Are Teachers Willing to Change? Teachers’ Beliefs About Practice Change in Vietnam

Thi-Gam Phan, National Dong Hwa University, Taiwan
Wei-Yu Liu, National Dong Hwa University, Taiwan

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Abstract
Teacher belief is an essential element that guide teachers to deal with challenges in teaching, shape the classroom environment, and influence student’s motivation and in-class achievement. However, teacher belief may be influenced by various factors inside and outside of classroom, particularly the pressure that makes them comply with their colleagues, with curriculum, and with student performances. Teacher beliefs may be also shaped and changed contextually which lead to an incomplete portraits of teacher beliefs, particularly regarding to their classroom practice in different levels of teachers. Thus, this qualitative study aims to explore how teachers’ beliefs are constructed in the Vietnamese context. Five participants include three in-service teachers and two pre-service teachers across disciplines and school levels in Vietnam with different stages of experiences. The analysis of semi-structured interviews investigated the Vietnamese teachers’ beliefs based on differences between pre-service and in-service teachers through five case studies. Findings revealed that levels of instruction and differences in experiences and school types influenced how participants conducted their classroom practices and their outcome emphasis, students’ engagement or students’ academic performance. Moreover, the findings also highlighted factors contributing to participants’ practice changes, mainly their strong beliefs in the relationship between theory-practice and “achievement syndrome.” The study provides some suggestions concerning the influences of social and political factors inside classrooms.

Keywords: Teachers’ Beliefs, Practice Change, In-Service Teachers, Pre-service Teachers, Vietnam
Introduction

Teachers play crucial roles in the whole education system as enactors of practice (Fullan, 2003). Teachers’ beliefs directly guide their management of teaching challenges, shape the classroom environments, influence students’ motivation, achievement, and development (Li, 2012), and even impact students’ beliefs (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017). Thus, understanding teachers’ beliefs greatly improves teachers’ training and practice (Pajares, 1992; McCarty et al., 2001). Teachers’ practice development occurs across different stages over years, first focusing on themselves and then moving to students (Hargreaves, 2005). Teacher belief also can be influenced by various factors such as colleague peer-pressure, curriculum standards, and student performances (Pelletier et al., 2002). For example, pre-service teachers tend to believe that education is telling information and encouraging students, rather than purposefully guiding students’ learning.

Despite efforts to research teachers’ beliefs, an incomplete portrait remains because the teacher’s context shapes the teacher’s beliefs (Mansour, 2009), particularly teachers’ classroom level (Fives & Buehl, 2012). In Vietnam, the government leads the administrative structure, policy making, and implementation of K-12 education, although a multi-tiered system provides some autonomy for local governments (Le, 2009). However, institutional pressures for ‘performance’ from the ministries do not allow teachers to have autonomy, thus influencing a lack of autonomy in classroom practices (Rust, 1994; Pelletier et al., 2002). For example, curriculum and textbooks have remained under the control and regulation of the Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) (UNESCO, 2017). In 2019, MOET approved maintaining the standardized curriculum with multiple textbooks that teachers and learners could select from; yet schools still decided on the textbooks for the teachers. Such external factors make teachers’ professional knowledge, beliefs, and vision remain rather stable and resistant to change (Meschede et al., 2017; Samfira, 2019).

Some studies in Vietnam have explored teachers’ beliefs (e.g., Nguyen et al., 2019) or provided interventions to improve teacher training (e.g., Vu, 2020). Yet no study paid particular attention or attributed beliefs in the context of Vietnam’s political system and communities. Thus, this study aims to explore the formation of different teachers’ beliefs that form between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers, revealing how teachers constructed their beliefs regarding classroom practice. The study provides some suggestions concerning the influences of social and political factors inside classrooms. The following research questions guided this study:

1. How do pre-service and in-service teachers construct their beliefs about classroom practice in Vietnam?
2. How do teachers change their practice?

