

# Teachers in Refugee and Displacement Settings

Challenges and Strategies for Teacher  
Quality and Workforce Sustainability

May 2024



Sudanese refugee students and their teacher take refuge from the sun in the shade of a tree in Metché, eastern Chad.

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# Acronyms

AE	Accelerated Education
ALP	Accelerated Learning Programme
BoM	Board of Management
BPRM	Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration
CA	Classroom Assistant
CBO	Community-based Organizations
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
CTPD	Continuous Teacher Professional Development
EAC	Educate a Child
ECW	Education Cannot Wait
ECHO	European Commission Humanitarian Aid
EiE	Education in Emergencies
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ENSA	<i>École Normale Supérieure d'Abéché</i>
EU	European Union
FBO	Faith-based Organizations
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GPE	Global Partnership for Education
IIEP	International Institute of Education Planning
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
ILO	International Labor Organization
INEE	Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization
KI	Key Informant
KOICA	Korean International Cooperation Agency
LOI	Language of Instruction
MENPC	<i>Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Promotion Civique</i>
MHPSS	Mental Health and Psychosocial Support
MoE	Ministry of Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
PTA	Parent-Teacher Association
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SMC	School Management Committee
TA	Teaching Assistant
TPD	Teacher Professional Development

TTC	Teacher Training College
TES	Transforming Education Summit
UKAID	Funds provided by the United Kingdom (UK) Government's Foreign, Commonwealth and Development Office
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WASH	Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene
WB	World Bank



# Executive Summary

Amidst growing recognition that teachers in refugee and displacement settings need more and better support, this study conceptualizes different teacher profiles and how they intersect with teacher management and teacher professional development (TPD) policies and practices, what challenges arise as a result, and what needs to change in our collective efforts to strengthen teacher quality and workforce sustainability.

The mixed-methods study combined interviews, focus group discussions, document analysis in 3 case study countries (Chad, Malaysia, and Uganda), and an online survey (across education actors in 16 countries) to capture information from diverse education actors.

Study participants identified several challenges and related strategies and solutions for overcoming them. In addition to the specific issues identified through various data collection strategies, all of which are detailed in the report, the big-picture findings are summarized here:

1. **Inadequate teacher compensation:** The issue of teacher pay is one of the most significant and pernicious challenges hindering progress in the education sector. Regardless of who is paying, how much teachers receive, and when and how they accept payment across various teacher profiles, there is a quagmire of concerns that remain unresolved and affect teacher recruitment, retention, motivation, well-being, and the overall quality and professionalization of the teaching profession.

Rising costs of living, unpredictable and unreliable funding to pay teachers (amidst competing economic and/or humanitarian crises), and better pay for civil servants and/or incentive workers outside of the education sector contribute to a continued weakening of the teaching profession. Amidst national budgetary shortfalls, there is no clear consensus about how to shore up additional resources to cover teachers' salaries. Donors continue to express reticence for covering recurrent expenditures for all teacher profiles, including refugee teachers, despite efforts to foster responsibility- and burden-sharing in refugee-hosting contexts.

2. **Minimal support beyond compensation:** There is a lack of support to offset inadequate teacher compensation that would help teachers carry out their work—e.g. school-based feeding programmes, limited and/or poor quality accommodations (which are almost non-existent for female teachers), and insufficient transportation to and from school. There are minimal to no safety nets for teachers who have dedicated years and often decades to the teaching profession (e.g. long-term retirement/pension benefits).
3. **Insufficient TPD:** Despite clear recognition and evidence that teachers must be supported through continuous professional development (CPD) (e.g. ongoing training, coaching, mentoring, communities of practice), education actors continue to struggle to provide adequate support for all teacher profiles, inevitably undermining all efforts to strengthen teacher quality and introduce innovations for teaching and learning practices.

Even when displaced teachers have access to formal teacher training institutions, there are barriers to entry (e.g. lack of documentation required for online registration platforms, challenges replacing hard copies of formal teaching qualifications in cases of teachers trying to upgrade their qualifications, no scholarships). When displaced teachers participate in TPD, it rarely culminates in recognized credentials that would allow them to be registered with national entities (e.g. Teachers Service Commission) and seek more gainful employment.

4. **Unrecognized refugee teachers' credentials and qualifications:** Refugee teachers' previously acquired credentials and/or accumulated experiences and skills on the job continue to be devalued or ignored. Where equivalency mechanisms are in place, they are challenging to access and navigate without guidance and, in some cases, additional financial resources.
5. **Incomplete teacher data:** Comprehensive data about who teachers are and what experiences and skills they bring to the profession remain uncollected or non-standardized across agencies working in the education sector.

Building on the specific recommendations put forward by study participants detailed in this report in response to these challenges, there are necessary and promising pathways to ameliorate the situation. Key recommendations call for efforts to:

- **Explore plausible strategies and solutions for covering teacher compensation:** Donor and national government representatives need to come together through national and/or global policy gatherings to identify existing and new channels for securing adequate, harmonized, and sustainable funding for teachers. UNHCR and other education actors can facilitate policy roundtables or financing conferences supporting teacher compensation. Experimental models and phased approaches can be identified and tested. If the education sector continues to ignore this problem, no other humanitarian or development-oriented educational goals will be realized or sustained.
- **Audit and share existing teacher policies and contracts:** Existing teacher management policies can be strengthened by sharing promising practices across actors and contexts. It will take time to roll out new measures to bolster teacher compensation. Still, in the meantime, other policies can be strengthened to acknowledge better and respect the work and commitment of teachers now (e.g. teachers' need for time off for bereavement without loss of pay, within reason, and teachers' inclusion, across all profiles, in TPD activities). More symbolic gestures, such as including all teacher profiles in the provision of smaller ticket items (e.g. t-shirt distribution), can be easily rectified with more attention and care). This process can also be applied to exploring new ideas for acknowledging teachers' needs and interests in career progression—i.e. comparing and contrasting different roles that teachers might assume to align with their ever-expanding roles and responsibilities in their schools and communities.
- **Expedite and expand equivalency mechanisms for teachers' qualifications:** Activate existing or new national mechanisms for refugee teachers to access and transfer their credentials to their new teaching environment, including efforts to translate and recognize credentials from settings with different languages of instruction in their countries of origin.
- **Collaborate with national teachers' unions to expand support to different teachers' profiles:** Closer working relationships with teachers' unions can smooth the way to ensure operational equivalency mechanisms and identify new pathways into the teaching profession that benefit national and refugee teachers. Education International (EI) can support brokering these relationships and negotiations with their national affiliates. IIEP UNESCO can include training opportunities for humanitarian, development, and other education actors who would benefit from gaining understanding and skills for engaging teachers' unions.
- **Commit to offering continuous TPD:** More education actors have been developing and testing programmes that move beyond one-off and cascade training exercises. Donors and other actors can establish expectations for TPD that require multiple touchpoints with teachers and include different sets of activities over an extended period, including ways to leverage the existing expertise among different profiles of teachers. In terms of content, teachers in cross-border displacement settings may need help learning a new language of instruction (LOI) and/or a new national curriculum, not to mention additional support for dealing with the implications wrought by the conflict and displacement of their learners.

- **Establish robust teacher data:** A clearer understanding of the financial and technical needs, including costed financial plans, can feed into the policy-making and fundraising process for strengthening teacher compensation and professional development plans. Education actors responsible for hiring and training teachers can pursue progressive and/or robust updates to existing monitoring, evaluation, and indicator development.
- **Ensure teacher participation in all facets of efforts to improve teacher policies and practices:** In line with global advocacy efforts to ensure teachers' participation in the development of the policies and practices that they are expected to carry out, teachers must be given more opportunities to be primary actors in programme and policy design and development.

# Introduction and Study Objectives

*“You can teach without a classroom, but you can’t teach without a teacher. Those are the areas we mostly forget. We focus on our students...in a class, but we forget the teachers most of the time.” (Study participant from Malawi)*

As the opening quote demonstrates, teachers working in refugee and displacement settings have struggled to receive the attention they deserve from local, national, and international actors. Fortunately, this is changing through concerted efforts to elevate and better understand teachers’ critical role in facilitating learning and supporting psychosocial well-being among their pupils, including what kind of support teachers need to carry out their work amidst precarity. In recent years, several initiatives and organizations have further elevated the importance of teachers, including the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) Teachers in Crisis Contexts Working Group’s (TiCCWG) global advocacy (see [Call to Action](#)) and related training, coaching, and mentoring resources; UNESCO’s International Institute of Educational Planning’s (IIEP) teacher management in refugee settings research portfolio; and, most recently, the Transforming Education Summit’s (TES) Thematic Action Track 3 dedicated to teachers, teaching, and the teaching profession, including refugee teachers and other teachers working in crisis contexts.<sup>1</sup>

Recognizing the importance of teacher quality and workforce sustainability, UNHCR commissioned this research study with a threefold objective in mind: 1) to identify and conceptualize a typology of teachers working in refugee and displacement settings; 2) to examine how different teacher profiles (inherent to the typology) are affected by current teacher management and professional development policies and practices; and 3) to explore promising pathways for strengthening support to teachers working in these settings.

The enclosed study—**Teachers in Refugee and Displacement Settings: Challenges and Strategies for Teacher Quality and Workforce Sustainability**—is guided by the following questions:

1. What are the **profiles** of teachers working in refugee and displacement settings?
2. What are current **teacher management and professional development (TPD) policies and practices** in refugee and displacement settings?
  - a. What are the main challenges facing teacher management and TPD in these settings?
  - b. How do these challenges differ by teacher profile?
3. What **needs to change** to improve support for the different profiles of teachers working in these settings?

The study focuses on teachers working primarily at the primary and secondary levels in the public education sector across 16 different contexts. It aims to capture the current state of affairs for teachers working in refugee and displacement settings and identify possible pathways forward.

<sup>1</sup> Teachers in Crisis Contexts Event Series. (n.d.). INEE, from <https://inee.org/ticc-event-series#:~:text=In%202019%2C%20a%20group%20of,fulfill%20their%20right%20to%20education>; Teacher management in refugee settings. (n.d.). IIEP UNESCO, from <https://www.iiep.unesco.org/en/our-mission/teacher-management-refugee-settings>; Teachers, teaching and the teaching profession. (May, 2022). United Nations, from <https://transformingeducationsummit.sdg4education2030.org/AT3DiscussionForum>

# Study Methodology

The study combined interviews, focus group discussions (FGDs), document analysis, and an online survey to capture information from various education actors. The overall sequence of data collection methods entailed 4 phases and related sets of activities.

- **Phase 1:** UNHCR country office representatives were prioritized for foundational key informant (KI) interviews, in addition to interviews with representatives at the regional and headquarters levels.
- **Phase 2:** Research visits to 3 countries – Chad, Malaysia, and Uganda – that included FGDs and interviews with key stakeholders, including community-based organizations (CBOs), donors, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), United Nations (UN) agencies, and teachers. Separate country-specific case studies are available.
- **Phase 3:** Global online survey of education actors responsible for hiring, managing, training, and/or supporting teachers, including CBOs, Ministries of Education (MOEs), NGOs, and UN agencies. Emerging findings from Phases 1 & 2 informed survey development.
- **Phase 4:** KI interviews with global and regional actors and donors.

The overall study was approved by Teachers College, Columbia University's Institutional Review Board, due to the primary investigator's institutional affiliation. Participants completed consent forms aligned with the data collection activities (e.g. FGDs, interviews, online survey) through which they were asked to participate.

## Phase 1: UNHCR interviews

Phase 1 included **22 KI interviews, with 28 total UNHCR representatives**; in some cases, more than one staff member participated in the interview. Interviews were predominantly conducted via Zoom, though several were conducted in person during a UNHCR education retreat (October 2022) that brought the PI and staff together. All interviews were conducted in English.

## Phase 2: Country research visits

Phase 2 included a variety of FGDs and interviews pending the country location, presented below in the order they were visited.

### Malaysia

The research visit took place during one week at the end of October 2022. Data collection took place in Kuala Lumpur. Co-researcher, Christopher Henderson joined this leg of the trip to support data collection activities. We visited 10 different learning centres, the primary location for most interviews. Data collection consisted of:

- **Nine KI interviews were conducted with 11 learning centre staff members**, many of whom are also teachers.
- **Five FGDs with 38 teachers** with various profiles (e.g. national and refugee) across five learning centres.
- **Informational meetings** with three locally-based academics.

All interviews were conducted in English.

## Uganda

The research visit took place during one week at the end of October/beginning of November 2022. Data collection took place in Kampala and Kiryandongo refugee settlements. UNHCR selected Kiryandongo due to time constraints and a recent resurgence of Ebola, both of which limited our options. Co-researcher, Whitney Hough, joined this leg of the trip to support data collection activities. Data collection consisted of:

- **12 KI interviews** with CBOs, government, NGOs, school leaders, teachers' unions, and the UN across Kampala and Kiryandongo.
- **Three FGDs with 19 teachers** with a mix of profiles (e.g. qualified national and refugee teachers and refugee classroom assistants [CA]) in Kiryandongo.
- **1 FGD with five school management committee (SMC) members** in Kiryandongo.
- **1 FGD/meeting with 5 NGO representatives** in Kampala.

All interviews were conducted in English.

## Chad

The research visit took place during one week at the beginning of November 2022. Data was collected in N'Djamena, Goz Beida refugee camp (Djabal and Goz Amin sub-camps), and Abéché. Co-researcher, Whitney Hough, joined this leg of the trip to support data collection activities. Data collection consisted of:

- **Nine KI interviews with 22 interviewees.**
- **Six FGDs with 48 teachers** (separate FGDs were conducted with female and male teachers, including a mix of qualified national teachers and qualified/unqualified refugee teachers).
- **Information meeting** with the local government agency responsible for refugees in Goz Beida.

Some interviews were in English, but most were in French with translation support from UNHCR. The FGDs with teachers were conducted in French and/or Arabic (per the participants' preferred language) with translation support from peer teachers.

For all of the research visits, we recorded the interviews with a digital recorder when possible; however, most of the participants in Chad and Uganda preferred not to have the interviews recorded. In these cases, we took careful handwritten notes. Handwritten notes were also taken during the FGDs.

For the FGDs with teachers, we invited teachers to write their ideas in response to our questions on index cards. The prompts included questions such as: *What do you like most about being a teacher? What are the biggest challenges you face as a teacher? What specific changes are needed to overcome these challenges? What pathways/options do you have for sharing your ideas for making improvements?* Participants were asked to vote/rank the top three challenges, which helped to focus the conversation. Although the teachers presented myriad challenges during these discussions, the interactive nature of the exercise allowed them to share their ideas with the facilitators.

## Phase 3: Global survey

An online survey was distributed to 224 stakeholders working with teachers in refugee and displacement settings across 16 countries (see list below). UNHCR Country Offices recommended potential survey respondents. The survey was available in Arabic, English, French, Kurdish (two dialects - Badini and Sorani), Spanish, and Malay.

Respondents were sent approximately weekly reminders over four to six weeks. The survey included closed- and open-ended questions with modules based on the six different teaching profiles (introduced below) with which the respondent works. The respondents' contributions, therefore, represent the perspectives of those working to support teachers but not of the teachers themselves.

### Overview of survey respondents

The survey received **106 responses** (47 per cent response rate). The countries covered by the survey and the corresponding number of respondents are presented in Table 1 below.

