YANGON UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS
DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS
MASTER OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES PROGRAMME

A STUDY ON THE DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE IN CAPACITY BUILDING IN MYANMAR (CASE STUDY: INDIA-MYANMAR CENTER FOR ENHANCEMENT OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY SKILLS (IMCEITS))

HONEY TUN
MDevS – 15 (18th BATCH)

JUNE, 2025

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment towards requirements for the
Master of Development Studies (MDevS) Programme

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YANGON UNVERSITY OF ECONOMICS
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This is to certify that this thesis entitled **"A Study on the Development Assistance in Capacity Building in Myanmar (Case Study: India-Myanmar Center for Enhancement of Information Technology Skills (IMCEITS))"** submitted as partial fulfilment towards the requirements for the degree of Master of Development Studies has been accepted by the Board of Examiners.

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ABSTRACT

Official Development Assistance (ODA) is a vital mechanism for developing country in their development journey. This study focuses on how the ODA can support skill development and employability through capacity building in Myanmar. A descriptive study was conducted, using both quantitative and qualitative data, with 146 students and faculty members of India-Myanmar Center for Enhancement of Information Technology Skills (IMCEITS), while secondary data was collected from official sources. The study reveals high participant satisfaction with course content, teaching quality, and infrastructure. Technical competencies improved notably, with most participants reporting greater confidence in applying ICT skills. Employment outcomes included 30% securing ICT-sector jobs and 34% joining government ministries, alongside promotions, salary increases, and further educational pursuits. The program demonstrated inclusivity, with 63% female participation and strong youth representation (20–30 years). However, addressing the challenges, such as language barriers, limited practical training, irregular scheduling, and restricted access for remote participants, is crucial.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACARE	Advanced Centre for Agricultural Research and Education
ACIAR	Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research
ADB	Asian Development Bank
AFD	Agence Française De Développement
AI	Artificial Intelligence
AIIB	Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank
ASEAN	Association Of Southeast Asian Nations
ATC	Authorized Training Centre
BADP	Border Area Development Programme
BIMSTEC	Bay Of Bengal Initiative for Multi-Sectoral Technical and Economic Cooperation
BRI	Belt And Road Initiative
CBPS	Capacity Building Programs
C-DAC	Centre For Development of Advanced Computing
CMEC	China-Myanmar Economic Corridor
CPG	Cooperation Partners Group
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DACU	Development Assistance Coordination Unit
EU	European Union
FERD	Foreign Economic Relations Department
G2G	Government-To-Government
GIZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft Für Internationale Zusammenarbeit
HADR	Humanitarian Assistance and Disaster Relief
IATI	International Aid Transparency Initiative
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
ICSSR	Indian Council of Social Science Research
ICT	Information And Communication Technology
IDA	International Development Association
IMCEITS	India-Myanmar Center for Enhancement of Information Technology Skills

IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMITCS	Indo-Myanmar Industrial Training Centres
IT	Information Technology
ITEC	Indian Technical & Economic Cooperation
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KFW	Kreditanstalt Für Wiederaufbau
KMTTP	Kaladan Multi-Modal Transit Transport Project
KOICA	Korea International Cooperation Agency
LIFT	Livelihoods And Food Security Fund
MDBS	Multilateral Development Banks
MDGS	Millennium Development Goals
MEA	Ministry of External Affairs
MIEDC	Myanmar-India Entrepreneurship Development Center
MIIT	Myanmar Institute of Information Technology
MOU	Memorandum Of Understanding
MSMES	Micro, Small, And Medium Enterprises
NGO	Non-Government Organizations
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organization For Economic Cooperation and Development
QIP	Quick Impact Projects
RSDP	Rakhine State Development Programme
SAP	Structural Adjustment Program
SDGS	Sustainable Development Goals
TVET	Vocational Education and Training
UCSY	University Of Computer Studies
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

USA	United States of America
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USD	United States Dollar
WB	World Bank

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale of the Study

The most basic understanding of Official Development Assistance (ODA) is the Aid given by governments in developed countries to governments in developing nations. By offering financial aid, institutional support, and technical know-how that recipient nations might not be able to gather on their own, Official Development Assistance, or Aid, is essential to fostering socioeconomic growth in developing nations. Developing countries face many socio-economic problems, such as poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, lack of human capital, trade imbalance, and so on. These issues, due to lack of economic resources, can be addressed through foreign aids, which generally includes technical assistance, grants, and concessional loans intended to promote economic growth, enhance welfare, and strengthen government. ODA is a vital source of assistance for critical areas like infrastructure, technology, health, and education in many developing countries. In addition to providing funds, ODA promotes knowledge exchange, supports institutional changes, and contributes to developing human capital, among other things which help nations successfully integrate into the world economy and overcome emerging challenges. Developing countries need ongoing efforts to build their capacities because they sometimes lack the technical expertise, institutional systems, and human capital they need to utilize the resources they have, carry out development programs efficiently, and turn external assistance into long-lasting socio-economic outcomes.

A significant element of sustainable development is building people's skills, knowledge, and the institutions that are needed for long-term growth. This is called capacity building. Its goal is not just to provide infrastructure or resources; it intends to improve governance systems, boost human resources, and encourage new ideas. In today's knowledge-based global economy, having access to skilled human capital is very important for keeping up with changes in technology, managing resources efficiently, and engaging in markets. Effective capacity building gives people the technical and

professional skills they need and gives institutions the freedom to run themselves and provide better services, which speeds up national development goals.

In Myanmar, capacity building remains both a critical requirement and a strategic priority. The country has made progress in many areas, but it is still having trouble developing its people resources. This is especially true when it comes to technical and digital skills, which are important for economic growth and competitiveness. Myanmar is unable to utilize its economic potential due to shortage of adequately trained professionals, limited institutional capabilities, and gaps in technology adoption. Therefore, strengthening skills in areas like information and communication technology (ICT) is important for many reasons. It helps in improving employability and productivity but also in supporting broader reforms in governance, education, and service delivery.

India has emerged as a key development partner to Myanmar, contributing significantly to its capacity-building efforts through ODA. This cooperation covers many areas, such as health, education, infrastructure, and developing human resources, with a strong focus on sharing technology and improving skills. The India-Myanmar Centre for Enhancement of Information Technology Skills (IMCEITS) represents one of the flagship initiatives under this partnership. Established with support from the Government of India, IMCEITS provides structured ICT training programmes targeting students, government officials, and job seekers, thereby addressing Myanmar's digital skills gap and assisting employability in the ICT sector.

This study looks at IMCEITS, a real-life project of development aid, as an example of long-term human resource development. This research seeks to explore the center's contribution on enhancing it competencies, technical expertise, and employability. It will help both academics and policymakers think about how ODA can help developing nations build their skills through capacity-building programs. As Myanmar navigates its path towards modernization and digital transformation, it is imperative to determine the extent to which external assistance aligns with national priorities and local needs. Assessing IMCEITS provides valuable insights into best practices, challenges and opportunities of capacity-building initiatives.

1.2 Objective of the Study

The objective of this study is to examine how the official development assistance (ODA) can support skill development and employability through capacity building trainings offered by the India-Myanmar Center for Enhancement of Information Technology Skills (IMCEITS).

1.3 Method of Study

The study employed a descriptive method, combining quantitative data analysis with qualitative data and case studies. Primary and secondary data was used in this study. The requisite primary data was collected through surveys from government officials, direct beneficiaries of the aid. The secondary data was sourced from official documents on the IMCEITS center.

1.4 Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study focuses on the India- Myanmar Center for Enhancement of Information Technology Skills (IMCEITS), a capacity building initiative in Myanmar. The survey was conducted specifically with faculty members and students who had undergone training courses at the IMCEITS center from 2008-2024. The scope was limited to Government of India assisted capacity building initiative and does not cover other sectors that ODA flows into, such as health, infrastructure etc.,

1.5 Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter one is the introduction, and includes rationale of the study, objectives of the study, method of the study and scope and limitations of the study. Chapter two provides a literature review. Chapter three presents the overview of Official Development Assistance (ODA), India's development assistance in Myanmar and on capacity building. Chapter four consists of a survey profile, survey design of the study, survey findings with specific focus on the IMCEITS project. With chapter five, the study concludes with findings, discussions and recommendations regarding the development assistance on capacity building.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definition and Concept of Foreign Aid (ODA)

2.1.1 Definition of Foreign Aid (ODA)

Foreign aid, often called Official Development Assistance (ODA), is generally defined as concessional transfers of resources from developed (donor) to developing countries to foster economic development and welfare. The OECD'S Development Assistance Committee (DAC) mandates that ODA flows must originate from official agencies to eligible countries and possess a grant-equivalent component (concessionally) of at least 25% (calculated using a 10% discount rate). ODA generally seems as grants, interest-subsidized loans, technical support, and donations of goods or services, aimed at objectives such as poverty reduction, education, health, and infrastructure development.

2.1.2 Historical Evolution of the Aid System and Global Trends

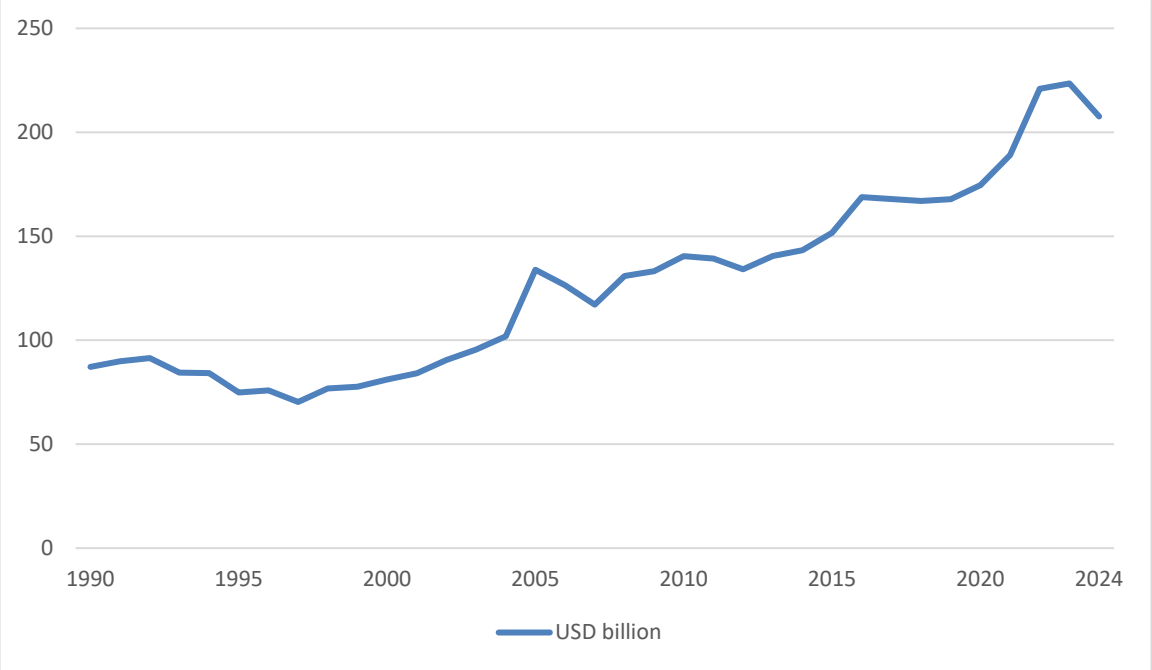
The modern aid system evolved from post-World War II reconstruction efforts, like the Marshall plan. It became official when the World Bank and other UN agencies were created. During the 1950s and 1960s, as decolonization spread, development aid changed its focus to helping newly independent countries, mostly in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. The goal was to promote political stability, economic growth, and poverty reduction (Moyo, 2009). Since 1969, when the DAC set the "Gold Standard" for ODA, it has been the main official way for North-South Development Funding (Riddell, r. C., 2007).

In the 1970s–80s, aid agendas expanded to include basic needs such as health, education, and rural development (Lancaster, 2007). People paid more attention to good governance, democratization, and human rights (Burnside & Dollar, 2000). The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), adopted in 2000, and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), adopted in 2015, changed the focus of aid on results that can be measured, global relationships, and sustainable environment (United Nations, 2015).

Global trends show a steady increase in total aid flows, reaching around USD 223 billion globally in 2023. In 2024, ODA from DAC member countries declined for the first time in six years, falling by 7.1% in real terms compared to 2023. Total ODA amounted to USD 212.1 billion, representing 0.33% of member countries' combined gross national income (GNI) (OECD, 2024). However, there has been debate, though, about the effectiveness and concerns over donor-driven agendas, aid dependency, and conditionalities (Dreher, 2024). The rise of South-South Cooperation and non-traditional donors like China and India has also reshaped the aid landscape (Mawdsley, 2012).

As shown in Figure (2.1), the evolution of global Official Development Assistance (ODA) disbursements from 1960 to 2020 demonstrates a significant increase, with a sharp rise in the 21st century reflecting growing commitments to international aid.

Figure (2.1) Evolution of Global ODA Disbursements (1990–2024)



Source: OECD DAC annual reports (2024)

2.1.3 Key Objective of Development Assistance

The key objective of Official Development Assistance (ODA) is to promote the economic development and welfare of recipient countries, primarily through long-term development initiatives rather than short-term humanitarian aid (Lancaster, 2007;

Morgenthau, 1962). ODA supports projects across social sectors like health and education, economic infrastructure such as roads and energy, institutional strengthening, skills training, good governance, and sustainable growth. According to the OECD (2023), ODA specifically targets the development needs of low and middle-income countries. It also aligns with global development frameworks like the Millennium Development Goals and the Sustainable Development Goals, which emphasize poverty eradication, improved health and education, gender equality, environmental sustainability, and international cooperation (United Nations, 2015). From Amartya Sen's (1999) perspective, aid should ultimately expand individuals' capabilities—empowering them to live healthy, educated, and participatory lives.