Literature Review

Teacher belief

Teachers’ belief is a complicated and challenging to define concept in educational research (Pajares, 1992). Dewey described that teachers’ beliefs consisted of two fundamental components: traditional and progressive beliefs possessing contradictory ideas. However, Dewey’s definition could not address the nuances of teachers’ beliefs and overly simplified a complex concept (Bunting, 1984). Previous studies exhibited that individual belief could be
presented in a belief system with interactive components (Pajares, 1992, Mansour, 2009). Beliefs may be presented in self-beliefs (self-concepts and self-efficacy), beliefs about personal knowledge, motivation, and the nature of intelligence (Pajares, 1992). Kagan (1992) included teachers’ professional knowledge into their belief systems. Similarly, Mansour (2009) emphasized the interaction between knowledge and beliefs, where beliefs drive teachers’ decisions on how they attain knowledge; this attained knowledge influences beliefs. Teachers’ beliefs act as “…an information organizer and priority categorizer, and in turn control the way it could be used” (Mansour, 2009, p.4).

Teachers’ beliefs tend to be situated in classroom practice relating to students. Pajares (1992) believed that teachers’ beliefs identify and relate with “…their work, their students, their subject matter and their roles and responsibilities” (p.9). Previous studies stated teachers’ beliefs possess a multidimensional trait (Wehling & Charters, 1969; Bunting, 1984; Pajares, 1992, Mansour, 2009). Bunting (1984) highlighted teachers’ beliefs organize into four main factors which define teacher’s praxis: affective, cognitive, directive, and interpretive. Wehling and Charters (1969) proposed eight divergent dimensions of teachers’ beliefs, addressing teachers’ commitment to their goals and their instructional beliefs of how teachers manage their classroom and construct teacher-student relationships: (1) subject-matter emphasis, (2) personal adjustment ideology, (3) student autonomy vs. teacher direction, (4) emotional disengagement, (5) consideration of student viewpoint, (6) classroom order, (7) students challenge, (8) integrative learning.

Pre-service teachers and in-service teachers’ beliefs in relation to changing practice

Teachers develop their beliefs from past learning and contextual understanding, which shapes their approach to solving problems (Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008; Erkmen, 2012). Thus, there may be differences in belief between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers. Pre-service teachers hold a set of beliefs during their training shaped more by how they were taught rather than knowledge learned during in-service training programs Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008). Pre-service teachers emphasize more affective factors than cognitive factors, demonstrating their self-serving bias of the attributes in their effective teaching (Pajares, 1992). A review by Mansour (2009) noted that pre-service teachers tend to focus more on maintaining discipline and providing activity guidance due to a feeling of being unprepared in classroom management (Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008).

Inexperienced teachers might hold unrealistic expectations regarding classroom management and goal setting with their students (Martin & Baldwin, 1996). Pre-service teachers may believe they will not face the challenges other teachers faced and can successfully execute their own method of teaching (Pajares, 1992). However, pre-service teachers often struggle with classroom management, resorting to an overt reliance on teacher control as a survival skill to keep their students on track (Martin & Baldwin, 1996). Although it is essential to consider teachers’ personalities, pre-service teachers with low conscientiousness and high openness may concentrate on disciplinary classroom techniques (Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008).

Meanwhile, experienced or in-service teachers presented better instructional management and communication with their students due to their less-controlling methods; they can provide a more suitable psychological environment for their students (Martin & Baldwin, 1996). In a recent study, pre-service teachers noted that their effective teaching mainly reflected their own teachings, such as being well-behaved, enthusiastic, and fair (Tajeddin & Alemi, 2019).
Conversely, in-service teachers focused more on criteria directly related to their students, such as a positive and energetic classroom climate, students' needs, motivation, and management skills (Tajeddin & Alemi, 2019). However, both in-service teachers and pre-service teachers possess stable structures of professional vision and belief, implying they consistently hold their respective beliefs regarding practice (Meschede et al., 2017). Despite adulthood beliefs’ rarely changing, researchers have described teachers’ beliefs as a developmental concept from learning and teaching (e.g., Pajares, 1992). Teachers’ beliefs may exhibit differences over the years due to interactions with factors in their working environment, chiefly their interactions with students (Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008; Erkmen, 2012).

