

Teaching through Political Crisis in Myanmar: ELT Teachers' Challenges, Well-being, and Adaptive Strategies

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Abstract

This study examined how English language teachers in Myanmar continued teaching after the February 2021 military coup, focusing on (1) teachers' challenges in teaching practice, well-being, and resource access and (2) their adaptive strategies for maintaining continuity. The study adopted a critical realist stance and used reflexive thematic analysis, drawing on in-depth semi-structured interviews with six English language teachers who continued teaching Myanmar learners during the post-coup period. The interviews were conducted in Burmese via online platforms and translated into English by the first author. Findings across four themes showed that English language teaching was organized around structural precarity. Teachers worked under infrastructural instability amid blackouts, weak connectivity, and fragile platforms; experienced intertwined emotional and professional insecurity, including financial strain, safety anxieties, and witnessing student harm; and depended on fragile, informally mediated access to materials, devices, and opportunities. In response, they re-engineered pedagogy around interruption through flexible scheduling, multi-channel delivery, semi-asynchronous scaffolds, and targeted engagement strategies while also building informal support ecologies through peer networks and alumni groups. The study offers a practice-proximal account of ELT in a protracted post-coup crisis and shows that continuity depends on teachers' under-recognized infrastructural, pedagogical, emotional, advisory, and networked labor under highly constrained political and economic conditions.

Keywords: *English Language Teaching, Teacher Well-being, Crisis Teaching, Reflexive Thematic Analysis, Myanmar*

1. Introduction

Since the February 2021 military coup, Myanmar has experienced profound political upheaval with far-reaching consequences for governance, civilian well-being, and education. The coup abruptly ended a decade of semi-civilian rule and democratic progress (Frydenlund et al., 2021) and triggered widespread civil disobedience among civil servants, teachers, and healthcare workers (Drechsler, 2021). Beyond institutional disruption, the country has faced severe psychosocial consequences. Drawing on a nationwide population-based survey, Fan et al. (2024) estimate that approximately one-third of adults in Myanmar met criteria for a probable mental disorder during the "triple crises" of conflict, COVID-19, and economic collapse, with probable post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) closely linked to conflict-related political stress. More focused research with internally displaced

populations similarly documents heightened fear, anxiety, and psychological distress as armed conflict intensifies and attacks on civilians persist (Khai, 2023). The consequences of the coup therefore extend beyond formal politics, shaping the psychological and material conditions under which civilians—including teachers and other education workers—attempt to sustain everyday life and learning.

Although COVID-19 had already weakened educational continuity through school closures and the rapid shift to remote learning, Myanmar's post-coup education crisis has become a more prolonged political, infrastructural, and safety-related disruption rather than a purely pandemic-era problem. Higher education has been described as caught between COVID-19, coup, and conflict (Htut et al., 2022), while more recent analyses characterize Myanmar's education sector as fragmented by governance breakdown, conflict, displacement, weakened public institutions, and uneven access to alternative education provision (Rinehart et al., 2024; Salem-Gervais et al., 2024; South et al., 2024). Digital learning has also remained difficult because electricity, internet access, devices, and safe communication channels cannot be assumed (Auh & Kim, 2025; Nanthakorn et al., 2023). Thus, the current problem is not simply that teaching moved online during COVID-19, but that teaching and learning have continued under conditions in which infrastructure, safety, institutional legitimacy, and access to resources remain unstable.

Within this broader landscape, English language education holds a particularly significant position. In Myanmar, English is a compulsory subject from basic education through higher education and remains a key gatekeeper for university admission, scholarships, employment, and participation in regional and global networks (Oo & Deocampo, 2025; Sam et al., 2013; Soe, 2015; South et al., 2024). English proficiency is closely tied to students' performance on high-stakes examinations (Sam et al., 2013; Soe, 2015) and to access to professional and transnational opportunities, particularly as Myanmar has sought deeper integration into ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) and global labor markets (Htut et al., 2022; Lin, Arumugam, Lwin, et al., 2021; Lin, Arumugam, Mohamad, et al., 2021). Think (2025) and Wong (2024) argue that for many young people, English represents not only a school subject but also a potential resource for mobility, migration, and resilience amid ongoing instability (see also Salem-Gervais et al., 2024). At the same time, the overlapping crises of coup, conflict, economic insecurity, and infrastructural breakdown have severely disrupted English language teaching (ELT), forcing teachers to navigate unreliable infrastructure, remote or hybrid modes of instruction, and the psychosocial impact of protracted violence (Nanthakorn et al., 2023; Oo & Deocampo, 2025; Wong, 2024).

ELT is a particularly revealing site for examining how education is sustained during prolonged disruption because language teaching depends heavily on interaction, feedback, communicative practice, platform stability, and access to teaching and learning resources. For ELT teachers, the post-coup context shapes not only whether instruction can occur, but also how it can be organized: how lessons are paced, how participation is maintained, how assessment is redesigned, and how teachers manage the emotional and advisory demands that accompany learners' uncertainty. Understanding ELT teachers' experiences is therefore important because their everyday instructional decisions show how educational

continuity is negotiated in real time under unstable political, infrastructural, and social conditions.

Despite a growing body of research on Myanmar's education disruptions since the 2021 coup, most existing studies focus on macro-level issues such as governance breakdown, infrastructure collapse, digital inequality, and system-wide impacts of political instability and the pandemic (e.g., Rinehart et al., 2024; World Bank, 2023; Yuka, 2024). Such macro-level accounts are important, but they provide limited insight into how English language teachers experience and navigate day-to-day pedagogical disruption, resource precarity, emotional strain, and ethical uncertainty while continuing to teach. In addition, comparatively few ELT-specific, teacher-centered qualitative studies have employed reflexive approaches, such as reflexive thematic analysis, to foreground educators' voices and trace the connection between contextual constraints and adaptive practice. To address these gaps, the present study offers a practice-proximal qualitative account of six Myanmar ELT teachers' challenges and adaptive strategies, employing a critical realist stance and reflexive thematic analysis to generate evidence that can inform crisis-responsive teacher support and ELT programming.

2. Research Objectives

This study aimed to:

2.1 Examine and interpret the challenges English language teachers in Myanmar faced in the post-coup context, particularly regarding their teaching practices, emotional well-being, and access to instructional resources.

2.2 Identify and explain the adaptive strategies these teachers used to navigate those challenges, including adaptations in teaching methods, use of resources and technologies, and reliance on professional and social support networks.

