

21st century learning and factors impacting on the integration of transformative English language learning into upper secondary schools in Cambodia.

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Statement of originality

This work contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text.

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Abstract

Years of neglect and political turmoil have left Cambodia with diminished cultural capital as countless people responsible for the transmission of cultural and educational heritage were wiped out, all educational institutions were closed, and the traditional links between the different layers of the Cambodian society were broken. Today, Cambodia seeks to rebuild these connections and restore its capacity to participate in the regional and global economies as a valuable contributor. Some of the key hurdles in this objective, as identified by the World Bank, continue to be appropriate integration of education into the community, adequate resourcing, and equitable access to education services for all. The adoption of English as the working language of Southeast Asia has resulted in Cambodia issuing a directive for all primary and secondary students to learn English. While the directive is in step with the recent internationalisation policies of Cambodia, it is not clear what assumptions, needs and factors help advance or hinder its realisation. To identify those, the present study engaged the stakeholder community in perspective sharing, while also preserving the anonymity of the participants. The study focused on upper secondary schools in Cambodia as those schools prepare students for higher levels of learning, where knowledge of English is essential. Qualitative methods of inquiry were used. The study confirmed the concerns raised by the World Bank. The study findings point strongly to a lack of leadership from the English Language Teaching (ELT) research community. This leaves stakeholders at all levels of the system struggling and English language education compromising the transformative objectives of the new education policies and reverting to the traditional models of knowledge transmission. The study uncovered a broad range of gaps in the system that need attention, - especially from research, - relevant to the success of the country's new ELT policies.

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List of Acronyms

DTMTs	District Training and Monitoring Teams
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELE	English Language Education
ELT	English Language Teaching
ELTE	English Language Teacher Education
ETL	Effective Teaching and Learning
IDP	International Development Program
MoEYS	Ministry of Education Youth and Sport
PD	Professional Development
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TPAP	Teacher Policy Action Plan
TUP	Teacher Upgrading Program

1 Introduction

1.1 Study background

The development of Asia in the twenty-first century is marked by a number of challenges, including the need to enhance people's employability skills, infrastructure development, and economy diversification and breaking away from the reliance on the traditional technologies of farming and agriculture (Kaing, 2016; Peou, 2017). The establishment of the ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) community and the AEC (ASEAN Economic Community) was motivated to support the region in these goals and, thereby, to promote collaboration and a better understanding of the nations involved, enhance the economy, while also, helping to reduce poverty (Koty 2016). These developments, so far unprecedented in this part of the world, illustrate a "whole-region" approach to the building of its "new futures" and are a major step forward in cooperation between countries (Lian & Sussex, 2018, p. 38).

The collaboration initiatives of the ASEAN community are critical in the context of the global developments and the world that is presently witnessing exponential technological growth, the rise of university graduates (Hak, 2016), greater differentiation of higher education landscapes (Brennan et al., 2004, p. 44), the rise in rates of school completion by female students (World Bank, 2014) and an increased reliance on shared community intelligence (Lian & Sussex, 2018; Lian, A-P., 2017). In Australia, the government of South Australia plans that by 2025, 40% of 25-34-year olds will have a qualification at Bachelor level or above (Government of South Australia, 2014). Collaboration, communication, knowledge sharing and dissemination, equalizing of opportunities and strong cooperation and mentoring models are the drivers of modern communities and economies that are believed to result in a greater participation of individuals in the "contexts of life" while stimulating social and personal growth and innovative thinking (Global Futures Studies & Research, n.d.). The same drivers are also known as 21st Century Skills, (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, P21, 2009), also echoed in the ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community Blueprint (The ASEAN Secretariat, 2009). The common thread of those skills is the goal of developing a mindset of lifelong learners and the skills and dispositions that this entails (Trilling & Fadel, 2009, p. 40).

Governments globally have developed policies to ensure that adequate support is provided for their nations to meet the competency standards enshrined in the values and goals outlined

above. New visions and new policies call for a new kind of teachers, i.e., professionals that are "imaginative, innovative and intellectually engaged leaders" (Lian, A.B., 2018, p. 17). The push for a greater accountability of the frameworks in which graduate outcomes are articulated and implemented (Oliver, 2010, p. 6) has led to the development of complex graduate standards for all levels of education. Equally, the governments, schools and universities in ASEAN member countries have accepted the need for standardisation of their education systems as an indicator of progress, with a view to building a knowledge society and encouraging mobility and intercultural exchange (Feuer & Hornidge, 2015, pp. 5, 19).

However, meeting the standards articulated in the modern policies of 21st century educational institutions presents a challenge for many countries around the world (Healey, 2014, p. 29), including those in Southeast Asia (Nashruddin, 2020). The need for the ASEAN community to open to both global markets and education systems also places considerable stress on institutions, facilities and society in general, as old ways of being, believing and practices are forced to give way to a society that is increasingly mobile, increasingly multilingual and increasingly confronted with change in multiple aspects of one's daily life. As Lian and Sussex (2018, p. 38) argue, "there will be pressure on how citizens of the region construct their identities, deal with diversity, and move together into the future". The adoption of English as the working language of Southeast Asia and Asia constitutes one of those pressures (ASEAN, 2008, p. 29). Lian and Sussex (p. 38) remark that even if English were to be used primarily in professional contexts, "unless learned to a reasonably high level of proficiency, English will often remain an inadequate, 'quick-and-dirty', solution". In other words, the linguistic barrier is presenting the people of the ASEAN/AEC region with an unsurmountable challenge and their governments with a task of doing their best to address it.

English proficiency levels in Asia are not improving, despite high levels of investment in English (Lian & Sussex, 2018, p. 39). Lian and Sussex (2018, p. 39) argue that educational systems may need to re-think their teaching practices:

"Doing more of the same" in the current educational systems has not brought about the substantial improvements that are needed. Clearly new educational solutions will be necessary to effect some equalization between the different countries.

While examining the English Proficiency Index data collected around the world, Lian and Sussex (2018) show wide disparity in proficiency levels in the ASEAN countries, "with Singapore ranked 6/72 in the world (Very High Proficiency Country) in 2016, and Laos ranked

70/72 (Very Low Proficiency Country”. In 2019, Singapore (5/100 in 2019) is again ranked high (Very High Proficiency Country) and Myanmar is listed 86/100 (Very Low Proficiency Country). Notably, according to the Education First (EF) Proficiency Index (2019), out of 100, countries like Vietnam (52/100), Japan (53/100), Thailand (74/100), Cambodia (94/100) and Indonesia (61/100) also are ranked as Low or Very Low Proficiency countries. (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1. English Proficiency standings of selected countries (EF Proficiency Index 2019).

Low Proficiency			Very Low Proficiency								
47	Belarus	52.39	59	Brazil	50.10	70	U.A.E.	48.19	86	Myanmar	46.00
48	Russia	52.14	60	El Salvador	50.09	71	Bangladesh	48.11	87	Sudan	45.94
49	Ukraine	52.13	61	Indonesia	50.06	72	Maldives	48.02	88	Mongolia	45.56
50	Albania	51.99	62	Nicaragua	49.89	73	Venezuela	47.81	89	Afghanistan	45.36
51	Bolivia	51.64	63	Ethiopia	49.64	74	Thailand	47.61	90	Algeria	45.28
52	Vietnam	51.57	64	Panama	49.60	75	Jordan	47.21	91	Angola	44.54
53	Japan	51.51	65	Tunisia	49.04	76	Morocco	47.19	92	Oman	44.39
54	Pakistan	51.41	66	Nepal	49.00	77	Egypt	47.11	93	Kazakhstan	43.83
55	Bahrain	50.92	67	Mexico	48.99	78	Sri Lanka	47.10	94	Cambodia	43.78
56	Georgia	50.62	68	Colombia	48.75	79	Turkey	46.81	95	Uzbekistan	43.18
57	Honduras	50.53	69	Iran	48.69	80	Qatar	46.79	96	Ivory Coast	42.41
58	Peru	50.22				81	Ecuador	46.57	97	Iraq	42.39
						82	Syria	46.36	98	Saudi Arabia	41.60
						83	Cameroon	46.28	99	Kyrgyzstan	41.51
						84	Kuwait	46.22	100	Libya	40.87
						85	Azerbaijan	46.13			

The ever-growing need for English presents ASEAN countries and their policymakers with many questions regarding the strategies with which English language learning is currently being supported in countries that are ranked low. Recommendations advising that there is a need for “more proficient teachers” (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017, p. 181) do not appear realistic as the population in the ASEAN is high and the proficiency scores continue to be relatively low. Furthermore, replacing traditional teacher-centered learning with more student-centered approaches (Lian, A-P., 2004), while desirable, does not seem to be currently a feasible option in a context where textbooks continue to be the main source of English and where class numbers are high, with teachers being challenged to manage the chaos that a student-centered pedagogy may present (The Global Economy, 2018; Sun, 2019). Undoubtedly, Southeast Asia needs solutions now and the proficiency scores indicate that current solutions are not working well and that there is a need for innovative thinking. These solutions may require models that make it possible for education stakeholders to build closer links as a professional community, to connect, mobilise, and learn from their respective

positions, values and experiences. Community capacity grows when stakeholder communities are able to transcend the limitations of their specific contexts (Jacob, Sutin, Weidman, & Yeager, 2015).

Traditionally, since WWII, in western democracies, education concerned itself largely with teaching, training, innovation and research. Gradually, the role that the stakeholder community plays in improving education outcomes has been recognised, and, now, its role in shaping education and research policies is unquestionable. Jacob, Sutin, Weidman, and Yeager (2015, p. 22-24) define community engagement as building networks, partnerships, communication media, and activities between institutions and communities at local, national, regional, and international levels, formal or informal, in order to have a sustainable impact on society. Edmund J. Gleazer (1998, p. 6), former AACC (American Association of Community Colleges) President, believed that “a sense of community awareness” was a core value upon which institutional functions, purposes and priorities could be defined (Jacob, Sutin, Weidman, & Yeager, 2015, p. 12).

Wenger’s concept of “communities of practice” (Wenger, 1988, p. 3), helped extend the concept of community to professional stakeholders, and emphasise the relevance of context in the learning process. The notion of communities of practice countered the traditional view that learning is something that individuals do and that it has a beginning and an end, something that is the result of training. Communities of practice expand their expertise through reflection that results from communication and confrontation of prejudices and beliefs that inform practice. This, in turn, prevents entrenchment of cultures, a feature that, according to Grayling and Thomas (Grayling 1997 cited in Thomas, 2007, p. viii) too often reflects academic practices.

Communities of practice are formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour: a tribe learning to survive, a band of artists seeking new forms of expression, a group of engineers working on similar problems, a clique of pupils defining their identity in the school, a network of surgeons exploring novel techniques, a gathering of first-time managers helping each other cope. In a nutshell: Communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly.

Wenger cited in Smith, 2009

From the point of view of organisational development the concept of communities of practices raised questions about the benefits that could accrue from a better integration of the perspectives. As Lesser and Storck (2001) recognise, a better communication between the many layers of the stakeholder community can help “overcome the inherent problems of a slow-moving traditional hierarchy”, can assist in handling unstructured problems, sharing

knowledge outside of the traditional structural boundaries, and is a means of developing and maintaining long-term organisational memory.

The present study developed against the backdrop of the numerous challenges that the growing need for English presents to ASEAN countries, their policymakers and English language educators. Policymakers across the ASEAN recognise the need for the involvement of all stakeholders and development partners for the policy to result in raising the status of education in the society, quality education, improved working conditions for teachers, and higher levels of student achievement (ASEAN Thailand, 2019). The processes by which these interactions follow, and their impacts, need to be investigated to ensure that the member countries of the ASEAN, including Cambodia, approach the building of their education systems as a community development process, where community is an asset and a guarantor of informed progress.

The present chapter offers a brief overview of the national context of the current education reforms in Cambodia, the challenges that the reforms seek to overcome and some of the strategies that had been both conceptualized and/or put in place for a greater stakeholder participation in education. The aim of the chapter is to develop a better understanding of the context, or “situatedness” (Wenger, 2007), of the objectives that motivate modern policy development and the struggles involved. The chapter helps illustrate the various tensions that emerge when policies push for modernisation and internationalisation of the education system while the country is both unprepared and under-resourced to meet the new demands. Understanding these tensions sets the scene for this research study and makes more apparent the nature of the “jobs” of the different stakeholders. A close inspection of those “jobs” and the ability of the stakeholders to work as a community are the focus of this study.

1.1 Education reforms in Cambodia

Numerous policy documents that describe the current state of higher education in Cambodia are filled with statistics that quote numbers demonstrating the extent to which Cambodia lags behind its more economically advanced ASEAN members, such as Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia, the Philippines, Indonesia, Vietnam and Laos, (Ministry of Education Youth and Sport, MoEYS, 2017, p. 4). These numbers communicate a sense of urgency for Cambodia to “catch up” especially with its neighbour countries (MoEYS, 2017, p. 4). However, the statistics that compare funding or gross enrolments in education between Cambodia and its neighbour

countries do not reflect the true challenges that the country is facing today and that prevent it from finding itself on level terms with other countries. Understanding these factors is important if decision-makers are to trust the plans and the performance indicators that they devise to improve the *status quo*. The history of Cambodia is one of the keys that can help complement the numbers with quality data.

In Cambodia, the education system has been in place from at least the thirteenth century onwards. Typically, Cambodian education traditionally took place in Wats (Buddhist temples) and was offered by monks (Kell & Kell, 2014, p. 98). Back then, education was linked to religion (Buddhism). It was restricted to a small part of the population and was exclusive, mainly for males only (HBC-SU, 2007). This educational tradition was practised until the arrival of the French into the country and the monks played an important role in maintaining ties between the community at large and the country's institutions. During the French Colonial Era (1854-1953), economic infrastructure was the only concern of the French. Therefore, little value or attention was given to education (Kell & Kell, 2014, p. 98). After the French colonisation (1955-1975), once Cambodia became an independent state, a national education system was introduced. Even with very limited resources, King Norodom Sihanouk brought universal education into existence. A group of educational institutes, such as the School of Health (1953), the Royal School of Administration (1956), the College of Education (1959), the National School of Commerce (1958), and the National Institute of Judicial, Political and Economic Studies (1961), were established by the government (Kell & Kell, 2014, p. 98). Gradually, there were increasingly more secular institutions of higher education built to serve the educational purposes of the country until 1968 (HBC-SU, 2007). However, Cambodia remained largely a rural country (Kell & Kell, 2014, p. 98).

The Khmer Rouge genocide, in years 1975-1979, has left Cambodia with diminished cultural capital as countless people responsible for the transmission of cultural and educational heritage were wiped out, all educational institutions from primary school to higher education were closed, and the traditional links between the different layers of the Cambodian society were broken (Rummel, 2002).

There is growing empirical evidence showing that, unlike interstate conflicts, which often mobilise national unity and strengthen societal cohesiveness, violent internal conflicts weaken the social fabric, divide the population, undermine trust and the norms that underlie cooperation

and collective action for the common good (Colletta & Cullen, 2000, pp. 3-4). According to a World Bank funded study by Colletta and Cullen (2000, p. 4) it has been established that even if other forms of capital are replenished, “economic and social development will be hindered unless social capital stocks are restored”. The evidence points to the relevance of social capital to sustainable development of countries: “Social capital refers to the internal social and cultural coherence of society” and “Without social capital, society at large will collapse, and today’s world presents some very sad examples of this” (Grootaert, 1998).

Community capacity is widely acknowledged as an important strategy for progressing programs that address problematic issues relevant to the community and its development (Aref & Redzuan, 2009). The concept of capacity refers to the ability of a specific community to mobilise, identify its pertinent issues and act in an informed way toward a shared concept of progress (Aref & Redzuan). Research shows that once some capacity has been built, knowledge transfer from one context to another is likely to follow (Carroll, 2001, p. xiii). Problems arise when a community suffers a trauma, which results in the breakdown of a community structure, people displacement and an overall loss of social capital. This is exactly what has happened to Cambodia. Regrettably, without the growth of social capital attempts at community development are bound to fail (Aref & Redzuan, 2009).

Rebuilding of the community social capital needs to be part of the process of rebuilding Cambodia’s education, business and infrastructure. However, as Cambodian educational institutions look to the developed countries for direction and expertise, the requirement for community input and for interactions between the various layers of the Cambodian society and stakeholders are necessary to facilitate a better embedding of the country’s education policies and programs and their impacts within the broader needs and values of the community (Lor, 2016, pp. 110-120; Frederico, et al, 2007).

Today, Cambodia seeks to rebuild these connections and restore its capacity to participate in the regional and global economies as a valuable contributor. In this objective, some of the key hurdles continue to be appropriate integration of education into the community, adequate resourcing, including the level of qualifications of the teachers, and equitable access to education services for all (World Bank, 2017; MoEYS, 2015a). Following the recommendations of Lesser and Storck (2001), stakeholder engagement is pivotal if Cambodia is to modernise its education system and, in the process, build resourceful communities. In

other words, success of education reforms depends on the people and the quality of the interactions that the implementation of the reforms will engage.

1.2 Challenges facing education planning in Cambodia

Planning for English language learning does not develop in a vacuum. Education in Cambodia is facing numerous challenges that together impact on the quality of delivery of English language learning policies. Some of these relate to the status of English learning in Cambodia, infrastructure, teachers' qualifications and English language proficiency, as well as other factors. The sections below offer a brief description of those challenges in order to demonstrate the many facets of the changes that need to take place for the system to respond to the education agenda established by Cambodia and the South East Asia region.

1.2.1 Shared vision

Cambodia aims to become an upper middle-income country by 2030 (MoEYS, 2013) (UNESCO Institute of Lifelong Learning (UILL), n.d.). In line with the policies that underpin the goals of the ASEAN integration, Cambodia is investing in building a competitive human capital and skills development roadmap (UILL, n.d.). High quality educational programmes and internationally acceptable certification are a prerequisite for ASEAN integration (UILL, n.d.). The Cambodian government is actively engaged in a thoroughgoing reform of the entire education sector with a view to providing quality primary, secondary, vocational and tertiary education that is aligned with the needs both of young people and of the labour market (UILL, n.d.). Cambodia's expenditure on education is amongst the lowest in ASEAN (Central Intelligence Agency, 2013 cited in Tweed, 2015). The Education Strategic Plan (ESP) ratified in 2014 by MoEYS set out an aggressive boost in education spending, taking the figure of 20% in 2016 to up to 23.1% in 2017 and towards 26% in 2018 (Duncankudos, 2016).

The need for change in Cambodia is pressing. During the March 2018 ministerial panel discussion on higher education in Cambodia, it was agreed that "Cambodia lacks vision in developing its higher education institutions" (Amaro, 2018). The advice of the panel was further sanctioned by the Minister of Education Youth and Sport, Dr. Hang Chuon Naron, who requested the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) to identify skills and disciplines that the country will need in the next five to ten years. It was acknowledged that higher education needs qualified faculty staff and better teaching and research. The panel requested a better funding to address these needs and to diversify the offerings of the sector,

including STEM education, for the country to build its technical expertise. Dr. Hang Chuon Naron called for higher education to evaluate its priorities, direction for development and the processes that universities design to assess the impacts of their planning. The \$90 million Higher Education Improvement Project, that began in July 2018, was to address some of these issues. Member of the panel, Mr. San Chey, Executive Director of the Affiliated Network for Social Accountability, said that he believed that higher education needed to undergo robust reforms due to its long history of poor quality. The comment was pertinent to both private and public sectors.

Higher education does not develop in a vacuum. The panel also addressed other issues such as career counselling at the high school level, including better information about the value of higher education and the job prospects that follow. The resolutions communicated by the panel reflect the depth of the challenges that the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MoEYS) and the higher education sector are facing: there is little coherence between the different sectors that are responsible for the success of the education system in Cambodia and the sectors lack in processes to enable informed progress. Devising such processes requires leadership strategies able to leverage on the global trends while attending to the needs of the local regions and their communities. Experiences of the Higher Education Quality and Capacity Improvement Project (HEQCIP), summarised in a 2015 report (Rappleye & Un, 2015) and a subsequent research study (Rappleye & Un, 2018), show that Cambodia comes with its own challenges that need a better understanding when planning for change. Taking account of these challenges will necessarily require planning that understands the role of the university in the modern era. Some of the dimensions of this role include ensuring the integrity and continuity of culture, religion and social institutions as well appreciation that education impacts on individuals' life trajectories, including their identity (Samier, 2015, p. 684).

The lessons learned from the HEQCIP project offer insightful questions and recommendations for universities and other stakeholders (Rappleye & Un, 2015, pp. 63-4). Among them are the need for a better planning of research, professionalising research services, ongoing professional development, and financial incentives. In addition, MoEYS and DGHE are urged to facilitate these needs by allocating appropriate resources and processes that make their use possible, facilitate networking opportunities between international and regional institutions, establish the Cambodian Professional Researchers Network to build research networks and platforms, communicate information about funding opportunities, and promote visibility and recognition

of research contributions by academics in public and policy communities. The recommendations also address funding institutions, such as the World Bank, advising to adopt funding strategies that are considerate of the administrative challenges that research projects present in Cambodia and of the training support that Cambodian academics need in order to reach the desired outputs. Other suggestions include the need for ongoing reporting and emphasis on research dissemination.

1.2.2 Accountability

Cambodia lacks strong systems that would ensure quality of its higher education; this includes teacher education. Cambodian higher education began after the country gained independence from France in 1953. However, since then, Cambodia has never had a chance to invest in the quality of its higher education sector due to complex political circumstances which ensued after the civil war (1970-1998). Consequently, attempts to improve the quality of Cambodian higher education have been neglected (You, 2010). Despite the earlier turmoils and neglect, currently, Cambodia is showing a noticeable rate of tertiary education growth (Rynhart & Chang, 2014). A decade after the civil war of 1979, throughout the 1980s and early 1990s, the tertiary enrolment rates in Cambodia stayed at about 1%, but the percentage went up to 14% in 2011 (World Bank, 2013). The introduction of privatisation of higher education in 1997 enabled Cambodia to increase the number of private universities from less than 10 in the 1990s to 105 higher education institutes (39 public and 66 private) in 2014 (Dy, 2015).

Despite this surge of higher education institutions, Cambodia lacks adequate human resources and a “skills development roadmap” for its education system to be competitive and serve the fulfilment of various higher order goals, such as cultural exchange, academic excellence, and peace-building (MOEYS, 2013; Rana & Ardichvili, 2014). The implementation of the Cambodian National Qualifications Framework (CNQF, Royal Government of Cambodia, RGC, 2012; World Bank 2015) is part of the educational reform of the Cambodian government in order to respond to the complex needs of the country, its young people as well as local and international labour markets (UNESCO, 2014). Developments in this regard will put Cambodian education and its universities on a level path with international education systems, provide the basis for future growth, and make the country entirely competitive in the region and beyond. At present, the CNQF specifies eight levels of qualification, with the Doctoral Degree being at level 8, which is significantly lower than Australia or UK, where the Doctoral Degree is at level 10 (AQF, 2014).

The government intends the CNQF (RGC, 2012) to:

- allow nationally consistent recognition of learning outcomes;
- deliver high quality education and training that matches international standards;
- provide mechanisms for credit transfer and for the recognition of prior learning and experience;
- develop flexible pathways to facilitate movement between education and training sectors, as well as between those sectors and the labour market;
- improve access to education and training programmes and to qualifications;
- set out clearly defined avenues for achievement in order to encourage individuals to continue their education;
- provide qualifications that meet the needs of employers as well as learners, thus improving national economic performance;
- facilitate the mobilization of a skilled regional workforce (RGC, 2012)

The level descriptors in the CNQF (RGC, 2014) are based on learning outcomes initially derived from the international competency standards embedded in the 21st Century learning framework (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2009) and set as the essential building blocks for transparency within higher education systems by the Bologna Agreement (1999). Learning outcomes are “statements of what a learner is expected to know, understand and/or be able to do at the end of a period of learning” (Dalanovska, 2012, p. 1306). The qualification descriptor is a measurable indicator of learning outcomes and achievements for which the student has been assessed and which the student should be able to demonstrate for the qualification that is awarded (ETF, 2014). In Cambodia, the level descriptors cover the following areas: **knowledge, cognitive skills, psychomotor skills, interpersonal skills and responsibility, communication skills, information technology skills**, and numeracy skills. The relationships between the different levels are shown in Figure 1.

Levels	Technical and Vocational Education and Training	Higher Education	General Education
8	Doctoral Degree	Doctoral Degree	
7	Master's Degree of Technology/Business	Master's Degree	
6	Bachelor of Technology/Engineering/Business	Bachelor's Degree	
5	Higher Diploma of Technology/Business	Associate Degree	
4	Technical and Vocational Certificate 3		Upper Secondary Certificate
3	Technical and Vocational Certificate 2		
2	Technical and Vocational Certificate 1		
1	Vocational Certificate		Lower Secondary Certificate

Source: Kingdom of Cambodia, Cambodia Qualifications Framework, 2012.

Figure 1.1. Levels for TVET, Higher Education and General Education in Cambodia

1.2.3 School and tertiary enrolments

In the 1990s Cambodia experienced massive international investment in the field of education (among other sectors of development) after nearly twenty years of isolation with the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank being its major sponsors (Ogisu, 2017). Pressure was also put on the Cambodian government to increase the budget allocated to the education sector (Ogisu, 2017). In March 1994, Ung Huot, the then Minister for Education, pledged that one of the main aims of the country was to help members of the young generations to become fully employable and able to contribute to the defence and construction of the nation (Ayres 2000, 167).

Cambodia has a high net enrollment ratio (NER) for primary school (95%), although it then falls precipitously for lower secondary (32%) (USAID, 2015). Primary school dropout rate in Cambodia is 23.8%, an improvement from 2013, when it was at 53%. The data represents the percentage of students from a given cohort who have enrolled in primary school but who drop out before reaching the last grade of primary education (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, UNESCO, 2019). In turn, 68% of a cohort of students enrolled in the first grade of a lower secondary general education in a given school year are expected to reach the last grade, regardless of repetition is 68 (UNESCO, 2019).

Tertiary enrollment (% gross) in Cambodia was reported at 13.13 % in 2017 and at 14% in 2019, according to the World Bank. As illustrated in Figure 2, the numbers are steadily increasing. However, overall Cambodia is 30 years behind the developed countries, which currently report enrolments at around 40% (Figure 3, World Bank, 2019). It is worth noting

that, as mentioned in the earlier sections, expansion of enrolments in the tertiary level of education is one of the current goals of the developed countries.

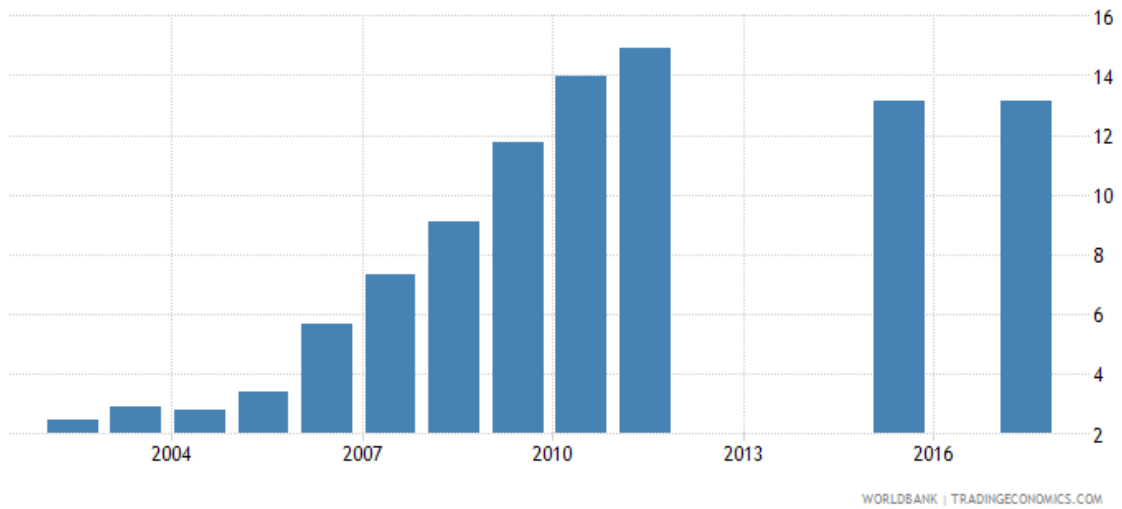


Figure 1.2. Steady increase of tertiary enrolments in Cambodia.

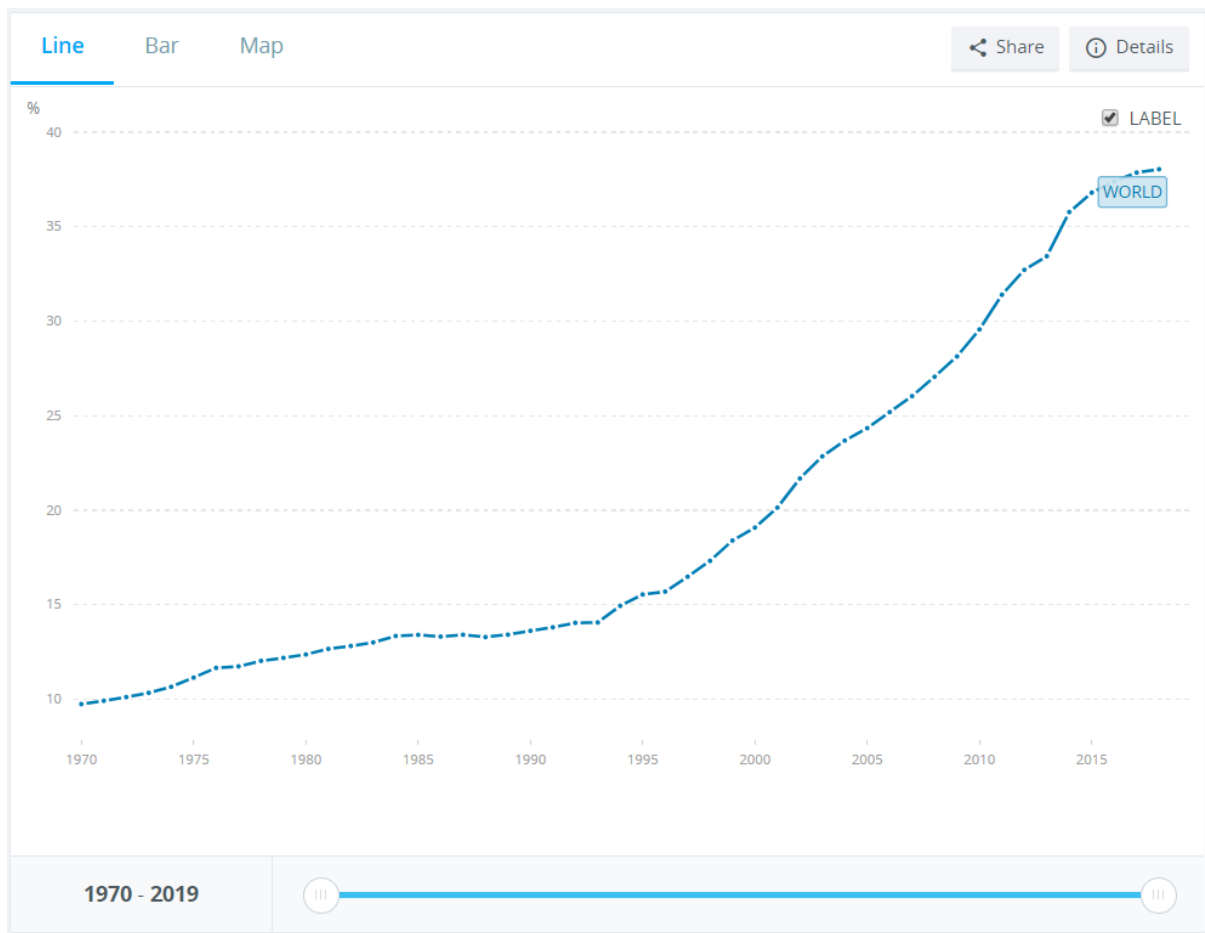


Figure 1.3. Tertiary enrolments worldwide (World Bank, 2019)

1.2.4 School completion and gender equity

The *Sustainable Development in the 21st Century* report (UN, 2013, p. 5) predicts that by 2050, there will be a “universal primary and secondary education for all [...] with women most likely accounting for most of the higher-level degrees world-wide in 2050”. However, many Cambodian workers have still not completed at least nine years of basic education due to the high dropout rate, “the high rate of school dropouts, especially at the basic education level, is one of the main barriers that has hindered not only the country’s human resource development but also its economic development” (Pov, Kawai, & Murakami, 2019, p. 1). While the gender gap at primary level in Cambodia has been almost eliminated, keeping students in secondary schools is still a major concern despite the early Education for All (EFA) (World Bank, 2015d) policy and its subsequent reformulations. By 2015, the dropout rate of female students in secondary schools increased from 20.10% to 90.70%, while the attendance rate of male students increased from 19.10% to 21.50% (EFA, 2015). After 2015, UNESCO provided no updates on current enrolment rates (UNESCO, 2019). The 2015 numbers show high rates of drop-out for both female and male students, which requires rapid intervention (EFA, 2015). The literature and numerous education reports (EFA, 2015; MoEYS, 2010; Booth, 2014; Sok, 2017) indicate that the traditional issues of access and gender equity in education are impacted by various factors, namely traditional views of the role of girls, negative behavior toward gender equity, lack of gender responsive physical resources, poverty and long distances to upper and higher education affect learning opportunities for rural girls (EFA, 2015) or parents not valuing school attendance (Pov, Kawai, & Murakami, 2019).

The reasons for the high drop-out rates are multiple, including traditional values in small villages or the need for an extra pair of hands at home to do household work (Booth, 2014; Lor, 2016). The policies advocating gender equity were followed with numerous strategies with limited effect (MoEYS, 2010). Research is in two minds regarding the ethics of child labour and its impact on school attendance. A study by No, Taniguchi and Hiraoka (2016, p. 215) showed that economic status, child labour, and parents’ aspirations had no significant effect on school attendance. Instead, social factors were identified (divorce of parents, relationships with friends, and late school entry of students in grades 1–4), all pointing to the need for building greater community resilience. Studies by Chae-Young (2009) and by Lor (2016) argue for “the need for a more diversified approach to dealing with the impact of child labour” (Chae-Young, p. 30).

According to Public Education Statistics and Indicators (MoEYS, 2017), the female dropout rate in Pursat Province remains the highest (25.4% in academic year 2015-2016) compared to that in other provinces in Cambodia. Recent reports show a 55% female students' dropout in grade 12 (MoEYS, 2017). Again, this is a concern that needs ongoing addressing.

1.2.5 The rise of university graduates and skills mismatch

The growth of higher education in the past several decades in both developed and developing nations has been a significant influence in the increasingly globalising world (World Bank, 2000; Schofer & Meyer 2005; Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley 2009). Cambodian higher education sector has been responding in accordance to these global and regional trends. The positive changes in higher education in Cambodia have impacted on the growth of higher education through the increase of student enrollments. With less than ten higher education institutions and an enrolment rate of merely about 10,000 in the 1990s, the total number of enrolments since the 2004-2005 Academic Year has increased almost two-fold, from 56,810 to 110,090. The enrolments were higher in private higher education institutes than in the public ones. Today, the country has established over 100 higher education institutions (HEIs) and an enrolment rate of over 210,000 (Dy, 2015). While this shows a growth in Cambodia's education sector, the country is recently facing a critical problem of skills mismatch. This effect is largely due to the successful privatisation of higher education. As HEIs respond to the demands of student clientele, they fail to work with government policies and vision that informs the country's development (Brixi, 2012, p. 19) As a result, the majority of graduates have skills that are not in high demand of the country labour market (World Bank, 2010, 2012; UN, 2011). Students tend to graduate in business, finance and foreign languages (CDRI cited in Parikh, 2016), while STEM subjects have fewer than 20% of all enrolments.

Current skill shortages in Cambodia are an example of communication breakdown between the various layers of the society, resulting in ill-informed higher education planning of the past decades and policy uptake by the community. For example, Cambodia is now said to have more experts in business than businesses that they can manage (Kaing, 2016). This resulted in the MOEYS suspending licenses in order to open new programs and courses related to finance and business but allow universities to pay attention to engineering and science subjects (Kaing, 2016). Kaing's (p. 2) study also shows that a vast majority of students do not know their career options and cannot make informed study choices. As a result, while Cambodia's planners want to see more statisticians, more engineers, more network developers and doctors, students

continue to enroll in language courses, education and business (ADB, 2015; Blanquat & Associates, 2016; Mark, 2016).

Recent higher education reforms in Cambodia have begun taking place with a draft of the Higher Education Action Plan (MoEYS, 1997), followed by the Royal Decree on Accreditation (MoEYS, 2003a), Education Strategic Plans – and sector-wide approach to donors’ support (MoEYS, 2003b), Cambodian Higher Education Roadmap 2030 and Beyond (MoEYS, 2017) and many more, all specifying the direction for the next two decades. The reforms thus far have set up the foundation for further higher education developments for Cambodia to achieve its national vision of becoming a middle-income country and knowledge-based society by 2030. While the policies are plenty, the implementation is a challenge. Projects like HEQCIP (Higher Education Quality and Capacity Improvement Project, 2013) and HEIP (Higher Education Improvement Project, 2018) are among the recent initiatives funded by the World Bank and MoEYS to assist implementation through collaboration with numerous international higher education institutions (Rappleye & Un, 2015, 2018; World Bank, n.d.).

Experiences of the HEQCIP project, summarised in a 2015 report (Rappleye & Un, 2015) and a subsequent research study (Rappleye & Un, 2018), revealed numerous challenges relating to both project planning and needs analysis. Among them are the need for a better planning of research, professionalising research services, ongoing professional development, and financial incentives (Rappleye & Un, 2015, pp. 63-4). Rappleye & Un urge MoEYS and DGHE to address these needs by allocating appropriate resources and processes that make their use possible, facilitate networking opportunities between international and regional institutions, establish the Cambodian Professional Researchers Network to build research and research platforms, communicate information about funding opportunities, and to promote visibility and recognition of research contributions by academics in public and policy communities. Rappleye & Un’s recommendations also discuss relationships with funding institutions, such as the World Bank, advising to adopt funding strategies that are considerate of the administrative challenges that undertaking research projects presents in Cambodia and of the training support that Cambodian academics need in order to reach the desired outputs. Other suggestions include the need for ongoing reporting and emphasis on research dissemination.

1.2.6 Teacher education

Since the early 1980s, informed by a strong commitment to tackle the emerging needs of basic education for millions of children and adolescent, MoEYS has administered many various modalities of teacher training in order to address the need of the country for qualified teachers. Based on the estimates provided by the Faculty of Education at the Royal University of Phnom Penh (RUPP) (Sok, 2017), the largest higher education institution in Cambodia, the duration for candidate teachers to undertake state-run teacher training has gradually lengthened. Nonetheless, a definite weakness of many previous formula of teacher training has resulted in many teachers currently holding the same qualification as the school level they teach (Sok, 2017). This raises a general concern about the qualifications of Cambodia's teachers that are lower than those of the teachers in the neighboring countries and inferior to other professions in the country (Benveniste, Marshall, & Araujo, 2008; World Bank, 2014; MoEYS, 2015a).

According to the Faculty of Education at RUPP (Sok, 2017), MoEYS plans to upgrade many basic education teachers to new standards of BA (Bachelor of Arts) +1 year and MA (Master of Arts) +1 year for junior and senior level teachers respectively. Currently, there are approximately more than 71,703 or 80.4% of teachers holding qualifications below BA equivalency (MoEYS, 2015). The current increase of teachers completing BA slightly exceeds 2% annually, indicating that without a strong policy intervention the number of teachers with BA qualifications will reach only 28% by 2020. Therefore, ensuring opportunities for as many teachers as possible to obtain BA equivalency becomes the most urgent mandates for pre-service and in-service training in Cambodia (MoEYS, 2015a).

Today, teacher training in Cambodia is provided by “stand-alone” institutions of training that prepare teachers for various levels of school education: Provincial Teacher Training Center (PTTC) for primary schools, Regional Teacher Training Center (RTTC) for lower secondary schools, and National Institute of Education (NIE) for upper secondary schools. It is the view of the Head of the Faculty of Education at RUPP (Sok, 2017) that the demand for upgrading the capacity of teachers in Cambodia is heightened as a result of the newly accepted Teacher Policy Action Plan (TPAP) (MoEYS, 2015c). The aim of the plan is to build a new vision for the teaching profession in Cambodia; improve the education quality at all school levels; reform all teaching education institutions, including HEIs; raise the status of the teachers, both financially and socially; change existing practices in teaching and learning resulting in higher levels of student achievement; ensure involvement, commitment and a common vision from

all stakeholders and development partners; and lay the foundation for further deep reforms in teacher education post-2020 (MoEYS, 2015, p. 3). For now, the majority of teachers, who are currently teaching in the system, have education level lower than a bachelor degree and rarely receive professional development. According to Sok (2017), further professionalisation of teachers and upgrading teacher qualifications levels have become a cornerstone and one of educational reform priorities to improve education in Cambodia.

1.2.7 Multilingual education

Recently, MoEYS (2015) issued a directive for all primary and secondary students to learn English, starting in grade four (Sun, 2019). While the policy is in step with the internationalisation policies of Cambodia, it is not clear how the country plans to build its English-speaking teacher population and the resources necessary to support both teacher professional development in sufficient numbers and student learning. The picture gets further complicated as Cambodia plans to offer education at least in three languages, Khmer, English and French. Innovative models are needed to meet these global demands for multilingual students, able to access resources and communicate in languages other than their own. At least to some extent, MoYES plans to meet this demand with the help of ICT. To this end, Cambodia is seeking to improve its ICT infrastructure across all schools and aims for teachers to gradually learn to use technology to expand their resources and enhance their teaching. COVID-19 situation further amplified the need for these skills.

Language-learning policies of Cambodia also extent to indigenous minorities, some of which do not speak Khmer. Khmer is spoken by some 13 million people in Cambodia, where it is the official language. It is also a second language for most of the minority groups and indigenous hill tribes there. There are two linguistic families within the indigenous population: the Austro-Thais (or Malayo Polynesians) and the Môn-Khmer. During the Khmer Rouge regime, speaking the local languages was forbidden. Education and economic development programs were carried out that aimed to settle the hill tribes and transform both their existing methods of agriculture, which were considered environmentally destructive, and their general lifestyle, which was seen as backward (White 1996).

In recent years, Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) and International Organisations (IOs) had been carrying out development programs to address the needs of the people of Cambodia, including the indigenous minority population. The Constitution of the Kingdom of Cambodia

assures that all Khmer citizens shall enjoy the same rights, regardless of their race, colour, sex, language, beliefs, religions, political tendencies, birth origin, social status, resources and any position. The indigenous ethnic peoples live in Ratanakiri, Mondulakiri, Stung Treng, and Kratie represent about 66%, 71%, 7%, and 8%, respectively, of the total populations in these provinces. As a whole they represent 1% of the total population of Cambodia according to the Inter-Ministerial Committee for Highland Peoples' Development (IMC, 1997a). Although ethnic groups are found in other provinces like Preah Vihear, Pursat, Kampong Thom, and Sihanoukville, they represent only about 0.04% of the total population. Based on the 1997 IMC percentages and 1998 census data, the total ethnic population in the four provinces is 112,000. Along with the Constitution, The Inter-Ministerial Committee for Highland Peoples' Development proposed a general policy responding to the needs of indigenous peoples in protecting their rights, culture, and natural resources, as well as for sustainable development in the area (ADB, 2002).

1.2.8 STEM reform, English, and higher order thinking skills

Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) education has attracted global attention and Cambodia is no exception (Kennedy, 2014). STEM education has been out favour in Cambodia, largely due to funding, but also due to low interest among the youth for developing skills relating to STEM and following STEM employment pathways (Kaing, 2016; Hak, 2016). This is now changing. The demand for STEM workforce, including qualified researchers and technicians, is currently being addressed by Cambodia through its education reform (MoEYS, 2018). The reform takes a “whole-system”-approach, with MoEYS working to coordinate general and higher education sectors for the reform to benefit all sectors and prepare proper pathways for students to follow. The reform will address the objectives outlined in the *Teacher Policy Action Plan (TPAP)* (MoEYS, 2015c), the success of which depends on expanding and improving higher education and teacher education sectors to provide quality learning experiences in schools and institutions of higher learning. Appropriate policy and funding are being prepared for Cambodia to meet its targets.

Quality STEM education also necessitates a thorough curriculum preparation and planning (RUPP, 2017), and this includes knowledge of English that is sufficient to meet the complex requirements of the STEM field. Since much of texts that are studied in STEM, especially in higher learning, is in English, the middle and upper secondary textbooks contain texts that include context specifically relevant to science (OER Cambodia, n.d).

The *Teacher Policy Action Plan* (2015c) emphasises processes and objectives, rather than on objectives alone. Personalised learning, innovation and invention are among those objectives. Processes address issues of instruction, assessment, and industry experience. Integrating research and inquiry skills at all levels of education is becoming priority. According to Bybee (2013, p. 101), the following competencies reflect the spirit of change that relates to the STEM reforms:

- Knowledge, attitudes, and skills to identify questions and problems in life situations, explain the natural and designed world, and draw evidence-based conclusions about STEM-related issues.
- Understanding of the characteristic features of STEM disciplines as forms of human knowledge, inquiry, and design.
- Awareness of how STEM disciplines shape our material, intellectual, and cultural environments.
- Willingness to engage in STEM-related issues and with the ideas of STEM as a constructive, concerned, and reflective citizen.

1.3 Study aims and significance

The overview of the challenges that education stakeholders, including the government of Cambodia, are grappling with, as they go about building a modern education system, illustrated the enormity of the job. Much of the necessary policies is in place but policies alone do not create change, people do (Fulham, 2017; Rawolle & Lingard, 2015). However, what people do is shaped by their belief systems, and the institutional and national cultures that, as Bourdieu (1995) showed, make practices appear natural and, therefore, either unproblematic or too difficult to tackle. Countering old habits requires a better understanding of the lessons of the past.

Chapter 1 showed that building a modern education system in Cambodia is complex and cannot be seen as separate from (re)-building of the country's communities, including professional communities. The stakeholders involved in the framing, interpreting and implementing of education policies form a co-dependent community. However, as pointed out by Rapple and Un (2018), ensuring stability, while pushing for the growth of knowledge, necessitates a critical dimension to resource management and planning, where Cambodia does not simply position itself as a help recipient, buying expertise from overseas providers. A well-informed approach

is needed, where stakeholders can work as a community to both promote and inform the country's education policies and modernisation agenda.

Kneebone (2015), a medical educator, offered the concept of “reciprocal illumination” to describe how educators can engage, together, in an ongoing reflection on needs of their professional community. Since, according to Kneebone, education is primarily about interaction, the term “reciprocal illumination” involves forms of dialogue that result in change. *Reciprocal illumination*, as defined by Kneebone, is not just information sharing. It is an “informal, open-ended cooperation” (Kneebone), a process that requires an open-minded exchange of perspectives, where everyone expects to gain new insights and where new possibilities arise. Kneebone himself is aware of the challenge that his proposal creates, but also of its groundbreaking value to the project of building critical communities:

This sharing of perspectives with the intention of changing all concerned is difficult to achieve. Yet perhaps this could be the model for a different kind of education – a kind that fits with our social world, not one that pushes against it. Rather than ‘public engagement’, perhaps we can use the simpler term ‘engagement’ to crystallise a different dynamic. By framing engagement as interaction – between some people with specialist expertise and other people with different (although equally valid) expert perspectives – new understandings are brought into focus and fresh insights emerge.

Kneebone, 2015

The present study took on the challenge issued by Kneebone (2015) and designed a model for engaging stakeholders involved in advancing the policies of English language learning in schools in Cambodia with a view to revealing the expectations, assumptions, and the needs that guide their actions as well as any communication breakdowns that prevent the process from progressing forward. In other words, to put it in Kneebone's terms, the objective was to engage stakeholders in a dialogue that would facilitate informal and yet powerful engagements resulting in *reciprocal illuminations* that had the potential to unfold different perspectives on the problem of teaching English language learning in Cambodia. Understanding the different perspectives is important for educators and policymakers to make relevant intellectual, human, and financial investments. As Kneebone suggested, stakeholder engagements of this kinds are expected to be rich and messy, open-ended and embedded in the spirit of cooperation where everyone can benefit, rather than a single party. This model of dialogue is contrary to the more traditional approaches to collaboration between communities or sectors, which rely mainly on information transmission, which typically excludes reciprocity.

The aim of reciprocal engagements is to counter contexts where different stakeholders pull in different directions and where, as a result, as reported by Rappleye and Un (2018), people disconnect because the challenges seem too high, solutions too unwieldy, and the significance of improvements is measured in abstract terms. Research by Rappleye and Un (2015, 2018) and Sam and Dahls (2017) showed contexts, where this is exactly what happened, when stakeholders were not able to communicate, understand, and adjust their needs and expectations of each other. Consequently, as reported, major national projects delivered less than expected on prosperity-building initiatives between the government, higher education institutions, the industry and the donors did not eventuate.

The present study focused on upper secondary schools in Cambodia. The choice was established in negotiation with MoEYS and in consideration that upper secondary schools prepare students for higher levels of learning, where some subjects utilise English texts and the knowledge of English is essential for students' success. In order to facilitate communication between the multiple layers of the stakeholder community, the study designed a model that made it possible to engage stakeholder community in perspective sharing and learning about the needs of the sector, while also preserving anonymity of the participants. The model can be applied and re-applied as needed to generate new dialogues and new perspectives. The objective was for the study to contribute to the overall goal of supporting sustainable education system in Cambodia, while examining the context of English language teaching. The following points capture the aims of the study:

1. To develop and evaluate a robust communication model that institutions and stakeholders can use to facilitate dialogue between the multiple layers of the stakeholder community.
2. To identify the expectations, assumptions, and the needs that guide stakeholder actions as well as any communication breakdowns that prevent the process of advancing the policies of English language learning in upper secondary schools in Cambodia.
3. To recommend actions that to improve English language learning in upper secondary schools in Cambodia and, in so doing, to contribute to the building a prosperous and educated society.