Previous studies noted that teachers’ beliefs establish a precedent for teachers’ practice (e.g., Pajares, 1992; Buehl & Beck, 2015). Teachers’ beliefs about the subject matter directly influence their teaching strategies, classroom behaviors, and perception of students’ abilities (Kuzborska, 2011). Teachers’ beliefs may function as information organizers which drive teachers’ practice (Mansour, 2009). Teachers’ beliefs and practices are context-dependent, in the “nested social context” (Mansour, 2009). Although teachers’ beliefs may seldom change (Mansour, 2009 p.37), professional growth for novice teachers and the classroom reality will challenge their initial beliefs. Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) proposed six reasons teachers’ beliefs may change: (1) training, (2) adaption, (3) personal development, (4) local reform, (5) systemic restructuring, and (6) professional growth. Richardson (1990) focused on individual drivers: (1) teacher autonomy, referring to teachers’ autonomous decision to select appropriate, and (2) learning to teach, indicating teachers’ cognition and beliefs. However, teachers need years to change based on their ages and career experiences (Hargreaves, 2005).

This study will explore how teachers constructed their beliefs by looking at the perception development of practice changes in pre-service teachers' and in-service teachers' beliefs to understand how teachers shape their classroom practice under the social and political factors of the Vietnam context.

**Methodology**

**Participants**

This study utilizes qualitative data derived from semi-structured interviews with participants. The author invited teachers via network connections to participate in this study. The participants include three in-service female teachers and two pre-service female teachers across disciplines and school levels in Vietnam. In-service teacher participants are either working in public schools or semi-public schools under the MOET guidance of teaching and curriculum. Pre-service teacher participants are looking for an official position as a teacher. Thus, their school type and teacher type are unidentified. The pre-service teacher participants’ discipline remains unidentified because elementary teachers tend to teach most subject matters. The author wanted to interview those who are (1) pre-service teachers who finished their training and had little experience in the classroom to compare beliefs and practices learned in teacher education to (2) in-service teachers who have been teaching for at least five years as they can provide more detailed information on how the reality of the classroom has altered their beliefs.
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Table 1: Participants Demographics

Data collection

Participants were contacted and provided the necessary information to consent to participate in the study. Anonymity was guaranteed, and participants’ real names were not revealed. The first author, a Vietnamese national, is studying in Taiwan; thus, the interviews were conducted through Zoom in the Vietnamese language and lasted one hour on average. The interviews were video-recorded and transcribed. The researcher conducted an in-depth and semi-structured interview with the following questions:

1. Can you describe what is considered as effective teaching in your classroom?
2. What factors influence your teaching?
3. In what conditions will you change your practice?
4. What do you expect from your teaching? And your students?

Analyzing the Data

After transcribing the interviews, the interviewer sent the scripts back to the participants to ensure the internal reliability of the data (Merriam and Tisdell, 2019). The authors used conventional content analysis to identify the key categories, contextual and draw meaning from the teachers’ responses (Bazeley, 2013; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Merriam & Tisdell, 2019). The researchers analyzed the data following Merriam and Tisdell’s (2019) five steps of procedural guideline to maintain analytical focus on the research questions: (1) categorizing and identifying the valuable data, (2) sorting categories, (3) naming the categories, (4) merging the categories, and (5) becoming more theoretical. After identifying data fragments related to the purpose of the study, the researchers sorted and categorized those data, then merged them into main themes.

Findings

1. How do pre-service and in-service teachers construct their beliefs about practice changes in Vietnam?

The participants in this study showed differences in years of experience, level of instruction, and school type (semi-public and public schools); differences which influence their
classroom practices and outcome emphasis. The teachers emphasized that student engagement, whether students enjoyed the classroom, or students’ academic performance shaped their beliefs regarding goal-making in classroom practices.