2.1.4 Channels of Aid Delivery

ODA must always be concessional, which means that loans are given on terms that are better than market rates, or they are given outright as grants. Multilateral organizations, such as the UN and World Bank, collect donor funds for programs, while bilateral aid goes directly between Government-to-Government (G2G). In essence, the main goal of ODA is to help recipient countries reach their development goals, as long as it meets the DAC's criteria for concessionally and focus on development.

2.1.5 Foreign Aid as an Instrument of Foreign Policy

In international relations, aid, also known as Official Development Assistance (ODA), is a key tool for a country's foreign policy. It helps donor countries project their influence, build diplomatic relationships, and promote their strategic interests abroad. Aid is not just an economic or humanitarian tool; it is also a calculated way for states to reach their geopolitical goals. For example, states may give aid to secure allies, gain access to resources, or promote political stability in areas that are important to their own national interests. This aligns with the realism view in political science, which says that states only care about power and safety. Liberal views, on the other hand, stress the cooperative side of aid, showing how it encourages interdependence and backs up global governance systems. So, foreign aid is a mix of helping others and making smart business decisions. It shows how national interests and international rules affect how donors act on the world stage (Lancaster, 2007; Morgenthau, 1962).

2.2 Global Overview of ODA

Over the last decade, global ODA flows have experienced a significant upward trend, particularly driven by responses to global emergencies such as the COVID-19 pandemic, climate-induced disasters, and armed conflicts. In 2023, total ODA provided by DAC member countries reached a record USD 223.3 billion, reflecting a 34% increase in real terms since 2019 (OECD, 2024). This Figure represented approximately 0.37% of the combined Gross National Income (GNI) of DAC members. However, it remained below the long-standing United Nations target of allocating 0.7% of GNI to ODA—a goal first endorsed in the 1970s but consistently achieved by only a minority of donors. In 2023, only five countries—Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg, Norway, and Sweden—met or exceeded this target, with Germany and Norway being the largest donors in terms of both volume and ODA-to-GNI ratio (Focus2030, 2024).

The United States remains the single largest donor in terms of absolute volume, contributing approximately USD 65 billion in 2023, although its ODA/GNI ratio lags behind many European counterparts, standing at around 0.24% (Development Aid, 2024). Germany, the second largest in absolute terms, demonstrated a stronger commitment relative to GNI, allocating approximately 0.79%. Other significant donors include Japan, France, and the United Kingdom, each of which contributes substantial amounts but fluctuates in relative commitments due to domestic fiscal priorities and political changes.

ODA is distributed through both bilateral and multilateral channels. Bilateral aid, which constitutes the majority share (approximately 70–75%), is provided directly by donor governments to recipient countries. Multilateral aid, by contrast, is pooled through international institutions such as the World Bank's International Development Association (IDA), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and various regional development banks. The World Bank's IDA replenishment for 2024–2027 reached a record commitment of USD 100 billion, showcasing the growing importance of multilateral platforms in the global development finance landscape (World Bank, 2024).

Table (2.1) Components of net Official Development Assistance (ODA) (2015-24)

Year	Bilateral Dev. projects and TC	Multilateral ODA	HADR	In-donor refugee costs	Net debt relief grants
2015	78995.22 (52.08%)	42364.36 (27.93%)	15721.35 (10.37%)	14089.6 (9.29%)	503.377 (0.33%)
2016	81670.56 (48.38%)	48322.38 (28.63%)	17039.33 (10.09%)	18953.76 (11.23%)	2819.39 (1.67%)
2017	85113.95 (50.70%)	47093.08 (28.05%)	18814.34 (11.21%)	16327.13 (9.73%)	530.4319 (0.32%)
2018	85979.64 (52.33%)	48221.15 (29.35%)	18074.42 (11.00%)	11895.39 (7.24%)	124.2973 (0.08%)
2019	85650.36 (52.52%)	47416 (29.08%)	18960.11 (11.63%)	10956.22 (6.72%)	96.67358 (0.06%)
2020	94568.32 (53.85%)	51393.52 (29.26%)	19336.26 (11.01%)	9658.956 (5.50%)	668.974 (0.38%)
2021	94720.45 (50.33%)	56308.65 (29.92%)	23070.75 (12.26%)	13517.83 (7.18%)	586.4675 (0.31%)
2022	112253 (50.17%)	53308.74 (23.82%)	24887.67 (11.12%)	33244.07 (14.86%)	72.83846 (0.03%)
2023	105882.2 (46.79%)	61558.26 (27.20%)	26197.59 (11.58%)	32586.1 (14.40%)	64.67 (0.03%)
2024	104578.1 (50.95%)	49814.58 (24.27%)	23686.37 (11.54%)	26950.76 (13.13%)	239.0979 (0.12%)

Source: OECD 2024 (in Million US dollars, Constant prices 2022)

As shown in Table (2.1), bilateral development projects and technical cooperation have consistently constituted the largest share of net ODA over the last decade, peaking at over USD 112 billion in 2022. Multilateral aid also witnessed a steady increase, reflecting growing reliance on international institutions for pooled financing mechanisms. Humanitarian aid has shown a consistent upward trend, rising from USD 15.7 billion in 2015 to a peak of over USD 26 billion in 2023, driven by global crises such as conflicts, pandemics, and climate-related disasters. A particularly notable trend is the exponential increase in in-donor refugee costs, which tripled between 2021 and 2022, reaching over USD 33 billion. While such expenditures are considered legitimate ODA under current OECD guidelines, they have drawn criticism for diverting funds away from direct development projects in recipient countries. Meanwhile, net debt relief grants have declined sharply since 2016, indicating a reduced emphasis on sovereign debt forgiveness as a development tool in the current international landscape.

The distribution of ODA by sector reveals significant strategic and humanitarian priorities among donors. In 2023, the largest share of ODA (approximately 32%) was allocated to social infrastructure and services. This sector includes education, health, water and sanitation, and public governance. Notably, ODA directed toward government and civil society reached USD 34.9 billion, followed by health at USD 18.7 billion, and education at USD 17.7 billion (Oliveira, 2024). Humanitarian aid comprised 13% of total ODA (Approximately USD 29 billion), highlighting the international community's continued response to crises in countries such as Ukraine, Afghanistan, Sudan, and Syria. ODA targeted at Ukraine alone amounted to roughly USD 20 billion in 2023, driven by both military-related humanitarian efforts and long-term reconstruction goals (OECD, 2024). To provide a clearer picture of donor-specific priorities, Table (2.2) presents the sectoral distribution of ODA from selected major donor countries in constant 2022 US dollars.

Table (2.2) Sectoral Distribution of Aid by Donors for the Year 2022

Country	Production sectors	Social infra and service	General program	Economic infra and services	Multi-sector / Cross-cutting	HADR
United States	1634	22374	1242	779	888	17146
Germany	2017	11819	443	6802	5976	3721
Japan	1873	3768	1498	8034	1672	521
France	776	5522	227	4818	1665	326
Canada	320	1689	16	849	229	1014
United Kingdom	382	1993	63	599	723	933
Netherlands	357	1640	53	441	513	918
Korea	341	1951	40	1741	174	147
Switzerland	410	1591		213	210	591

Source: OECD 2023 (in Million US dollars)

Economic infrastructure received around USD 35.7 billion, accounting for approximately 16% of total ODA. Within this category, energy infrastructure, transport, and financial services were key areas of investment, with road and rail development projects being particularly prominent in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. In contrast,

the production sector—including agriculture, fisheries, and industry—received a relatively modest share of 6%, reflecting ongoing debates about the prioritization of long-term capacity building versus immediate social needs (Development Aid, 2024).

The geographic distribution of ODA remains uneven. Africa received the largest share, though total ODA to the continent fell by 7% in 2023 to an estimated USD 74 billion. Latin America and the Caribbean experienced a sharper decline of 15%, while Asia maintained relatively stable aid receipts. Least Developed Countries (LDCs) received approximately USD 37 billion in bilateral ODA, accounting for 17% of total disbursements. However, middle-income countries—including some fragile and conflict-affected states—also received substantial aid, particularly in the context of refugee flows and post-disaster recovery efforts (UNCTAD, 2025).

ODA also serves as a tool for donors to project soft power and align recipient country policies with broader geopolitical objectives. While this has often been criticized as undermining the altruistic foundations of development assistance, recent trends suggest that political considerations remain an influential, if unofficial, determinant of aid allocation. Moreover, the categorization of in-donor refugee costs—expenses incurred by hosting asylum seekers in donor countries—as part of ODA has provoked controversy, as such expenditures accounted for approximately 14.6% of total ODA in 2023 (OECD, 2024). Critics argue that these funds, though legitimate under current OECD rules, do not directly contribute to development in recipient countries.

In summary, Official Development Assistance continues to be an essential financial flow in the global development architecture. While its volume has reached historic highs, concerns remain about its efficiency, equity, and alignment with sustainable development goals. The persistence of unmet ODA/GNI targets, the concentration of aid in politically significant regions, and the underfunding of key sectors such as agriculture and environmental sustainability suggest the need for recalibrated aid strategies. As the global community faces intersecting challenges—including climate change, pandemics, and geopolitical instability—ODA must evolve to remain a credible and impactful instrument for global solidarity and poverty reduction.

2.3 Bilateral vs. Multilateral Assistance

Bilateral assistance is provided directly from one country to another, often guided

by geopolitical, economic, or cultural ties (Mckinlay & Little, 1977). Donors like the USA, Japan, UK, and India provide large bilateral flows, often targeting countries of strategic importance or historical ties (Alesina & Dollar, 2000). Bilateral aid can be more flexible, but it may carry political or economic conditions tied to the donor's national interests (Berthélemy, 2006).

In contrast, multilateral assistance is channeled through international organizations such as the United Nations, World Bank, Asian Development Bank (ADB), or European Union (EU), pooling resources from multiple countries to fund programs in developing regions (Radelet, 2006). According to the OECD's Multilateral Development Finance Report 2024, this form of aid is generally considered more neutral because it is not tied to the interests of a single country. It usually focuses on collective goals such as poverty reduction, climate action, and health system strengthening (OECD, 2024).

Both forms have advantages: bilateral aid allows for focused interventions that are in line with diplomatic ties, while multilateral aid encourages shared responsibility and larger pools of funding (Morrison, 2012). The Paris declaration on aid effectiveness (2005) and the Accra Agenda for Action (2008) emphasized the importance of coordination between bilateral and multilateral donors to maximize impact (OECD, 2008).

2.4 Capacity Building in International Development

Capacity building, or capacity development, focuses on strengthening the abilities of individuals, organizations, and societies to achieve their development goals. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) defines capacity development as "the process through which individuals, organizations and societies obtain, strengthen and maintain the capabilities to set and achieve their own development objectives over time" (UNDP, 2009). This perspective views development as enhancing people's real freedoms or capabilities to lead lives they value. Building people's abilities includes more than just giving them technical training. It also includes creating institutions, methods for running things, leadership skills, legal frameworks, and local knowledge. As emphasized by Sen's (1999) "capability approach," development should enable people to participate in society and shape their futures. Building people's skills and making sure that institutions and skills last even after external support ceases is also part of capacity building.

Table (2.3) Types of Capacity-Building Programs

	Category	Description
Individual-Level Capacity Building	Professional and vocational training	Short-term courses, certifications, workshops, or ICT skills development for improving technical competencies
	Leadership and management development	Programs like mentorship or executive training that build managerial and strategic capabilities.
	Train-the-Trainer models	Cascading approaches designed to equip individuals to train others within their communities or organizations.
	Peer learning and communities of practice	Structured sharing among professionals to enhance skills through collaboration
Organizational-Level Capacity Building	Systems strengthening	Enhancing organizational systems—such as human resources, financial management, data collection, M&E, etc
	Process improvement	Streamlining workflows, decision-making protocols, or service delivery methods through results-based management or organizational diagnostics.
	Organizational development and change management	Facilitating cultural change or internal restructuring to boost performance and adaptability.
	Network development	Creating or reinforcing partnerships, inter-agency platforms, or coalitions that build collective capacity across entities.
Systemic or Environment-Level Capacity Building	Policy and institutional reform	Supporting crafting or reforming legal/regulatory frameworks, enabling policies, and strategic plans that define how sectors operate.
	Institutional architecture	Establishing governance bodies, councils, trade associations, or regulatory boards that frame and oversee sectoral development.
	Knowledge management ecosystems:	Building platforms, databases, or knowledge hubs that facilitate data sharing, innovation, and evidence-informed policymaking.
	Public–Private Partnerships (PPPs)	Engaging private-sector actors in capacity-building efforts to ensure resource sustainability, relevance, and scalability.

Source: World Bank (2006)

Building on these perspectives, development agency frameworks categorize capacity-building efforts into distinct but interconnected levels—each encompassing specific types of programs that address skills, systems, and enabling environments, as summarized in Table 2.3.