1.4 Research questions

The study sought to respond to the following questions:

1. What self-defined ELT (English Language Teaching) community needs emerged from the dialogues that were facilitated?
2. What features of the schools and the institutions participating in the project emerged as helping or hindering the process of advancing the policies of English language learning from progressing in upper secondary schools in Cambodia.
3. What are the broader implications of this study for building professional community capacity of English language educators in Cambodia? How, if at all, do the findings of the study enable key decision makers and other key stakeholders to formulate appropriate policy to optimise human and physical resources in educational contexts to provide for an equitable and well-resourced education in Cambodia?

1.5 Study Overview

Chapter 1 reviewed the recent education policies of the Cambodian government against the broader background of education reforms recently undertaken by ASEAN member countries. The chapter presented a case for the present study and its goal to design and trial a process that assists English language educators and policymakers in Cambodia to act as a community of practice (Wenger, 1988) that is engaged in an ongoing and critical analysis of its own needs with respect to the new education reforms. Research aims and questions were developed.

Chapter 2 provides the study with a review of the conceptual shifts that have impacted on the new education policies globally and in Cambodia, and how the policy and research communities in Cambodia responded to those. The review of the ELT research in Cambodia focused mainly on the literature published in Cambodia, and included contributions written by both Cambodian and international scholars. The review noted a very scanty amount of school-based research in ELT.

Chapter 3 describes the intellectual framework of the present study and the qualitative methods that were used to collect and analyse data. The chapter covers five major sections as follows: ontological and epistemological framing of the study, study design and instrument for data collection, data analysis, and ethical consideration.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study. The findings illustrate the ELT stakeholders' reflections on the "job" of ELT and how they view their own roles in building a modern education system that supports EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students' success. Stage

1 invited the study participants in self-reflection on their take on the roles that they play in progressing the new ELT agenda. Stage 2, in turn, focused on the concept of internationalisation and the different implications that the concept brought to the roles of ELT stakeholders. The data from the two stages are analysed with a view to comparing the needs of the system as perceived by the stakeholders and the analysis conducted in this chapter.

Chapter 5 answers the research questions and develops implications for education policymakers for consideration. The recommendations responded to the general themes of strategic planning of educational institutions, which include research, professional training and community engagement. It is demonstrated that the decision to modernise education involves more than the introduction of English language in early stages of a child's education. It implies the development of an entire system, which is a task, that, without a well-functioning research arm, is not possible to accomplish.

Chapter 6 summarises the study, identifies the contribution of the study to the ELT field, identifies the study limitations and suggests directions for future developments and research. The chapter makes the point that “pedagogy”, or the science of learning, should not be trivialised in any aspect of education, including language teaching. All subjects share some understanding of what learning involves, but each has also their own peculiarities. Theoretical concepts do not emerge only from physics or biology; applied studies also generate important knowledge that can overturn what is currently believed in other areas of research. This is the point made by Burroway (n.d.; 2011), when he advocated for active connections between the various strategic roles of the university. As the study warns, there is nothing modern in shortchanging applied studies, and thinking that teaching is about a “bag of tricks”: Nothing stops progress like a closed mind.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 provides the study with a review of the conceptual shifts that have impacted on the new education policies globally and in Cambodia, and how the policy and research communities in Cambodia responded to those.

The chapter first seeks to conceptualise the nature of transformative educational practice, identify the stakeholders that participate in this practice and discuss their roles. The concepts of education as a dialogue and of students as stakeholders in that dialogue are discussed. Examples of the community-based learning approach are examined as a model of learning that broke away from the traditional view that limit learning to a classroom. The discussion of the potential that the community-based learning approach holds for education is then followed with a review of the 21st century education frameworks that underpin both general and higher education competencies and skills. Terminology of these frameworks is explained, followed by a review of the critique of the capabilities approach in the Australian Curriculum (ACARA, 2014).

The next section introduces the education context in Cambodia and its new national curriculum (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015) framed around generic, higher order thinking skills, competencies, and values. The chapter contextualises these by drawing on research that illustrates the challenges that the new curriculum presents. The different national standards are presented that accompany the new national curriculum. In addition, briefly, the Quality Assurance processes in Higher Education are indicated to illustrate the procedures agreed upon among the ASEAN community and to evidence that universities are not free to teach what they want, and their curricula are required to address stakeholder needs as specified in university policy documents.

The final sections of the chapter examine ELT research in Cambodia and evaluates the relevance of its concepts, methods and recommendations to education research and practice. The review focuses mainly on the literature published in Cambodia, and includes contributions written by both Cambodian and international scholars. The review notes a very scanty amount of school-based research in ELT.

The chapter concludes with a summary of how EFL research community in Cambodia constructs education practice and, therefore, its education research, and what implications this analysis presents for the present study.

2.2 Building advanced education systems: Trends and challenges

2.2.1 Education and social context

Teaching contexts are highly differentiated spaces, embedded within an array of values and belief systems that inform a diversity of practices and customs that impact on how education practices are both engaged and shaped (Rawolle & Lingard, 2015). New education policies present new orientations on practice and bring with them terminology, concepts and goals that may not always be part of present-day practices. New policies tend to challenge the *status quo* and demand a change whose nature is frequently unknown and needs investigation before it is claimed that policies are implemented, and education outcomes have improved. Since teaching practices involve a multitude of dimensions, according to Rawolle and Lingard (2015), understanding change requires forms of interrogation that can capture this multiplicity in ways that help illuminate the desired direction of change.

According to Fullan and Hargreaves (2017, p. 6), one of the key researchers investigating educational reforms and change, the development of professional communities is one strategy for ensuring that policies are understood, enacted and result in a better understanding of stakeholder needs. Fullan and Hargreaves (p. 19) propose that teachers create such communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1990) and involve themselves in conversations and projects that are stimulating personally and professionally. Fullan and Hargreaves (2017, p. 7) believe that participation in communities of practice results in a change of professional culture, and leads to collaborative professionalism that permeates the system, serving both individual and collective learning. Figure 2.1 illustrates features a community of practice identified by Fullan and Hargreaves (2017, p. 19). Figure 2.1 shows that a community of practice needs to balance individual and collective contexts and goals.

INDIVIDUAL AUTONOMY	COLLECTIVE AUTONOMY
INDIVIDUAL IMPACT	COLLECTIVE IMPACT
PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY	COLLECTIVE RESPONSIBILITY
INDIVIDUAL INQUIRY	COLLABORATIVE INQUIRY
SELF-EFFICACY	COLLECTIVE EFFICACY
INWARD MINDSET	OUTWARD MINDSET

Figure 2.1. Fullan and Hargreaves’s model of a balanced community of practice (2017, p. 19).

As Figure 2.1 shows, for communities, with professional communities being no special case, to be relevant they need to be connected to a broader network of stakeholders. They need both an *inward* and *outward* perspective and mindset, and attitudes and skills that are necessary to interrogate the impacts of their individual and collective contributions critically and responsibly. With this perspective in mind, the study by Lor (2016), conducted in rural Cambodia, sought to better understand the rural context of education in Cambodia and how the rural communities perceive the value of education and its relevance to their lives. Lor’s (2016) findings showed that a child’s education is a shared responsibility of a whole stakeholder community. The culture that stakeholders create around education impacts on children’s access to and the completion of their formal studies.

Drawing on theories of Freire (1973, 1990) and Gadotti (2010), Lor (2016, p. 118) pointed to the need for an integrated approach of the stakeholder community to the overall goal of education that can result in better informed, and therefore potentially more equitable, outcomes, especially for adolescent females, as this was the key focus of her study. Lor concluded that dialogue is the key to countering the fragmentary structure of the education stakeholder community in Cambodia, divided by qualifications, specialisations, skills, and the various social and economic factors that impact on resource distribution. Lor (2016) argued that students also are stakeholders in that system. When education prevents the dialogue between the students and the rest of the stakeholders, it dissociates the students from the very sources that make their learning both meaningful and relevant to them.

The concept of education as engagement with the stakeholder community is not new. For example, Melaville, Berg and Blank (2006) discuss community-based learning initiatives

developed in United States to counter students' disengagement from learning. According to Adams (2006, p. 1), in the community-based learning approach, the leading understanding is that for students to learn how to be citizens, they must act as citizens. It follows, according to Adams (p. 1), content alone cannot provide students with sufficient appreciation and understanding of the skills they are learning: "education must connect subject matter with the places where students live and the issues that affect us all". These beliefs were confirmed by surveys, where 95% of students, ages thirteen to nineteen, said "opportunities for more real-world learning would improve their school" (Adams, p. 2). Advocates of the approach harness students' natural interest in where and how they live and engage students through community-based problem solving, an objective that helps students build a sense of connection to their communities (Adams, pp. 2-3).

While the proponents of the approach tend to focus their reports on its impact on the students, community-based learning also impacts on the community. The strategies of the approach include *academically based community service*, *civic education*, *environmental education*, *place-based learning*, *service learning*, and *work-based learning* (Adams, p. 4). For best results, community-based learning must be integrated within the regular school-based curriculum (p. 4). *Academically Based Community Service* courses are designed—or redesigned—to focus on revitalizing the community (France, 2006, p. 8). Joint learning opportunities are created that link various stakeholders, schools, university students, colleges, other community members (France, p. 8). *Civic Education* advocates civic and political engagement and provides active learning experiences that connect students' academic learning with civic involvement (France, p. 8). *Environmental Education* uses the environment to give voice to students' natural interests and prior knowledge (France, p. 8). *Place-Based Learning* utilises the unique history of a region or place and its culture and economy to provide a context for learning, students' "work is directed toward community needs and interests, and community members serve as resources and partners in every aspect of teaching and learning" (France, p. 8). *Service Learning* (France, p. 9) integrates community service with academic study. The activity involves students in meeting a community need identified by them and aims to strengthen students' civic responsibility and their communities. *Work-Based Learning* enables students to engage with mentors who assist them in learning about industry and work contexts (p. 9).

Numerous studies have been conducted that verified the relevance of community-based learning. For example, in terms of academic outcomes, a Community Based School Environmental Education Project in nine school sites in three New England states was evaluated and demonstrated “growth in teacher enthusiasm ... and increases in student engagement in learning, academic achievement, and knowledge about the social and natural environment” (King, 2006, p. 23). Other studies showed that inclusion of work-based learning promotes selection of challenging classes, improves attendance, and reduces dropout rates (King, p. 23). Also, attendance was improved in high-risk students who enrolled in work-based learning in career academies. Furthermore, Black and Hispanic youth showed to be more likely to select science and math courses after having participated in a work-based learning program (King, pp. 23-24). Positive outcomes were noted also in civic, personal, and social, and work outcomes (King, pp. 24-25).

Some of the principles of the approach include the following (France, 2006, p. 9):

- **Meaningful Content.** Learning occurs in places and focuses on issues that have meaning for students.

According to a National Research Council report (France, 2006, p. 11), “schools successfully engage students when they “make the curriculum and instruction relevant to adolescents’ experience, cultures, and long-term goals, so that students see some value in the high school curriculum”. For example, at the Lakeview Community Center in Lincoln, Nebraska, students decided to learn about their community—its buildings, residences, and history. As a result, they designed a 3-D model of their community built out of Legos, cardboard boxes, Play Doh, Lincoln Logs, and strawberry crates, shared stories about local history and similar. Local architects, builders, and businesspeople assisted. The activity generated more interest in the community and went to clean up streets to set an example for other residents, they planted seeds and flowers for everyone to enjoy the results (France, 2006, p. 12).

- **Voice and Choice.** Learning tasks are active and allow students to take an active role in decision making.

Most studies report that with age students want a much greater voice in classroom decisions (France, 2006, p. 13). Feelings of control, choice, competence, and belonging are linked to learning. In the Mississippi area, a regional community is helping residents develop the information, skills, and organization they need for effective citizen

participation. The group integrates the voices of young people who are welcomed and actively engage in various debates. The initiative makes room for them to have a say in what their community is to look like, thus enabling the students to see the relevance of their learning to their current lives, not one day in the future (France, p. 14).

- **Personal and Public Purpose.** Learning goals connect personal achievement to public purpose.

Findings of a large survey suggest that “even when young people are aware of the principles of democratic government, they may not understand their meaning well enough to choose or defend them” (France, 2006, p. 15). Research showed that subject matter learning alone does not enable students to develop their truly “democratic self” (France, 2006, p. 15). As young people are motivated by challenging, community-based problem solving, participation in the issues and success of their own communities helps them contextualise their learning, connect with their issues and build a more critically informed “can-do” attitude (France, p. 15). For example, to build a better awareness of the First Amendment, twenty schools from the First Amendment Schools Network have received grant funding to create “laboratories for democratic freedom” by integrating civic education and community engagement through service learning, civic problem solving, and shared decision making. Some of these activities include linking with the veteran network and to annually register to vote new eighteen-year-olds. Another engagement involved a school in implementing a comprehensive service-learning program assisting students in developing personal goals for the year. These activities resulted in an internship, which includes the design and implementation of a sustainable social action plan that benefits the community (France, p. 16).

- **Assessment and Feedback.** Conducting ongoing assessment gives students the opportunity to learn from their successes and failures.

In view of research indicating that current assessment methods are too narrow to capture the diverse ways in which students acquire and demonstrate learning, Community-based learning strategies were developed to incorporate on-going assessment so that young people can evaluate their own progress and the impact of their work. For example, in a rural school that worked with the Educational Testing Service (ETS) and nine design teams from around the country, a portfolio-based assessment process was developed. A matrix system was incorporated to help teachers assess the depth of

student learning and encourage the progression of student ownership and control from a project's beginning through advanced levels (France, 2006, p. 19).

- **Resources and Relationships.** Community partnerships increase the resources and relationships available for student learning and action.

While young people want to do well in life, many students do not know how to achieve their ambitious career and lifestyle goals (France, 2006, p. 20). Students from less privileged backgrounds tend to have a lesser understanding of the community landscape and its networks and opportunities. Community-based learning creates opportunities that reaching out to community partners who, in turn, mentor students and help them better understand different possibilities. Students learn the skills, attitudes, and beliefs that enable them to engage them in community life and “help them move from the periphery of their community to its center” (France, p. 21). For example, a service-learning program in Wisconsin, assisted students to explore their communities and introduced to the working lives of public officials and industry leaders. Using appropriate channels, the program enabled students to observe and share with the officials their views on community needs and address those efficiently.

Other understandings that influence the approach are (Adams, 2006, p. 8):

- Knowledge is constructed and influenced by social interaction.
- Memory—the acquisition, storage, and retrieval of information—is influenced by experience, prior learning, and practice. Students from less advantageous backgrounds tend to have a lesser understanding of the community landscape and find that less doors are open to them, making their transition to higher education and careers more challenging.
- The motivation to learn is affected by personal judgments about one's abilities and the perceived importance and attainability of the learning goal.
- Individuals learn in different ways.
- Barriers to learning can be mitigated by protective factors.
- Effective learning environments intentionally connect all of the systems that affect young people's lives—home, school and community

The use of the community-based learning approach was also described in Thailand, in a study by Buranapatana (2006). In the study, 1st year undergraduate Thai students engaged in a project

that they called *Thai News Network (TNN)*. The students were enrolled in a subject teaching them critical thinking skills in the context of reading and writing. Twenty-one undergraduate students participated in the study in which the entire local community became engaged, with people offering stories, reading stories, commenting on what was published, and also contributing to the process of writing. The project took place when the Internet was still relatively slow and did not support multimedia. Nonetheless, the students, using the university IT support, created a *TNN* website, which functioned like a hub, linking different communities, rural as well as academic, adults and children, through the stories the students published, the advertisements that they included to showcase their university and the many services that it offered to the community, and the dialogues that ensued between the authors and members of the community.

Obviously, many in the community did not have computers and so the students brought the stories that they wrote back to the community from which the stories originated and for whom they may have been significant. As Buranapatana (2006) describes, the project contributed to the community, enabled everyone to learn about each other and the issues that they found interesting or challenging. It also had a significant impact on the students, their attitudes to reading and being engaged in the life of their community. It also changed their perceptions of work and being professional. At the start of the project, some students wanted to work only on teams with their friends. However, the projects required of them to also work with peers that they disliked. At the end of the project, students commented on the shift that they perceived in their own views of what being professional meant and that at work, the most important thing is to focus on the job, not personal likes or dislikes. As the comments below indicate, a small unit on critical thinking had a significant impact on all aspects of learning largely, because it inserted the students into the community and enabled them to examine and learn from these engagements. The key strategy utilised by the teacher was for the students to look for people and information that might challenge what they know and how they approach the stories they hear and want to report.

The comment below illustrates students learning to work in teams:

My friends in my group did not get along, as we did not have a good relationship. Every time we had an appointment to work together at least one person was missing. The teacher told us that we could still work even if we had just 1-2 people, otherwise nothing would have been be done. (Student 20)

Buranapatana, 2006, p. 201

Here, the students' feedback demonstrates how, based on the experiences with their first articles, the students were adapting work process to work more inclusively and to get better results:

First month we worked together because we did not know how to get started, so we thought that it would be better if we could solve problems together. We found out that this method made us work very slowly, and got little information compared to other groups, so we changed to a new method of working. In the second and third month, we did a group discussion in order to make a decision on which issue we will focus, and then discussed those issues. Only one person in the group wrote the article based on the information after the discussion. In the last month, we discussed the important or interesting issues needed to be included in the chosen topic. After that we structured all the headings in the article, and all members shared responsibility for writing by working on their own issues. However, all of us needed to read and to understand others' ideas in order to organise the content coherently. (Student 12)

Buranapatana, 2006, p. 200

In the second article we reorganised the groups. It was useful for our work. I can say that our work then was done with more thinking than the first article. I felt that it was a real group work because all group members were responsible for the article. We started with choosing a topic, trying to think about the title, and analysing all information. All group members were enthusiastic about working and produced lots of interesting ideas. (Student 3)

Buranapatana, 2006, p. 201

Next, the comments show the change that the students observed in themselves as a result of the project and its teaching method:

I found it very wearing when we were asked to make any changes in the process of writing. Sometimes I was discouraged, but when we saw our articles on the website, I felt very happy and proud of myself. I think we have learned many things from the experiment as we were trained to work very hard and feel responsibility for our work. (Student 16)

Buranapatana, 2006, p. 195

The atmosphere in the classroom was very relaxed which was totally different from other subjects. In other subjects students usually sit and listen to the teachers and do not have opportunities to express their ideas in class. This makes students less enthusiastic about their learning. However, in this model of teaching, the students had to search for information by themselves. We did not just sit down waiting for something from the teacher. (Student 15)

Buranapatana, 2006, p. 196

One of the problems that many students commented on was the issue of time. In Asian countries, it is not unusual that students study many subjects during the semester for very few credit points, feel overloaded and lack time for reflection:

I think that this model of teaching should be used at a time when students do not have to study for many subjects because we need to have much more time to understand how to study and work. We would work better if we could study with this model in the semester when we do not have to study too hard. (Student 3).

Buranapatana, 2006, p. 198

The experiences from the *TNN* project echo the principles of community-based approaches described by France (2006) in the context of American experiences with that model. Focal in the *TNN* project was not specific, pre-scribed content. Rather, the content emerged from the students' interactions with the community, with each other, and with the job at hand, which they set out to accomplish. Much of that content and many of the learning needs that the "job" generated would have been impossible for the teacher to predict. The dynamics of the project, and of the consultative (dialogic) method that was applied, elicited the learning needs, and made them relevant. As students themselves noted, they were not asked to regurgitate material; they reflected on their own experiences, built on them, and, in the process, learned how their voice can be utilised to contribute to others thus building cohesive and supportive communities.

Community-based learning approaches have also been utilised in Early Childhood education, for example, to build sustainability awareness. The view that young children learn by expanding their contexts of participation motivates educators to increasingly design projects that enable children to meet their community and build their own sense of self in relation to their community values. The assumption is that these types of projects build students' sense of self-efficacy, or personal power, by developing their social and emotional presence in the community. However, as reported by Caiman and Lundegård (2014), examples of community-based learning in Early Childhood are still rare. Some of the projects that they report on include a "Bat Conservation Project" undertaken in Alderholt Sunbeams Nursery in Dorset and Nakuru West Preschool in the Rift Valley of Kenya (Luff, Miles, & Wangui 2015). The project began with environmental educator, Zoe Miles, who worked with the sunbeams staff to develop a three-week long activity on the subject of bats involving music, movement, stories and crafts and incorporating all the areas of learning in the Early Childhood curriculum. The activities involved children and their families in bat observation evenings, where heterodyne detectors were used to listen to the bat calls and the parents and children saw Pipistrelle and Noctule bats (Luff, Miles, & Wangui 2015). The project sparked children's curiosity and they wanted to know whether bats were birds or animals, why they hung upside down and how they stayed up. Children engaged in projects to share the newly discovered information with children from

different countries, which, in return, ignited the interest of their overseas friends in the subject. Exchanges followed as did many activities. In turn, Wilenski (2012) created a book that collated children's stories that emerged from his attentive listening to children during their free play in a local woodland. The stories revealed how children create "small stories engaging with big ideas" (Wilenski 2012, p. 7) from their experiences of play in the woods. Furthermore, MacDonald (2015) showed that gardening can bring the community and children together in a shared activity, thus building a sense of belonging, while also discovering the conditions for growth of different plants and weeding and learning how to document the newly acquired knowledge. Building a sense of belonging was also supported in a project, where children paid weekly visits to an aged care home, Histon Early Years Centre, "Once at Bramley Court", where the children shared their drawings from the woods, photos of the 'treasures' they found and stories of dormice and giants (Cambridge Curiosity and Imagination, n.d.).

In summary, the studies reviewed in this section were connected by the concepts of education as a dialogue and of students as stakeholders in that dialogue. The examples analysed showed students drawing on their community experiences and values, and their interactions being oriented to impact on those experiences and values. The transformative impacts of the learning experiences illustrated in this section affected not only the students, but also the communities with which they engaged. The *TNN* project is a case in point, where the entire university and town community became involved in the project, exercising their respective agencies as authors, community-developers, critical readers, and teachers, depending on the context. The *TNN* study collected comments from different stakeholders to evidence their involvement. The "teachers" in the *TNN* study were stakeholders who offered information to students, when needed and on the subject on which they felt they had expertise. As indicated in the comments of the participating students, the range of skills they acquired was broad, but it was meaningful to them as they were developing them gradually, in context, in order to overcome their immediate challenges. In the same way, the community projects described France (2006), King (2006) and others. Their aim was to open the "space" for inquiry to be led by the students' interactions with the community. No study reported lack of motivation or boredom. The initial resistance, if experienced, was more due to the novelty of those projects, rather than their nature.

The increasingly changing expectations of education by the stakeholder community were echoed in changes in educational frameworks that defined the direction of 21st education

practices and industries. Competency-based models of teaching and learning evolved. The examples reviewed so far make it evident that, conceptually, education was ready for a change. However, in practice, change involved not only a massive administrative load, but also a need to investigate its meaning closer, beyond the successes of individual projects.

2.2.2 Standardisation and accountability

The Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21), a group that was founded in 2001 in Washington, D.C, and that works with major business and education organisations, parents, and governments to support the 21st Century Education movement, believes that making the connection between learning and the real world is imperative for student success (Adams, 2006, p. 1). P21 is well-known for the development of the 21st Century Learning framework. According to the Partnership, “the education system faces irrelevance unless we bridge the gap between how students live and how they learn” (P21 cited in Adams, 2006, p. 1). For example, the Partnership sees literacy as skills that develop in the context of students participating effectively in civic life through knowing how to stay informed and understanding governmental processes, exercising the rights and obligations of citizenship at local, state, national and global levels, and understanding the local and global implications of civic decisions (P21, p. 2). Similarly, P21 believes education should enable the development of global awareness, which includes understanding and addressing of global issues, learning from and working collaboratively with individuals representing diverse cultures, religions and lifestyles in a spirit of mutual respect and open dialogue in personal, work and community contexts, and understanding other nations and cultures, including the use of non-English languages (P21, p. 2). Financial education also should be part of modern curricula, with students learning how to make appropriate personal economic choices, understanding the role of the economy in society, using entrepreneurial skills to enhance workplace productivity and career options (P21, p. 2).

P21 (n.d.) has also taken lead in developing a learning framework for 21st Century. P21 has advocated for the integration of higher order thinking skills into US curricula (Gilbert, 2019, p. 170). The key groups of those skills are **creativity and innovation, critical thinking and problem solving, communication and collaboration, information, media and technology skills, life and career skills**. Each of these group skills is divided into several subgroups to identify skills relevant for each group and, in this way, to provide greater clarity. For example, **information literacy**, includes two subgroups, *Accessing and Evaluating Information* and *Using and Managing Information*. *Accessing and Evaluating Information* is developed into the

skills of Accessing information efficiently (time) and effectively (sources) and Evaluating information critically and competently. *Using and Managing Information* has three subskills, using information accurately and creatively for the issue or problem at hand, managing the flow of information from a wide variety of sources, and applying a fundamental understanding of the ethical/legal issues surrounding the access and use of information. **Life and career skills** is organised into five major subgroups, *Flexibility and Adaptability*, *Initiative and Self-Direction*, *Social and Cross-Cultural Skills*, *Productivity and Accountability*, *Leadership and Responsibility*. These are, in turn, divided into further macroskills.

The 21st Century Learning framework (P21, n.d.) provided a thorough basis for the development of national curricula worldwide, including the USA. The framework developed by the OECD (2005) entitled *Twenty-first century skills and competences for new millennium learners in OECD countries* (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009), also played a significant role in providing the general direction for education in the new century. These efforts, as stated in the OECD (p. 7) framework, were motivated by the following challenges that the new century brought with it:

- Rapidly changing technology which requires not just one-off mastery of processes but also adaptability.
- Societies becoming more diverse and compartmentalised, with interpersonal relationships therefore requiring more contact with those who are different from oneself.
- Globalisation creating new forms of interdependence, requiring that citizens' awareness of influences and effects needs to expand beyond their concepts of local or national community.

Reflectiveness is at the heart of key competencies in the OECD (2005) framework, "Thinking reflectively demands relatively complex mental processes and requires the subject of a thought process to become its object" (OECD, 2005, p. 8). The cognitive, social and the global dimensions of the P21 learning framework, and its emphasis of life contexts and experience, point to the multiplicity of factors that enable this reflective process to be relevant in current times, "It is not just about how individuals think, but also about how they construct experience more generally, including their thoughts, feelings and social relations" (OECD, p. 9). In any one context, it is expected that individuals draw on a constellation of competencies to act informed. In the modern era of technology and ease of access, the information society require

mastery of socio-cultural tools for interacting with knowledge. This means the ability to find it, assess it, expand it, question the findings, relating information to heterogeneous contexts, as well as the competency to interact with others and to relay one's knowledge to others (OECD, pp. 9-13). The OECD competence framework integrates the autonomous and the social aspects of functioning in life. Autonomy is important for individuals to develop their own voice, while the social dimension stresses the skills involved in considering the wider context of their actions and decisions (OECD, p. 14). According to the OECD framework (OECD, p. 16), assessment must account for all the dimensions of skills, including attitudes and dispositions, to map out the extent to which individuals have the reflective approach to knowledge and learning that underlies the competency framework. The following are avenues for developing such tests (OECD, p. 17):

- The construction of profiles of competencies, for example, by developing a portfolio of outcomes for each student rather than treating individual competencies in isolation.
- Greater use of information and communication technology in testing to produce more interactive testing instruments.
- Mechanisms for relating key competencies to social and economic well-being.

2.2.3 Developments in Australia

In Australia, a three-dimensional national curriculum was designed (ACARA, 2014) to account for the complexities of the modern world and its demands. Following Reid's (2005) report and, reportedly, Amartya Sen's welfare economics and interest in human potentials and development (Gilbert, 2019, p. 170), Australia has taken a capabilities-approach to curriculum design. The General Capabilities of the Australian Curriculum emphasise the higher order thinking skills that all learning contexts should support. General capabilities are "generic and employability skills that have particular application to the world of work and further education and training, such as planning and organising, the ability to think flexibly, to communicate well and to work in teams" (MCEETYA, 2008). The Capabilities include the *Social and Personal Capabilities*, the *Capabilities of Critical and Creative Thinking*, and the *Capabilities of Intercultural Knowledge and Ethics*. Other Capabilities include *Literacy, Numeracy, and ICT* to ensure that all students are competent in those areas. Each of the Capabilities is described in the Curriculum in detail to provide educators with a comprehensive list of skills that they involve. Together, the "general capabilities comprise an integrated and interconnected set of knowledge, skills, behaviours and dispositions that apply across subject-based content and

equip students to be lifelong learners and be able to operate with confidence in a complex, information-rich, globalised world” (ACARA 2017 cited in Gilbert, 2019, p. 170). The Australian Curriculum also lists Cross Curriculum Priorities, which specify the contexts of learning activities, or “themes”, that teaching should engage. These are: Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Histories and Cultures, Asia and Australia's Engagement with Asia and Sustainability. The aim is to “give students the tools and language to engage with and better understand their world at national, regional and global levels” (ACARA, 2014). Lastly, the Australian Curriculum specifies content outcomes relative to each subject and year in which it is taught.

As pointed out by Lambert (2014, p. 24), the key objective of the Australian Curriculum is to “extend the freedoms of young people to think: to discern, to select and to make informed and defensible choices. Yet, the implementation of the Australian Curriculum has not been free of challenges, “Some uncertainty around the nature, role and implementation of the general capabilities is not surprising, for they represent an approach to curriculum development that has a relatively short history, and one that has been fraught with difficulty and criticism” (Gilbert, 2009, p. 169). The curriculum review by Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014 cited in Gilbert, 2019, p. 170) argued, a precise rationale for and explanation of the capabilities have not been presented, which makes them difficult to interpret. As argued by McGaw (2013 cited in Gilbert, 2019, p. 190), OECD Director for Education from 1998 to 2005, the Capabilities and the 21st Century learning framework (P21, n.d.) draw on similar values, but the link is not articulated due to avoid confusion: “The new Australian Curriculum pays serious attention to what are referred to as 21st century skills but does not use that nomenclature because the skills are not unique to the 21st century”. According to Gilbert (2019, p. 170), a “clearer statement about the nature of the capabilities would be useful in establishing their significance”. However, arguably, this would require their theorising, which, in turn, would prevent educators from developing their own framework for working with the General Capabilities, based on their research and evidence, i.e., the kind of freedom that leads to innovation and which is prevented when all elements of a policy are fixed by a single intellectual paradigm and the empirical evidence that informed it. For example, Lian & Norman (2017) offer one such attempt, where they use interdisciplinary evidence from research in sociology, cultural science and semiotics, neuroscience, linguistics, and corrective phonetics to theorise the manner for working with the General Capabilities while also building on current education research and its paradigms.

As identified by Gilbert (2019), the critique of the capabilities approach to the Australian Curriculum comes from powerful figures in education research. As mentioned by Gilbert (p. 171), for Priestley and Biesta (2013), the explanations of the competencies and capacities listed in “Curricula for Excellence” are too lengthy, confusing, prone to be interpreted narrowly, reducing teaching and assessment to a tick-box strategy, while also, teaching students to adapt to the present, instead of fostering “critical democratic agency”, i.e. the ability to “critically shape their responses to problematic situations” (Priestley & Biesta, 2013, p. 3). This quality of informed participation, Priestley and Biesta (2013, p. 3) argue, “is not to be understood as something that people can have; it is something that people do”: it is a function of individuals’ engagement “with temporal-relational contexts-for-action, not a quality of the actors themselves”. According to Priestley and Biesta (2013, p. 5), it is critical to mention the temporal and contextual dimensions of agency to illustrate that knowledge is always embedded and how it is learned and for what purpose will impact on what is learned, “agency doesn’t come from nowhere, but builds upon past achievements, understandings and patterns of action”. This is important to stress, as working with the Australian Curriculum hinges on the understanding of the factors that inform action and thus support knowledge development. The notion of informed participation in the life of the Australian society is central to the vision spelled out in the Melbourne Declaration developed by the Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA, 2008). The vision declares that the purpose of Australian education is to promote equity and excellence for all young Australians become confident and creative individuals and active and informed citizens.

While the factors that Priestley and Biesta discuss describe the concept of agency as it relates to the teacher, the concept of agency that they present applies in other contexts, including that of the student. This is echoed in Biesta and Priestly (2013, p. 41), where following Deakin Crick (2008, p. 313), they argue that “competencies are never formulated in the abstract, but always in relation to specific views about desirable abilities, capacities and attitudes in relation to specific domains of action and being”. This framework presents a case for models of teaching and learning where the capacity to act emerges as a product of “temporally embedded process of social engagement, informed by the past (in its habitual aspect), oriented toward the future (as a capacity to imagine alternative possibilities) and ‘acted out’ in the present (as a capacity to contextualize past habits and future projects with the contingencies of the moment)” (Priestly & Biesta, 2013, p. 5). Biesta and Priestly (2013, p. 41) add, since the world “never demands anything

in itself’, any demands are subject to the understandings in which individuals frame their actions. The problem that Biesta and Priestly (p. 42) see here is that of the ethics. According to them, what individuals should acquire to act informed “in modern liberal-democratic societies is precisely seen as something that people should be free to define for themselves” (p. 42). To deal with this problem, Biesta and Priestly (p. 42) argue for learning to be linked to the contexts of the real world, thus avoiding a disjointed curriculum which “gives students knowledge and skills but doesn’t prepare them for the ‘real’ world” and where skills are seen as arbitrary and abstract concepts.

According to Biesta and Priestly (2013, p. 42) disjointed curricula create learning contexts where “teachers become too much focused on checking that all the different competencies and sub-competencies have been mastered rather than taking a more integral and integrative approach”. In congruence with their definition of agency, they (p. 43) argue for learning contexts where capabilities are demonstrated, which then, in turn, raises the question of the process by which relevant skills and competencies are identified and taught. It is critical to avoid reductionist techniques that turn this process into behaviouristic drills, where “education focuses too much on the ‘outside’, so to speak, that is on performance and behaviour, and too little on the ‘inside’, that is on thinking, understandings, reflection and judgement” (p. 44). As Biesta and Priestly (p. 44) note, this is not only an issue in teaching but also assessment, “particularly if assessment were only to focus on action and performance ... not on the accompanying knowledge, understanding and judgement”. Apparently, this is already the case in education as, according to Biesta and Priestly (p. 44), the literature points to examples criticising this very approach. Biesta and Priestly (p. 44) suggest that education where students rehearse real life contexts may not be adequate to prepare students to transfer skills from one context to another, “If, to put it differently, the focus is too much on learning concrete behaviour, there is a risk that what students learn cannot be transferred to other situations”. This kind of rehearsing requires from students to “accept the situation as given” and it fails to invite them to engage reflectively, “To think of education entirely in terms of capacities or competencies runs the risk that it puts too much emphasis on ... education as socialization ... and too little on education as emancipation and subjectification” (Biesta & Priestly, p. 44-45).

The discussion so far showed that capacities, capabilities, and competencies, while important, alone are no guarantors of advancement of educational systems. The recent reforms acquire meaning only when the vision they articulate is reviewed and understood in relation to past

experiences with educational models that are based in the long tradition of educational philosophy inherited from the Greeks and developed over the centuries, that reflect our struggles to understand the purpose of education, especially public education. The idea that education is a process of *self-formation* through the interaction of individuals with culture and society is not new (Biesta & Priestly, 2013, p. 39). The significance of current policies and visions statements is more in their attempt to formalise the requirements, including the funding. More recently, other than the national curriculum, Australia also developed a series of professional standards for both teachers and principals, and various performance and development indicators to ensure consistency of teacher performance and teacher education programs across the nation's universities and training providers (Mackenzie, 2017, p. 272). The Australian Institute for Teachers and School Leaders (AITSL) was created as were the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (AITSL, 2012a), the Australian Professional Standard for Principals (AITSL, 2012b), the Certification of Highly Accomplished and Lead Teachers (AITSL, 2012c), the Australian Charter for the Professional Learning of Teachers and School Leaders (AITSL, 2012d) and the Teacher Performance and Development Framework (AITSL, 2012e). As Mackenzie (p. 273) notes, although these policies sought improvements in learning and development, "in practice the programs reflect a managerial culture and technologies of control".

As indicated above, the new regulatory policies attracted criticism for turning education into a "tick-box" performance, a phenomenon that Biesta and Priestly (2013) have warned against (Mackenzie, p. 272), where a push for quality and accountability measured through the collection of data monitored at a national level was turned into a system of numbers, facilitated by the new developments in technology. As Mackenzie writes, quoting the *Herald Sun*, "Teachers will have to prove they are improving outcomes for their students to get a pay rise in a new get-tough approach. Principals will also be judged on student achievement, engagement and wellbeing across their schools" (Hosking in Mackenzie, p. 273). To help restore the balance, Mackenzie points to Fullan's (2011, p. 8) four criteria which advance strategic change, which seek to restore balance by advocating **fostering** of intrinsic motivation of teachers and students; **engaging** educators and students in the continuous improvement of instruction and learning; **inspiring** collective or teamwork; and **affecting all** teachers and students. In other words, Fullan's framework challenges educators to use policies as a tool for reflection on "questions about educational purpose and the question as to what good education and good teaching look like" (Biesta & Priestly, 2013, p. 43). Fullan believes, "it is not the

presence of standards and assessment that is the problem, but rather the attitude that underpins them” (Fullan, 2011, p. 8). This attitude, according to Biesta (2010), includes, *inter alia*, value judgments and decisions about the data that may help inform those value judgments.

According to Biesta (2010, p. 18), finding balance and common ground is made more difficult by the recent “learnification” of education, i.e., a tendency to privilege teaching rather than learning and giving more attention to “input” and less to the activities of students. The trend is to forget that learning is always in context and involves processes of relating. This “learnification”, hence, results in teachers taking control of “input” and limiting the scope of content to what they believe to be congruent with their values, to the exclusion of those of the student and the context in which the student locates him/herself. This taking charge of students’ learning not only renders the student absent and his/her beliefs secondary to those of the teacher, it also counters the idea that, as indicated by Fullan (2011) and Biesta (2010), education should be a collaborative activity, where the parties involved build content organically as the learning activity develops. According to Biesta (2010, p. 19) to bring questions of purpose and direction back on the educational agenda will require consideration of how the three pillars of education, i.e., qualification, socialisation and subjectification, can be integrated to work in synergy. Accordingly, Biesta (p. 20) envisages that in terms of qualifications, education provides students with knowledge, skills, and understandings to integrate socially and professionally. In terms of socialisation, education offers opportunities to become part of particular social, cultural, and political “orders”, “education playing an important role in the continuation of culture and tradition”. In terms of subjectification, education should be one of the factors that build one’s sense of self, independence and, in some sense, the ability to dissociate from specific “social orders” to gain critical perspective on a problem at hand (Biesta, pp. 20-21).

According to Lian and Norman (2017), the three pillars described by Biesta are well attended to in the Australian Curriculum especially through its General Capabilities but also the Cross-Curriculum Priorities. Yet, the 2014 review of the Australian Curriculum suggests otherwise: “The argument that capabilities like creative thinking and learning how to learn can be applied across a range of subjects or that they are generic in nature ignores the reality that they are domain specific” (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014, p. 133). As Gilbert (2019, p. 172) notes, this remark leaves a door open for all subjects to ignore the General Capabilities, especially since no mention was made which subjects should always include them. Despite the efforts of the

Australian government to preserve the General Capabilities, teachers struggle to come up with a coherent system for their implementation: “While acknowledging their existence, teachers were not consistently planning and teaching with the general capabilities in mind ... Nonetheless, all tended to endorse their importance and relevance to students’ (Skourdoumbis 2016 in Gilbert, p. 172). Even in humanities subjects, such as history, the presence of the General Capabilities is nominal, at best: “For instance, in the history syllabus, there is no reference in the stated syllabus content or skills to ethical understanding or intercultural understanding. It is also interesting that, where the capabilities icons do appear, they are linked to content descriptions, but not to concepts or inquiry skills” (Gilbert, p. 173). The difficulty to integrate the General Capabilities into subject areas was reported in all states in Australia, with Victoria deciding to represent the capabilities in the curriculum as distinct areas of learning (Gilbert, p. 173).

2.2.4 Summary

To summarise, this section sought to offer a brief overview of the trends which characterise the global developments in education and the challenges that the new reforms generate. Overall, the section showed systems in transition, opening to new concepts, which give precedence to skills that require higher order thinking, and to procedures designed to ensure educators are equipped with a comprehensive list of criteria against which they can plan their own self-development and progress. The overview also showed systems subverting the proposed changes, especially the new concept of the curriculum designed like a matrix, rather than a traditional list of items to teach. The discussion made it apparent that education appears to lack frameworks that would help teachers translate the complex structure of the curriculum into principles for designing students’ learning experiences.

The overview also illustrated interesting models of teaching in United States, already in place since 1980s, and put together on the basis of evidence and values, long steeped in education philosophy, to provide the depth of learning of experience that prominent education researchers, like Biesta and others, argue for in their publications.

Overall, the trends and changes discussed in this section suggest that a schism has formed between the policymakers and educators endowed with the task to interpret and implement the new reforms. From the perspective of the policymakers, it appears critical for students to be exposed to education, which serves the development of higher order thinking skills,

competencies, and dispositions. On other hand, from the perspective of educators, the manner of integrating of those skills and dispositions remains ambiguous. Scholars argue that the principles that inform the policymakers' vision are lacking intellectual coherence, "epistemic structure", i.e., the "internal structuring principle, that is, an episteme, which organises the concepts into coherent systems of meaning' (McPhail & Rata, 2016, p. 65). It appears that identifying the epistemic structure is a challenge. Theorising the frameworks for working with the curriculum appears to be a challenge that needs to be addressed. Lian and Norman (2017) were mentioned as having taken on that challenge. They drew on the concept of *capital* theorised by Bourdieu (1972) and proposed a method for linking the different forms of capital with the General Capabilities (other than those of literacy, numeracy, and ICT). Using evidence from a number of disciplines, Lian and Norman also proposed a framework for designing learning activities and resources to support teachers in working with the General Capabilities. The work by Lian and Norman (2017) may offer an example of an approach for identifying epistemically coherent frameworks for working with the curriculum.

2.3 Education reforms in Cambodia

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the historical context of Cambodia, prolonged wars and complex politics that followed the occupation by the Vietnamese People's Republic since 1979, made the task of rebuilding the country and its education quite a challenge. With many educators being either murdered or having fled to neighbouring countries, the intellectual capital of the country had to be rebuilt, including the connections between education and economy.

The sections that follow describe the reforms put in place over the last 5-10 years for Cambodia to meet international quality and equity accreditation standards.

2.3.1 The national curriculum of Cambodia

Education is seen in Cambodia as critical to the country's development and greater cohesion (Tan, 2008, p. 567). The current curriculum was developed by learning from the experiences of the 1954 and 1967 policies. The national curriculum has been revised several times since 1980. Earlier curricula from 1980 and 1986 were poor as the country lacked the relevant expertise to construct policies that would be in step with international values and compatible with humanistic principles (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015). Figure 2.2 illustrates the framework of the new national curriculum (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015).



Figure 2.2. The framework of the new curriculum (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015).

As illustrated in Figure 2.2, in line with international shifts away from content-based learning models toward transformative pedagogies, the new national curriculum of Cambodia (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015) the development of a “full citizen”. It specifies values, competencies and skills that advocate for students’ learning experiences that focus on the integration of students into their communities. According to the curriculum, the values that inform its design draw on the concepts of humanisation, localisation, regionalisation, and universalisation. The key competencies that the curriculum emphasises include knowledge, skills, attitudes, and language competencies – Khmer and foreign languages; maths, science, technology and ICT; and arts education.

The *generic skills* and competencies include self-study, research, critical thinking, communication and problem-solving skills, independence, cooperation, physical education, learning and working, and application of scientific methods (observation, hypothesis making, experimentative data collection, and induction/deduction) to create competent, dignified citizens, creative and environmentally aware people (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015). Other skills and knowledge that the curriculum values include evaluation and decision making; human rights, life-long learning skills; love, protection, and country construction (Kingdom of

Cambodia, 2015). It also promotes the learning of life skills and vocational education to develop labour with appropriate skills for all areas. All skills are given brief definitions; however, no elaborate criteria are offered that would help educators fine-tune and target the abilities that make up those skills. The reliance on Bloom's (1956) taxonomy may not be enough to assist educators in that job.

The new curriculum advocates support for *student-centred learning* and teaching and discourages traditional teacher-centred approach. While this is a positive direction, as revealed in a study by Tandon and Fukao (2015), the teaching of the new curriculum continues to depend heavily on using the textbook as the curriculum. According to Tandon and Fukao (2015, p. 4), similar approach is reflected in teacher-training courses, "Despite adequate facilities and positive perceptions of school environments, the majority of Cambodia's teacher trainers fail to provide sufficient content mastery and student-centered pedagogy". Tandon and Fukao (2015) criticise teacher education programs for failing to integrate teacher standards (MoYES, 2010), though officially they are part of the training. This, as they claimed, undermines their utility and reflects negatively on educators' own understanding of their value in schools. As Tandon and Fukao (p. 47) report, by 2015, five years after their initial publication, many teacher trainers have not heard of the teacher standards, which signals a major disconnect between the MoEYS' teacher training goals, the stated curricular guidelines, and the teacher preparation contexts.

Collaboration between teacher trainers was another aspect of training that Tandon and Fukao (2015) identified as missing. According to Tandon and Fukao, this hindered capacity-building and prevented trainers to assess their training effectiveness critically. These uncritical practices resulted in a culture of "low-quality instruction", which supported training activities such as "dictating lessons with little feedback or applied activities, or having students copy off the board for extended periods" (p. 5). Tandon and Fukao (p. 5) claim that on external measures of competencies, there is a "very low performance among both teacher trainers and teacher trainees", with pre-service teachers having better knowledge skills than their trainers, in all subjects. Teacher trainers are also not able to diagnose their students' needs and propose solutions (p. 5). With teacher trainers modelling teacher-centred culture, it is likely that this culture is then propagated across the entire education system.

2.2.5 Teacher Professional Standards

In an effort to provide the teacher profession and teacher educators with firm guidelines, Cambodia developed its own professional standards for teachers with the view to promoting teacher competency and professionalism, and to improve overall education quality and learner outcomes (MoYES, 2010). The initiative built on the overall vision for Cambodia's education, more recently updated and articulated in numerous documents, including the Teacher Policy Action Plan (MoYES, 2015, p. 7) and based on the World Bank (2012) analysis of education in South East Asia, and on the publication of the Southeast Asia Teachers Competency Framework (Figure 2.3) (Teachers' Council of Thailand, 2018). The latter was designed to guide teacher professional development for 21st century education (Teachers' Council of Thailand, 2018, p. 1). The framework identifies four key teacher competencies: (1) Knowing and understanding what to teach; (2) helping students learn; (3) Engaging community; (4) Becoming a better teacher every day. The entire framework is designed to support students' positive learning experiences and the overall well-being.

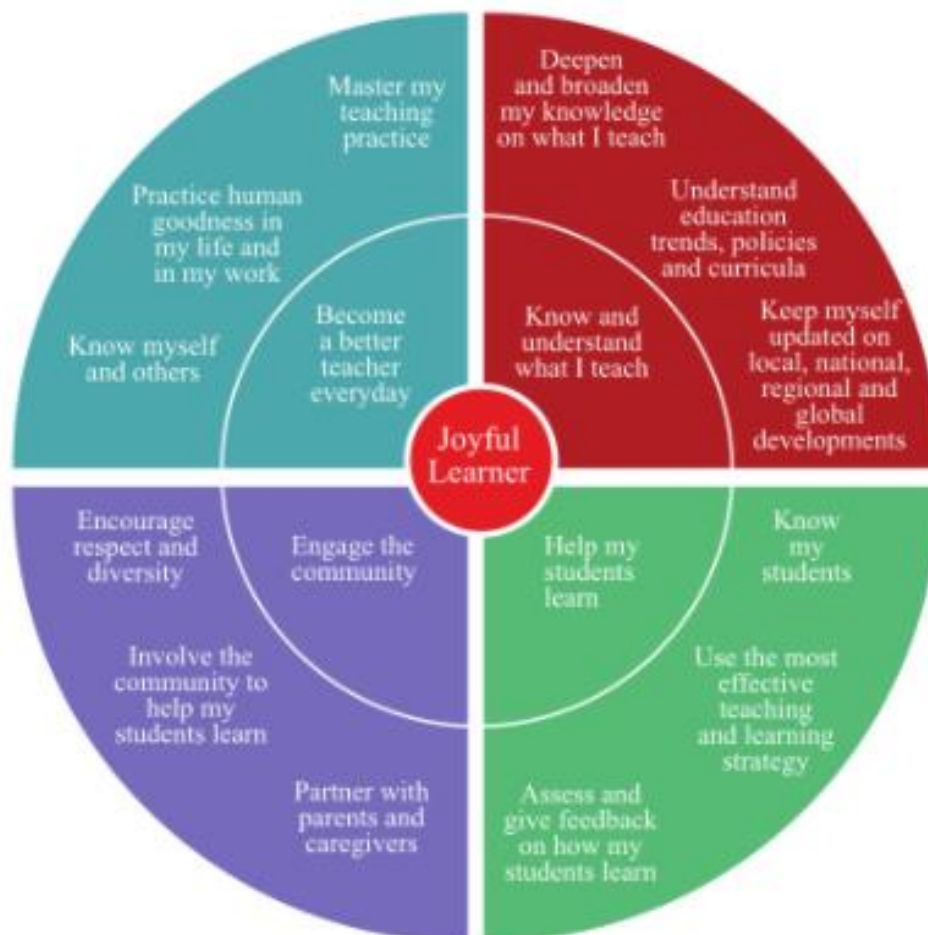


Figure 2.3. Southeast Asia Teachers' Competency Framework (Teachers' Council of Thailand, 2018, p. 7).