**Levels of instruction**

The most remarkable difference appears between elementary and high school teacher participants, regardless whether they are in-service teachers or pre-service teachers. Elementary teacher participants focused on how students engage in their learning, implementing activities to encourage student involvement in their classroom practice. For example, Lien repeatedly expresses that “student engagement” will be the decisive factor, implying teachers should be the ones to design activities to engage students in the classroom, “…students feel engaged with my teaching, they actively participate in classroom activities, presenting 80% of successful classroom…In the story-telling class, I usually ask them to role-play to draw their attraction and engagement… I implement games and some group work activities as well.”

The score policy can explain this practice in elementary schools, which may lead to a different teaching focus. Huong accentuated that elementary students need a summative assessment and teachers’ evaluation for their whole process, including their academic performance and learning attitude, “I no longer score them [my students] ….” According to Huong’s testimony, assessment policy in elementary school is “flexible” when teachers can base their daily evaluation on students compared to their summative test results. If students cannot perform in examinations as well as in the classroom, teachers can reevaluate them. Elementary teacher participants exhibited autonomy in their classrooms, opting for education without test pressure or focus primarily on students’ performance outcomes.

Meanwhile, high-school teacher participants, both pre-service and in-service teachers, focused on students’ academic performance, especially testing. An shared that, “No matter whether students like my subject, English is a required subject, thus, students need to acquire some basic ideas of the course, and they can do the test.” In a similar way, Linh, an in-service High School Math teacher, described her classroom practice, “I will repeat the important lesson multiple times. And I just required them to understand the lesson to achieve 5 points [out of 10].”

**Years of experience**

The findings showed that participants’ policies adapted along with their years of experience. Pre-service teachers (Lien and An), and in-service teachers (Linh, Huong, and Nguyet), displayed different attitudes towards policy compliance in their classroom practice. When asked to describe their classroom practice, pre-service teacher participants emphasized their teaching methods to engage students in the lessons. Pre-service teacher participants expected their students to achieve “deep learning,” “real-life practice,” “happy to learn,” “identify individual preferences,” and “select an appropriate level of task difficulty.” Pre-service teacher participants displayed indifference between their classroom practice and policy compliance. An even shared, “If students do not meet my requirements in class, I can punish them or fail them…parent-related issues will be the school’s things, not mine.”

On the contrary, in-service teacher participants emphasized, “…the principal’s requirement, which ensures students pass the national exams” or following “…the registered goal at the
beginning of the semester.” In-service teacher Participants seem to comply with the requirements or policies in their way. High-school teacher Participants, Nguyet and Linh, particularly emphasized this as their students face national exams which directly impact the school’s reputation. A typical example is Nguyet, who has been teaching for 18 years, adjusting her classroom policies to ensure her students achieve the required performance to meet “the registered goals.”

I have different requirements for types of students, like social or natural classes. And my subject is also not required for all students [for national exams], and even students and parents only focus on their needed subjects… For some students, I just required them to take note of what I wrote on the board and keep silent in my class; they did not even need to do homework. [Formative] tests are open-book tests, meaning they need to find what they took note of before and put it into their test paper…

In-service teacher participants tended to set up more “flexible” content goals and classroom rules as they were aware of students’ diversity in learning ability and styles in their classrooms. The more experienced teachers become more flexible in their scoring and assignments for students, particularly low-achieving students.

Type of school: Semi-public vs Public schools

There is only one participant, Linh, an in-service teacher participant working in a semi-public high school; high-schools in Vietnam which have low reputations and low-performing students. Thus, parents or the school administrative board do not pressure Linh to ensure students achieve high scores. Students in semi-public high schools simply aim to pass the national exams and obtain a high-school diploma. Linh gave her students “manageable tests” and the ability to “retest” if their performance was low. Comparatively in public schools, students aim for acceptance to a university. Thus, by helping students weak in certain areas within the public high schools, as, “… some of them [students] have nothing [related to Chemistry] in their head…”, Nguyet demonstrated a strategy in formative tests to improve her students’ summative test results.

Overall, external factors guided participants’ classroom practice. Notably, in-service teacher participants displayed “flexibility to assessment,” “situational adaption,” and “sensitivity to policy change” in classroom practice as a result of confronting more variations of policies and classroom situations.