3. Research Questions

Based on these objectives, this study addressed the following research questions:

3.1 What challenges did English language teachers in Myanmar face in the post-coup context, particularly in terms of their teaching practices, emotional well-being, and access to resources?

3.2 What adaptive strategies did English language teachers in Myanmar use to navigate these challenges, including adaptations in teaching methods, use of resources, and support networks?

4. Significance of the Study

This study contributes to English language teaching under crisis conditions by offering a practice-proximal account of how six Myanmar ELT teachers experienced and responded to post-coup disruption. It traces how infrastructural instability, safety concerns, professional insecurity, emotional strain, and fragile resource access shaped teachers' day-to-day practices and well-being. The study also contributes to discussions of crisis-responsive and digital ELT by showing that educational continuity depends not only on

online platforms, but also on flexible, low-bandwidth, semi-asynchronous, and multi-channel pedagogical strategies that can survive interruption. In practical terms, the findings offer implications for ELT programs, teacher educators, NGOs, and professional networks seeking to support teachers in Myanmar and other crisis-affected contexts, particularly through resource provision, accessible professional development, teacher well-being support, and collegial networks. Finally, the study illustrates the value of combining a critical realist stance with reflexive thematic analysis in politically sensitive settings and offers a methodological example for qualitative research in volatile contexts.

5. Literature Review

5.1 Teaching in Crisis/Disrupted Contexts and Infrastructural Precarity

In crisis and conflict-affected settings, the basic conditions that make schooling possible are often uncertain. Across fragile contexts, learning is shaped by volatile infrastructure, including electricity, internet access, and devices, as well as heightened security risks, disrupted public services, and widening equity gaps (Auh & Kim, 2025; Hayat, 2025; Salem-Gervais et al., 2024). Rather than functioning as occasional “interruptions,” power outages, restricted connectivity, and unsafe access to physical or virtual classrooms can become structural conditions of everyday education (Auh & Kim, 2025; Nanthakorn et al., 2023).

This infrastructural precarity is inseparable from broader forms of safety and political risk. Teachers in conflict zones may face threats to physical safety, constraints on movement (Gupta et al., 2022), and ethical dilemmas when the authority controlling schools is widely rejected. In post-coup Myanmar, for example, continuing to teach in state institutions can be interpreted as legitimizing that authority, whereas withdrawing from such roles may expose teachers to sanctions, job loss, or prosecution (Htut et al., 2022; Saito, 2021). Comparative evidence from Sudan further shows how armed conflict can produce property loss, displacement, psychological distress, and disruption to educators’ professional activities (Abdellatif et al., 2025). In Myanmar, post-coup research similarly documents the destabilization of teaching through military control of educational institutions, criminalization of dissenting educators, and the suspension, dismissal, or displacement of education workers aligned with opposition movements (Htut et al., 2022; Oo & Deocampo, 2025). Taken together, the literature suggests that for ELT teachers, teaching in crisis contexts is not only pedagogical labor but also precarious risk management under conditions of uncertain safety and fragile infrastructure.

5.2 Online ELT and Pedagogical Redesign Under Constraint

Online ELT can expand access and support flexible participation (Ajaj, 2020; Budiarta & Krismayani, 2024; Dao et al., 2024; Rintaningrum, 2023), but it is not pedagogically neutral, especially when connectivity is weak or learner participation is intermittent (Budiarta & Krismayani, 2024; Dao et al., 2024; Rintaningrum, 2023). Rather than simply transferring face-to-face lessons to digital platforms, online ELT often reorganizes instruction, interaction, and assessment, requiring teachers to adopt more

deliberate and resilience-oriented pedagogical strategies (Abidah & Hartono, 2023; Clum et al., 2022).

This challenge is especially visible in speaking and listening, which depend on stable real-time interaction, immediate feedback, turn-taking, and teachers' ability to monitor learners' pronunciation, fluency, and comprehension (Ezra et al., 2021; Tauchid et al., 2024; Tuncer & Karataş, 2022). When synchronous connections are unstable, oral practice can be disrupted by delays, overlapping talk, and limited feedback (Ezra et al., 2021; Tauchid et al., 2024), ultimately reducing the opportunities for authentic communicative interaction among learners (Potemkina et al., 2021). In response, teachers may redistribute instruction across modes by shifting dense content into asynchronous or low-bandwidth formats, such as downloadable files, short recordings, or chat-based explanations, while reserving limited live time for interaction that requires immediate feedback (Clum et al., 2022; Ravi et al., 2021). This highlights a crisis-responsive orientation in which pedagogy is re-engineered around disruption and flexibility rather than merely being "delivered online" (Clum et al., 2022; Veletsianos & Houlden, 2020).

5.3 Teacher Well-Being, Emotional Labor, and Precarious Employment

Teacher well-being is closely linked to job satisfaction, instructional quality, retention, and student outcomes (Gupta et al., 2022; Nwoko et al., 2023), yet in crisis contexts, it is often undermined by severe financial and employment precarity (Gupta et al., 2022). Low or unreliable pay, unstable employment, weak career progression, and lack of labor protections can intensify anxiety, stress, and professional insecurity among educators. These precarious conditions are particularly detrimental for contract-based teachers in public systems (Apat & Swain, 2023; Gupta et al., 2022), daily-wage faculty who suffer from per-class payment models (Daraz et al., 2025), and freelance language teachers operating in the unprotected gig economy (Curran, 2023; see also Wood & Lehdonvirta, 2023 for general remote gig precarity). In Myanmar, post-coup economic contraction and institutional fragmentation further amplify these pressures, making teacher well-being inseparable from livelihood insecurity and professional uncertainty (Htut et al., 2022; Oo & Deocampo, 2025).

Emotional labor forms a second axis of strain in the teaching profession (Nwoko et al., 2023). In disrupted environments, however, this labor expands exponentially; teachers do not only teach content, but also absorb students' anxieties, respond to trauma, and manage profound uncertainty about safety and futures (Gupta et al., 2022). Bodenheimer and Shuster (2020) show that sustained emotional regulation—such as presenting warmth and stability while suppressing distress through surface acting—can contribute to profound emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a diminished sense of personal accomplishment. These effects are likely to intensify when institutional mental-health support or collegial networks are limited (Gupta et al., 2022; Nwoko et al., 2023). In addition, during crises, teachers' emotional labor often merges with moral distress about witnessing student harm or blocked educational futures (Gupta et al., 2022; Oo & Deocampo, 2025).