Following the abovementioned guidelines, Cambodia declared its commitment to supporting teachers by (a) making teaching a more attractive profession; (b) improving teacher preparation; and (c) encouraging stronger classroom performance. As part of its support, *inter alia*, the government (MoYES, 2015, pp. 7-8) seeks to ensure that, increasingly, teacher standards guide the Initial Teacher Training Programs, focus and promote peer collaboration among teachers, teacher trainers and the larger education system, improve teaching and promote student-centred pedagogy, improve the quality of pedagogical content knowledge. The government is also committed to creating effective incentives to support the development of understaffed and remote areas. However, while these developments are very positive, the policies tend to invest in teacher preparation and development, nothing is said about the infrastructure and environments that support modern ways of learning which value independent and distributed forms of learning (Mitra & Dungwal, 2010; Rouse, 2010). In distributed models of learning, students rely less on the expertise of the teacher and textbook materials and more on resources and multi-media technology that facilitate collaboration and discovery learning. At the same time, depending on the need, the teaching can utilise different technologies, such as a mix of Web-based instruction streaming video conferencing, face-to-face classroom time, distance learning through television or video, or other combinations of electronic and traditional educational models. In other words, the policies of Cambodia follow more traditional models of funding and development which invest in human capital, rather than the broader context of factors that impact on the quality of access to knowledge, communities and learning resources. Yet, arguably, without this access, students' learning, and teacher education, continue to resemble more the context of the past than 21st century learning.

Figure 2.4 illustrates Teacher Professional Standards in Cambodia (MoYES, 2019, pp. 38-40). Teacher Professional Standards (MoEYS, 2019) are organised along four domains. Domain 1, **Professional Knowledge**, encompasses aspects relating to factors that impact on students' learning, content and the process of learning. Domain 2, **Professional Practice**, addresses elements affecting the quality of instruction, including lesson planning and assessment; the learning environment; and engagement of higher order thinking and the ICT. Domain 3, **Professional Study**, covers strategies enabling teachers to self-asses on a regular basis, build their ICT skills, and develop relationships with relevant stakeholders. It also requires that

teachers engage in intellectual activities, including research, that expand their professional knowledge. Domain 4, **Professional Ethics** section, refers to elements of professional conduct that affect student-teacher relationships, such as fairness or emotional safety, attitudes to the profession, and role modelling of fairness, transparency, and ethical behaviour.

The role of Teacher Professional Standards is to guide the implementation of teacher training program reforms, offer a shared understanding, common goals and language regarding quality teaching among teachers and other education professionals and the public; provide a framework to guide teachers' professional learning and development; provide a framework for professional accountability; provide a framework to improve consistency and coherence of teacher policies; and contribute to professionalization and raising teaching professional status (UNESCO, 2019).

Standards		Descriptors
1. Professional Knowledge		
Knowledge of students	1.1 Know students (their learning needs, capacity, academic backgrounds, and attitude to learning)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe students' learning needs. Describe students' learning capacity. Describe students' learning backgrounds. Describe students' learning attitude.
	1.2 Know clearly about family status and factors (i.e., gender, social & economic backgrounds, disability and ethnicity) that affect student learning, and how to resolve those factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe how gender influences student learning. Describe how social & economic factors influence student learning. Describe how disability and ethnicity influence student learning. Describe how to deal with these factors.
Knowledge of content	1.3 Be aware of national educational policies, national education goals and purposes of general education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe national educational policies, national goals and purposes of general education. Describe how these policies, national education goals and purposes of general education are achieved.
	1.4 Understand how to prepare a lesson plan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe objectives and their elements correctly. Describe main points of Student-Center Approaches. Describe appropriate student assessment strategies. Describe appropriate teaching and learning materials to be used in teaching lessons
	1.5 Understand curriculum content. Be able to explain and teach subject content well	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clearly outline curriculum contents to be taught. Teaching indicates clear understanding of contents.
	1.6 Understand how to integrate content from one subject to another so students gain transferable skills and are more willing to learn.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe ways of integrating contents from one subject to another that can help students learn better and enjoy learning.
Knowledge of student learning	1.7 Understand educational context of classroom and community.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe ways the classroom environment can be improved to help students learn better. Describe ways the school community could be involved to help students learn better.
	1.8 Understand how students learn.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describe one or more theories of how students learn. Describe various student learning styles.
	1.9 Understand differences in student skills, learning speed and learning styles.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explain differences in how students learn. Explain difference in student learning speeds. Explain differences in student learning styles.
2. Professional Practice		
Planning for and Assessment	2.1 Prepare correct and effective lesson plans, teaching curriculum, and assessment of learning outcomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lesson plan contains a clear statement of learning objectives. Lesson plan contains a clear statement of how learning outcomes will be assessed. Lesson plan contains a clear statement of student, teacher activities and contents to support learning objectives.

	Standards	Descriptors
of Learning Outcomes	2.2 Prepare teaching and learning materials to achieve student learning outcomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prepare effective student materials to achieve student learning outcomes. • Prepare effective teaching materials to achieve student learning outcomes.
	2.3 Employ a variety of appropriate ways for assessing student learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Construct test questions with appropriate formats and time for students to answer. • Select test items from books with appropriate questions and time for students to answer. • Show test answers and share corrections with students. • Clearly define test outcomes to show effectiveness of student learning.
	2.4 Follow up student participation and maintain records of student progress.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Follow up student participation through observation and making notes. • Maintain records of student participation in learning activities.
	2.5 Give feedback to students, parents or guardians about the development of student knowledge, skills and attitudes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Give feedback to students by speaking in person with them and making appropriate written comments on written work, especially in relationship books. • Give feedback to parents or guardians through monthly reports and meeting them in person if necessary.
Learning Environment	2.6 Provide safe learning environment and encourage all students to learn	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate effective classroom management. • Help students interact positively with each other. • Provide a learning environment which extends students' learning.
	2.7 Help students to become increasingly responsible for their own learning.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate ways students can be helped to take more responsibility for their own learning. • Show examples of student work which demonstrate self-study (tasks, mini projects, group reports, etc.).
	2.8 Participate in school development to support learning and welfare of students and colleagues.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe school development activities the teacher participated in. • Make suggestions for school development activities.
Teaching Strategies	2.9 Use a range of teaching methods to facilitate student learning and to meet MoEYS Curriculum Standards.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate a range of teaching methods: deductive, inductive, group work, demonstration, problem-solving. • Describe effective teaching methods used for each lesson, especially correct implementation of Student-center Approaches. • Explain why a particular method has been used.
	2.10 Meet student learning styles and needs through suitable implementation of various teaching methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Show various teaching methods to fit student learning styles (i.e., good at language, Maths, physical movement, music, interpersonal relations, etc.) • Explain teaching methods which match student learning styles.
	2.11 Prepare and give students opportunities for learning about problem resolution as well as critical and creative thinking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Help students to think critically to analyze issues. • Describe how to use critical thinking to resolve problems.
	2.12 Use of information and communications technology, if possible to make teaching and learning more effective.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe how to use Information and Communications Technology to help motivate student learning. • Describe how to use Information and Communications Technology to help students learn more effectively.
3. Professional Study		
Self-Learning	3.1 Regularly evaluate own teaching and plan for personal professional development.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify own professional strengths, weaknesses and needs. • Prepare an effective personal Professional Development plan. • Use a diary to reflect on own work.

Standards		Descriptors
	3.2 Develop IT knowledge and skills to be applied to teaching and learning.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide certificates as proof of further professional study. • Describe how to use Information Technology for research. • self study. • Willing to do research to gain knowledge on new teaching techniques through use of Information Technology.
	3.3 Improve relationships with students, parents, colleagues and community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate relationship with students. • Demonstrate relationship with colleagues. • Demonstrate relationship with parents and community.
Participation in Improving Teaching	3.4 Read professional education articles and carry out research to broaden knowledge and improve teaching.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe the articles s/he has read and researched and how the lessons from reading have been used to improve teaching. • Share experiences gained through reading and researching, with co workers to upgrade capacity.
	3.5 Interact with other teachers in professional learning activities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • List workshops / training attended. • Explain content of workshops / training attended and provide good experiences for teaching and learning to other teachers.
4. Professional Ethics		
	4.1 Caring for students and working in the interests of students and society.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speak to students, colleagues and others in community with respect and encouragement. • Show respect for child rights without verbal abuse and corporal punishment. • Work with colleagues and other community members in the interests of the students.
	4.2 Demonstrate commitment and responsibility to the teaching profession.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attend school regularly and arrive on time. Attend school events. • Demonstrate consistent friendly and kind behavior. • Show respect to students, colleagues and others in the community. • Show enthusiasm and initiative in all aspects of professional activities. • Demonstrate knowledge of the MoEYS Code of Ethics and Law on Education.
	4.3 Demonstrate a positive model of ethical behaviour. Enjoy harmonious relationships with students and community.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wear appropriate dress. • Demonstrate a positive attitude to students and others. • Demonstrate capacity to maintain harmonious professional relationships. • Instill the values of ethical behaviour in student parents and others.
	4.4 Use fairness and transparency in dealings with students, colleagues, and other members of community.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate professional integrity through treating others equally and without bias. • Give all students equal attention and access to resources irrespective of gender, disability, ethnicity or poverty. • Assess learning outcomes fairly.

Figure 2.4. Teacher Professional Standards, Cambodia (MoEYS, 2010).

2.2.6 School Director Professional Standards

There are six School Director Professional Standards (MoEYS, 2019, pp. 41-43) (Appendix). Standard 1, Academic Level and Work Experience, describes the required qualifications. Standard 2, Ability and Qualifications of School Director, identifies the leadership qualities of a school director, including those concerning the building of professional ethic, the capacity to build a strong professional culture and a feeling of work safety. Standard 3, Critical Thinking and Innovative Skills, refers to the requirement for a director to work within a global and local vision, the ability to think strategically, and to design proper review processes. Standard 4, Leadership in Managing the Administration of the School, addresses issues of administration and staff management. Standard 5, Leadership on Curriculum, Teaching and Learning, refers to qualities relevant to the management of the resources and skills required to provide quality teaching, engagement in professional development and research activities, and the review processes that assist with the quality of teaching. Standard 6, Connecting the School and the Community, requires that principals create community links with various institutions, parents, and other stakeholders. The general objective is for the schools to build networks that help embed the school within the community and integrate its activities within the community.

2.2.7 Teacher Education Provider Standards

There are eight Teacher Education Provider Standards (MoEYS, 2019, pp. 36-37). Standard 1, Institutional Qualification, identifies institutions eligible to offer teacher education and certification. Standard 2, Program Development, identifies the levels of general education for which institutions train teachers. Standard 3, Program Principles, identifies the requirements that institutions must pass to offer teacher education and certification. One of these requirements is to “include English language and Information Communication Technology (ICT) instruction”. Standard 4, Program Resources, describes the qualifications of the staff working as teacher educators and the resources available in the institution. Standard 5, Program Entrants, identifies the selection process for potential teacher candidates. Standard 5 identifies CREDIT as the average entry requirement to educational degree program. Standard 6, Practicum Schools, describes the purpose of practicums and the rules that institutions must meet for a practicum to offer a viable experience. Standard 7, Graduate Quality, addresses the requirements that graduates must meet to be qualified as competent teachers. Quite a broad range of skills is listed. They include the ability to (MoYES, 2019, p. 37):

- demonstrate an understanding and application of curriculum frameworks, subject syllabus, student learning outcomes, teacher guides and textbooks, and other teaching and learning materials for instruction and assessment of student learning;
- demonstrate an understanding of and teaching practice for individual student learning styles and needs;
- plan for and manage student learning and classroom routines to ensure effective and enjoyable teaching and learning o effectively develop, display, and use teaching and learning materials;
- collect, analyze, and interpret student learning assessment in order to improve teaching and learning practices;
- develop positive relationships with students, parents/guardians, and the community to improve classroom teaching and learning;
- demonstrate creative, critical, and reflective thinking and problem-solving;
- demonstrate accountability and professional ethics as per the Teacher Professional Standards (2016)
- document and report on all teaching, learning, and assessment activities internal and external to the classroom to inform the school leadership and stakeholders.

Standard 8, Internal Quality Assurance, refers to quality assurance measures required for an institution to evidence its capabilities. All institutions eligible to offer teacher education and certification are required to apply for accreditation for their programs to be authorised as competent.

2.2.8 Quality Assurance in Higher Education

The Regional Report of Asia and the Pacific (UNESCO, 2003 cited in ASEAN UNQA, 2016, p. 7) defined quality assurance in higher education as “systematic management and assessment procedures to monitor performance of higher education institutions”.

Universities in Cambodia utilise the ASEAN University Network Qualifications Framework for managing their internal and external quality assurance. Figure 2.5 shows that quality assurance at institutional level begins with the needs of the stakeholders which are translated into the institution’s strategic quality assurance system (ASEAN UNQA, 2016, p. 10). Figure 2.5 illustrates the complexity of the process. Stakeholder needs are specified in university policy documents that orient the activities of the different sections of the university. Teaching,

research, and community service are intertwined together and are utilised to address the internal policy goals. Figure 2.5 is very important as it makes evident that academics are not free to choose what they teach or research. These choices are pre-established by the universities, in consultation with the broader community in order to address the needs of the stakeholder community. Systems of this kind are put in place, as specified by the ASEAN UNQA (2016, p. 7), in order to “develop, implement, sustain and improve the level of quality in higher education”.

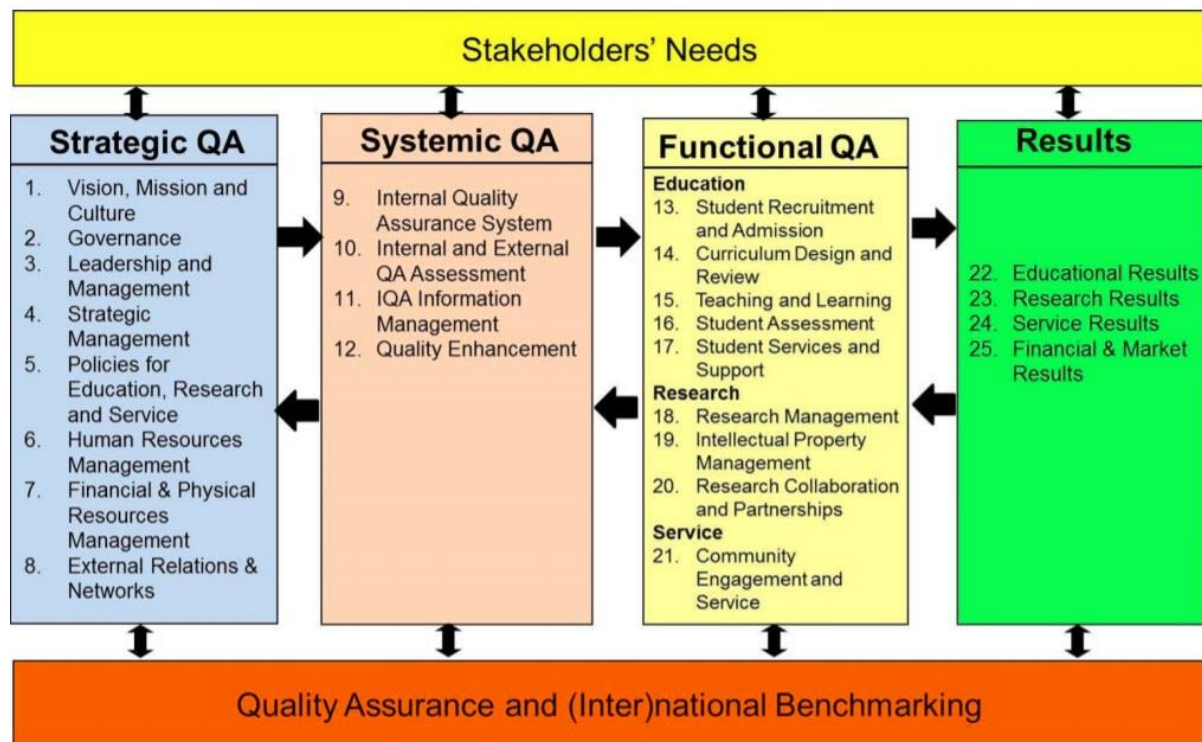


Figure 2.5. ASEAN Assessment Framework for Institutional Level

2.2.9 Summary

The decades of education reforms that resulted in recent policies, standards and accreditation processes vindicate Cambodia’s commitment to participate in the developments of the modern world supported by advanced models of learning. The policies are in place, but is Cambodia ready to embrace them? The policies, to follow SADC (2018, p. 10) and UNESCO (2019), require complex processes. This includes that institutions explicitly link standards to student learning objectives; align standards frameworks to a comprehensive strategy to improve teaching; teacher ownership of and participation in setting standards; regular evaluation and revision; avoiding top-down ‘managerialism’ which constrains teaching practice; and balancing central guidance and local autonomy. These are resource and time-consuming

processes. In addition, as Rawolle and Lingard (2015, p. 21) remind, policy development and policy implementation are two different processes, each rooted in very different models of reality. Policy development follows from community consultation about its needs and future directions. However, policy implementation requires experimental work and research, able to provide policymakers and practitioners with concepts and data that can inform practice. New policies will be informed by this research and new approaches to policy implementation will be developed to adjust for change.

Engaging in conceptual change tends to present stakeholders with multiple challenges that confront what Ball, Maguire, Braun and Hoskins (2011) call the institutional culture. Every institution has its own history that it is more likely to want to preserve in order to continue its own existence. This is not necessarily a negative aspect of institutional culture, but knowing what features support this self-preservation, and which ones do not, can be a challenge. According to Ball, Maguire, Braun and Hoskins, transformation of institutional culture must take place at all levels of its operation. This is why the policymakers designed the professional and institutional standards, described in this section, to regulate all aspects of education. It follows that communication between all levels of the system is needed to assist the process of change. In turn, focusing on isolated aspects of the system, while also disregarding the impacts of the connections and networks that “feed it”, is likely to result in skewed analyses, deprived of the perspective of the big picture and the understandings that it affords.

The sections that follow investigate EFL research in Cambodia, with the special focus on the methods used to inform change and its contexts.

2.3 ELT research in Cambodia

This section examines EFL research in Cambodia. The reviewed research is divided into two major sections, policy and pedagogy. The international publications included in this review either discussed Cambodia directly or were published in *Language Education in Asia (LEiA)*, the CamTESOL (Cambodia Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) journal, funded by IDP (International Development Program) Education, Cambodia. CamTESOL holds one annual conference for English language teachers and researchers. It is supported by MoYES and the embassies of Australia and the US. The *LEiA* journal contains publications from local and international scholars. The *LEiA* journal used to be an intellectual hub of the EFL

professional community in Cambodia. Unfortunately, by 2017, the *LEiA* journal has stopped being funded and the publications ceased.

2.3.1 Policy

2.3.1.1 Learning English in multilingual education

When discussing language education policy and practice in East and Southeast Asia, Australian scholars, Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (2017), argue that a nation's development cannot follow in disregard of local languages. The arguments they present focus on the potential injustices that poor infrastructure and the push for English in early years of learning presents.

In their paper addressing English language learning policies of China, Indonesia, Japan, the Philippines and Vietnam, Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (2017) acknowledge the massive linguistic diversity of the region, while also demonstrating the enormity of the challenge that implementation of English as the shared language of the ASEAN community presents. National languages in Southeast Asia are not the only languages spoken in the region. As Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (p. 159) note, in Indonesia alone, there are 700 ethnic languages spoken across the islands, with the great majority of the region's languages being spoken only by a small number of people. To a great extent, the local languages are being supported in education systems, with some exceptions, e.g., Indonesia (p. 158) and Thailand and Laos (p. 178). Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (p. 178) acknowledge the positive impacts of the *Multilingual Education National Action Plan* launched in Cambodia (MoEYS, 2015) with the express purpose of increasing the provision of mother tongue education, while Khmer remains the main language of schooling and English being introduced in Grade 5. Nonetheless, Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (2017, p. 179) argue that the general trend is for the promotion of both the national language and English, at the expense of local languages, with English being introduced in schools very early (Figure 2.6). Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (p. 156) fear that the introduction of English as the *lingua franca* is likely to threaten the longevity of local languages.

Country	Medium of Instruction	First Foreign Language (Year of Introduction)
Brunei*	Malay and English	English (primary 1 as MoI)
Burma	Burmese	English (primary 1)
Cambodia**	Khmer	English (primary 5) (French also offered)
China**	Putonghua	English (primary 3)
Indonesia**	BI	English (secondary 1)
Japan	Japanese	English (primary 1 'experience classes')
Korea	Korean	English (primary 3)
Laos	Lao	English (primary 3)
Malaysia	Malay and Vernacular	English (from primary 1)
Philippines	Local languages	English (from primary 1 as MoI)
Singapore	English	Malay/Mandarin/Tamil (primary 1)
Thailand	Thai	English (primary 1)
Vietnam**	Vietnamese	English (primary 3 in selected schools)

*The Arabic script, *jawi*, is introduced from primary 3.

**Some bilingual education for minority groups in early primary.

Figure 2.6. The National languages and English in education in Asia

A common language enables effective communication, but it also has implications to the very ways in which people live. Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (2017, p. 156) are concerned that (a) the implementation of compulsory English education is likely to lead to a reduction in the number of Asians who are multilingual in Asian languages; (b) the policy may create a “bilingual elite”, proficient in English and the national languages; and (c) the system will result in entire generations of Asians, where English is the first language. To justify their concerns, Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (p. 179) point that, with the exception of Singapore (although the interest in its Asian official languages, Mandarin, Malay and Tamil is dropping in favour of English), there is little evidence of people in Asia learning Asian languages other than their own. Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (p. 180) conclude that the expectation that English is critical for accessing global knowledge and for communication has led to the drop of interest in Asian languages in Asia and the region focusing mainly on learning English. At the same time, they point to the low levels of attainment in English, resulting in English becoming the language of elites. The privileged classes obtain education in schools where English is the language of instruction, thus, according to Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (p. 180), “creating a further divide between the privileged elite and the rest”.

The impact of English and the emerging concept of national languages create a situation in Asia that, where children are denied access to education in their first language which is not the national language, this creates fundamental obstacles against learning and progressing for students, often resulting in students dropping out of schools altogether (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017 p. 180). Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (pp. 180-181) mention the lack of resources in the public system that is one of the reasons for this situation. The low attainment of English Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (p. 181) attribute to the severe shortage of qualified English teachers, and children in primary schools being taught by unqualified teachers with minimal, if any, English proficiency. Yet, the presence of native speakers alone is not a remedy. As Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (p. 181) note, in South Korea, the introduction of native speakers teaching alongside Korean assistant teachers brought little benefit to the students and teaching assistants. Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat conclude their policy review warning against policies that support, rather than minimise, education divide. In the context of Cambodia, where English and multilingual education are being supported, the success of those policies, as indicated by Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat, will depend on better resourcing and qualified teachers. However, the two factors, while being addressed, continue to be a challenge.

In his earlier publication written from the perspective of the needs of Cambodia, Kirkpatrick (2013) suggests that policymakers consider delaying the early teaching of English to children in Asia on the grounds that this not only threatens the long-term future of many local languages but is also detrimental to the overall learning and cognitive development of many children, especially those who come from poorer socio-economic backgrounds. He also points to the lack of material and human resources as the main reasons for his views. Kirkpatrick (p. 16) speaks against “myths” that language learning should begin early, that using English as a medium of instruction is a positive assumption, and that home languages inhibit or slow down foreign language learning. To back up his views on against early immersion, Kirkpatrick (p. 17) offers the example of the Philippines, where children used to learn mathematics and science through English and other subjects through Filipino. The program was developed in 1970s within the framework of immersion programs that also spread across Canada, supported by research of people like Krashen, who were the proponents of the model. The high cognitive load that this mode of teaching placed on the children in the Philippines Kirkpatrick blames for the high dropout rates in the primary schools.

Yet, the proponents of immersion programs would differ in their assessment of immersion and immersion-like programs, which share features such as early start, intensity, and the integration of school content material. In fact, research by Wesche (2002) reported findings of decades of accumulated experience with different forms of immersion and content-based language teaching approaches, identifying the above-mentioned core features as necessary for the program success. They also indicated that, when children start later, around age 9 or 12 years of age, they can often catch up to early immersion learners in L2 proficiency provided they have the motivation to do so and the cognitive capacity: “a successful later start appears to work well for a more limited, high ability segment of the school population, and also depends upon appropriate curriculum and highly qualified teachers (p. 374). One may add that the concerns mentioned by Kirkpatrick in relation to the programs taught in the Philippines may be valid but could be countered with a better design of their bi-lingual programs, with students learning sophisticated English but not necessarily using methods adopted in the Philippines, where children learned different subjects using different languages.

Kirkpatrick (2013, p. 18) also argues against the idea that the home language gets in the way of learning a second language. He explains that such thinking frequently leads to parents neglecting their children’s first language. As a result, children do not learn high level concepts that would then help them in the learning of the second language. Also, Kirkpatrick (p. 18) points out, mother tongue provides children with self-confidence in their own identity. Kirkpatrick’s arguments here are valid, but it needs to be added that monolingualism is very much a recent phenomenon, an argument that he himself makes in his later (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017) paper, but does not elaborate upon.

Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (2017) claim, following Anderson & Uribe-Jongbloed 2015, “Historically, it is precisely the isolation and separation of minority communities that has most favoured the preservation of their languages” (Anderson & Uribe-Jongbloed 2015 in Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017, p. 159). In fact, ethnic languages did not remain preserved because the communities were separated from one another. Communities interacted with one another and learned each other’s languages. This is exactly why English has changed over the years, a point that even Kirkpatrick (2013, pp. 14-15) recognises: it is these neighbourly interactions that impacted on English language change and development. Can this form of interactivity be supported in EFL classes? Barros, Domkem Symons and Ponzio (2020) think it can, when EFL classes do not need reify students from their local context; English can be

integrated as a link with others, not as a means to become others. Translanguaging is not a new concept, but it is new in schools, where the focus tends to be on mastery. Yet, as Barros et al suggest, refocusing learning on making connections will result in children/ students feeling that their heritage matters, language-learning becoming fun, and communities are being involved as stakeholders, not otherised.

Kirkpatrick (2013, p. 19) makes another point. In his view, because Asian multilinguals would use English primarily as a *lingua franca*, they do not need to sound like native speakers when they speak English but do need to be internationally intelligible. What exactly would this imply to pedagogy? Kirkpatrick (p. 19) continues, in practice, this would mean that in the context of Cambodia, teaching and assessment would be derived “from Khmer speakers who operate successfully in English on the regional and international stage”. He (p. 19) adds, “The successful multilingual becomes the role model” and “In this more social perspective of SLA [Second Language Acquisition], therefore, the achievement of the learner is measured against the ability to use the language successfully rather than the ability to sound like a native speaker”. While some may find comfort in these arguments, no principled pedagogic research follows from this. Should teachers use materials recorded by those special speakers? How many of them can be found in Cambodia, or indeed, in countries like Indonesia, where population is huge which puts pressure on resources? Questions of this kind arise when experts in one discipline, like sociolinguistics in the case of Kirkpatrick, draw solutions for experts in another discipline, like foreign language teaching.

Kirkpatrick (2013) proposes the following implications from his views that were based on limited evidence provided by him: (a) the local multilingual English teacher, with a high level of English proficiency, is a more appropriate and relevant model for the learners than a native English teacher; (b) governments should invest in the training of English teachers to improve their proficiency; no need for importing of native speakers; (c) ELT pedagogy would also need to change and adopt what Kirkpatrick (p. 19) calls “a multilingual pedagogy”, where students are encouraged to use their first and foreign languages at the same time; and (d) English should change its content, focusing less on science and more on culture and the knowledge of the region and local language (p. 20).

From the perspective of pedagogic innovation, Kirkpatrick (2013) fails to cite a worldwide-known experiment that puts to questions a number of limitations mentioned by Kirkpatrick in

his critique, especially the need for proficient teachers and textbooks. The Hole-in-the-Wall (Mitra & Dangwall, 2010) experiments were first conducted in 1999 in the slums of India (Mitra, 2012). There, Mitra facilitated successful learning experiences of children, who self-instructed, without teachers, simply by being provided with a big question to explore (sometimes no question at all – they then pursued personal interests), a set of rich resources, e.g., a computer connected to the Internet, the possibility of working in groups with unsupervised access to information and the freedom to follow whatever path they wished.

The experiments involved children in a remote village in one of the poorest areas of India. Each time, the children taught themselves to pronounce English intelligibly simply by following the instruction to teach themselves good pronunciation by inserting passages from their schoolbooks into a speech to text converter and altering their pronunciation by trial and error until the system displayed the words that they were trying to say. No other pedagogic model or instruction was given. The results of these experiments show that when given unsupervised access to a computer with internet-based instructional material, the village children were quite “capable of organising themselves into self-learning groups and, without supervision and instruction, were able to achieve the same levels as their peers in a nearby state government school but not those of similarly aged children in an affluent, urban school” (Mitra & Dangwal, 2010, p. 685). Those early experiments paved the way to Self-Organising-Learning-Environments (SOLE), now implemented by Sugata Mitra all over the world, including Australia (Sole Australia, n.d.), to teach many subjects, not only English.

Sovannarith Lim (2020) picks up on the ideas from Kirkpatrick (2013) in his own study of Cambodian teachers’ views of the concept of a “native speaker”. Given that English is a language of global communication, Lim (p. 86) suggests that the objective of using the language proficiency of a “native speaker” as a model is unattainable and it should give way to the teaching of “practical communication strategies, for example accommodation”. A plethora of research was cited, both from Cambodia and elsewhere, on the preferred version of English by the English teachers in Cambodia (63.7% of teachers expressed a preference for American English, p. 88), and studies documenting the features of Cambodian English (p. 89). The study itself focused on university teachers. His findings showed preference for British, American and Australian forms of English, while teachers had strong negative views for teaching English using Indian, Singaporean or African accents (p. 92), “Why would you teach your students Malaysian English” (p. 93). Nonetheless, the teachers also “generally agreed”

that students should be exposed to an array of English varieties. Lim (p. 93) points out that academic teachers were also taking as if communicating within the ASEAN community was with native speakers of English.

According to Lim (2020, p. 94), “The majority of the [academic] teachers, except for Chan, basically characterised their non-nativeness as a disadvantage. Lim (p. 94) illustrates the impacts of this feeling while citing the teachers, In Bun’s view, being a non-native speaker of English who teaches the language was a ‘painful’ ... his students’ English [were] ‘fossilised’ and his job was to ‘de-fossilise’ [them]”. Bun’s recommendation was, “if you want to learn English, you have to ... reduce your linguistic identity. You have to feel less Khmer”. Yet, Bun added something that Lim (p. 94) interpreted as a joke, but was it? Bun said, “if people ask me if I’m Khmer, yes I am Khmer. I am Khmer but I am not, you know. I don’t live the Khmer way”. Bun also commented on his role as a teacher, “we teachers, we teach. We do not give English to our students. So even if I’m the all-knowing-god, teacher, I wouldn’t be able to give my English to my students”. Lim (p. 94) interprets this as “this account is a clear example of deficit discourse”. Lim does not expand on this point, taking its meaning to be a given. But is it?

When discussing the Ethical and Intercultural Capabilities of the Australian Curriculum (ACARA, 2014), Lian and Norman (2017) reflected on the concept of culture, language, and intercultural competence. In their chapter, they expand on the concept also mentioned by Lim (2020) and his study participant, Bun, i.e., the idea of cultural and linguistic identity. As Bun (in Lim, 2020, p. 94) suggested, one’s identity interferes with the ways of being that are ‘not yours’ (i.e., the English ways). In SLA studies, this is called acculturation theory (Lantolf, 1996, p. 731). As Lian and Norman (pp. 327-328) suggest, following Miller (1994) and Freadman (2004), culture is not a thing; it is never perfectly owned, and no one is either inside or outside a culture. Had it been otherwise, “it would be futile to teach anything, and futile in particular to teach culture” (Freadman, 2004, p. 9). Hence, cultural participation does not involve *application* of what belongs to that “thing”, culture; culture is irreducible to local contexts of practice; like sewing, cultural participation is about “bringing together what was apart” (Freadman, 1994, p. 21), drawing on resources in one’s own knowledge, discovering limitations in that knowledge, but also discovering in it comparisons and contrasts which can be used to shed light on the problems of an encounter (Freadman, 2004).

From the perspective of the view of culture and identity that presents them as both dynamic and relative to one's resources and experiences, Bun, Lim's (2020) study participant, did not engage in a "deficit discourse" as Lim (p. 94) suggested. Rather, Bun's comments pointed to a genuine methodological problem about the sorts of explorations that would assist his students in expanding their own resources of cultural learning. Bun's comments opened a scope for a serious discussion not about which English to teach but how to help students defuse the fears of the unknown. The perspectives offered by Lian and Norman (2017), illustrate that assessing Bun's responses requires the integration of broader concepts such as context, culture, identity, and foreignness, i.e., taking the discussion beyond the limitations of the concern about the teaching content. "Which is the right English?" is a question about content. Decades of studies that viewed the curriculum as content have introduced an unconscious bias to Lim's study, where he believed to have discovered the same English prejudices in his participants as those present in earlier research. However, the participants offered sound comments that need complex theorising in order to better understand their experiences and to examine those from the perspective of the new national curriculum (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015) and the challenges that it presents to teachers.

While on the subject of "Whose English?", it is worth to mention a study by Dy and Oladele (2019) in a private university, who examined the concept of a native speaker but from the students' perspective. Faced with fierce competition for students, private universities increase the numbers of international English teachers. Dy and Oladele offer a list of research and arguments on the subject, most reflecting polarising perspectives and claiming that native speakers, as members of the English language community, are likely to have better communication skills, while non-native speakers may be better pedagogically (Dy & Oladele pp. 6-7). Dy and Oladele do not explain or elaborate on those beliefs in greater detail; no theorising follows. Dy and Oladele (2019, p. 8) requested the students participating in their study to rate teacher qualities such as "Understands the students' language needs", "Is aware of the students' culture", "Encourages students to learn other culture", "Is very nice and very responsible", "Relates the previous lesson's work with the current lesson", etc. (p. 8). These qualities were included by Dy and Oladele rather randomly, without reference to any specific policy or teaching framework or a construct of students' language learning needs.

Dy and Oladele (2019) also do not take account of the students' cultural expectations. Comments like, *"I think that Khmer teachers are better because they can understand our*

situation, needs, culture, and habit of learning” (Dy & Oladele, 2019, p. 16) are not contextualised. Dy and Oladele did not explain how they discerned between objective opinions and those provided by students who simply wanted to show support for their Khmer teachers. The recommendations proposed by Dy and Oladele make no references to policies. Not much is learned from the study about concepts like 21st century learning, competency-based learning or learning resources. In essence, the study follows a trend, where the object of study and study methods were chosen following to traditional dichotomies and points of concern (Khmer vs. international teachers), while giving no attention to the role that the study was intended to play within the broader context of education change in the university and in Cambodia.

The concepts of native speaker and native English, as mentioned earlier, touch closely on issues of identity. Jia Li, Juan Dong and Wei Duan (2019) investigated middle school EFL textbooks in Cambodia from the perspective of culture. Li and Duan embarked on the study believing that “Language textbooks play an important role in bridging learners’ understanding between the source culture and target culture” (p. 60). This belief and the role of the textbook in modern contexts of learning were not examined; their value was taken as a given. Li, Dong and Duan’s study examined how the Cambodian and foreign characters are represented in three English language textbooks for middle schools published by The MoEYS. The study collected data by examining textbook passages, exercises and images presented in English textbooks and analysed those by themes. The study developed its method of analysis based on previous research in different countries, where English textbooks were analysed and criticised for their “oversimplifications and misrepresentations of foreign characters and foreign cultures” (p. 61).

The study (Li, Dong & Duan, 2019) used the concepts of hegemony and ideology to frame its analysis. Following Gramsci (1971), they saw these as “vital terms in language education and culture” (Li & Duan, 2019, p. 61). They portrayed education, including the teaching of English, as structures with the potential for exercising domination and spreading of ideologies. Following Gee (1990), Li and Duan (p. 61) suspected that textbooks might communicate biases in the form of ideas, beliefs, principles and values “through discursive and visual practices to serve and sustain asymmetrical power relations either nationally or internationally”. No connection was established between those theories and the premises of the new national curriculum (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015), which, at least in principle, advocates for greater student agency as a stakeholder in their community.

The conceptual terms of the Content Analysis that was applied in Li, Dong and Duan's (2019) study were not explained, neither were the categories of their analysis. Nonetheless, the study elicited several findings. While gender was found to be represented in textbooks equally (Li, Dong & Duan, 2019, p. 62), occupation-wise, Cambodian people were shown in less prestigious jobs than foreigners (p. 62). Foreigners were construed as knowledgeable characters, while the local people appeared "socially inferior" (p. 72). Also, the representation of the world was Anglophone-centred, with "UK, USA, Canada, Ireland, Australia and their previously colonized countries such as South Africa, India, Malaysia being represented mostly" (p. 62). In terms of culture, Buddhism figured prominently in the textbooks, which Li and Duan interpreted as not giving justice to the diversity of beliefs present in Cambodia (p. 72). They found "over-representation" of the Japanese culture, as the book included the logos of the Japanese companies that published the texts; there were also multiple references to Japanese food and sports (pp. 70-71). The discussion of the findings suggested that the textbooks portrayed Cambodia as a tourist place, possibly to prepare the students for employment and also to be able to talk about their country. The study recommended changes in the areas outlined above (p. 74).

While the project of developing the "right" textbook may seem worth attention, the study by Li, Dong and Duan (2019) did not question the concept of a textbook itself, especially in the context of foreign language learning. What kinds of methodological assumptions are present in classrooms that follow a textbook? What role should a textbook play in education contexts? Gramsci and Gee wrote the texts cited by Li, Dong and Duan (2019) before the explosion of the internet and before the 21st Century learning frameworks were proposed. While the concerns raised by Li, Dong and Duan are legitimate, their value would have been greater, had their concerns been embedded within the broader context of dynamics that the new national curriculum of Cambodia (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015) generates in schools with regard to concepts such as culture, diversity and personal status, and how textbooks figure out in this new context.

According to Lian and Norman (2017, p. 345), transformative curricula require a whole range of resources to be utilised by teachers and students that reflect the diversity of the world and the classroom's demographics, and that have the potential to engage, challenge and expand students' personal schemes of interpretation of the world around them and themselves in it. This is a requirement that no single textbook can meet. Hence, Lian and Norman argue for an

imaginative use of technology, able to offer personalised learning experiences, supporting students in raising and addressing their own questions. This runs counter to the narrative of textbooks that, however well presented, are static and, at best, can function as resources, not a set of learning activities, designed according to arbitrarily constructed concepts of relevance or levels of difficulty.

Lian and Norman (2017) also suggest the development and use of information-rich databases that offer access to language resources collated and organised to facilitate quick compare-contrast activities that respond to the dynamic needs of 21st century learners. Lian and Norman (2017) base their suggestions on a range of evidence from different disciplines (e.g., Damasio & Immordino-Yang, 2007; Grachev, Kumar, Ramachandran, & Szeverenyi, 2001; Hassabis & Maguire, 2009; Lian, A-P, 2011; Lian & Lian, 1998; Peterson, 1999) that together demonstrate that languages can be learned, not taught, and that the quality of this learning can be vastly enhanced by research investigating students' learning needs, some of which can be language specific (e.g. Lian, A-P., 2017; Lian, Cai, Chen, Ou & Zheng, 2020), some can be activity-specific (Lian, Bodnarchuk, Lian, & Napiza, 2011; Lian, A.B., 2017), and some quite technical, concerning IT infrastructure (e.g. Lian, A-P., 2011; Lian, A-P. & Pineda, 2017). The ideas and studies that support flexible and dynamic learning offer a direction for L2-research and pedagogy, and can be utilised by teachers in varied ways, depending on the available resources, access to the internet and teacher expertise.

From the perspective of policies, the literature examined in this section showed that supporting a nation's development cannot follow in disregard of local languages, without the needs of local communities being compromised. At the same time, it was argued, that catering for students' English language needs may not necessarily require abandoning of high standards. Instead, solutions need to be sought in innovative models of teaching and learning that also take account of the global and local values that Cambodia (and other nations) aspires to and that inform the country's national curriculum (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015).

2.3.1.2 The scope of challenge

Back in 2003, Vira Neau, Deputy Director of the National Institute of Education (NIE), identified the ensuing lack of human resources, the insufficiency of basic teaching materials, the shortages of school buildings and the lack of commitment from relevant people and authorities as the key obstacles of education in Cambodia. Despite new trends developing in

the field of language teaching, by 2003, Grammar-Translation Method continued to prevail, and educators always found some reasons to justify this, such as the different alphabet, expectations from teachers and students, and familiarity (p. 266). The “I do, we do, and you do” method flourished with teachers modelling an activity, students then being helped by the teacher, and then trying to do the activity themselves. The new education reforms have challenged both teachers and teacher educators, especially when very few of them, if any at all, have witnessed themselves alternative models of teaching. It is therefore critical for research to assist this change, which, as indicated by Neau, requires not only a pedagogical reorientation, but also a conceptual one and cultural.

Five years on, a study by Koji Igawa (2008), with thirty-six (36) teachers from Cambodia, teaching across all levels of education, from primary to college, vindicated some of the concerns raised by Neau (2003). Igawa’s study indicated that teachers in Cambodia were keen to (a) learn more about language pedagogy with clear teaching goals (50% of the participants); (b) understand the students (39.5%); (c) attend conferences and professional workshops (34%); (d) improve their classroom communication skills (32%); (e) learn how to motivate their students to learn English (28%); (f) improve their own English to teach the four key skills of English (26%); (g) improve their life-long learning skills (26%); (h) learn more about the English structure (26%).

According to Igawa (2008, pp. 363-364), some teachers were already aware of the shift toward methods that emphasise communication over the grammar and felt confident about their English, “through my experience in attending the conference in Thailand and Vietnam, I should say that we are better at English than our neighbours ... English in Cambodia is more important ... as it is almost the only choice to improve your opportunities both at work and your self-improvement”. The teachers also pointed to a possible serious cultural problem that the shift toward communicative methods is presenting, “Because ... Cambodian students, most of them are a little bit shy. According to our culture, we don’t really show off a lot. And to study English, they need people to socialise, be talkative ... show their opinions. And its very hard to get the students to communicate in English” (p. 364). Similar challenges with students being shy were also initially experienced by Buranapatana (2006) in her *Thai News Network (TNN)* project, mentioned earlier in this chapter.

The references to “shyness” and “passivity” in Igawa’s (2008) or Buranapatana’s (2006) studies demonstrate that, within the capabilities-approach to curricula, studying a language is part of a greater educational project that challenges the roles traditionally attributed to and expected from the school and the education stakeholders in general. As reported by Needham (2003, p. 27), Cambodian classes make use of passive educational techniques, in particular, choral recitation and rote memorisation, with the focus being turned on the group, not individuals. As Needham (p. 28) explains, “pedagogies are more than a set of teaching techniques”. For Cambodians, written and spoken language holds a significant place in the creating and maintenance of their culture (pp. 28-29). How they are taught provides a model for social relations, proper behaviours and language forms that are essential to creating social order (p. 29). This is why those traditional methods are also believed to be the most effective way to learn (p. 29). The idea that students could be actively involved in their learning and exercising their agency is foreign and not a relevant concept in Cambodian culture, where the objective is to learn to depend on the existing social order and how things are done (p. 29).

... teachers do not really understand *why* the authorities ask them to adopt active pedagogical methods that are centred on the child, all the more since these pedagogies go hand in hand with the banning of corporal punishment which undermines their authority. While they tended to welcome the educational policies relating to hygiene and health, they resisted the global promotion of democratic educational and children’s empowerment values.

Ogisu, 2017, p. 15

The internationalisation of education in Cambodia expanded the concept of the “relevant world” traditionally practised in schools in Cambodia. Its core intention is to introduce students and educators to new stakeholders and new forms of engagement that, as the discussion of community-based learning approaches and the Australian national curriculum (ACARA, 2014) demonstrated, result in conceptual, personal, social, and cultural expansion of all involved. However, according to Ogisu (2017), enacting the new policies of “citizen empowerment” (p. 15) is complex and requires that stakeholders, participating in this process of change, approach their strategies informed and critically (pp. 15-16).

2.3.2 EFL pedagogy

Zein (2017, p. 139), in his Editor’s note for the *LEiA* journal, published in Cambodia, is critical of the myths associated with what he calls, the Asian language pedagogy. Typically, he argues, it is believed that Asian classes are teacher-centred, rid of theory and supporting repetition and rote learning. Zein contests this view suggesting that research shows (Sping 2008 cited in Zein, p. 140) that teachers, as participants in the global world of discourse on pedagogy, “borrow

from multiple models, approaches or methodologies in the global flow of educational ideas”. Zein praises what he calls hybrid educational practices that, in his view, cater for the local needs. The sections below illustrate a range of issues published in *LEiA* journal. The aim is to identify the specific interests that they serve and their relationship to the overall project of Cambodia for its education to build knowledgeable and capable citizens, with “the higher order skills of application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation” (MoEYS, 2016)

2.3.2.1 Language skills in ELT studies

In his own study with Yi Yi Mon, Zein (Zein & Yi Yi Mon, 2017) identified peer feedback on error identification in writing to be more effective over instructor feedback. Their findings confirmed the results of earlier studies on the use of peer feedback (Lundstrom & Baker, 2009; Min, 2008; Storch, 2004 cited in Yi Yi Mon & Zein, 2017). The findings also resonate with studies, such as the Hole in the Wall experiment (Mitra & Dangwal, 2010), where peer collaboration was the key to students’ learning.

However, the study by Yi Yi Mon and Zein (2017) is not without its problems. Yi Yi Mon and Zein (p. 181) focused their students on “Error Correction” (p. 181) and “Content Comment”. When attending to error correction, “students were instructed to circle the misspelled word, cross out of an unnecessary word/phrase/morpheme, underline the incorrect tenses and structures, and point the inappropriate expressions by arrows” (p. 181). When attending to content, students were to use descriptive comments and critical comments to indicate what needed changing and what they thought of their peers’ texts. No justification was given by Yi Yi Mon and Zein why this method of work was adopted and what actual learning outcomes motivated its choice. When terms and methods are neither clarified and nor related to evidence and frameworks, the findings of such studies are self-referential and change little conceptually, as strategies and *impromptu* ideas alone do not have the power to offer evidence needed to inform policy and practice.

According to Gibbons *et al* (1994), research from outside the universities and research institutes can develop from intuitive hunches, but it also needs to be understood. For this to happen, theoretical consistency is paramount (Thomas, 2007). Action research, recently promoted by various educators (e.g., Stenhouse, 1975; Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Elliott 1991), cannot offer sufficiently valid findings until those are understandable and can be criticised in order to be improved. This means that findings need to be related to shared concepts and

evidence. Along similar lines, in view of the recent emphasis of the transformative impacts of learning, studies, that do not engage with this objective, contribute to the world of the past, thus offering little guidance and support to 21st century teachers. As Hodkinson and Smith (2004, p. 159) argue, new education policies and new curricular frameworks require that research responds to those either by criticising or embracing those. Also, the “sharing/integrating/blending (or contrasting, contesting and disputing) [of] the knowledges produced in different communities of practice”, that Hodkinson and Smith (2004, p. 156) argue for, cannot happen without intellectual rigour. In other words, without sufficient rigour, research cannot inform policy or practice.

Hodkinson and Smith (2004, p. 156) are not fully in agreement with the UK government policies that criticise education research for being insufficiently rigorous (Reynolds, 1998). Hodkinson and Smith (2004) see education as too complex to lend itself to the rules that are being applied to medical research. According to Hodkinson and Smith (p. 161), other factors also come in play. For example, what research community views as evidence may not be utilised by teachers. They cite the examples of learning styles, that have been debunked and yet continue to resurface in education studies, “Demonstrating that meeting individual students’ needs is complex, and that learning styles approaches do not work, would be very unlikely to make much difference to their widespread adoption” (p. 161). Hodkinson and Smith (p. 159) believe that this “problematic” relationship between research and practice is due to differences in goals and context. Hodkinson and Smith (2004, p. 162) propose a number of solutions for research and practice to interact to “raise the capacity to make better judgements about practice, about policy and about research”. Other than seminars and (degree) courses, they propose for the stakeholders to be involved in “all stages of the research process” (p. 162). The latter idea is not elaborated upon.

Hodkinson and Smith (2004, p. 163) say that funding is always an obstacle and interaction between research and contexts of practice tends to result in patchy impact and fragmented knowledge. The idea of schools being involved in all stages of the research process is not clear, but, in an ideal world, it should be possible for teacher education institutions to have ongoing interactions with schools. Teacher education institutions already have ongoing relationships with schools, if only through teacher training practicum and it should be possible for these to be a foundation for building a healthy stakeholder community. Research funding is sporadic and tends to be oriented toward a single topic or concern, yet schools are not a collection of

isolated problems or policy concerns. There is a need for capacity-building engagements which take a long-term perspective, but also for activities which address more immediate concerns that emerge either from policies or school needs. Education is complex as Hodgkinson and Smith (p. 156) acknowledge, but lack of rigour in research and patchy relationships with stakeholders are likely to compromise this complexity.

The study by Nashruddin (2020) in ELTE (English Language Teacher Education) context is a testimony to the concerns raised in this section with regard to conceptual framing. The study examined the processes used in ELTE departments in Indonesia to ensure that lecturers integrated complex, higher order thinking skills into their undergraduate teaching and taught research and inquiry skills currently required by the new education policies of Indonesia. The study showed that lecturers were uncertain how to theorise investigation, lacked in concepts, and, as a result, did not know what investigative learning would entail in learning English and what needed to be investigated. In addition, the study showed a significant absence of explicit links between the lecturers' personal research (i.e., what they research, how and why) and the way they taught their subjects.