Cameroon	3	Mexico	4
Chad	12	Pakistan	8
Djibouti	2	Rwanda	6
Ethiopia	1	South Sudan	9
Iraq	4	Sudan	6
Kenya	10	Syria	17
Malawi	2	Uganda	9
Malaysia	13	Yemen	1

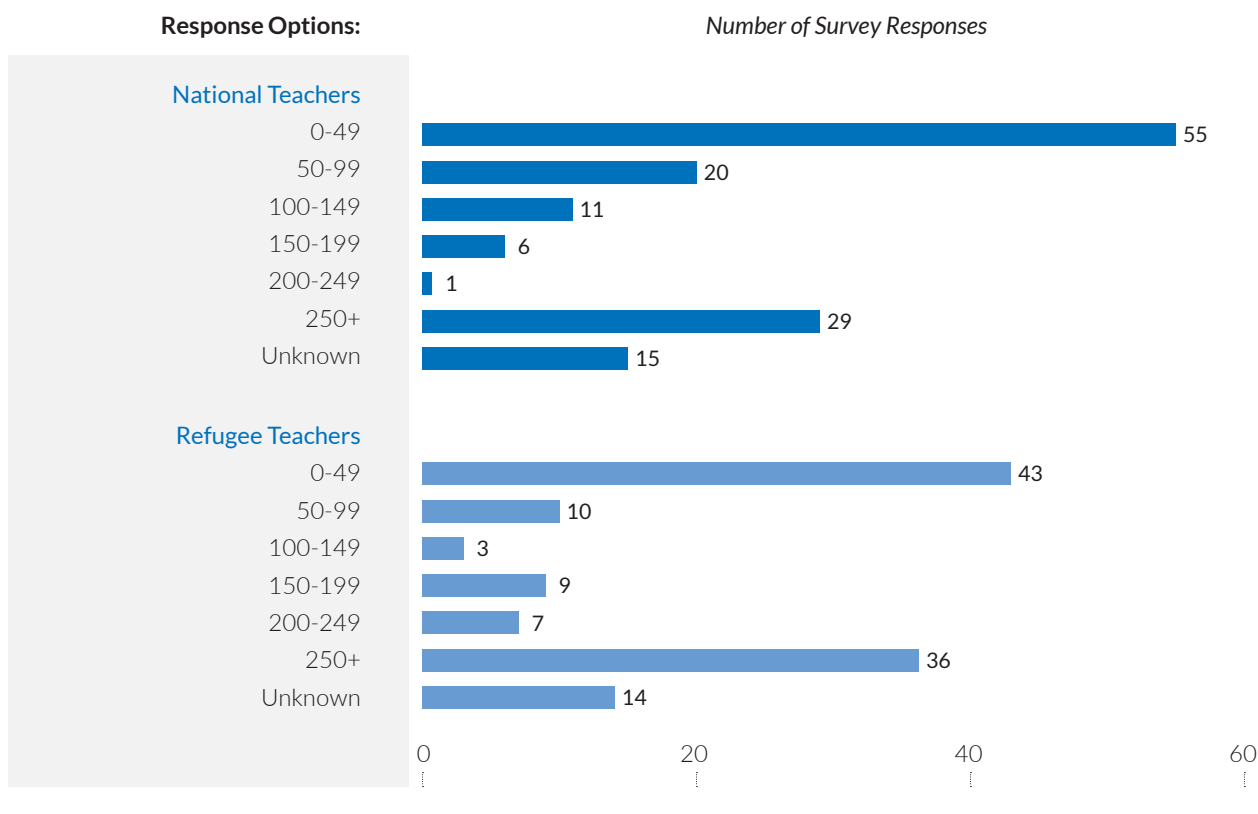
**Table 1: Countries and number of respondents for the global survey**

Most respondents had worked in education in emergencies (EiE), refugee education, or humanitarian affairs for multiple years, with 67 per cent working in the field for over six years. Most respondents worked for an INGO or a UN agency. Almost all respondents worked at a local or national office, with only eight reporting that they worked at headquarters or regional offices.

Most commonly, respondents were reporting on teachers working at the primary education level (86.7 per cent), followed by the secondary education level (73.5 per cent), and accelerated education (AE) at the primary (51.3 per cent) and secondary levels (25.7 per cent), and finally other levels (14.2 per cent), such as ECD or language classes. Most of the respondents worked with teachers in refugee camps/settlements (65.5 per cent), followed by a relatively even split between rural (41.6 per cent) and urban (42.5 per cent) areas, with fewer working in peri-urban (23.9 per cent) or other (4.4 per cent) areas.

The respondents worked with a variety of teacher profiles. The most common teacher profile was national teachers with formal qualifications (77 per cent), followed by working with refugee teachers with formal qualifications (57.5 per cent) and refugee teachers lacking formal qualifications (57.5 per cent), refugee TAs (50.4 per cent), national teachers without formal qualifications (44.2 per cent), and national TAs (43.4 per cent).

While most respondents were involved in broader projects with over 250 teachers, the individual programmes with specific cohorts of teachers tended to be smaller, with cohorts under 50 teachers being the most common. Regardless of formal qualifications, those who work with refugee teachers are more likely to report on a larger cohort of teachers (250+) than those reporting on programmes with national teachers (see Image 1).



**Image 1: Teacher cohort sizes**

## Phase 4: Regional and global key information interviews

Eight education actors from various donors, UN agencies, and other initiatives participated in interviews during the last phase of the research study. They were able to offer reactions to some of the specific findings that emerged during earlier phases and share their perspectives about challenges and potential solutions. These interviews included participants from Education Cannot Wait (ECW), Education International, Geneva Global Hub for EiE, Global Partnership for Education, Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD; East Africa), International Labor Organization (ILO), UNICEF, and the World Bank.

## Data analysis

### *Qualitative data analysis*

Interview transcripts, when available, were transcribed verbatim. Interview and FGD notes were reviewed and refined post-research visit by comparing/contrasting notes taken by two researchers who participated in the interview. Analysis of the FGDs and interviews went through an iterative process of open- and closed-coding, ultimately leading to a codebook informed by the study's objectives, scholarly and grey literature on teachers in refugee and displacement settings, and the participants' ideas. Most of the interviews were coded using NVivo software; queries of the coded data were run by theme, contributing to the final write-up of findings. Open-ended responses to the global survey were categorized by theme (related to the question) and organized by country and teacher profile so that differences across teachers could be noted.



## Quantitative data analysis

Survey analysis included simple descriptive analysis of frequencies and distributions of responses. Inferential analysis was not used because of the small sample for each profile, the non-systematic sample, and the variable within-respondent inter-correlation present, with a single individual sometimes reporting on a single teacher profile and other times reporting on many profiles. Open-ended survey responses by organizations related to teachers' compensation and salary scales were shared with UNHCR country office representatives for review and clarification in the event of contradictory amounts.

## Study limitations

### Qualitative approaches

For Chad, the data comes from interviews focused mainly on refugee education in the eastern regions of Sudan due to time and resource limitations, which means most teachers were refugees (compared to other refugee-hosting areas in Chad that rely more heavily on national teachers). Reliance on translation support from a UNHCR staff member during some interviews may have hindered participants' full participation.

According to some NGO actors, Kiryandongo is one of the most neglected settlements in Uganda, which means the findings may not capture the realities shared across other settlements in the country. UNHCR staff participated in select interviews when deemed appropriate.

A diverse range of learning centres in Malaysia makes it difficult to compare across management structures, operating budgets, and personnel.

The respective country case study reports discuss additional limitations of the methodologies used for each research visit.

The overall study focuses predominantly on primary education due to the focus on the field and the various stakeholders working at this education level. While this study focuses on 16 specific countries, each with its unique contexts, it is possible to apply learning from this study to other settings due to the shared teacher-related policies and practices that we see emerging among international and national education actors working in refugee and displacement settings (Ravitch & Carl, 2021). It is also helpful to compare and contrast approaches as new alternatives are explored.

### Quantitative approaches

The survey was long and was used to collect comprehensive data across teacher profiles, especially for respondents working with more than one or two teacher profiles. The survey also included more open-ended questions than is recommended to capture more details from respondents on this under-studied topic. As a result, not all respondents completed the entire questionnaire, though most completed the questions corresponding to the teacher profile(s) with which they work. UNHCR country office staff identified key stakeholders to participate in the survey based on their partners and networks in participating countries; however, not all eligible participants were likely identified in this process.

# Study Findings

## A teacher typology for refugee and displacement settings

Myriad factors form different teacher profiles in refugee and displacement settings. Some of the most salient factors may include teachers' citizenship or refugee status in the country where they are working, pending their nationality and the recognition thereof; the right to work in the country in which they are living; possession of teaching qualifications (and their origins); and formal recognition of these qualifications by education authorities in the country, to name a few. Several other factors also need to be considered, including which entities are hiring, managing, supporting, and compensating teachers in the short- and long-term.

A typology is formed by grouping teachers, in this case, into different profiles based on shared characteristics (Stapley, O'Keeffe & Midgley, 2022). Building on previous efforts to develop a useful typology of teachers working in these settings (see Mendenhall, Gomez & Varni, 2018), the teacher and TA profiles captured in Images 2 and 3 were developed and refined during this study. Efforts to consolidate and streamline relevant factors inevitably lose some of the nuances of teachers' work and lives in different settings, but these profiles can be further adapted to those realities (see related case study reports for Chad, Malaysia, and Uganda).

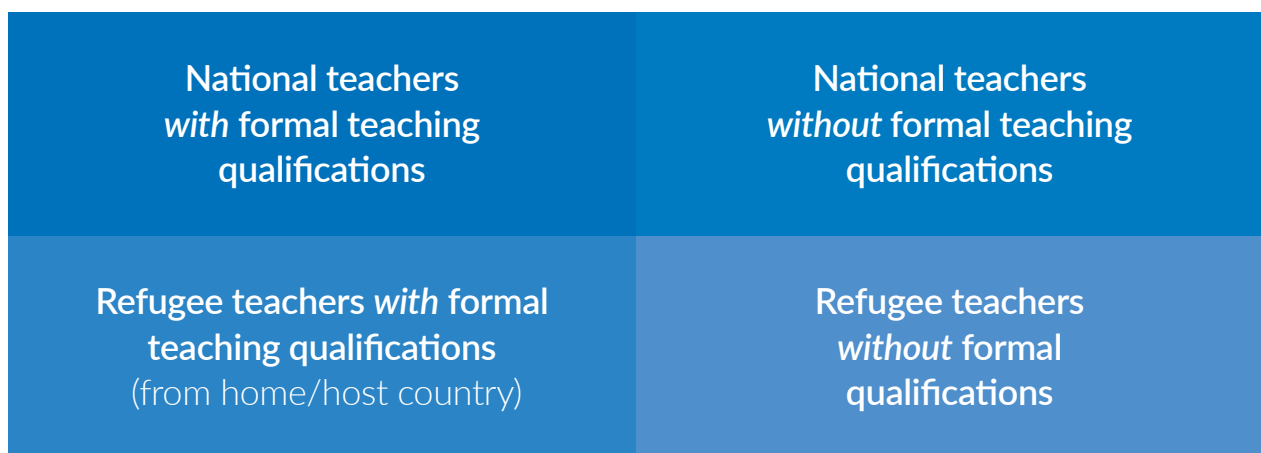


Image 2: Typology of teacher profiles

The definitions of these profiles include:

- **National teachers with formal teaching qualifications:** Individuals working in their country of nationality/citizenship/birth who have formal teaching qualifications issued and/or recognized by the government (or relevant authority).
- **National teachers without formal teaching qualifications:** Individuals working in their country of nationality/citizenship/birth who DO NOT have formal teaching qualifications issued and/or recognized by the government (or relevant authority).
- **Refugee teachers with formal teaching qualifications:** Individuals working in a country of asylum with formal teaching qualifications issued from either the government in their country of origin or their country of asylum (or relevant authority).
- **Refugee teachers without formal teaching qualifications:** Individuals working in a country of asylum who DO NOT have formal teaching qualifications from either the government (or relevant authority) in their country of origin or their country of asylum.

Classroom/TAs are not common across all settings, but in some cases, they make up a considerable proportion of the overall teaching staff and merit recognition. The two overarching profiles are captured in Image 3, albeit further simplified.



**Image 3: Typology of classroom and/or teaching assistant profiles**

- **National classroom or TAs with/without formal teaching qualifications:** Individuals working in an assistant role (along with another teacher) in their country of nationality/citizenship/birth who may or may not have formal teaching qualifications.
- **Refugee classrooms or TAs with/without formal teaching qualifications:** Individuals working in an assistant role (along with another teacher) in their country of asylum who may or may not have formal teaching qualifications.

This typology persisted throughout the study; however, survey respondents pointed to additional profiles for consideration and/or specific roles that do not fit easily. These include, along with the country of reference when applicable, the following:

- **Asylum seekers:** Individuals seeking protection outside of their origin but not yet recognized as refugees (e.g., unqualified teachers in non-formal education spaces in Rwanda).
- **Early childhood educators:** Caregivers and monitors of early childhood education with different training requirements and/or management structures (Cameroon, Uganda).
- **Nomadic teachers:** Teachers/educators who move around the country and/or cross borders as part of and/or travel with nomadic groups/communities (Chad).
- **Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) educators:** Teachers who impart a very different set of knowledge/skills than the primary and secondary teachers who are the focus of this study (Chad, Syria).

Respondents also mentioned important distinctions related to the type of school where teachers work (public vs. private schools), differences between national teachers vs. local teachers, particularly local teachers from poor refugee-hosting communities, and issues that arise from shared resources. Although they were not mentioned in participants' responses, we might also consider teachers who are internally displaced and/or returning to their origin locations (in the aftermath of cross-border and/or internal displacement). The overall profiles still hold in these cases, but the larger contextual factors change.

Others (Kenya, Malaysia) pointed to individuals they called “**volunteer teachers**” who are hired to fill gaps at the local level, though their profiles look very different depending on the context. In Kenya, “volunteer” teachers may be national or refugee teachers with/without teaching qualifications but who are typically paid for by Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs), School Boards of Management (BoMs), or SMCs. In Malaysia, “volunteer” teachers generally are “unpaid” retired national teachers with formal teaching qualifications. In these cases, they would still fit under national/refugee and qualified/unqualified, though those who hire, manage, and pay (or not) the teachers, etc., would merit further consideration.

The same would apply to “**contract teachers**”. They would still fit under the broader typology, but the terms of their overall management may/may not differ from those of other teachers in the same setting. “**Teacher trainees**”—i.e., teachers earning their formal teaching qualifications and working/interning in schools (Kenya)—also fit under the typology, albeit transitioning from unqualified to qualified.

The different teacher and TA profiles and how they intersect with teacher management and TPD policies and practices are explored below. The study findings illuminate what’s similar or different across profiles and highlight the additional steps that may need to be taken to overcome the unique challenges associated with specific profiles.

Teacher management

*“Without good teachers, the education programme can never be successful. Without sufficient teachers, many students lack attention and care.” –Study participant from Malaysia*

Teacher management consists of several dimensions: selection, recruitment, and deployment; pre-and in-service TPD; working conditions, supervision and appraisal; and career paths (Bengtsson et al., 2023b). In response to the question—What are your organization’s biggest challenges in managing teachers?—survey participants cited insufficient funding to pay teachers as the biggest challenge, followed by finding enough qualified teachers, teacher retention, providing CPD, and harmonizing pay scales across actors (Image 4).