5.4 Resource Ecosystems, Informal Networks, and Fragile Continuity

In low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) and crisis-affected contexts, teachers often work within fragile resource ecosystems where formal institutional support is limited. Under such conditions, educators engage in resource brokerage through peer and informal digital networks, using channels such as Telegram, Facebook, WhatsApp, and SMS to exchange lesson plans, digital content, practical advice, and professional learning opportunities (Ab Rashid et al., 2016; Gavade et al., 2023; Jordan, 2023). These networks can function as material lifelines and sources of collegial and emotional support, especially where formal training systems are inaccessible or weakened.

However, such ecosystems are precarious rather than stable or guaranteed. Access to teaching continuity often depends on teachers' and households' ability to finance devices, internet packages, and reliable power. Jain et al. (2021) show that teachers may invest their own money in digital infrastructure and sometimes subsidize students' data, while Gomersall and Floyd (2022) report from Myanmar that learners and families devote limited income to mobile data to remain connected to online classes. This fragility is further compounded when education depends on particular communication platforms. In Myanmar, Nanthakorn et al. (2023) show that some social media and communication platforms have been throttled, blocked, or switched off through curfews and shutdowns, making single-channel models of teaching vulnerable to political decisions and infrastructure collapse.

6. Research Methodology

6.1 Research Design and Approach

This study employed an interpretive qualitative design based on in-depth interviews with six English language teachers who had direct experience teaching Myanmar learners under post-coup conditions. The design was practice-proximal, focusing on teachers' lived working realities during the ongoing crisis. The two research questions—examining (1) challenges related to teaching practices, emotional well-being, and access to resources, and (2) adaptive strategies for navigating those challenges—were addressed through rich narrative accounts from teachers actively engaged in ELT during this period.

6.2 Epistemological Stance and Analytic Orientation

This study employed reflexive thematic analysis (RTA) following Braun and Clarke (2019), grounded in a critical realist epistemology. Critical realism assumes that social conditions exist independently of individual perception while recognizing that accounts of those conditions are partial and shaped by standpoint, theory, and language (Maxwell, 2012). In this study, disruptions such as power cuts, unstable internet, and safety risks were treated as materially real constraints, while teachers' descriptions of these conditions were understood as situated accounts rather than transparent "facts" or mere discourse.

Within this critical realist frame, the study was a “Big-Q” qualitative project, meaning that qualitative inquiry served as the primary mode of knowledge generation rather than as an add-on to a quantitative design. In RTA, themes are interpretive analytic constructions rather than categories waiting to be found (Braun & Clarke, 2019, 2024a). Themes were developed through iterative cycles of familiarization, coding, and re-reading, guided by the research questions and by the first author’s positionality as a Burmese ELT practitioner working in similar post-coup conditions. Interviews were treated as co-constructed accounts, and translation from Burmese into English was recognized as an interpretive act. In line with the Reflexive Thematic Analysis (RTA) framework, analytic rigor was pursued through reflexive openness, researcher reflexivity, and methodological congruence (Braun & Clarke, 2024b), rather than through coding-reliability quality markers such as inter-coder reliability, consensus coding (Braun & Clarke, 2019), or numerical notions of data saturation (Braun & Clarke, 2021).

6.3 Context and Participants

Six English language teachers were recruited as participants. All had at least four years of English language teaching experience and direct post-coup experience teaching Myanmar learners, primarily in urban and peri-urban contexts. At the time of the interviews, some participants were based in Myanmar and teaching there directly, while others were residing outside the country and teaching Myanmar-based learners remotely. Participants varied in age range, years of teaching experience, qualifications, learner groups, proficiency levels taught, and degree of modality shift after the February 2021 coup.

All six participants worked outside Myanmar’s public school system, either as freelance or independent ELT teachers or within non-state educational settings such as language schools and private institutions. This focus was deliberate because recruiting from state schools or universities would have raised additional ethical and safety concerns in a politically sensitive context marked by surveillance and heightened control over state institutions. Independent and non-state ELT teachers also represent a critical but under-researched segment of the education workforce supporting alternative learning pathways for Myanmar learners during the crisis. Therefore, the findings speak most directly to independent and other non-state ELT teachers. State-school teachers, university teachers in state institutions, and educators of subjects other than English may experience additional or different constraints beyond the scope of this study.

Key characteristics of the participants are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Key characteristics of the participants

Participant D	Age range	Approx. teaching experience	Highest qualification	Primary learner groups	Proficiency range taught	Delivery format after Feb 2021 coup	Delivery format before Feb 2021 coup	Modality shift
P1	21–30	~5 years	MA / MEd / MSc	Teenagers and adults	A1, A2, B1, B2, C1	Online (100%)	Mixed (online + F2F)	Shift to fully online
P2	21–30	~7 years	MA / MEd / MSc	Adults only	A1, A2, B1, B2	Mixed (online + F2F)	F2F (100%)	Partial adoption of online
P3	31–40	~15 years	MA / MEd / MSc	Teenagers only	B1, B2	Online (100%)	F2F (100%)	Shift to fully online
P4	21–30	~4 years	BA / BEd / BEng	Teenagers and adults	A2, B1, B2	Online (100%)	Online (100%)	No major modality shift; fully online before and after the coup
P5	31–40	~13 years	MA / MEd / MSc	Young learners, teenagers, and adults	B1, B2, C1	Online (100%)	F2F (100%)	Shift to fully online
P6	21–30	~5 years	BA / BEd / BEng	Teenagers and adults	A1, A2, B1, B2	Primarily online with occasional F2F instruction	Online (100%)	Partial addition of in-person teaching

Note: F2F = face-to-face, in-person instruction.

Participants were recruited through purposive, trust-based sampling within existing professional networks of Myanmar ELT practitioners. This strategy was appropriate because the study sought information-rich accounts from teachers with direct experience of sustaining English language teaching under post-coup conditions rather than statistical representativeness across the wider population of Myanmar teachers. The inclusion criteria were: (a) at least four years of English language teaching experience; (b) direct teaching experience with Myanmar learners during the post-coup period; and (c) willingness to discuss professional challenges, adaptations, and well-being in a recorded online interview.

The study drew on the complete dataset of six English language teachers. Given the politically sensitive and safety-sensitive context, the sample was kept small and information-rich, particularly because participants could face risks if identifiable details were disclosed. In line with Malterud et al.'s (2016) concept of information power, sample adequacy was considered in relation to the study's focused aim, participant specificity, the quality of interview dialogue, and the analytic strategy, rather than by applying a fixed numerical threshold. The findings are therefore not presented as statistically representative

of all ELT teachers in Myanmar, but as a detailed, contextually grounded qualitative account of six information-rich cases.

