesson yesterday, how do we know light travels in straight lines?'
3. 'Look at the picture of the solar system, what do you know about the planets?'
4. 'Great, so now you have finished describing the sun and the moon, how could you compare them? How are they different?'
5. 'When did the Konbuang dynasty start?'
6. 'What is the opposite of north east?'

### Module 4 Classroom Management

Match the areas of direction instruction (A-F) to the examples below (1-6).

- A. Rules
- B. Routines
- C. Praising learners

- D. Giving clear instructions
- E. Monitoring
- F. Modelling

1. The teacher claps three times. The students clap three times, stop working groups and listen to the teachers.
2. Use clear, simple language, and a demonstration if possible.
3. The teacher walks around the classroom. She checks all students are working on task and they are making progress.
4. The teacher pulls two learners to the board. She shows them how to play a game in front of the class. The two learners perform the game in front of the class and then the whole class plays the game in pairs.
5. Teacher says to learner, 'The way you answered the question with a clear answer and reason was excellent.'
6. Learners must arrive to class on time.

#### Module 5 Interactive learning

Match the areas of direction instruction (A-F) to the examples below (1-6).

- A. Learner-centred approach
- B. Collaborative learning
- C. Peer tutoring
- D. Planning for group work
- E. Benefits of using creative activities
- F. Benefits of discussion

1. An approach which sees learning coming from the learners, with the teacher as facilitator rather than instructor.
2. Before the lesson, the teacher makes a list of groups. She organises them into mixed ability groups to ensure everybody can participate.
3. Learners try new things. They use their imagination and also apply skills from other subject areas.
4. Talking helps thinking. It develops mental ability. Difficult ideas may become easier to when learners talk about them.
5. Learners check and assess each other's work; they teach each other new knowledge.
6. Learners cooperate and work together in a team and get to the final goal together.

#### Module 6 Planning and Preparation

Match the areas of direction instruction (A-F) to the examples below (1-6).

- A. A stage
- B. Anticipated problems and solutions
- C. A stage aim

- D. Interaction patterns
- E. Learning outcomes/objectives
- F. Adapting resources

1. The different ways learners and the teacher work together in class, e.g., student to student, pairs, groups.
2. A section of a lesson, e.g., a presentation.
3. This is what learners will be able to do after the lesson.
4. When teachers think about what learners might find difficult and how to help learners with those difficulties.
5. The purpose of/reason for each step in the lesson, e.g., to give more practice.
6. When a teacher changes or creates extra tasks to help the learners better understand the course book.

### Module 7 Assessment

Match the areas of direction instruction (A-F) to the examples below (1-6).

- A. Teacher feedback on assessment
- B. Assessment for learning
- C. Peer-assessment
- D. Assessment of learning
- E. Assessment design
- F. Diagnostic assessment

1. It's important to make sure the assessment task is valid, reliable and practical.
2. The teacher tested the learners to find out their existing knowledge and skills. Using this information, he planned the learning for the semester.
3. The teacher set clear learning goals for the unit. Halfway through the unit, students review their progress and wrote action plans for how they needed to improve
4. The teacher used the test results to show the learners how they had made progress and gave three areas they need to improve.
5. Two learners observe one learner giving a presentation. They use success criteria to make notes. After the presentation they give feedback to the other learner.
6. The teacher sets a test at the end of the unit. It tests the learners' progress against the learning goals.

### Unit 8 Critical Thinking

Match the areas of direction instruction (A-F) to the examples below (1-6).

- A. Remembering
- B. Understanding



- |   |
|---|
| C. Applying<br>D. Analysing<br>E. Evaluating<br>F. Creating |
|---|

1. 'Look at the animals: Frog, Cat, Tiger, Lizard, Snake, Dog, how many groups could you put them into?'
2. 'Look at the two conclusions in the essay. Which one is better, explain why?'
3. 'Can you give a definition of healthy eating?'
4. 'Design a new type of car, how can you make It more environmentally friendly?'
5. 'Using the examples, can you solve the problem?'
6. 'When did Aung San become general secretary of the Burma Union?'

Appendix E – Reflective Practice

TE name:	Date reflection cycle started:	Meth Group:
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**What Teaching idea are you going to try?**

Peer/ Trainer feedback:

<p><b>Plan</b></p> <p><i>Include a step-by step plan for your <b>teaching idea</b>.</i></p> <p><i>How and when will you do your teaching idea?</i></p>	
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Peer / Trainer feedback:

<p><b>Apply (✓)</b> <i>(Teach)</i></p>	<p><i>Date lesson was taught:</i></p>
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Peer / Trainer feedback:

<p><b>Reflect</b></p> <p><i>What went <b>well</b> when you tried your <b>teaching idea</b>?</i></p> <p><i>What <b>did not</b> go well when you tried your <b>teaching idea</b>?</i></p>	
<p><b>Learn</b></p> <p><i>What did you learn from trying your <b>teaching idea</b>?</i></p>	
<p>What will you do next?</p>	<p><b>Repeat this cycle with the same teaching idea but with improvements.</b></p> <p><i>Improvements::</i> _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>

<p><b>Peer / Trainer feedback:</b></p>
<p>Date next cycle begins:</p>

	<p><b>Start a new cycle for a different teaching idea.</b></p> <p>Next teaching idea: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p><b>Other:</b></p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>
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