The concept of capacity building has evolved over the past two decades and can be perceived as vague or debated (Morgan, 2006). Many development organizations have broadened their scope from narrow training programs to comprehensive approaches that address organizational and policy capacity (Eade, 1997). However, scholars note that "capacity development" lacks a universally agreed-upon definition. Some analysts say that putting too much focus on capacity building can make complicated problems seem easier to solve, without doing enough research into the situation (Brinkerhoff, 2010). Nevertheless, capacity building is largely recognized as a fundamental development strategy, with aid programs increasingly incorporating components to train civil servants, improve systems (e.g., budgeting, data), and empower local stakeholders (UNDP, 2009).

A crucial principle in capacity-building efforts is local ownership, with development practitioners stressing that capacity development must be demand-driven, allowing national stakeholders to identify their needs and lead program design (OECD, 2005). For instance, a UNDP report highlights that capacity-building initiatives must be “demand led” and that donors should defer to local authorities when formulating capacity-development plans (UNDP, 2009). This aligns with aid effectiveness norms, such as the Paris declaration, which underscore country ownership and alignment with national strategies (OECD, 2005). Capacity building can occur at various levels, ranging from on-the-job training for individuals to reforming organizational practices and strengthening legal and regulatory systems. Effective programs often combine technical training (e.g., computer skills, management techniques) with efforts to reform institutions and build networks, such as supporting local training-of-trainers or public-private partnerships (Eade, 1997). Capacity building in international development is seen as an ongoing, all-encompassing process that gives people the tools they need to run and maintain development efforts on their own.

The health sector reform in Rwanda is a great example of how capacity building can work. The government worked with foreign donors and NGOs to train local health

workers, strengthen community-based health insurance systems, and improve data management. These efforts led to dramatic improvements in maternal and child health outcomes and also showed that focused training and institutional support can have long-lasting effects (Binagwaho et al., 2013). Another case is the Philippines' tax administration reform, supported by the World Bank (WB) and USAID, which focused on improving revenue collection through staff training, ICT modernization, and policy reforms. The program enhanced the Bureau of Internal Revenue's institutional capacity and significantly increased tax compliance. This shows that strong national ownership and long-term donor involvement can make public institutions stronger (World Bank, 2017).

2.5 Development Aid as Diplomacy: Mutual Gains and Hidden Costs

When countries get development aid, they are often promised growth. This is because the aid brings investments in health, education, technology, and infrastructure that the countries may not be able to make on their own. But there's a tangled network of political goals, conditionalities, and strategic interests under all that generosity. This, a two-sided nature of help, means that countries that receive it get both tangible advantages and significant costs. The cases below show how different donor countries use their aid programs to work toward both development and strategic goals at the same time.

1. United States: Promoting Democracy and Reducing Poverty vs. Countering China's Influence

One of the United States' flagship initiatives in Africa is the Power Africa project, launched in 2013. It aims to expand access to electricity across the continent by leveraging public-private partnerships. For recipient countries, this initiative provides critical infrastructure investment, improves energy access, and creates opportunities for local industries and job creation. However, the strategic undertone is to counterbalance China's growing influence in African economies, particularly in the energy and infrastructure sectors.

2. China: Infrastructure Investment and Economic Growth vs. Expanding Geopolitical Access

China's aid model is driven largely by infrastructure-led development. China helps

developing nations build roads, bridges, and other infrastructure by giving them loans, technical help, and building materials through the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI). A prominent example is the China-Myanmar Economic Corridor (CMEC), which includes projects such as deep-sea ports in Kyaukphyu, road and railway development linking Yunnan Province to central Myanmar, and energy pipelines.

For Myanmar, the gains are immediate: improved connectivity, job creation during construction, and a potential boost to trade. However, the trade-offs include concerns over debt sustainability, environmental impact, and sovereignty. There is also criticism that these investments often need Chinese workers and materials, which affects the local economy. From a strategic point of view, these projects give China direct access to the Indian Ocean, bypassing the Malacca Strait, and establishing a strong political presence in Southeast Asia.

3. India: Human Resource Development vs. Strengthening Regional Influence under the Act East Policy

India's development assistance to Myanmar reflects its broader strategic goals under the Act East Policy, which aims to deepen political and economic ties with Southeast Asian nations. Project like the Myanmar Institute of Information Technology (MIIT) focus on capacity building, technology education, and skills transfer. These initiatives empower local youth with modern skills and enhance Myanmar's human capital—clearly a developmental gain. Yet, these efforts also serve India's strategic interest in balancing Chinese influence, maintaining regional stability, and securing cross-border connectivity through infrastructure and education diplomacy. For Myanmar, this partnership is beneficial but comes with expectations of alignment with Indian regional priorities, such as counter-insurgency cooperation and connectivity to India's Northeast.

4. Japan: Post-Conflict Recovery and Connectivity vs. Securing Strategic Trade Routes

Japan has been a significant development partner for Myanmar, particularly in post-conflict reconstruction and connectivity enhancement. One key project is the development of the Yangon Port, a critical maritime hub for trade in the region. Japan's Official Development Assistance (ODA) focuses on peace-building, institution strengthening, and socioeconomic infrastructure.

From the recipient's perspective, Japan's projects bring high-quality infrastructure, institutional reforms, and social stability. However, Japan also seeks to secure key maritime trade routes and counterbalance China's dominance in the Indo-Pacific region. Thus, Myanmar gains from economic and social progress, while it is also a part of bigger strategic calculations that could change the country's foreign policy.

Each of these examples shows that development assistance is rarely neutral. It helps reach national development goals by making necessary investments, building up people's skills, and helping the social sector, but it often comes with unspoken strategic alliances or policy trade-offs. For recipient countries, the challenge is to find a balance between getting better at development and protecting their independence and sovereignty over the long run. Transparent negotiation, local capacity development, and diversified partnerships may help mitigate these trade-offs while maximizing the benefits of aid.

In summary, the purpose of development assistance is to support recipient countries in advancing development outcomes (economic growth, social well-being, institutional reform), subject to broader international commitments, although donor interests and strategic considerations also play a significant role. In short, development assistance creates mutual benefits, but both sides pay certain costs, whether financial, political, or strategic, to engage in the aid relationship.

2.6 Review on previous studies

Stefan Kühl (2009) critically examines how development aid organizations have adopted capacity development. International assistance discourses stress capacity building, institutional strengthening, and human resource development, according to organizational sociology and neo-institutional theory. This study claims that assistance organizations utilize capacity development to gain credibility with funders, governments, and stakeholders, not because it works. Like total quality management or business process re-engineering, the study suggests aid agencies update their conceptual frameworks to demonstrate responsiveness, modernity, and adaptability. The paper demonstrates how capacity-focused ideas progressed from 1950s institution construction to 1970s institutional development, 1980s human resource development, and 1990s and beyond capacity development. The study says this tendency suggests interventions should move from individuals or organizations to systems. Capacity building promotes local ownership

and self-reliance but also boosts donor influence by pressing local actors to embrace externally defined “good governance” and “best practice.” His world polity approach, which explains organizational model spread through global norms, mimicry, and legitimacy-seeking, is crucial. Capacity development is believed to be locally driven and endogenous, but western development agencies like the World Bank and UNDP defined global norms and funneled large-scale funding, promoting its widespread adoption. The study also discusses capacity development's practical challenges, such as overloaded expectations, conflicting long-term and short-term donor needs, and institutional transformation quantification. He says that while capacity building has become a near-universal word in development cooperation, its operationalization is often ambiguous, meaningless, and lacking in implementation strategies.

Kumar, Rangappa, and Suchitra (2022) examines the efficacy of online capacity building programs (CBPS) for helping university teachers improve their research and teaching skills. The researchers used a detailed questionnaire and analyzed the answers from 175 faculty members who attended a 12-day online workshop funded by the Indian council of social science research (ICSSR). The study found that while teachers could understand theoretical concepts easily, they struggled to apply technical tools, such as statistical methods, in their research work. Importantly, teachers who were more fluent in English and had higher qualifications felt more confident in using the workshop content. The study points out that even though online workshops are flexible and help overcome time and space limits, they still need improvements, especially when teaching complex tools like regression or chi-square tests. The authors suggest that CBPS should include more interactive methods and practical resources to help teachers better apply what they learn. They also highlight that research improves teaching quality, and there is a need to redesign course syllabi to include more research-focused content, especially in social sciences. However, the study notes its own limitation: since it looked at just one workshop in Karnataka, the results cannot be generalized to all Indian faculty.

Lalithakumari and Vijayarani (2025) explore how capacity-building programs affect teacher educators’ skills and performance. Using interviews with 40 teacher educators from private colleges in Coimbatore, the study found that these programs help improve teaching abilities, update knowledge, and strengthen technological and pedagogical skills. Teachers reported that the programs enhanced their motivation,

leadership, and classroom management, allowing them to use more learner-centered and activity-based approaches. The study also emphasizes that these programs are key for adapting to the fast-changing educational environment, especially as they promote teamwork, creativity, and communication. Policymakers are encouraged to develop strong capacity-building strategies, including mentorship, school-based activities, and research opportunities, to ensure continuous teacher growth. However, the study highlights that more attention is needed at both government and institutional levels to ensure long-term, sustainable improvements. Overall, this research offers valuable insights for improving teacher training policies and enhancing educational quality.

Ei Ei Htun (2021) examines Official Development Assistance (ODA) in Myanmar's education sector, focusing on EU aid. The study uses a descriptive qualitative technique to combine primary data from Ministry of Education, EU, and partner organization interviews with secondary data from government and institutional sources. This study of ODA flows, distribution, and use in Myanmar's basic education sector is

important. After Myanmar's political reforms post-2011, the EU has been one of its main contributors, giving funding and technical help, according to the thesis. One key conclusion is that EU aid has increased education-sector investment by 8%. It highlights important issues including poor government-donor communication, insufficient technical and linguistic skills among implementing staff, and weak monitoring systems to assure aid effectiveness. The thesis claims these obstacles prevent development assistance from fully achieving its goals. The thesis agrees with previous research (Htet Myat Ko, 2010; Mar Mar Myaing, 2015) that aid alone is insufficient without strong local institutional capacities and coordinated management frameworks. This study supports OECD and World Bank findings that ODA effectiveness depends on donor responsibility and recipient accountability. The thesis also suggests strengthening local staff capacity-building, stakeholder communication, and aid allocation and implementation transparency. Myanmar's complex political situation and the growing need of integrating aid with national education reforms like the national education strategic plan make these ideas pertinent. This study provides a nuanced knowledge of the benefits, problems, and practicalities of handling international development assistance in Myanmar's transition. Policymakers, practitioners, and scholars studying donor aid, governance, and sectoral

changes in developing nations can benefit from it.

Kay Thi Tun (2024) highlights the pivotal role of Japanese Official Development Assistance (ODA) in Myanmar's political and economic reform process, especially during the transitional period from 2011 to 2019. The paper outlines Japan's long-standing involvement with Myanmar, beginning with war reparations in the 1950s and evolving into strategic development cooperation. It emphasizes how Japan maintained diplomatic engagement even during periods of international sanctions, notably supporting Myanmar through humanitarian and technical assistance following the 1988 political upheaval. After Myanmar's reform initiatives in 2011, Japan resumed its full-fledged ODA, targeting key sectors such as infrastructure, energy, and rural development. Notably, projects like the Thilawa Special Economic Zone and the Yangon-Mandalay Railway Improvement were backed by substantial Japanese loans and technical cooperation. The study also notes that Japan's aid strategy focused on improving livelihoods, institution-building, and economic infrastructure, positioning ODA as both a diplomatic tool and a means to support Myanmar's democratization and development. The study concludes that Japan's assistance was not merely economic support but a calculated effort to foster political stability, economic growth, and reduce China's influence in the region, making Japanese ODA a cornerstone in Myanmar's reform journey.

CHAPTER III
DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE IN MYANMAR

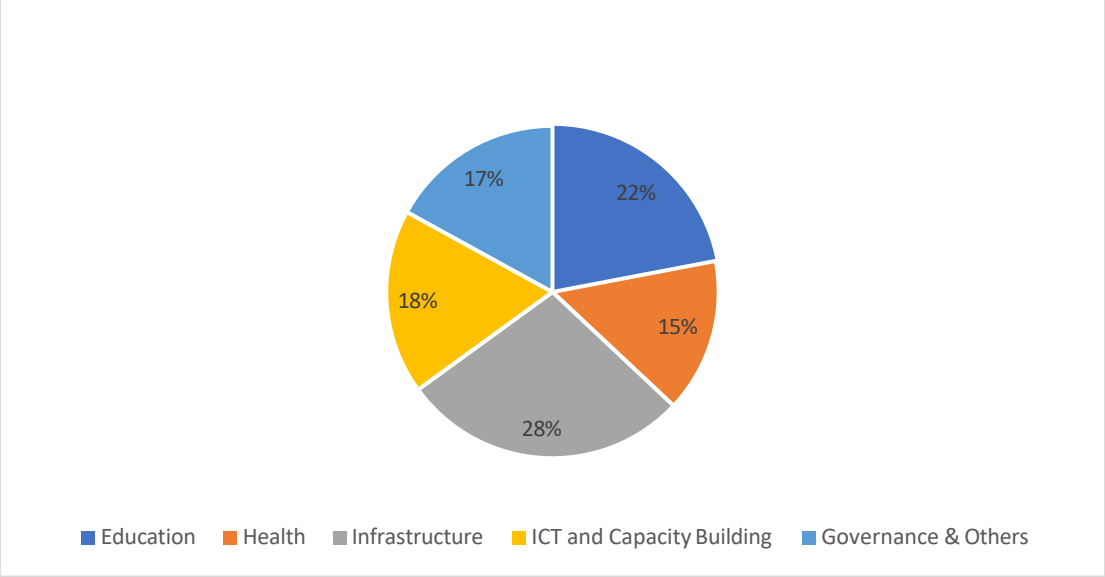
3.1 Historical Background of Development Assistance in Myanmar

Foreign aid to Myanmar has been highly influenced by its political history. In the 1950s, shortly after gaining independence, Myanmar received substantial assistance, notably Japanese war reparations amounting to US$ 250 million under the 1954 treaty, along with technical aid (Hout, 2015). In the 1980s, Japanese aid dominated, accounting for 71.5% of foreign aid and 20% of the national budget in 1987, funding hydroelectric and industrial projects. However, after 1988, Japan's annual aid sharply decreased, falling from an average of US$ 154.8 million between 1981 and 1988 to US$ 36.7 million between 1996 and 2005. China was among the first to engage with Myanmar, providing grants and subsidized loans, including US$ 482.7 million in loans and US$ 24.2 million in grants between 1997 and 2006 (The Asia Foundation, 2018). By the 2000s, countries like the UK, Australia, and the EU cautiously resumed aid, focusing on governance and development initiatives (OECD, 2018).