6.4 Data Generation

Consistent with the study's reflexive orientation, the term data generation was used rather than data collection (Braun & Clarke, 2024a). This wording emphasizes that interview accounts were produced through dialogue between the researcher and participants, with the quality of that dialogue shaping the richness of the data (Malterud et al., 2016). Two researcher-developed instruments were used: (a) a brief pre-interview online form combining the participant information sheet, consent form, and background questionnaire, and (b) a semi-structured interview guide aligned with the research objectives and research questions. The pre-interview form allowed the live interviews to focus on participants' narratives of disruption, adaptation, and well-being.

The semi-structured interview guide was organized around five domains: (a) challenges in teaching practice; (b) emotional well-being and professional strain; (c) access to instructional resources and technologies; (d) adaptive strategies in pedagogy, scheduling, assessment, and communication; and (e) reliance on professional and social support networks. The guide consisted of open-ended questions with flexible follow-up prompts, allowing participants to provide concrete examples and elaborate on issues they considered important. Before data generation, the interview guide and pre-interview form were reviewed by three external experts in English language education and qualitative research to check clarity, relevance, sensitivity, and alignment with the research objectives. Their feedback informed minor revisions to the wording, sequencing, and focus of selected prompts before the main interviews. A pilot interview with one Myanmar English language teacher of a similar profile was then conducted to test the interview procedure, question clarity, and emotional sensitivity of the prompts. The pilot interview was used only to refine the instruments and procedures and was not included in the analytic dataset. Because the interview guide consisted of open-ended qualitative prompts rather than standardized scale items, statistical reliability testing was not applicable; instead, methodological quality was supported through expert review, pilot interviewing, and reflexive refinement of the interview procedure.

Data were generated through one-to-one, semi-structured online interviews with six English language teachers. The interviews were conducted via private Zoom calls, lasted approximately 60 minutes, and were recorded with prior written and verbal consent. During the interviews, participants were invited to describe concrete incidents and reflections on how they navigated infrastructural precarity, emotional strain, resource constraints, and adaptive continuity. Follow-up prompts were used flexibly to allow participants to elaborate on experiences they considered important while ensuring that all core areas of the study were addressed.

All interviews were conducted in Burmese by the first author, who shares the participants' first language and professional background as a Myanmar ELT practitioner. The first author translated and transcribed each interview directly from the Burmese

recording into English, which kept the recordings under the researchers' control and avoided sharing politically sensitive data with external translators or transcription services. A formal back-translation process was not conducted because the interview data were politically sensitive and were not shared with external translators. Instead, translation quality was supported through repeated checking of selected English translations against the original Burmese recordings during analysis, particularly for extracts used in the Results and Discussion section. Translation was treated as an interpretive part of the research process, with attention to literal meaning, tone, hesitation, emphasis, and contextual nuance where relevant.

6.5 Ethical Procedures

Participants were referred to only by pseudonyms (P1–P6), and identifying details—such as personal names, specific employers, precise locations, institutional affiliations, and other recognizable contextual markers—were removed or generalized during transcription and reporting. Contact details and consent records were stored separately from interview recordings and transcripts to minimize the risk of linking participants' identities to their data.

Interview recordings, transcripts, translated excerpts, and related research files were stored in password-protected locations under the researchers' control, including a secured personal drive and a password-protected laptop. Access to raw data was limited to the researchers, and recordings were not uploaded to commercial transcription services or shared with third parties, which was particularly important given the politically sensitive nature of the research context. During analysis and reporting, only de-identified excerpts were used, and any potentially identifying contextual information was removed or modified without changing the analytic meaning of the data.

After the completion of the study and any required institutional retention period, the audio recordings, transcripts, contact records, and related research files will be securely deleted from the password-protected storage locations. These procedures were used to protect participants' confidentiality and reduce potential risks associated with participation in research on education under post-coup conditions.

6.6 Data Analysis: Reflexive Thematic Procedure

Interview data were analyzed using reflexive thematic analysis (RTA), following Braun and Clarke's (2006, 2019, 2022) six-phase approach. The process was treated as iterative and recursive rather than strictly linear, and it was situated within the critical realist stance described above.

The first author re-listened to the original Burmese interview recordings and reread the English transcripts several times, recording short reflexive memos on early patterns related to infrastructural strain, emotional pressure, resource constraints, and adaptive practices. The transcripts were then coded inductively, mainly at the semantic level, while

also noting tone, hesitation, laughter, or emphasis where these were relevant to interpretation. Codes captured meaningful segments related to teaching disruptions, pedagogical adjustments, financial and emotional precarity, resource access, safety concerns, and support or workaround practices. Through repeated movement between coded extracts, full transcripts, and the research questions, codes were grouped into broader patterns of meaning, and candidate themes were developed, reviewed, refined, and named.

Illustrative extracts were then selected and integrated with analytic commentary in the Results and Discussion section to show how each theme illuminated the challenges and adaptive strategies of ELT teachers in post-coup Myanmar. Translation from Burmese into English, carried out by the first author, was treated as an interpretive step within the analytic process rather than as a neutral transfer of meaning.

In line with a reflexive thematic analysis orientation, the researchers did not calculate inter-coder reliability or seek consensus coding. Instead, selected examples of coded data and candidate themes were discussed with two experienced university-based ELT lecturers who were not study participants. These discussions functioned as reflexive peer dialogue: the lecturers questioned code–extract fit, raised possible alternative interpretations, and helped the first author refine theme boundaries and analytic claims. The first author retained responsibility for the final thematic interpretation. Analytic rigor was pursued through reflexive memoing, an audit trail, transparent analytic decision-making, and attention to conceptual coherence rather than through numerical notions of saturation or coding agreement.

7. Results and Discussion

This section presents and discusses the findings in relation to the two research questions: RQ1, which examined teachers' challenges in teaching practice, emotional well-being, and resource access; and RQ2, which examined their adaptive strategies for sustaining ELT during the post-February 2021 political crisis.

Reflexive thematic analysis generated four interrelated themes: (1) infrastructural precarity and access constraints; (2) pedagogical redesign under constraint; (3) emotional and professional precarity; and (4) adaptive continuity and support ecologies. Themes 1 and 3 primarily address the challenges identified in RQ1, while Themes 2 and 4 primarily address the adaptive strategies identified in RQ2. Theme 2 also bridges both questions because pedagogical redesign emerged both as a response to disruption and as a new condition of teachers' everyday work.