2. How do the teachers change their practice?

The findings signified pre-service teachers are more willing to change their practice due to a lack of experience, exposure to students and exposure to governmental policies. In-service teacher participants (Lien and An) mostly focused on students and the classroom scale. Thus, pre-service teachers are comparatively less aware of external factors influencing their teaching while the in-service teacher participants (Linh, Huong, and Nguyet) are under pressure to change in accordance with the 2018 Educational Reform in Vietnam. This section mainly focusses on how in-service teacher participants change their practice.
Teacher training’s gap between theory-practice

To meet the goal of the 2018 Educational Reform in Vietnam, the in-service participants had to participate in training courses for new curriculum implementation, which emphasizes new textbooks and diverse teaching methods in the classroom. Experienced participants remarked on some “interesting” and “employable” methods for their students, exhibiting their positive opinion toward the change. Conversely, Nguyet, the most veteran participant, assumed that training courses did not help her with new curriculum adaption, “I just showed up there, they [Department of Education and Training] required me to listen to the video, okay, I turned it on and did other stuff.” Results show two categories towards change: refusal or adjustment. However, participants preferred lecturing rather than using interactive teaching in their classroom.

For example, Nguyet reflected she refused to use the new methods due to class size, students’ characteristics, amount of content, time limit, and her goal of emphasizing more content:

That stuff [the training courses] comes purely from theory. If you want to employ a new method, and students are not willing to cooperate, you cannot do anything; even those methods seem good, but whether it is fit the context… Students are not autonomous enough to do those activities [new methods]; they prefer doing cram schools.

Linh and Huong, younger but experienced participants, tried to make students learn according to the new teaching methods, but they were afraid students would be bored when they used the same activities. Huong shared, “I usually let my students do 2-3 activities in the classroom, but each activity just last for 3-4 minutes, really simple like pair-check. I also have to catch up with the curriculum.” Linh assumed that new teaching methods [technology-integrated] could motivate her students, but due to “content focus.” Her designed activities, “watching a video,” “playing games”, were usually irrelevant to the content goals and just for students’ fun. She would rather focus on content than engaging activities, what she called “lesson appearance.”

Moreover, in-service participants implied implementing new teaching method is more “time-consuming” than lecturing due to their responsibility for administrative work outside the classroom, referring to teacher assessments that directly influenced participants’ performance in work places, “regular report, document checking, four times a year, lesson plans, student application, all kinds of meetings, those are school levels”, Linh said.

“Achievement syndrome” constraints in-service teachers

As mentioned, in-service participants need to respond to policy change, but policy changes imply “performance syndrome,” the administration pressuring teachers for improved student performance. Participants must meet new goals with different strategies to make students perform better on exams, or to make students’ academic transcript look more “beautiful” for higher school reputation.

Participants emphasized “content objectives” to achieve higher test scores. Nguyet believed that this change was unhelpful because “…it [the new textbook] is such a waste…”, and implied she preferred the old textbook, which focused more on “content” with no extra activities, because she just updated content every year instead of teaching techniques or
student-related issues “I am not like other teachers; I always update what types of exam questions for students every year.” Other participants also implied their content focus which was “lesson objectives” and “basic knowledge” for students to achieve high test performance. Nguyet said, “I just want to have a new textbook and decide which content I should teach my students...”

In-service participants believed that they worked to achieve multiple performance goals. As an elementary school teacher, Huong needed to achieve the “registered goal” only, but high-school teachers need to achieve goals for the principal’s requirements, parents’ pride for their children, and teachers’ empathy for students’ future (i.e., university entrance exams). Linh shared that her principal required her to make students achieve 7.2 [out of 10] because, “when students achieve this threshold, they just need 4-5 [out of 10] to pass the national exams…but usually my students just achieve a 2-3 [out of 10] …so I have to retest them with manageable test content to make their academic transcripts look better.”