From the perspective of the present critique of Yi Yi Mon and Zein's (2017) study, Nashruddin's research demonstrated the importance of concept-building. In Yi Yi Mon and Zein's study, comprehension and feedback were two key components of their research, yet their study offered no framework illustrating how comprehension and feedback were understood by them. The literature review identified studies that used peer feedback and even mentioned a study by Zhang (1999) that questioned the methodological validity of one such research and its assumptions about the ESL writing process. However, Yi Yi Mon and Zein did not provide any details of that criticism and hence it was not possible to identify if Yi Yi Mon and Zein integrated or rejected that critique. The concepts that were mentioned in Yi Yi Mon and Zein's study were: feedback, peer feedback in L2 writing, student autonomy, authoritative learning context, raising learners' awareness, ownership of the text. None of these concepts was defined nor were the processes that they entail. Instead, the EFL community were expected to use their intuitive understandings when trying to grasp the purpose of the study, its methods, and findings.

Lack of theorising is not uncommon in teacher education research. Linda Hannington's (2017) study, also published in the *LEiA* journal, examined reading aloud as a technique for developing

teachers' awareness of English phonology. As Hannington (p. 60) indicated, her approach was also integrated into courses for non-native speaker teachers from Vietnam, Indonesia, Thailand, and China and suggested that some of the findings from her study are applicable to wider contexts. Sixty-one (61) participants were involved in the study, where, after initial awareness raising activities to some linguistic features of English (sounds, stress), the participants were introduced to exercises involving reciting limericks or chants (p. 53-54). The participants also analysed the recordings of others making chants and then engaged in reading aloud their own scripts, "Reading one's own story has the huge benefit of removing any burden of comprehension" (pp. 54-55). The participants were trained on how to offer peer feedback (p. 55). The study measured its success in terms of the participants' feedback which was very positive, as teachers "found listening to and evaluating their recordings a useful exercise, and several noted later that they would like to use the same approach with their students" (pp. 56-57). The study also generated some self-reflections, "I focused on speaking slowly and clearly, being mindful that my readers and those listening could be from the lower primary. They would take longer to process information" (p. 57), and "I need to be very careful with my articulation, especially the end sounds as it would make a lot of difference" (p. 57).

The study was very important as pronunciation is part of language, but a few questions need to be raised. The study did not offer any intellectual framing of its activities. In other words, it is not known what motivated the techniques used by the study. The techniques used are not new and no critical insights were provided on how the study were to elicit objective outcomes. According to Hannington (2017), "the overall impression was that the course was impactful in ways intended". What did the study seek to achieve and why? What was possible and impossible to achieve? What is the likely impact of the study? None of these questions were answered. Judging by the participants' comments, the study offered learning experiences that they were then eager reproduce in their own teaching contexts, "The pronunciation activities allowed me to learn the accurate way of pronouncing words" (Hannington, 2017, p. 58). Hannington does not offer questions that would help to better understand what might have happened in her study other than what the raw interpretation of the context seems to suggest. Asking questions is important, not only to link with research but also to ensure that L2-teaching is professionalised and has a status it deserves. It is not to say that education research is always clear as to its own methods (Elliot, 2004, p. 164). As mentioned earlier, education itself is waging wars on issues such as the role of evidence in teaching and the nature of that evidence.

However, engaging in those battles is important if the teaching profession is to proceed informed and is to impact on the developments in education research and policy.

Chea and Shumow (2017) explored a yet another approach to L2-research. They focused on writing and examined concepts of self-efficacy, goal orientation, and achievement in writing among Cambodian (private) university students studying English as a foreign language. Six hundred (600) Year 2 students participated in the study. Questionnaire was used as a method for data collection. The questionnaire sought to elicit data on each of the concepts that it investigated (p. 174). Also, students' exam papers were assessed for writing quality. Assessed were "grammar, word use, coherence and cohesion, punctuation, writing planning, and introduction and conclusion writing: (p. 175). The study said nothing about the method by which the students were taught writing and it made no links to the learning outcomes approved by the course and the university for its teaching to be accredited and the degrees internationally recognised. However, Chea and Shumow did explain the terms of self-efficacy and goal orientation using theories of Bandura (1997), Kaplan, Lichtinger, and Gorodetsky (2009). Achievement was assessed at the level of paragraph writing: students were expected to write one paragraph in English on different topics.

The study found that, as expected, students' writing self-efficacy correlated positively with other components of mastery, thus suggesting, as interpreted by Chea and Shumow (2017, p. 178), that "students who have high self-efficacy in English writing tend to focus more on learning for improvement and understanding when they are learning writing skills". However, the study also identified a positive relationship between writing self-efficacy and writing performance-avoidance orientation (p. 179). This suggested, as Chea and Shumow explain, that the students with writing self-efficacy reported to avoid "high performance tasks" (p. 171). It was hypothesised that these students failed to undertake challenging tasks because they feared failure despite having positive beliefs in their own ability to write (p. 177). The study also showed a positive relationship between writing self-efficacy and writing achievement and writing mastery orientation (p. 177). This indicated that students with high positive beliefs and good achievement scores were more likely to look for challenging tasks. Overall, the study showed that the students who "tried harder" also did better on assessment tasks, and also had positive beliefs about themselves as writers.

The proposed implication of this study for EFL teachers was to promote higher writing achievement by fostering students' writing self-efficacy and writing mastery goal orientation (Chea & Shumow, 2017, p. 180). In practice, this meant that teachers create environments that are conducive to promoting students' writing self-efficacy while also orienting them toward mastery in writing. Some more practical strategies may also be found in the questionnaire that was sent to the students, including motivating students to want to learn "as much as they can"; valuing to "improve skills and knowledge"; wanting to "really understand what there is to learn" (p. 186). However, nothing more precise was offered and no mention was made of teaching writing through reflection, problem-solving, and processes that build students' knowledge of the community, its values, and traditions. As shown in the sections that follow, too often L2-teaching approaches remain caught in traditional methods and goals, with knowledge being presented to the students to acquire, not examine. More examples are needed of approaches, where knowledge is constructed by the students in the situations that affect them and in order to effect active interventions (Freadman, 1994, p. 21).

2.3.2.2 School-based research

School-based research in Cambodia is rather rare. Most EFL studies investigate the teaching of English in universities. Chan Narith Keuk's (2015, p. 41) study examined EFL research in Cambodia and concluded that engagement in research has generally increased since the establishment of CamTESOL in 2005 as institution began to support research, conference attendance and publications. Unfortunately, the study admits, it did not explore the participants' actual research subjects, their contexts, and research rationale, which means that the study does not know whether or how schools were involved in those studies (p. 40). Typically, EFL researchers work in universities and investigate their own contexts; this leaves schools alone to their own devices. However, there were a few exceptions.

Doung Dara (2019) from China investigated English reading comprehension problems of Cambodian high school students as "the students' English abilities at high school levels are still limited according to the results of the 12th grade national examinations" (p. 52). Around 233 students participated in the study and six (6) English teachers from two high schools in Kep province.

Questionnaire and interviews were used as instruments for data collection. The study findings demonstrated that students lacked in language knowledge and motivation, which were the main

reasons for their difficulties in reading comprehension. Students explained that they did not understand texts because they had “complex grammar, difficult vocabulary, technical words and sentence structure” (Dara, 2019, p. 54). They also thought that their teachers did not provide them with relevant reading techniques, including providing them with background information or examples of similar texts. They claimed that teachers taught reading by “showing how to pronounce new vocabularies, translating technical words to Khmer language, arranging group discussion activity and managing student to check new word[s] by using dictionary and parts of speech” (p. 54).

On the other hand, teachers explained that they had around 40 to 48 students in class, and found it challenging to manage teaching activities with these numbers (Dara, 2019, p. 54). They also complained that the students had no basic knowledge of English, which they should have gotten in earlier levels of their study, and they also were not willing to read, learn about culture, were shy and uncooperative. They also felt that students’ families did not encourage them to study hard. Teachers also blamed themselves “that their teaching techniques were not good enough for improving students’ reading competency because students needed much more than what they could have provided” (p. 54).

While the study confirmed the earlier findings of Neau (2003) and by Igawa (2008) that teachers follow traditional models of teaching and may be too shy to engage in more pro-active learning strategies, they said nothing about what reading comprehension was to involve from the perspective of the new national curriculum of Cambodia (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2016) and its stress on developing students’ higher order thinking and other skills and values that enable the students to contribute to the nation and its people. Dara (2019, p. 53) defined reading comprehension as “an interactive process between the text and the readers' background knowledge” but did not expand on what this may involve and what research suggests and why. Dara spoke of reading comprehension in terms proposed by Palinscar and Brown (1984), who suggested that reading requires to engage students in the strategies of summarising or self-reviewing, questioning, predicting, and clarifying. However, no conceptual discussion of those terms was presented as if these strategies were unproblematic and their methods self-explanatory, while the study was to reveal unquestionable and straightforward truths about what texts are, what students need to do to read, and how teachers need to prepare the students to be able to read.

Dara's (2019) study is simple in structure, where not much new is being learned about the key concepts of the research, i.e., the text, the readers, the reading, and the job of the teacher. Dara concludes, while referring to another study, that, at the secondary levels, the core strategies to be taught should include "motivation to read, ability to decode print, ability to comprehend language, and the ability to transact with text (to actively seek information and make personal response)" (Peterson, et al. 2000 in Dara, p. 55). However, these recommendations do not emerge from the study itself. In fact, Peterson et al may have developed those from the concept of reading alone. To verify those, it would have been necessary to test what these processes involved in the context of an EFL classroom in a secondary school in Cambodia. However, this would have made it a complex study and, probably, longer than administering a questionnaire that is followed by interviews. Nonetheless, complex studies are needed to develop meaningful implications that can provide teachers with a bridge between what they already know, do and what they can do to improve.

Davut Nhem's (2019) study investigated students' language learning strategies, the concept initially created by Wenden and Rubin (1987), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Oxford (1990). As Nhem (p. 34) explains, learning strategies were conceptualised as "any groups of operations, steps, plans, routines or behaviors used by the learners to facilitate the process of obtaining, storage, retrieval, and implication of information". The assumption was that these strategies could be modelled and taught to students to be then used by them as they grapple with the language demands.

Based on previous research with young learners, in his study, Nhem (2019, p. 36) focused on *memory* (recalling and storing), *cognitive* (analyse or synthesise of linguistic components or comprehending and creating texts), *compensation* (dealing with the language despite the knowledge gaps), *metacognitive* (coordinating language learning processes); *affective* (used for controlling emotions of learners), and *social* strategies (used by learners to work with other strategies). Several studies were exemplified, together, demonstrating that "high achievement students employed language learning strategies such as meta-cognitive, compensation and cognitive strategies while low achievement students preferred to use meta-cognitive strategies and affective strategies" (p. 38). However, as in the previous studies discussed so far, the literature review offers no pedagogic content and, as such, offers little context for teachers and researchers to understand the impacts of those studies and what they may mean to teaching.

For example, why did the low and high performing students show preference for metacognitive strategies? What does this mean in actual practice?

Nhem (2019) used a questionnaire to investigate language learning strategies employed by young and adolescent learners of English in a general English program in a private school in Cambodia. In these programs, students were taught by the course instructors who were both native and non-native speakers of English. One hundred and fifty-two (150) students responded to the questionnaire, which included 50 items addressing the six learning strategies include memory, cognitive, metacognitive, compensation, affective and social strategies (p. 38). Students rated their responses using a five-point Likert scale. Independent samples t-test was used to analyse the differences in the use of learning strategies (p. 38).

The study (Nhem, 2019) found no statistical difference between young and adolescent learners. Also, it was discovered that students mostly used cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies, which does not match exactly the set of strategies used by high achievement students in previous studies. Nhem (p. 40) suggests that this set of strategies is indicative of the students using varied ways to learn English, through listening to English music, watching English movies, monitoring their learning, or seeking opportunities to communicate with others in English. No substantive connection is developed and examined between the strategies and the pedagogy. Once again, a more detailed study needed to be conducted to make the findings meaningful to teachers, with links to the specific pedagogies that were used, the curriculum and the conceptual frameworks that were applied for interpreting and working with the curriculum.

An ELT study that focused on primary schools was conducted by Fiona King (2017). Specifically, King investigated how best to develop teacher capacity in Cambodia. King (p. 2) used a case-study method through semi-structured interviews with teachers in three urban government primary schools located in different geographical areas, and ministry officials and advisors based in these locations. King justified her focus on teacher with references to global policies that call for “Unlocking [...] [teachers’] potential [as] essential to enhancing the quality of learning” (UNESCO, 2014 in King, p. 2). She quotes Dove (1986 in King p. 2) saying that “improv[ing] the quality of teachers would have a multiplier effect through the education system and on human resource development”. As research suggests, “teacher development is

a multifaceted process and skills for effective teaching are complex and need to be developed and refined throughout a teacher's career" (King, p. 3).

As King (2017, p. 5) explains, in Cambodia, typically, a cascade model is being used to train teachers, where a small group of experts train a selected group of senior personnel who then train those at the next level. The assumption is that a particular skill or knowledge "being developed cascades down through the various levels" (p. 5). According to King the cascade model, although not developed in Cambodia, fits well with the Cambodia's traditional hierarchical culture that "has been characterised by nouns such as harmony, conformity and deference" (p. 5). Training is typically arranged by The MoEYS on advice of the local District Training and Monitoring Teams (DTMT). DTMTs provide training in "how to produce teaching materials, training in the new child-centred methodology, teaching techniques, and how to write good lesson plans" (King, p. 6). Workshops, on the other hand, inform teachers of new developments and take up to three days or, at times, a week. In general, senior teachers are invited by The MoEYS to participate in those (p. 7). Some workshops are organised by NGOs (in consultation with The MoEYS). Technical Meetings take place in schools, under the leadership of the principal, where teachers exchange perspectives or principals share the knowledge they acquired during their recent training (p. 7). However, more importantly, as King (p. 8) points out, the decision of what should be covered in those Thursday Technical Meetings lies neither with principals nor teachers but with ministry officials.

The findings of King's (2017, p. 7) study indicated that the cascade model used in Cambodia was widely criticised. DTMTs were criticised for focusing mainly on school management and leadership, much less on pedagogy. Workshops, the study participants commented, were rare and rarely attended, although some schools praised regular NGO-led workshops, which taught them relevant practical skills (King, p 9), although the frequency of these workshops does affect their impact on teachers and their practice. In turn, Thursday Technical Meetings, while at times described as helpful, followed the model where the principal spoke, and the teachers listened. As King (p. 7) explains, the verbs that the teachers used to describe those meetings were "talk", "discuss", and "ask". King (p. 7) comments, "none spoke about having time in these meetings to practice what had been discussed". Yet, according to one teacher, allocating this time to practise what has been learnt in a workshop would have been beneficial, "There are things that you have to see to understand" (Teacher in King p. 7). The principals, in turn, felt that there was not enough time and support for more practical training (King, p.8).

The findings of King's (2017, p. 9) study confirmed the criticism of the cascading model found in previous studies, which blamed it for being prescriptive and unable to link training to individual school situations and ongoing training of teachers, which then results in minimal change in either teacher behaviours or classroom practices. The findings illuminated two assumptions as major obstacles. First, that its method of information dissemination is efficient. In fact, as King points out, information gets watered down as it filters along the system, "the knowledge and skills passed on during training will be understood by all participants in the same way who will accurately pass on what they have learnt to their colleagues who will, in turn, faithfully introduce that new learning or pedagogical approach into their classroom practice" (King, p. 7). Second, that the information that is passed on is relevant. However, as King (p. 10) concludes, while not all training totally misses the point, overall, the model does not account for the specificities of local contexts and their schools' and teachers' needs. The concept of "capacity building" is thoroughly missing in the model as is the need for ongoing support (p. 10). It is also selective, as some schools are supported more than others (p. 10).

While the majority of teachers identified the need to develop their pedagogical skills, whether that was "to learn how to manage a class better" (Teacher-B4); how to conduct group work, develop teaching materials or in learning how to incorporate the "new pedagogical approaches" (Teacher-B1). A substantial number also shared how they wanted to increase their subject knowledge, with some highlighting specific areas, for example, science ... Moreover, most indicated that to develop their capacity they needed training that was practical and directly related to classroom practice.

King, 2017, p. 10

The implications of the study as to "how best to develop teacher capacity in Cambodia" (King, 2017, p. 2), King developed based on her own and previous research investigating the cascade model. First, King interprets the need for collaboration at the regional and local levels, suggested by Hodgson and Spours (2012), as needing to focus on the **principals** as those who understand the context of their schools the best (p. 10). Secondly, all **teachers** need to be involved and programs need to be sensitive to the local needs, with pathways to address a range of capacity development needs if new policies are to be implemented. Thirdly, a **long-range** perspective on change needs to be taken to allow for conceptual and practical transformation to take place, and for trust and new attitudes to be formed. Fourthly, King's study (p. 11) showed that **NGO** engagement made a difference, but some schools were treated preferentially. To counter this, King (p. 11) advises for the MoEYS to "effectively regulate and coordinate NGO activity at the subnational level to ensure projects and programmes are not duplicated"

across all NGOs. She also suggests that NGOs should work with teachers, not deliver knowledge to teachers (p. 11). Fifthly, schools to need to refocus **away from information transmission** to collaborative and participatory spaces and find NGOs to support them in this goal (p. 11). Lastly, the line of **progression should originate from teachers** and what makes them feel confident, not from above, to give teachers the capacity to “develop their own programmes that stem from issues they identify as being important” (p. 11).

King’s (2017) discussion and findings provided the present study with valuable perspectives and insights on teacher capacity building in schools in Cambodia, emphasising collaboration and mutual learning. However, as in the previous studies discussed in this section, the broader conceptual vision of capacity-building of the system is missing, probably, because King’s data did not probe the system in its entirety, but only its certain segments, i.e., schools and ministry officials and advisors. The findings, therefore, produced a slightly skewed perspective and results that identify teachers as the pillars of the EFL policy implementation. Nothing was said about EFL research in Cambodia, its role, resources, and ways of collaborating with other stakeholders for the system to learn from those. It is well-known that PD (Professional Development) engagements have limitations, hence a greater number of PDs, however well-regulated, may not be sufficient.

The concept of teacher-capacity in Cambodia was also addressed by Takayo Ogisu (2018). Ogisu’s critiques the system for the prescriptive models of teaching that it advocates (first do this, then do that, then do that ...). The assumption is that modelling transmission processes will result in teachers designing transformative learning experiences for the students. These tensions echo the findings reported by King (2017). “Why, in the first place, have such tensions arisen in ETL?”, asks Ogisu (p. 769). In his study, Ogisu (p. 769) defined the direction of the curricular change in Cambodia as a shift from the *transmission of knowledge* to the *transformation of knowledge* “by nurturing students’ critical and creative thinking”. To this end, as Ogisu (p. 769) explains, pedagogical approaches have been advocated for that favour inquiry and reflective modes of learning. These modes of learning require: “(1) more flexible and relevant curricula; (2) activity as the core of learning; (3) placing learners at the centre of education; and (4) constructivist epistemology (p. 769). As Ogisu (p. 769) explains, these features illustrate that the transformative changes bring with them a concept of knowledge that is no longer limited to one in textbooks and teacher manuals, i.e., they are an antithesis of traditional “rote memorisation of the textbook has been dominant and highly valued”.

In the transmission model, knowledge is seen as invariable and universal. Thus learners are supposed to absorb knowledge. In contrast, the transformation model sees knowledge as constructed and social. Therefore, learning is a process where learners actively construct knowledge.

Ogisu, 2018, p. 773

Most effective learning can take place without formal teaching using textbooks and teacher manual, writing things down and so on. It is what might be called ‘natural learning’.

MoEYS cited in Ogisu, p. 772

Listening to the teacher and copying from the blackboard are NOT activity-based.

MoEYS cited in Ogisu, p. 772

The *Teacher Logbook*, prepared for EFL teachers to help them understand what they need to do in class, advises that critical thinking is “as important as reading and writing” (Ogisu, p. 773). The documents describe critical thinking as “... more than just recalling information (memory) or explaining the meaning of information (understanding); critical thinking requires application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation of one or more pieces of information (MoEYS, n.d. in Ogisu, 2018, p. 773). Yet, Ogisu (p. 769) notes, the *Teacher Logbook* contains materials for teaching that are prescriptive and leave little room for creativity and flexibility (Ogisu, p. 769). Ogisu (p. 773) argues, teachers are shown learning tasks of “matching, sequencing and classifying”, for example, “but not necessarily the overall goal of ETL and its student-centred principle”. Items like “prescribed and detailed to-do list”, according to Ogisu (p. 773), “may strengthen a formalistic, inflexible image of teaching and learning by conveying a message that following predefined steps is valued more than creative and flexible application of diverse technique”.

In a nutshell, Ogisu (2018, p. 773) argues, “The tasks and checklist do not require much creativity or critical thinking on the part of teachers”, and teachers are expected to follow and complete prescriptive steps provided to them in these guidebooks. The ways in which the “practicalities” of classroom are presented, Ogisu (p. 774) argues, reinforce the traditional top-down, bureaucratic models of authority, where the system tells its stakeholders what to do, which is not the same as stakeholders learning from one another about the meaning of the values that they seek to introduce, “The policy process of ETL is, therefore, strongly tied to the Cambodian education bureaucracy that prioritises transmission of knowledge more than transformation – the model that ETL attempts to introduce”. While Ogisu does not ignore the historical and cultural elements that contribute to these tensions, Ogisu’s (p. 777) research

points to other factors, like the MoEYS feeling that they need to control the system: “delegating control to local offices of education, schools or teachers was not ‘acceptable’.

More importantly, the same research by Ogisu (2018) also illuminated a general lack of consensus regarding the meaning of transformative pedagogies, their significance and value to the students, with different policy actors pulling in different directions. As reported by Ogisu (p. 779), one consultant said, “in ETL, students feel they don’t learn anything from the teacher. They go to school to learn, not to share information among themselves. And teachers are supposed to teach students”. On the other hand, some international policymakers argued for a hybrid model, warning against “the unquestioned adoption of transformation approaches” and saying that “in some cases, ... [a] combination of all approaches is the best”. Consultants and donors spoke about their different good pedagogy, ranging from increasing teachers’ disciplinary expertise, TPACK (Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge) models that emphasise pedagogical content knowledge, “donors worked hard to improve the visibility of their projects and programmes by finding a niche in the ongoing pedagogical reform, rather than directly engaging in ETL policy” (p. 780).

Ogisu (2018, p. 781) acknowledges that policy implementation is complex and that “policy cannot be fully understood without closely examining the meanings constructed around a written policy”. However, while Ogisu’s study engages and mentions many stakeholders, it consistently ignores the role that local research plays, can play and should play in policy implementation. Factors like material constraints, school culture and teachers’ lack of capacity are mentioned, but no preferred models are proposed for local research to engage and take leadership as an independent broker between the different parties. This is a major weakness of the study that, otherwise, provides stakeholders with an insightful overview of the tensions that shape and the impact on policy comprehension and implementation. Nonetheless, Ogisu suggests the direction for future developments. In his (p. 782) view it needs to involve investigation of the roles played by the actors at more local levels, “how multiple meanings embedded in a written policy are conveyed to teachers, what meanings these teachers actually make out of multiple and even controversial messages they may receive, ... as well as how teachers put such policy into practice”. These investigations involve research, school-based research and ongoing connections with schools.

2.3.2.3 The genre approach to teaching writing

In a different study, Thi Thu Nuy and Andrew Ross (2017) follow the issue of writing. Their study investigated the genre-based approach to teaching writing, focusing on writing letters for first-year English majors at a university in Vietnam. Briefly, the study showed that under genre-based instruction the students' awareness and understanding of the features of the letter types were noticeably enhanced. The results indicate that, for low-level learners, organisation of ideas, awareness of context and paralinguistic features were the issues they could gain control over upon the instructions. However, the linguistic resources including grammar and vocabulary remained problematic and, it was assumed, they needed a longer and more focused approach. The findings also highlight the value of L1 background knowledge in learning writing in a foreign language. These were self-reported findings by the students themselves. Assessing the validity of those comments is not the purpose of this discussion. Instead, this review examines the reasons for which Yi Yi Mon and Zein chose the method as appropriate for 21st century education contexts.

Similarly to the Yi Yi Mon and Zein's (2017) study, Thi Thu Nuy and Ross (2017) made no references to university graduate outcomes or any other independent sources to establish benchmarks of success. This is a serious issue as the study became fully self-referential, teaching to the benchmarks of success of its own construction. While the study sought to counter this effect by seeking to source students' personal perceptions of their success in the experiment, this does not make those judgments independent as teaching communicates not only the content but also what it values as achievement. Also, when citing the literature that previously used the genre-based approach, Thi Thu Nuy and Ross provide no curricular context of those studies. Instead, they organise their literature list according to the types of genres that they reported on having taught.

Thi Thu Nuy and Ross's (2017) study begins with a substantive summary of the genre-based approach. In their words, "The genre-based approach supports learners to write with a very specific focus on vocabulary and grammar" (Thi Thu Nuy & Ross, 2017, p. 193), i.e., objectives that are reminiscent of traditional curricula, where language needs are dictated by the formal system of linguistics, not the student's perspective on the specific needs of the context of engagement (i.e., "what I want to do", as opposed to "what you should do".) According to Nunan (1999), as Thi Thu Nuy and Ross (2017, p. 193) argue, the genre-based approach places the focus on the grammatical peculiarities of each genre and teaching involves

explicit instruction modeling of the features of a specific genre being studied, “For instance, the particular grammar [feature] of the narrative is the use of verbs of motion, feeling and thinking to describe a series of events and performers of actions; and that of adjuncts of time to show connections of actions across time” (Thi Thu Nuy & Ross, p. 193). It means the approach will focus on those aspects. Interestingly, despite the explicit focus of the approach on linguistic structures, as opposed to student’ needs in actual contexts of communication, students did not feel that they improved in those areas. Thi Thu Nuy and Ross conclude that, possibly, more time was needed. This may be so, but what exactly happened needs to be established from perspectives other than those supplied by a single framework of the genre-based model. This is why references to transformative curricula are so important and the concepts that were applied to work with those (Elliott, 2004).

Students’ negative comments in Thi Thu Nuy and Ross (2017) are not surprising since the genre pedagogy, which begins teaching with its own questions, not those of the students. In other words, it teaches to satisfy its benchmarks of progress while eliminating those applied by the students (Lian, 2020). The bar is set up high and is difficult to jump over. As explained by Thi Thu Nuy and Ross (p. 192), genre pedagogy rests on the Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) model of language developed by Halliday (1994) and sociocultural theories of learning by Vygotsky (1978), developed in 1920s, although first published in English in 1978. In other words, the approach is not updated with evidence about learning and uses *formal* linguistics as a window for students to see *personally relevant* meaning. However, as Budger and White (2000, p. 155) explain, “genre approaches regard writing as predominantly linguistic ... they emphasize that writing varies with the social context in which it is produced. So, we have a range of kinds of writing—such as sales letters, research articles, and reports ...As not all learners need to operate in all social contexts, this view of texts has implications for the writing syllabus”. What these implications might be needs examination: following a paradigm is uncritical.

As Lian et al (2017, p. 353) note, texts are not and the cultural information that they carry is not in those structures. (Lian et al 2017, p. 353) talk about texts as carriers of cultural information that is acquired through a critical participation in culture.

It follows that texts are not words organised by grammar, nor are they just “social”. They are time capsules reflecting the history of social engagements that the interlocutors bring with them into the process of text construction and which they negotiate by drawing on the “strands” of past “conversations” in order to create their

responses (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 91). This means that the act of reading or writing is an act of participation in those conversations, a move in a game (Freadman, 1994, p. 46), produced in response to earlier texts (interactions) and in anticipation of the responses which might follow.

According to the genre analysts, the central aspect of a communicative context is purpose. However, as pointed by Lian (2020), the same purpose can be realised with many genres. To use the example of Mills' (2006) study, the purpose to communicate an educational message for the newly arrived students in the school does not presuppose any specific genre or medium that should be utilised. For example, students may write a letter to younger kids, or create a poster, paint a banner over the whiteboard in the classroom, create a short story with a moral, or indeed, showcase small interviews with different students to make a specific message apparent. Purpose does not presuppose the means, neither linguistic nor the medium. In Thi Thu Nuy and Ross's (2017) study, students were learning how to write different types of letters, i.e., they began with a linguistic purpose not a communicative intention (Lian, 2017; Lian, 2020). In other words, they were learning the grammar of writing, not constructing relationships between the purpose and means. The SFL method (Kalantzis & Cope, 2012) has a linguistic bias of which its proponents are not critical enough to address it. The SFL model is about compliance, not creativity, and about learning through explanation and modelling, not reflection and research (Lian, 2020). These are serious concerns for 21st century education contexts, where creativity, critical reflection, and problem-solving are some of the core components of curricula both in general and higher education.

Virak Chan (2017) from Cambodia also engaged in investigating the genre-based model in the context of writing. The study is a good example to illustrate how exactly the SFL teachers utilise the model in order for their students to learn the genre features and with it the linguistic forms necessary for correct expression. In the study, initially, the students were introduced to the genre of a summary and were required to submit one journal entry in which they summarised an article they read in a local newspaper, *The Cambodia Daily*. The study emerged from the understand that students had low levels of reading comprehension which, in turn, affected their writing. Journal writing has been a well-used tool to build reflective thinking and writing fluency (p. 154). Study participants included 24 undergraduate students and took 16 weeks to complete. The training involved training the students to identify "voices in text and the organizational and linguistic features of a summary-response genre in the second- and third-

class meetings: (p. 156). To this end, the students were given a local newspaper article from *The Cambodia Daily* to read.

Based on examples from other studies, in lesson one, the students in Chan's (2017) study were requested to underline all the direct and indirect speech examples in the article; work in small groups to compare their underlined parts and to discuss whose voices were represented there. As described by Chan (p. 157), "the teacher led class discussion asking guided questions such as: "Whose voices are represented in the article?" "Considering the issue reported in the article, is there any voice that has not been represented in it?" and "Is the report biased? And why?"". In second lesson, the lecturer gave students a copy of a letter to the editor to exemplify "a typical summary-response text" (p. 157) and requested that students "identify which part was a summary and which a response" (p. 157). Students then worked in groups to compare their notes. Like lesson one, lesson two is teacher-driven, with students, though learning, in suspense as to where all this is leading. No specific goal is motivating their communication with texts, other than their teacher's requests. Their own agency is put on hold. At the end of lesson two, "On the whiteboard, the teacher drew two separate columns, Summary and Response, and invited each group to fill in each column ... eliciting questions such as "What is the author summarizing?" "What are some words or phrases used to make reference in the text?" "Is there any reporting verb?" "What is the purpose of the response?" How does the author organize his / her response?" (p. 157). After these introductory classes, students were requested to write their summaries on topics of their choice. A total of 12 entries was requested, starting from Week 3 (p. 158).

At the end of the 16-week period, the researcher found that students read various texts, local and international, including Yahoo, CNN, the Associated Press, Channel News Asia, and the BBC (Chan, 2017, p. 160). According to the researcher, students' writing showed an increase in knowledge of society, covering "controversial and real-life happenings around them, including land disputes, traffic accidents, Cambodians migrating to work in the neighboring countries, the Khmer Rouge Tribunal, and domestic violence" (p. 160). The findings also show that with time, students were writing increasingly longer summary, expressing their own views on the events they were summarising (p. 163). The researcher felt that the study showed effectiveness of the genre-based approach but was reluctant to draw conclusions regarding critical thinking skills and similar transformative skills. Also, the study reported a large number of entries that "were coded as non-summary-response genre and were excluded from the

analysis” (p. 165). In other words, they used the essay format and were considered inappropriate for the goals of the study.

The study illustrated a number of positive effects while also allowed to ask some questions. For example, why did some students utilise the genre of an essay, not a summary? What is *summary* from the perspective other than linguistics? Were the students informed of the relationship between the study method, objectives and the graduate outcomes that are specific to each year of study?

In her 2006 study, Lian discussed a writing exercise conducted by Kramersch (2000), with her ESL students. The students were asked to summarise in four to five sentences a particular story which they had been given to read. With this activity, Kramersch sought to enable her students to take a more active and more responsible approach to their own writing (p.149). And yet, her students found the activity confusing. They students read the request to summarise the story as a yet another activity to please the teacher. When confronted by Kramersch about the quality of their texts, one student responded, “You asked us to summarize, so I just summarised, I really didn’t think about it” (Kramersch, p. 149). As Lian (2006, p. 136) points out, Kramersch interpreted this response “inability on his part to correctly appropriate the semiotic structures of English” (Kramersch, 200, p. 149). However, Lian (2006, p. 136) asks, why were all students confused? According to Lian, Kramersch framed the purpose of her students’ activity in linguistic terms, ‘to create a summary’. As Lian (2006, p. 136) argues, the genre of summary in and of itself does not generate a communicative context.

Each communicative act, as Lian (2006) argued, needs an audience, and in Kramersch’s study, the teacher was the audience. In other words, the communication context of the experiment was pedagogic in its nature, i.e., contrived (Widdowson, 1990), which provoked the students to respond as they do in classroom, not in regular contexts of communication, where interlocutors struggle for attention and/or relevance. In addition, at each step in the exercise, the communicative parameters were set by Kramersch and formed the framework of the students’ activity. The activity was contrived and so were the responses of the students. As Lian (2006, p. 138) puts it, following Freedman (1987), in an authentic communicative setting, language choices are regulated by intentions, context. When one’s agency to exercise choice is restricted, as it happens in contrived activities, their relationship to the text is lost. In Freedman’s (1987, p. 44) words, “To suppose that discursive interaction is the giving and receiving of *meanings*

is like describing a game of tennis as the giving and receiving of balls”. To follow with the tennis metaphor, Freedman (p. 44) says, communication is like playing tennis shots, where “the value of those shots [is] subject to play, and the meaning of the interaction [is] the upshot of the perpetual modification of each shot by its return”.

A response needs an audience and, in Chan’s (2017) study, as in Kramsch (2000), the audience was the teacher, who, presumably, was also marking students’ texts. Without the audience, the illocutionary force of the interactions between the students and the articles they read, in Chan’s study, was not there. The interactions were still a pedagogic exercise, teaching students, to I large measure, the parameters dictated by linguistics, not communication to support personal agency. This may be why some of the students did not relate to the structure of the summary. It also may be that the students did write a response but appropriated a genre that the teacher disapproved of, while it was a perfectly appropriate genre for this kind of interaction from their perspective. These questions need raising before students’ papers are discarded and conclusions are drawn regarding the impacts of the study.

Also, as in the previous EFL studies reviewed in this section, no account was taken of the higher order skills and community values embedded in the CNQF (MoEYS, 2012) and the respective graduate outcomes of the university. As outlined in Chapter 2, the CNQF identifies the different levels of attainment in areas such as knowledge, cognitive skills, psychomotor skills, interpersonal skills and responsibility, communication skills, information technology skills, and numeracy skills. In the absence of those, teachers lack the range of outcomes that their activities need to address and communicate to the students. Those higher order thinking skills and community values would have assisted the teacher in approaching the framework of the genre-based pedagogy critically.

As Lian and Norman (2017) suggest, transformative outcomes that higher order capabilities represent would have required from the teacher to reflect on the different curricular aspects, such as the relevance of the activity to the student personally and to the broader community; the demographics of the community represented in students’ readings and reflections; the range of perspectives considered to produce a well-argued response. These considerations would have facilitated a broadening of the pedagogical scope of the study and its “write a response” activity. Also, it could have engaged students in more exploratory and personal learning. Would such complex approach prevent the students from completing the required pieces of

texts? This needed investigating. However, it is important that the teaching curricula integrate the transformative learning outcomes of their universities and do not compromise. This can only stimulate and propel innovation and progress.

2.3.2.4 Employability and English

The study by Thuy Bui, Thi Thom Thom Nguyen and An Duc Nguyen (2017) focused on the divergence between what English Language Education programs teach in Vietnam and what is required by different professions, where English language competency is needed for employment. According to Bui et al (p. 147), the literature on English and employability demonstrates that English Language Education (ELE) programs play a very minimal role in strengthening students' employability capacities "due to mismatched teaching orientations, ambiguous language education needs, and divergent gaps between students' learning outcomes and employers' needs". Those studies also point to a lack of well-design research about employability as related to ELE.

The study by Thuy Bui, Thi Thom Thom Nguyen and An Duc Nguyen (2017) acknowledges the importance of English as an international language and the role that ELE must play to respond to the country's investment in internationalisation, where English plays a central role. The researchers cite studies that show employability hinging on good command of English. They cite cases from Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Iran, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka that report a positive link between English and economic development, especially employability (Coleman, 2011; Erling & Seargeant, 2013 cited in Thuy Bui et al, p. 145). Bui et al (p, 145) define employability as "the multi-faceted traits of a person; and the knowledge and personal attributes that make an individual more likely to secure and thrive in their chosen occupations; bring benefit to themselves, the national workforce, the community and the economy". However, the study does not explicate how it worked with this concept when designing its research instruments, beyond mentioning the use of the strategies of a questionnaire and follow-up interviews.

The study concerned itself with Vietnamese students' and six lecturers' perspectives regarding university students' English as an employability skill. The results of the study by Bui et al revealed students' high level of uncertainty in both their English and career skills performed in English (p. 144). Over 80% of the students indicated their uncertainty about seeking employment that required English (p. 144). Specifically, the study reports on the participants'

lack of confidence in their ability to listen to different topics, collect information, and communicate in English (p. 149). Students were not confident in their ability to answer phone inquiries, participate in job interviews, read information on websites, and to understand human resource policies. As many as 78.28% of the students reported that they were uncertain of their ability to create documents, letters, reports, and invoices in English. Similarly, five out of six were not confident in their English after graduation, even though all of them had studied English from 9 to 13 years (p. 149). Most students indicated that their English was insufficient for applying for jobs performed in English. Students lacked confidence in debating, working with people worldwide, and finding scholarships for career development. The lecturers, when commenting on these results, thought that an over-emphasis of grammar prior to university enrolment and limited access to daily English communication were significant causative factors (p. 149). They pointed to their students being more motivated to browse English webpages on music, rather than on policy or social issues.

Bui et al (2017) state that the results obtained in their study support studies by Azam et al. (2011); Ferrari and Dhingra (2009); and Pooja (2013) which conclude that across various contexts students' English as an employability skill is largely insufficient. The recommendation by Bui et al (p. 153) suggest a systematic English education from the primary level onwards, better teaching models to be used at each level of education, development of a mindset of lifelong language-learning, greater student engagement in their own English education, including the use of social media. Bui et al also appeal to stakeholders to re-conceptualise what it means to provide English as well as general education for youth with a view to building "complete individuals who possess not only knowledge and skills in English but also sound socio-political, educational, and economic foundations to make contributions on individual, national and international scales" (p. 153). In summary, the recommendations are sound and address the alarming nature of the study findings. More information on the accountability processes that are currently driving education policies of Vietnam would enhance the study and how these are implemented to shape teaching and accreditation. The study also avoids the difficult questions, such as, how a good pedagogy would look like? Arguably, these may have been outside the scope of the paper, but this kind of detail is necessary and illustrating the authors' own expertise on the subject needed to point to the problems that need addressing.

2.4 Conclusion

The chapter sought to identify perspectives in the literature that would illuminate how education stakeholders in Cambodia wrestle with the newly adopted policies that advocate transformative curricula in both general and higher education and graduate outcomes that build students' capacity for effective citizen participation. The chapter built on Fullan and Hargreaves's (2017) and Freire (1973, 1990) and Gadotti (2010) concepts that framed education as community participation and saw education as a dialogue and students as stakeholders in that dialogue.

The review of participatory models of education, 21st century learning frameworks and the debates about the meaning of the transformative values and processes that underpin capabilities-based curricula illustrated the history and the complexity of these new developments. It also reiterated the need for educators to theorise their own approaches for working with the curriculum, for educators to build their shared expertise based on those experiences and frameworks. Drawing on Rawolle and Lingard (2015) and Ball, Maguire, Braun and Hoskins (2011), the chapter argued that policies do not come with ready application models. These models need to be developed and investigated in relation to the needs of specific contexts. Policy implementation involves change, but not only a change of practice. Most of all, it requires only a conceptual change and, in the case of Cambodia, also a cultural one.

Theorising of education practices makes this conceptual change possible. Yet, the review of EFL research either published or conducted in Cambodia revealed consistent absence of references to the new curricular objectives or 21st century learning frameworks that underpin education policies of schools and HEIs. With the exception of a few studies, such as those by Ogisu (2018), King (2019), Neau (2003) and Thuy Bui, Thi Thom Thom Nguyen and An Duc Nguyen (2017), no EFL studies made an explicit connection between education policies and their studies' objectives and research methods.

The chapter also showed that there is a little interest in doing EFL studies in schools. The EFL research tends to draw its issues from the scholars' own contexts of teaching English in HEIs. The EFL studies reviewed in this chapter looked for fresh perspectives by blending their ideas with popular research topics. However, without direction from the new policies, the studies looked for legitimation from frameworks of already established research, without questioning

those or their relevance to 21st century students. Furthermore, the studies lacked in-depth theorisation, using concepts like comprehension, feedback, text, as unproblematic and self-explanatory. The studies also tended to fail to create a link between the object of their investigation and pedagogy. Without this detail, the findings were abstract in their meaning and difficult to relate to one's own context of practice.

Significant challenges were identified by research, especially by studies investigating in-service training. Most teachers have never witnessed alternative models of teaching other than the pedagogy of transmission. Furthermore, internationalisation of education expanded the concept of the “relevant world” traditionally practised in schools in Cambodia. It has challenged tradition and the expectations. Other challenges mentioned included lack of human resources, the insufficiency of basic teaching materials, the shortages of school buildings and the lack of commitment from relevant people and authorities as the key obstacles of education in Cambodia. As summarised by Vira Neau, Deputy Director of the National Institute of Education (NIE), it is therefore critical for research to assist this change.

However, no studies made explicit statements as to the role that research should play in EFL teaching and learning contexts. One exception was the study by Ogisu (2018), who suggested a greater focus on the process of in-service training and its impacts. However, no study proposed EFL research to act as a broker between the many stakeholders that impact on and shape EFL learning in Cambodia. Yet, Cambodia makes use of different external parties, each with a bias to their own approach and each having solutions to problems that they do not own. A coordinated approach to English language education will require for Cambodian academics to take leadership in this area, provide advice and, also, learn and develop critical insights.

3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The chapter describes the intellectual framework of the present study and the qualitative methods that were used to collect and analyse data. The chapter covers five major sections as follows: ontological and epistemological framing of the study, study design and instrument for data collection, data analysis, and ethical consideration.

3.1 Ontological and epistemological framing of the study

Briefly, ontology addresses the question of agency: “Who are we and what role do we play in the world that we live?” (Crotty, 1998, p. 8). From this perspective, and drawing on Professor Jordan Peterson (1999), the study is positioned within a framework that distinguishes between the scientific and value-based principles that inform human actions. The distinction draws a line between non-subjective and subjective realities respectively. Scientific realities have been developed precisely to reduce the impact of subjective feelings and opinions on action. Scientific methods define the parameters of their inquiry to make the parameters that they apply both replicable and possible to critique.

For science, meaning is a function of the algorithms (rules of play) that a specific set of parameters renders permissible. Breaking out of one set of these meaning-making parameters is not a simple matter (Kuhn, 1970), but it is necessary in order to avoid the downfalls of a prescriptive and normative stance (Latour, 1999; Calhoun, 1995, p. 8). The algorithm identifies the connections between the different sets of parameters. The greater the broader the sets, the greater the guiding relevance is attributed to the terms in which reality is being described. Consciousness is an example of a concept that continues to elude scientists but is being addressed by research in a variety of fields, including biology, physics, neuroscience, and Artificial Intelligence.

Understanding consciousness will require building of increasingly aligned connections between those different disciplines (and possibly more). The result will not be what consciousness is, but what emerged based on the questions asked and the methods used (Rorty, 1980). As Bourdieu (1995, p. 91) put it, science reifies reality and, in this way, creates its own objective world, the world that all scientists can agree on, or understand, “Academic

interrogation inclines him [i.e. an artist] to take up a point of view on his own practice that is no longer that of action ... Simply, because he is questioned, and questions himself, about the reasons and the *raison d'être* of his practice, he cannot communicate the essential point, which is that the very nature of practice is that it excludes this question". This is a pragmatist approach, difficult to argue with, considering the recent discoveries in physics and mathematics that attribute to the observer the creative role in the reality we see, "A measurement is an action on the world by an agent that results in the creation of an outcome — a new experience for that agent (Schack, 2014, p. 14). In other words, for the "falling tree" to be heard, there has to be there a reality, where *tree* has an objective presence. Ontologically speaking, the observer is a creator of reality, not its viewer or receiver.

On the other hand, when people rely on their subjective judgment, they rely on value categories. In other words, the categories of the world that people form are grouped together according to implication for behaviour, or, for affect (Peterson, 1999, p. 20). They are not categories of the world, but of experiences that have **motivational significance** and that inform people how to be in the world (Peterson, 1999, p. 20; Lian, A.B. 2019). How people go about addressing these goals is not constrained by a specific theory of human development but is formulated in relation to the interpreted, subjective present that provides people with a framework for the evaluation of ongoing events, events, which emerge as a consequence of current behaviour (Peterson, 1999, p. 20). "What should be?" is an image of the desired future that people formulate in relation to the (interpreted) present about the emotional valency of their current state of experience (Peterson, pp. 20-21). It is in this sense that it is being said that human action is goal-oriented. Human action is interpreted in terms of goals and oriented toward the desired goals:

What you expect to happen – really, what you want to happen, at least in most situations – is a model you generate, using what you already know, in combination with what you are learning while you act.

Peterson, 1999, p. 53

Evidence for differentiating between the subjective and the objective approaches to the ways in which people understand the world comes from neuroscience (Peterson, 1999). Briefly, as Peterson (1999) explains, human development and learning are not exclusively cognitive processes. People are emotional beings and their actions are responses to challenges that, primarily, are experienced at the level of emotions, not cognition *per se*. Evidence shows that cognition evolved to serve (and control) emotional experiences, i.e. to reduce anxiety

(Peterson, 1999). When things go well, the amygdala that sends emotional alarm signals such as fear or curiosity, is functionally inhibited by the “higher” cortex that controls behaviour (Peterson, 1999, p. 53). However, when an unexpected mismatch occurs between what is desired and what actually happened, appropriate affect emerges triggering heightened intensity of sensory processing and exploration (Peterson, 1999, p. 54). Exploration enables the brain to map the significance of the things or situations relevant to our goal-directed interactions in motivational or affective terms (Peterson, p. 54). As a result, new strategies can be formed, or the pursued goal may be redefined or abandoned altogether (Peterson, p. 54).

It is the determination of specific meaning, or emotional significance, in previously unexplored territory – not identification of the objective features – that allows us to inhibit the novelty-induced terror and curiosity emergence of that territory otherwise automatically elicits.

Peterson, 1999, p. 53

The discussion far does not suggest that the differences between the objective and the subjective approaches are completely separate. The example of the “Valladolid controversy” demonstrates that scientific experiments are also filled with concepts that reflect the experimenter’s view of the world (Latour, 2004). The “Valladolid controversy” concerns two different research methods that were applied in the 15th century, one by the Amerindians and the other by Spaniards, to explore the same problem: “What was the nature of the people they fought?” Each group approached the same problem critically, but in very different ways (Latour, 2004). While the Amerindians believed that the Spaniards had souls by default, they were busy inventing methods to test whether the Spaniards had bodies. In a somewhat reverse fashion, the Spaniards knew that the Amerindians had bodies, but looked for ways to test if they had souls,

The Amerindians’ experiment was as scientific as the Europeans’. Conquistador prisoners were taken as guinea pigs and immersed in water to see, first, if they drowned and, second, if their flesh would eventually rot

Latour, 2004, p. 452

The example of the “Valladolid controversy” validates Calhoun’s (1995) critique of scientific studies that, in his view, are “unable to appreciate the importance of their own work as more timebound contributions to [...] a conversation in which the construction of new understandings is continual” and where time is a function of these conversations (Calhoun 1995, p. 11). As Calhoun describes, the referent (i.e., the parameters that a scientific theory brings into existence) gives the phenomena that are investigated a sense of looking for the “‘discovery’ of timeless and perspectiveless truths” (Calhoun, p. 11.). This prevents the inquiry

from being “self-conscious about its historicity, its place in a dialogue and among cultures, its irreducibility to facts, and its engagement in the practical world” (Calhoun, p. 11).

In relation to the present study, Peterson’s insights (1999; 2017) and Latour’s (1999) and Calhoun’s (1995) critiques of the tendency of science to view its perspectives as “the whole truth” (Calhoun, p. 11), together, offered a rationale for its designs and its methods. The study is couched in the interpretivist (Metcalf, 2008) approach to research. In order to provide the study, its methods and findings, with sufficient context, the study worked with well-known methods for data collection, developed through the experimental work of Professor Clayton Christensen (Harvard Business School) and Professor Burroway’s model of a modern university. The study also utilised interpretative categories developed in previous studies, also investigating issues relevant EFL education in South-East Asia. Furthermore, the study related its interpretations to the transformative learning paradigm in education research. Following the traditions of pragmatism and interpretivism, the study aimed to generate dialogue between the various vantage points offered through the use of those different tools and perspectives. The aim was to use (qualitative research) methods to gather information and break it down sufficiently to discover limitations present in the data, but also in its comparisons and contrasts which were used to shed light on the problem at hand. The findings of the study reflected considerations for future action relative to the tools it used.

3.2 Research approach

The present study utilised a qualitative case study approach. The sections below explain these terms and justify the approach.

3.2.1 Qualitative and quantitative research methods

Qualitative and quantitative research share the common goal which is to understand the world better. However, their methodology and focus phenomena differ (Becker, 1966). Qualitative research deals mainly with words, or “collecting data based on words from a small number of individuals” (Creswell, 2012, p. 16). In turn, quantitative research uses numbers to establish its facts. It does so by “[c]ollecting numeric data from a large number of people using instruments with pre-set questions and responses” (Creswell, 2012, p. 11).

Quantitative research seeks to answer question 'how many/how much', according to Green and Thorogood (2004) and Creswell (1998), whereas qualitative research aims to answer 'what', 'how' and 'why' questions of phenomena. The general goal of qualitative research is to explore and understand the phenomena to bring about the depth of the study findings or the exploration of its meaning, whereas the common goal of the quantitative approach is to measure the phenomena (Green & Thorogood, 2004) and trying to generate comparisons, connections or to identify cause and effect relationships (Creswell, 1998). Typical tools of quantitative studies include online polls, survey, but may also include any large data that requires statistical analysis.