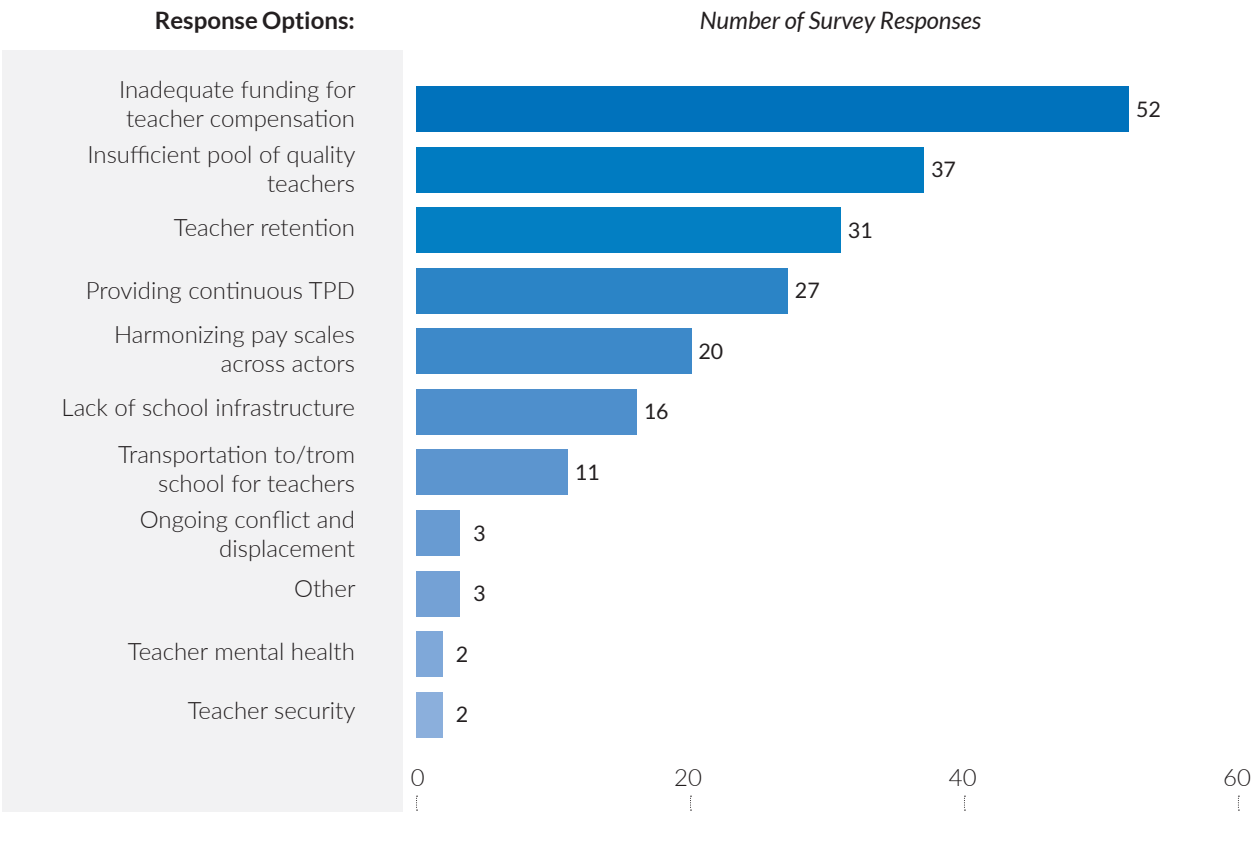
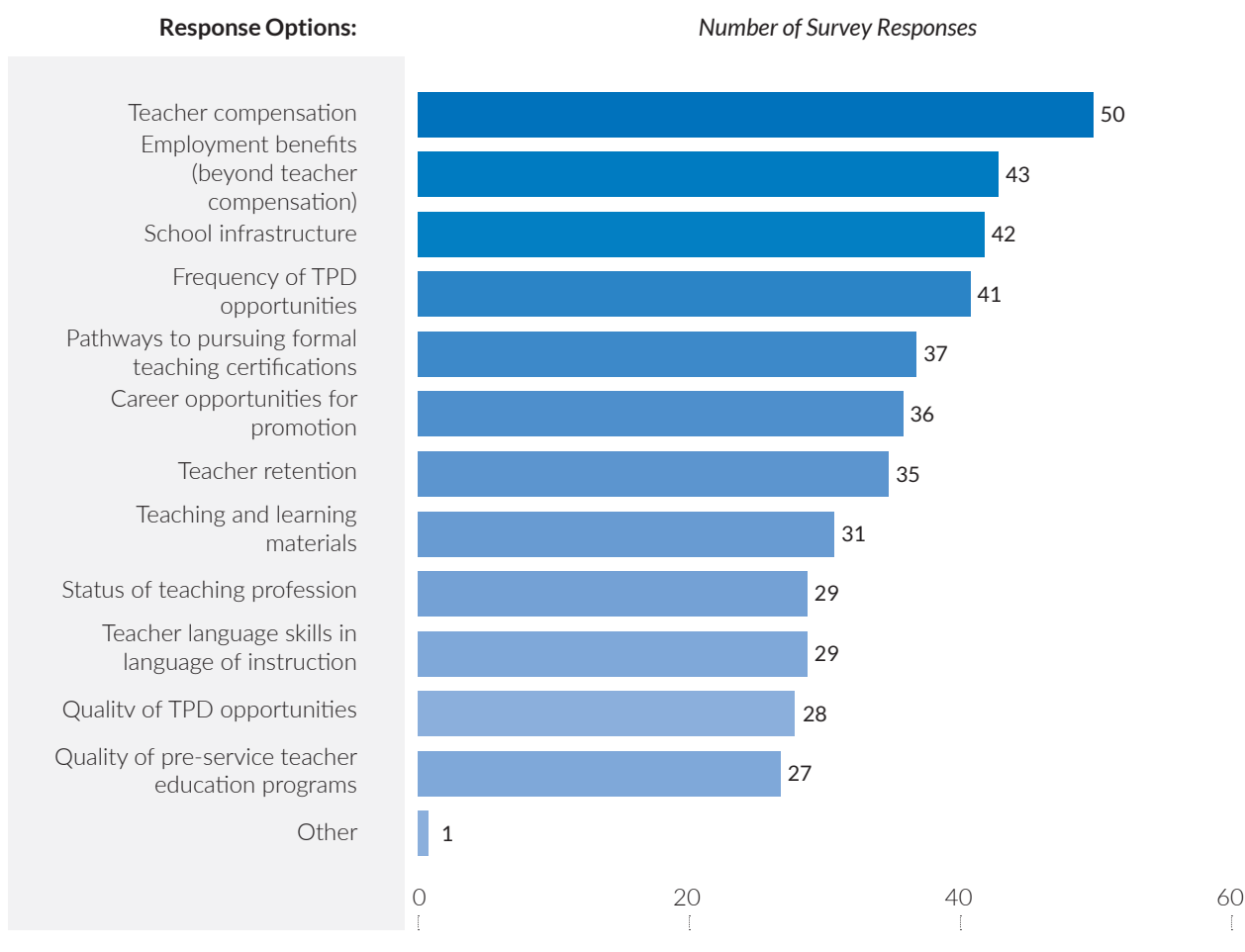


Image 4: Biggest challenges managing teachers

These results inevitably connect with and inform one another – e.g. better and more consistent pay for teachers may mitigate teacher attrition, while more and higher quality TPD should produce more qualified teachers. The sources for some of these challenges are independent of the other challenges (e.g. inadequate funding for teacher compensation) while others are more intricately linked, though we could argue that ongoing conflict and displacement can further exacerbate all of the challenges captured in Table 4. Ultimately, these challenges point to a need to enhance our focus on teachers and how to support them financially, technically (e.g. professional development), psychologically (e.g. well-being), and pragmatically (e.g. transportation logistics).

In response to the question—**What are your organization's biggest challenges in improving teacher quality?**—survey participants cited teacher pay (again) as the biggest barrier, followed by lack of benefits (beyond compensation), school infrastructure (facilities), infrequency of TPD, lack of pathways for pursuing formal teaching qualifications, lack of opportunities for promotion, teacher retention, lack of teaching and learning materials, teachers' language skills in LOI, quality of TPD, and quality of pre-service TPD (Image 5). How these challenges manifest varies depending on teacher profiles; this report will elaborate further.



**Image 5: Biggest barriers to improved quality**

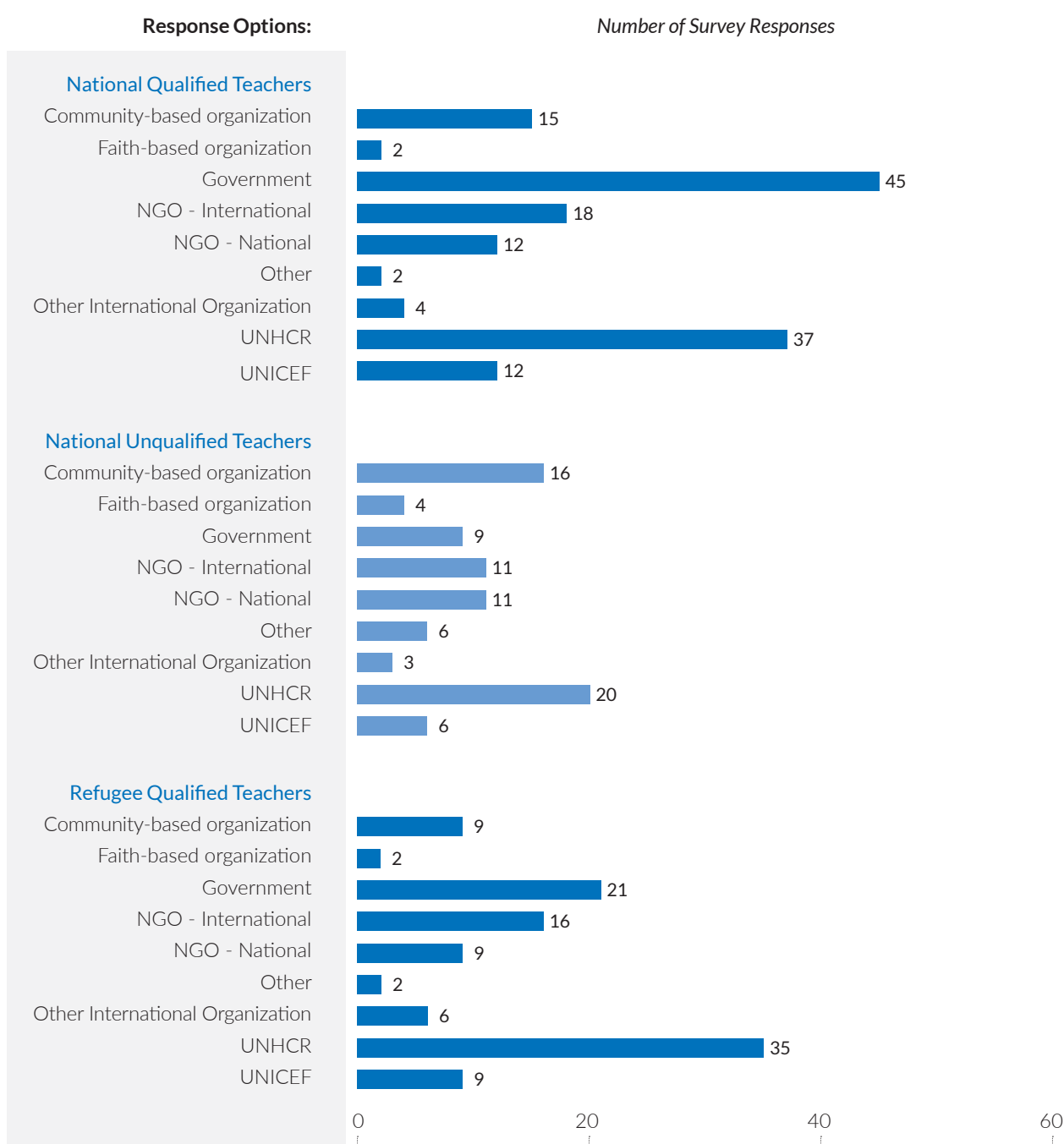
Data from the teacher FGDs in the three case study countries (Chad, Malaysia, and Uganda) reaffirm these findings, with teachers expressing low and irregular compensation as one of the largest challenges they face in their work. Research with teachers in contexts affected by forced displacement, as well as in low- and middle-income countries more broadly, further reinforces these findings, demonstrating the pervasive

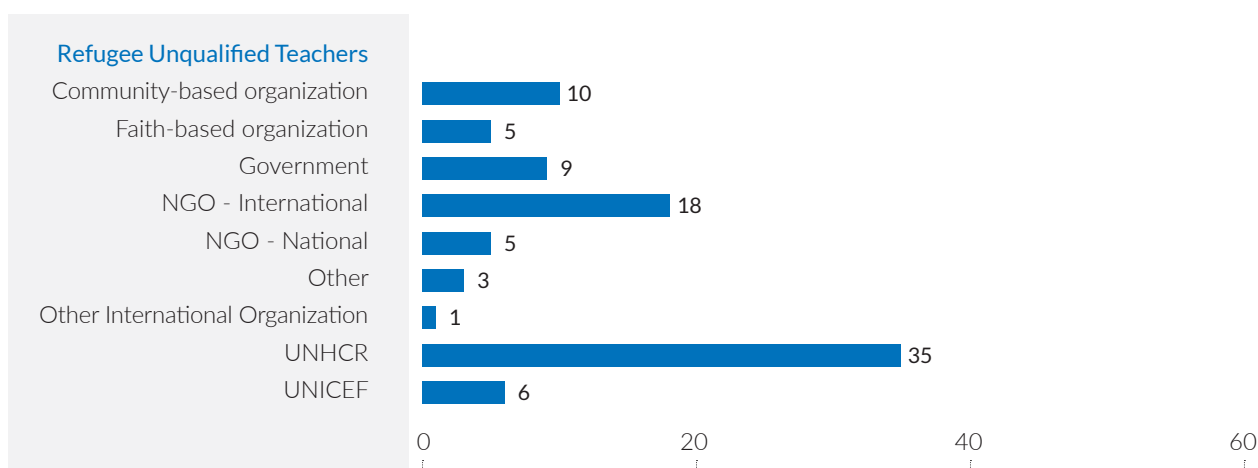
challenge of insufficient teacher compensation and the implications low and irregular salaries have for teacher motivation and well-being, teaching quality, and teacher retention (Falk, 2023; Falk et al., 2019; INEE, 2009; Kirk & Winthrop, 2013; Martin, 2018; Mendenhall & Falk, 2023; Mendenhall, Gomez, & Varni, 2019).

To better understand these challenges, this section examines teacher compensation (who sets the rate, who pays, how much, and how often), employment terms and conditions, and benefits.