Table 2 below summarizes the four themes before the detailed thematic discussion.

Table 2 : Summary of Themes and Relationship to Research Objectives

Theme	Main focus	Link to research objectives / research questions	Summary of finding
Theme 1: Infrastructural Precarity and Access Constraints	Electricity, internet access, platform stability, device power, physical mobility, resource access, and informal material circulation	Mainly addresses Objective 1 and RQ1	ELT was shaped by unstable and unequal access to the basic conditions needed for instruction. Power cuts, weak connectivity, platform fragility, rising costs, unsafe mobility, and restricted access to physical resource spaces made continuity uncertain, requiring teachers to assemble teaching conditions through backup power, multiple platforms, soft-copy resources, and informal sharing networks.
Theme 2: Pedagogical Redesign Under Constraint	Modality shift, lesson format, interaction and monitoring, listening/speaking disruption, assessment, engagement, preparation burden, and learner differences	Addresses Objective 1/RQ1 and Objective 2/RQ2	Teachers did not simply transfer face-to-face lessons onto online platforms. They redesigned lesson structure, pacing, materials, interaction routines, assessment practices, and engagement strategies around expected interruption, making pedagogical redesign both a response to crisis conditions and a new form of everyday teaching labor.
Theme 3: Emotional and Professional Precarity	Financial insecurity, professional devaluation, market competition, AI-related concern, safety anxiety, civic powerlessness, witnessing student harm, and teacher coping	Mainly addresses Objective 1 and RQ1, with some connection to Objective 2/RQ2	Teachers experienced post-coup ELT as emotionally and professionally precarious. Their well-being was shaped by income loss, rising teaching costs, unstable career prospects, safety concerns, surveillance anxiety, and the emotional burden of supporting learners affected by violence, displacement, interrupted schooling, and blocked futures.
Theme 4: Adaptive Continuity and Support Ecologies	Flexible scheduling, make-up time, backup devices, multi-channel delivery, asynchronous scaffolds, digital records, teacher networks, professional development, emotional support, and stated support needs	Mainly addresses Objective 2 and RQ2	Teachers sustained ELT through layered systems of adaptive continuity, including blackout-based scheduling, backup platforms, portable materials, asynchronous records, and informal teacher networks. These strategies helped maintain learning but depended heavily on teachers' additional infrastructural, temporal, emotional, and collegial labor, revealing the limits of teacher-led adaptation without structural support.

7.1 Theme 1: Infrastructural Precarity and Access Constraints

Several participants described power cuts, weak connectivity, and class interruption as routine conditions of English language teaching rather than occasional technical problems. P1 recalled that immediately after the coup, “the first thing... was an internet blackout. And there was the power cut, too,” which meant that she “lost contact” with her students and classes had to stop. Even when online lessons resumed, connectivity remained unstable, especially for students in conflict-affected areas, where some learners dropped out mid-lesson and eventually withdrew because continuing was “really difficult.” P2 similarly described online attendance as fragmented, with students appearing, disappearing, and reappearing as connections failed; in some cases, lessons had to end because “the internet is not working” or a student’s laptop battery died. For P4, electricity rationing shaped lesson planning because “electricity is only available for four hours a day,” requiring teachers and students to conserve device batteries and adjust participation. P5 further showed how continuity could depend on physical relocation: when home electricity failed, she moved to an internet café with a generator and Wi-Fi so afternoon lessons could continue. Together, these accounts show that electricity, connectivity, device power, and students’ continued online presence could not be assumed.

Beyond immediate interruptions, maintaining online teaching required personally financed “survival infrastructure.” Teachers needed electricity backups, functioning devices, paid or shared platforms, mobile data, and multiple communication channels to keep classes technically possible. P3 described investing in extra laptop batteries, a second laptop, and power banks, while also buying mobile data when home Wi-Fi stopped working. P4 similarly explained that portable power stations became necessary when electricity was unavailable for several hours, and P5 treated an inverter as essential teaching infrastructure rather than optional support. Platform access was also fragile. P4 described how shared Zoom accounts could be disabled when another user changed VPN settings, while P6 explained that Zoom access through agents came with “no guarantee” and sometimes failed just before teaching. These accounts show that online ELT in post-coup Myanmar depended on unstable, personally funded, and improvised infrastructures that teachers had to assemble and repair continuously.

Resource access was also reshaped by the weakening of physical channels for materials, professional learning, and teacher networking. P1 described how, before the coup, she could visit foreign-affiliated English/cultural resource centers and teacher activity clubs, observe classroom activities, and adapt those ideas for her own lessons; after the coup, she stopped going because the area around such spaces no longer felt safe. P6 described a similar shift from in-person ELT workshops and professional development events to safer online alternatives. As physical access became more restricted, teachers relied more heavily on improvised digital resource systems. P3 described replacing books and printed worksheets with PowerPoint slides, Google Forms, shared Google Docs, and uploaded notes or recordings, while also drawing on Telegram groups for PDFs, teaching notes, and level- or exam-specific materials. P5 likewise customized lessons from Cambridge and Oxford books, Google images, and self-made worksheets, saving them as reusable digital files and using Telegram as a major source of resources. P6 added that international online education networks and publisher-linked resources provided materials

she adapted into lesson slides and shared with colleagues. Thus, access to ELT resources was assembled through soft copies, informal digital circulation, peer sharing, and international online networks rather than supplied through stable institutional channels.

These findings suggest that infrastructural disruption in post-coup Myanmar did not merely interrupt ELT from outside; it became part of the work of teaching itself. Teachers had to assemble the conditions for instruction through backup power, multiple platforms, informal resource networks, and continuous logistical adjustment.

7.2 Theme 2: Pedagogical Redesign Under Constraint

Teachers described pedagogical redesign as beginning with a shift in modality, but not as a simple transfer of face-to-face lessons onto online platforms. For P2, the move online was shaped by safety concerns: she explained that she felt “scared to go teach the classes” in person and therefore shifted to online instruction. P4 also explained that online teaching allowed her to reach more learners, but made classroom monitoring and student attention more difficult than in face-to-face teaching. Under these conditions, teachers redesigned not only where teaching happened but also how lessons were structured and paced. P1 moved away from grammar-heavy, textbook-driven delivery because repeating coursebook exercises on screen made lessons feel monotonous and risked losing students’ attention. Instead, she selected more interactive materials, used shorter activity-based tasks, and incorporated chat-based interaction and online resources. P6 also described online teaching as requiring heavier preparation than physical classroom teaching because interactive tools, connections, or planned activities could fail. Across these accounts, modality shift involved a deeper reorganization of lesson format, pacing, materials, and preparation around reduced classroom control, unstable connectivity, and the need to sustain learner engagement.