Nguyet, the veteran teacher, made a comparison of students’ title rates between 5 years ago and now:

...you know, students with distinction grades are so common, for example, 51 students in a class, only 4 couldn’t get that title [distinctive student], which means 90% of students can get that...comparing to just 5 years ago, only 10% of students could get that title [distinctive student].

She explained that students need to have “beautiful” transcripts to apply for high-ranking universities as parents also asked teachers for help to make their children’s future easy. Nguyet also assumed that the “other school will do the same”; therefore, “it will be more equal if my students can get the same benefits as other schools’ students.”

Overall, pre-service participants tend to change their practice inside classrooms; in-service participants, on the other hand, tend to adapt to the policy which influences their practice, specifically, participants’ grading and testing plan.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

This study addressed how teachers constructed beliefs influence teachers’ practice in the Vietnamese context. Although this study aligns with previous research on teachers’ beliefs regarding practice, it is specifically for the Vietnamese-context teachers; therefore, this research contributes to the literature by investigating teachers’ beliefs in a regional social and political context (Mansour, 2009).

Congruent with the literature, teachers’ beliefs may develop differently over years (Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008; Erkmen, 2012). Due to a lack of classroom experience, pre-service teachers hold unrealistic expectations of their designated goals for their students (Martin & Baldwin, 1996). The literature noted that in-service teachers focused more on students’ needs, motivation, and management skills, while pre-service teachers reflected more on their teaching (Tajeddin & Alemi, 2019). However, the findings showed the contrary occurs in the Vietnamese context, as participants displayed that pre-service participants tend to focus more on students’ motivation, engagement, and student needs than in-service participants. In-service participants in this study seemingly appear to be “policy executors” whose teaching focused on how to “balance” students’ performance to meet the “registered goals.”
Participants also suggest problems with administrative work, classroom management, distraction by various activities, and curriculum scheduling prevented changes to their classroom practice.

Pre-service participants presented heightened willingness to change to fill the experience gaps compared to in-service participants. Pre-service participants hold more favorable views on adapting new teaching methods compared to in-service participants. The findings also suggest in-service participants’ personal goals interacted with the current policy, school’s managerial board needs, and parents’ need, which demand for a display of “beautiful images” of education in Vietnam, that is “achievement syndrome.”

Student performance has emerged as an influential factor in teacher practices, chiefly in how teachers form their perception of student performance to construct the classroom policy in reaction to meta-policy change. The findings indicated that participants' beliefs were heavily influenced by social norms, particularly in-service experienced participants. "Achievement syndrome" – when teachers focus on examinations as tied to their student future careers (UNESCO, 2017) – directly constrains the in-service participants' perceptions of their students. Participants had to deal with pressure from parents, school leaders, and the local government - who largely invent and fictionalize their district's schools' reputation - limiting participants' opportunities to change their practice. The findings also revealed that due to the tight connection between teachers' and students' performance, experienced participants maintain their beliefs in content-focus lectures to ensure students score highly on tests.

Moreover, this study found that different levels of “achievement syndrome” occur between elementary and high school participants due to the grading policy. Elementary participants tended to emphasize “student engagement” and “content focus,” while high school participants focused on teaching the exam content. High school students’ performance will be counted as a criterion for university entrance admission. However, due to the authority of scoring and the pressure of “achievement syndrome” from the local government, high school participants demonstrated their practices of “formative tests” as “assisting their students to become successful.”, which is contrary to previous studies, policymakers should consider putting more weight on the formative assessment, which evaluates students’ working process (Purves, 1992). The findings herein raised inquiries about testing systems and political elements influencing the school system and classrooms.

Overall, it seems that social norms and political elements largely influence teachers’ beliefs, constructing teachers’ practice. Despite their consideration of relevance to students’ future careers, participants seem to take notice more of their performance to school and to the public than students. This study focuses on only five case studies, and a lack of gender diversity but exhibits the difference of educational policy influencing elementary and high school levels, thus urging the government offices to consider policy influences, particularly testing and scoring systems.

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**Contact email:** phangamk57@gmail.com