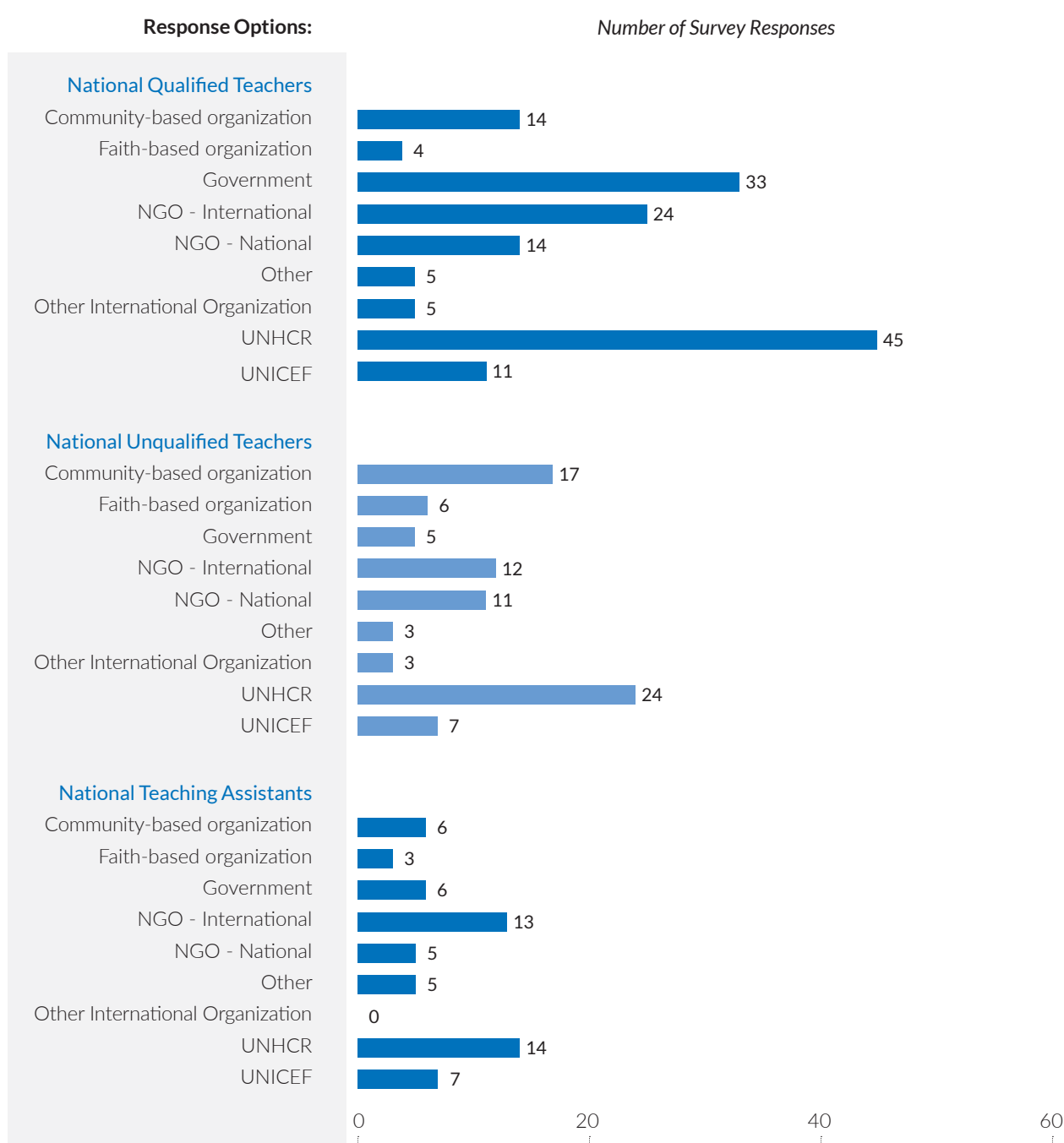
## Compensation policies and donor practices

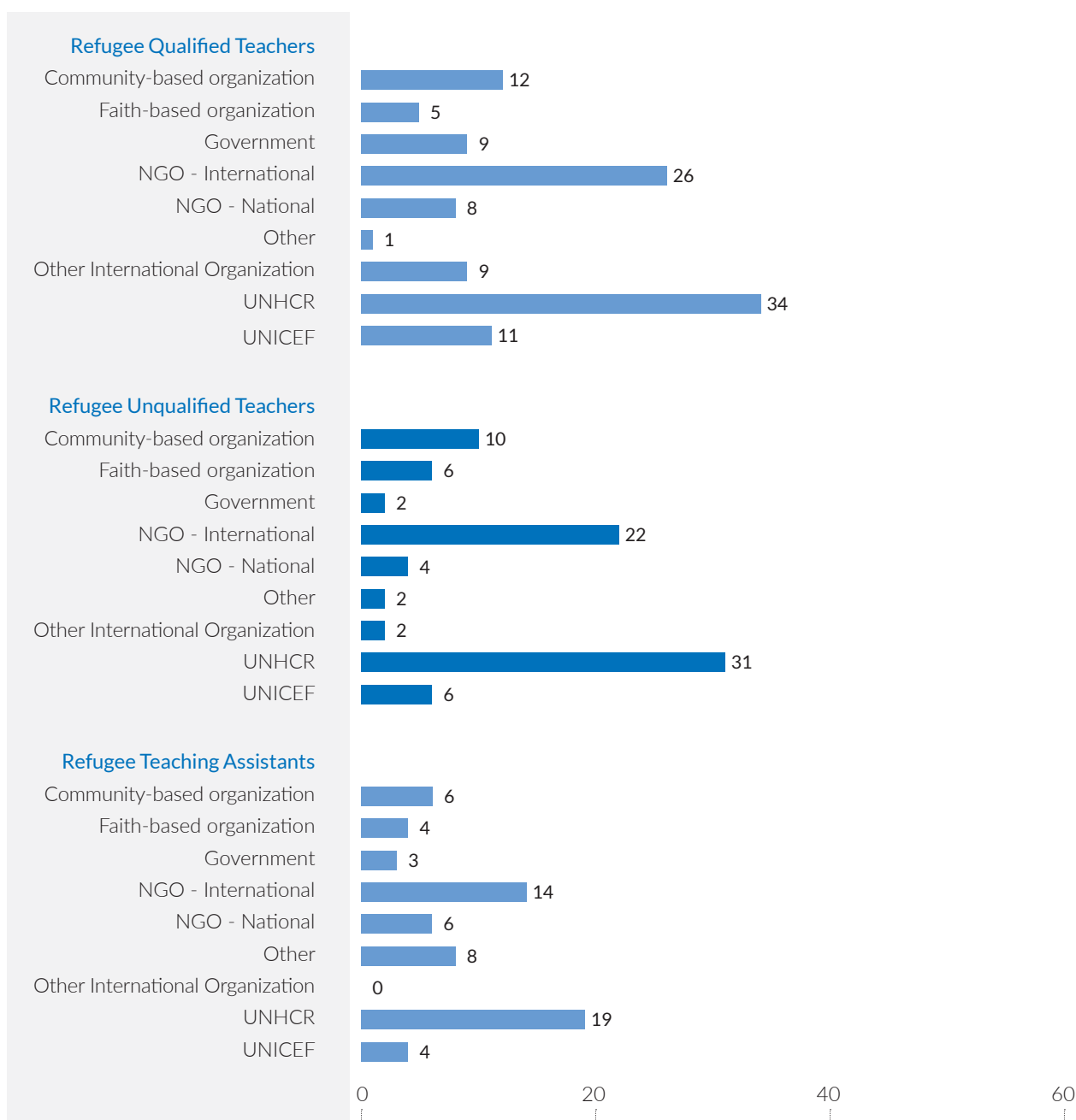
The national government often sets the compensation policy for national teachers with formal qualifications; however, for refugee teachers with formal qualifications and all teachers who lack formal certification, UNHCR typically sets compensation policies (in agreement with national governments in most cases). Regarding payment, UNHCR also typically pays the salaries of all teacher profiles (as noted in Images 6 and 7).





**Image 6: Organizations that set teacher compensation policy**





**Image 7: Organizations that pay teachers**

Donors are reluctant to pay teachers' salaries, but several donors were reported to support teacher compensation costs. The donors listed in Table 2 were specifically mentioned, often repeatedly, across different country contexts and/or teacher profiles. It is important to remember that donors use different terminology regarding teacher compensation to side-step national employment regulations and their internal human resources policies and procedures. Donors and the organizations paying teachers' salaries might classify the recipients of funding support as "volunteer teachers", "community teachers", or "incentive teachers". These alternative categories for teachers allow for organizations to subvert their own internal human resources policies, pay less than the national minimum wage, and/or mitigate obstacles to the right to work, the latter being a widespread challenge for most refugees (KI interviews, 2022; Ginn et al., 2022).



<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bureau of Population, Refugees and Migration (BPRM)</li> <li>• Communities and parents (school fees and other donations raised by PTAs, SMCs and/or Boards of Management)</li> <li>• Corporations</li> <li>• Educate a Child (EAC)</li> <li>• European Commission of Humanitarian Aid Office (ECHO)</li> <li>• European Union (EU)</li> <li>• Education Cannot Wait (ECW)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Faith-based Organizations (FBOs) and churches</li> <li>• Foundations: Mastercard, Porticus, Taiwan Buddhist Tzu Chi (the latter in Malaysia only)</li> <li>• Global Partnership for Education (GPE)</li> <li>• KfW Development Bank</li> <li>• Korean International Cooperation Agency (KOICA)</li> <li>• National Governments / Regional Governments / State Budgets in different countries</li> <li>• Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Private individuals (including local elites)</li> <li>• Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA)</li> <li>• The Netherlands government</li> <li>• United Kingdom government's Foreign, Commonwealth, and Development Office (UKAID)</li> <li>• United States Agency for International Development (USAID)</li> <li>• World Bank</li> </ul>
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**Table 2: Donors that support teachers' compensation**

Despite the diverse list of donors mentioned in this table, discussions during interviews with several donors further reinforced their reluctance to fund recurrent teacher salary expenditures. All of the donors unequivocally stated that they stepped in to fill these financial gaps as a “last resort”. In discussing the possible solutions for moving recurrent teachers' salaries onto national budgets, the ECW KI initially suggested a phased approach of ECW funding, then shifting the support for these costs to GPE and national partner governments (with or without additional development funding).

Most donors mentioned the need for the World Bank (WB) to step in sooner and do more to support teachers' salaries, while a WB representative stated emphatically that the national system should bear recurrent expenditures. The WB representative asked: “If [the national government] can't bear it now, when will they in the future?” Another KI expressed concern about the conditionalities based on neoliberal practices accompanying World Bank funding, which undermine long-term professional development needs and lead to the overall casualization and deprofessionalization of the teaching profession. Either way, the hopes and expectations by various donors and other education stakeholders that the WB should step in earlier and expand their financial support to teachers' compensation appear misguided.

## Looking for alternatives

In terms of refugee situations specifically, donors pointed to more opportunities during the emergency phase (and related funding channels) to prioritize refugees broadly speaking compared to funding opportunities post-acute crisis when deliberations become more political and national governments prioritize their own needs over those of the refugee population (KI interview, May 2023). As one KI stated, it is not just about integrating refugee teachers, for example, onto the national payroll system, but rather it is “a major systemic issue”, and larger public sector reforms (beyond the education sector) are needed in many refugee-receiving countries.

In these interactions, there is tension between ensuring country-led planning processes and a comprehensive approach that includes teachers (of various profiles) (KI interview, May 2023). These tensions are reflected in the literature on the humanitarian-development nexus, with scholars and practitioners recognizing the central position of education – and teachers specifically – in bolstering coherence in the shift from humanitarian to development aid and strengthening national systems in refugee-hosting contexts

(Mendenhall, 2019; Nicolai et al., 2019a, 2020). Yet, despite this recognition, looming challenges remain in collaboration and coordination amongst donors and national actors in funding EIE, particularly in funding support for teachers (e.g. compensation) as well as in including teachers of various profiles in decision-making processes (INEE, 2021; Mendenhall, Gomez, & Varni, 2019; Sayed et al., 2021).

Since significant increases in donor funding envelopes are not expected in the foreseeable future, KIs discussed the need to leverage the private sector and/or philanthropic actors as the only promising growth area. However, the inroads made by these actors into EIE and refugee education interventions raise other concerns about how they influence national educational reforms and if they would be willing to fund teachers' salaries. Other solutions pointed to tax increases, investment funds, and impact bonds, to name a few. Regardless of the proposed solution, the issue of sustainability of covering these payments remains unresolved.

Although there is recognition that qualified teachers who are compensated for their work are needed for foundational learning and educational innovations (e.g. educational technologies, inclusion, gender transformation, social and emotional learning, and play-based approaches), no one is willing to commit to paying teachers' salaries. While there is no easy fix for the challenge of paying teachers (of all profiles), more effort is needed to find sustainable solutions that do not unduly burden national governments, especially given the fact that low- and middle-income countries host more than 70 per cent of all refugees (UNHCR, 2023). More support from members of the international community needs to be galvanized around the principle of burden- and responsibility-sharing indicated in the Global Compact for Refugees (United Nations, 2018). Given divergent viewpoints about who is responsible for supporting recurrent teachers' salaries across different refugee and displacement settings and for different teacher profiles, it may be important to find an opportunity to bring different financial and education actors together for a policy roundtable (or similar event) during which new possibilities could be explored and tested.

In the meantime, multiple respondents pointed to "communities and parents" as a significant source of their funding (also captured in Table 2), which raises further concerns about what happens when national governments and their partners are unable to cover these essential expenses (a challenge demonstrated in low-income countries across both humanitarian and development settings). Several KIs mentioned how common and precarious this practice is. Despite free primary education policies in many countries, children who cannot pay school fees—needed to fill the gaps left by national governments and their donor partners—are kicked out of school. When families and communities experience additional disruptions to their livelihoods, the ability to pay school fees and school-related costs becomes a "luxury" that many families cannot afford.

## Teacher compensation rates across profiles and contexts

There is inevitable variation in teacher compensation rates across country contexts, teacher profiles, and education levels. Table 3 illustrates the salary ranges across different teacher profiles, including the government pay scale, in 15 out of the 16 total study countries (Yemen is not included due to a lack of survey data). This encompasses salary data for both primary and secondary levels.

The findings were derived from open-ended survey responses, which were then shared and further refined with support from UNHCR country office staff when there were contradictions across reactions. There are clear limitations to relying on self-reported data, but this is an initial attempt to better understand teacher compensation across refugee and displacement contexts. Survey respondents also self-reported government rates, which have not been independently verified, with some exceptions (Kenya and Uganda). Respondents did not always clarify where these teachers worked (e.g. camp, rural, urban settings).

\*All figures originally reported in local currencies have been converted into US Dollars to support comparisons. Comparisons are inevitably limited without calculating purchasing power parity (PPP) to eliminate price differences between countries.

\*\*Ugandan science teachers' salaries are not included in Image 8 below.

Country	Government Pay Scale	National Qualified	Refugee Qualified	National Unqualified	Refugee Unqualified	National CA/TA	Refugee CA/TA
Cameroon	116-266	241-300	42	25-66	17-50	25	25
Chad	100-581	67-465	60-125	8-116	8-100	100	46-100
Djibouti	508 - 819	734 (upper secondary)			281-339		
Ethiopia	69-280	54-275			16-18		
Iraq	382-1145	267-1145	267-382	267-344	153-229		191-267
Kenya	245-610	153-763	55-92		51-92	173	60
Malawi	250-394	231-394	83-92		83-111		
Malaysia	331-1214	258-645	168-387	172-538	104-462	108-280	108-280
Mexico		362-890				453	
Pakistan	89-214	92-115	88-114	98-118	88-118		67-100
Rwanda	80-270	80-295	20-213	90	22-30		23-91
South Sudan	22-840	40-975	120-300	40-400	110-175	40	100-150
Sudan	50-416	50-300	5-50	25-67	3-33	5	
Syria	40-398	40-318	52-73	40		2-72	72
Uganda	131-344 **Science teachers = 1073	131-330 **Science teachers = 1073	131-288 **Science teachers = 1073	52-87	67-87	67-87	67-90

**Table 3: Monthly teacher salary range (US\$\*)**

It is not easy to make country-to-country comparisons of teacher compensation data. Nevertheless, we can identify some important anomalies and interesting trends. In Cameroon, for example, we see a significant difference between nationally qualified teachers (US\$ 241-300) and refugee-qualified teachers (US\$ 42) for the same amount of work. In Kenya, nationally qualified teachers working in the refugee camps have a much lower starting point on the salary scale (US\$ 153-763) compared to teachers on the government payroll (US\$ 245-610), while qualified refugee teachers are paid incredibly low “incentives” (US\$ 55-92). Refugees may not have qualifications which are recognized in the host country, and may also not have the right to work. Incentive salaries are set as a conditions and standards based on these additional restrictions. A survey respondent from Kenya explained that “[national] teachers employed and paid by the government earn slightly lower wages than those working in the refugee camps and paid by INGOs. The government teachers, however, have tenure of service and enjoy hardship allowance, which matches their monthly pay with that of the national teachers working in schools in refugee camps.”