A significant shift occurred between 2011 and 2016 when Myanmar's quasi-civilian government actively sought foreign assistance. This era was marked by substantial debt relief and new lending from Multilateral Development Banks (MDBs). For instance, Japan exempted approximately US$ 5.44 billion of Myanmar's debt by 2013 (Japan Ministry of Finance, 2013). Concurrently, the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank (ADB) re- entered the country, launching new programs totaling roughly US$ 520 million and US$ 552 million in 2013, respectively (World Bank, 2013; ADB, 2013). During this period, the government adopted formal aid frameworks, including the 2013 Nay Pyi Taw accord, the 2014 "Guide to International Assistance," and a framework for economic & social reforms (Myanmar Government, 2014). The Foreign Economic Relations Department (FERD) within the Planning Ministry became the central point of contact for all donors (OECD, 2018).

Since 2016, Myanmar further institutionalized its aid coordination mechanisms. A high-level Development Assistance Coordination Unit (DACU), was established to define aid priorities and policies. Sectoral working groups were streamlined into ten "Sector Coordination Groups," and donors were reorganized into a "Cooperation Partners Group" (CPG) with thematic workstreams. These reforms aimed to enhance screening, reduce duplication, and ensure that assistance aligned with National Development Plans (OECD, 2020). Figure (3.1) illustrates the sectoral allocation of foreign aid in Myanmar between 2011 and 2022, highlighting the significant contributions to education, health, infrastructure, and ICT development.

Figure (3.1) Sectoral Allocation of Foreign Aid in Myanmar (2011–2022)



Source: World Bank 2024

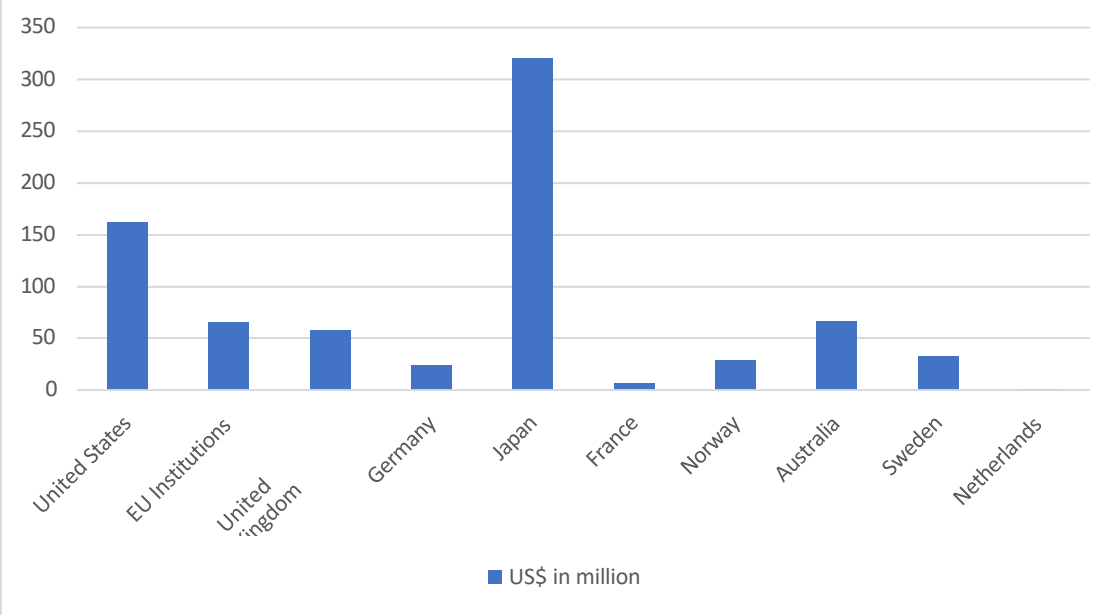
3.2 An Overview of ODA in Myanmar

Official Development Assistance (ODA) has played a pivotal role in Myanmar's development landscape, especially in the post-2000 period as the country opened up to increased international cooperation. The trend of official development assistance (ODA) going into Myanmar shows that the aid situation is very flexible and politically sensitive, shaped by both internal politics and international politics. Between 2003 and 2022, Myanmar witnessed a substantial increase in net ODA received, rising from approximately

US$ 125 million in 2003 to a peak of over US$ 3.9 billion in 2013, before stabilizing at US$ 1.5 billion in 2021 and declining to US$ 1 billion in 2022 (World Development Indicators, 2025). This fluctuation corresponds with shifts in international engagement.

In terms of donor composition, the landscape in 2022 was dominated by a small group of Development Assistance Committee (DAC) members. The United States, despite growing geopolitical tensions, remained the largest bilateral donor with US$ 161.7 million, followed closely by France with a substantial commitment of US$ 320.5 million. Notably, EU institutions as a collective entity contributed US$ 66 million, highlighting the bloc's ongoing development cooperation in sectors such as humanitarian assistance, governance, and public health. Other prominent contributors included Germany (US$ 23.5 million), United Kingdom (US$ 57.7 million), and Japan (US$ 6.7 million), with additional support from countries such as Norway, Sweden, Australia, and the Netherlands, albeit at smaller volumes. To contextualize Myanmar's ODA inflow in the donor landscape, Figure (3.2) below presents the Top Ten DAC Donors to Myanmar in 2022, underscoring both the relative magnitude and diversity of donor support.

Figure (3.2) Ten Major DAC Donors to Myanmar in 2022



Source: OECD 2024

The types of help that Myanmar gets are mostly in line with global trends, with a focus on social infrastructure, humanitarian aid, and economic development. However, Myanmar's unique context—marked by ethnic diversity, underdeveloped institutions, and political volatility—has led many donors to prioritize capacity building, health care, basic education, and democratic governance as primary areas of support. In recent years, the balance between humanitarian aid and developmental aid has also shifted, as donors recalibrate their strategies to support civil society, cross-border aid delivery, and crisis resilience.

The trend analysis over the two-decade span further illustrates Myanmar's changing position within the global aid architecture. While the inflows in the mid-2000s remained modest, the post-2011 period saw a surge in development aid linked to democratic reforms, culminating in record-level aid in 2013 (Carr, 2018). However, the subsequent drop in recent years highlights donor fatigue, and shifting global priorities (OECD, 2025). Despite the decline, ODA continues to play a crucial role in sustaining public service delivery and supporting the broader agenda of capacity development and nation-building in Myanmar.

3.3 Capacity Building through ODA in Myanmar

Capacity building is a central component of international development efforts, with numerous development partners playing critical roles in supporting the strengthening of human resources, institutions, and governance systems in developing countries. Major development partners include multilateral organizations such as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the World Bank, and regional development banks like the Asian Development Bank (ADB), as well as bilateral donors including countries like Japan, Germany, and India. These partners provide technical assistance, financial resources, training programs, and policy advice aimed at enhancing the capabilities of individuals and institutions to effectively plan, implement, and sustain development initiatives. Their collaboration often aligns with global frameworks such as the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and emphasizes principles of country ownership, coordination, and sustainability in capacity development (UNDP, 2018). Myanmar has engaged with a diverse range of development partners, many of whom have significant capacity-building initiatives.

3.3.1 Japan

Japan's Official Development Assistance (ODA) to Myanmar has been a key part of efforts to build up the country's infrastructure, institutions, and human resources. Japan has helped fund major infrastructure loan programs through JICA. These include the Yangon Sewerage System Development Project, the Yangon Urban Development Project, the Urban Area Power Distribution Improvement Project, and the Regional Infrastructure Improvement Project, which together cost more than ¥120 billion in 2020. The goal of these projects is to improve urban services, utility management, and municipal governance in Yangon and the surrounding areas. Complementing these are strategic infrastructure capacity-building loans like the East–West Economic Corridor Highway Development Project (New Bago–Kyaikto section) and the Project for the Development of Finance for Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (Phase III), which aim to strengthen logistics infrastructure and bolster SME financial intermediation respectively. Japan’s ODA grant funding also includes the Construction of New Yangon Specialist Hospital, a US$ 77 million project delivering Myanmar’s first national teaching and research hospital for cardiovascular and neurological care. This will improve the healthcare system's capacity and medical training. Japan's Ministry of Defense has helped build specific technical skills through seminars and exchanges. For example, from 2016 to 2019, the Defense Services Academy offered Japanese language classes and Myanmar military medical personnel attended seminars on underwater medicine and disaster response. These projects show a multi-faceted strategy to helping Myanmar's social and economic change through Japan's quality infrastructure and capacity building agenda. They include improving infrastructure, strengthening institutions, and developing human resources. Table (3.1) provides an overview of technical cooperation projects implemented in Myanmar by Japan from 2014-2016, highlighting the diversity and scope of development assistance initiatives focused on capacity development.

Table (3.1) Japan's ODA to Myanmar through Technical Cooperation (2014-2016)

Fiscal Year	Technical Cooperation	Period
2014	• Eradication of Opium Poppy Cultivation and Rural Development in Northern Shan State	• [May 14-Apr 19]
	• Curriculum Reform at Primary Level of Basic Education	• [May 14-Sep 19]
	• Capacity Development on New CNS/ATM Systems	• [Sep 14-Aug 18]
	• Capacity building of Thilawa Special Economic Zone Management Committee	• [Sep 14-Sep 15]
	• Health Systems Strengthening	• [Oct 14-Sep 18]
2015	• Enhancement of Medical Education	• [Apr 15-Sep 19]
	• Capacity Development in Basic Water Environmental Management Committee	• [Jun 154-Apr18]
	• Improvement of Water Supply Management of YCDC	• [Jul 15-Jul 20]
	• Capacity Development of Yezin Agricultural University	• [Nov 15-Nov 20]
	• Strengthening of Industrial Promotion Functions	• [Feb 16-Feb 18]
	• Development of Malaria Control (Interrupting Transmission Toward Prelamination	• [Mar 16-Mar 20]
	• Profitable Irrigated Agriculture in Western Bago Region	• [Mar 16-Mar 21]
2016	• Capacity Development of Road and Bridge Technology	• [Apr 16-Jun 19]
	• Capacity Development of the Myanma Radio and Television (MRTV)	• [May 16-May 20]
	• Postal Service Capacity Improvement Project	• [Jun 16-Jun 19]
	• Capacity Development of Power Sector Development Planning	• [Sep 16-Dec 18]
	• Capacity Development of Power Transmission and Distribution Systems	• [July 16-Apr 21]

Source: JICA 2017

3.3.2 China

China's ODA-funded capacity-building in Myanmar includes developing infrastructure, training people, strengthening institutions, and post-disaster assistance. China's Export-Import Bank and state-owned companies helped build major hydroelectric power plants in Myanmar, such as the Lower Paunglaung (280 MW, completed in 2005), the Yeywa Dam (790 MW, operational in 2011), and the Shweli I cascade (600 MW). Under the Lancang-Mekong Cooperation (LMC), China's LMC Special Fund granted US$ 6.7 million in 2020 to support feasibility studies and upgrades of strategic infrastructure such as the Wan Pong Port in Shan State and planned hydropower ventures on the Salween River such as the proposed Tasang Dam. In urban development, the New Yangon City initiative signed a US$ 1.5 billion framework agreement in 2018 with China Communications Construction Company (CCCC), encompassing initial utilities, roads, and power-water infrastructure for a planned new satellite urban zone west of Yangon. China has also supported human capacity via technical and vocational training: from 2013 to 2018, it held over 200 training programs on environmental protection and clean energy for Myanmar officials and technicians, alongside programs in trade facilitation, border inspection, e-commerce, and logistics under broader ODA and regional cooperation platforms.

3.3.3 Asian Development Bank (ADB)

Following its 2012 reengagement with Myanmar, the ADB has provided technical assistance (TA) and financing to improve institutional capacity, human resources, and local governance under its Country Partnership Strategy (2017–2021). The Bank approved 45 TA projects from 2012 to mid-2017, funding them with around US$69 million in areas such public financial management, sector policy, trade facilitation, energy regulation, catastrophe risk management, and urban planning (ADB, 2018). TA-9292 strengthened project preparation capacity to help Myanmar's Ministry of Transport and Communications build a PPP unit (US$330,000 budget). The Environmental Conservation Department received on-the-job training and guidance from TA-8786: Environmental Safeguard Institutional Strengthening to implement Myanmar's new EIA procedures, including reviewing reports and issuing compliance certificates (US$60,000 budget). Grant 9176 – Greater Mekong Subregion Capacity Building for HIV/AIDS

Prevention enhanced project management, procurement, and M&E systems in township health departments, enabling improved intervention delivery. The Resilient Community Development Project (2024-2024) aims to empower nearly 1.8 million rural residents in 2,942 villages in Ayeyarwady, Chin, Sagaing, and Tanintharyi through funding over 15,000 livelihood subprojects, including climate-resilient village roads, water supply, electrification, and community centers. The initiative is funded by a US$ 185 million concessional loan, a US$ 10 million Asian Development Fund grant, and additional support from various sources. The ADB's interventions in Myanmar span multiple sectors, including institutional reform, environmental governance, health system strengthening, and rural livelihood resilience, combining technical assistance with investment finance to promote socio-economic development.