Qualitative study methods, on the other hand, are used when explore values, attitudes, opinions, feelings and behaviours of individuals and understand how these affect the individuals in question (Adphealth, n.d.). Qualitative methods tend to be used when research explores individuals' perceptions of specific topics, issues or situations and the meanings they assign to their lives (Adphealth, n.d.). As pointed out by Creswell (2012), this type of research tends to be used for generating new theory, developing policy, improving educational practice, justifying change for a particular practice, and illuminating social issues. According to Crossman (2020), qualitative research is utilised to define meaning and symbol and to understand the process which notifies the results that are examined by quantitative research (Crossman, 2020). Hence, researchers use qualitative methods also to explain the results of a previous quantitative study or to prepare for the development of a quantitative study thorough perspectives of research area need to be revealed (Adphealth, n.d.).

In order to collect data, qualitative method requires researchers' eyes, ears, and their intellect to seek information. To gather data, qualitative researchers use at least two of these methods: direct observation, open-ended surveys, focus group, in-depth interviews, oral history, participant observation, ethnographic observation, and content analysis (Crossman, 2020). Because qualitative research emphasises the comprehension of relationships between people, their lives and various process, the benefit that the qualitative researcher gain from their studies are the knowledge of how daily life is impacted by overall society settings, social system, structure, order, and trends (Crossman, 2020).

However, due to its restricted scope of the study, the results of qualitative research are considered to be limited in their capacity to grasp the full scale of the phenomena that they

investigate (Crossman, 2020). Moreover, when using this method, researchers must make sure the study results are not impacted by their individual views or preferences (Crossman, 2020). To respond to the aim of this present study, which was to investigate the capacity of the ELT stakeholders in Cambodia to communicate in order to mobilise their resources appropriately to respond to the new education policy, it was decided that qualitative research tools were the most suitable.

A case study framework was adopted, as the study focused on a single stakeholder cohort and collected data using questionnaire and interviews. The approach assisted the study to illuminate perspectives, identify shortcomings in those as well as strengths, provide evidence for what already was suspected to be the case as well as to reveal new insights. All field work was conducted in Cambodia.

3.2.2 A case study approach

Case studies are an approach used in qualitative research. According to (Thomas, 2013, p. 150) case study approach is to explore and describe a phenomenon, or “to illuminate some theoretical point” (Thomas, 2013, p. 150). According to Simons (2009, p. 21), case study is an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a project, policy, institution, program or system in a “real life” context. In other words, case study is used when the research seeks to offer a deep understanding of a situation that is happening in a particular context. Yin (2009) defined case study as:

... an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident”.

Yin, 2002, p. 13

According to Yin (2002 cited in Yazan, 2015, p. 138), case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates the case or cases by addressing the “how” or “why” questions concerning the phenomenon of interest. Also, case study plays a very crucial role in a research study that intends to produce a detail description of a current situation or phenomenon (Yin, 2006). Yin (2003) categories case study in three types namely: (1) exploratory case study– is employed to provide definition of questions and hypotheses of a research. (2) descriptive case study– is employed to provide description of a particular situation within its context. (3) explanatory case study– is employed to provide explanation of a relationship of cause and effect of one phenomenon and how one situation occurs.

A case study may involve interviewing staff on specific aspects of relevance to a company's success. For example, Hayes & Lemon (1990, as cited in Hayes 2000, p. 134), in their own case study, illustrated to company directors "how very different employee attitudes were from those that they had expected, ... and highlighting areas about which staff were concerned" which resulted in the development of management systems where employers listen to their employees and take their ideas into account.

Banyard, 1994, p. 383

To use case study, the researcher must draw richly on the literature and be clear on what he or she is attempting to figure out. Research questions must be large in scope in order to illuminate a broad spectrum of insights (Yin, 2009). The study can expect more variables of interest than data points, with one step of the study informing another for the study to present its result in relation to multiple sources of evidence. Yin (2009) also distinguishes between single, holistic case studies and multiple-case studies. "Multiple case study" is used when the researcher intends to discover the difference within and between cases. A holistic case is when the case is the unit of analysis; while an embedded case is when there are several units of analysis in the case. Single cases and multiple cases can be holistic or embedded.

The present study adopted descriptive single case study approach. This was appropriate as the study sought to identify factors that either help or hinder the process of advancing the policies of English language learning in upper secondary schools in Cambodia. The study conducted an in-depth investigation of this phenomenon and engaged multiple stakeholders in the study. The objective was to discover how the stakeholders come to terms with the process of change, its conceptual and cultural aspects, and what implications did this suggest for the future.

3.3 Study design and instruments for data collection

3.3.1 General description of the study design

The present study was comprised of two stages. After the study proposal was accepted by Charles Darwin University, the researcher contacted MoYES to obtain permission for working with the stakeholders identified in the proposal. The first stage of the study enabled the researcher to obtain the initial data on the context of the study. After the data was analysed, it became clear that the initial path adopted by the study had to be adjusted. More precise questions had to be designed, enabling the researcher to obtain greater detail and also information that was better aligned with the policies and the work responsibilities of the stakeholders.

3.3.2 Participants

Upon communication with MoEYS, it was decided that the research would take place in one of the rural provinces of Cambodia. The study focused on upper secondary schools as these schools tend to prepare students for higher levels of learning, where the knowledge of English is critical as a lot of textbooks used by HEIs are in English. The high schools in the selected province are notorious for relatively high dropout rates of both male and female students.

In order to cover a broad range of stakeholders, the study engaged (a) language teachers from seven senior upper secondary schools from each of the districts in the selected province, (b) school principals, (c) English language teacher trainers, (d) policymakers, and (e) one international expert. Twenty-five stakeholders in total participated in the study. The study participants included the key layers of the system, with people who are in the decision power to enact policies and those who implement them relative to their work responsibilities.

During Stage 1, additionally, an international scholar responded to the questionnaire. Stage 1, therefore, had twenty-six participants. During Stage 1, it was envisaged that international stakeholders would provide the study with additional perspectives on the concepts investigated to illustrate what is possible. However, in Stage 2 of the study, only stakeholders from Cambodia participated.

Table 3.1. List of study participants.

Stakeholders	#
English teaching academics	3
ELT educators	2
Policymakers	4
Department of Education of the province	1
School principals	7
School teachers	14
International scholar	1 (Stage 1 only)
Total	30

3.3.3 Stage 1: Questionnaire development and administration

Stage 1 involved the design and administration of a questionnaire. The aim of the questionnaire was to identify the participants' views on their own jobs and how they view their own roles in those jobs. It was decided that present study would not ask guiding questions, and, instead, the questions that were asked were rather broad, seeking to elicit self-reflection and possibly perceptions about what works, what does not and how things can be made better. The questionnaire also hoped to establish whether the participants functioned as a community, or as isolated cogs in a machine where interactivity is low and therefore opportunities for meaning-making are also low. The questions sought to elicit as much information as the participants were willing to offer. This is also consisted with the approach of case study. Furthermore, broad questions enable the participants to structure the text as they see it fit, which also is indicative of what they see as the guiding principle(s) informing their professional practice and experiences.

For the framework to design the questions the study used the architecture of the “job-to-be-done” process developed by Professor Clayton Christensen (Christensen, 1997; 2010; Christensen, Hall, Dillon & Duncan, 2016; Weise & Christenson, 2014) in the Harvard Business school. A couple more studies used this framework for this purpose in ELTE context in South-East Asia (Nashruddin, 2020; Pertiwi, 2020). Briefly, the architecture of the “job-to-be-done” model (Christensen, 1997; 2010; Christensen, Hall, Dillon & Duncan, 2016; Weise & Christenson, 2014) was developed using the Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) in order to identify questions that can inform studies investigating the needs of the market. Pivotal to this framework was the understanding that what people tell they want is not necessarily what they want, “People don't want a quarter-inch drill, they want a quarter-inch hole” (Levitt in Christensen et al (1986, p. 216). A method was needed in order to probe those needs below their surface level. The architecture of the “job-to-be-done” process offered such a method as it enabled marketers to look at the question of “a need” differently. The method includes the following questions (adapted from Christensen 2010):

- i. What is the fundamental job or problem the customer is facing?
- ii. What are the experiences in purchase and use which, if all provided, would sum up to nailing the job perfectly?
- iii. What are the product attributes, technologies, features that are needed to provide these experiences? (Pertiwi, 2020).

For the purpose of her ELTE study, those questions were adapted as follows:

- i. What is involved in the job of teaching EFL in Cambodia?
- ii. What experiences need to be provided for the job to be done?
- iii. How do you do this in your own context of work?

When applied in education research, the questions about the architecture of the “job-to-be-done” achieved two things. First of all, they offered a framework for asking questions. This seems a preferable way to designing questionnaires than using intuition or “experience”, as this is frequently done in research, where the perspective which informs question development is not explicitly stated, which hides the bias that the questions introduce. Secondly, the architecture of the “job-to-be-done” questions help generate reflection from the perspective of principles, rather than detail only. This is important in a case study, where the researcher wants to identify the perspective from which the participants approach their jobs and their expectations of themselves and others. All questions were open-ended. According to Schonlau, Fricker Jr., and Elliott (2002, p. xv), “[...] respondents give longer answers to open ended questions in electronic questionnaires than open-ended questions in printed questionnaires.”

The questionnaire was piloted with two high ranking reviewers from Australia and Cambodia. The questions were then adjusted and an anonymous questionnaire consisting of eight questions was developed and administered to all thirty participants. To conduct the questionnaire, the researcher first contacted the director of the Department of Education Youth and Sport of the province to inform them about the research project and formally sought his permission for the schools to participate in the project. On the advice of the department, seven upper secondary schools in the province have agreed to participate in the study.

Upon receiving the consent from the study participants, the researcher categorised the participants into two groups; one group had access to the internet and the other group did not. Those with the internet had the questionnaire sent to them through Qualtrics. Those in the province, who had no or little access to internet, had the questionnaire handed to them by the researcher. As some participants were not able to deliver their responses to the questionnaire on time, the researcher collected their response by phone call.

The participants were free to respond in any language. The questions were provided in both languages, English and Khmer. Only one participant responded in English. The responses to the questionnaire were then translated into English by the researcher.

Table 3.2 lists the questions. Questions 5, 6 and 7 invited the participants to explore in more detail the fourth questions of the architecture of the “job-to-be-done” relating to “what needs to be done”. Question 8 intended to identify the intellectual background of the participants.

Table 3.2. Questionnaire 1: Process and questions.

Questions investigating the architecture of the “job-to-be-done”	Questionnaire 1 questions
Warm up question	1. Are you involved in research in EFL teacher education? If yes, could you please describe how?
What is involved in the job of teaching EFL in Cambodia?	2. Could you please describe what, in your view, would be an ideal way to teach EFL in Cambodia?
What experiences need to be provided for the job to be done?	3. In your view, what are the challenges of an EFL teacher in a secondary school in Cambodia?
How do you do this in your own context of work?	4. How is your work helping address these challenges?
Self-reflection	5. What is the direct impact of your work on the practising teachers, especially in the context of secondary schools in Cambodia?
Imagining futures	6. How would you like to improve your impact on the job of EFL secondary school teachers in Cambodia?
Concretising suggestions	7. What issues should be given more attention by EFL education, policy, leadership and research?
Identifying intellectual background	8. Could you please identify the names of at least three scholars whose work informs your thinking?

3.3.4 Stage 2: Interview questions development

Stage 1 provided the study with the personal reflections of the participant on the job of English language teaching from the perspective of their work context and responsibilities. The purpose of Stage 2 was to elicit information from the participants on how they contribute to modernisation of education as an institution.

address the different expectations and standards that are either required of them or that the new policies. The development of the questions for this stage of the study was complex. An independent framework was needed to be constructed that would help make questions broad, but also focused enough to obtain the relevant details. Two sources of information were used for this purpose.

First, Professor Burroway's (2011) model of the four roles of the university was consulted to gain a better understanding of the dimensions that characterise modern institutions. The model was first used by the researcher (Lor & Ngoy, 2018) when evaluating the strategic plan of STEM educators, about to embark on a major development project funded by the World Bank. According to Burroway, HEIs are currently challenged by the demands of the modern world to maintain their independence while also being engaged with the wider society. According to Burroway, his model makes it possible for HEIs to counter the traditional tendency of universities to live "on the margins" of the society, external to and protected from the outside world, and embedded in the needs and values that too often resulted in outputs whose relevance (for whom, why and how) was being questioned by the broader community.

Burawoy (2011) captured the functions of a modern university in relation to four categories, or roles, that help him locate universities "inside society", with the pressures which regulate the public sphere, now also being applied to universities. The four categories include four "knowledges", i.e. four areas of engagement that enable universities to play their transformative role in the society: *policy engagement* (working with current policies as well as engaging in research that informs policy-development), *professional capacity* (building professional capacity while also linking with national and local issues), *critical community* (reflexive involvement in the discipline, calling attention to its underlying goals and values, and utilising ideas drawn from other disciplines, and even transdisciplinary thought), and *public visibility* (disseminating knowledge beyond the academia and listening to the needs and perspectives from outside the academia to prevent inertia and self-referencing). For Burroway, all the four "knowledges" are related and impact on one another.

The four categories, once slightly adapted, align very well with the roles that any modern educational institutions. Each public educational institution works with policies, but also should be able to inform policies through research, advocacy or other forms of interaction and consultation. Also, each educational institution should engage in professional learning,

building its work capacity. Further, educational institutions should be connected to other institutions and partners to draw on the intellectual, business, or other capacities that they can exchange. Finally, each institution should be connected to the broader community, inform it about its work, learn from the community about its needs and, in general, keep the communication going. The study thus transformed the four categories of Burroway (2011), into *policy, professional learning, critical friends and community engagement*.

The categories proposed by Burroway (2011), and now slightly adapted, made it possible for the study to formulate interview questions inquiring about the different aspects of the job of the ELT teacher through the lens of the features that make up a modern institution, a school, a policy department, or a training institute. In order to relate the questions to the job ELT, the study used a publication by UNESCO (2015) that described the different dimensions of the job of a teacher. These dimensions were: *Teacher as curriculum developer, Teacher as a resource, Teacher quality, Student quality and Infrastructure*. Once again, the study slightly adapted the meaning of those for clarity and to avoid their surface interpretation. The definitions of those terms are explained below and illustrated how they were combined with Burroway's four "knowledges" to construct interview questions.

Teacher as curriculum developer category sought to inquire about the knowledge of the new policies and how they affected the different roles that the stakeholder groups play in the system to ensure that teachers can plan EFL learning experiences and do so understanding what the "job" involves. Next, the interview questions were formulated to examine this aspect against the four categories of Burroway (all interview questions are in Appendix). For example, when interviewing policymakers, the following questions were asked (Appendix):

- *Policy engagement and advocacy*: Part of your responsibilities is to secure a policy direction for education. How is internationalisation present in those policies in relation to curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation? Be detailed.
- *Critical friends*: Policy development is a multidisciplinary process. How is this interdisciplinary dialogue assisting you as a policymaker to better understand internationalisation in the context of policy development? Address this in relation to policies impacting on curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation?

- *Professional learning*: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you as a policymaker better understand the impacts of internationalisation on education and, specifically, issues such as curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation?
- *Communication with the public*: How is communication with the broader community supported to facilitate a better understanding of the impact of internationalisation on the community? Address this in relation to policies impacting on curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation?

Teacher as curriculum developer generated the following questions with respect to teachers:

- *Policy engagement and advocacy*: How do you account for internationalisation in your area of responsibility? Address this in relation to curriculum development and the teaching principles that you utilise in your teaching plans.
- *Critical friends*: Curriculum development, planning and teaching are complex processes and require engagement with a community of “critical friends”, enabling you to better understand the impact of internationalisation on those aspects of your teaching. What do you do to be part of such a community of “critical friends”?
- *Professional learning*: Curriculum development and planning require an ongoing engagement in professional development activities. What professional development activities have you participated in that helped you better understand the impact of internationalisation on curriculum development and planning, and teaching?
- *Communication with the public*: How do you engage with the broader community to communicate the impacts of internationalisation policies on your areas of responsibility, such as curriculum development, the teaching principles that you utilise and in your teaching plans?

Teacher as a resource refers to the capability of teachers to optimise students’ learning conditions (UNESCO, 2015; Alabi, 2008). This capacity does not only involve experience, but also expertise that comes from research or activities that engage research. Hence, research was the key aspect of the questions that used this category. For example, when interviewing policymakers, the following questions were asked (Appendix):

- *Policy engagement and advocacy*: Part of your responsibilities is to secure a policy direction for education. How is teachers' involvement in research supported by the policies?
- *Critical friends*: Understanding the impacts of new directions in policies is complex and requires engagement in a dialogue with a "critical community" of experts providing insights from different fields and angles. How is this critical dialogue enabled by you and/or your team to better understand the requirement for teacher involvement in research?
- *Professional learning*: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you better understand the need for teacher involvement in research?
- *Communication with the public*: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the value of teacher involvement in research? What are your views on this?

Teacher as resource generated the following questions with respect to teachers:

- *Policy engagement and advocacy*: Have you been engaged in research that benefited your school, teaching, students and/or the school community? Identify the positives and the challenges?
- *Critical friends*: Engagement in research and the development of inquiry-skills also require the ability to learn from and with scholars from different disciplines. How do you explicitly engage such interdisciplinary "dialogues" to build critical awareness and skills relevant to your job?
- *Professional learning*: What professional development activities do you engage in to benefit from research and inquiry skills in your job?
- *Communication with the public*: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the value of teachers drawing on research and their inquiry skills to teach English? What are your views on this?

Teacher quality questions inquired about the national teacher standards (MoEYS, 2010) and how they are integrated by the stakeholders from the perspective of their professional roles. For example, when interviewing policymakers, the following questions were asked (Appendix):

- *Policy engagement and advocacy*: National competency-based teacher standards are being established all around the world. What specific policies and programs have been or are being developed to support teacher quality? What makes the policy good as opposed to being overbearing for teachers, schools and Teacher Training?
- *Critical friends*: How do you engage in interdisciplinary “dialogues” to build a critical understanding of the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in Cambodia and teacher education in general?
- *Professional learning*: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in Cambodia and teacher education in general?
- *Communication with the public*: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the relevance of the national teacher competency-based standards in Cambodia and teacher education in general? What are your views on this?

Teacher quality generated the following questions with respect to teachers:

- *Policy engagement and advocacy*: National competency-based teacher standards are being established all around the world. What does this mean to you in your teaching practice?
- *Critical friends*: Understanding the national competency-based teacher standards is complex and requires engagement with a community of “critical friends”. What do you do to be part of such a community of “critical friends”?
- *Professional learning*: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play, or should play, in your practice?
- *Communication with the public*: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the value of the national teacher competency-based standards in your practice? What are your views on this?

How students engage in English depends partly on the values they attach to English. *Student quality* questions inquired about communication with the students to impart the value of English language learning. For example, when interviewing policymakers, the following questions were asked (Appendix):

- *Policy engagement and advocacy*: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community. What specific strategies or programs are supported by policies to ensure student interest in English?
- *Critical friends*: Communicating English language policies to the community is complex and requires engagement with a community of “critical friends” to provide insights from different fields and angles. What do you do to be part of such a community of “critical friends” to learn how best to secure students’ interest in English?
- *Professional learning*: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to communicate English language policies to the community and to secure students’ interest in English?
- *Communication with the public*: What communication activities with the broader community do you create or support secure students’ interest in English? What are your views on this?

Student quality generated the following questions with respect to teachers:

- *Policy engagement and advocacy*: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community. What specific strategies do you engage to secure students’ interest in English?
- *Critical friends*: Communicating the value of English language to your students is complex and requires engagement with a community of “critical friends” to provide insights from different fields and angles. What do you do to be part of such a community of “critical friends” to help you secure your students’ interest in English?
- *Professional learning*: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to communicate the value of English language to your students?
- *Communication with the public*: What communication activities with the broader community do you create secure students’ interest in English? What are your views on this?

Finally, *Infrastructure* questions inquired about resourcing, human or other, and its impact on the success of the new English language policies. For example, when interviewing policymakers, the following questions were asked (Appendix):

- *Policy engagement and advocacy*: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community. Is Cambodia ready for this shift considering the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?
- *Critical friends*: Reflecting on the impact of one’s own work is challenging and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including scholars from different disciplines, to approach this process critically. How do you engage in such interdisciplinary stakeholder “dialogues” to better understand your own impact on English teacher preparation? Address issues such as preparing teachers to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies.
- *Professional learning*: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to prepare future teachers to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?
- *Communication with the public*: What communication activities with the broader community do you create or support to help teachers in coping with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies? What are your views on this?

Infrastructure generated the following questions with respect to teachers:

- *Policy engagement and advocacy*: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community. How do you feel prepared to cope with the increasing infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?
- *Critical friends*: Reflecting on the impact of one’s own work is challenging and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including scholars from different disciplines, to approach this process critically. How do you engage in such a critical “dialogue” to better understand your own impact on the students and your ability to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?
- *Professional learning*: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?
- *Communication with the public*: What communication activities with the broader community do you create or support to help you cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies? What are your views on this?

While the interview questions may seem challenging, it was important not to affect the nature of those questions by any assumptions about the quality standards in Cambodia. The same questions can thus be asked in any other country that aspires to comply with international standards. This is the advantage of those questions as the framework developed for Stage 2 makes it possible to compare developments across different countries or regions. A small pilot was organised involving two high-ranking scholars from Australia to ensure the questions were understandable and would generate high quality data (Oppenheim, 2000). It was advised that the interviewer takes time for the interviewees to provide detailed information.

The interviews took place in Cambodia. The researcher met with each participant separately by scheduling appointments based on their availability. Interviewees were free to choose the language, but most of the interviews were conducted in Khmer, which enabled the participants to express as much information as possible and the language of the interview was not an obstacle. The interviews were recorded and then transcribed by listening to the recordings and translated the into English by the researcher. The translations were not word by word, but captured the points made by the interviewees. The participants involved the same people as in Stage 1; however, no international stakeholders were present. Twenty-nine interviews were conducted in total.

The researcher first communicated to the participants the findings of the questionnaire from STAGE 1 for everyone to develop an understanding of how the various stakeholders construct the ELT field, their visions of it and their roles.

3.4 Data analysis: Stage 1

This section describes the techniques used to analyse the data collected in Stage 1 of the present study.

3.4.1 Stage 1: Step 1

Stage 1 analysis involved thematic organisation of the thirty participants' responses to the questionnaire. The framework used for analysing the data used the themes and subthemes developed in studies by Tan (2016), Hak (2016), Nashruddin (2020) and Pertiwi (2020). Table 3.3 lists the themes and the subthemes identified by Pertiwi (2020), whose study was the most

recent and has updated the framework with new subthemes. The themes of the study remained as initially finalised by Nashruddin (2020). The themes are explained next using the definitions provided by Pertiwi (2020).

- *Global Relevance* comprises comments relating to the relevance of comments to global policy and practice contexts.
- *National Relevance* includes data comments on issues addressing the national policy and practice contexts.
- *Course and Unit Design* includes data on issues addressing the curriculum design and syllabi (course and unit). The terms were first developed for higher education context and needed adjusting to school terminology.
- *Pedagogy* includes data relating to teaching/learning activities.
- *Stakeholder Awareness* includes data addressing strategies for developing awareness of the new policies and their implications for practice among the stakeholder community.
- *University Funding, Workload and Support* addresses any organisational and human resource issues that the new policies create and that need addressing.
- *Personal Research* included data linking the new policies with the participants' personal research.

When analysing the data from Stage 1, the themes and subthemes recently updated by Pertiwi (2020) functioned as a matrix against which the data from Cambodia was compared. This meant that rather than treating the context of Cambodia in its own right, the matrix offered a set of already identified aspects that the implementation of the new ELT curricula presents to the ELT community in South-East Asia. Stage 1 involved mapping the comments from the questionnaire and, where needed, adding new subthemes, many of which were specific to the school context. No new themes were added.

Table 3.3. Themes and subthemes established by Pertiwi (2020) and utilised in Stage 1.

Theme	Subthemes
Global Relevance:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● International reputation ● International standardisation
National Relevance:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Degree quality and student quality ● Degree quality and lecturer quality ● Challenge: Implementation issues ● Challenge: Resource
Course and Unit Design:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Unit learning outcomes based on graduate competencies and the national Qualifications Framework (QF) ● Building connections between the unit components ● Linking assessment with learning outcomes ● Challenge: Degree quality and student quality ● Challenge: Difficulty in building connections between the unit components ● Challenge: Program evaluation
Pedagogy:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Planning teaching ● Differentiated learning ● Teacher's role ● Student's role ● Teaching research skills ● Unit material choice and organization ● Taking account of published research ● Challenge: Planning teaching ● Challenge: Teaching research skills ● Challenge: Taking account of published research ● Challenge: Students' understanding of the skills involved ● Challenge: lecturers' understanding of innovation in research ● Challenge: Unit material choice and organization
Stakeholder Awareness:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Raising students' awareness ● Raising lecturers' awareness ● Neglect to raise students' awareness ● Accounting for the schools' culture ● Accounting for the university departmental culture ● Neglecting departmental culture ● Accounting for the needs of stakeholders ● Challenge: Change is not popular ● Challenge: Accounting for the university departmental culture ● Challenge: Raising lecturers' awareness ● Challenge: Raising students' awareness

University Funding, Workload and Support:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Capacity development •Challenge: resource •Challenge: Excessive workload •Challenge: Not enough support for research •Challenge: colleagues' understanding of research
Personal Research:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Addressing the teaching of research in one's own research. •Linking one's own research with the teaching of research •Challenge: Disregarding the value of innovation in research •Challenge: Too narrow specialization

3.4.2 Stage 1: Step 2

Once the initial distribution of data was completed, it was necessary to relate the findings to concepts that were already used in Cambodia and that would provide the findings with a yet another perspective on the data. To this end, the theme and subtheme categories were co-related with the four standard areas of strategic development of higher education, which include *Teaching and Learning*; *Research and Innovation*; and *Community Engagement*. These areas are not particular to higher education and demonstrate educators' contribution to and understanding of the relationship between research, teaching and the broader community. The comparison made it possible to construct a more differentiated picture of the strengths and weaknesses of the system.

In addition, the study analysed conversation patterns of the stakeholders, detailing which stakeholders are considered by whom and in relation to which areas of performance and capacity. This was important to demonstrate the quality of "social capital" of the field and to analyse its potential to contribute to the English language policy agenda of Cambodia and the ASEAN.

3.5 Data analysis: Stage 2

This section describes the techniques used to analyse the data collected in Stage 2 of the present study.

3.5.1 Data analysis

In Step 1 of data analysis, for each stakeholder group, the study organised the data by matching the information obtained with Burroway's (2011) categories that were adapted for the purpose

of the present study. That data was also mapped against the themes of Stage 1 of the study to illustrate the range of topics that were addressed. Table 3.4 illustrate the process using the example for analysing statements from policymakers.

Table 3.4. Example of data triangulation in Stage 2 Step 1 process.

	Strategies
Policymakers • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policy • Critical friends • PD (training) • Community

Subsequently the findings were summarised and discussed in relation to the national teacher standards (MoEYS, 2010), listed in Chapter 2. The aim was to establish the extent to which, based on the data collected, teachers were in the position to meet those standards in order to achieve the transformative learning objectives of the new national curriculum of Cambodia (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015).

The data generated in this manner provided the study with detailed insights regarding what the system wanted, what the stakeholders wanted, and what was possible. Chapter 5 summarises the different tensions that the findings of the study helped illuminate. Recommendations for change were proposed based on those findings.

3.6 Ethical considerations

The study has obtained clearance from the CDU Human Research Ethics Committee. Following the ethics procedures, the researcher ensured that the study involved voluntary participation and the provision of non-identifiable information. Relevant consents were sought and obtained. All participants could opt out from the project any time they wish to do so. The participants' identity is confidential.

To secure the stakeholder participation, upon the approval of the project by the CDU Ethics Committee, the researcher wrote to the heads of respective institutions in charge of schools and teacher education and asked for permission for their staff to participate in the study. The list of the participating schools in the province was negotiated with the Department. Letters of consent were presented, and an agreement were sought. The benefits of the study for all involved were explained. The conditions of the project were discussed with some supervisors in order to ensure that the project did not impact negatively on the participants.

The study worked with adults only. All information about the study and its processes was clarified. The methods of collecting data were explained and the participants were assured that they could feel free that their information would be treated with care and appropriate anonymity. All participants were informed that their questionnaire and interview responses would be handled confidentially. The researcher ensured that the project would not result in any loss of wages or would not place financial burden on the participants. Contact details of the researcher were provided in case the participants needed additional information. The researcher requested formal agreements from all participants.

All questionnaire responses were downloaded and securely stored in digital format and also were password protected. The data is to be retained for a period of 5 years after which it is destroyed. Confidentiality and security of the data was managed by the research team in accordance with the Research Data Management Guidelines of Charles Darwin University. Research data and records associated with the thesis (questionnaires, interview recordings & transcription) were deposited in College of Education at Charles Darwin University and full details regarding the location of the data were provided to the principal supervisor to ensure that they were managed appropriately.

4 Findings

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study. The findings illustrate the ELT stakeholders' reflections on the "job" of ELT and how they view their own roles in building a modern education system that supports EFL students' success. Stage 1 invited the study participants in self-reflection on their take on the roles that they play in progressing the new ELT agenda. Stage 2, in turn, focused on the concept of internationalisation and the different implications that the concept brought to the roles of ELT stakeholders. The data from the two stages are analysed with a view to comparing the needs of the system as perceived by the stakeholders and the analysis conducted in this chapter.

The chapter concludes with the summary of the findings and a brief discussion of the insights that their analysis helped reveal.

4.2 Stage 1 findings: Questionnaire

This section illustrates the findings from Stage 1. Thirty-one (31) responses were obtained on the questionnaire that was administered online for stakeholders to complete.

The chapter presents the themes and subthemes elicited in the present study against the list of all themes and subthemes that were identified in the previous studies that used the same method of analysis. Findings are presented in relation to the major components of university work, which include Research and Innovation; Teaching and Professional Development; and Community Service. Findings for each of these categories are summarised and Stage 1 and implications are developed for Stage 2.

4.2.1 Themes and subthemes

Table 4.1 presents the themes and subthemes that emerged from previous studies (Hak, 2016; Tan, 2016; Nashruddin, 2020, Pertiwi, 2020) that the present study used as its categories of analysis. No new themes were added; however, some new subthemes were identified. Every study may result in new subthemes, which reflect the specificity of the context that they investigate.

It is important for Table 4.1 to list the combined themes and subthemes of the current and previous studies to illustrate the scope of the data elicited by the present study. Underlined are the subthemes identified in the present study, including those that were added.

The list in Table 4.1 is limited by research that generated its categories. Nonetheless, for the purpose of this research, it provided the study with an initial tool for effective data organisation to obtain patterns able to reveal biases and gaps in stakeholder approaches to the new reforms.

Table 4.1. Stage 1: Themes and subthemes

Theme	Subthemes
Global Relevance: The impacts of global policies on EFL teaching in Cambodia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <u>International reputation</u> ● <u>Expanding professional networks</u> ● International standardisation
National Relevance: The impacts of national policies on EFL teaching in Cambodia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <u>Resources</u> ● <u>Resources: Challenges</u> ● <u>Degree quality and student quality</u> ● <u>Degree quality and lecturer/teacher quality</u> ● Implementation issues
Course and Unit Design: The impacts of the new Teacher Standards and competency-based outcomes on EFL course and unit design in Cambodia.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <u>Scope of training</u> ● <u>Integrating an online LMS</u> ● <u>Workloads</u> ● Building connections between the unit components ● Degree quality and pre-service teacher quality ● Degree quality and student quality ● Difficulty in building connections between the unit components ● Linking assessment with learning outcomes ● Program evaluation ● Unit learning outcomes based on graduate competencies and the QF
Pedagogy: The impacts of the new Teacher Standards and the national, competency-based, curriculum on EFL teaching in Cambodia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <u>Planning teaching</u> ● <u>Planning teaching: Challenges</u> ● <u>Teacher's role</u> ● <u>Student's role</u> ● <u>Teaching research skills</u> ● Differentiated learning ● Lecturers' understanding of innovation ● Students' understanding of the skills involved ● Taking account of published research ● Unit material choice and organisation ● Unit material choice and organization
Stakeholder Awareness: The impacts of the new Teacher Standards and the	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Accounting for the schools' culture ● Accounting for the university departmental culture ● <u>Raising schoolteachers' awareness</u>

national, competency-based, curriculum on EFL, on the professional and broader community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <u>Raising students' awareness</u> ● Raising lecturers' awareness ● <u>Raising community awareness</u> ● Challenge: Change is not popular ● Neglect to raise students' awareness ● Neglecting departmental culture
Institutional Funding, Support and Workloads: Investment in and the recognition of the need for support of the new EFL policies.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <u>Building stakeholder communities</u> ● <u>Not enough support</u> ● <u>Capacity building</u> ● Colleagues' understanding ● Excessive workload ● Lack of resources
Personal Research: Engagement of the EFL community in the new education reforms in Cambodia.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <u>Upskilling</u> ● <u>International Collaboration</u> ● <u>Addressing the teaching of EFL in one's own research</u> ● <u>Too narrow specialisation</u> ● Challenge: Disregarding the value of innovation in EFL

4.2.2 General distribution of data

Table 4.1 does not include every comment made on the questionnaire. Instead, it illustrates the issues that were mentioned by the questionnaire respondents. For example, if three respondents spoke about the need for more research, this would have been included once only under the appropriate category.

The questions asked in the questionnaire focused on the respondents' assessment of their own engagement with, and the impact on, the new ELT policies and their views on the direction forward. In other words, the questions made it possible for the respondents to address their areas of work and expertise thoroughly and to evidence their experiences in terms of actions that they, or the system, take or see necessary to undertake.

Table 4.1 demonstrates that the key areas that were populated by stakeholder comments illustrate their general awareness of the national and international reforms and the need for internationalisation; challenges that these reforms present; the relevance of appropriate teacher training to support teacher and student quality; pedagogy as an important vehicle to translate policies into practice; building stakeholder awareness of the importance of the reforms; the need for training and other institutional support; the importance that research can play to inform policy understanding and implementation.

Table 4.1 also illuminates some gaps. These are largely in the area of Course and Unit Design, a theme that typically includes references to processes and concepts that underpin the curriculum design; and Pedagogy, and specifically in areas relating to innovation, research evidence, and personalisation of learning. Table 4.2. presents a general summary of the findings in Stage 1. This summary was a useful guide for the researcher when interpreting the study findings for each of the major components of data analysis relating to Research and Innovation; Teaching and Professional Development; and Community Service. The sections which follow illuminate these results and lead to new questions to be followed up in Stage 2. Gaps not highlighted in Table 4.2, like, for example, no mention of international standards under Global Relevance, reveal their absence when analysing the major slots that are missing data.

Table 4.2. General summary of the findings in Stage 1

	Areas of awareness	Gaps
Global Relevance	Awareness of the new national and international reforms	
National Relevance	Challenges that these reforms present	
Course and Unit Design	Appropriate teacher training to support teacher and student quality	References to the processes and concepts that underpin the quality of programs
Pedagogy	Innovation, research evidence, and personalisation of learning	Areas relating to innovation, research evidence, and personalisation of learning
Stakeholder Awareness:	Building stakeholder awareness	
Institutional Funding, Support and Workloads	The need for training and other institutional support	
Personal Research	The importance that research can play to inform policy understanding and implementation	

4.2.3 Stage 1: Research and Innovation

Table 4.3 illustrates findings relating to the Research and Innovation category. In this category, comments related to activities undertaken on stakeholders' engagement in research or on ELT research in general.

Table 4.3 distinguishes between the comments made by made by teachers and senior respondents. The category of senior respondents included principals, policymakers, researchers, and teacher trainers. The table was not moved to appendix because (a) it makes

the gaps in the data visible; and (b) it shows the range of themes and subthemes identified in respondents' comments.

Teachers: Table 4.3 shows absolutely no data in this respect and no data from the teacher community except for comments expressing a desire for collaboration with the ELT research community, “Teachers should have a teaching partner and a research partner”, “No experience. EFL teachers follow the English textbook provided by the MoEYS”, and “Teachers do not have sufficient human resources and materials (reading materials, internet, computer, etc.) to do research”. Also, teachers said that left to their own devices, “This makes teaching boring and not creative”.

Senior respondents: The comments in Table 4.3 indicate that senior respondents value research, aspire to become leaders in EFL education, which naturally must include research. There is a mention of the *Cambodian Review of EFL Research Journal*, and a comment that Cambodia should develop its own identity in this research area. These are statements mainly about future. No comments were found on the impact of the journal especially in areas of pedagogy and syllabus or curriculum (Unit and Course) design. Senior respondents acknowledged having been engaged in research. One, possibly the international scholar, wrote about his/her interdisciplinary experience and having a vision for his/her research, “building a wave”. Names, such as Vygotsky or Rebecca Oxford, are mainstream TESOL references and not quite indicative of “out of the box” thinking. Other names listed by the respondents include leading contemporary scholars from different disciplines.

Future directions

The analysis revealed major gaps in ELT in Cambodia, especially in relation to schools. While research expertise and aspiration are present, the data show that a broader vision of ELT research is needed to give it direction that is currently missing. Yet, as Table 4.3 illustrates, teachers are interested and hopeful that collaboration with scholars may improve their practice.

Table 4.3. Stage 1: Findings on Research and Innovation

	Research and Innovation	
	Seniors (Local and international)	Practitioners in Cambodia
Global Relevance	International reputation	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vision: Our Department of English has a vision to become a leader in this [EFL teacher education] area. • Qualifications: International qualifications. • Publications: <i>Cambodian Review of EFL Research</i> Journal assists the discipline. • Research Identity: Cambodia should develop its own identity in TESOL. There is no need to follow in the footsteps of others. <p>Expanding professional networks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local and international networks: ELT professionals should work collaboratively with international partners. 	
National Relevance	<p>Resources: Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need for innovation: Where resources are missing, innovative and courageous (risk-taking) thinking is needed to address this problem. <p>Resources</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sharing resources: A proposal was submitted to MoEYS for developing a Research Centre (a structure) that supports innovation in language-learning projects that link local and international experts. 	
Course and Unit Design		
Pedagogy		
Personal Research	<p>Addressing the teaching of EFL in one's own research.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research experience: Several academics expressed being or having been involved in EFL research and postgraduate student mentoring. <p>Too narrow specialisation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interdisciplinarity: There is an over-reliance on TESOL literature in ELT studies. Myself, I expand the concepts relevant to the field by learning from disciplines such as neuroscience, psychology, semiotics, philosophy of science. • Rogers's Diffusion of Innovation, Vygotsky's social constructivist approach, Rebecca Oxford's learning strategies for EFL context, Andrew Lian and 	<p>Addressing the teaching of EFL in one's own research.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research experience: No experience. EFL teachers follow the English textbook provided by the MoEYS. • Interdisciplinarity: Longman Grammar and English High School, Abraham Maslow, Jean Jacque Rousseau, Phirum Ou, British Council, Seven habits of Shan Covey.

	<p>CALL, Anne Freadman, V.S. Ramachandran Jordan Peterson. Some slogans from different thinkers and innovators were also offered.</p> <p>International Collaboration</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Building a wave: In my own work, I seek to build a wave linking international scholars, educators, and policymakers, who look for fresh perspectives on issues that affect them. 	
Stakeholder Awareness		
Institutional Support	<p>Upskilling</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PD: Conference attendance 	<p>Policy implementation challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaboration with schools: Teachers should have a teaching partner and a research partner. This would allow teachers the opportunity to learn from each other and increase their teaching effectiveness. • Lack of support: We all know research is good and teachers want to do the research. However, to do this job it requires something that teachers alone can do. Teachers do not have sufficient human resources and materials (reading materials, internet, computer, etc) to do research. • Teachers do not have enough materials to do research. This makes teaching boring and not creative.

4.2.4 Stage 1: Teaching and Professional Development

Table 4.4 illustrates findings relating to the Teaching and Professional Development category. Table 4.4 distinguishes between the comments made by teachers and senior respondents. In this category, the comments included stakeholders' relevant to their teaching and professional development experiences.

Teachers: Table 4.4 shows teachers' commenting on the quality of students' English proficiency, indicating that students arrive in high school with low proficiency, which then impacts on their future learning (Degree Quality and Student Quality and Degree Quality and Teacher Quality) (National Relevance). They are aware that following a textbook has a limiting

and demotivating effect on the students' learning: "Teachers should not totally follow textbooks but should use other activities and search for resources to make their language class interesting" (Pedagogy). Teachers offered some suggestions on how to improve teaching, including adjusting to their students' language abilities and socioeconomic backgrounds, creating their own lesson activities, and, for students, to share textbooks when there is a shortage. Teachers were aware of the need for competent teachers, who have good communication with the students, teach the four language skills, and can comply with the MoEYS' teaching policies. Teachers also saw it important to be informed on policies, play a role in promoting English among the students and students' parents (Stakeholder Awareness). Monthly support meetings in schools were identified as the key professional development context for information sharing, albeit, as reported, not all teachers were willing to share (Institutional Support).

Importantly though, no details were offered by teachers on how they go about designing their own syllabi and curricula, and on how exactly they taught English and what challenges they experience when teaching (Course and Unit Design). No comments were offered by teachers on their participation in any research projects assisting them in their own contexts of practice (Personal Research). Instead, their comments reiterated the need for more resources (Lack of resources), better salaries, more teachers to make teaching more effective, proper training and PDs, and most of all, greater support from MoEYS, especially a better communication between schools and the ministry, and the inclusion of teachers in the process of policymaking.

Senior respondents offered no comments in the theme of Stakeholder Awareness, which is concerning when considering that professional development and quality teaching depend on collaboration and communication between stakeholders. However, senior respondents acknowledged the need for networking with international partners for mutual learning (Global Relevance). At the national level, just like the teachers, senior respondents believed that student quality can improve with better degree programs (Degree Quality and Student Quality). Along similar lines, they thought that teachers need higher qualifications and should speak better English to deliver quality teaching programs (Degree Quality and Teacher Quality). Senior respondents identified several factors that improve teacher education programs (Course and Unit Design). This included the provision of language programs that train teachers to use English for specific subject areas, such as physics, biology etc. It was noted that currently teacher training programs include both the language and the teaching components. The use of

ICT was mentioned as a factor for improving the management of students' learning. From the perspective of the school context, senior respondents mentioned the need for increasing the teaching hours of English in schools. In terms of Pedagogy, senior respondents advocated student-centred approaches, CLT, and teaching that promotes student-agency.

The data show a very narrow concept of professional development in stakeholders' comments, one which is dominated by the knowledge transmission paradigm, where teachers are taught or shown how to improve. No specific references were made to engagement with academia in projects that support professional learning of teachers through reflection. Yet, engagements of this kind stimulate interaction between stakeholders, with each learning from another. However, a need for such activities was identified at least by one respondent. The data confirm the findings reported by Ogisu (2018) and King (2017), discussed in Chapter 2, on the "trickling" (cascade) approach that is currently being used in professional learning. Ogisu and King revealed tensions of the similar kind identified in the present study. The assumption is that modelling transmission processes will result in teachers designing transformative learning experiences for their students.

Future directions

What needs changing? In order to identify future directions, it was necessary to illustrate the directions of the conversations that the questionnaire elicited. The analysis examined who addressed whom in their responses, how, and who was omitted in those conversations. The analysis revealed that, for teachers, the ELT research community was completely absent. Nobody had any expectations of them, nobody named them, nobody was aware of the role that they should play in ELT capacity building. It is as if the ELT research community had a "life" completely unrelated to whatever was happening in schools. In essence, teachers seemed "trained" to believe that they had no need for ELT research community and, instead, believed that their expectations could be met by MoEYS or themselves. Similar attitudes were found among the senior respondents, except for one comment, probably from the international scholar, who wrote: "EFL researchers would benefit from linking with schools, with one another, and with international partners to share resources to support teachers". The analysis below offers evidence in this regard. The literature review in Chapter 2 also noted significant absence of ELT research in schools. This discovery suggests that Cambodia and its HEIs are missing an entire group of experts able to take leadership in matters of national policy priority. It also indicates that those who study EFL do not work with schools. Yet, each context, schools

or HEIs, works with similar objectives, each striving to build students' capability to participate critically in different communities with a view to contributing to the lives of those communities. This lack of interest in school-based research suggests that HEIs and MoEYS need to review their own policies regarding L2-teaching research, the communities that this research is to support, and the impact assessment criteria.

Teachers:

Most teachers in Table 4.4 describe what should happen, their comments target either fellow **teachers**: “Teachers at primary school should have appropriate English knowledge and be trained on English language teaching methodology”; **their own practices**: “Teachers should not totally follow textbooks but should use other activities and search for resources to make their language class interesting”; or **MoEYS**, “Training mandated by MoEYS should focus on effectiveness” or “Communication between schools and MoEYS is very limited as normally teachers are not so well informed about activities or the job of EFL education”.

A few comments describe what has already happened in **schools**: “Monthly meetings are arranged by schools for teachers to share information and solve problems”, and “School once received the support from volunteers of Peace Corp”.

No comments directly addressed ELT research community nor described its role in building teacher capacity.

Senior respondents:

Senior respondents, which included ELT and ELTE research community, directed their comments to **teacher trainers**, while also describing what should happen: “Student-centred approach should be advocated. And, there is no best way to teach and there is no best to learn”; “Teacher experience is critical. Professional training should provide teachers with as many teaching methodologies as possible for them to choose”; **MoEYS**: “The curriculum should be improved, and teachers' capacity should be improved”; “A proposal was sent to MoEYS to increase the number of teaching hours of English”; to **teacher trainers and MoEYS**: “On completion of school, students should have sufficient general and professional English proficiency.”; and to **teachers**: “Teachers' English proficiency is too low”.

Some comments of senior respondents also described what is, or has already happened. These comments were oriented toward **themselves**: {There are} difficult circumstances in the high school teaching and learning environment”; “Teacher exchanges with

foreign counterparts have happened and should continue”; “CLT, a part of social constructivism, is adopted in our Department. Meaning-to-Form rather than Form-to-Meaning”; “Conferences attendance”; “Our Department has updated our preservice teacher curriculum and integrated technology to support learning management”; and “The Department will provide training of teaching methodology at both primary and secondary school level”.

No comments directly addressed ELT research community nor described its role in building teacher capacity.