In Iraq, Pakistan, and Uganda, we see greater salary parity across government rates, nationally qualified teachers, and refugee-qualified teachers, albeit at the lower end of the starting salary range. In Uganda, a significant salary amount is granted to secondary-level science teachers on the government payroll due to the government’s recent efforts to increase salaries by approximately 300 per cent. This policy change and the prospects for higher pay hastened the departure of science teachers in the settlements who sought to secure teaching positions as civil servants. The inability of the NGOs to respond quickly to this policy change and to coordinate amongst themselves left NGO partners with their ‘hands-tied’ as their annual budgets had already been submitted (NGO KII, 2022). The Ugandan government has reported that the salaries of teachers in the arts and humanities will be increased to the same levels over the coming years.<sup>2</sup> While this is an important move to elevate teachers’ pay and contribute to teachers’ job security, the ramifications for these increases on the ability of humanitarian actors to fundraise to meet salary parity expectations, retain teachers in schools in the settlements, and mitigate disruptions to student learning as new increases get rolled out are considerable. Despite these challenges, UN and NGO partners have made some strides in overcoming inconsistent teacher compensation scales (see Inset: In Focus - Teacher Management in Uganda).

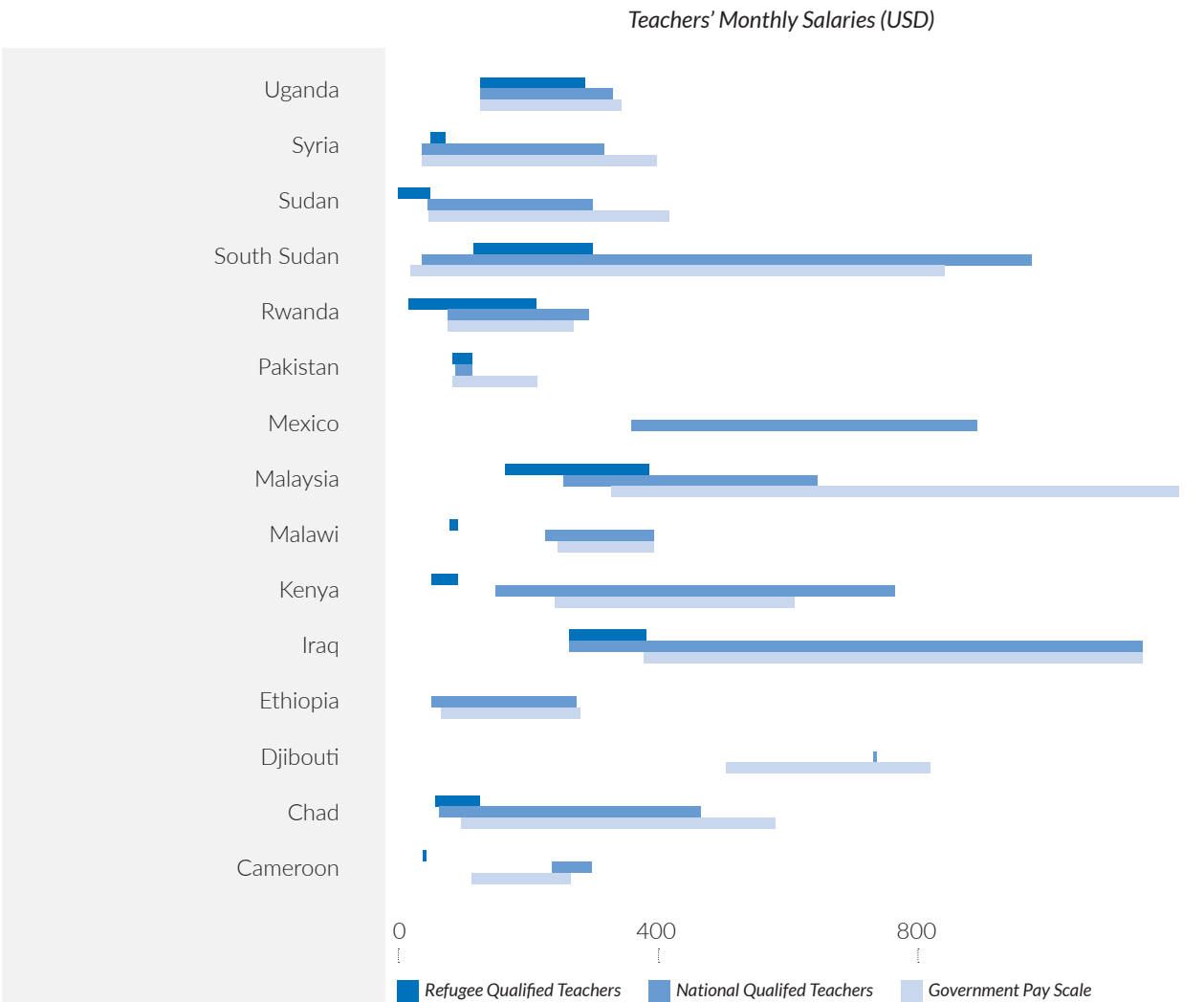
In Syria, respondents’ compensation amounts for what they pay and what the government rates should entail reflect a wide range, especially for nationally qualified teachers. Respondents provided sample government rates that were higher and lower than what they paid teachers. One respondent shared that “the salary is determined according to the number of lessons that were given.” Another offered that “the salary system depends on the hourly allowance and is set at 6,000 Syrian pounds (US\$ 0.50) per hour, and it varies from teacher to teacher.” They continued: “The material allowance per hour is fixed, whether for teachers who receive their wages from the government or others.” And yet another respondent elaborated: “Any teacher and anyone working in any field need a salary of not less than 1.5 million Syrian pounds (US\$ 115) to be able to secure his basic requirements in light of the current high prices and the difficult economic situation that my country is going through due to economic blockade and the effects of the crisis that befell the country.”

Across multiple countries—Cameroon, Chad, Kenya, Pakistan, Rwanda, Syria, and Uganda—incredibly low compensation for classroom/teaching assistants belies the immense responsibilities they are expected to carry out, which are often equal to lead classroom teachers’ workloads.

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<sup>2</sup> See Public service to streamline salaries of teachers by 2027. (July, 2022). Parliament of the Republic of Uganda, <https://www.parliament.go.ug/news/6048/public-service-streamline-salaries-teachers-2027>

Image 8 captures cross-country comparisons from the data presented in Table 3, further capturing both wide salary ranges across profiles and low wages for qualified refugee teachers that inevitably mask the realities and exacerbate the challenges many teachers face in these contexts.



**Image 8: Comparative teachers' monthly salaries**

It is important to note that in some cases, the salary ranges above may reflect one or two data points reported by different actors. Therefore, verifying where the average/median teacher salaries fall within these ranges is impossible. For example, in South Sudan, most nationally qualified teachers could be paid US\$100-200/month, although one outlier was reported as US\$ 840. This highlights the need to collect more comprehensive data to understand figure variability fully.

Across examples, refugee-qualified teachers' salaries are on the lower end; however, the graph illustrates several trends in how this profile overlaps with the other two. The baseline is similar in some instances (Uganda, Syria, Chad, Iraq, and Pakistan). However, nationally qualified teachers and teachers paid by the government payroll extend further, while in cases such as Rwanda and Malaysia refugee, qualified teachers start lower, but there is some overlap. However, in many instances, refugee-qualified teachers' salaries are far below and do not overlap with the other profiles (Malawi, Kenya, Sudan). This indicates that while refugee-qualified teachers are consistently paid lower wages, some cases are more extreme than others.

The graph also illustrates anomalies between nationally qualified teachers and the government pay scale, which, as we have seen in Uganda, has implications for recruiting and retaining nationally qualified teachers within settlements. In some cases, nationally qualified teachers' pay is higher (South Sudan, Kenya, Cameroon) and lower (Malaysia, Syria, and Sudan). These differences have implications, as stated previously, for either attracting teachers to fill hardship positions in settlements or contributing to attrition in settlements.

A closer look at country-specific salary scales (see Appendix for 15 individual country tables) indicates further variability in the compensation paid for different profiles of teachers depending on what level they are teaching (e.g., primary, secondary) when specified. Respondents also stated that the variable ranges are explained by the qualifications teachers have acquired, though those distinctions were rarely provided.

Despite the challenges of comparison across diverse contexts, it is clear that the issue of teacher compensation requires sustained attention to better understand who is getting paid, how much, and by which type of organization to harmonize pay scales to ensure equity across teacher qualifications and other key factors (e.g., years of employment). More accurate teacher compensation figures will also be critical for calculating costs for maintaining financial support for teachers, moving teachers onto national payrolls, and related expenses for teachers upgrading their qualifications and requiring increased compensation.

## IN FOCUS: TEACHER MANAGEMENT IN UGANDA

### Teacher profiles

There are three categories of teachers working in refugee and displacement settings in Uganda: 'qualified' Ugandan nationals, 'qualified' refugee teachers, and teaching assistants (KI, 2022).

### Recruitment and registration of teachers

In Uganda, teacher recruitment is determined by position openings, budget ceilings, and available finances within each settlement. The recruitment process is a collaborative effort by the Ugandan Government, District Education Officers (DEOs), NGOs and UNHCR. This "joint activity" ensures government involvement, so when they are ready to take over the teachers, they have been involved from the beginning (UNHCR KI, 2022). This does not apply to teaching assistants, a role that UNHCR and NGOs oversee directly.

Management structures vary across teacher profiles. Nationally, qualified teachers are employed by the Ugandan government, UNHCR, and NGOs, while qualified refugee teachers are employed primarily by UNHCR and NGOs. Qualified refugee teachers, who have typically acquired Ugandan teaching qualifications, experience barriers to registering as certified teachers (and accessing government employment opportunities) due to documentation requirements, lack of national IDs, and challenges accessing and navigating the online registration system. Study participants shared that refugee teachers' certifications (acquired outside of Uganda) are often "equated" on a case-by-case basis.

In the meantime, many refugee teachers serve as teaching/classroom assistants and assume increasing responsibilities amidst teacher shortages and overcrowded classrooms.

### **Teacher compensation and other conditions of work**

UNHCR and NGO partners primarily fund teachers' salaries across settlements, with additional support from the Ugandan Government and Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs). Survey results from practitioners working in Uganda reveal variations in salary amounts across teacher profiles. However, humanitarian actors have taken steps to harmonize and align all salaries with the first level of the government payroll scale (KI, 2022; MoES, 2023). UNHCR and its NGO partners have also agreed on a process for streamlining payments of teachers' salaries. Instead of multiple NGOs managing teachers' salaries, UNHCR has consolidated teacher compensation payments through two INGOs (Finn Church Aid and Windle International), which have extensive coverage across the myriad refugee settlements in the country and can ensure salary parity in practice. While a positive step forward, supporting annual salary increases, contributing to pension funds, and/or supporting other benefits remains challenging. Many donors are also unwilling to contribute essential funding for teachers' salaries (KI, 2022).

Further complicating this situation, the government of Uganda introduced a policy change to increase compensation for secondary science teachers by 300 per cent (KI, 2022). Due to a lack of coordination and budget limitations, UNHCR and implementing NGOs could not immediately match this increase for science teachers within settlements. Subsequently, many science teachers abruptly left settlement schools to seek government-funded positions elsewhere. As humanitarian actors strive to uphold salary parity with government pay scales and anticipate salary increases for arts and humanities teachers in the near future, there will be serious limitations to how many teachers can be supported in the settlements.

## **Refugee teachers' compensation versus other "incentive work"**

Comparing refugee teachers' compensation with other "incentive work" that refugees have access to in camps and settlements sheds light on the job opportunities available to refugees and where the role of teachers fits. Respondents shared the following examples of roles and monthly salaries that were more or less than teachers' compensation (Table 4).

\*Not all respondents provided compensation for these roles. Figures are noted when provided.

Country	Reported Refugee Teachers' Pay (Averages for Qualified or Unqualified and/or at primary level)	More Pay*	Less Pay*
Chad	8-125	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Health workers (165)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Midwife (25)</li> </ul>
Kenya	51-92	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Health workers</li> <li>Interpreter at UNHCR</li> <li>Psychosocial and child protection officers (83-103)</li> </ul>	
Rwanda	20-213	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Teacher in private school (210)</li> <li>Interpreter (252)</li> <li>Hotel restaurant workers (210)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Cleaner (20)</li> <li>Security guards (20)</li> </ul>
South Sudan	110-300	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Health workers</li> <li>Camp management</li> <li>Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH)-related work</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Community outreach volunteers (110)</li> </ul>
Syria	52-73	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Companies</li> <li>Private sector</li> </ul>	
Uganda	67-288	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Community mobilizers</li> <li>Mental health facilitators</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Community volunteers and social workers (53-94)</li> </ul>

**Table 4: Incentive job comparisons (US\$)**

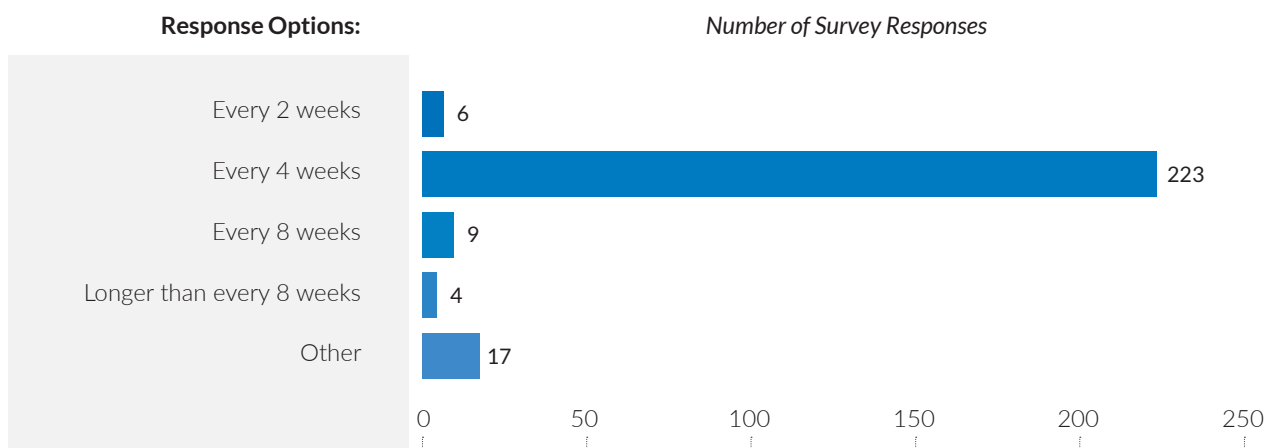
The findings indicate more lucrative refugee opportunities in the health, protection, camp management, and WASH sectors. Respondents mentioned that teachers were frequently hired for these roles in other sectors, given their literacy levels, other skills, and the pull of the private sector.

The implications of teachers needing to work multiple jobs to cover their expenses and/or leaving the teaching profession altogether for better-paid work lead to decreased teacher quality and teacher attrition and reinforce the importance of paying livable wages. Research with national and refugee teachers in contexts affected by conflict and forced displacement reaffirms these findings, demonstrating how teachers' concerns about meeting their responsibilities, including, for example, catering to their families' basic needs, can prevent teachers from adequately preparing for their lessons or being focused in class, and force many teachers to consider leaving the profession (Falk, 2023; Kirk & Winthrop, 2013; Mendenhall, Falk, & Shephard, Forthcoming).