3.3.4 World Bank

The World Bank was initially active from 1956-87, providing 35 loans, and was readmitted after 2011. A flagship effort was the National Community-Driven Development Project (NCDDP) launched in 2013. This initiative benefited over 7 million people across 63 townships, enabling communities to plan and execute local infrastructure projects like roads, water systems, schools, and rural electrification. It invested heavily in training—over 700,000 citizens and thousands of government officials gained skills in planning, implementation, financial management, procurement. (World Bank, 2013)

3.3.5 United Nations (UNDP, UNICEF, etc.)

Various UN agencies provide capacity- building and humanitarian aid. UNDP focuses on institutional reform, development planning, and peacebuilding. UNICEF works on child health and education. UNHCR is involved with refugees and displaced people. UNDP joined Myanmar's country programming around 2012. (UNDP, 2018)

3.3.6 European Union (EU)

EU institutions and member states channel grants and technical assistance. EU funding, approximately Eur 300-380 million during 2011-2015, has supported governance reform, civil society, education, and human development. An EU audit noted commitments of approximately €380.7 million (2013-17) for Myanmar, including €38.8

million for Rakhine state. (European Commission, 2017)

3.3.7 Other bilateral aids

Other significant bilateral donors include Australia, the UK, Germany (Kfw/Giz), South Korea (KOICA), and Singapore, along with ASEAN-led programs. South Korea has emerged as one of Myanmar's major donors in recent years. Singapore has provided extensive technical training, with over 8,700 Myanmar officials trained in the past decade. Germany, through Giz, has notably worked on curriculum reform in vocational education and training (TVET), training approximately 1,200 vocational teachers and administrators and helping certify 1,000 workers as "semi-skilled" under new labor standards. (OECD, 2018; GIZ, 2019)

3.3.8 United States

Since the early 2010s, USAID has implemented multiple capacity-building interventions in Myanmar, centering on agriculture, health, information management, civil society, and local governance. In agriculture, the Fertilizer Sector Improvement (FSI +) project (2014–2019)—implemented by the International Fertilizer Development Center—trained over 13,000 farmers (40 % women) in integrated soil fertility management and local retail networks, resulting in yield increases of 28 % (wet-season rice) and 18 % (dry season), and an average US$890 annual income increase per farm (IFDC/AUSAID, 2019). In health, USAID-supported malaria assessments— including the Malaria Burden Reduction Assessment (Aug 2018–Mar 2019)— strengthened local township health departments' capacity in program design, monitoring and evaluation across Kayin, Yangon, Tanintharyi, Rakhine, and Nay Pyi Taw regions (MIMU USAID_010, 2019). In geospatial and information management, MIMU delivered technical training to 227 participants (51 % women) in 2020 via 11 Myanmar-language courses (Excel, QGIS, Power BI), with 58,770 public downloads of training materials and 414 orientation attendees from 301 agencies (50 % women), enhancing humanitarian and development data capacities. Additionally, through Mekong for the Future (2020–2025) under USAID, local networks received capacity building in natural resource governance, civic engagement and environmental stewardship across Myanmar's border regions. To facilitate clearer understanding and systematic presentation, the aforementioned information is organized in Table (3.2).

Table (3.2) Summary of USAID Capacity-Building Initiatives in Myanmar

Sector	Initiative / Project Name	Period	Key Outputs / Capacity Strengthened	Reach & scale
Agriculture	FSI + (Fertilizer Sector Improvement)	2014–2019	~13,000 farmers trained, soil-fertility practices, private agro-input networks	Delta & southern Shan Regions; women ~40 %
Health	Malaria Burden Reduction Assessment (USAID_010)	Aug 2018–Mar 2019	Strengthened township M&E and intervention planning in malaria control	Townships in Kayin, Yangon, Rakhine, Tanintharyi, Nay Pyi Taw
Data & GIS	MIMU technical training & orientation	2020	Skills in Excel, QGIS, Power BI; orientation in information tools	227 trained; 58,770 downloads; 414 orientations; agencies: 301
Governance & Civic Engagement	Mekong for the Future (MFF, USAID-led)	2020–2025	Community engagement in resource governance, coalition building, training	Multi-state border areas; regional civic networks

Source: MIMU USAID Report

3.3.9 Other donors

NGOs and other development banks, such as the Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank (AIIB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), (IMF, 2020) have also engaged with Myanmar's reforms, particularly during the 2000s.

3.4 India's Overall Development Assistance in Myanmar

3.4.1 Historical Background

India and Myanmar share deep-rooted historical, cultural, and civilizational ties dating back centuries. Following Myanmar's independence from British colonial Rule in 1948, India was among the first countries to establish diplomatic relations with Myanmar. However, bilateral engagement waned during the cold war period due to differing political trajectories. The relationship began to re-strengthen in the early 1990s when India adopted its "look east policy" (now "act east policy") to enhance economic and strategic ties with Southeast Asia (Ministry of External Affairs [MEA], 2021).

India's development assistance in Myanmar formally intensified during the 2000s as part of its broader regional engagement strategy. Recognizing Myanmar's geopolitical significance as a land bridge between South and Southeast Asia, India began extending Lines of Credit, Grants-In-Aid, and technical assistance in sectors including infrastructure, health, education, IT, and capacity building. India's development aid in Myanmar reflects a combination of strategic interests, regional integration goals, and a commitment to inclusive development.

3.4.2 Strategic importance

Myanmar holds immense strategic value for India, serving as a critical component of its act east policy and broader geopolitical aspirations. Geographically, Myanmar is India's only Southeast Asian neighbor with a shared land border, adjoining four Indian states—Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland, Manipur, and Mizoram. As such, stability and development in Myanmar directly influence India's internal security, especially in countering insurgency and facilitating socio-economic development in the North-East region.

Moreover, Myanmar provides India access to the Bay of Bengal, opening up maritime trade routes and enhancing regional connectivity. Key projects like the Kaladan multi-modal transit transport project (KMTTP) and the India-Myanmar-Thailand trilateral highway are not merely infrastructure undertakings, but strategic instruments to link India with Southeast Asia by road and sea, bypassing the congested Siliguri corridor. These

corridors are pivotal in advancing trade, tourism, and people-to-people contact, as well as reducing logistical costs for India's Northeastern States.

In the context of China's expanding influence in the Indo-pacific, Myanmar emerges as a frontline state in the strategic competition between New Delhi and Beijing (Singh, 2019). China has entrenched itself in Myanmar's infrastructure and energy sectors through initiatives under the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI), including the Kyaukphyu deep- sea port and dual oil and gas pipelines that stretch from the Bay of Bengal to Yunnan province. India's development assistance, by contrast, is viewed as more inclusive and participatory, emphasizing local ownership and capacity building. Thus, India's engagement aims to present a sustainable alternative, strengthening its soft power while preserving geopolitical balance in the region.

Myanmar is not only a neighbor but a strategic gateway for India's economic integration, regional stability, energy ambitions, and geopolitical positioning in the face of competing influences. India's development assistance, therefore, is deeply interwoven with its strategic calculus, aiming to create mutually beneficial outcomes while safeguarding national interests.

3.4.3 Development Assistance

(i) Infrastructure projects: India's infrastructure development initiatives in Myanmar are key to enhancing regional connectivity. One of the flagship projects is the Kaladan Multimodal Transit Transport Project (KMTTP) which aims to create a multi-modal transport corridor for cargo shipment from India's eastern ports to Myanmar, and also to India's north-eastern part via Myanmar, enhancing trade and access to the Bay of Bengal. Complementing this is the India-Myanmar-Thailand Trilateral Highway, a crucial corridor for regional connectivity which involves two segments: replacement of 69 World War II-vintage bridges along Tamu-Kalewa-Kyigone road stretch and upgradation of the 120-km long Kalewa-Yargyi road to National Highway standard. Additionally, the India-Myanmar Border Area Development Programme (BADP) provides socio-economic and infrastructure support through a grant-in-aid of US$ 25 million over five years for people living in remote and underdeveloped areas along the India-Myanmar border. Furthermore, under the Rakhine State Development Programme (RSDP)

mechanism, India's humanitarian assistance to Myanmar through a grant-in-aid of US$ 25 million for 5 years, focusing on rebuilding and rehabilitating conflict-affected communities in Rakhine state.

(ii) **Health-Care projects:** Under the Upgradation of Yangon Children Hospital and Sittwe General Hospital and Construction of 200-Bedded Women Hospital, Monywa, India has provided support for construction of hospitals, supply of medical equipment, and donations of COVID-19 vaccines under its "Vaccine Maitri" initiative (MEA, 2021).

(iii) **Capacity Building Initiatives:** India's capacity-building initiatives are crucial for human resource development in Myanmar. The Myanmar Institute of Information Technology (MIIT), Mandalay provided assistance in developing courses such as B.E. (Hons.) in Computer Science & Engineering, B.E. (Hons.) in Electronics & Communication Engineering, and M.E. in Computer Science. Another key initiative is the India-Myanmar Centre for Enhancement of IT Skills (IMCEITS), a prominent example of bilateral cooperation in human resource development, aimed at improving Myanmar's IT capabilities (MEA, 2020). In agriculture, the Advanced Centre for Agricultural Research and Education (ACARE) and Rice Bio-Park, Nay Pyi Taw seek to promote sustainable agriculture and rural development by improving productivity, increasing farmers' incomes, creating jobs, and training skilled agricultural scientists and managers. Furthermore, four Indo-Myanmar Industrial Training Centres (IMITCS) have been established at Pakokku, Myingyan, Monywa, and Thaton which provide training to local youth, making them employable in Myanmar's industries and contributing to the country's industrialization and economic growth.

(iv) **Human Resource Development (HRD) Cooperation:** The Government of India, through its HRD Cooperation, implements a range of capacity building and training programmes for Myanmar under flagship schemes such as the Indian Technical and Economic Cooperation (ITEC) programme, the Technical Cooperation Scheme (TCS) of the Colombo Plan, as well as various ICCR administered scholarships and special diplomatic courses. Since its launch in 1996, the HRD scheme has offered Myanmar officials training across a wide spectrum of sectors—including English language, IT and computer application, agriculture, remote sensing, industry, urban

development, mass communication, management, SME/rural development, environment and renewable energy, parliamentary studies, and technical and specialized courses. The programmes are designed to be comprehensive, typically including return airfare, living allowance, book allowance, and study tours. The trainings are as follows:

- **Election Commission Training:** Nine ITEC courses were conducted for the Union Election Commission of Myanmar (UECM) during 2018–2019, benefitting about 200 officers.
- **District and Township Administrators:** Training was provided at the National Centre for Good Governance (NCGG) in Mussoorie. In 2019–20, four batches were conducted—two for township administrators and two for district administrators—training a total of 73 district administrators and 330 township administrators.
- **Judicial Officers:** Over a five-year span, approximately 400 judges and judicial officers were planned for training at the National Judicial Academy (NJAI) in Bhopal, of whom around 160 have been trained so far.
- **Police and Sectoral Training:** Since March 2017, over 1,200 Myanmar police officers (civilian side) have undergone training in India.
- **English language training:** Four custom courses were organized in Delhi and Hyderabad in 2018–19, each for 25 officers; additional similar courses have since been conducted online. In 2022–23, India delivered six e-ITEC online English training programmes (basic and advanced) to roughly 200 officials.
- **Power sector trainings:** Five specialized courses were conducted in 2023 for around 100 officers from Myanmar's power sector.
- **Healthcare trainings:** Thirty-nine officials participated in the International Public Health Management Development Program at PGIMER Chandigarh in 2023.
- **Mekong–Ganga Cooperation (MGC) Plan of Action:** Courses were organized for officials from ministries such as Agriculture, Livestock and Irrigation; Construction; Transport & Communications; Health; Industry; and Science & Technology.
- **Scholarships & Institutional Partnerships:** India offers over 40 scholarships and fellowships via schemes including General Scholarship Scheme (GSS), Mekong–Ganga Cultural Scholarship Scheme (MGCSS), Cultural Exchange Programme (CEP), Ayush Scholarship for study in Indian traditional medicine (Ayurveda,

Siddha, Unani, Homoeopathy), Special fellowship for Buddhist studies, and Special courses for ASEAN diplomats.

Furthermore, religious and cultural affinities, particularly Buddhism, have historically underpinned India-Myanmar relations. With its unique approach of cultural diplomacy, India has committed for conservation and restoration of Ananda temple, Bagan and structural conservation and chemical preservation of identified earthquake damaged monuments at Bagan. Under the framework of Quick Impact Projects (QIP), India funded small-scale, short-duration development initiatives which are designed to deliver tangible benefits at the grassroots level—such as renovation of schools, provision of solar lighting, construction of water supply systems, and healthcare facilities.