Table 4.4. Stage 1: Teaching and Professional Development

	Teaching and Professional Development	
	Seniors	Practitioners
Global Relevance	<p>Expanding professional networks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exchanges: Teacher exchanges with foreign counterparts have happened and should continue. • International networking: The Dept of Secondary Education is currently working on seeking and strengthening the collaboration with international partners. 	
National Relevance	<p>Degree quality and student quality</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student proficiency: On completion of school, students should have sufficient general and professional English proficiency. STEM subjects should be in English at secondary school. The curriculum should be improved, and teachers’ capacity should be improved. • Students’ motivation: Many students have low motivation. <p>Degree quality & teacher quality</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers’ English proficiency: It is too low • Qualified teachers: The quality of teacher degree is paramount. Teachers should be highly qualified. 	<p>Degree quality and student quality</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student proficiency: When students upgrade to secondary school, they should have the level of English required at secondary school level. • Students’ motivation: Students with proper English knowledge are less than 20%. This discourages them from learning and makes it very challenging for secondary teachers to teach. <p>Degree quality & teacher quality</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qualified teachers. Teachers at primary school should have appropriate English knowledge and be trained on English language teaching methodology so that they can provide their students qualified English teaching. When students upgrade to secondary school, they need appropriate basic of English proficiency that responds accordingly to the English level required at the secondary school level.
Course and Unit Design	<u>Scope of training</u>	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ESP: English should be taught mainly to support discipline-specific language (Physics, biology, etc). • Teacher Training Program: Pre-service teacher training programme currently trains in English language proficiency and teaching competence. • English language teachers are introduced to a wide range of skills namely (1) knowledge of specialization, (2) knowledge of pedagogy: teaching skills and psycho-pedagogy, (3) Professional Ethics, and (4) good personalities. By placing them in a 2-month teaching practices in secondary schools, English language teachers will be well informed about real situations of how English is transferred to the students. <p>Integrating an online LMS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ICT: Our Department has updated our preservice teacher curriculum and integrated technology to support learning management. <p>Workloads</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student w/load: A proposal was sent to MoEYS to increase the number of teaching hours of English 	
Pedagogy	<p>Planning Teaching</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Approach: Student-centred approach should be advocated. And, there is no best way to teach and there is no best to learn. • CLT, a part of social constructivism, is adopted in our Department. Meaning-to-Form rather than Form-to-Meaning. • Role plays. • Student Agency: We believe that students learn English best if they are active participants. Students being put in real, authentic situations. Focus on capabilities, not grammar alone. • Preoccupation with language as grammatical structures should give way to using language in order to get things done. Project-based learning, utilising multiple resources, always benefits students. For example, PechaKucha-like international dialogues immediately introduce students to English as a vehicle for learning about oneself and for expanding one's presence and 	<p>Planning Teaching</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resources: Teachers should not totally follow textbooks but should use other activities and search for resources to make their language class interesting for the students. • Teachers should ask students to share textbooks • Teachers should create his own lessons • Adjusting tasks: Due to the very low students' English in primary schools, teachers should adjust the tasks to allow all students to engage. <p>Teacher's role</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presence: Teachers should have loud and clear voice to attract students' attention in an English class • Communication: Teachers should have good communication with students and build trust with the students by giving fair scores and on the discipline • Competence: Follow the administrative requirements: do the lesson plans that both meet the

	<p>knowledge about the broader community.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ICT: it is critical that language class should not be taught in a normal class. There should be language lab designed specifically to teach language. The lab should be equipped with useful materials such as computer, tv, internet, cassette player so that students can learn the quality English that enables them to reach the original English standard of English without totally depending on teachers. With technology both teachers and students learn <p>Teaching research skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflective teaching: In my classes with pre-service teachers, I practise reflective teaching to support Communities of Practice. Teachers are also taught classroom research. • Education Research Council (ERC) should engage with teachers to support them with research skills. • Teachers are also taught classroom research skills “through undertaking research in classroom in a form of communities of practice”. <p>Planning Teaching: Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need for ongoing PD: teachers of English in the secondary school need continuous improvements regarding EFL pedagogy, assessment, ICT use for EFL classrooms, etc 	<p>ministry requirements and the real situation of classroom.</p> <p>Student role</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competencies: They should be trained for self-directed learning and be familiar with group work. <p>Planning Teaching: Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The 4 skills: Teaching is not balanced and is not addressing the 4 skills. Students have low proficiency in speaking and writing
Personal Research	<p>International collaboration</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School-based research: EFL researchers would benefit from linking with schools, with one another, and with international partners to share resources to support teachers. 	
Stakeholder Awareness		
Institutional Support	<p>Capacity building</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher numbers: Due to the low number of English teachers, there has been a proposal to increase the quota for primary English teachers. • The Dept of Secondary Education proposed to the ministry to increase the number of EFL teachers each year. • The Department will provide training of teaching methodology at both primary and secondary school level. 	<p>Capacity building</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School support: Monthly meetings are arranged by schools for teachers to share information and solve problems. <p>Capacity building: challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School support: Teachers are not willing to share their teaching problems with their colleagues. <p>Lack of resources</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Textbooks: Teachers need more textbooks.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Department of Secondary Education works on bringing the complaints and challenges to the higher levels to improve communication. • I think the most effective way is to further develop the ELT teachers who have already been teaching in various state high schools to enhance their teaching performances. • Teacher experience is critical. Professional training should provide teachers with as many teaching methodologies as possible for them to choose - Build professional ethics and the feeling of love of teaching in their hearts - High, competent, efficient trainers. <p>Building stakeholder communities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher trainers linking with schools: Recently, in our department, we have created a community of practice to continuously assist our teachers (both inside our department and from elsewhere in Cambodia) in further developing and enhancing their teaching. This is to assist teachers with research inquiry on their teaching. <p>Lack of resources</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Salary: Well-paid jobs provide educators with the stability, time, and motivation to improve, all required by 21st Century education contexts. • Teacher numbers: More EFL teachers are needed, too small numbers of EFL teachers in schools • Student w/load: Some schools don't provide sufficient teaching hours for English • Facilities/ICT: Teachers need improved facilities and language labs to support students' learning, provide authentic language experiences, and make learning more attractive. • Textbooks need updating. • PD: There is insufficient pre-service teacher training • Working conditions: Difficult circumstances in high school teaching and learning environment • Our department has produced thousands of Cambodian EFL teachers over more than two decades 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Salary: Teachers prefer to offer classes privately. This disadvantages public schooling. • Teacher numbers: More EFL teachers are needed in both primary and secondary schools especially in rural areas. Teachers of other subjects are required to teach English. English teachers have too many classes to teach. • Class size: Classes are too large. • PD: Teachers should be properly trained the new teaching methodology especially when MoEYS update the English textbooks. • There isn't enough training for EFL teachers (almost none). • Training mandated by MoEYS should focus on effectiveness. <p>Lack of support</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Absent MoEYS' support: Teachers feel unsupported by the ministry. The ministry requirement is to complete the textbook, but they are not interested as to why teachers hardly meet this requirement. • Communication between schools and MoEYS is very limited as normally teachers are not so well informed about activities or the job of EFL education. • EFL teachers should be engaged in policy decision-making. • Teachers need more support. They feel abandoned. <p>Building stakeholder communities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International networks: School once received the support from volunteers of Peace Corp.
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	but not many of them are working in state high schools.	
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4.2.5 Stage 1: Community engagement

Table 4.5 illustrates findings relating to the Community Engagement category. Specifically, in this category, the table included data relevant to comments on how stakeholders engage with the broader community to communicate the new education policies. Table 4.5 distinguishes between the comments made by teachers and senior respondents.

Table 4.5 reveals a startling number of empty spaces and is the least completed table in Stage 1. It shows gaps in several areas of capacity for both groups of stakeholders.

Teachers: Teachers’ comments gathered around the theme of National Relevance and Institutional Support. In the subthemes, Resources and Degree Quality and Student Quality (National Relevance), teachers felt that they would like to see MoEYS enhance the relevance the profile of English. In their view students’ engagement would be enhanced if MoEYS would add English to the list of compulsory subjects for the national exam. They also believe that it would be a worthwhile idea to create or purchase educational TV programs for English. None of the suggestions of community engagement is related to any evidence from research, personal or otherwise. Also, in the theme of Institutional Support, teachers’ comments further criticised MoEYS for making decision about exams that irrespective of the opinions of teachers. This then impacts negatively on teacher-student relationships as students are taught one thing but are examined on another. There is a mismatch in how teachers and MoEYS interpret the curriculum and its objectives.

Senior respondents made no comments in relation to the theme of National Relevance. Instead, they focused on Building Stakeholder Communities (Institutional Support). They indicated that schools, students, teachers, and parents already have a structure, like School Management Committee, to support students’ learning. How exactly this structure operates was not mentioned. Also, the idea of schools building sister relationships with overseas schools was flagged as a factor motivating students’ learning.

Future directions

With respect to community engagement, the data show that the ELT/ELTE community and policymakers lack the *outward* perspective and mindset argued for by Fullan and Hargreaves (2017) when discussing a balanced community of practice. All areas of capacity building listed in Table 4.1 need developing.

The broader community as a stakeholder in the country’s ELT education policies and practice needs to acquire greater prominence and visibility. Innovative proposals are needed to ensure that the communication is two-way, for all stakeholders to learn from. Issues listed in the subthemes of each of the themes in Table 4.1 can provide focus for some of those dialogic engagements. This also includes areas of Course Design and Pedagogy for students to approach their learning from the perspective of their own personal and social histories and values. Othering English and presenting it as a separate “universe” prevents students from making bridges between the cultural and language practices that they know and those that they are learning. These pedagogic strategies can be part of dialogues that build Stakeholder Awareness and shape their respective understandings of the Global and National Relevance of the new policies and practice. In other words, these understandings need to be experienced and this requires planning in relation to all aspects of practice that the themes in Table 4.5 capture. The subthemes listed in Table 4.1 illustrate a range of dimensions for future planning. It is evident that the ELT research community should play a pivotal role in designing and investigating such experiences.

Table 4.5. Stage 1: Findings on Community Engagement

	Community Engagement	
	Seniors	Practitioners
Global Relevance		
National Relevance		Degree quality and student quality <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Absent MoEYS’ support: MoEYS does not emphasise English enough, only science subjects. English has not been made a compulsory subject for the national examination. •
Course and Unit Design		
Pedagogy		
Personal Research		

Stakeholder Awareness		<p>Raising schoolteachers' awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policy and leadership: Other than the main job of teaching teachers should be well informed about policy and leadership skill. Teacher should look at their job from the bigger picture. Without knowledge of policy, leadership and research, teachers are not willing to grow or improve their career. • Expectations: Students who are from poor family background are shy and unwilling to speak English in class because they feel inferior to those of higher socio-economic level. <p>Raising Student Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotion of English: Teachers should promote the importance of English and encourage students to learn it at least to the level they can use it for the job after their secondary school completion. • Encourage teachers of other subjects to promote the importance of English to students. <p>Raising Community Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotion of English: Schools should raise awareness of the importance of English (Language for workplace, global and regional communication, and knowledge). • Parents should understand and promote the importance of English to their children. <p>MoEYS should consider creating educational TV programs for students to learn English</p>
Institutional Support	<p>Building stakeholder communities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local networks: Relevant stakeholders, ranging from school principals, teachers, students, parents, work collaboratively way to support students' learning process and outcomes (e.g., School Management Committee). • Desired-- International networks: Creating sister school relationships would have a motivating impact on learning. 	<p>Not enough support</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students' mistrust: English national exam is designed by those who are not practising English teachers. Therefore, the exam content is sometimes irrelevant to what students are taught at school. This makes students the capacity of their teachers. This also lower students' interest in learning English. • Students' motivation: Students show little interest in learning English since English is not counted for the national exam.

4.3.6 Summary of Stage 1 and implications for Stage 2

Findings from Stage 1 suggest that a stronger engagement from the ELT research community of Cambodia is needed for stakeholders, at all levels of the system, to better understand their job and what needs addressing to improve in all areas of capacity and with respect to the many dimensions identified as “themes” and “subthemes” in Table 4.1. Table 4.6 presents a summary of Stage 1 findings. The recommendations, which flow from the data point to the need for:

- a broader vision of ELT research to give it direction that is currently missing.
- MoEYS to review their own policies regarding L2-teaching research, the communities that this research is to support, and the impact assessment criteria.
- the ELT research community of Cambodia to assert its leadership in all areas of capacity to provide stakeholders with informed perspectives.

Table 4.6. Summary of Stage 1 Findings.

	Findings	Areas of capacity Policy, Planning, Pedagogy, Research, Stakeholder Awareness, Institutional Support
Research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Major gaps were identified in ELT research in Cambodia, especially in school-based research. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • While research expertise and aspirations are present, the data show that a broader vision of ELT research is needed to give it direction that is currently missing.
Teaching and professional development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A very narrow concept of professional development was reflected in stakeholders’ comments, dominated by the knowledge transmission paradigm, where teachers are taught or shown how to improve. • The ELT research community was completely absent in stakeholder comments. • No clear role emerged that ELT research should have in ELT capacity building. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This lack of interest in school-based research suggests that HEIs and MoEYS need to review their own policies regarding L2-teaching research, the communities that this research is to support, and the impact assessment criteria.
Community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The ELT community and policymakers lack the <i>outward</i> perspective and mindset argued for by Fullan and Hargreaves (2017), when discussing a balanced community of practice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ELT research community of Cambodia needs to assert its leadership in all areas of capacity to provide stakeholders with informed perspectives.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Major gaps in all areas of capacity were identified. 	
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4.3 Stage 2: Stakeholders' strategies

The purpose of this section is to present the findings from Stage 2 of the study. Stage 2 involved identification of the strategies that ELT stakeholders in Cambodia apply in order to build a modern education system and institutions that support EFL students' success. The aim was not only to reflect the struggles of rural upper secondary schools in Cambodia, but to position those against the larger contexts of beliefs and practices of all involved.

Twenty-eight (28) education stakeholders were interviewed, of which twenty-one (21) were teachers or principals from the province, and a Director of the Department of Education also from the province. Other stakeholders were from Phnom Penh, either from MOEYS or language and teacher education institutions.

The chapter presents the data organised following Burroway's (2011) categories. For each of the inquiry areas, the findings are summarised and examined in relation to Teacher Professional Standards (MoEYS, 2010) to shed light on the viability of these standards in the context of upper secondary schools in Cambodia.

4.3.1 Data: Teacher as a Curriculum Developer and Planner

For this dimension, the study sought to elicit how the policies of internationalisation feature in the stakeholders' understanding of their job. Table 4.7 illustrates the comments offered by the stakeholders. Opinions were organised in Table 4.7 in relation to adapted Burroway's (2011) four categories describing the job of a modern educational institutions. They were then summarised for each of the stakeholder group and interpreted according to each domain listed in the Teacher Professional Standards (MoYES, 2010) outlined in Chapter 2.

Table 4.7. Teacher as Curriculum Developer and Planner.

	Strategies (Policy, Critical friends, PD and Community)
Policymakers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance 	Policy: Curriculum development is one of the priorities in the current education reform for the ministry. Regarding internationalisation in relation to curriculum development, the reforms and the funding obtained from the WB and ADB have helped support the curriculum improvement and the new curriculum of English subjects (Year 9-12) has been already finalised. The ministry is now waiting to see how effectively the teachers will work with the new curriculum.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Regular reporting to UNESCO ensures that Cambodia complies with UNESCO policies to provide inclusive and equitable quality of education that promotes lifelong learning and education for peace and growth. Monthly reports are generated by school principals to inform the process. MOEYS works with international partners to develop ITE programs and NGOs to assist teachers.</p> <p>Critical friends: MoEYS staff are supported to participate in international conferences where they learn about new research, e.g., the findings of the World Bank on early childhood education, general education, human resources, assessment, course administration and teaching and learning. When requested, staff also shares documents with international stakeholders.</p> <p>PD: MoEYS staff participate in SEAMEO events on education to learn from. However, the provincial director of the DoEd has limited opportunities here due to workload, his deputies are more likely to participate as do lead NIE teacher trainers. The Department also holds regular internal planning meetings in the province for information sharing. The ministries work together to build shared knowledge on the concept of life-long learning. By learning and sharing from each other, each ministry designs their own concept of lifelong learning and implement it within their respective areas.</p> <p>Community: Students’ participation in international test-like “contests” that are conducted in English is offered as an example of curriculum internationalisation.</p>
<p>Teacher Trainer</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: Internationalisation means that courses are comparable with the courses at other universities overseas: this is still in the planning stage. For some, internationalisation is not an issue, something to be done later, as they see this different from meeting the national standards. Some believe that current English courses are compatible with those in neighbouring countries, so not much needs changing. All courses are subject to national accreditation. The compliance with the ASEAN University Network is too costly to consider.</p> <p>Teacher trainers do not integrate internationalization into English teacher education because they feel closed up from outside world. They feel a lack of connection with outsiders.</p> <p>The ITE curriculum is designed collectively, including the Head of the Department, management team and course coordinators. The ITE curriculum is being revised to respond to the 21st century demands, including literacy competency and a shift from content-based instruction to theme-based instruction.</p> <p>Critical friends: Lecturers do not connect much with the international intellectual community.</p> <p>PD: Teacher educators participate twice a year in the ASEAN Teacher Education Network (ASTEN), a body that makes education policies and requires their integration into the national policies. The Erasmus program supports student 1-2 semester long exchanges between the students from Cambodia and other neighbouring countries. Countries involved include, among others, Vietnam, Malaysia, or Japan.</p>
<p>School principals</p>	<p>Policy: Schools are expected to follow textbooks.</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholders Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>PD: Some training from the ministry is too challenging considering the level of knowledge of schoolteachers. PISA D is a case in point. So, teachers do not show interest in those workshops.</p>
<p>Teachers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: Teachers believe English subject should include knowledge about the world, less local knowledge. Others think that adding local knowledge would be appropriate. Overall, the curriculum is dictated by the textbook and its funding bodies. Some teachers diversify to make lessons more interesting and adjusted to students' progress. Textbooks even for senior students are old. 60% of students are low performing. The teacher guidebook and its learner-centred advice are too challenging for those students and are being ignored by the teachers. There is a general lack of resources, reading materials and access to internet. Where possible, teachers use the internet, but students find it too difficult. Traditional teaching methods continue to prevail.</p> <p>Critical friends: Teachers would like to see a Telegram-like group managed by an expert leader, maybe from MOEYS, to create a PLC for teachers to share work. Meeting like-minded teachers once a year would be a help.</p> <p>PD: More PDs are needed for schools to respond to the English language policies of MOEYS.</p>

Table 4.7 shows (a) **Policymakers** ensuring that policy developers interact with local and global agencies on the shape of the curriculum and its underlying concepts (Global Relevance; Stakeholder Awareness); (b) schools being provided with appropriate textbooks following the national curriculum (Institutions Support); and (c) policy staff able to upgrade and share their expertise (Institutions Support). The comments include little detail on how exactly Policymakers envisage that schools are to embed students' learning within the broader needs and values of their communities (Lor, 2016, pp. 110-120; Frederico, et al, 2007). While English language learning is mandated within the ASEAN member countries, making a textbook the focus on students' learning does not locate the learning of English in the community, where the initial need for English emerged. A policy that centres on following a textbook also absolves schools, teachers, principals, and teacher educators from the responsibility of restore those links for the students and the broader community to experience the value English in their regular lives. As argued by Priestly and Biesta (2013), and discussed in Chapter 2, for education to support higher order thinking skills, it is critical to build consistent links between the planned outcomes and how students' learning is being facilitated. This may require departing from old

practices and engaging innovative solutions which may be risky, but, nonetheless, enabling better outcomes. Interestingly, the interview participants made no mention of how their professional development activities translate into personal research on aspects relevant to curriculum development and implementation. Yet, policies are never written in stone and need adjusting as knowledge grows and technology creates increasingly more opportunities for innovation and change.

English Language and Teacher Trainers are no more specific on the link between the curriculum, curriculum planning, and the broader needs and values of their communities that the learning of English is to address. Furthermore, the shift from content-based to theme-based instruction was not explained in relation to these goals. Also, it is not clear why theme-instruction would assist internationalisation of ITE curricula and English language teaching practice in schools. The comments on student exchanges within the Erasmus program offered little insights on how the program helps building the link between the community and the curriculum. The Trainers saw the need for developing programs that are compatible with international standards (Global Relevance) but were critical of their own ways in which they go about this compatibility. On the positive side, their programs are developed collaboratively with internal stakeholders (Stakeholder Awareness), such as the Head of the Department and the teaching teams. No external stakeholders were mentioned. While opportunities for professional development (Institutional Support) are being mentioned, including those organised by the ASEAN community, how they translate into enhanced training, practice or personal research was not explained. The Trainers admitted to maintaining no links with professional international communities, which is likely to reduce their opportunities to learn from international scholars.

Principals offered no comments on the link between the curriculum, curriculum planning, and the community. It appears that following a textbook is the pedagogy in English classes (Pedagogy). They expressed concern about the value of professional development to their teachers (Stakeholder Awareness), seeing it as unpractical and, often, not suitable for their English teachers.

Teachers make no mention about the link between their teaching, the curriculum and the community. They see internationalisation as integrating the knowledge about the world into curricula (Global Relevance). Following a textbook is pedagogy (Pedagogy), with some

teachers trying to also include other materials and the internet. Teachers felt they would welcome connections with other experts from different institutions and schools (Stakeholder Awareness). Like Principals, Teachers felt they need more training (professional development) (Institutional Support).

In summary, the data show that all stakeholder groups were aware of the new education reforms and the need for internationalisation of school and higher education curricula and practice. Professional development opportunities on curriculum development and implementation were largely available to policymakers and Language and Teacher Trainers; nothing in this regard was mentioned by Principals and Teachers. No stakeholder group made explicit comments on the relationship between the job of curriculum development and the community. This absence is significant in view of the new education reforms aiming to build knowledgeable and capable citizens, with “the higher order skills of application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation” (MoEYS, 2016) precisely because of their relevance to the community. As illustrated in Chapter 2, interactions which emerge from community engagement impact on both the community and the students. This two-way feedback makes these engagements meaningful and rich in opportunities for students to acquire relevant knowledge and skills. This is why authenticity of students’ contexts of interactions became important in immersion (Wesche, 2002) and critical literacy (Kalantzis & Cope, 2015) approaches. Students’ involvement in activities like the *Thai News Network* (Buranapatana, 2006) and those conducted within the framework of community-based learning, described in Chapter 2, illustrate that learning through community engagement has many advantages and is popular among the students. Projects like macrosimulation (Lian, A-P. & Mestre, 1985; Lian, A-P. & Moore, 2014) or “A day on French television” (Lian & Lian, 1998), precursors of the *Thai News Network* study, are cases in point demonstrating that foreign languages can also be studied through community engagement, even in one’s own country, not necessarily in the country of the language that is being learnt. However, the comments of the stakeholders show that they feel disconnected from international professional communities and, therefore, are unaware of such innovations and their feasibility in Cambodia’s higher and general education contexts.

The concept of education through community engagement offers a critical perspective on the views expressed by the stakeholders about Teacher as Curriculum Developer and Planner in relation to Teacher Professional Standards (MoYES, 2019). Domain 1, **Professional Knowledge** (Chapter 2, Figure 2.4), encompasses aspects relating to factors that impact on

students' progress (Knowledge of Students), content (Knowledge of Content) and the process of learning (Knowledge of Student Learning). As indicated by Priestley and Biesta (2013), and discussed in Chapter 2, students are members of the broader community, not just of the school, and experiences to which they attribute meaning and relevance cannot be separated from their daily contexts of belonging and participation. In other words, who the students are, what they bring with them into the learning context, and what they want to learn and how, are affected by those "whole person and whole context" experiences. Pedagogies that remove students from those contexts remove authenticity from students' learning, thus making the language content arbitrary and its relevance postponed to some later future. They also potentially alienate schools from the community, thus reducing the status of schools in the communities, including the value of English as one of the subjects that are being taught.

Domain 2, **Professional Practice**, addresses elements affecting the quality of teaching, including lesson planning and assessment; the learning environment; and engagement of higher order thinking and the ICT. In view of the stakeholders' comments presented in Table 4.7, teachers do not appear prepared for the standards outlined in this domain. The emphasis of textbooks and classrooms over and above the concerns of modern curricula with higher order thinking skills and community engagement, compromise the ambitious goals of the new policies and the values they are to support. Technology also appears to be used scantily, with teachers expressing the need for more resources and professional support that would respond to the needs of 21st century students. However, as Policymakers invest in traditional learning resources, traditional models of language teaching follow. Assessment is likely to reflect those. Change will require a departure from old expectations and an investment in technologies that support authentic modes of learning that are responsive to the needs that modern forms of learning call for. While a change may carry some risks, so do the solutions that are currently being applied.

Domain 3, **Professional Study**, covers strategies enabling teachers to self-asses on a regular basis, build their ICT skills, and develop relationships with relevant stakeholders. It also requires that teachers engage in intellectual activities, including research, that expand their professional knowledge. From the perspective of the Teacher as Curriculum Developer and Planner category, the comments from the stakeholders indicate that this evaluative aspect of Domain 3, while important, is difficult to implement in a context, where Teacher Trainers and schools feel alienated from intellectual developments and innovation happening in the world.

In other words, how the teachers should measure themselves, against what criteria and evidence, requires sophistication that can be provided through ongoing connection with experts and through joint research. In the absence of those and with the additional pressure to follow a textbook, teachers are likely to lack in critical perspectives necessary to build the capacity implied in this standard.

Domain 4, **Professional Ethics** section, refers to elements of professional conduct that affect student-teacher relationships, such as fairness or emotional safety, attitudes to the profession, and role modelling of fairness, transparency, and ethical behaviour. From the perspective the Teacher as Curriculum Developer and Planner category, the comments from the stakeholder groups included little information in this regard. In traditional contexts, the focus is on teacher as the source of knowledge. Arguably, in contexts where textbook, classroom and arbitrarily defined benchmarks of success inform curriculum development, student agency, and the supportive roles that teachers and the community can play, are traded for pedagogies that dominate, not liberate the student. Biesta and Priestly (2013, p. 42), discussed in Chapter 2, criticised such transmission models. In modern liberal-democratic societies, they argued, what students learn is “precisely seen as something that people should be free to define for themselves”. According to Biesta and Priestly (2013, pp. 44-45), teacher and student relationships that support transformative learning need to take account of a subject in context. Without that context, and as in transmission models of teaching, students are subjected to a process of socialisation, not emancipation.

4.3.2 Summary of the findings: Teacher as a Curriculum Developer and Planner

Table 4.8 summarises the findings relevant to perspectives on Teacher as a Curriculum Developer and Planner.

Table 4.8. Teacher as a Curriculum Developer and Planner: Summary of the findings.

Stakeholder responses	Relationship to Teacher Standards
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All stakeholder groups were aware of the new education reforms and the need for internationalisation of schools and higher education curricula and practice. • No stakeholder group made explicit comments on the relationship between the curricula and the community. This absence is significant in view of the new education reforms aiming to build knowledgeable and capable citizens, with “the higher order skills of application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation” (MoEYS, 2016), precisely because of their relevance to the community. • Professional development opportunities in curriculum development and implementation are not available to Principals and Teachers. • Teacher Trainers feel alienated from intellectual developments and innovation happening in the world. • Teachers would like to belong to a broader community of practice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional Knowledge <u>Authenticity and relevance issues:</u> The reliance on textbooks over community engagement present serious concerns to transformative learning advocated by current education policies of Cambodia. Curricula, that make language content arbitrary and its relevance postponed to some later future, remove authenticity from the learning process. They also undermine the role of the curriculum in building students as community participants and contributors. They undermine the role of teachers as a link between the community and the students. They also alienate schools from their communities, thus potentially reducing the status English learning in the community. • Professional Practice <u>Investment not matching policies:</u> Teachers do not appear prepared for the standards outlined in this domain. Technology also appears to be rarely used, while Policymakers invest in traditional learning resources. Traditional models of language teaching follow. • Professional Study <u>Good practice examples are missing:</u> Self-assessment models for supporting transformative teaching and learning are missing; stagnation is likely to set in. • Professional Ethics <u>Data missing:</u> A mismatch between transformative teaching objective and school realities presents ethical concerns.

4.3.3 Data: Teacher as a Resource

“Teacher as a Resource” concept refers specifically to teacher research and activities that enable teachers to be part of research culture. In this section, the study sought to elicit information on opportunities that stakeholders create for teachers to engage in research. Table 4.9 illustrates the relevant comments. Again, these were organised following Burroway’s (2011) four categories describing the job of a modern university. All comments are summarised for each of the stakeholder group and examined according to each domain listed in the Teacher Professional Standards (MoYES, 2010) outlined in Chapter 2.

Table 4.9. Teacher as a Resource.

Stakeholder	Strategies (Policy, Critical friends, PD and Community)
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<p>Polymakers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: Research subject is one of the requirements in the teacher education program at the university level. However, teacher research is still very poor and far behind what the policy requires. Teachers have very limited knowledge of how to do research.</p> <p>Research is valuable, but it frightens teachers to hear the word research. So, the ministry changed how the research subject is to be taught for school principals/teachers and it is now called a “career pathway” through the Teacher Upgrading Program (TUP). If a teacher wants to upgrade his/her qualifications or gain the “outstanding teacher” status, they are required to write papers (essays) for their course providers relevant to their jobs. For example, school principals are asked to write about “how to collect and manage school funds”, “tree planting in schools”, “how to reduce plastic bags in school”, “how to improve students’ time management”. Principals discuss the issues of their interest with others and share ideas. At this stage, a more theoretical research that requires extended reading is not popular. Educators enrolled in TUP are expected to implement the ideas from their papers and evaluate the impact of their research. Once this is completed, they are required to engage in professional research requiring theoretical thinking.</p> <p>Critical friends: NIE does not have access to big scholars from overseas or Cambodian researchers. Recently, NIE got support from Japanese scholars. They are trained in action research and transfer those skills to pre-service teachers in Cambodia.</p> <p>PD: Staff in the Department of Education in the province, responsible for teacher research and their own, get some training from the Teacher Training Centre (part of NIE) and are expected to disseminate their knowledge among the people at schools. However, there are no follow up activities to check the effectiveness of that training.</p>
<p>ELT Trainers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: The CamTESOL members are involved in conference organisation (reviewing papers, providing feedback to the authors). The topics of research are based on individual interests. There is no study that would identify whether research presented at CamTESOL addresses the national needs of English language education in Cambodia. Researchers follow their own interests, independently of what the national education needs may be in relation to English. Action research is now being promoted by the ministry with substantial incentives (\$500-\$600 per project) for lecturers of English to investigate their own teaching practice. Yet, some academics believe that there are no incentives for doing research. In the bachelor degree structure, there is no dissertation. Hence, pre-service teachers do not learn and engage much in research work and have limited capacity in doing research.</p> <p>Critical friends: While education research is sponsored by international funding bodies, academics teaching English do not see their work as being in education but purely in “language”. It is understood that this also is the view of the ministry of education. Academics who teach English cannot find grants that would support their interest. They are also not eligible for Erasmus grants from Europe. Yet, studies in Young Learner Education, or in Early Childhood Education would be funded by sources like the World Bank. Furthermore, countries in the ASEAN show no interest in partnering with Cambodia, instead they seek collaboration with the English-speaking countries.</p> <p>PD: At the university, English language lecturers hold workshops for each other and their students on how to write literature review or a research</p>

	<p>proposal. University staff are encouraged and mentored by senior lecturers to do research in whatever area that interests them. The Research Office rarely offers research training and there is limited time for research and expertise among the lecturers. However, at NIE, each year, the Department of Scientific Research assists pre-service teachers to learn how to do research on different topics (e.g., management and leadership of school principals, teaching and learning). They also utilise the ASEAN standards for management and leadership, e.g., personal quality, management and leadership, and teaching and learning.</p>
<p>School principals</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: Teachers are not expected by the ministry to do research, have no research projects.</p> <p>Critical friends: Teachers and schools are not connected to any university or other external parties. Problems are solved by teachers alone.</p> <p>PD: Principals have PDs in entrepreneurship, public services, building outstanding schools, etc.</p>
<p>Teachers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: Teacher qualifications are an issue: not many teachers have a bachelor degree, much less have teacher specialisation. High school continues to be the highest degree. School teachers are under-paid so upgraded teachers leave the school for public sector or private institutions. Some teachers believe that it is a positive requirement from ministry for teachers to engage in research as it improves teacher quality, especially for young teachers but less so for older teachers. Teachers see the need to upgrade their qualifications as important, but not all. Some teachers feel already too old and believe their memory is too poor to study. No attention is given to research by the ministry. The policies are in place but current strategies to support classroom research do not really work. Teachers know nothing about doing research and requested research training from the ministry. Teachers do not have enough capacity to do research and do not do research; they teach using the coursebook only. Research and qualifications upgrade involve money, and this is lacking in the system; scholarships are needed. Teachers who decide to upgrade receive \$5 more per month, which hardly compensates their expenses to upgrade. Time is also a factor as teachers have family commitments.</p> <p>Critical friends: Not much external networking takes place with the academic community. Almost none. Teachers are very much interested to connect, but there are some barriers, mainly the cost of participating in events, such as CamTESOL. Teachers do not have connections with other communities, because there are no PDs, training or conferences for teachers.</p> <p>PD: The belief is among the teachers that their research will make little difference and they will continue rely on the textbook. There is no encouragement or requirement for teachers to do research. If needed, teachers will search the internet for YouTube or other English materials. Research done and published by other teachers (for example for CamTESOL) has never been communicated to other teachers and is hardly read by teachers in the province. Training, if it happens, is provided by MoEYS or NGOs and tends to focus on teaching methodology, lesson plans, teacher effectiveness, teaching flexibility</p>

	and administering of exams. Training is often limited by a funding program. Once a program finishes so does the funding and the workshop cease as well.
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Policymakers recognise the importance of teacher research and advise a gradual introduction of the skill to pre-service and in-service teachers through training and professional development (National Relevance). Action research training is favoured, without its benefits being explained. NIE staff are trained in conducting action research (Institutional Support) with a view to disseminating those skills among the teachers, though the accountability of this dissemination is not ensured. Policymakers conceptualise Teacher research as a skill that every teacher should acquire and practise, not as a context where different forms of expertise meet and are shared for the benefit of all involved. Policymakers make no mention of the vision, and evidence, that informs their view on Teacher Research and research priorities in English language teaching and learning. They make no mention of any systems put in place to support ongoing research culture development. No references are made to linking teachers with different professional communities, especially with the local and international experts. No mention is made of policies and support for research strategies that would help enhance the status of English in the community and among the students.

English Language and Teacher Trainers create professional research engagements, such as the national conference of English language teachers, Cambodia Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (CamTESOL) to promote expertise sharing (Stakeholder Awareness). The conference is hosted by the government and sponsored by numerous embassies and publishers. English Language and Teacher Trainers mention also having access to grant opportunities (Institutional Support), though not everyone is aware of them. English Language and Teacher Trainers believe that teachers can improve practice by engaging in small research projects. They regret that the structure of the undergraduate degree does not prepare teachers for doing research (National Relevance). In their view, this is a reason why teachers abstain from research. No evidence was provided to justify this belief and no other reason was suggested. Furthermore, academics teaching English for proficiency do not see it to be their responsibility to connect with schoolteachers. According to them, the two groups are interested in two very different issues: one in teaching English in schools (education) and the other in teaching English for proficiency (purely in “language”) (Personal Research). The belief in this separation is strong enough to prevent English language scholars to apply with Teacher Trainers (and teachers) for competitive research grants, which, according to English language

academics, are plenty. Any research mentoring provided either by the academics themselves or by the various sections of MoEYS is understood as explanations (PDs). No mention was made of participation in large, national or international projects, yet initiatives like this would bring together diverse expertise and would create opportunities for shared learning. No specific research project was mentioned pertinent to the interest of language or teacher trainers.

Principals expressed that teachers are not required by MoEYS to conduct research (National Relevance), hence connecting teachers to any projects or stakeholders doing research did not emerge as a priority on their agenda. They explained that teachers work on their own, a view that reiterated the belief of Policymakers and Language and Teacher Trainers that, if teachers want to improve practice, they need to develop research skills and do it themselves. No references are made to projects, policies or a vision that would motivate principals to change the present culture and to argue for ongoing collaboration with scholars and other relevant experts. Principals felt that MoEYS provided them with sufficient support to improve their own knowledge in areas relevant to their leadership roles (Institutional Support). Yet, Principals offered no comments on their role as community builders and education as community development while, part of their Professional Standards (School Director Professional Standards, MoEYS 2017 cited in MoEYS, 2019, pp. 42-43) includes building relationships with stakeholders. This includes creating networks with “specialists and experts in all fields to participate in educational development”. Arguable, reaching to such networks could assist Principals in reaching out to the community in ways that could help building a positive image of English language learning.

Contrary to the views expressed by Principals, **Teachers** believed that research is one of their responsibilities and agreed with this requirement (National Relevance). Yet, they felt unsupported in this area by MoEYS and in need for more training, incentives, and time (Institutional Support). Any training provided by MoEYS is limited in time and more on teaching than research. Lacking in skills, time, external contacts and incentives, Teachers felt that, in the given circumstances, doing research would make little difference to their teaching, which relies on following a textbook. Nonetheless, some teachers have already engaged in researching their practice and learning using YouTube and looking for online materials (Personal Research). Teacher also felt that academia or MoEYS should reach out to them and expose them to any research relevant to their work and context.

In summary, all stakeholders' comments about teacher research point to serious problems in the system, such as teacher capacity, workload, or incentives. The comments also present teachers as solely responsible for the improvement of their practice. No references were made to a specific policy direction that would provide stakeholders with a clear vision motivating stakeholders to build connections and alliances in order to overcome the shortcomings of the system and to build capacity of all involved. Instead, language academics asserted divisions between their disciplinary interest and that of a language teacher, thus magnifying system difficulties and doing so despite each group sharing the concern with the conditions that support learning. If international grants are available for education, this means that international bodies welcome such connections and boosting of interdisciplinary learning. International grants tend to take account for system difficulties and teachers, schools and researchers can benefit from the financial support that they provide.

Domain 1, **Professional Knowledge**, (Chapter 2, Figure 2.4), includes Knowledge of Students, Knowledge of Content and Knowledge of Student Learning. The discussion on Teacher as a Resource illustrated that despite the Standards recognising the value of networking in building informed, research-based culture in schools, the system - at all its levels - lacked in strategies that would make research a natural part of teachers' lives. Action research (Lewin, 1946) was argued as a method for teachers to use as a tool of reflective practice. The goal of Action Research is change and the emphasis is on problem-solving of issues that emerge in the context of practice (Thomas, 2013). Action research involves using "a spiral of steps, each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action, and fact-finding about the result of the action" (Thomas, 2013). However, like any research method, action research also requires that teachers obtain professional information from reading in order to expand their perspective on how they think of students, content, and student learning. Undoubtedly, the quality of their reflections will depend on the expertise that they gather. Yet, typically, no teacher has the time and skills to engage with professional literature. It would follow that networking with a view to forming "communities of practice" (Wenger, 1988) would help teachers address some of the challenges that teacher research presents them with. Furthermore, collaboration with education and language experts would open the path for international grants that offer generous reward systems to compensate teachers for their time on research projects. This funding would not only help grow research, but it would also offer additional income to teachers. However, for all this to happen, clear policy vision needs to be articulated and followed. This is the role of

policymakers and principals. Research priorities need to be explicated to stimulate developments that serve the country and reward the stakeholders.

Domain 2, **Professional Practice**, involves elements affecting the quality of teaching, including lesson planning and assessment; the learning environment; and engagement of higher order thinking and the ICT. The explanations provided in this Standard present teaching as activities designed for students to pass a test. With respect to teacher research, this form of thinking about teaching presumes that teachers can identify best ways for transmitting knowledge to ensure that students can pass the test. Especially suggestive of this notion of teaching are statements such as “Construct test questions with appropriate formats” ... “Select test items from books with appropriate questions and time for students to answer” ... and “Show test answers and share corrections with students”. Understandably, this Standard has been written with the expectation that teachers lacked the necessary expertise to provide more expansive learning experiences. However, the very point of research could be to identify strategies that do not preclude innovation and interest in the process of foreign language learning in Cambodian schools especially in a context where teachers have limited language skills, if any, and little knowledge of pedagogy. The value of such research would be significant considering that education in many countries in South East Asia share many challenges with Cambodia. However, as indicated above, leaving teachers to their own devices would not fail to meet this objective. As explained by Burroway (2011), once the system is confident that innovation is possible, policies can be changed, the Standard could be re-written to take account of new information that research would provide.

Domain 3, **Professional Study**, refers to strategies enabling teachers to expand their professional knowledge, self-asses on a regular basis, build their ICT skills, and develop relationships with relevant stakeholders. From the perspective of teacher research, expanding professional capacity through self-learning, networking, and professional development requires a vision and a system especially constructed to make these possible. The comments of the stakeholders referred to no such system or vision. The sole responsibility in doing research is being vested in teachers alone, no examples were offered of academia working with teachers to assist them in addressing this Standard, and no structures were exemplified illustrating stakeholder ongoing collaboration. As a result, opportunities for international grants are being missed and school principals have no expectations of teachers to engage in systematic self-

reflection or upskilling activities. PD workshops, when offered, are said to focus mainly on teaching and the instrumental aspects of practice, not conceptual or critical.

Domain 4, **Professional Ethics**, refers to elements of professional conduct that affect student-teacher relationships, such as fairness or emotional safety, attitudes to the profession, and role modelling of fairness, transparency, and ethical behaviour. From the perspective of teacher research, reflection on the factors that interact with and shape ethical relationships with students is limited. Further, aspects of this Standard, such as treating all students equally, giving all students equal attention and access to resources irrespective of the students’ own limitations are challenging to address when access to research communities and reflective learning professional development is not present or limited.

4.3.4 Summary of the findings: Teacher as a Resource

Table 4.10 summarises the findings relevant to perspectives on Teacher as a Resource.

Table 4.10. Teacher as a Resource: Summary of the findings.

Stakeholder responses	Relationship to Teacher Standards
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All stakeholders’ comments about teacher research point to serious problems in the system, such as cost, workload, or incentives. • The comments also present teachers as solely responsible for the improvement of their practice. • No references were made to a specific policy direction that would provide stakeholders with a clear vision for building connections and alliances in order to overcome the shortcomings of the system and to build capacity of all involved. • No specific research projects were identified as pertinent to the interests of any of the stakeholder groups. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional Knowledge <u>Lack of policy vision to build research culture:</u> Despite the Standards recognising the value of networking in building informed, research-based culture in schools, the system - at all its levels - lacks a vision that would make research increasingly a natural part of teachers’ lives. • Professional Practice <u>Teaching to a test is not transformative learning:</u> The standard is confusing in this regard and potentially counteracting any attempts of improvement. It needs changing to focus teachers on student agency, not “correct answers”. • Professional Study <u>Lack of policy vision for building ELT discipline:</u> Expanding professional capacity through self-learning, networking, and professional development requires a vision. Currently, opportunities for international grants are being missed and school principals have no expectations of teachers to engage in systematic self-reflection or upskilling activities. • Professional Ethics <u>Missing data:</u> No projects were identified specifically devoted to the problem of treating all students equally, irrespective of the students’ own limitations.

4.3.5 Data: Teacher Quality

When investigating strategies supporting teacher quality, the study sought to elicit stakeholders' perspectives on their engagement with the national Teacher Standards (MoYES, 2010). Table 4.11 illustrates the relevant comments organised in relation to Burroway's (2011) model. Next, the comments are summarised for each of the stakeholder group and discussed by addressing each of the Teacher Professional Standards (MoEYS, 2010).

Table 4.11. Teacher Quality.

Stakeholder	Strategies (Policy, Critical friends, PD and Community)
<p>MOEYS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: Teaching is considered a less prestigious job, so only the students who get low exam results in Year 12 opt for the job of the teacher. So, more recently, the ministry selects only students with exam grades between A-C and increased teachers' wages. This is to incentivise teachers without a bachelor degree to upgrade their qualifications and not leave.</p> <p>Using ADB money, NIE hired a Singaporean education company to identify Cambodia's needs in teacher education. It was found out that leadership and management area, and effective teaching and learning are the key needs for professional development. Principals are expected to strengthen their management and leadership of schools and increase the number of completions and outstanding students. Most principals are still hesitant about upgrading their qualifications, only a small number are willing to do it. As for teachers, 70% of the total number of teachers are old and they do not tend to change or upgrade to the current demands that include expertise in the use of technology and innovation. Textbooks also do not comply with the national curriculum. Teachers use outmoded teacher guidebooks. The new national curriculum requires change in school leadership practice and teaching, and better teaching guidebooks.</p> <p>Currently, the ministry is implementing a program evaluating school management and teaching. Schools suggest that the ministry does not use a top-down leadership style; they welcome constructive feedback, rather than pressure. Schools are working on improving the quality of their performance, in all aspects, including, teaching, resourcing, students and community outreach. The TUP is one framework that facilitates this process. The ministry also prefers to work with the grassroots to learn about the needs/capacity of teachers and principals, the problems they are facing and to offer advice, feedback and encouragement. "Change agent" is the name given to an outstanding group of educators enrolled in the TUP. Currently, the implementation of the TUP is still limited to 7 schools from around Cambodia, but this number will increase to 100 and then to 200 in order to improve all schools nationwide. In addition, MoEYS has promoted teacher qualification upgrade programs to 12 + 4 (year 12 + bachelor) in teacher education. MoEYS believes with 4 years program after year 12, teacher will have better knowledge of English.</p> <p>Critical friends: Institutions in Cambodia that produce teachers work in collaboration with overseas partners. Also, there is the policy of establishing Centre of Excellence in targeted universities to improve the quality of teacher</p>

	<p>education. However, this is still not put in practice. The Ministry of Education also works with other ministries and in collaboration with schools to identify “good schools”. In the past, this work was done only at the ministerial level only. Today, schools are evaluated using a school-based 3A management framework: Assessment, Autonomous, Accountability. With this new model, there has seen a lot of participation from schools because they feel that they can engage with the ministry to exchange mutually meaningful information. When this was not in place, schools did not feel that the process was fair on them.</p> <p>PD: The ministry sees that teacher capacity is a real issue in Cambodia, as they are given limited training from the ministry. The ministry plans to provide teachers with continuous professional development, and teacher awards (good teacher/outstanding teacher) from the prime minister.</p> <p>Within the TUP, the selected schools can work cooperatively and depend less on the ministry funds for PDs. The shortage of skilled teachers is still a problem as Cambodia does not have enough specialised teachers, but the TUP will continuously help to better this situation.</p> <p>The ministry also invites all primary teachers from grades 4-6 to get the teacher training on curriculum and materials for teaching English. Because there are 7000 primary schools in Cambodia with roughly about 60,000-70,000 teachers, funding is needed to train everyone.</p> <p>In the whole province, only three teachers can be expected to be invited to participate in PD workshops run by the ministry. It is expected that those trained teachers share their knowledge with others, but the ministry does not have the mechanism to check if they do or how well they do it. The ministry wants to support this process of knowledge sharing, but funding is limited. Sometimes, they may also plan their annual financial expense inaccurately, so some events would be over the proposed budget. Training costs, so the funding needs to come from the ministry and, also, teachers need to be willing to pay.</p> <p>In addition, some teachers are sent overseas for 3 months to Singapore for an upgrade or are trained by NIE. The ministry is also improving every teacher training center around the country. However, all this takes time before improvement can be visible.</p>
<p>Teacher Trainer</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: Teacher trainers have created different policies relevant to English teacher education. One policy is to increase more time on English proficiency teaching, and another to produce a detailed curriculum. They have conducted a serious examination of the textbooks used in schools and designed their curricula that respond to those textbooks. This has been supported by KIZONA (Japanese book publication on English materials). They hire American experts to write the books.</p> <p>To assure teaching quality, teacher trainers use the ASEAN University Network Qualifications Framework. Curriculum is designed purely based on educational areas (linguistic competence; strategic competence, i.e., simplifying words when teaching so that students can understand quickly; discourse competence i.e., how to use language for different functions). We moved critical thinking to Year 3, so all students can study critical thinking before they go to Year 4. Students in ITE are taught about the curriculum design first in Year 4. In the teaching methodology subject, discussions are</p>

	<p>enabled on the issue of “teaching with scarce resources” to support teacher flexibility and adaption to under-resourced classrooms.</p> <p>When designing curricula for English learning, teacher trainers analyse the needs that students will have when they enter the labour market. Courses are designed to respond to current market needs in the region for example, a course may focus on soft skills development, or 21st Century skills.</p> <p>On top of educational psychology, in order to secure students’ interest in English, we just started to encourage teachers to connect their language teaching (grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, etc.) to five themes of 21st century skills (society, environment, politics) and will give training to teachers later on.</p> <p>Critical friends: The main income of teacher trainers comes from tuition. Limited funds prevent them from inviting renowned guests, speakers or experts to help with designing the curriculum, textbooks, or workshop delivery.</p> <p>Teacher trainers work with Peace Corp, people (teachers) from US embassy. They assist with the teaching program (lesson plans, integrating SDG/MDG into teaching programs) and with research.</p> <p>PD: NIE lead lecturers get a lot of opportunities for training overseas in Thailand, Japan or Singapore. Some lead lecturers obtained their qualifications at the International Institute of Educational Planning in Paris (IIEP). Once back in Cambodia, these teachers are expected to apply their training into their teacher-training program. Continuous professional development is given to NIE teacher trainers for 10 days each month. Overseas study trips for NIE staff are also frequent. There are PDs organised by DHE, CamTESOL, senior lecturers or former staff who work at universities overseas, US embassy or SpringBoard foreign publishers. Workshops for teacher trainers may focus on local and global trends in teaching and learning, assessment, Outcome Based Education and QA, management, research, using technology and learning and teaching English, the curriculum renewal agenda, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), curriculum design for ESP. There are opportunities for cross-institutional sharing of experience in Cambodia. Unlike the NIE staff, university English lecturers are eligible only for funding schemes that do not focus specifically on English learning.</p>
<p>School principals</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: There is a requirement for teachers to upgrade their qualifications. The course takes 1.5 years, on weekends only. This is equivalent to the bachelor program and it is funded by MoEYS. The quota is given to the targeted school determined by ministry. Principals encourage teachers to further their education, help arrange and facilitate teacher replacement. The ministry targets teachers in “quality schools” in the province to financially support them to upgrade their university qualifications.</p> <p>Principals inform their schools about the national teacher standards required by the ministry as well as about the global demands. The principal encourages teachers to further their education either through scholarships or tuition fee payment. However, some teachers cannot afford the university fees or do not have enough time as they have family commitments.</p> <p>We learn about teaching quality through students’ feedback.</p>

	<p>Critical friends: We need support from the ministry to address education policy, finance, and technical support. We need help from the ministry or the Teacher Training Centre, or any experts.</p> <p>PD: Schools are requested by the ministry to organise PD training every year, but it does not happen. The Department of Education doesn't organise workshops enabling teachers, who have already participated in the training organised by the ministry, to share their knowledge with the teachers in the region, not only in their own schools.</p> <p>Community: Teachers plan to establish career committee in my school.</p>
<p>Teachers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: The training topic depends on what the ministry thinks is important. Teachers sometimes propose their suggestions on training, and they are communicated to school principals or sent to the ministry. In general, they want more PDs, but feel that they are not heard well enough. Training suggested by teachers includes teaching methodology, lesson plans, how to use new textbooks and the use ICT in teaching and learning. Teachers suggest that the ministry should take effective actions relevant to Grade 4 and beyond so that they are equipped with the required skills and knowledge and can respond appropriately to the academic demands and the challenges they experience. If teachers follow a textbook only, students learn nothing, and the textbooks are never fully covered. Sporadic training is good, but it will never be as important as systematic action and training that address all years, starting from Grade 4. The teacher guidebooks published by MoEYS are out of step with the realities on the ground, with students not being able to perform to the expected timelines and standards. Training concerning the administering of exams rarely happens and it must be organised by MoEYS.</p> <p>The MoEYS' departments do not seem to work collaboratively and learn from each other. This sometimes produces misunderstandings in regard to what needs to be done. So, schools are confused about their job. The system does not work harmoniously.</p> <p>Critical friends: Teachers want to be connected with other communities but there are some obstacles as teachers have limited English and ICT knowledge.</p> <p>PD: Teachers see funding as an issue. Some sources of funding include Japan or Singapore. Teachers are taught to create lesson plans to make sure they are done well but those lessons are not effective for the students. So, what they learn during their PDs and what the students find effective are not the same thing. There is very little connection between teachers and MOEYS' staff. MOEYS staff conduct school inspections and some workshops, though these are rare.</p> <p>There are monthly meetings among teachers of the same subject, and it is the time when teachers can share experiences. In these meetings, teachers share their teaching problems (teaching content or teaching materials) and teaching techniques that might help improve teaching quality.</p> <p>Very few PD are provided; only the lead teachers are given the chance to join the PDs. The lead teachers are expected to share with other teachers what they have learned, but this does not happen frequently. When training does happen, it tends to be on leadership, teaching methodology and lesson plans.</p>

	<p>Training, if it happens, is provided by MoEYS or NGOs and tends to focus on teaching methodology, lesson plans, teacher effectiveness, teaching flexibility and administering of exams. Training is often limited by a funding program. Once a program finishes so does the funding and the workshop cease as well.</p> <p>The ministry supports the networking with external stakeholders, such as the Peace Corp, as they have native speakers and frequently also offer PDs for schools.</p> <p>There are no strategies or plans in schools to maintain the relationship between the Peace Corp members and the teachers. It is up to the teacher to create those strategies to sustain and benefit from the relationship with the Peace Corp.</p>
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Policymakers focus on improving the status of the job of a teacher with higher wages, higher quality graduates, and the Teacher Upgrade Program (TUP) designed to improve teacher qualifications. Other plans to improve teacher quality include the establishing of the Centre of Excellence in targeted universities. Despite this being a policy, the Centre remains an idea that has not yet been put into practice. This suggests that teacher education programs continue to lack input from and access to a body of research and expertise that would offer alternative perspectives on, and solutions to, teaching.