## Payment frequency and/or delays

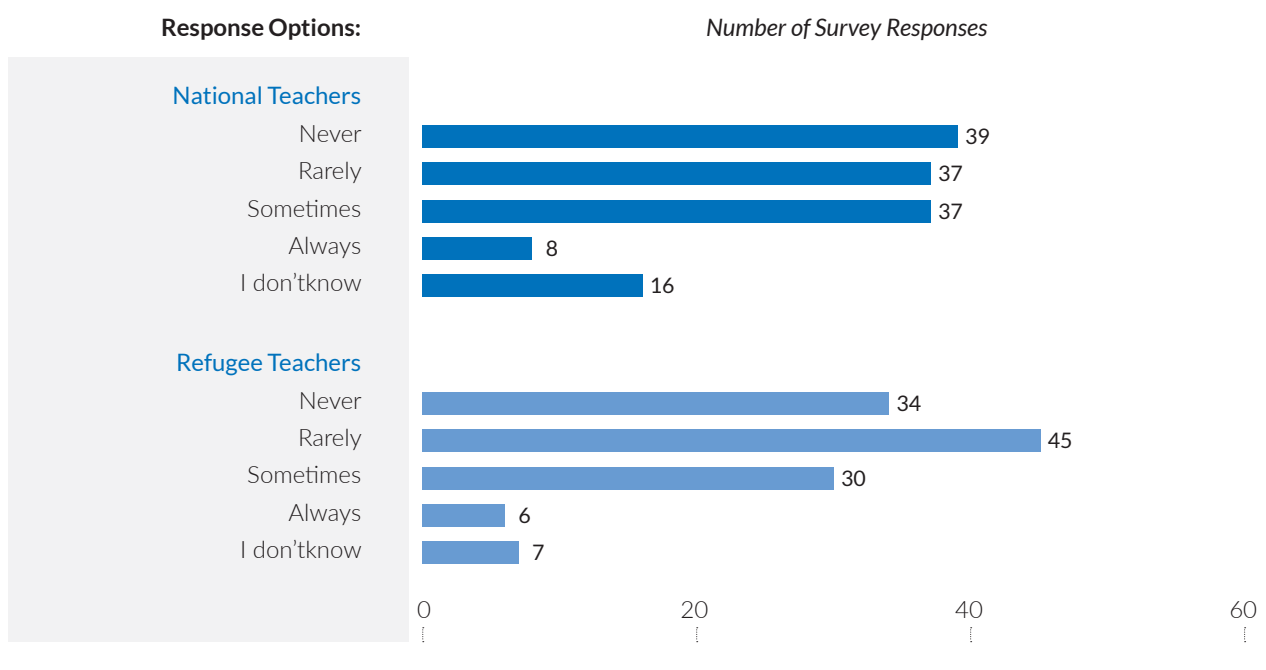
Most teachers of all profiles are paid every four weeks (i.e., monthly), as noted in the image below (Image 9). The Syrian context differs from other countries in that teachers are paid by lesson rather than monthly stipends.





**Image 9: Frequency of payment**

The frequency of delays in payment to teachers is captured below (Image 10). Refugee teaching staff are marginally more likely to experience payment delays than national teaching staff.



**Image 10: Frequency of delays**

Reflecting on the reasons for these delays, respondents cited a range of challenges, cutting across teacher profiles, though teachers working in more remote and/or camp-based locations face more challenges. The reasons for delayed compensation for each country, for which there is data, are listed below in Table 5.

There is some nuance across country contexts, but the primary explanations seem to cluster around lack of funds in state coffers, time and intensity of bureaucratic procedures, delays by donors issuing payments to recipient organizations, remote locations of teachers (and related lack of accessible banks), and ongoing insecurity. While some of these challenges point to global and/or institutional challenges that cut across contexts, each setting inevitably brings challenges, meaning that country-level strategies must be explored and tested to mitigate specific challenges.

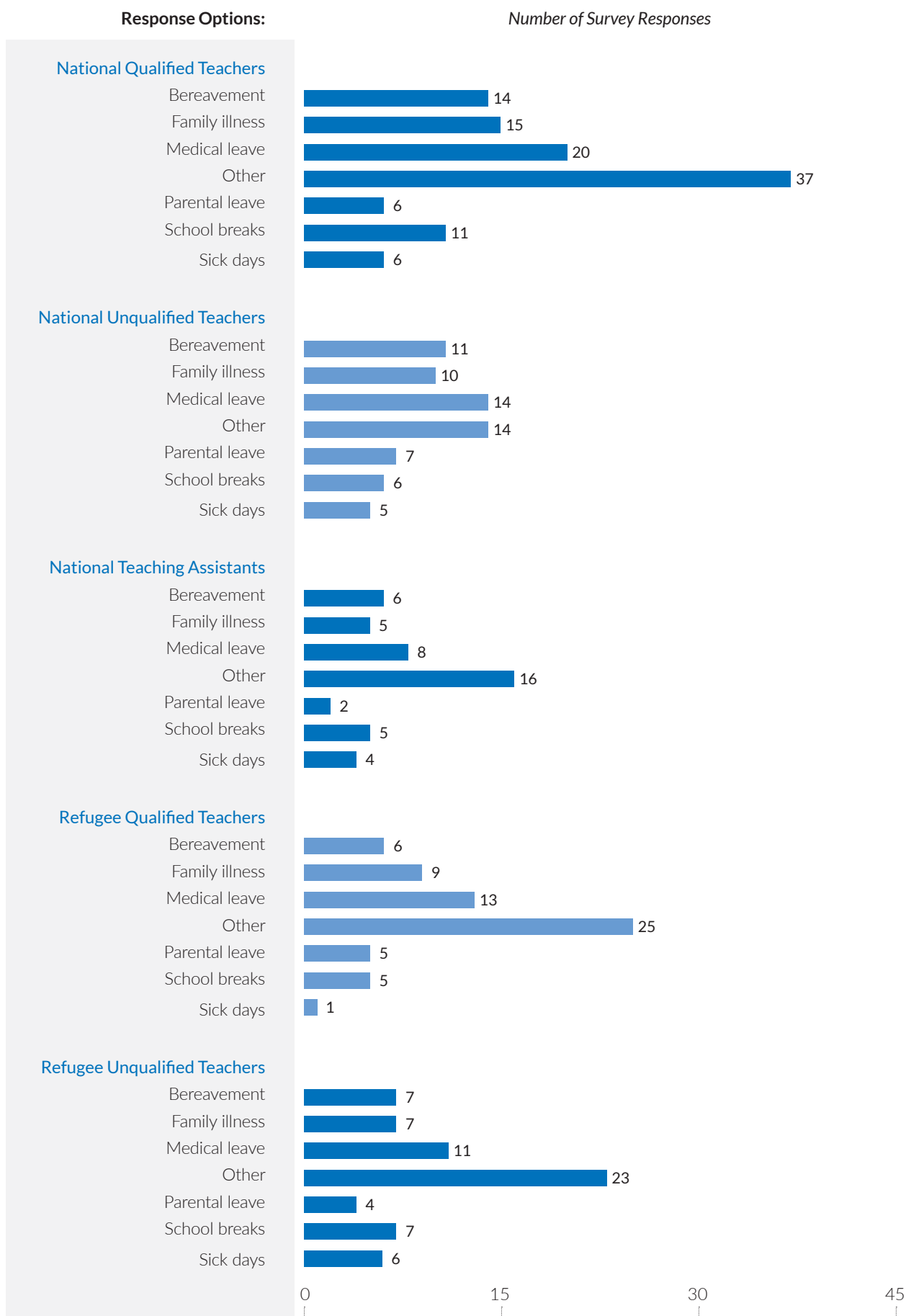
Country	Reasons for delayed compensation
Cameroon	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of available resources</li> <li>• Parents' contributions not collected on time</li> <li>• Distance from the teacher for delivering payment</li> <li>• Processing time for teachers' administrative files</li> <li>• NGO and other procedures for disbursing funds</li> <li>• Difficulty for teachers to provide supporting documentation of their work, often due to remote locations</li> </ul>
Chad	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Non-renewal of partnerships</li> <li>• Delays in launch of new projects with implementation partners who ensure payments</li> <li>• Administrative management deadlines</li> <li>• Lack of banks <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◦ Teachers do not have bank accounts → organization has to withdraw the money from the bank and bring it to them</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Inaccessibility to remote locations of camps</li> <li>• Delay in the recruitment of field staff responsible for preparing teachers' administrative files to pay them</li> <li>• Lack of funds in the state coffers</li> <li>• Lack of funds in PTA coffers</li> </ul>
Ethiopia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Internal war/conflict</li> <li>• Inaccessibility to remote locations</li> <li>• Delay in project agreement signing</li> <li>• Delay in releasing funds</li> </ul>
Iraq	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Financial crises → lack of funds in the state coffers</li> <li>• Delay in the salaries transferred from the Ministry of Finance</li> </ul>
Kenya	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Delay in payroll development and processing</li> <li>• Delays in interbank transfers</li> <li>• Delays due to transitions from one donor to another</li> </ul>
Malawi	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of funds in state coffers</li> <li>• Instalment delays from donors to partners</li> </ul>
Malaysia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of funds in non-formal learning centres' coffers (only option for refugee learners in Malaysia) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◦ Low fee collection</li> <li>◦ Low donations</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Financial constraints to pay even when backed by NGOs or FBOs</li> <li>• Accounting system approval</li> <li>• Administrative issues concerning documents and bank accounts</li> </ul>

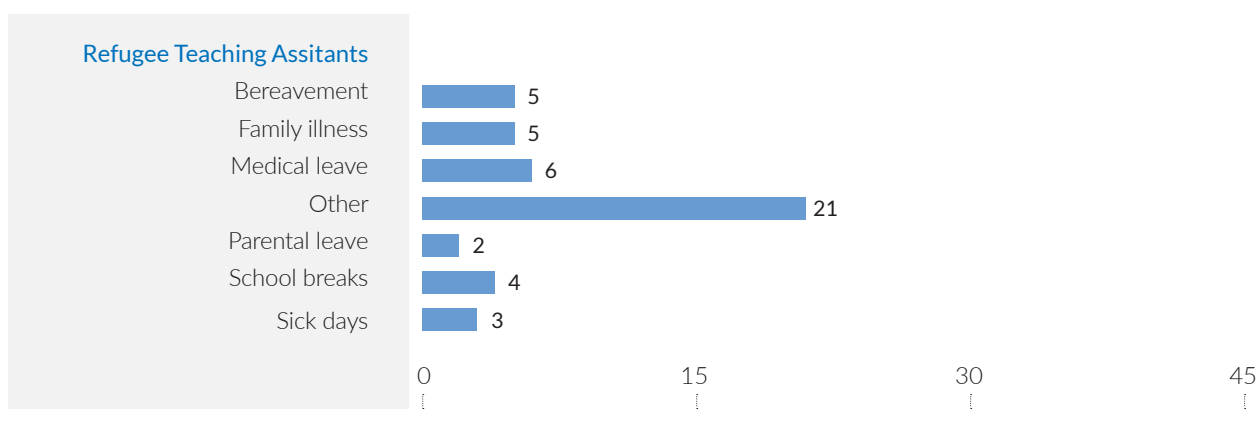
Pakistan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Collecting data on teachers' working days</li> <li>Delays in bank transfers</li> <li>Project payment delays to partners</li> <li>Teachers' protests/strikes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Refugee teachers are unwilling to sign contracts and protest incentive amounts</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
Rwanda	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Installment delays from donors to partners</li> <li>Bureaucracies</li> <li>Electronic technical errors</li> <li>Issues in identification (of teachers)</li> <li>Delay in money transfers</li> </ul>
South Sudan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Delay in submission of timesheets</li> <li>Lack of funds in state coffers → Government delay in releasing the salaries</li> <li>Paying agency delays the payment up to the 10<sup>th</sup> or 15<sup>th</sup> of the next month</li> <li>Insecurity and conflict</li> <li>Inaccessibility to remote locations by road → access by air only during rainy season</li> <li>Lack of banks in some areas; staff must carry money to pay teachers</li> </ul>
Sudan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Availability of cash in the banks</li> <li>Delay in disbursement of cash from the national government</li> <li>Teachers' strikes</li> <li>Increase in teacher salaries</li> <li>Lack of government resources to meet the teachers' demands</li> <li>Delays in spot checks lead to delays in the next installation</li> <li>Fluctuations in funding</li> <li>Challenging environment makes it difficult to plan long-term teacher incentives</li> <li>Payment depends on community resources</li> <li>Limited external funding</li> </ul>
Syria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Signing the agreement with UNHCR takes time at the start of every year, almost three months</li> <li>Conditional agreements</li> <li>Delay in money transfers</li> <li>Procurement and approvals</li> <li>Organizational policy and challenges related to conversion process</li> </ul>
Uganda	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Delays in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Signing of the project documents with the donors</li> <li>Teacher verifications</li> <li>Installment delays from donors to partners (especially at the start of new financial year)</li> <li>Finalization of budget for teacher salaries</li> </ul> </li> <li>Short budget timeframes (3 months, 9 months) instead of a full year</li> <li>Funding gaps <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Low contribution from the community to pay privately paid teachers</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

**Table 5: Reasons for delayed compensation**

## Additional explanations for non-payment

Respondents cited several reasons teachers would not be paid, including bereavement, family illness, medical leave, parental leave, and sick days (Image 11).