3.4.4 Opportunity and challenges of India's Development Assistance to Myanmar

India's development assistance to Myanmar has been widely acknowledged for its inclusive, people-centric approach and its emphasis on long-term capacity building (Das, 2024). Unlike approaches that focus primarily on large-scale financial aid or hard infrastructure, India's assistance integrates soft components such as human resource development, institutional strengthening, and skill enhancement. This approach aligns well with Myanmar's developmental needs, particularly in areas like education, technology, and connectivity (ITEC Annual Report, 2025).

(i) Strengths and Opportunities

India's assistance is strategically oriented and highly localized in its implementation. One of the key strengths lies in the focus on human capacity development, especially in the information and communication technology (ICT) sector. For instance, the Myanmar Institute of Information Technology (MIIT) in Mandalay, set up in collaboration with India, serves as a premier institute for higher education in computer science and engineering. MIIT follows a project-based, internationally benchmarked curriculum which provides Myanmar students access to world-class academic and research opportunities. These institutions play a transformative role in building a technically skilled workforce capable of supporting Myanmar's digital transformation and economic diversification.

India’s infrastructure development efforts, particularly projects like the Kaladan Multimodal Transit Transport Project (KMTTP) and the India-Myanmar-Thailand Trilateral Highway, aim to improve regional connectivity and open up new trade and transit corridors. These routes can potentially reduce Myanmar’s overdependence on a single export market and strengthen its integration with South and Southeast Asia, enhancing both economic and strategic autonomy (ORF, 2025).

Another notable strength is the use of cultural diplomacy and educational cooperation as instruments of engagement. India offers numerous scholarships under programs like the Indian Technical and Economic Cooperation (ITEC), ICCR fellowships, and specialized training courses. These not only build academic and administrative capacities but also foster long-term people-to-people ties and institutional linkages, creating a foundation for sustainable diplomacy and goodwill.

In terms of opportunities, India’s focus on capacity-building institutions rather than large debt-driven infrastructure offers a sustainable model of development. With the rise of digital economies and the push for regional economic cooperation, Myanmar stands to benefit immensely by integrating into India’s vision for regional growth through Initiatives like BIMSTEC, Act East Policy, and digital cooperation.

(ii) Challenges

Despite its strengths, India’s development cooperation in Myanmar faces several operational and contextual challenges. One of the major hurdles is implementation delay. Projects like the KMTTP and the India-Myanmar-Thailand Trilateral Highway, though strategically significant, have encountered delays due to a combination of factors including logistical bottlenecks, administrative red tape, and local coordination challenges. For example, land acquisition issues and the lack of streamlined regulatory processes have slowed down construction timelines. Additionally, infrastructural gaps in remote or border regions often complicate the delivery and execution of such large-scale projects.

Another significant challenge is the limited visibility and awareness of India’s development assistance. While China's infrastructure-heavy projects often dominate headlines and public discourse in Myanmar due to their scale and promotional visibility, India’s more nuanced and capacity-focused interventions tend to go under-reported. This perception gap sometimes diminishes the recognition and value of India’s meaningful

contributions at the grassroots level, despite their tangible benefits.

Furthermore, Myanmar's limited absorptive capacity presents an enduring obstacle. Institutional constraints, such as the lack of adequately trained personnel to implement and sustain the projects, often hinder the effective utilization of assistance. In many cases, trained individuals face a lack of structured pathways to employment, highlighting the need for complementary reforms in job markets and entrepreneurship support mechanisms.

There is also a need for better inter-agency coordination within Myanmar to ensure smoother project execution, particularly for multi-stakeholder initiatives. Strengthening local governance, improving policy continuity, and investing in monitoring and evaluation mechanisms would enhance the long-term sustainability of India-assisted projects.

3.5 Overview of the India-Myanmar Centre for Enhancement of IT Skills (IMCEITS)

3.5.1 IMCEITS Profile

Established in October 2008 at the University of Computer Studies (formerly UCSY) in Yangon, the India-Myanmar Centre for Enhancement of Information Technology Skills (IMCEITS) is a bilateral capacity-building project funded by the Government of India (MEA, 2008). Centre for Development of Advanced Computing (C-DAC) which is an R & D organization of Ministry of Communication & IT, India has provided technical assistance for setting up the centre, course design & planning of course delivery. Participants included regular Graduate/Post-Graduate students aspiring to join IT industry as well as Government staffs of various departments from different Ministries.

The objective of the project is to impart specialized training courses in the field of ICT, to develop specialized skills among faculties and students (Undergraduate & Postgraduate) in the field of ICT, to offer Exchange of Experts Programme to Myanmar for assisting them in development skilled work force in the area of ICT, to offer industry ready professional by imparting industry-oriented IT training programmes to the graduates from various Universities and to utilize IMCEITS for various Distance Programmes using Video Conferencing.

The centre is equipped with Online Data Centre with 8 High end servers for Database (Oracle and SQL server), Telemedicine solution and Moodle server for

automating process of education. It has 185 computers with Internet facility for each participant in the training program. Library at the centre has over 7000 books relating to advanced Information Technology. IMCEITS is a fully air-conditioned facility with 4 computing labs, 2 Class rooms and Library with reading room facility. Student can access training materials, lecture slides, lab assignments and upload teacher's review on server. All the exams are conducted through this server which helps for quick result processing.

From its initial phase, India sent up to 16 Myanmar trainers to C-DAC (India's leading it institute) for instructor training and deployed Indian IT experts to coordinate course delivery on-site. The centre also connects to remote classrooms via satellite, known as "Connected Learning Centres" in other parts of Myanmar, thereby extending its reach (C-DAC, 2016).

In official briefings, IMCEITS is listed alongside other India-assisted projects in Myanmar as part of India's development cooperation portfolio. Overall, IMCEITS serves as a concrete example of foreign aid for capacity building, channeling Indian IT expertise and resources into training Myanmar's IT human capital, with the aim of enhancing Myanmar's technical capabilities sustainably.

3.5.2 Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) between the Government of India and Government of Myanmar

The India-Myanmar Centre for Enhancement of IT Skills (IMCEITS) has been a cornerstone initiative in capacity building and ICT skill development in Myanmar. Since the signing of its first MoU in 2007, IMCEITS has conducted a total of 68 IT training courses, training over 2,886 individuals across various ministries and educational institutions.

Government of India is committed to a one-time basis cooperation package which involves Basic infrastructure for IMCEITS such as Air Conditioning, DG Set and Computing furniture items, technical expertise including IT services vis. installation and commissioning of IT infra such as Hardware, Software and Networking Equipments. Training of Center's faculty in India, deputation of experts from India for setting up of the IMCEITS and providing on-the-job training and assistance in course/reference materials. Centre for Development of Advanced Computing (CDAC) will design, develop and deliver and commission the turnkey solution for upgradation strengthening of IMCEITS.

Government of Myanmar will provide all required approvals and permission for establishment and operating of the IMCEITS, providing necessary manpower for the smooth implementing and functioning of the centre, a dedicated building / space for the IMCEITS, providing free furnished accommodations, transportation, communication and medical facilities for CDAC experts coming to impart training. A regular Joint Project Monitoring Committee meeting is held to review the progress of the project.

In 2013, India and Myanmar signed an MoU to strengthen the Centre, under which IMCEITS became an "Authorized Training Centre (ATC)" for C-DAC courses (MEA, 2013). This accreditation means that certificates awarded at IMCEITS carry C-DAC's international recognition. In its fourth phase (2021–2024), IMCEITS received further support under India's Technical and Economic Cooperation (ITEC) program, with India funding new courseware, online faculty development, and the supply of equipment and reference books (Embassy of India Yangon, 2021). As a result, over 2,700 Myanmar participants, including students, civil servants, and professionals, graduated from IMCEITS programs between 2008 and 2023 (MEA, 2023). Table (3.3) below illustrates the IMCEITS enrollment across different phases, highlighting the number of courses and trainees for each phase from 2007 to 2026.

Table (3.3) IMCEITS Enrollment by MoU Phase (2007–2026)

No.	MoU	Period	No. of courses	No. of trainees
1.	1st MOU	2007-2011	21	1779
2.	2nd MOU (1st phase)	2013-2017	21	574
3.	2nd MOU (2nd phase)	2017-2020	15	423
4.	2nd MOU (3rd phase)	2021-2024	9	102
5.	2nd MOU (4th phase)	2025-2026	2	8 (on-going)

Source: India-Myanmar Centre for Enhancement of IT Skills (IMCEITS)

An event for exchange of Letter on MoU Extension for Strengthening of the India-Myanmar Centre for Enhancement of IT Skills (MCEITS) was held on 21 March 2025 at the Ministry of Science and Technology. During the ceremony, appreciation was expressed for the enduring and deepening cooperation between the two neighbouring countries. It was also highlighted the rapid development in IT advancements and digital

transformation, stressing the importance of international collaboration in this field. It was emphasized that the cooperation will enhance Human Resource Development, research experience exchange and capacity building in cutting-edge IT technologies such as AI, cybersecurity, big data and cloud computing. This collaboration is expected to contribute to the development and continuous growth of the regional digital ecosystem.

3.5.3 Curriculum and Course Structure at IMCEITS

The curriculum offered at IMCEITS is designed in collaboration with C-DAC (Advanced Computing Training School, Pune), ensuring alignment with global industry standards and the rapidly evolving technology landscape. The center offers ten core professional training programmes, namely the Professional Certificate in Linux, the Professional Diploma in Java Programming, and the Professional Certificate in Android Programming, etc. Each of these programmes contributes to strengthening foundational as well as advanced IT competencies, essential for capacity building in Myanmar's digital transformation journey.

1. Professional Certificate in Linux (PCL): This course, spread over 200 hours, aims to build core competency in managing Linux-based systems—widely used in enterprise infrastructure.

Objective: To equip learners with advanced knowledge and hands-on skills in the Linux operating system, scripting, networking, and open-source tools.

Eligibility: Science graduates with a foundational understanding of computing and programming.

Modules:

- Overview of Linux Commands and Utilities (20 hours)
- Configuring Networks (40 hours)
- Shell Programming (40 hours)
- Perl Scripting (40 hours)
- Capstone Project (60 hours)

Learning Methodology: Each topic is taught through theory and lab sessions. Evaluations include lab tests, internal quizzes, and a theory exam, ensuring a balance of conceptual understanding and practical application.

Assessment:

- Continuous Assessment (60%)
- Course End Examination (40%)
- Project performance is graded separately.

Outcome: Graduates of the programme are expected to manage Linux-based infrastructure, write automation scripts, and administer network services using DNS, NFS, DHCP, and Samba configurations.

2. Professional Diploma in Java Programming (PDJP): This comprehensive, two-term course totaling 580 hours, is designed to develop well-rounded software developers with strong programming and web development skills.

Objective: To develop full-stack Java programmers capable of designing and maintaining enterprise-level software solutions.

Eligibility: Candidates with sound knowledge of programming fundamentals.

Course Breakdown:

Term 1 (180 hours)

- Operating System Concepts
- Software Development Life Cycle (SDLC)
- Object-Oriented Programming using C++ and Data Structures
- Database Technologies

Term 2 (400 hours):

- Web Technologies (HTML, JavaScript, XML, AJAX)
- Core Java
- Enterprise Java (Servlets, JSP, EJB, Spring, Hibernate, Struts)
- Project Work

Key Features:

- In-depth training in software engineering methodologies including Agile and TDD.
- Real-world case studies and weekly assignments ensure continuous engagement.

Evaluation: Includes lab-based assignments, theory exams, and a capstone project to demonstrate practical skills.

Outcome: Graduates are capable of developing robust, database-driven, and web-enabled

enterprise applications.

3. Professional Certificate in Android Programming (PCAP): This course emphasizes the development of Android-based mobile applications and is structured over 200 hours (100 hours of coursework and 100 hours of project work).

Objective: To train learners in designing, developing, and deploying Android applications.

Eligibility: Graduates of the Professional Diploma in Wireless & Mobile Computing or those with strong Java/OOPs background.

Core Modules:

- Android SDK fundamentals
- UI design, activity lifecycle, services, and broadcast receivers
- Data storage and content providers
- Network and sensor APIs
- Web services, multimedia, and gaming development

Advanced Topics: Use of AIDL interfaces, content providers, Bluetooth messaging, telephony APIs, and animation techniques.

Hands-on Learning: Assignments involve building functional apps, using real device features (camera, audio capture, GPS), and integrating cloud APIs.

Evaluation: Based on lab tests, continuous assessments, and a final course-end exam. Project grades are assessed separately.

Outcome: Graduates are prepared to independently design and develop Android applications that serve diverse market and social needs.

3.5.4 Human Resource (2008-2025)

The India-Myanmar Centre for Enhancement of IT Skills (IMCEITS) has been a cornerstone initiative in capacity building and ICT skill development in Myanmar. Since the signing of its first MoU in 2007, IMCEITS has conducted a total of 68 IT training courses, training over 2,886 individuals across various ministries and educational institutions. Table (3.4) below presents the enrollment details by course, including duration and the number of students and staff from different ministries involved in each program.