MoEYS promote teacher qualification upgrade programs to 12 + 4 (year 12 + bachelor) in teacher education. MoEYS believes this upgrade would also improve teachers' knowledge of English. Yet, despite the expectation for school principals to improve school management and for teachers to improve their practice, change is slowed down by factors such as teachers' age and prejudice or principals' refusal to upgrade their skills.

To improve communication between schools and the Ministry of Education, in collaboration with other ministries and schools, a new evaluation program using a 3A management framework: Assessment, Autonomous, Accountability, was put in place to address issues such as teaching, resourcing, students, and community outreach. The TUP is one channel through which this communication takes place. "Change agent" label was created to reward educators enrolled in the TUP. However, the TUP is still limited to a handful of schools, but is hoped to be expanded to a hundred or more, nationwide. The new evaluation model saw a good response from the few participating schools. Those schools reported that they felt that they can engage with the ministry to exchange mutually meaningful information. Other models applied top-down communication with MoEYS and were perceived as unfair and meaningless. However, how exactly the collaboration with the different ministries impacts on these interactions it is not clear and what the expected outcomes are. As observed by Priestly, Biesta and Robinson

(2013, p. 197) when discussing teacher agency, teachers may vary in the ways in which they understand professional language and policies and can also be deficient in concepts and terminology. This, in turn, will limit their potential to envisage different futures and, indeed, interpret the present. It would follow that collaboration with different ministries may help teachers expand their understanding of the broader social structures within which they are situated and with which they work provided this is what is intended.

Addressing English teacher shortages is another issue. The ministry plans to provide teachers with continuous professional development to improve capacity, and teacher awards (good teacher/outstanding teacher) from the prime minister to boost motivation. However, funding is an issue and Cambodia makes use of international institutions and NGO groups, who offer help in this regard, or of overseas scholarships that help send some teachers for 3 months to Singapore for a training. While the TUP framework enables the selected schools to work together, currently, in the whole province, only three teachers can be expected to be invited to participate in PD workshops run by the ministry. There are 7000 primary schools in Cambodia with roughly about 60,000-70,000 teachers. According to Policymakers, funding is needed to train everyone. Again, while teachers are expected to share their knowledge with others, the ministry does not have the mechanism to check if they do. The planning of PDs is demanding, and, at times, teachers are expected to be willing to pay their way. The ministry also plans to improve teacher training centres around the country. However, all this takes time before improvement can be visible.

English Language and Teacher Trainers engage with the new country's reforms by targeting teachers' English language proficiency and their capacity to design English language curricula that make use of the current textbooks.

To comply with international standards, university curricula follow the ASEAN University Network Qualifications Framework, with special focus being given to different perspectives on language competence, i.e., linguistic, strategic and discursive competence. However, as illustrated in Chapter 2, the ASEAN University Network Qualifications Framework (2016) makes the needs of stakeholders its priority over and above any assumptions about those. As explained in Chapter 2, different documents such as the OECD competence framework (OECD, 2005), or the 21st Century Learning framework (P21, n.d.) offered complex processes to assist scholars in identifying those needs. For example, reflectiveness is at the heart of the

key competencies of the OECD (2005) framework, while the 21st Century Learning Framework saw the development of literacy skills necessitating effective participation in civic life through knowing how to stay informed, understanding the various processes that apply, and exercising one's power to better understand its limits and potential. In other words, modern frameworks focus more on participation rather than a mastery of arbitrarily defined systems. Concepts like linguistic, strategic, or discursive competencies make *language* their focus, not participation. In such courses, the objectives of students' learning are predetermined by arbitrarily constructed concepts of difficulty, not the needs that emerge from students' participation. Also, the idea that critical thinking as a competency would be moved to Year 3, as mentioned in the comments, is an *ad hoc* add-on, with no explanation given how it relates to any outcomes and what precisely it will involve. The expansion that is planned to link English language teacher education subjects, such as "grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing", to "five themes of 21st century skills (society, environment, politics)" also needs better contextualising.

Working with scarce resources is an issue in Cambodia and informed ways for addressing this issue need to be identified. Here once again, the focus is of the proposed solutions is on classroom and its resources, much less on the community and the resources that participation in the community may make available. Even if textbook pedagogy were expected by most stakeholders, this should not stop innovation especially when it meets the curricular standards while also offering the desired flexibility that Teacher Trainer identify as critical.

Trainers work largely in isolation from international expert community; however, they are supported in their PD activities by various NGO groups, especially the Peace Corp. Unlike the NIE staff, university English language lecturers are eligible only for funding schemes that do not focus specifically on English learning. This policy means that they are encouraged to collaborate with the NIE staff, but it does not appear that this opportunity is taken up. On the other hand, NIE lecturers are given a lot of opportunities to obtain training overseas and in Cambodia. It is not explained why these numerous opportunities that support contact with international experts do not translate into ongoing research opportunities, co-publications, capacity building, and other forms of ongoing exchange.

Principals were rather brief on the notion of teacher quality. They are aware of the policy for teachers to upgrade their qualifications and support teachers in this endeavour. Teachers in

“quality schools” are given preference by MoEYS. Not all teachers can obtain scholarships to further their education.

Principals inform teachers about the national standards and global requirements, but students remain the key feedback providers on their teaching.

According to Principals, their schools need support in areas of education policy, finance, and technical support. They feel abandoned and not able to meet the government requirement for PDs.

Principals expressed the desire to establish career committees in schools. Yet, no link was proposed between this initiative and the teaching of English.

Teachers also expressed the need for more training addressing all years of teaching and some decision power to inform MoEYS about the nature of the training that they need. Some suggested topics included: teaching methodology, lesson plans, how to use new textbooks and the use ICT in teaching and learning. Notably, none related to policy, concepts, terminology and teacher and student agency. Each textbook appears to be a new problem and teachers appear to have no stable principles for working with resources, textbooks or otherwise. Teachers felt that they cannot meet MoEYS’ expectations with respect to student outcomes. Confusion was the general feeling expressed by Teachers and complaints about a lack of PDs and the quality of those that were available to them thus far. Teachers felt that they would like to be part of a greater professional community, with access to a system with an ongoing support.

In summary, all stakeholder groups are aware that the new policies introduced a new level of expectations from teachers that need addressing through policy, institutional support, and training. While the system is changing to better serve the stakeholders, the role of the broader community in this process was not addressed. ELTE courses, as indicated, continue to train teachers by role modelling traditional practices that focus on mastery of abstract rules and words, not on community engagement. As such, English and the job of the EFL teacher are being constructed as serving a different community. From this, it is a small step to thinking that students’ “home” languages are obstacles (Pomphrey & Burley, 2009 in Barros, et al, 2020), and the process of EFL learning is not about linking and sharing, but about “bow[ing] to the law of a language which they may never master: their errors and the restrictions on linguistic

scope that define them as students will always leave them in a position of non-mastery vis-à-vis their interlocutors” (Freadman, 1994, p. 21). The ongoing discussions on native and non-native proficiency, presented in Chapter 2, reflect these beliefs as do the discussions about the damage that early L2 or L3 learning may or does cause. However, traditions run deep, and it takes research and critically informed ELTE to unravel the tensions in narratives that, in so many ways, live in our communities. Innovation is needed, not restriction, emancipation, as Biesta and Biesta and Priestly (2013, p. 42) suggested, not promulgation of stereotypes and fears.

Principals and Teachers expressed a need for more support, especially in areas of education policy, finance, and ICT, while Teachers appeared to be overwhelmed and challenged by the new policies and the new textbook guidelines. Overall, the system is showing to be under-resourced and in need of methods or programs that would improve communication between stakeholders leading to innovation and stronger professional community.

Domain 1, **Professional Knowledge**, (Chapter 2, Figure 2.4), includes Knowledge of Students, Knowledge of Content and Knowledge of Student Learning. From the perspective of Teacher Quality, the strategies to enhance the status of the job of the teacher, such as the qualifications upgrade programs and the international training opportunities, are a positive development. They can provide teachers with stronger tools for understanding the national policies and how to apply those to better understand the needs of their teaching context, including those of the students. It is not clear what criteria do MoEYS use to assess improvement of the schools participating in the TUP initiative. This is especially important when ELTE programs continue to role model the teaching of English as “content”, rather than as a means for building connections and, in so doing, exploring and transforming one’s own cultural and cognitive resources and the capability to effect the same process in others.

Domain 2, **Professional Practice**, focuses on elements affecting the quality of teaching, including lesson planning and assessment; the learning environment; and engagement of higher order thinking and the ICT. The comments by the stakeholders revealed little direction for stimulating critical and informed approach to this Standard. The Standard prioritises qualities such as effective teaching and materials, demonstrating a range of teaching methods suitable for teaching higher order thinking skills, deductive and inductive thinking or problem solving, a student-centred approach making use of appropriate feedback strategies and encouraging

students to take more responsibility for their own learning. None of these qualities can be seen in stakeholders' comments. In their responses, teaching and learning a language were construed more as a stepwise process of mastery of different language systems or skills, such as grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing. The idea of including "topics", such as society, environment, and politics, are promising, but again, they are spoken about as content.

Teachers were the only group that mentioned technology. They did so with respect to a need for training, rather than ideas already applied in schools. The consistent isolation of teachers from the language and teacher education research community identified by Teachers compounds the challenges that they encounter to meet the Professional Practice Standard.

Domain 3, **Professional Study**, refers to strategies enabling teachers to expand their professional knowledge, self-asses on a regular basis, build their ICT skills, and develop relationships with relevant stakeholders. From the perspective of Teacher Quality, the confusion that the new policies have introduced to schools, the new textbooks and the lack of sufficient training and assistance demonstrate gaps in the system that make the meeting of this Standard difficult. Responses of the stakeholders indicate that the opportunities that the government creates, although present, are not systematic enough to be effective, do not meet teachers' expectations and, in their view, fail to address the needs of their students. Teachers' monthly school meetings may offer a partial solution, however, given the confusion and the challenges, they are not likely to provide teachers with a sufficient level of confidence. Principals alone may not have the expertise to provide sufficient leadership to support teachers. It appears that PD activities are needed that focus specifically on teachers' own contexts of practice. Furthermore, the role of the community in students' learning continues to be neglected despite the Standard including it as one of its components.

Domain 4, **Professional Ethics**, refers to elements of professional conduct that affect student-teacher relationships, such as fairness or emotional safety, attitudes to the profession, and role modelling of fairness, transparency, and ethical behaviour. From the perspective of Teacher Quality, these capacities were never explicitly mentioned by the stakeholders. Teachers were aware that the sole reliance on textbooks does not serve well the students, but no concrete principles were identified that would reveal deeper understandings of how they see their own job as EFL teachers. Following a textbook and "teaching to a test" reify students from their community contexts, which, in turn, prevents teachers from approaching their students as 21st

century citizens. As John Tomlinson (2006, p. 57) put it in the context of higher education, “It is an obligation to provide a supportive education environment, which educates students to live in society rather than simply equipping them to become pliable peons in the global market place”. In schools, where the role of the community in students’ learning is continuously downplayed, this concern requires serious consideration.

4.3.6 Summary of the findings: Teacher Quality

Table 4.12 summarises the findings relevant to perspectives on Teacher Quality.

Table 4.12. Teacher Quality: Summary of the findings

Stakeholder responses	Relationship to Teacher Standards
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MoEYS has established a process for communicating with schools to address issues such as teaching, resourcing, students, and community outreach. However, no mention was made of the nature of the exact criteria to ensure that these interactions support informed use of concepts that teachers and policymakers use for interpreting the policies, including the Teacher Standards. • ELTE courses tend to train teachers by role modelling traditional practices that focus on mastery, not on community engagement. These experiences, in turn, influence how teachers view and interpret their own practices, including their students’ learning needs and objectives. • The use of technology is unexplored and neglected. • The comments reflect an overall confusion over the new policies, the use of the new textbooks, and the lack of sufficient training and assistance. • The consistent isolation of EFL teachers from the research communities compounds the challenges of teachers to meet the Professional Practice Standard. • Overall, the system is showing to be under-resourced and in need of methods or programs that would improve communication between stakeholders and leading to innovation and stronger professional community. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional Knowledge <u>Investment in teachers:</u> The qualifications upgrade initiative, PD workshops, and international training opportunities prepare teachers to better understand the needs of their teaching context. • Professional Practice <u>Teachers are not precise in the terms they use:</u> Stakeholders’ responses were general, non-committal, which makes it difficult to identify their understandings. No detail was offered that would shed views on concepts such as effective teaching materials, teaching methods suitable for teaching higher order thinking skills, student-centred approaches, or feedback provision. • Professional Study <u>Mismatch between PDs offered and teachers’ local needs:</u> Responses of the stakeholders indicate that the opportunities that the government creates, although present, are not systematic enough to be effective, do not meet teachers’ expectations and, in their view, fail to address the needs of their students. • Professional Ethics <u>Reifying students from their communities is not ethical:</u> Following a textbook and “teaching to a test” reify students from their community contexts, which prevents teachers from approaching their students as 21st century citizens. Countering this trend requires repositioning of the student from a compliant receiver, a “pliable peon”, to a critical participant; from a learner whose errors restrict them, to a researcher, able to effect the desired impact.

4.3.7 Data: Student quality

When investigating student engagement (student quality), the study sought to elicit strategies that stakeholders create to secure students' interest in learning English. Depending on the roles of the stakeholders, the study focused on policies, the quality of teaching, and institutional incentives. Table 4.13 summarises findings relevant to Student Quality.

Table 4.13. Student Quality

Stakeholder	Strategies (Policy, Critical friends, PD and Community)
<p>MOEYS & NIE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: In regard to the English subject, the goal is to make students able to read, speak, listen and write in English. The introduction of English in Year 4 is difficult to support, and this affects negatively primary students' interest toward English. At first, they show a lot of interest in learning English, but most primary school teachers do not know English. Also, students' interest toward English depends on family socio economic background and parents' education level. The ministry made English an elective as Cambodia does not have enough qualified teachers to meet the new policies. There are only about 10% of the total number of English teachers in public schools who have qualifications in English.</p> <p>The ministry tries to design interesting textbooks and works with other partners to improve the teaching from Year 4. In the past, textbooks used to be copied from different sources and followed different approaches to English learning and foreign content. This often made the content of the book not interesting and incomprehensible to teachers and learners. So, more recently, the ministry started to advocate for local content to make textbooks more relevant to students and teachers.</p> <p>Community: Students and parents need to understand the value of English for the future education and career. Teachers and principals have to promote and manage students' interest in English. One strategy was enabling school students to take part in an international contest like Olympia and other international contests.</p>
<p>Teacher Trainer</p>	<p>No data.</p>
<p>School principals</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: About 80% of students' parents have little knowledge and do not know in detail about their child study and do not really value English. Those who value English tend to send their children to private English school. Students who come from high socioeconomic backgrounds tend to show more interest in English as their parents help them in numerous ways, including paying for lessons and access to the Internet.</p> <p>About 50-60% of students show some interest in English but not those in Year 9 and 12, and this makes teachers feel discouraged about their teaching. To respond to this, school principals go to each class and promote the importance of English, showcase the value of English at tertiary level or for obtaining overseas scholarships. The schools also reward 5 students who topped the school exams. This strategy encourages students. They also like taking part in the exam to learn how well they are doing in English.</p>

	<p>Also, schools plan to open evening English classes to be paid for by the students (\$2.5/months per student). In order to improve students' literacy capacity, parents are willing to pay teachers for extra classes.</p> <p>Community: Outsiders, for example the Peace Corp, stimulate both teachers' and students' interest in teaching and learning English. The link with the Peace Corp is organised by MoEYS.</p>
<p>Teachers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: Where parents levels of education, social capital and economic capital are low, this affects their children in multiple ways. For example, poor parents do not teach children how to use mobile technology for learning.</p> <p>Students don't really give value to the English subject because English score does not carry enough weight compared to other subjects, such as math, physics. Chemistry. The teaching does not show to students the value of their study of English. Some students cannot see how English will be used in their community and in their future careers. When students have poor English skills, compared to the required level, they feel scared and lose interest in English. Year 12 shows little interest in English as they give more attention to other main subjects for the national exam. Students' performance in English varies depending on the student cohort. In Year 11, students in the science group are believed to perform better on every subject including English than other students. Only 30% of students choose humanities/social sciences subjects. Students who choose humanities subjects view themselves as poorly performing.</p> <p>It is noticed by teachers that students have increasingly poorer performance in English subject. For example, some students in grade 12 cannot even read words in English. Students show less interest in learning English at secondary level when they have very limited knowledge from their English class at primary level. There are also not enough hours given to English in upper secondary schools and so students lose interest.</p> <p>The textbook from ministry contains a lot of lessons with little time provided to cover all chapters and that makes students less interested in their learning.</p> <p>Also, addiction to online games also affects negatively students' learning performance. Some students think that English can be learnt after Year 12. To address all this, teachers should explain to the students the importance of English in their tertiary level as well as in their career. Showcasing graduates who were successful at studying English as role models could be another strategy. To help students succeed, teachers believe that they should first ask students easy questions in lessons and reward them a good score so they can enjoy learning English. When students get poor grades, this makes them hate the English subject even more. Students who do well take private English classes. Teachers advise students about the importance of English; good results on the national exam in English will give students extra points for their overall exam score; teachers guide students to access various English learning links. Teachers give students various interesting exercises, videos, and emphasise the value of English for their future, such for as international scholarship opportunities.</p> <p>Single teacher strategies do not seem to work effectively to promote students' interest in English. Instead, teachers believe that the actions from ministry will work be more effective.</p>

	<p>Critical friends: Teachers may have their own circles where they may feel free to discuss knowledge to improve.</p> <p>Community: Students like getting encouragement from people other than their teachers. Also, foreign teachers attract students' interest in English as they are more exciting to students than Cambodian teachers. They are easier going than local teachers and ready to make friends with students. This makes students feel more comfortable. But some of those teachers are not interested in teaching either. They just come to complete their duties. Local teachers also like teaching with the Peace Corp. However, once foreigners leave, students also lose interest in learning English.</p>
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The key issue that **Policymakers** focus on, relative to Student Quality, is the problem of sustaining primary students' interest in English. They see primary teachers' English language competency (only 10% of teachers is qualified) as the main obstacle here, as well as the values that students bring with them to school from their homes and communities. Better resourcing of schools is the response of Policymakers and textbooks are seen as a solution even though 90% of schoolteachers will not be able to read them. This appears to be an ill-advised strategy, which, as Policymakers themselves note, has a discouraging effect on the students. The strategy to focus on local content only does not address the initial problem. Policymakers make no reference to research community and any suggestions that research or examples from other countries may offer. Policymakers also are aware of the role that schools play in changing community attitudes. However, other than participation in high stake contests or facilitating links with Peace Corp, no specific policy or advice was proposed that educators could utilise to affect community values and to build a grass-roots awareness of the value of speaking English in 21st century Asia.

English Language and Teacher Trainers offered no comments on this point.

Principals confirmed the beliefs of Policymakers and pointed to community and parents as sources of values and motivation. Whatever interest the students may have at the start of their schooling, in the upper years of secondary education this interest dwindles. Once again, as in the case of Policymakers, no learnt advice is referred to as coming from academia. Instead, Principals rely on their own initiative to illustrate the value of English language learning. The advice takes the form of practical or pragmatic reasons for language study or sporadic engagement with Peace Corp; a possible value of English to the broader community "here and now" is neither communicated nor perceived as real. Yet, schools are investing in opening

private classes, which suggests that interest is there but maybe needs different ways for its harvesting.

Teachers' views on motivation coincide with other stakeholder comments. Access to technology is another factor that teachers mention as impacting on students' choices, although students also get distracted by computer games, which consume a lot of their study time. Since English is only an elective, as a subject, it does not carry much status, and student focus on the key subjects for national exams. Poor performance on English also has a discouraging effect so the delivery matters. Interestingly, STEM students, a cohort that will use English in their higher learning institutions, are believed to perform better in English than other students. The workload also matters, and English is given too few hours per week to adequately support the students. On the other hand, textbooks are filled with complex texts and there is not enough time to cover it all. Like Principals, Teachers demonstrate to students the long-term value of English in their lives and careers, inflate their scores to boost motivation, and guide students to find websites that can offer additional help.

While teachers acknowledge that students find encouragement from people other than their teachers, this observation is not translated into a teaching pedagogy. Students also feel more at ease with foreign teachers who appear more friendly and this makes students feel more comfortable. Nonetheless, overall, the sentiment is that it is largely MoEYS's responsibility to promote English language learning, much less the job of the teacher.

Teachers create their own professional community circles where they discuss freely their expertise and needs. Nothing was mentioned about ongoing support from academia.

In summary, the comments from the stakeholders make it evident that motivation matters, and that teachers, principals and policymakers struggle with making English attractive. Teacher qualifications are a key obstacle, but not only. Lack of comments on Student Quality from research community and no references being made to its research on student motivation and engagement illustrate the negative effects of the consistent absence of the research community in schools.

Domain 1, **Professional Knowledge**, (Chapter 2, Figure 2.4), includes Knowledge of Students, Knowledge of Content and Knowledge of Student Learning. From the perspective of Student

Quality, the stakeholders agree that motivation matters for students to engage with English. However, their comments point to a lack of vision of how this motivation could be boosted. No references to examples from research were offered. This confirms the need for a closer collaboration between the schools, policymakers, and the research community to mandate and support activities that enable constructive ideas to be developed and shared to result in a better understanding of the features that make up a quality learning environment.

Domain 2, **Professional Practice**, focuses on elements affecting the quality of teaching, including lesson planning and assessment; the learning environment; and engagement of higher order thinking and the ICT. From the perspective of Student Quality, it is evident that all stakeholder groups found it challenging to identify strategies that would improve student motivation, engagement and sense of achievement when studying English. The delivery of English programs suffers as a result, as does the quality of their students' performance.

Domain 3, **Professional Study**, refers to strategies enabling teachers to expand their professional knowledge, self-asses on a regular basis, build their ICT skills, and develop relationships with relevant stakeholders. The comments of the stakeholders made no mention of professional development activities organised specifically around the aspect of motivation, despite it being a central factor determining student engagement and success. Motivation and student engagement are core issues in education research. No comments on this subject from language and teacher trainers indicates that schools and the research community need to work together to better understand the factors that can improve student motivation and the quality of students' learning experiences.

Domain 4, **Professional Ethics**, refers to elements of professional conduct that affect student-teacher relationships, such as fairness or emotional safety, attitudes to the profession, and role modelling of fairness, transparency, and ethical behaviour. From the perspective of Student Quality, the issue of student motivation, engagement and success emerge as critical to create a learning environment where all students have an equal chance to succeed. Furthermore, the Standard also requires that teachers work with colleagues and other community members in the interests of the students. Collaboration with research community emerges as mandatory.

4.3.8 Summary of the findings: Student Quality

Table 4.14 summarises the findings relevant to perspectives on Student Quality.

Table 4.14. Student Quality: Summary of the findings.

Stakeholder responses	Relationship to Teacher Standards
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low English competency in primary schools is identified as hindering student progress in later years. • Students specialising in STEM are better achievers. • Stakeholders agree that motivation is a key to student success, however, their comments point to a lack of vision of how this motivation could be boosted. No references to examples from research were offered. Textbook not seen as the best resource for motivating students. • Teachers are aware that textbooks are not attractive to students. Nonetheless, textbooks are being used as the main or only resource. • There is a need for a closer collaboration between the schools, policymakers, and the research community to mandate and support activities that enable constructive ideas to be developed and shared to result in a better understanding of the features that make up a quality learning environment. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional Knowledge <u>Motivation is a key concern:</u> Stakeholders make no references to literature on the concept of L2-learning and motivation. No principled understanding of the role of the learner in EFL-learning. • Professional Practice <u>General confusion on the role of L2-education:</u> All stakeholder groups find it challenging to identify strategies that would improve student motivation, engagement and sense of achievement when studying English. • Professional Study <u>Training on motivation missing:</u> The comments of the stakeholders made no mention of professional development activities organised specifically around the aspect of motivation, despite it being a central factor determining student engagement and success. • Professional Ethics <u>Reifying students from their communities is not ethical:</u> The issue of student motivation, engagement and success emerge as critical to create a learning environment where all students have an equal chance to succeed.

4.3.9 Data: Infrastructure and Resources

When investigating Infrastructure and Resources, the study sought to elicit strategies that stakeholders create to respond to the demands that the new policies place on institutional and human resources. Table 4.15 summarises findings relevant to Infrastructure and Resources.

Table 4.15. Infrastructure and Resources

Stakeholder	Strategies (Policy, Critical friends, PD and Community)
<p>MOEYS & NIE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: For English, the curriculum has been designed but the textbooks for Years 10-12 have not been written. The framework has already been made for the books for Years 7-9, and it is supported by Kizuna (Japanese publisher). The English textbook for Years 7-9 has been produced. ADB also supports and gives feedback to NIE on textbook design. Due to the shortage of money, MoYES cannot provide enough newly published books to every student in each academic year. For example, in one year they can provide enough textbooks for year 10 only, and the next year for Year 11.</p> <p>Teacher Training Centres around the country work in partnership with JICA (Japanese education agency) on the national curriculum development, infrastructure, and physical facilities.</p>

Teacher Trainer

- Global Relevance
- **National Relevance**
- Course and Unit Design
- **Pedagogy**
- Personal Research
- Stakeholder Awareness
- **Institutional Support**

Policy: Internationalisation is seen as very important; however, teacher trainers believe that they do not have enough money, facilities, and human resources to focus on this area. Currently, teacher trainers put more focus on ICT area. They start integrating technology into the teaching and learning of English.

Traditional ways of teaching are no longer suitable. Many students own smart phones, so teaching and learning is getting more and more online. The English Department encourages lecturers to use ICT in their teaching and lecturers themselves are interested in doing so. We use blended learning to teach, students can learn on campus or off campus. Teachers upload programs and save links for students to learn. Most but not all lecturers upload their lesson/powerpoints in their group for students access it. Currently, university does not have a teaching/learning management system, so teachers use whatever tools are available and familiar to them like Google Classroom, Microsoft apps, YouTube, etc. IT centre is working on improving the system to develop teaching tools for teachers. Currently all staff can use a shared drive for free.

We also use an online evaluation system. Students register online to participate in university events.

Some units are considered important, but there are not enough lecturers who have specialised knowledge. For example, to provide a subject of ASEAN studies, teachers compile textbooks from the internet documents and videos.

The policy of upgrading teacher quality is good but there are also challenges. It might be too early to implement the policy while there is a shortage of human resources. Today, those with bachelor degree can also teach at university level. After a few years, contract lecturers are likely to get a scholarship to upgrade their qualifications and upon their study completion, they leave the public system and move to better jobs. It cannot be stopped.

Time and money are needed to improve teacher capacity: career pathways, such as Professional Development Program, are here to help. Cambodia creates 1000 teachers each year but this is not enough because they tend to go to the private sector.

Schools have poor infrastructure, so the curriculum has to be designed to include a lot of strategies for teachers to teach English in a low resource classroom.

Critical friends: We don't include internationalisation in English teacher education because it seems like we a bit closed off to the outside world. We do not have much connection with outsiders.

The challenge of curriculum review and design are shortages of resource both human and material. The English Department does not have experts and cannot afford hiring experts, so we use readymade materials that best match the Cambodian context and needs. Academics can't produce their own materials, they borrow from others, either in whole or some parts, then turn them into a compiled textbook.

PD: Close connections with other universities overseas are also created, so when an international professor visits Cambodia for whatever purpose (e.g.

	CamTESOL), they can come and deliver one day workshop, if it is free of charge.
<p>School principals</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: No access to ICT. Teacher can use whatever way they can and believe is good for their teaching, but internalisation is very limited. There is a support from Metfone to use internet. Not enough textbooks for students and teaching facilities for teaching English. No access to the internet; no laboratory.</p> <p>A laboratory room is needed that is equipped with a variety of materials for teachers not to depend on textbooks and teacher guidebooks alone for language teaching, but schools don't have money to make one. Schools want to expose students in language platform or with foreigners. Modernisation might happen in private schools but not public, as teachers depend on the textbook and teacher guidebook.</p> <p>The ministry identifies schools to receive additional funding to assist them. The ministry selected four schools in our province from 100 schools nationwide for this purpose. They are free to initiate any activity they wish, for example, they can offer extra classes for the major subjects for students and teachers get paid with that money. Schools that get additional ministry funding do not have the problem with the shortage of teachers but still need some essential facilities such as the lab, library, or teaching materials. To solve this, schools ask for financial help from students' parents, but it is never enough as they are poor.</p> <p>There is a shortage of English teachers, so we take teachers from other subject to teach English.</p> <p>Community: To attract students' interest in learning English, there should be some foreign teachers, and more teaching and learning facilities. The connection that the school has with the community is mostly with parents. The school updates them on events and programs and any financial needs.</p> <p>The ministry allocates Peace Corp people to visit and work with different schools. Schools do not have direct connection with any NGO or bodies. The number of volunteers is limited, so not all schools are given access to those. Schools also connect with various donors (NGOs) and receive assistance from them, mostly computers, books, sport equipment, bicycles, etc. Schools inform the community about this help through posting texts, pictures, or videos on the school Facebook page. Interested donors will contact schools and offer what they can.</p>
<p>Teachers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global Relevance • National Relevance • Course and Unit Design • Pedagogy • Personal Research • Stakeholder Awareness • Institutional Support 	<p>Policy: ICT can help teach English but the ICT materials in schools are very limited in schools which need computers, tablets, or smart phones to access to ICT. Schools have no access to ICT or the internet to support English learning and teaching, hence internationalisation is limited. There is a shortage of English teachers and not enough textbooks for every student. So, students have to share textbooks or have to buy the books themselves. The coursebook for Grades 7-9 has been newly published. It contains more communicative activities for students to learn, more conversations, and listening. But for now, Grades 10-12 still use the old coursebook, which is too difficult and too advanced.</p> <p>Students have private access to the internet but have no specific programs to guide them. Teachers see English and ICT are somehow related because</p>

	<p>students need English to be able to use ICT. Computer teachers are selected from English teachers as they know English.</p> <p>Some schools still do not have the English coursebook for Grades 10-12. This still needs to be distributed for free by the ministry to students, so students have to buy them. Schools that do not have enough English teachers utilise teachers of other subjects to teach English. No innovation takes place, no facilities. The learning process depends totally on the teachers. Also, very few hours are available in the curriculum for the study of English in the upper secondary schools and so the students lose interest in the subject. Teachers from other subjects are being asked to teach English if there are not enough English teachers.</p> <p>MoYES offers no solutions to help teachers cope with the challenges that they are facing. Individual teachers must solve their problems themselves.</p> <p>Community: Schools have various community connections with students' parents, companies (e.g. a telephone company), the Christian church, NGOs, etc. Schools receive whatever funds/materials are available from these funding bodies.</p>
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For **Policymakers** textbooks for schools are the key concern, “Due to the shortage of money, MoYES cannot provide enough newly published books to every student in each academic year”. The departments responsible for teacher training and preparation work with the Japanese Education Agency on the national curriculum development, infrastructure, and physical facilities. No comments were offered on how Policymakers mitigate any pressures caused by possible inadequate resourcing. No mention was made of the role that the broader community may play as a potential resource in the context of language learning.

English Language and Teacher Trainers see technology as an important area of development in universities, which, increasingly, utilise technology to support learning. However, the comments focused on use of technology to manage learning; nothing specific was said about the use of technology to support English language learning specifically either in the university or in schools. No solutions were proposed for countering the lack of teaching resources and teachers' poor language proficiency. More training was suggested as the key solution, despite the awareness that more qualified teachers will move to the private sector. Changing the curriculum was another suggestion, although nothing specific was proposed. Lack of relevant expertise and money to hire experts were delegated to MoEYS to address. No mention of examples from research on how issues of this kind could be addressed or had been addressed in other countries experiencing similar challenges.

Principals saw access to ICT as critical but absent in schools, despite teachers being given freedom to use whatever resources they judged to be good in their teaching. Need for language laboratories was identified, equipment and whatever relevant materials that technology can help access and to reduce dependency on textbooks and guidebooks provided by MoEYS. NGOs offer some assistance with books, computers, and bicycles. However, funding is an obstacle as principals feel they cannot not raise enough money for a computer laboratory. From one hundred schools, four receive additional government funding although this may not be enough to purchase technology, library, or teaching materials. Those four are free to teach using whatever resources they have, can offer extra classes and teachers are paid using this additional money. Some schools also request parents to for financial help. Lack of qualified teachers was also mentioned. No suggestions from the research community were listed. Better teaching facilities and access to foreign speakers of English were suggested as possible ways for integrating community into students' learning. The rationale for these examples was not provided. Peace Corp emerges as one of the sources of this "foreign" contact for the students.

Teachers confirmed lack of textbooks, limited access to technology and online resources, and shortages of qualified teachers, as obstacles. Students with private access to the internet have no programs to guide them. According to teachers, no innovation is taking place and teachers made no mention of the impact of the research community on their practice. Teachers felt isolated and solely responsible for their teaching. Greater assistance from MoEYS is awaited to assist with training and funding. While no ideas were brought forth on integrating the broader community into students' learning, nonetheless, teachers listed NGOs, telephone companies, parents, and Christian churches as offering help with resources.

In summary, all stakeholders are aware of the acute shortages of human and teaching resources. While Policymakers focus exclusively on access to textbooks, other stakeholders looked to technology for solutions. However, no stakeholder group made suggestions how exactly technology could be used to support English language learning, whether in higher education or in schools. For now, schools rely on multiple sources of funding and foreign groups for language contact and equipment. No stakeholder offered ideas from research on how English language teachers could be assisted in order to support their students and to do so while complying with the national curriculum (MoEYS, 2015) requirements.

Domain 1, **Professional Knowledge**, (Chapter 2, Figure 2.4), includes Knowledge of Students, Knowledge of Content and Knowledge of Student Learning. From the perspective of Infrastructure, the consistent absence of support from the research community of Cambodia leaves stakeholder groups facing the challenges of under-resourced schools isolated and unaware of the opportunities that pedagogic innovation may offer. No stakeholder group mentioned being part of PD activities that would offer insights on how issues such as students' motivation, engagement, and their learning process can be addressed where teachers lack both textbooks and knowledge of ICT for learning of English.

Domain 2, **Professional Practice**, focuses on elements affecting the quality of teaching, including lesson planning and assessment; the learning environment; and engagement of higher order thinking and the ICT. When schools and HEIs complain on lack resources, informed decisions need to be made on investment and its value. Should Policymakers push for ICT or textbooks? Without evidence or ideas from the research community, teachers are left alone to manage the learning environment while coping with the absence of both textbooks and ICT.

Domain 3, **Professional Study**, refers to strategies enabling teachers to expand their professional knowledge, self-asses on a regular basis, build their ICT skills, and develop relationships with relevant stakeholders. The comments of the stakeholders made no references to professional development activities organised specifically around the aspect of working with poor infrastructure, although this point was mentioned by Teacher Trainers under Teacher Quality, when commenting that their programs take account of “teaching with scarce resources” and “supporting teacher flexibility and adaption to under-resourced classrooms”. However, no detail was offered by the stakeholders that would reflect their knowledge of strategies coming from research for coping with their predicament.

Domain 4, **Professional Ethics**, refers to elements of professional conduct that affect student-teacher relationships, such as fairness or emotional safety, attitudes to the profession, and role modelling of fairness, transparency, and ethical behaviour. From the perspective of Infrastructure, under-resourced classrooms. with next to no knowledge of how to cope, seriously challenges teachers in meeting the requirements of this Standard.

4.3.10 Summary of the findings: Infrastructure and Resources

Table 4.16 summarises the findings relevant to perspectives on Infrastructure and Resources.

Table 4.16. Infrastructure and Resources: Summary of the findings.

Stakeholder responses	Relationship to Teacher Standards
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All stakeholders are aware of the acute shortages of human and teaching resources. • While Policymakers focus exclusively on textbooks, other stakeholders looked to technology for solutions. • No stakeholder group made suggestions how exactly technology could be used to support English language learning, whether in higher education or in schools. • Schools rely on multiple sources of funding and foreign groups for language contact and equipment. • No stakeholder group offered ideas from research on how English language teachers could be assisted to support their students and while also complying with the national curriculum (MoEYS, 2015) requirements. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional Knowledge <u>No clear vision to orient investment:</u> When schools and HEIs complain on lack resources, informed decisions need to be made on investment and its value to student success. The consistent absence of support from the ELT research community leaves stakeholder groups unaware of the opportunities that pedagogic innovation may offer. • Professional Practice <u>Meeting Teacher Standards not possible in under-resourced schools:</u> Under-resourced classrooms seriously challenge teachers' capacity to meet the requirements listed in the national Teacher Standards. • Professional Study <u>Innovation from ELT research are needed:</u> There is general absence of professional development around the aspect of working with poor infrastructure. Without evidence or ideas from the ELT research community, teachers are left alone to manage the learning environment while coping with the absence of both textbooks and ICT. • Professional Ethics <u>Reifying students from their communities is not ethical:</u> Under-resourced classrooms, with next to no knowledge of how to cope, seriously challenges teachers in meeting the requirements of this Standard.

4.3.11 Stage 2: Summary

The objective of Stage 2 was to illuminate some causes behind the trends identified in Stage 1. Stage 1 findings showed a visible absence of leadership from the ELT research community to assist MoEYS and schools with critically informed understandings and evidence on quality teaching and teacher training, policy implementation, and community engagement. Stage 2. Stage 2 confirmed this finding and illustrates the depth of its impact. The points below summarise the key findings of Stage 2.

1. Teacher as curriculum developer and planner

Community engagement in English language curricula emerged to be a challenge as textbook pedagogy dominates the mindset of education policymakers no alternatives

are being proposed beyond some *ad hoc* ideas about the use of the internet. The reliance on textbooks over community engagement presents serious concerns to transformative learning advocated by current education policies of Cambodia. Curricula, that rely on content, whose relevance is postponed to some later future, remove authenticity from the learning process. They undermine the role of the curriculum in building students as community participants and contributors. They also undermine the role of teachers as a link between the community and the students and alienate schools from their communities, thus potentially reducing the status English learning in the community. In essence, the tension between the policy and the investment in textbooks interferes with teachers' abilities to plan learning experience in accordance with the outcomes identified in the national curriculum (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015).

2. Teacher as a Resource

Despite the Teacher Standards recognising the value of networking in building informed, research-based culture in schools, the system - at all its levels - lacks a vision that would make research increasingly a natural part of teachers' lives. New reforms require policies that consolidate, not dilute, available research power of the country. Yet, this understanding is not communicated through the system and ELT researchers construct their job as unrelated to the job of the teacher and refuse to engage in international grants that, apparently are plenty, to support EFL learning and teacher development. As a result, the narrative prevails, where research of teaching practice is a sole responsibility of the teacher, and, consequently, nothing happens; teachers are neither expected to do research, nor do they believe that doing research would matter to their teaching. They do not feel supported in this endeavour. Stakeholders mention training, but what exact research skills do teachers need to acquire and why those is not addressed. There is a lot vagueness around teacher research that needs closer examination without assuming that teacher research can be done simply and quickly by "practitioners", by applying unsophisticated questions and methods. Confusion regarding teacher research also suggests that PD activities adopt top-down, transmission models of knowledge communication, not reflective engagement.

3. Teacher quality

Teacher qualifications and low or no language proficiency are viewed as the key hurdles preventing student success. The qualifications upgrade initiative, PD-activities, and international training opportunities the participating prepare teachers to better

understand the needs of their teaching context. Linking teacher quality with research has not been addressed and the proposal for a Centre of Excellence remains to be only an idea. Lack of adequate training and theoretical sophistication transpire through the stakeholders' responses, which were found to be general, non-committal, lacking detail that would illustrate what teachers understand to be effective teaching and teaching materials, and appropriate methods that support transformative learning. Concepts such as teacher as a community developer were missing, despite the national curriculum (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015) advocating for education that build contributing citizens. This objective also counters the Teacher Standards that advocate teaching to a test.

4. Student quality

Stakeholders agree that motivation is a key to student success, however, no vision was offered of how this motivation could be boosted. Stakeholders made no mention of professional development activities organised specifically around the aspect of motivation, despite it being a central factor determining student engagement and success. No references were made to examples from research on motivation, despite it having been widely researched in education. Chapter 2 presented examples of such research. The research community was silent on Student Quality and no stakeholder referred to any examples from research, when discussing ideas about raising the status of English in the community. The notions of student and teacher agency were absent.

5. Infrastructure

Under-resourced classrooms, with teachers struggling to cope, characterise EFL education and seriously challenge teachers' capacity to meet the requirements listed in the national Teacher Standards. While policymakers push for books, the teaching community looks to technology for solutions. The consistent absence of support from the research community leaves stakeholder groups, facing the challenges of under-resourced schools, isolated and unaware of the opportunities that pedagogic innovation may offer. When schools and HEIs complain on lack resources, informed decisions need to be made on investment and its value to student success. The consistent absence of support from the ELT research community leaves stakeholder groups unaware of the opportunities that pedagogic innovation may offer.

Overall, data in Stage 2 demonstrated that meeting Teacher Standards is difficult to achieve not so much because resources are scanty, but because the communities that have resources, or

had opportunities to access those through training or research, are not providing the leadership that is expected of them. Not all experts work in the private sector. Further, time and finance cannot be seen here as too big an obstacle since Cambodia has some money to fund professional development, and, in addition, international grants can offer generous rewards for research participation. Resources, although scanty, are being developed with the support of foreign investors, but questions need to be asked as to their relevance. Do the students need textbooks that are printed and distributed for free to each student, every year? Improvement of practice cannot emerge from practice alone or, as illustrated, from policies. Practice tends to follow what it knows, not what is unknown.

4.4 Discussion and conclusion

Chapter 4 presented the findings of the present study on how the different education stakeholders that shape the field of EFL education in Cambodia construct the job of EFL teaching and their roles within it. The study adopted the structure of “conversation”, where analysed was not only what was said, but also, who was silent on what subject. Both Stage 1 and Stage 2 identified many of such silences, indicating that stakeholders do not construct their responses in relation to principles or a “big picture”-concepts, or, possibly, are not consciously aware of them and their relevance. Missing were references to the key concepts that frame educational profession, such as those relating to the roles of the stakeholders, the nature of their jobs and the infrastructure necessary to support those. While the gaps in stakeholder responses are telling, so are their responses.

Stage 1 revealed that responses were mainly couched in a structure of “what should happen”, while also sporadically noting some local achievement. In turn, Stage 2 responses focused the interviewees on their own contexts, and what they have done. Questions of Stage 2 were specifically designed to elicit those perspectives. Stage 1 confirmed the findings of Stage 2, where it was demonstrated that the field of EFL teaching has no clear direction, and it was recommended that policymakers exercise a greater role in orienting the field toward serving the goals of national policies. Stage 2 demonstrated that the field of EFL teaching lacks appropriate understanding of its role in Cambodia, which in turn creates room for conceptual vagueness and solutions to problems that were never identified, explored in their many dimensions and possibilities. Teachers alone cannot do this type of exploration, nor can the policymakers. But ELT research community can, especially if they engage all stakeholders to

expand the issue of their inquiry and therefore its relevance to the field. As indicated by one of the respondents, international grants are available, but the understanding of what those grants involve and why they are necessary to apply for was not there.

5 Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The present study began by outlining the international policy trends, that have led to the building of regional alliances in South-East Asia, and their impacts on Cambodia. The overview of the recent education reforms in Cambodia and their impact on English language learning policies discussed in Chapter 1 illustrated the country's commitment to the ASEAN community policies, its endeavours to adopt English as the working language of South-East Asia and Asia (ASEAN, 2008, p. 29), and to internationalisation of its education system to improve the social, cultural, and economic capital of the nation, and, with it, the standards of living and the wellbeing of its people (MoEYS, 2013). As illustrated in the present study, this decision to modernise education involves more than the introduction of English language in early stages of a child's education. It implies the development and implementation of education policies and curricula that replace the traditional focus of education on knowledge as content with knowledge as a process of transformation and learning resulting in transformative outcomes not only for the students, but also different stakeholder communities with whom they engage to learn with and from.

The objective of the present study was to illuminate how the various stakeholders see and imagine their roles in that job, how they justify those and what they believe needs improving. Chapter 4 presented and identified trends in the data. It also analysed those trends from the perspective of Teacher Standards. The discussion in this chapter, reviews the findings of the study from the perspective of the research questions and situates its responses against the broader context of issues identified in the literature and relating to ELT policies and their implementation in Cambodia.

5.2 Research Question 1: Self-defined ELT community needs

Question 1: What self-defined ELT community needs emerged from the dialogues that were facilitated?

Data analysis of the questionnaire adopted a "conversation"-like model of data presentation. Stakeholder comments were put side by side to illustrate areas of shared concern. Also, listed are groups that stakeholders addressed through their comments. This helped identify what expectations the stakeholders had of themselves and of other groups.

Table 5.1 illustrates the themes that the different stakeholder groups addressed in Stage 1 questionnaire. White slots indicate the presence of comments, grey slots their absence. ELTE is identified as separate from ELT research to illustrate the difference between the comments on training and those relating to research. The column of Teaching refers to Teaching and Training.

Table 5.1. Stage 1 data coverage relative to the themes.

	Senior respondents			Schools		
	Research	Teaching	Community	Research	Teaching	Community
	Stakeholder groups addressed			Stakeholder groups addressed		
	Researchers	MoEYS, Schools,	Schools	Researchers	MoEYS, Schools Parents Students	MoEYS
Global Relevance	✓	✓				
National Relevance	✓	✓			✓	✓
Course and Unit Design		✓				
Pedagogy		✓			✓	
Personal Research	✓	✓		✓		
Stakeholder Awareness					✓	
Institutional Support		✓		✓	✓	✓

Table 5.1 shows that, effectively, the ELT research community was absent as an interlocutor in most of the comments.

- Each group, teachers and senior respondents, offered most comments on the subject of Teaching and Training.
- Senior respondents made no comments on research in relation to the themes of curriculum (Course and Unit Design) and Pedagogy.
- Teachers were not addressed by senior respondents in relation to Research. Teachers addressed ELT research community only in the area of research.

- Each group had very little to say about community engagement. Teachers constructed community engagement as the job of MoEYS, while senior respondents believed it was the responsibility of schools.

Most comments focused on what needs to be done, less on what has been accomplished and why.

Research:

Senior respondents agreed to the value of research, aspired to become leaders in EFL education. To support research, suggestions included obtaining international qualifications, building own TESOL identity, collaboration with local and international partners; a national ELT journal; the need for innovative and courageous when teachers are strapped for resources; and a need for an interdisciplinary L2-Research Centre that would assist the development and sharing of resources. Other than this, no projects were listed as currently underway or needing developing and no specific ELT needs were identified as needing attention of research. *Teachers*, on the other hand, commented mainly on the need for research partnerships.

Teaching and Teacher Training:

The need for more professional development was identified by all stakeholders. The comments were mainly about “training”, not reflective engagement, with trainers providing “knowledge” for teachers to use: “Professional training should provide teachers with as many teaching methodologies as possible for them to choose”. One senior stakeholder underscored the need for collaboration between schools and local and international academia. However, no specific examples of PD activities were identified in Cambodia where academia collaborated with schools.

Senior stakeholders advocated for improvements in ELTE training that would result in student-centred EFL curricula, teaching pedagogy that is project-based and meaning-oriented, and teachers with better English skills, all of which were said to need urgent attention. Improvements were noted to be underway, all in areas that respond to Teacher Standards (MoEYS, 2010). The need to teach research skills was mentioned to stimulate “reflective teaching”. Senior stakeholders also advocated specialisation in subject-oriented language skills and the use of technology, “so that students can learn the quality English

that enables them to reach the original English standard of English without totally depending on teacher”.

Teachers, when discussing training, focused on practical aspects of their job that need addressing by the system, such as qualifications, low language skills of lower secondary teachers, teacher attributes, teaching the four skills of language literacy, and the need to diversify teaching/learning materials. Student motivation was identified and the need to adjust expectations of the students, depending on their background. Policy knowledge and leadership skills were identified and the need for schools to engage in promoting English.

Senior participants were also aware of the difficult working conditions in high schools, missing textbooks, more time to be committed to English in schools. The need for language labs was reiterated to make learning attractive and authentic. *Teacher* added other factors, such as the need to reduce class sizes. Teachers were also concerned about the lack of communication with and support from MoEYS and inability to impact on policies.

Community engagement:

Teachers felt that MoEYS needs to boost the status of English in the nation. *Teachers* argued for the inclusion of English in the list of compulsory subjects to boost motivation. Also, teachers wanted to see coordination between what is taught and what is on the national exam. On the other hand, *senior participants* saw the need for developing international sister school relationships.

The underlying assumption behind the expressed sets of needs reveals the belief that success depends on policies and funding, while the role of ELT research in this endeavour is unclear, if of any immediate relevance at all. In other words, not everything that is “good practice” is or must be informed by research. However, where the boundaries are, it is not clear from the data. The stakeholders rarely “spoke to” the ELT research community, thus indicating that the value of its input to education is not clear. Terms like leadership, student-centred learning, meaning-oriented learning, and the need to teach four communication skills were mentioned, but the questionnaire form may have not been suited sufficiently to elicit the meaning of those and how they are being applied and taught, if at all.

Stage 2 of the study was designed to illuminate more perspectives on the roles that the stakeholder groups play in ELT in Cambodia, how they see their job and what needs to be done to address their self-perceived needs. More precise questions were asked to elicit diverse aspects on the issues of research, its impact on building a critical intellectual community, teaching and training, and community engagement.