The shift into online and digitally mediated teaching also weakened teachers’ ability to monitor interaction-heavy language learning in real time, particularly listening and speaking. P3 explained that listening activities became “quite challenging” because “timing is so important,” yet unstable connections disrupted the teacher’s ability to play, pause, replay, and check comprehension synchronously. P5 described a similar problem in phonics lessons, where mismatched video and audio made it difficult for students to connect sounds with the teacher’s facial expression and lip movement. As a result, listening work sometimes had to be moved out of the live lesson, such as when P3 sent audio files through Telegram or QR codes so students could complete tasks independently. Speaking and pronunciation work were also constrained. P2 noted that online teaching made it difficult to know whether students had really understood because cameras could be turned off and responses were harder to read “from the other end of the screen.” P3 reported that pair-speaking tasks in breakout rooms could collapse when one student lost power, while P4 observed that students could become distracted during online presentations. Teachers therefore had to stage participation more deliberately. P2 moved between explanations, slides, games, roleplay, and brainstorming to keep students responsive, while P6 described learning to “accept awkward silence,” reduce teacher talking time, and wait longer for delayed responses through microphone or chat. These accounts show that interaction and monitoring did not disappear, but became more fragile, slower, and more labor-intensive.

Assessment, engagement, and preparation were also redesigned around unstable attendance and interrupted class time. P3 moved from paper-based testing to Google Forms and used shared Google Docs to maintain lesson records, corrections, and student work so that students who missed part of a class could review what had been covered. She also used participation as part of the grade and followed up directly when students disappeared from small classes. P4 described checking attendance regularly, contacting parents when students missed classes, and using unit-end tests to maintain motivation and track progress. P5 used video lessons and follow-up homework so students affected by connectivity problems could study independently, while P2 built engagement with adult and exam-oriented learners through goal-setting around target exams, timelines, and test dates. Preparation also became more anticipatory: P5 prepared backup plans before lessons, and P6 prepared alternative formats such as scripts, screenshots, chat-based explanations, or Burmese explanations when planned activities could not be delivered online. Together, these accounts show that assessment and engagement became part of teachers' redesigned pedagogy for keeping students involved despite unstable platforms, irregular attendance, and interrupted class time.

Overall, Theme 2 shows that pedagogical adaptation in post-coup Myanmar was not simply a shift from face-to-face to online instruction, but a redesign of English language teaching around expected interruption. Teachers rebuilt lesson delivery, interaction, monitoring, assessment, engagement, and preparation so that learning could continue when electricity, connectivity, platform access, and student attendance could not be guaranteed. These adaptive strategies were not only technical responses to online teaching problems; they were forms of crisis-responsive pedagogical labor that helped sustain language learning under unstable political and infrastructural conditions.

7.3 Theme 3: Emotional and Professional Precarity

Teachers described post-coup ELT work as financially unstable and professionally uncertain. For P1, student withdrawal from conflict-affected areas created immediate income anxiety; when learners could no longer continue because of unstable internet and unsafe conditions, she worried about whether she would still have students in the future and described herself as "trying to survive." P2 similarly linked the shift away from face-to-face teaching to direct income loss, explaining that after the coup she had to cancel four of six classes and could continue only with two. P3 described salary reductions in school-based teaching, while night classes that once provided additional income became unsafe because travelling after dark no longer felt secure. Teachers also absorbed rising costs simply to keep teaching possible, including increased expenses for Wi-Fi, mobile data, backup devices, and digital storage, as described by P3 and P5. Professional insecurity extended beyond income. P2 and P5 described an increasingly crowded ELT market in which underqualified or social-media-visible teachers competed for students, while P3 pointed to pay inequity and the hiring of inexperienced teachers as signs of professional devaluation. AI appeared as an additional perceived threat in P2's account, particularly for higher-level learners, and P6 echoed broader career uncertainty by questioning whether she could continue teaching only online. Taken together, these accounts show that teachers' well-being was shaped not only by workload or stress, but by the weakening of ELT as a stable livelihood and recognized profession.

Safety anxiety further intensified teachers' emotional and professional precarity. Participants described public space, travel, and digital visibility as sources of risk that shaped when, where, and how they could teach. P2 said she began refusing most face-to-face classes because "there is no safety" and limited in-person teaching to nearby students, while curfews forced her to end evening lessons early. P3 similarly explained that night classes no longer felt safe and that she sometimes worried about carrying her phone because of possible searches. For P1, the early post-coup period was marked by fear that "anything could happen at any moment," while P5 described everyday movement as risk management through monitoring her surroundings, avoiding attention, and reducing social media activity. P6's account showed a more direct fear of surveillance: after a close friend was arrested, she moved cities, deleted digital traces, and avoided carrying her phone when going out. These accounts show that safety was not a background condition but an ongoing professional constraint. Teachers' decisions to move classes online, avoid night travel, limit public visibility, or relocate were strategies for continuing to work in a context where physical movement, digital presence, and future planning felt uncertain and potentially dangerous.

Teachers also described the emotional burden of witnessing students' harm and blocked futures, which expanded their role beyond language instruction. P1 recalled students in conflict-affected areas reporting nearby shooting and bombing, with some later displaced from their homes. She emphasized her helplessness, saying there was "nothing I could really do" except listen, yet she also advised one student to consider moving to a safer place and helped another prepare scholarship application materials. P3 similarly described the distress of seeing children whose schooling had stopped for years and older students who could no longer access formal education or university pathways; in response, she advised students on alternative credentials and helped with scholarship applications through free lessons when families could not afford preparation. P2 described students who were isolated, fearful, or unsure how to move forward, and she responded through informal consultations about their future goals. P6 also supported students who felt lost after years of educational disruption or repeated scholarship and visa rejections by reviewing essays and discussing possible pathways. At the same time, teachers had to regulate their own emotions in order to continue teaching. P2 described "wearing a mask" of strength and positivity in class despite feeling miserable herself, while P6 described coping through teacher training, language courses, and conversations with other teachers. These accounts show that teacher well-being was shaped not only by personal stress but also by the emotional and advisory labor of supporting students whose safety, education, and future mobility had been deeply disrupted.