Table (3.4) Enrollment by Course (Duration and Student Count) (2008-2025)

Course name	Duration (weeks)	Student	CU	TU	MoE	Other ministries
Professional Diploma in Java Programming	24	1072	253	115	5	67
Java Programming	6	12	67	12	-	3
Professional Diploma in MS.Net Programming	24	478	195	68	-	77
Wireless and Mobile Computing	16	59	23	5	-	8
Professional Certificate in Android Application Development	8	168	33	6	-	5
WinCE.Net Programming	6	2	1	0	-	0
Professional Certificate in Web Technology	8	62	7	12	-	1
Professional Certificate in Linus	8	0	1	0	-	4
Professional Certificate in Web Development	4	11	5	27	4	0
Professional Certificate in Java Programming	8	1	5	0	2	2

* Computer University (UC) * Technical University (TU) * Ministry of Education (MoE)
Source: India-Myanmar Centre for Enhancement of IT Skills (IMCEITS)

3.5.5 Employment of IMCEITS Trainees by Job Type

A detailed employment analysis based on secondary data from the IMCEITS centre indicates that 100% of trainees in Software Development, Banking, Telecommunication, and Other ICT-related staff have been employed while 94% of those trained in ICT-related sectors (other than core software roles) found employment. A significant number 649

pursued further studies, indicating academic and career growth and 972 trainees were deployed directly into government ministries. Around 156 trainees could not be tracked or their employment was not connected to ICT. To provide insights into the employment and further study outcomes of IMCEITS trainees, Table (3.5) below presents the status of trainees by sector, showcasing both their employment in various sectors and further study pursuits.

Table (3.5) Number of Employment of IMCEITS Trainees by Sector

Sl. No.	Job type	Trainees			Access to employment	
		Total	Govt employee	Outside	Number	Percentage
1	Software Developer	367	-	367	367	100%
2	Related ICT Sector	480	-	480	450	94%
3	Bank	56	-	56	56	100%
4	Telecommunication	57	-	57	57	100%
5	Other sectors	141	-	141	141	100%
8	Ministries	972	972	-	-	-

Source: India-Myanmar Centre for Enhancement of IT Skills (IMCEITS)

A significant portion of trainees (34%) found employment in government Ministries, indicating strong public sector absorption. Notably, 30% of the trainees secured jobs in the ICT domain, including roles as Software Developers (13%) and in related ICT sectors (17%), which suggests a reasonable alignment between the training provided and industry relevance.

Meanwhile, smaller segments entered the banking and telecommunications sectors (each 2%), or other unspecified sectors (5%). Overall, the data suggests that while a considerable number of trainees are either continuing education or working in ICT-related fields, the public sector remains a dominant employer, possibly due to existing partnerships or targeted recruitment efforts.

CHAPTER IV
SURVEY ANALYSIS

4.1 Survey Profile

The study aims to examine how the India-Myanmar Center for Enhancement of Information Technology Skills (IMCEITS) support skill development and employability through its trainings. To achieve the objectives of this study, data was collected from primary sources using a descriptive survey design, using quantitative and qualitative research method. The survey instrument consisted of 22 questions, combining both quantitative and qualitative formats to capture comprehensive data. The target population for this survey consisted of the students who have attended/ are attending training programs at the India-Myanmar Centre for Enhancement of IT Skills (IMCEITS) from the period 2008-2024, with a total of 146 respondents and the faculty members actively engaged in teaching and administrative roles at IMCEITS.

4.2 Survey Design

The survey tool includes both quantitative and qualitative method. Structured as a descriptive questionnaire, it included both quantitative and open-ended questions allowing respondents to express their views freely while addressing specific themes aligned with the study's objectives. The survey employed a 5-point Likert scale, with scores interpreted based on Lindner and Lindner (2024) which is as follows: 1.00 to 1.50 indicating a very low level, 1.51 to 2.50 as low, 2.51 to 3.50 as moderate or good, 3.51 to 4.50 as very high, and 4.51 to 5.00 representing an excellent level of agreement or satisfaction. The primary data collection section is divided into five sections. The first section gathered demographic data on the respondents, the second concentrated on Technical Expertise Development, the third evaluated Employability and Post-Training Outcomes, the fourth examined Program Effectiveness and Sustainability and the fifth with open-ended questions to encourage narrative-style responses. During the data collection process, permission was obtained from the Centre Director of IMCEITS. The target population consists of the students who had undergone trainings programmes in IMCEITS. The survey was distributed digitally, with respondents providing their answers virtually.

4.3 Survey Results

4.3.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic information of respondents is evaluated in this section by describing the frequency and percentage. In this study, the demographic information of the respondents is described as age, gender, education level, employment status as shown in Table (4.1).

Table (4.1) Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Description	Total Respondents = 146	
	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Gender		
Female	92	63
Male	54	37
Total	146	100
Age (Years)		
Under 20	34	23.3
20–30	85	58.2
31–40	24	16.4
41–50	3	2.1
Total	146	100
Education Level		
Graduate	85	58.2
Undergraduate	61	41.8
Total	146	100
Employment Status		
Employed full-time	74	50.69
Employed part-time	31	21.23
Self-employed	26	17.81
Unemployed/ Student	15	10.27
Total	146	100

Source: Survey Data, 2025

Based on the survey data shown in Table (4.1), gender distribution is almost balanced, with female respondents comprising 63% and male respondents making up 37%. This suggests that IMCEITS training programs cater to both genders, though there is a slightly higher representation of females.

According to the age distribution of the trainees, the majority of respondents (58.2%) fall into the 20–30 age group, followed by (23.3%) of Under 20 age range. A portion of (16.4%) of the respondents falls between 31-40. This indicates that IMCEITS attracts typically younger professionals seeking to advance or shift their careers and recent graduates who are likely to have been recently engaged in the workforce.

According to the Table (4.1), the respondents' educational background before joining IMCEITS shows that the majority had completed Graduate degrees (58.2%), followed by those in an under-graduate level education (41.8%). This indicates that IMCEITS tends to attract more educated individuals, likely professionals or individuals seeking specialized skills for career advancement.

Table (4.1) demonstrate the employment status before joining IMCEITS, a large portion of the respondents were employed full-time (30.1%), followed by a significant group of students making up to (28.8%). A moderate portion of the respondents was either unemployed (15.7%) or self-employed (14.4%) or part-time employee (11%).

4.3.2 Course Attended at IMCEITS by Respondents

Based on Table (4.2) below, the types of courses attended by respondents vary, with a significant number attending courses related to Professional Diploma in Java programming (26.9%) and Professional Certificate in Java programming (19.4%). Other courses include Professional Diploma in MS.Net Programming (23.1%) and Professional Certificate in Android Application (23.1%), Professional Certificate in Web Technologies (15.7%) and Professional Certificate in Web Development (14.8%), and specialized IT training such as networking and cybersecurity.

Table (4.2) Course Attended at IMCEITS

Course Name	List of Participants
Professional Diploma in Java Programming	31
Java Programming	16
Professional Diploma in MS.Net Programming	25
Wireless and Mobile Computing	6
Professional Certificate in Android Application Development	25
WinCE.Net Programming	7
Professional Certificate in Web Technology	17
Professional Certificate in Linus	3
Professional Certificate in Web Development	17
Professional Certificate in Java Programming	21

Source: Survey Data, 2025

4.3.3 Technical Expertise received by respondent

Survey questionnaire was shared with each respondent to analyze the quality, relevance of the training and technical skills enhancement. These results will help understand the effectiveness of the centre in terms of technical development for the trainees. Table (4.3) displays the mean values and standard deviations of these responses.

Table (4.3) Technical Expertise Development (N=146)

Sr. No.	Description	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.	Relevance of Training Content to Career Goals	3.55	0.67
2.	Practical, hands-on experience	3.64	0.85
3.	Improvement in Technical Skills	3.39	0.77
4.	Instructor Effectiveness	4.06	0.69
5.	Support Provided	4.02	0.81

Source: Survey Data, 2025

As per Table (4.3) above, the mean value for assessing the improvement in the extent of technical expertise as a result of the program, is which indicates moderate level of agreement among respondents regarding the improvement of their technical expertise after attending the program. This suggests that while the trainees acknowledged some enhancement in skills, the overall impact may not have been substantial or uniformly experienced.

The mean values between 3.51 – 4.5 reflects a high level of satisfaction among the respondents. The majority of respondents find the training highly effective, which aligns with the goal of the program to provide quality IT education. They also feel that the training content is aligned with their career goals, making the program effective in bridging the gap between training and employment. Furthermore, the instructors are highly rated, suggesting that the faculty members are well-prepared and capable of engaging students, a critical factor in the success of any educational program. The feedback regarding receipt of adequate support from IMCEITS during the course (e.g., technical assistance, learning materials, infrastructure) was favourable with most respondents feeling that they received sufficient or excellent support.

4.3.4 Employability and Post-Training Outcomes

The questionnaire was shared with each respondent to get an insight on the employability and post-training outcomes of the centre which can help understand and assess the significance of the IMCEITS centre in gaining employment opportunity for the youths that are attending the courses there. Table (4.4) presents the trainees' perceptions of their employability and post-training outcomes using mean values and standard deviations for variation.

Table (4.4) Employability and Post-Training Outcomes (N=146)

Challenges	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Lack of training materials	14	9.59%
Inadequate infrastructure	12	8.22%
Language barriers	52	35.62%
Lack of practical training	32	21.92%
Delays in the course schedule	36	24.66%

Source: Survey Data, 2025

According to Table (4.4), the mean values for change in income is 3.09 which is the lowest and shows the widest variability. This indicates while some may have enjoyed income boosts, others may have seen little to no financial benefit. The wide standard deviation suggests that factors other than the training, such as job market conditions or industry-specific demands, might influence income outcomes.

As per the Table above, it is noted that the mean value for Training Impact on Industry Readiness is the highest with 3.9, indicating that trainees strongly feel the training prepared them for the industry which is a good sign that the curriculum aligned well with real-world demands. This is followed by Impact on Employability, where respondents generally felt more employable post-training. The mean value of 3.66 for Employment or Promotion Status Post-Training shows that many respondents likely found employment, promotions, or better job roles after the training. There is a moderately strong outcome with mean value of 3.55 for both Confidence in Applying Skills & Job Preparation Effectiveness. This indicates that trainees felt more confident and better prepared. In conclusion, the training programs appears to be well-regarded in terms of skills relevance and industry preparedness, but income gains are inconsistent. This could reflect external factors like local job markets or economic conditions rather than the training itself.

4.3.5 Program Effectiveness and Sustainability

The questionnaire for this section of the survey is structured with 5 items, including a Five-point Likert scale to assess the sustainability, impact on digital capacity, quality of infrastructure & facilities and qualitative input are sought on the challenges/ constraints during the training and while accessing the centre. To represent the effectiveness and sustainability of the program, mean values and standard deviations for variation are being used and shown in the following Table (4.5).

Table (4.5) Program Effectiveness and Sustainability (N=146)

Sr. No.	Description	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.	Sustainability of IMCEITS	3.77	0.71
2.	Infrastructure Satisfaction	3.90	0.90

Source: Survey Data, 2025

According to the Table (4.5) above, mean values ranging from 3.51 to 4.50 indicate high level of acceptance by the respondents. The mean value of 3.77 suggests that the majority of respondents perceive IMCEITS as having a sustainable model, which is critical for the program's long-term effectiveness in delivering training. The result of infrastructure satisfaction is quite positive with 3.9 mean value, suggesting that the physical learning environment supports the training effectively.

According to Table (4.6), most frequently cited challenges identified through qualitative data was the language barrier which present a potential obstacle for non-native speakers, particularly in technical training environments. This is followed by delays in course schedules and lack of practical training at the training centre which are significant challenges that can hinder the effectiveness of the training program. Additionally, some instructors stated that “some students have not enough knowledge for this training and the teaching of them is a little difficult”. These insights highlight the need for continued investment in infrastructure to ensure training remains relevant and effective.

Table (4.6) Challenges Encountered during Training by Respondents (N=146)

Course Name	List of Participants
Lack of training materials	14
Inadequate infrastructure	12
Language barriers	52
Lack of practical training	32
Delays in the course schedule	36

Source: Survey Data, 2025

4.3.6 Overall Mean Values

This section produces the overall mean values of the technical expertise development, employability and post-training outcomes, program effectiveness and sustainability which support the study on understanding the contribution of development assistance through capacity building in skill development. The overall mean values provide a concise summary, highlighting the relative importance of each factor and offering insights into how the centre can enhance their skills development.

Table (4.7) Overall Mean Values (N=146)

Sr. No.	Description	Mean
1.	Technical Expertise Development	3.73
2.	Employability and Post-Training Outcomes	3.58
3.	Program Effectiveness and Sustainability	3.83

Source: Survey Data, 2025

The study assessed trainees' perception of the IMCEITS centre's effectiveness based on technical expertise development, employability and post-training outcomes, program effectiveness & sustainability. The finding reveals that most respondents positively evaluate the technical expertise/ skill development with an overall mean score of 3.73, indicating that IMCEITS generally provides high-quality, relevant training that significantly improves participants' technical skills.

The findings suggest that IMCEITS has a strong impact on improving employability, confidence in skills application, job preparedness, and income levels among its trainees with an overall mean value of 3.58. However, the results also highlight areas where some trainees, particularly those still seeking employment or experiencing minimal income changes, may require additional support or resources. Continued improvements in tailoring the training to specific career goals, industries, and local job markets could further enhance the outcomes of the program.

The data reflects a generally positive view of the centre's delivery of training, particularly in terms of infrastructure and accessibility with an overall mean value of 3.83. However, several challenges, such as delays in course schedules, lack of practical training, and language barriers, suggest areas for improvement in program delivery. While IMCEITS is perceived as sustainable by the majority, the barriers faced by some trainees could impact the broader success of the program.

The majority of participants feel empowered and see improvements in their quality of life. The high percentage of respondents perceiving the program as having a positive effect on their skill development and employability suggests that IMCEITS is playing a key role in the Myanmar's IT-driven growth.