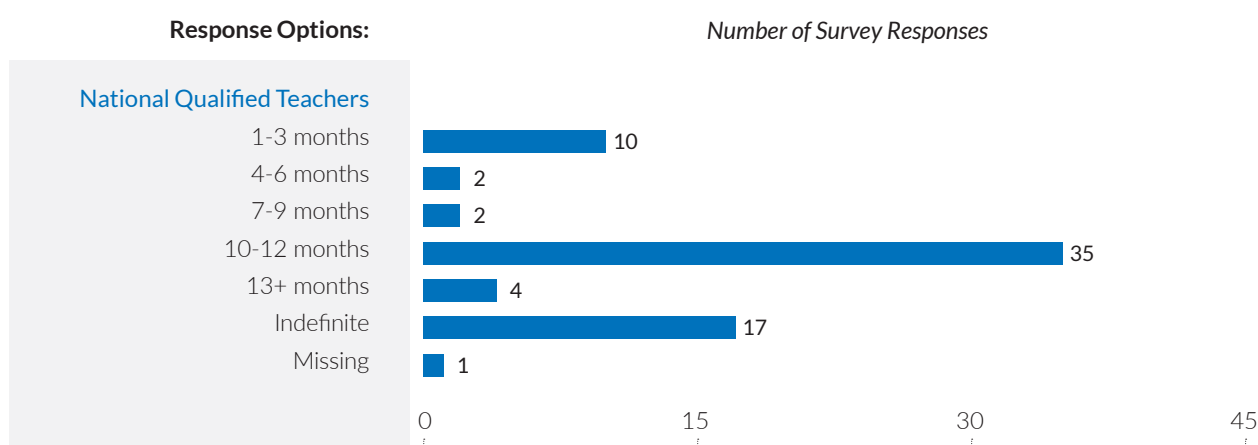


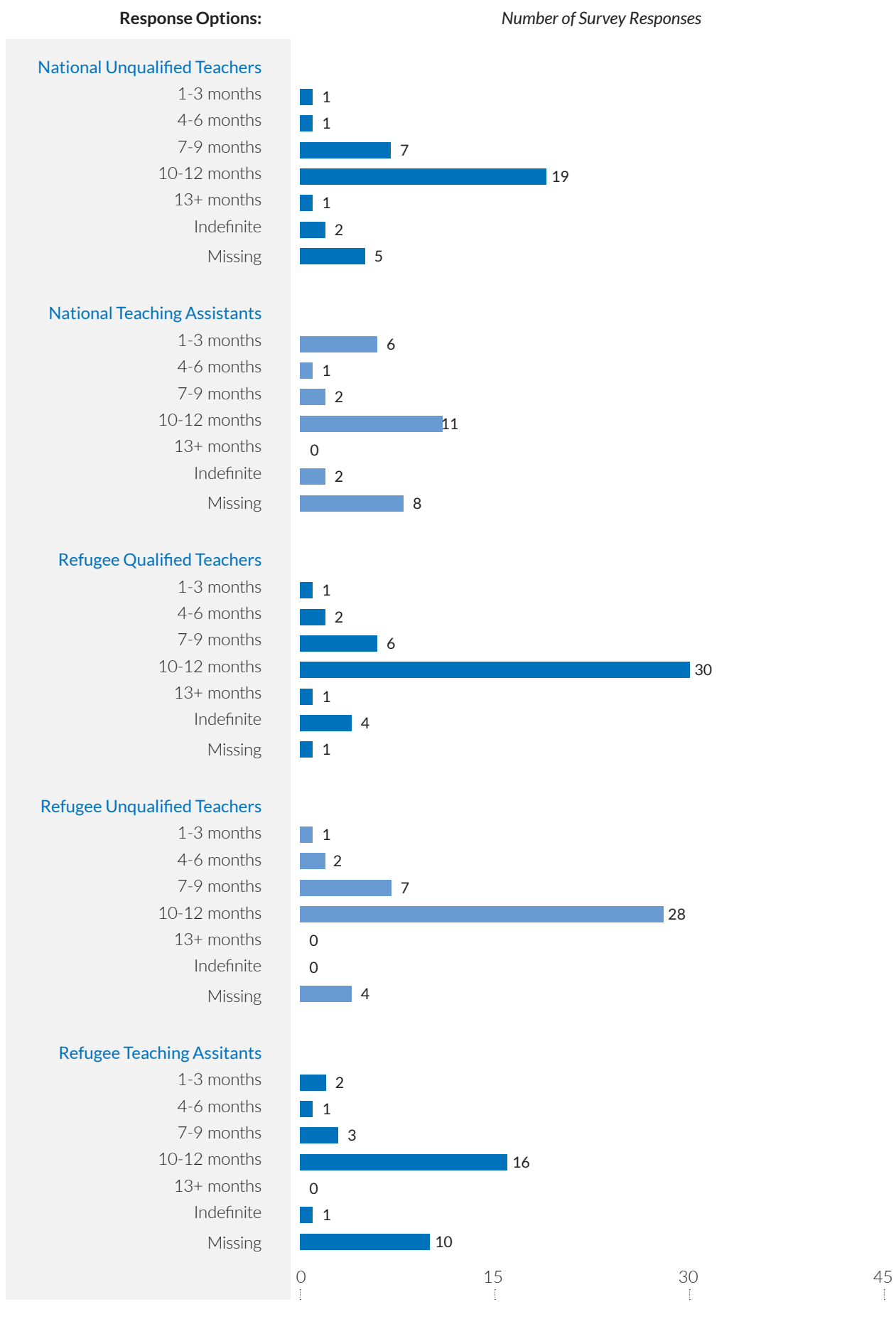
**Image 11: Reasons for non-payment by teacher profile**

In response to “Other” explanations for lack of payment, respondents from seven countries reported that unexcused absences (including personal leave during non-school holidays) are the main reason teachers are not paid. Respondents also listed disciplinary sanctions, long-term leave, and leave for emergencies as circumstances in which teachers are not paid. However, teachers in Pakistan and South Sudan are reportedly paid even in situations of bereavement, family sick days, long-term medical leave, official school holidays, parental leave, and personal sick days. These divergent findings point to opportunities to share teacher management policies across contexts and to gain insights into different approaches. In the absence of major funding overhauls to shore up teacher compensation in these settings, subtle changes to teacher policies that express respect and human dignity for teachers and teachers’ lives may go a long way in offsetting some of the other financial shortcomings.

## Contract length and other benefits

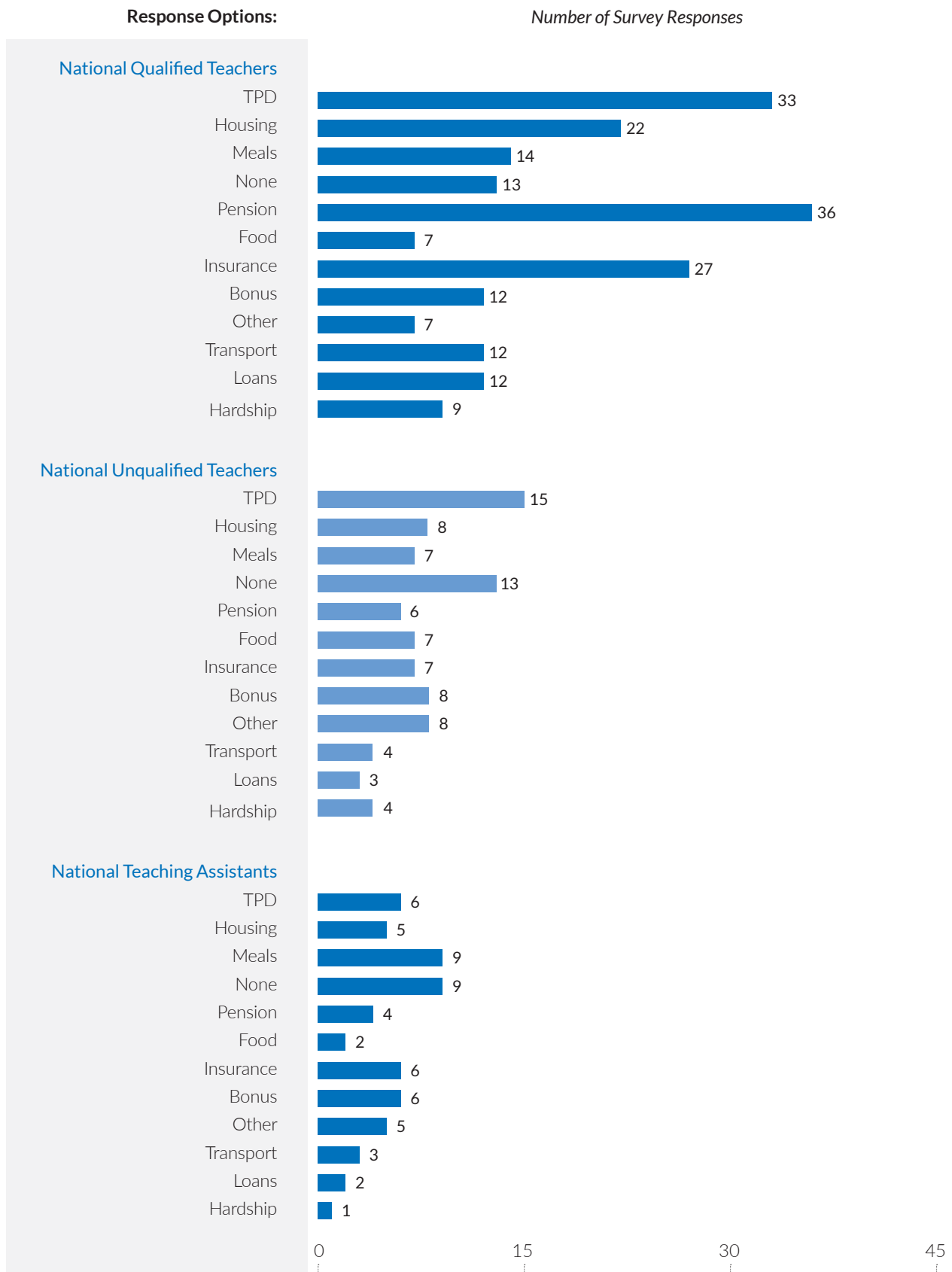
Most teachers, across all profiles, typically receive single-year contracts of 10-12 months (Image 12), though inconsistent funding connected to unpredictable donor cycles often leads to shorter-term contracts and decreased job security.

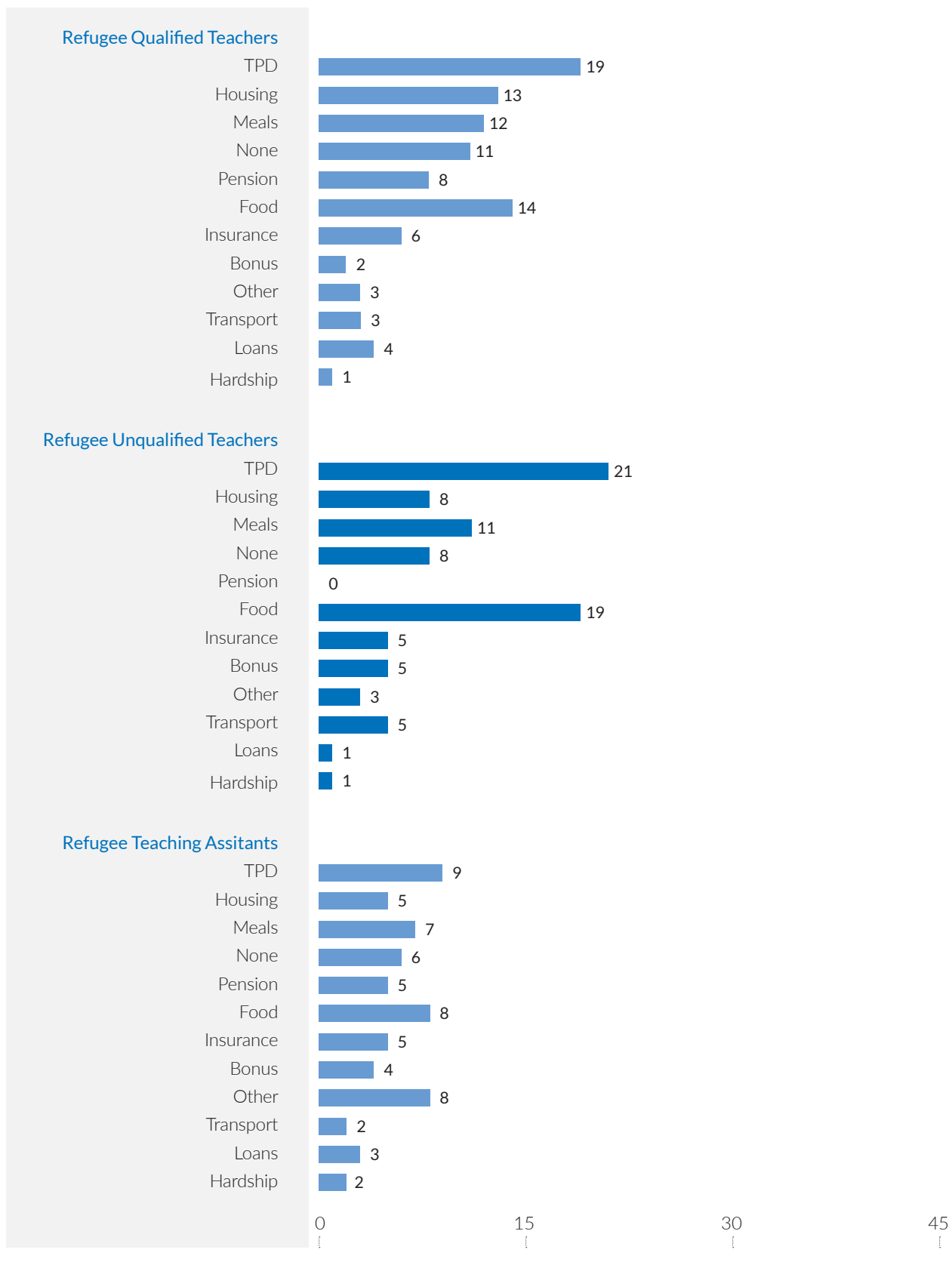




**Image 12: Contract length**

The primary benefits besides salary that nationally qualified teachers benefit from are pension and TPD (Image 13). TPD was the primary benefit cited for national unqualified teachers, refugee-qualified teachers, and refugee-unqualified teachers (followed by food for the latter). Results were more mixed for classroom/teaching assistants.





**Image 13: Other benefits in addition to salary**

Respondents mentioned other benefits such as “periodic motivation fees” and curriculum training (Cameroon); healthcare, end-of-year exam bonuses, as well as general bonuses (Chad); attendance allowance, medical insurance, Wi-Fi, and free rent (Malaysia); group accidental insurance, instructional materials, and equation of refugee documents and passports (Uganda). Box 1 captures the implications of a lack of benefits.