Overall, Theme 3 shows that teachers' well-being in post-coup Myanmar was shaped by the convergence of financial insecurity, safety anxiety, professional devaluation, and the emotional burden of witnessing students' disrupted lives. ELT teachers were not only managing lessons under difficult conditions; they were also managing risk, protecting their own visibility, advising students on uncertain futures, and regulating their emotions so that they could remain present for learners. This finding suggests that crisis-responsive ELT depends not only on pedagogical adaptation, but also on teachers' under-recognized emotional, advisory, and survival labor.

7.4 Theme 4: Adaptive Continuity and Support Ecologies

While Theme 2 showed how teachers redesigned classroom practice, Theme 4 shows how they built broader continuity systems to keep instruction recoverable across repeated disruption. Teachers sustained ELT through flexible scheduling and continuity tactics that treated interruption as expected rather than exceptional. A fixed class time could no longer be assumed because electricity, internet access, device power, and physical safety varied across locations and households. P1 described scheduling lessons not simply around availability, but around students' electricity windows: "It's not just who is free... it was at which time the power is back in which area." She used an inverter to keep her own Wi-Fi running so she could teach when students briefly had electricity. P4 similarly explained that limited electricity shaped lesson preparation because teachers had to prepare while power was available and conserve battery for live teaching. When lessons collapsed, teachers rebuilt continuity through homework, rescheduling, and make-up time. P1 assigned unfinished work and told students, "We'll reschedule and meet again tomorrow," while P2 described postponing check-ups when a student's laptop battery died and giving extra time later when a paid lesson was cut short. P5 extended this continuity work through video explanations and follow-up homework for students who missed lessons or experienced connectivity problems. Teachers also absorbed the logistical burden of keeping lessons possible: P3 kept multiple devices, spare batteries, a stabilizer, and a power bank, while P6 described preparing work when electricity returned at inconvenient times. Together, these accounts show that scheduling became a form of crisis choreography through which teachers rebuilt instructional time around blackouts, device limits, make-up sessions, recorded support, and follow-up routines.

Teachers also sustained continuity by building multi-channel delivery systems and asynchronous scaffolds so that lessons could continue when the main platform, connection, or live interaction failed. P2 described moving from Zoom to other communication channels when a call cut out or reached its time limit, treating platform switching as part of keeping attention from collapsing. P3 similarly maintained backup accounts and links when Zoom became inaccessible, while P4's experience with shared premium Zoom accounts showed how platform access could fail when another user changed VPN settings. Teachers also made lesson content portable. P1 shifted to verbal explanation and typed notes in the chat when audio or video would not load; P2 asked students to pre-download audio or video files; P3 sent listening files through Telegram or QR codes; and P5 created short video lessons for students who missed class. Alongside these portable materials, teachers created records that allowed students to re-enter learning after interruption. P3 uploaded recordings and maintained shared lesson notes, P4 used online forms for homework and unit-end tasks, P5 stored worksheets and videos in shared folders, and P6 organized course materials through online classroom and drive systems. These practices show that adaptation was not limited to improvising during a disrupted lesson; teachers built parallel channels, portable materials, and archived records to make learning recoverable when synchronous teaching could not be guaranteed.

Adaptive continuity also depended on informal support ecologies that helped teachers remain resourced, connected, and emotionally able to continue. Participants described teacher networks as sources of materials, methods, troubleshooting advice,

professional learning, and emotional support when formal professional development spaces were weakened, inaccessible, or unsafe. P1 described losing access to in-person teacher activity spaces after the coup and feeling “lonely” without a support system, while also expressing a need for an online Myanmar ELT teacher community where teachers could meet regularly and share strategies. P2 similarly emphasized the importance of online professional networks and alumni communities, arguing that teachers should “find a network” and not “face alone.” P3 described online webinars and teacher-development opportunities as ways to access new strategies, while P4 shared practical advice with teachers in under-resourced areas. P5 emphasized everyday collegial support and the need for clearer professional standards, and P6 linked professional development and peer dialogue to her ability to “heal” and continue teaching. Across these accounts, support ecologies functioned as pedagogical pipelines, informal infrastructure, and emotional safety nets. However, participants also made clear that these networks could not replace structural support. They identified needs for funding, stable internet and devices, fair compensation, mental health support, accessible professional development, and credible certification systems.

Overall, Theme 4 shows that teachers’ adaptive strategies were not isolated acts of coping, but layered systems for maintaining continuity under unstable conditions. Teachers rebuilt instructional time, delivery channels, learning records, engagement routines, and professional support through flexible scheduling, backup platforms, asynchronous scaffolds, and informal networks. At the same time, these strategies depended heavily on teachers’ additional infrastructural, temporal, emotional, and collegial labor, showing that teacher-led adaptation is not sustainable without more stable material, professional, and psychosocial support.

7.5 Synthesis: Answering the Research Questions and Situating the Findings

In relation to RQ1, the findings show that the challenges faced by Myanmar ELT teachers were not separate technical, emotional, or resource-related problems, but interconnected conditions of structural precarity. Themes 1 and 3 together indicate that teaching depended on unstable electricity, internet access, platform reliability, device power, and safe mobility, while teachers also managed income loss, rising teaching costs, professional devaluation, safety anxiety, and the emotional burden of supporting learners whose education and future pathways had been disrupted. This interpretation is consistent with studies that locate Myanmar’s post-coup education crisis within systemic disruption to communication infrastructure and digital access (Nanthakorn et al., 2023; Padmanabhan et al., 2021), recurring internet shutdowns, electricity blackouts, and financial barriers to online learning (Auh & Kim, 2025), and the wider “triple crisis” of COVID-19, coup, and conflict affecting education (Htut et al., 2022). It also aligns with work describing post-coup education as fragmented, prolonged, and intertwined with conflict, displacement, and economic collapse (Rinehart et al., 2024; Salem-Gervais et al., 2024; South et al., 2024). Thus, the participants were attempting to sustain ELT within a wider political and social crisis that made the basic conditions for teaching, professional security, and teacher well-being continuously uncertain.