4.3.7 Open-Ended Feedback (Qualitative Insights)

This analysis draws on open-ended survey responses from IMCEITS trainees and faculty members. The data was coded to identify repeating ideas, phrases, and patterns, which were subsequently grouped into larger themes. Thematic analysis provides insights into how development assistance through IMCEITS supports technical expertise and employability.

Theme 1: Relevance and Impact of Technical Training

A dominant theme across responses is the perceived relevance of the training content to the job market and personal career growth. Many trainees highlighted the importance of both foundational IT skills and real-world applications.

"We learned basic ICT skills like MS Word, Excel, and PowerPoint, which we use in everyday work."

“The course helped me understand programming and database management, which I never had a chance to learn before.”

Faculty also emphasized that the curriculum is aligned with industry needs:
“The curriculum of IMCEITS is the basic and necessary needs for the IT industry.”

Theme 2: Capacity Building and Project-Based Learning

Another repeated pattern among trainees is the value of hands-on, project-based learning. Trainees mentioned how assignments, group activities, and practice-based modules contributed significantly to their learning process.

“Working on group projects taught me teamwork and how to solve real-life problems.”
“Doing the capstone project made me more confident in using HTML and CSS.”

Faculty also noted that project work is central to skill development:
“I believe the students' skills are improved by doing project.”

This indicates that IMCEITS is contributing to individual capacity building, an essential goal of development assistance programs.

Theme 3: Employability and Work Readiness

Many trainees expressed how the training bridged the gap between learning and work, often pointing to enhanced confidence and practical ability to apply for jobs or internships.

“After training, I was able to apply for an IT support role.”
“I feel more confident to go for job interviews now.”

Faculty members affirmed this sentiment, observing that the training supports both employment and further studies:
“The courses are prepared for those who want to study further and also for employment.”

This suggests a dual-track benefit of the program: enhancing both immediate job readiness and long-term educational progression.

Theme 4: Barriers to Learning and Teaching

Despite the positive responses, both trainees and faculty noted challenges. Trainees often pointed to language barriers, lack of prior knowledge, and limited internet access as obstacles.

"It was hard to follow when the trainers used technical English."

"We need better internet for online modules."

Faculty echoed these concerns: "Some students have not enough knowledge for this training and the teaching of them is a little difficult."

These findings point to systemic limitations in infrastructure and learner preparedness, suggesting that development assistance must be holistic, not just focused on content delivery but also addressing access and support systems.

Theme 5: Institutional Support and Resource Adequacy

Faculty respondents emphasized the role of institutional infrastructure in delivering effective training.

"The center has support the necessary resources… we can use Moodle for course upload and test exams, and we have lab rooms for practical."

This shows that capacity-building is not limited to students—faculty development and institutional support are also integral to the effectiveness and sustainability of development aid. However, continued faculty training was presented as dependent on time and opportunity:

"When I have time and a chance to attend training, I attend… to improve my teaching knowledge."

This suggests that formal mechanisms for ongoing professional development could further enhance impact.

CHAPTER V
CONCLUSION

5.1 Findings

This study was undertaken to assess how official development assistance (ODA)—in particular, the India-supported IMCEITS initiative—contributes to capacity building and enhances employability within Myanmar's information technology sector. Anchored in a mixed-methods approach, the study addressed the central research question: To what extent does the IMCEITS training program contribute to human resource development, technical competency, and employment outcomes in Myanmar?

The literature review underscored that development assistance, while traditionally framed in humanitarian and economic terms, is equally shaped by diplomatic and geopolitical considerations. Aid serves mutual interests, offering tangible capacity gains for recipients, while advancing soft power for donor nations. In the context of India's Act East Policy, the IMCEITS program exemplifies a blend of strategic outreach and developmental support, particularly focused on digital capacity building.

Theoretical and empirical studies reviewed emphasized the evolving concept of capacity building—from narrow technical training to comprehensive human, institutional, and systemic strengthening. The IMCEITS project fits within this broadened framework, targeting individual skill development through structured IT training, while also strengthening Myanmar's broader IT ecosystem.

The survey analysis and secondary data review reveal several key empirical findings. Overall, participants expressed a highly positive perception of the IMCEITS program, highlighting satisfaction with its content, teaching quality, infrastructure, and alignment with current digital skill demands. The technical expertise of the faculty and the international certification through C-DAC further enhanced the program's credibility. IMCEITS demonstrated clear capacity enhancement, with many participants reporting improved technical skills in areas such as Java, .NET, and mobile computing, alongside increased confidence in applying ICT knowledge in practical settings. The training also translated into tangible employment and income gains: about 30% of participants secured

jobs in ICT sectors, while 34% found positions in government ministries. Several respondents credited the program for promotions or salary increases, and a notable number pursued further education, indicating raised academic ambitions. The initiative was inclusive, attracting a diverse group across age, gender, education, and employment status—with 63% female participation and strong representation from youth aged 20 to 30—thereby promoting equitable access to IT education. However, challenges remain, including language barriers for non-English speakers, the need for more hands-on learning, inconsistent course scheduling, and limited accessibility for individuals from remote areas or with poor internet connectivity. These findings align with broader research indicating that development assistance can significantly strengthen human capital when adapted to local contexts, owned locally, and integrated into wider development frameworks. IMCEITS contributes to this global discourse by demonstrating how donor-supported ICT skill-building, when aligned with national priorities, can produce sustainable and localized benefits.

5.2 Suggestions

Based on the findings of this study, several key recommendations are proposed to enhance the success, sustainability, and long-term stability of the IMCEITS program and similar capacity-building initiatives. First, there is a clear need to strengthen the practical components of the training. While theoretical instruction has been positively received, participants consistently highlighted the value of hands-on learning. Therefore, incorporating more project-based modules, real-world assignments, and industry-linked internships would significantly enhance job readiness and technical proficiency. Additionally, given the language-related difficulties expressed by both trainees and faculty, it is advisable to localize course content and training materials, particularly by offering bilingual instruction or translated resources. This would ensure greater accessibility and improve comprehension, especially for participants with limited exposure to English.

Furthermore, some trainees faced difficulties due to insufficient prior IT knowledge. Introducing foundational or bridging courses at the start of the training cycle could help close this gap and ensure more equitable learning outcomes. The administrative parts of the program, especially the scheduling of classes, should also be simplified to cut down on delays and improve the flow of learning. From an institutional point of view, the

Government of Myanmar is urged to better include IMCEITS graduates in national digital development projects such as e-governance, IT help in ministries, and modernising public services. Strengthening pathways for graduates into public and private sector roles will not only improve employment outcomes but also reinforce the relevance of the training.

To support sustainability, investment should be made in training and retaining local instructors, thereby reducing dependence on external trainers and fostering local ownership of the program. The expansion of IMCEITS-like centers to other regions, particularly underserved and remote areas, would contribute to more inclusive human capital development. The Government of India, as the principal donor, is advised to enhance program visibility and outreach, promoting awareness of its developmental contributions and encouraging stakeholder participation through alumni networks, public showcases, and collaborative events. A strong monitoring and review system should also be set up to keep an eye on long-term results like job advancement, skill utilization, and social mobility. With this data-driven method, things would keep getting better and policies would be made based on facts.

Future research can build upon this study by conducting assessments to evaluate the sustained impact of IMCEITS training on individual livelihoods and community development. Comparative studies with other bilateral or multilateral IT capacity-building programs in Myanmar or the region could yield valuable insights into best practices and operational models. Moreover, considering the high participation of female trainees, gender-focused research exploring the program's influence on women's empowerment and digital inclusion could further enrich the discourse on inclusive development. These recommendations, if implemented, can significantly enhance the effectiveness of development assistance in fostering resilient, self-reliant, and digitally capable societies.

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APPENDIX-I

Questionnaire

Dear all,

My name is Honey Tun, a Master's in Development Studies student at Yangon University of Economics. As part of my thesis research, I am conducting a survey to evaluate the impact of IMCEITS training programs on students' skills development and employability.

Your responses will be kept confidential and will only be used for academic purposes. The data collected will contribute significantly to the analysis of IMCEITS' training outcomes and capacity-building efforts.

Questionnaire for IMCEITS Survey

Section 1: Respondent Information (Demographic Information)

1. **Age**:
   ☐ Under 20
   ☐ 20–30
   ☐ 31–40
   ☐ 41–50
   ☐ 51 and above
2. **Gender**:
   ☐ Male
   ☐ Female
   ☐ Prefer not to answer
   ☐ Other

3. **Level of Education Before Joining IMCEITS**:
   ☐ High School
   ☐ Undergraduate
   ☐ Graduate (Master's, Doctorate)
   ☐ Other (Please specify): _____
4. **Employment Status Before IMCEITS Training**:
   ☐ Employed full-time
   ☐ Employed part-time

☐ Self-employed
☐ Unemployed
☐ Student
☐ Other (Please specify): _____

5. **Course Attended at IMCEITS**:
   ☐ Professional Diploma in Java Programming
   ☐ Professional Diploma in MS.Net Programming
   ☐ Professional Certificate in Android Application
   ☐ Professional Certificate in Web Technologies
   ☐ Professional Certificate in Linux (Red Hat)
   ☐ Professional Certificate in Web Development
   ☐ Professional Certificate in Java Programming (J2SE)
   ☐ Java Programming Course
   ☐ Wireless and Mobile Computing
   ☐ Win CE.Net Programming
   ☐ Internship Java
   ☐ Internship PHP
   ☐ Internship Artificial Intelligent

Section 2: Technical Expertise Development

6. **Did the training align with your current job or career goals?**
   ☐ Not at all
   ☐ Slightly
   ☐ Moderately
   ☐ Very well
   ☐ Perfectly
7. **Have you gained practical, hands-on experience during or after the training?**
   ☐ Not at all
   ☐ Slightly
   ☐ Moderately
   ☐ Very well
   ☐ Perfectly
8. **To what extent has your technical expertise improved as a result of the program? (e.g., IT skills, programming, networking)?**
   ☐ Not at all
   ☐ Slightly
   ☐ Moderately
   ☐ Significantly
   ☐ Very Significantly

9. **How would you rate the effectiveness of IMCEITS instructors in delivering the course material?**
   (1 = Very Poor, 5 = Excellent)
   ☐ 1 (Very Poor)
   ☐ 2 (Poor)
   ☐ 3 (Average)
   ☐ 4 (Good)
   ☐ 5 (Excellent)

Section 3: Employability & Post-Training Outcomes

10. **Since completing the training at IMCEITS, rate how easy for you to secure a job or promotion? (1 = Very Difficult, 5 = Extremely easy)**
    ☐ 1 (Very Poor)
    ☐ 2 (Poor)
    ☐ 3 (Average)
    ☐ 4 (Good)
    ☐ 5 (Excellent)
11. **How confident are you in applying the skills you learned from IMCEITS to your current role or job search?**
    ☐ Not at all
    ☐ Slightly
    ☐ Moderately
    ☐ Significantly
    ☐ Very Significantly
12. **How relevant are the skills you gained to the needs of employers in your sector? (1 = Very Poor, 5 = Excellent)**
    ☐ 1 (Very Poor)
    ☐ 2 (Poor)
    ☐ 3 (Average)
    ☐ 4 (Good)
    ☐ 5 (Excellent)
13. **How do you rate the impact of IMCEITS on your overall employability?**
    ☐ 1 (Very Poor)
    ☐ 2 (Poor)
    ☐ 3 (Average)
    ☐ 4 (Good)
    ☐ 5 (Excellent)
14. **To what extent did IMCEITS prepare you for the challenges of your job?**
    ☐ Not prepared
    ☐ Slightly prepared

☐ Moderately prepared
☐ Well prepared
☐ Excellently prepared

15. **How has your income level changed since completing the training?**
    ☐ No Change
    ☐ Increased Slightly
    ☐ Increased Moderately
    ☐ Increased a lot
    ☐ Increased Significantly

Section 4: Program Effectiveness & Sustainability

16. **Do you believe that the IMCEITS program is sustainable for future trainees (in terms of resources, trainers, infrastructure)?**
    ☐ Not sustainable
    ☐ Slightly sustainable
    ☐ Moderately sustainable
    ☐ Very sustainable
    ☐ Significantly sustainable

17. **What challenges did you encounter during your training at IMCEITS?** (Select all that apply)
    ☐ Lack of training materials
    ☐ Inadequate infrastructure
    ☐ Language barriers
    ☐ Lack of practical training
    ☐ Delays in the course schedule
    ☐ Other (Please specify): _____
18. **Please rate how satisfied were you with the infrastructure and facilities at IMCEITS?** (1 = Very Poor, 5 = Excellent)
    ☐ 1 (Very Poor)
    ☐ 2 (Poor)
    ☐ 3 (Average)
    ☐ 4 (Good)
    ☐ 5 (Excellent)
19. **Did you face any challenges accessing the IMCEITS center?**
    ☐ No
    ☐ Yes (If so, please specify): _____

Section 5: Open-Ended Feedback

20. **What aspects of the IMCEITS program could be improved to better support future trainees?**

21. **What was the most valuable/ beneficials aspect of your training at IMCEITS?**

22. **Do you have any suggestions for improving IMCEITS or the development assistance provided by India in Myanmar?**

Instructions for Respondents:

- Please answer all questions to the best of your ability.
- For questions with scales, please choose the response that best reflects your experience.
- Feel free to provide additional comments in the open-ended sections to help us better understand your perspective.