Data analysis in Chapter 4 confirmed the absence of ELT research on schools and illustrated, to a great extent, the impact that this lack of engagement in the country's language policies has had on all stakeholder groups, policymakers, ELT trainers, teachers, and the broader community. Chapter 4 revealed a number of systemic tensions between the policies and their implementation strategies which, arguably, could have been avoided had the ELT research community exercised greater leadership. These tensions are discussed under the themes of research, teaching and training, and community engagement.

Research

While *policymakers* recognise the importance of teacher research, no vision of ELT research emerged from the data and its relationship to teacher training and schools. Instead, a rather narrow concept of research was presented, one which construed teachers as a "lone ranger", being prepared to investigate their practice. This policy was justified by the belief that, "Research is valuable, but it frightens teachers to hear the word research" (Policymakers). Hence, the strategy adopted is "a gradual introduction of research skills through qualifications upgrade programs" (Policymakers). the strategy of teaching research skills complies with modern requirements of university curricula, the fact that practising teachers are perceived to be afraid of research indicates the enormity of distance between the ELT research and schools.

ELT Trainers commented on the lack of direction of ELT research in Cambodia, with researchers following their own interests, independently of what the national education needs may be in relation to English, "academics teaching English do not see their work as being in education but purely in 'language'" and "It is understood that this also is the view of the ministry of education". There were varied views on research incentives, but it was acknowledged that "studies in Young Learner Education, or in Early Childhood Education would be funded by sources like the World Bank", but "Academics who teach English cannot find grants that would support their interest". The concept, that policies inform funding, and this then impacts on what is researched, was absent in those comments. As illustrated in

Chapter 2, ELT researchers investigate their own contexts of practice, endure the funding “injustice”, as the country and HEIs enable this disengagement from the broader context of policies and national needs.

Principals’ comments summarised the gap between research and practice saying that “Teachers are not expected by the ministry to do research, have no research projects. Teachers and schools are not connected to any university or other external parties. Problems are solved by teachers alone”. Along similar lines and reflecting the general sentiments of “despair”, *teachers* thought that, generally, it is believed that “their research will make little difference and they will continue rely on the textbook”. They claimed that “No attention is given to research by the ministry. The policies are in place but current strategies to support classroom research do not really work, “Teachers know nothing about doing research and requested research training from the ministry” and “Teachers do not have sufficient human resources and materials (reading materials, internet, computer, etc.) to do research”. But teachers did feel that without research support, their “teaching [is] boring and not creative”.

Regarding the idea of qualifications upgrade, teachers reported that “Research and qualifications upgrade involve money”. Not all teachers receive scholarships and, it is very clear that with researchers avoiding schools, neither teachers nor policymaker are likely to learn how to work in under-resourced classes, what best investments can Cambodia make to support English teaching, or how ICT can support learning. It is not clear if investing in computers and the internet would be more or less costly. Would it be more efficient? No research reviewed in Chapter 2 asked these questions, yet they are critical. *Principals* commented on the lack of ICT infrastructure, which, they believed, impacts negatively on teaching. How would the school use those? Who would manage this new infrastructure in the thousands of schools across Cambodia?

It is evident that, without research, tough policy decisions cannot be made and so the country remains caught in a crisis, some of which it is of its own making. Yet, international grants are generous, pay well for research, without placing the livelihoods of ELT academics in jeopardy. It would follow that the decision not to participate in grants and major projects is that of researchers alone. Yet, ELT researchers expressed the ambition to be a leading research body in Asia. As indicated in this section, it is possible because many countries in South East Asia

and Asia endure similar challenges. However, in order to lead, one has to engage with people's problems, not only with what may "interest" the scholar.

This observed inactivity in school-based research and its impact on the country's EFL education also suggests that HEIs and MoEYS need to review their own policies regarding ELT(L2)-research, the communities that this research is to support, and the criteria they use for impact assessment. "Paper writing", alone, cannot be viewed as a success especially, when many of those papers, as discussed in Chapter 2, have small chances to contribute to the major body of research mainly because they do not address that body. The papers create no cumulative history to give international institutions a reason to link up with Cambodian scholars, something they commented on themselves. As argued in Chapter 2, the contributions published in Cambodia, with the exception of a few foreign papers, were relatively narrow in scope, lacked connections to policies and clarity of concepts, as well as detail.

All stakeholders expressed a sense of isolation, "NIE does not have access to big scholars from overseas or Cambodian researchers" (Policymakers); "countries in the ASEAN show no interest in partnering with Cambodia" (ELT research); Not much external networking takes place with the academic community (Teachers); Lecturers do not connect much with the international intellectual community (ELT Trainers). The group that emerged with the most opportunities for regular contacts with external parties were policymakers, however, it was not reported whether these engagements result in policy research, international grants, and publications specific to EFL teaching and learning.

Teaching and Training

Tension was detected between the country's policies advocating for transformative learning experiences and its investment in textbooks. The reliance on textbooks over community engagement presents serious concerns to transformative learning advocated by current education policies of Cambodia. The recent changes in the curricula worldwide are characterised by a shift from curriculum that saw learning as the *transmission of knowledge* to one where learning is viewed as *the transformation of knowledge* (Elliott, 2004). This change shifted the focus of curricula away from content and on the community. Furthermore, as argued in Chapters 2 and 4, to remove language-learning from the community is to remove it from the contexts that give the purpose for its learning. Making a textbook the focus on students' learning does not locate the learning of English in the community, where the initial need for

English emerged. *Policymakers* invest in textbooks and provide schools with textbooks, which effectively become the working curriculum of schools. As investment in traditional learning resources is being made, traditional models of language teaching follow as does the confusion about the lead concepts and goals of English language teaching and learning. For example, *teachers* have different takes on the concept of internationalisation regarding content: “Teachers believe English subject should include knowledge about the world, less local knowledge. Others think that adding local knowledge would be appropriate”. Teachers also thought that the “student-centred concept is too challenging and so [they] go back to traditional models of teaching”. *Policymakers* acknowledge that current textbooks “do not comply with the national curriculum” and teachers “use outmoded teacher guidebooks”. Yet, more textbooks need to be printed. It is not clear what would make them better suited as details are missing in stakeholders’ comments. Once again, the absence of school-based research means that answers to this and other questions is not likely to emerge soon.

The necessity of textbooks tends to be justified by low English proficiency of teachers. Textbook is an assurance for policymakers that students will get access to the appropriate language and content scope. However, as illustrated in Chapter 2, even this claim has been questioned as scholars, Li, Dong and Duan (2019), challenged the suitability of the content of middle school textbooks. Nonetheless, the narrative that Cambodia has poor infrastructure and poor language teachers has set a chain of events in motion that keep the country’s EFL learning locked in the past. As discussed, investment in textbooks is followed by teaching and assessment approaches in schools that focus on arbitrarily identified content, which is also supported by *ELT Trainers*, who believe that teachers need training that is suited for low quality infrastructure of schools, “Schools have poor infrastructure, so the curriculum has to be designed to include a lot of strategies for teachers to teach English in a low resource classroom”.

The views offered by ELT trainers communicate the message that the focus of English teaching is content and that, currently, the best resource, is the textbook. How is this teacher preparation to change the present? With no research examining change, policymakers and teacher trainers approach ELTE from the perspective of the immediate challenges that they experience, not from the needs of the system. Meanwhile, *Teachers* comment, on their own lack of experience with ICT tools and its impact on teaching, “Students have private access to the internet but

have no specific programs to guide them”. It appears that no one is listening. *Principals* too complained about the lack of ICT infrastructure, which impacts negatively on teaching.

Teachers in upper secondary schools do not favour textbooks. In their comments, they were critical of the textbooks currently being used by senior students. Teachers commented on the “general lack of resources, reading materials and access to internet” which results in “Traditional teaching methods continu[ing] to prevail”. Teachers wanted to diversify resources, move away from the sole reliance on textbooks: “If teachers follow a textbook only, students learn nothing, and the textbooks are never fully covered”. While these comments illustrate the need for change, the details of what this change would entail are missing in teachers’ comments. This clearly demonstrates a general lack of understanding of what recent curriculum reforms and their implications for ELT. Teachers used no abstract terminology beyond the concept of student-centred learning, which also was never explained. Teachers felt left alone in their struggles and blamed MoEYS, “MoYES offers no solutions to help teachers cope with the challenges that they are facing. Individual teachers must solve their problems themselves”.

Policymakers felt that they were open to communication with the schools, and, to improve their service, they identified “leadership and management, and effective teaching and learning” as the key needs for professional development. Policymakers saw the job of principal as being responsible for “strengthen[ing] their management and leadership of schools and increase[ing] the number of completions and outstanding students”. *Principals*, in turn, were critical of the in-service training provided to them as being too top-down and too “challenging considering the level of knowledge of schoolteachers”. They also requested support from the ministry or the Teacher Training Centre to “address education policy, finance, and technical support”. *Teachers*, in general, wanted systematic PD training on teaching methodology, lesson plans, how to use new textbooks and ICT in teaching and learning but felt that MoEYS is not understanding their needs. They were critical of teacher guidebooks and the learner-centred approach advocated in those as “too challenging for those students and [thus] ignored by the teachers”.

Funding emerged as one area on which everyone agreed. *Policymakers* saw funding as an issue preventing country-wide “teacher training on curriculum and materials for teaching English”. There also is not enough funding to provide textbooks to all students (*Policymakers*). Nothing was said about funding in relation to research, not necessarily that more research incentives are

needed, but on what research recommends that funding would help to improve. According to *Teacher Trainers* limited funds prevented them from linking with high reputation scholars, “from inviting renowned guests, speakers or experts to help with designing the curriculum, textbooks, or workshop delivery”. Lack of funding makes teacher trainers “feel closed up from outside world”. The quality of the training is limited by funding: “not enough money, facilities, and human resources to focus on this area [internationalisation]”. *Principals* commented that too few schools in the province (4/100) were selected for additional funding. Better equipment helps attract foreign teachers and support students. *Teachers* saw funding as an issue when it comes to supporting the upgrade of their qualifications.

Community engagement

The national curriculum of Cambodia (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015) identifies numerous skills and capabilities that form the education framework of the country. At the centre of those is the concept of building a “full citizen”, a person able to be with people and contribute to the people. The skills they list as important to student development include critical thinking, communication and problem-solving skills, independence, cooperation, research and self-study. Stage 2 interviews interrogated all areas relevant to EFL education, which included, the research, curriculum, teaching, the students and the infrastructure. The higher order thinking skills identified in the curriculum were never mentioned by any of the stakeholder groups. It is as if EFL education came with its own learning objectives, obtained from traditions that remain unexplored but that continue to shape the perceived challenges of the stakeholders and their responses to those.

The area of community engagement has received the least comments. When addressed, it was largely interpreted as promoting English in the community and among the parents. *Policymakers* saw it to be the job of schools to attract students: “Teachers and principals have to promote and manage students’ interest in English”. *Principals* (and *Teachers*) agree that motivation depends on the family. Improving the general education of the community would assist here: “About 80% of students’ parents have little knowledge and do not know in detail about their child study and do not really value English” (*Principals*). *Principals* decided to establish a career committee to assist the community with better information about students’ options. *Teachers* noted that the use foreigners helps with motivation. They also want to connect with international communities, but they feel limited by their “English and ICT knowledge”.

Community engagement was never connected to the curriculum, teaching and training. Yet, as reported, the broader community of Cambodia had ambivalent feelings about English, especially, as reported, English is not a compulsory subject and is given a “low number of hours in senior schools” (Teachers). This is not a trivial area, as many connect with the sentiments expressed by Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (2017) and Kirkpatrick (2013), who point to the multiplicity of ethnic languages in the community and the challenges that this presents to EFL teaching and learning. However, as indicated by Barros, Domkem, Symons and Ponzio (2020), and discussed in Chapter 2, these characteristics are not typical of Asia only. They are also present in the U.S. and Australia, for example, where teacher trainers look for solutions, not discounting the value of foreign language-learning altogether. In a nutshell, there are countries with a similar demographic complexity and there are researchers, who recognise it and investigate methods for all students/children to benefit from education in the same ways as other students/children do. But this requires research, linking with scholars nationally and internationally, and drawing on the international funding that, according to ELT researchers is available for those issues.

5.3 Research Question 2: Institutional features

Question 2: What features of the schools and the institutions participating in the project emerged as helping or hindering the integration of the policies of English language learning into upper secondary schools in Cambodia.

The institutions participating in the study represented MoEYS, universities, and schools. In her research on the structure of teacher professional development, King (2017) described the education system as following Cambodia’s traditional hierarchical culture enshrined in the country’s values, such as harmony, conformity, and deference (p. 5). Ogisu (2018), also mentioned in Chapter 2, echoed those views. According to Ogisu (p. 769), the policy process of ETL and the structures within which stakeholder group operate to implement ELT policy goals, are “designed based on a highly centralised and bureaucratic ways of thinking”. According to Ogisu, those ways of enacting policy run counter to the idea of “transformation of knowledge that is to be introduced by ETL”. Rather, this idea of transformation is being communicated as using the methods of transmission, thus leaving little room for creativity and flexibility (p. 769).

While, Ogisu (2018) admits, “any education policy contains the aspect of transmission”, in Cambodia, the “cascade” process is set up specifically to reinforce these transmission aspects. This, in turn, strengthens the centralised educational bureaucracy in Cambodia while weakening the incentive for other stakeholders to engage in the policy creatively, critically and creatively. However, as King (2017) mentions, critical and creative engagement may be discouraged, because the general attitude of the institutions is “a risk-averse mentality” that, in King’s view, “hinders the introduction of educational innovations (p. 5). The new policy direction challenges everyone and all aspects of the system, as the “new mode is the antithesis of traditional teaching practices in Cambodia, where rote memorisation of the textbook has been dominant and highly valued” (Ogisu, 2018).

King also commented on the situation in schools, “It is estimated that of 28,000 teachers in 1970 only 7,000 remained in Cambodia in 1979; of those about 5,000 returned to teaching” (p. 5). In other words, a lot of knowledge capital was lost in the country and, with it, the history of the past trails and errors, on which every society and its social strata build. According to King (p. 5), today, schools are characterised by “low teacher salaries and the underfunding of education, although these are gradually being addressed”. Nonetheless, according to King, they continue to affect both “recruitment into the profession and teacher motivation” (p. 5). Situation is slightly better in upper secondary schools, which tend to be better equipped and have teachers with higher English skills (MoEYS, personal conversation).

In HEIs situation is complex. The Cambodian Institute for Cooperation and Peace (CICP) published its report on research in Cambodia (CICP, 2016). The statistics communicated in the report are staggering, “Cambodia ranks 106th out of 143 countries regarding levels of innovation. Moreover, the expenditure of the Cambodian government on research and development is minimal; 0.05% of the GDP was allocated to this cause between 2000 and 2010 (World Bank, 2013). The low levels of innovation is reflected in the low number of researcher in Cambodia. This number was determined to be 17 researchers per 1 million people between the year 2000 and 2010. Overall, Cambodian graduates lack technical skills and critical thinking and research at Cambodian universities remains mainly donor-driven (Kwok et al., 2010). While these statistics are from a few years back, nonetheless, they demonstrate the country’s challenges. Today, universities, especially public universities, encourage research. However, the salary of academics is tied up to the hours they teach and some feel that research will reduce their earning power. This requires a closer investigation, however, as mentioned

earlier in this chapter and Chapter 4, government grants are available and international grants are very generous. Furthermore, a significant number of ELT researchers has been trained overseas, meaning that expertise and talent are available, but need to be channeled through appropriate policies that match the national objectives.

5.4 Research Question 3: Implications of the study

Question 3: What are the broader implications of this study for building professional community capacity of English language educators in Cambodia? How, if at all, do the findings of the study enable key decision makers and other key stakeholders to formulate appropriate policy to optimise human and physical resources in educational contexts to provide for an equitable and well-resourced education in Cambodia?

The study began with the concern about the patterns of interactions that EFL stakeholders in Cambodia utilise to progress recent EFL education reforms. The study understood the complex heritage of the country and its losses. To regain its place in the regional and global economies, Cambodia needs to restore its capacity to mobilise its talents and expertise to address its pertinent issues and act in an informed. The study, and the conversations that it facilitated, revealed major gaps in the education system that prevent the country and its EFL stakeholders to overcome the conservative tendencies of the system that improvises to meet the ambitious goals of the ASEAN community, but does so by drawing on experiences that it knows best, and these revolve around a slow-moving traditional hierarchy that is pulled in a number of directions by local and international stakeholders, while also lacking a steady flow of expertise coming from its own EFL research community.

Research

It was found that Cambodia has its EFL research community, with some trained overseas and publishing. Cambodia also has had its own EFL journal, *LEiA*, that is now being replaced by the *Cambodian Education Forum* publication. Cambodian teachers and scholars reported on professional opportunities that they have had to experience overseas education models and frameworks. MoEYS reported on numerous education development projects that were being funded by World Bank and ADB (discussed in Chapter 1). These initiatives have taken place and continue, but are these experiences organised in the way that supports the country's EFL development plans? So far, to the author's knowledge, there has been no study in Cambodia

that would point to the EFL research community as not only critical to the success of the country's EFL education policies, but also responsible for it.

Back in 2003, a study by Neau delineated the EFL research agenda to support the country in its new policy changes. According to Neau, as indicated in Chapter 2, the new education reforms have challenged EFL stakeholders conceptually and culturally. Neau recommended for research to address not only pedagogical issues but do so by focusing on the conceptual and cultural influences interfere with change. It was demonstrated that, with some international exceptions, this direction has been largely ignored, and studies tended to choose subjects of their investigation that were unrelated to the national policies or the mission statements of their home universities. Concepts like transformational learning are barely present, and their implications for pedagogy are not investigated.

Policy recommendation:

As indicated by Burroway (2011), the traditional perception that universities exist for their own sake has long given way to the understanding that university lives in the community and community needs are not external to it. To put it simply, bad EFL teaching will result not only in few people having the command of English, but it will also reduce the need for EFL research. Experiences from the US show that this is already happening. Language teaching is frequently taught by “native speakers”, even at the university level, and, often, no research is required from those teachers. The belief is that teaching clearly is “no rocket science” and teachers can do small action research projects to improve their “techniques”.

As stated earlier, new reforms require policies that consolidate, not dilute, available research power of the country. It is therefore necessary that MoEYS review the strategies that they develop for their policies to succeed. Those strategies need to reward, support, and encourage studies that address the conceptual and cultural aspects of EFL teaching and learning, and that always have an eye on the policies, not the leading concepts of TESOL, which may have little relevance to the problems at hand faced by Cambodia. Transformative learning is also an objective of higher learning. Thus, the goals of both sectors are not far apart.

Teaching and training

The transformative education was not mentioned by any stakeholder group and no EFL researcher. Transformative dimension of modern curricula involves questioning how this

reflection process is being assisted by educators, what types of information do the students access and how they work with those (Elliott, 2004, p. 172). As stated by Elliott (p. 172) following Peters (1966), education is not “a neutral process that is instrumental to something that is worthwhile which is extrinsic to it”. Rather, it involves the transformation of a person’s way of seeing and being in the world in relation to him or herself and others, personally and professionally (Elliott, 2004, p. 173). The data collected by the present study and the research by Igawa (2008) demonstrated that teachers are keen to learn. However, the data has also showed that Cambodia lacks a broader strategy for EFL teacher education. Specifically, it lacks interaction conduits between the research/training community and schools. Professional learning of teachers is chaotic. MoEYS made no mention of any quality checks that are being applied to NGOs and other external stakeholders. Hence room is open for all kinds of ideas, while MoEYS does not know what is happening because no paperwork is involved necessitating information - in the form of substantive papers - illuminating the concept of transformative learning and how the different parties engage with teachers on this subject. The papers could have been then shared among other stakeholders to support further learning and impact. Transmission pedagogies are not only common in Cambodia; they are common everywhere. Hence, filtering mechanisms are needed to ensure that teachers are not given contradictory messages.

Policy recommendations

EFL teaching institutes in Cambodia should be integrated into the Schools of Education. This would give EFL scholars identity and a clear focus on policies. The strategy would also ensure that English teaching in those Schools models practices that are informed by the capabilities and values of the Cambodian national curriculum (Kingdom of Cambodia, 2015). The strategy of integrating the two, so far separate, departments would also enable the scholars to collaborate and leverage on each other expertise and funding. It would also require EFL scholars to teach education subjects, which would expand their expertise understanding of the learning process. Literacy and EFL studies would benefit from this link. Finally, the connection would also make it easier for EFL academics to build teams bidding for grants and to attract international partners.

Community engagement

Transformational education policies of Cambodia make sense exactly because they take education out of the classroom and into the community, for students to assess the relevance of

their beliefs in relation to the needs and values of others. The community-based approaches discussed in Chapter 2, especially the TNN project (Buranapatana, 2006), provided examples vindicating that the idea is not new, was borne out of research and the only reason it may not be translating into practice because research is not communicating these models to the education stakeholders in Cambodia. Study by Barros, Domkem, Symons and Ponzio (2020) was cited to illustrate that ideas are out there and need closer investigating. Concepts of student and teacher agency were introduced in Chapter 2 to demonstrate the many dimensions that transformative education addresses and that need to be integrated if transformative goals are to be achieved.

Policy Recommendations

Experimental, small scale projects need to be put in place, where Cambodian scholars learn slowly how to leave their comfort zone and observe the impact that new policies have on them, their students and the community. Investment in technology is critical for these innovations, as language demands are likely to be too high without ICT support. Once projects of this kind help build expertise in the ELT community, investments in textbooks can be shifted to technology. Textbooks can still be used as a resource, but as an auxiliary. Students need to learn to build their English literacy skills, not learn English as if it was a long list of grammar rules and vocabulary. Furthermore, community orientation will require leveraging on the literacy skills in the local languages and Khmer. Hence collaboration between literacy and English teachers will be necessary. This is likely to make teaching more enjoyable and its value to students more perceptible.

5.5 Study outcomes

The study confirmed the initial concerns raised by the World Bank indicating that appropriate integration of education into the community, adequate resourcing, and equitable access to education services for all continue to have a stagnating effect on education in Cambodia. However, the study also demonstrated that without local research, the capacity-building that MoEYS wants to develop is not happening and it is not going to happen. There is not enough manpower in the world to provide teachers with the ongoing support that they argue for. What is needed is better framing of teacher education, from within a perspective that construes the EFL teacher as community developer, rather than a person responsible for content and its delivery. For students to engage in community projects, schools need to be connected to the

community. In Australia, this role is performed by principals or people especially employed to facilitate relevant links. Research is needed to investigate support that is required for students to integrate their local community experiences into projects that increase their Khmer (or other) literacy skills while also learning English. Policy recommendations listed in the previous section addressed the structural changes that would immediately refocus EFL research on schools and contexts where transformative learning policies apply.

The present study uncovered a broad range of gaps in the system that need attention, especially from research. As Table 5.1 illustrated, there were many aspects of education that stakeholders had not addressed, and even more that need closer elaboration and investigation. The themes in Table 5.1 and all tables in Chapter 4 offer perspectives against which research can assess the relevance of its scope and frameworks. This would help counter the narrow focus of EFL studies currently practiced in Cambodia.

6 Conclusion and future directions

6.1 Summary of the study

The adoption of English as the working language of Southeast Asia has resulted in Cambodia issuing a directive for all primary and secondary students to learn English. While the directive is in step with the recent internationalisation policies of Cambodia, it is not clear what assumptions, needs and other factors help advance or hinder its realisation. To identify those, the present study engaged the ELT stakeholder community in perspective sharing, while also preserving the anonymity of the participants. The study focused on upper secondary schools in Cambodia as those schools prepare students for higher levels of learning, where knowledge of English is essential. Qualitative methods of inquiry were used. The study findings point strongly to a lack of leadership from the ELT research community. This leaves stakeholders at all levels of the system struggling and English language education compromising its transformative objectives and reverting to traditional models of knowledge transmission. The study uncovered a broad range of gaps in the system that need attention, especially from research, relevant to the success of the country's ELT policies.

The recommendations of the study focused on three areas identified as relevant to ELT policies: research, in-service and pre-service teacher training, and community engagement. In terms of research, it was noted that new reforms require policies that consolidate, not dilute, available research power of the country. It was recommended that MoEYS reviews its strategies relating to ELT research and its impact on progressing the transformative education goals of the country with respect to English language education.

In terms of teacher education, it was noted that the separation of ELT from education is rooted in tradition, which needs ending since a great bulk of EFL research related to ELT. Also, linguistics alone does not supply all perspectives needed to understand ELT. Other disciplines need to be accounted for, such as literacy, curriculum theory, philosophy of scientific method/thinking, and possibly other. It was recommended that EFL teaching and research institutes in Cambodia should be integrated into the Schools/Faculties of Education. This would give EFL scholars identity and a clear focus on policies. It would also enable education and ELT scholars to leverage on each other's strengths. The quality of teaching English would also

improve at the university and in schools, since ELT educators will be able to model modern practices, embedded in the policies of transformative learning.

In relation to community engagement, it was observed that ELT education constructs its approach to change by relying on traditional approaches that see language as content, living in texts, whose components need to be acquired by the students so they too can grow the ability to generate similar texts. While the nature of those components is being contested from one or another perspective, ELT education has failed thus far to locate language in the community and the reason (agency) for its use, and learning, to be for the community. It was recommended that ELT and education scholars engage in experimental projects, investigating alternatives to these traditional models. Such projects will begin to grow local expertise and history in transformative EFL learning and research. They will also be able to inform policymakers on resource investment, relevant teacher training, and workload allocation needed for students to engage in such projects.

6.2 Contribution of the study to the field of ELTE

Decades of neglect and political turmoil have left Cambodia with diminished cultural capital as countless people responsible for the transmission of cultural and educational heritage were murdered, all educational institutions were closed, and the traditional links between the different layers of the Cambodian society were broken. Today, Cambodia seeks to rebuild these connections and restore its capacity to participate in the regional and global economies as a valuable contributor. Some of the key hurdles in this objective, as identified by the World Bank (2017), include appropriate integration of education into the community, adequate resourcing, and equitable access to education services for all.

The present study confirmed the concerns raised by the World Bank, but it has also identified some gaps that, if addressed, can alleviate the ELT crisis currently experienced in Cambodia.

Appropriate integration of education into the community: On this point, the study advocated for a change in the way teachers are viewed by the system. Transformative education requires transformation of teacher identity, and student identity, as argued by Priestley and Biesta (2013). As discussed in Chapter 2, “agency doesn’t come from nowhere, but builds upon past achievements, understandings and patterns of action” (Priestley & Biesta, p. 5). In other words,

the ELT context does not create a new history for teachers and students to As Lian and Lor (2021) put it, “We are all traces of the conversations in which we have participated. The greater the range of our interactions, the more likely we are to reduce the distance between us”. Hence, the concept of teacher as community developer was proposed, with language learning being a tool for linking communities, not separating them. It is this increase in the interactions between the communities that is focal in transformative learning, not rule and vocabulary learning. This change of perspective on the job of the teacher, from content deliverer to community builder, opens novel opportunities for research and practice to the ELT field. This is a new concept in the literature and was arrived at in the process of data analysis.

Adequate resourcing: The study illuminated not only the voices commenting on the need for better resourcing, but it also demonstrated that the current focus on textbooks is only a half-measure that will not stop until sound advice is provided by the ELT research community and appropriate training is cultivated at the tertiary level. None of these are currently present, and teachers are pulled in different directions by the different stakeholders.

Equitable access to education services for all: From the perspective offered by the study and in relation to upper secondary schools, it became apparent that not all students choose English as elective and, even less students, attain the required competency. As teachers commented, primary schools fail to provide students with relevant foundations. However, the present study showed that “access”, meaning successful implementation of the English language policy, is limited due to educators conceptual and cultural biases and, more exactly, due to lack of research that would lift Cambodia from its current predicament. It was stated by Professor Joseph Stiglitz (2014) that the current improvement in the living standards experienced worldwide was due to Scottish intellectuals who believed that change is possible. This is the belief that needs to permeate the policies, research and implementation strategies in Cambodia for the English language policy to succeed at all levels, including upper secondary schools.

6.3 Limitations of the study

The study had numerous limitations. First, it did not engage members of the broader community. Stage 1 questionnaire may have not been the right tool for this purpose and Stage 2 was conducted during the explosion of COVID-19, which meant that the researcher had limited access to the community and time. Access to the community could have generated more

data from NGOs on the context of ELT and from different community members on how they see their own future and that of Cambodia and what role would English have it in.

The study worked with upper secondary school teachers, from four schools. The schools are in rural areas and heavily under-funded. This may have skewed some data but the literature review in Chapter 2 confirmed the general pattern that, even with better resourcing, the country is lacking expertise to argue for and to implement change.

The study also did not interview EFL students in the upper secondary schools. Perceptions of students would have enabled the study to reveal what they would like to see in their English classes, what resources they have at their disposal, and how in general they view the value English in their own lives.

The present study did not analyse all articles published in *LiEA*, as most were written from the perspective of the university and tended to have similar conceptual drawbacks, as articles discussed in Chapter 2. The point of Chapter 2 was to identify the pattern and the range of concerns that the literature raises.

Different tools for data collection would have provided the study with more insights regarding what is happening “on the ground”. However, it was decided that by focusing on stakeholders’ perspectives, the study would adopt a single lens, without introducing too many variables, which would then require closer analysis of the concepts that these variables would introduce.

6.4 Future directions

Just as Burroway (2011) argued for the transformation of the, the same is needed for schools, for research, training and schools to align in concepts and culture that they both practise and model. This is a very important area of research that, as suggested in the present study, engages many dimensions, but needs to be the project for Cambodia to follow.

While, culturally, Cambodia is said to be somewhat “stuck” in the tradition of transmission and repetition, conceptually, it would be difficult to defend the point that knowledge ever is “acquired”. As Lian and Lor (2021) put it, “Knowledge ... is always *transformed* by our experiences. That’s why there never is a “third place”. It is critical for the ELT research

community (including teacher trainers) to engage in profound reflection on the implications of the concept to ELT research and training. It is also important to involve other stakeholder groups in this reflective process, for all to contribute from the perspective of their practice and responsibilities.

Finally, pedagogy is not about inventing tricks, and the agenda of the teacher is not to inject content into the students, hoping it stays there. Part of the transformative agenda is to support reflective learning. This is a novel concept in education, especially in literacy and ELT. Currently, in many countries, methods of teaching are being mandated that do not necessarily involve reflection, despite the claims to which they purport. Mandating specific teaching methods destroys research and innovation, as everyone is required to be good at one thing only. Once innovation and critique are forbidden by well-meaning intentions, the dark ages return.

6.5 Final thoughts

The present study was possible, because the stakeholder groups who participated in the study, recognised the need for change that can come from informed and critical research. Cambodia is ready for change, but it needs direction that is consistent with the claims it makes at levels of the system, from policy to in-service training. The recommendations of the study are, in some way, radical for Cambodia, but, as the present study demonstrated, there is little progress to be expected from the *status quo*. As illustrated, the system appears to be locked in a set of assumptions that perpetuate the past. It was argued that educators need to organise themselves under a strong leadership that rewards initiatives that explore new possibilities, imagine new futures and implement visions that excite all stakeholders as they get involved in the shaping of those visions.

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8 Appendix

9 Stage 2 Interview questions

Table 9.1. Stage 2: Interview with Policymakers

Teacher training and support	Policy advocacy expanding access to funds (engage with and impact on policy)	Building stronger academic communities through interdisciplinary dialogue (critical)	Building expert community & relevant capital (PD)	Communication with the public
Teacher as curriculum developer and planner	Policymakers: Part of your responsibilities is to secure a policy direction for education. How is internationalisation present in those policies in relation to curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation? Be detailed.	Policymakers: Policy development is a multidisciplinary process. How is this interdisciplinary dialogue assisting you as a policymaker to better understand internationalisation in the context of policy development? Address this in relation to policies impacting on curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation?	Policymakers: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you as a policymaker better understand the impacts of internationalisation on education and, specifically, issues such as curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation?	Policymakers: How is communication with the broader community supported to facilitate a better understanding of the impact of internationalisation on the community? Address this in relation to policies impacting on curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation?
Teacher as resource	Policymakers: Part of your responsibilities is to secure a policy direction for education. How is teachers'	Policymakers: Understanding the impacts of new directions in policies is complex and requires	Policymakers: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you better understand	Policymakers: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate

	involvement in research supported by the policies?	engagement in a dialogue with a “critical community” of experts providing insights from different fields and angles. How is this critical dialogue enabled by you and/or your team to better understand the requirement for teacher involvement in research?	the need for teacher involvement in research?	the value of teacher involvement in research? What are your views on this?
Teacher quality	Policymakers: National competency-based teacher standards are being established all around the world. What specific policies and programs have been or are being developed to support teacher quality? What makes the policy good as opposed to being overbearing for teachers, schools and Teacher Training?	Policymakers: How do you engage in interdisciplinary “dialogues” to build a critical understanding of the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in Cambodia and teacher education in general?	Policymakers: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in Cambodia and teacher education in general?	Policymakers: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the relevance of the national teacher competency-based standards in Cambodia and teacher education in general? What are your views on this?
Student quality	Policymakers: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community.	Policymakers: Communicating English language policies to the community is complex and requires engagement with a community of “critical friends” to provide insights	Policymakers: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to communicate English language policies to the	Policymakers: What communication activities do you create or support secure students’ interest in English?

	What specific strategies or programs are supported by policies to ensure student interest in English?	from different fields and angles. What do you do to be part of such a community of “critical friends” to learn how best to secure students’ interest in English?	community and to secure students’ interest in English?	What are your views on this?
Infrastructure and resources	Policymakers: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community. Is Cambodia ready for this shift considering the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?	Policymakers: Reflecting on the impact of one’s own work is challenging and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including scholars from different disciplines, to approach this process critically. How do you engage in such interdisciplinary stakeholder “dialogues” to better understand your own impact on English teacher preparation? Address issues such as preparing teachers to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies.	Policymakers: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to prepare future teachers to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?	Policymakers: What communication activities with the broader community do you create or support to help teachers in coping with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies? What are your views on this?

Table 9.2. Stage 2: Interview with ELT Trainers

Teacher training and support	Policy advocacy expanding access to funds (engage with and impact on policy)	Building stronger academic communities through interdisciplinary dialogue (critical)	Building expert community & relevant capital (PD)	Communication with the public
Teacher as curriculum developer and planner	Teacher Trainers (TT): How do you account for internationalisation in your area of responsibility? Can you provide some examples from areas such as the curriculum, teaching principles, the planning of teaching, and in your own research?	TT: How do you support interdisciplinary dialogue relevant to internationalisation policies in your area of responsibility? Can you provide some examples from areas such as the curriculum, teaching principles, the planning of teaching, and in your own research?	TT: What professional development activities do you provide that address interdisciplinary policies? Can you provide some examples from areas such as the curriculum, teaching principles, the planning of teaching, and in your own research?	TT: What communication activities do you create with the broader community that demonstrate the value of the internationalisation policies of Cambodia? Can you provide some examples from areas such as the curriculum, teaching principles, the planning of teaching, and in your own research?
	MoEYS: Part of your responsibilities is to secure a policy direction for education. How is internationalisation present in those policies in relation to curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation? Be detailed.	MoEYS: Policy development is a multidisciplinary process. How is this interdisciplinary dialogue assisting you as a policymaker to better understand internationalisation in the context of policy development? Address this in relation to policies impacting on curriculum development,	MoEYS: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you as a policymaker better understand the impacts of internationalisation on education and, specifically, issues such as curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation?	MoEYS: How is communication with the broader community supported to facilitate a better understanding of the impact of internationalisation on the community? Address this in relation to policies impacting on curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation?

		curriculum planning and its implementation?		
	Principals: Part of your responsibilities is to secure policy direction for your school. How is internationalisation present in those policies in relation to curriculum development, planning and its implementation?	Principals: Securing policy direction is complex and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including academia, to approach this process critically. What measures do you undertake to engage in such critical and informed dialogue to better understand the impact of internationalisation on curriculum development, planning and its implementation in your school?	Principals: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you better understand the impacts of internationalisation on education and, specifically, issues such as curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation?	Principals: How is communication with the broader community supported by your school to facilitate a better understanding of the impact of internationalisation on the community? Identify communication activities relevant to areas such as curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation.
	Teachers: How do you account for internationalisation in your area of responsibility? Address this in relation to curriculum development, the teaching principles that you utilise and in your teaching plans.	Teachers: Curriculum development, planning and teaching are complex processes and require engagement with a community of “critical friends”, enabling you to better understand the impact of internationalisation on those aspects of your teaching. What do you do to be part of such a community of “critical friends”?	Teachers: Curriculum development and planning require an ongoing engagement in professional development activities. What professional development activities have you participated in that help you better understand the impact of internationalisation on curriculum development and planning, and teaching?	Teachers: How do you engage with the broader community to communicate the impacts of internationalisation policies on your areas of responsibility, such as curriculum development, the teaching principles that you utilise and in your teaching plans?

Teacher as resource	TT: International policies support engagement of research and the development of inquiry-skills in Teacher Training courses. How do you explicitly engage with this policy?	TT: Engagement of research and the development of inquiry-skills also require the ability to learn from and with scholars from different disciplines. How do you explicitly engage such interdisciplinary “dialogues” to build critical awareness and skills in your courses?	TT: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you integrate research and inquiry skills into teacher education programs?	TT: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the value of research and inquiry skills in teacher education programs? What are your views on this?
	MoEYS: Part of your responsibilities is to secure a policy direction for education. How is teachers’ involvement in research supported by the policies?	MoEYS: Understanding the impacts of new directions in policies is complex and requires engagement in a dialogue with a “critical community” of experts providing insights from different fields and angles. How is this critical dialogue enabled by you and/or your team to better understand the requirement for teacher involvement in research?	MoEYS: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you better understand the need for teacher involvement in research?	MoEYS: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the value of teacher involvement in research? What are your views on this?
	Principals: Part of your responsibilities is to secure a policy direction for your school. How is teachers’ involvement in research supported by these policies?	Principals: Understanding the impacts of new directions in school is complex and requires engagement in a dialogue with a “critical community” of experts providing insights from different fields and	Principals: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you better understand the concern for teacher involvement in research?	Principals: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the value of your teachers’ involvement in research? What are your views on this?

		angles. What measures do you undertake to engage in such critical and informed dialogue to better understand the requirement for teacher involvement in research?		
	Teachers: Have you been engaged in research that benefited your school, teaching, students and/or the school community? Identify the positives and the challenges.	Teachers: Engagement in research and the development of inquiry-skills also require the ability to learn from and with scholars from different disciplines. How do you explicitly engage such interdisciplinary “dialogues” to build critical awareness and skills relevant to your job?	TT: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you benefit from research and inquiry skills in your job?	TT: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the value of teachers drawing on research and their inquiry skills to teach English? What are your views on this?
Teacher quality	TT: National competency-based teacher standards are being established all around the world. What does this mean for Cambodia and for Teacher Education programs?	TT: How do you engage in interdisciplinary “dialogues” to build a critical understanding of the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in Cambodia and teacher education in general?	TT: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in Cambodia and teacher education in general?	TT: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the relevance of the national teacher competency-based standards in Cambodia and teacher education in general? What are your views on this?
	MoEYS: National competency-based teacher standards are being	MoEYS: How do you engage in interdisciplinary “dialogues” to build a critical	MoEYS: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you	MoEYS: What communication activities do you create with the broader

	<p>established all around the world. What specific policies and programs have been or are being developed to support teacher quality? What makes the policy good as opposed to being overbearing for teachers, schools and Teacher Training?</p>	<p>understanding of the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in Cambodia and teacher education in general?</p>	<p>understand better the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in Cambodia and teacher education in general?</p>	<p>community to demonstrate the relevance of the national teacher competency-based standards in Cambodia and teacher education in general? What are your views on this?</p>
	<p>Principals: National competency-based teacher standards are being established all around the world. What specific strategies do you have in place to respond to these standards?</p>	<p>Principals: Understanding the role of the National competency-based teacher standards is complex and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including academia, to approach this process critically.</p> <p>What measures do you undertake to engage in such critical and informed dialogue to better understand the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in your school?</p>	<p>Principals: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in your school?</p>	<p>Principals: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the relevance of the national teacher competency-based standards in your school? What are your views on this?</p>
	<p>Teachers: National competency-based teacher standards are being established all around the world. What does this mean</p>	<p>Teachers: Understanding the national competency-based teacher standards is complex and requires engagement with a community of “critical friends”. What do you do to</p>	<p>Teachers: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better the role that the national competency-based teacher</p>	<p>Teachers: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the value of the national teacher competency-based</p>

	to you in your teaching practice?	be part of such a community of “critical friends”?	standards play, or should play, in your practice?	standards in your practice? What are your views on this?
Student quality	TT: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community. What specific strategies are taught to pre-service teachers to secure students’ interest in English?	TT: How do you engage in interdisciplinary “dialogues” to better understand how to improve teachers’ ability to secure students’ interest in English?	TT: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to improve teachers’ ability to secure students’ interest in English?	TT: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to secure students’ interest in English? What are your views on this?
	MoEYS: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community. What specific strategies or programs are supported by policies to ensure student interest in English?	MoEYS: Communicating English language policies to the community is complex and requires engagement with a community of “critical friends” to provide insights from different fields and angles. What do you do to be part of such a community of “critical friends” to learn how best to secure students’ interest in English?	MoEYS: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to communicate English language policies to the community and to secure students’ interest in English?	MoEYS: What communication activities with the broader community do you create or support secure students’ interest in English? What are your views on this?
	Principals: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community	Principals: Communicating English language policies to the students is complex and requires engagement with a community of “critical friends” to provide insights from different fields and angles.	Principals: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to communicate English language policies to the community and teachers and	Principals: What communication activities with the broader community do you create or support secure students’ interest in English?

	What specific strategies do you have in place to secure students' interest in English?	What do you do to be part of such a community of "critical friends" to support your teachers in securing their students' interest in English?	to help them secure their students' interest in English?	What are your views on this?
	Teachers: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community What specific strategies do you engage to secure students' interest in English?	Teachers: Communicating the value of English language to your students is complex and requires engagement with a community of "critical friends" to provide insights from different fields and angles. What do you do to be part of such a community of "critical friends" to help you secure your students' interest in English?	Teachers: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to communicate the value of English language to your students?	Teachers: What communication activities with the broader community do you create to secure students' interest in English? What are your views on this?
Infrastructure and resources	TT: National policies promote English, as the language of ASEAN member community, across all education levels. How do education courses prepare future teachers to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?	TT: Reflecting on the impact of one's own work is challenging and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including scholars from different disciplines, to approach this process critically. How do you engage in such interdisciplinary stakeholder "dialogues" to better understand your own impact on English teacher preparation? Address issues such as preparing teachers to	TT: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to prepare future teachers to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?	TT: What communication activities with the broader community do you create to support teachers in coping with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies? What are your views on this?

		cope with the increasing infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies.		
	MoEYS: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community. Is Cambodia ready for this shift considering the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?	MoEYS: Reflecting on the impact of one's own work is challenging and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including scholars from different disciplines, to approach this process critically. How do you engage in such interdisciplinary stakeholder "dialogues" to better understand your own impact on English teacher preparation? Address issues such as preparing teachers to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies.	MoEYS: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to prepare future teachers to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?	MoEYS: What communication activities with the broader community do you create or support to help teachers in coping with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies? What are your views on this?
	Principals: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community. Is your school ready for this shift considering its infrastructure and resources?	Principals: Reflecting on the impact of one's own work is challenging and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including scholars from different disciplines, to approach this process critically. How do you engage in such a critical "dialogue" to better	Principals: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to support your English teachers to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?	Principals: What communication activities with the broader community do you create or support to help your teachers in coping with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies? What are your views on this?

		<p>understand your own impact on the school and its capacity to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?</p>		
	<p>Teachers: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community. How do you feel prepared to cope with the increasing infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?</p>	<p>Teachers: Reflecting on the impact of one's own work is challenging and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including scholars from different disciplines, to approach this process critically. How do you engage in such a critical "dialogue" to better understand your own impact on the students and your ability to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?</p>	<p>Teachers: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?</p>	<p>Teachers: What communication activities with the broader community do you create or support to help you cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies? What are your views on this?</p>

Table 9.3. Stage 2: Interview with Principals

Teacher training and support	Policy advocacy expanding access to funds (engage with and impact on policy)	Building stronger academic communities through interdisciplinary dialogue (critical)	Building expert community & relevant capital (PD)	Communication with the public
Teacher as curriculum developer and planner	Principals: Part of your responsibilities is to secure policy direction for your school. How is internationalisation present in those policies in relation to curriculum development, planning and its implementation?	Principals: Securing policy direction is complex and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including academia, to approach this process critically. What measures do you undertake to engage in such critical and informed dialogue to better understand the impact of internationalisation on curriculum development, planning and its implementation in your school?	Principals: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you better understand the impacts of internationalisation on education and, specifically, issues such as curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation?	Principals: How is communication with the broader community supported by your school to facilitate a better understanding of the impact of internationalisation on the community? Identify communication activities relevant to areas such as curriculum development, curriculum planning and its implementation.
Teacher as resource	Principals: Part of your responsibilities is to secure a policy direction for your school. How is teachers' involvement in research supported by these policies?	Principals: Understanding the impacts of new directions in school is complex and requires engagement in a dialogue with a "critical community" of experts providing insights from different fields and	Principals: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you better understand the concern for teacher involvement in research?	Principals: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the value of your teachers' involvement in research? What are your views on this?

		angles. What measures do you undertake to engage in such critical and informed dialogue to better understand the requirement for teacher involvement in research?		
Teacher quality	Principals: National competency-based teacher standards are being established all around the world. What specific strategies do you have in place to respond to these standards?	Principals: Understanding the role of the National competency-based teacher standards is complex and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including academia, to approach this process critically. What measures do you undertake to engage in such critical and informed dialogue to better understand the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in your school?	Principals: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play in your school?	Principals: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the relevance of the national teacher competency-based standards in your school? What are your views on this?
Student quality	Principals: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community	Principals: Communicating English language policies to the students is complex and requires engagement with a community of “critical friends” to provide insights from different fields and angles.	Principals: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to communicate English language policies to the community and teachers and	Principals: What communication activities with the broader community do you create or support secure students’ interest in English?

	What specific strategies do you have in place to secure students' interest in English?	What do you do to be part of such a community of “critical friends” to support your teachers in securing their students' interest in English?	to help them secure their students' interest in English?	What are your views on this?
Infrastructure and resources	Principals: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community Is your school ready for this shift considering its infrastructure and resources?	Principals: Reflecting on the impact of one's own work is challenging and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including scholars from different disciplines, to approach this process critically. How do you engage in such a critical “dialogue” to better understand your own impact on the school and its capacity to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?	Principals: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to support your English teachers to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?	Principals: What communication activities with the broader community do you create or support to help your teachers in coping with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies? What are your views on this?

Table 9.4. Stage 2: Interview with Teachers

Teacher training and support	Policy advocacy expanding access to funds (engage with and impact on policy)	Building stronger academic communities through interdisciplinary dialogue (critical)	Building expert community & relevant capital (PD)	Communication with the public
Teacher as curriculum developer and planner	Teachers: How do you account for internationalisation in your area of responsibility? Address this in relation to curriculum development and the teaching principles that you utilise in your teaching plans.	Teachers: Curriculum development, planning and teaching are complex processes and require engagement with a community of “critical friends”, enabling you to better understand the impact of internationalisation on those aspects of your teaching. What do you do to be part of such a community of “critical friends”?	Teachers: Curriculum development and planning require an ongoing engagement in professional development activities. What professional development activities have you participated in that helped you better understand the impact of internationalisation on curriculum development and planning, and teaching?	Teachers: How do you engage with the broader community to communicate the impacts of internationalisation policies on your areas of responsibility, such as curriculum development, the teaching principles that you utilise and in your teaching plans?
Teacher as resource	Teachers: Have you been engaged in research that benefited your school, teaching, students and/or the school community? Identify the positives and the challenges.	Teachers: Engagement in research and the development of inquiry-skills also require the ability to learn from and with scholars from different disciplines. How do you explicitly engage such interdisciplinary “dialogues” to build critical awareness	TT: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you benefit from research and inquiry skills in your job?	TT: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the value of teachers drawing on research and their inquiry skills to teach English? What are your views on this?

		and skills relevant to your job?		
Teacher quality	Teachers: National competency-based teacher standards are being established all around the world. What does this mean to you in your teaching practice?	Teachers: Understanding the national competency-based teacher standards is complex and requires engagement with a community of “critical friends”. What do you do to be part of such a community of “critical friends”?	Teachers: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better the role that the national competency-based teacher standards play, or should play, in your practice?	Teachers: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to demonstrate the value of the national teacher competency-based standards in your practice? What are your views on this?
Student quality	Teachers: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community. What specific strategies do you engage to secure students’ interest in English?	Teachers: Communicating the value of English language to your students is complex and requires engagement with a community of “critical friends” to provide insights from different fields and angles. What do you do to be part of such a community of “critical friends” to help you secure your students’ interest in English?	Teachers: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to communicate the value of English language to your students?	Teachers: What communication activities do you create with the broader community to secure students’ interest in English? What are your views on this?
Infrastructure and resources	Teachers: National policies promote English education across all education levels as the language of ASEAN member community.	Teachers: Reflecting on the impact of one’s own work is challenging and requires engagement of a broader network of stakeholders, including scholars from	Teachers: What professional development activities do you engage in to help you understand better how to cope with the infrastructure	Teachers: What communication activities do you create or support to help you cope with the infrastructure and resource

	<p>How do you feel prepared to cope with the increasing infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?</p>	<p>different disciplines, to approach this process critically. How do you engage in such a critical “dialogue” to better understand your own impact on the students and your ability to cope with the infrastructure and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?</p>	<p>and resource pressures exacerbated by the new policies?</p>	<p>pressures exacerbated by the new policies? What are your views on this?</p>
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