In relation to RQ2, the findings show that teachers' adaptive strategies were not simply individual acts of resilience or a technical shift into online teaching; they were broader systems of continuity work. Themes 2 and 4 show that teachers redesigned lessons so that instruction could stop, restart, move across platforms, and be recovered after missed sessions. Flexible scheduling, multi-channel delivery, semi-asynchronous scaffolds, digital lesson records, backup devices, and engagement routines helped keep English learning possible when synchronous teaching could not be guaranteed. This interpretation aligns with work on resilient and crisis-responsive pedagogy, which emphasizes flexibility, redundancy, and designing learning across multiple modes rather than depending on a single platform or live session (Clum et al., 2022; Veletsianos & Houlden, 2020). It also resonates with studies of low-resource, crisis-affected, and networked professional learning contexts showing how teachers use low-bandwidth, asynchronous, and informal digital channels to sustain learning and professional exchange when formal systems are fragile (Ab Rashid et al., 2016; Gavade et al., 2023; Jordan, 2023; Ravi et al., 2021). Thus, the teachers redesigned pedagogy, resources, and support networks around expected interruption.

These findings need to be understood within Myanmar's wider post-coup political and social conditions. The participants' adaptations were not made in a neutral online-teaching environment; they were shaped by militarization, restricted mobility, surveillance concerns, internet shutdowns, economic decline, and the fragmentation of formal education pathways. Existing research has described Myanmar's education sector as affected by the overlapping "triple crisis" of COVID-19, coup, and conflict (Htut et al., 2022), as well as by disrupted communication infrastructure, internet restrictions, and platform instability (Nanthakorn et al., 2023). Other studies similarly characterize post-coup education as taking place within a fractured landscape of displacement, institutional disruption, weakened public systems, and constrained educational futures (Auh & Kim, 2025; Salem-Gervais et al., 2024; South et al., 2024; Wong, 2024). Against this backdrop, teachers' decisions to move lessons online, avoid unsafe travel, reschedule around blackouts, rely on informal networks, and advise students on alternative pathways cannot be separated from the political conditions that made infrastructure, safety, mobility, and professional futures uncertain.

The findings also resonate with studies from other crisis-affected or politically constrained contexts, while remaining distinct in their ELT-specific focus. Research on academics in Sudan reports salary cuts, job losses, displacement, and high levels of psychological distress, showing how conflict can destabilize educators' livelihoods and professional futures (Abdellatif et al., 2025). Research from fragile contexts such as the DRC and Niger similarly shows that teachers' well-being and teaching quality are affected by conditions of violence and deprivation (Gupta et al., 2022). The financial and professional insecurity described by participants also echoes research on precarious contract-based teachers in India, where unstable compensation and heavy non-teaching workloads contribute to chronic insecurity and professional devaluation (Apat & Swain, 2023). However, this study adds a Myanmar-based and ELT-focused account of how such pressures enter the micro-practices of language teaching, including interaction, assessment, platform choice, resource circulation, student advising, and teacher networks.

The contribution of this study is therefore to provide a teacher-centered and practice-proximal account of how ELT is sustained in a protracted political crisis. Rather than treating teachers' responses as individual resilience alone, the findings show that continuity in crisis-affected ELT depends on under-recognized infrastructural, pedagogical, emotional, advisory, and networked labor. While the study does not claim statistical representativeness, it offers a contextually grounded account of how crisis is lived and managed in the everyday work of ELT. Teachers kept English learning possible through flexible, relational, and resourceful practices, but these practices were often unpaid, personally financed, emotionally demanding, and dependent on fragile informal networks. The findings therefore caution against romanticizing teacher resilience and point to the need for material, professional, and psychosocial support that recognizes the full range of work through which teachers are already holding ELT together in crisis conditions.

8. Conclusion

Across the six cases, teaching English in post-coup Myanmar emerges as structurally precarious work shaped by unstable infrastructure, professional insecurity, safety risks, emotional strain, and fragile resource access. Rather than occasional difficulties, challenges such as electricity cuts, weak connectivity, unsafe mobility, rising teaching costs, and uneven access to materials shaped the everyday conditions of ELT. Teachers also carried the emotional burden of supporting learners whose education and future pathways had been disrupted. These findings suggest that English teaching in this context cannot be understood only as classroom instruction or online delivery; it is also infrastructural, emotional, and resource-brokering labor carried out under prolonged crisis conditions.

The study also contributes to discussions of innovative and digital education by showing that crisis-responsive ELT depends not only on online platforms, but on designing learning that can survive interruption. In this study, innovation appeared through flexible, low-bandwidth, and multi-channel practices rather than advanced technologies. Teachers moved lessons across platforms, used semi-asynchronous activities, maintained digital records for students who missed class, and relied on informal networks to circulate resources and support. These practices suggest that digital education in crisis-affected contexts should be understood as adaptive continuity work: the design of teaching, materials, assessment, and communication systems that remain usable when electricity, connectivity, safety, and attendance cannot be guaranteed.

For ELT teaching and learning in Myanmar, the findings suggest that support should be grounded in the actual conditions under which teachers and learners work. While the study does not imply automatic change, it can inform more realistic program design, teacher education, and professional support, including low-bandwidth and semi-asynchronous courses, backup materials, flexible assessment, and support for connectivity, devices, and backup power where possible. Teacher support should also address well-being, emotional labor, informal advising, peer-support networks, and accessible professional development, especially where formal institutional support remains limited.

Beyond Myanmar, the study offers transferable insights for ELT contexts affected by crisis, conflict, political instability, or low-resource digital conditions, although the findings are not statistically generalizable and Myanmar's post-coup situation has its own specific political and historical features. In contexts marked by interrupted schooling, unstable infrastructure, restricted mobility, or uneven technology access, sustaining ELT requires more than moving classes online. It requires flexible pedagogy, low-bandwidth and semi-asynchronous design, backup communication channels, teacher collaboration, and attention to the emotional labor involved in supporting learners under stress. The study therefore suggests that ELT programs in crisis-affected contexts should treat infrastructure, pedagogy, teacher well-being, and professional networks as interconnected parts of educational continuity.

As a small qualitative study with six participants, the findings are not statistically generalizable to all ELT teachers in Myanmar. However, they offer a contextually grounded account of how selected teachers experienced and responded to English teaching during a protracted crisis. Future research could extend this study by including larger and more diverse groups of ELT teachers across different regions, school types, and learning contexts. Students' perspectives would also be valuable for understanding how learners experience teachers' adaptive practices, including semi-asynchronous learning, resource limitations, emotional support, and opportunity advising. Longitudinal research could further examine how teachers' strategies, well-being, and professional trajectories change over time as the crisis continues and digital education practices evolve.

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