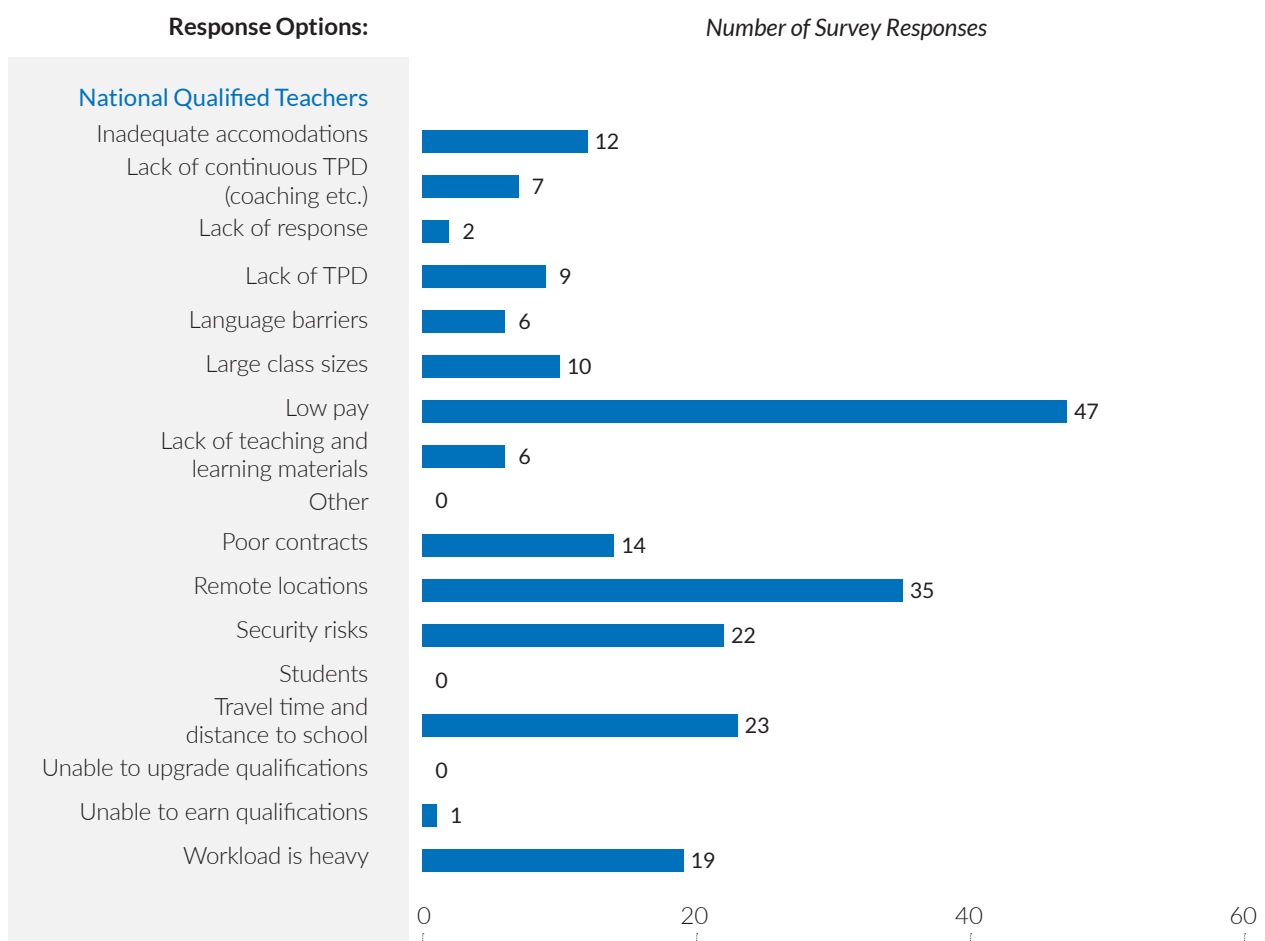


### Box 1: Non-existent Retirement Benefits

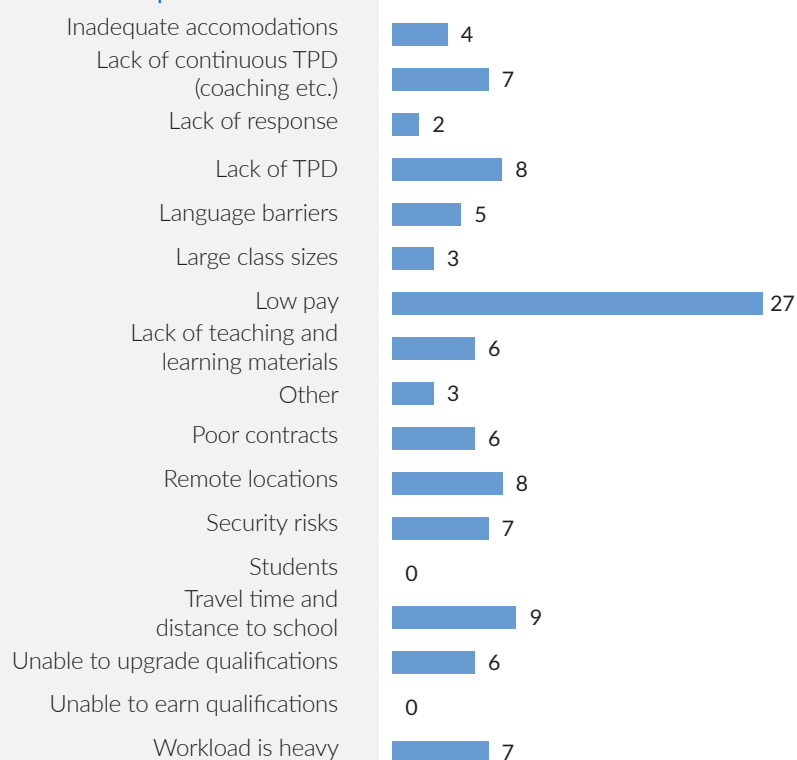
The issue of teachers' pensions (or lack thereof) came up in different contexts (Pakistan, Uganda). One NGO respondent raised concern for both national and refugee teachers in Pakistan who have worked with the UN for years and even decades in some cases due to the protracted nature of the conflict. When teachers retire at age 60, there are no benefits—“they have no source of livelihood after their retirement from teaching.” This issue is not unique to those working in teaching, however. Those working in other basic services (such as incentive health workers) face the same challenges, which are often due to the nature of the right to work in host countries, or the limited parameters incentive salary framework. A UN respondent also shared their concern and mentioned the challenges of managing teachers' expectations amidst unstable funding cycles. This is a challenge in most settings where UN and/or NGO partners hire and compensate teachers. Not only are teachers not earning a livable wage while they are teaching, making it difficult, if not impossible to save, but they are left without any benefits to live on when they retire.

## Teacher attrition

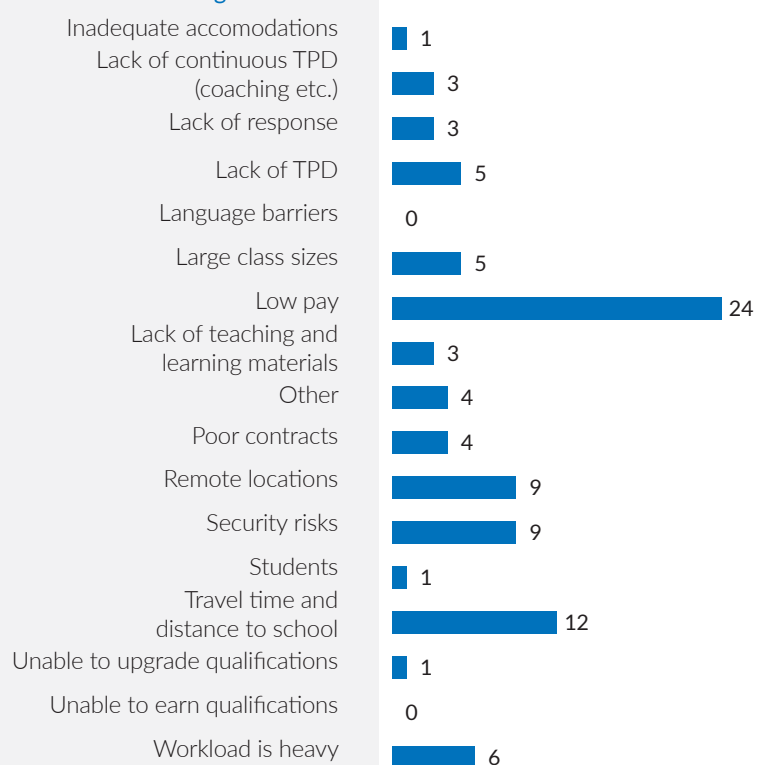
The primary reason for teacher turnover is low pay for all teacher profiles; however, for national teachers with formal qualifications, remote teaching locations, travel, and security risks are also prominent (Image 14). This finding points to the need to expand support to refugee teachers working in remote locations since they tend to stay, compared to national teachers (regardless of whether they are well compensated). Reflecting on the challenges of retaining national teachers in remote areas, one KI stated: “No stipend or hardship allowance will compensate for leaving your home and community” (KI interview, June 2023).



### National Unqualified Teachers

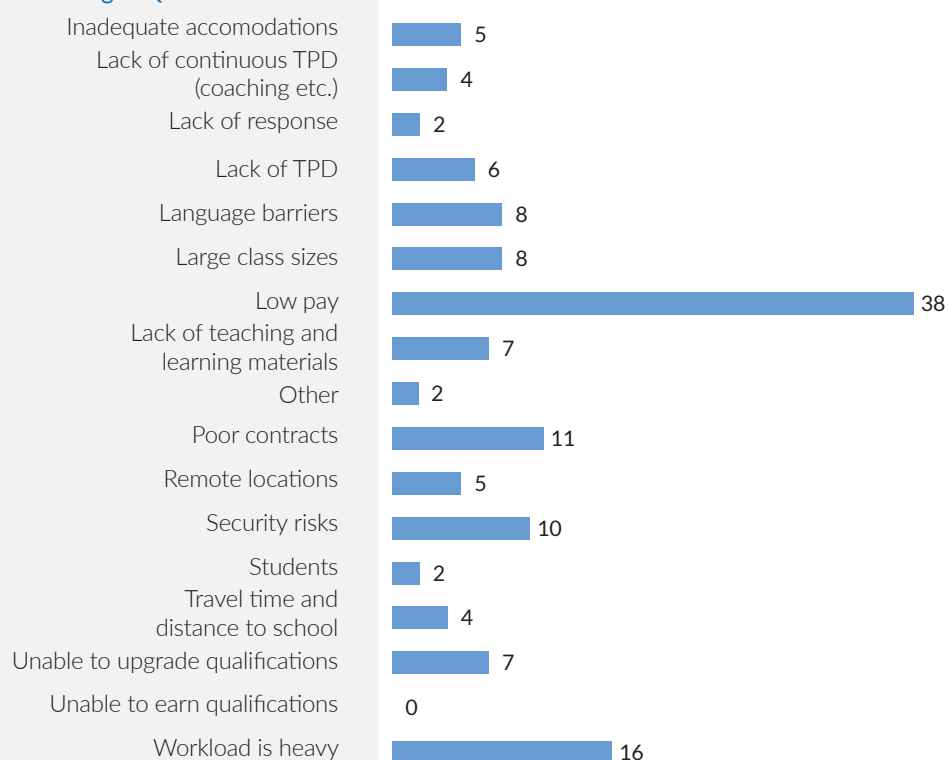


### National Teaching Assistants

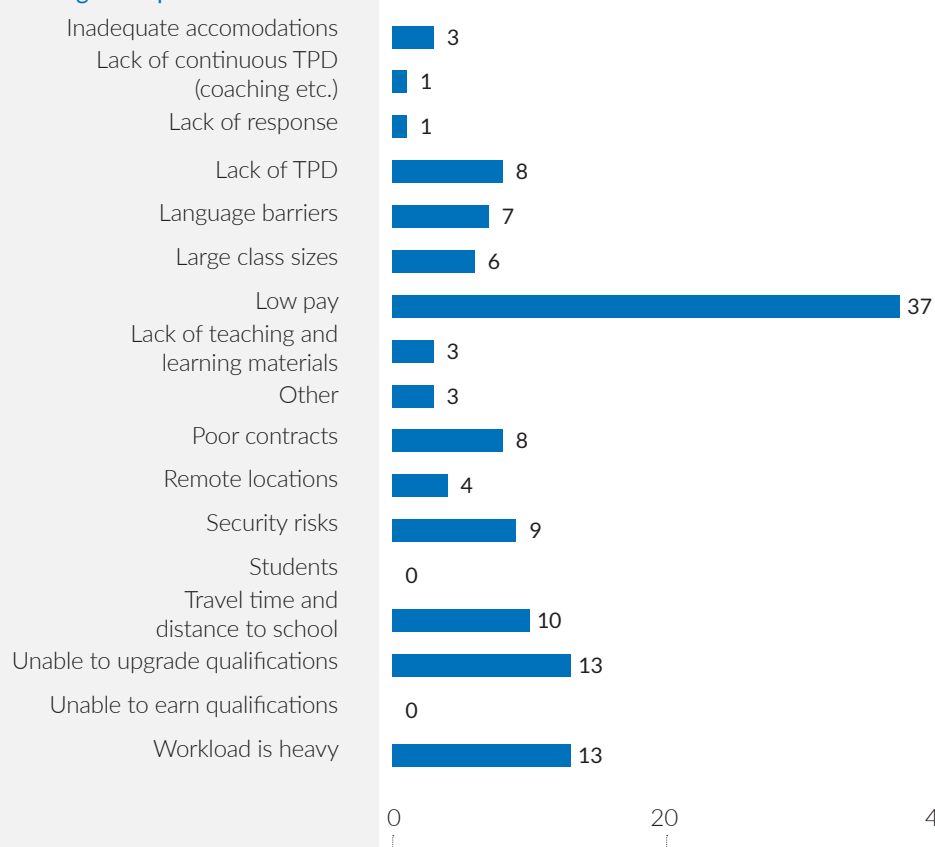


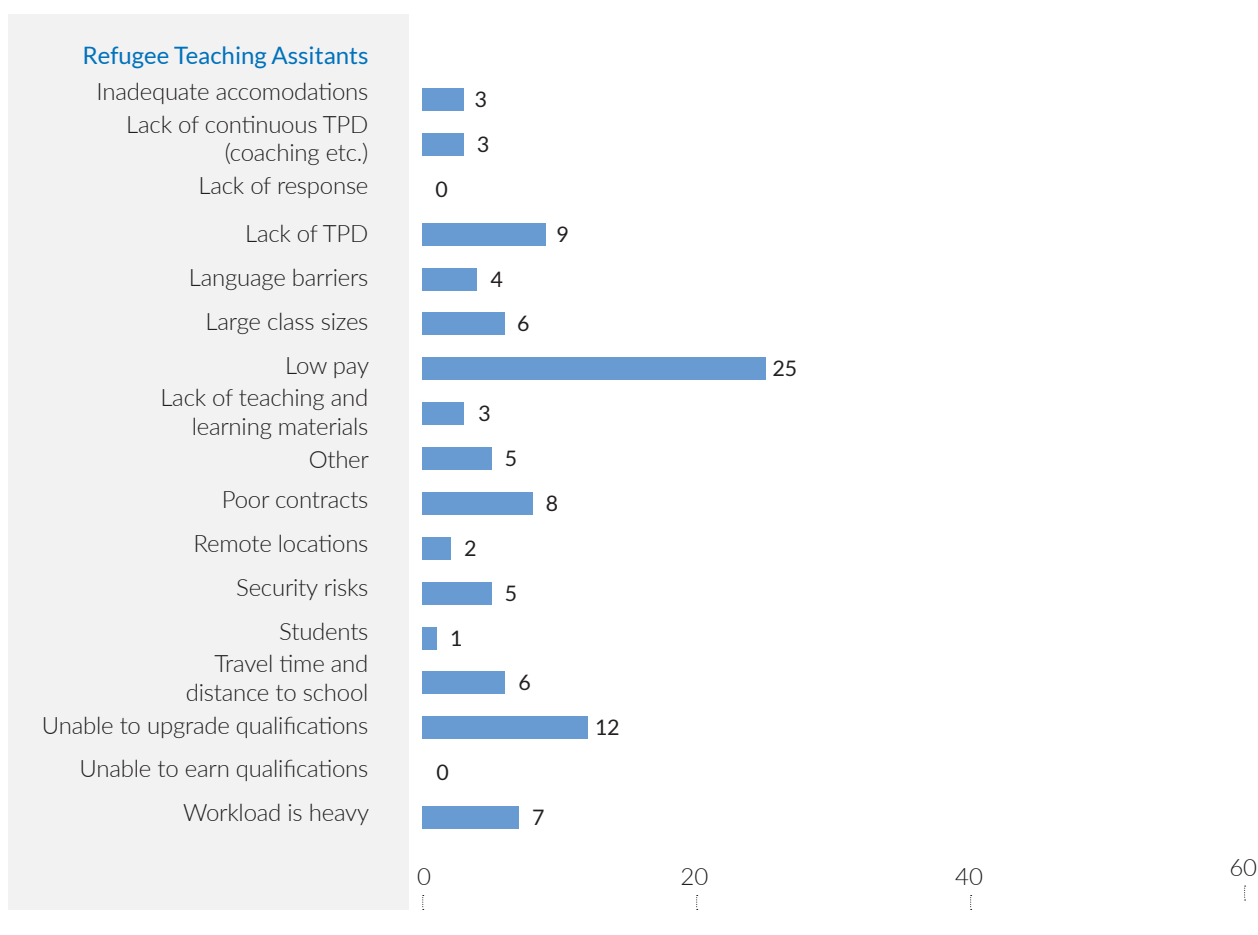
0 20 40 60

### Refugee Qualified Teachers



### Refugee Unqualified Teachers





**Image 14: Reasons for turnover**

Additional reasons for teacher turnover included: teachers are not rotated or re-assigned to different schools (at their request; Cameroon, Djibouti); “character issues whereby they do not follow the strict guidelines required” at learning centres (Malaysia); disruption of food distribution in the camps (Chad); resettlement to a third country (Malawi, Malaysia); and repatriation (Pakistan).

Learning centres in Malaysia face difficulty finding replacement teachers, especially on short notice when teachers keep their resettlement status a secret and inform learning centres at the last minute as they prepare to depart the country. Centre staff must provide the same training or seek opportunities for new teachers to access training each time a teacher departs.

## Promotional opportunities for teachers and classroom/teaching assistants

The lack of opportunities for career advancement also contributes to teacher attrition. Several KIs spoke about how limited options for professional growth demotivate teachers. In Malawi, a KI spoke of the additional challenges of supporting teachers over the long term in a protracted refugee setting that is still treated as an education in emergency response, meaning that humanitarian donors primarily provide financial support for shorter periods. Teachers’ morale decreases when working with the same organization for five or 10 years, but they “are always unsure of their futures because every year they get a one-year contract” (KI 2022).

Despite these challenges, there are still limited opportunities for upward career progression as there are only so many positions for head teacher, deputy head teacher, and/or section head (e.g. when teachers are designated to provide leadership for specific grades/levels in most schools and communities. Refugee teachers’ exclusion from national teacher management and development systems further limits the scope of professional and career pathways. Literature on teacher quality across stable and crisis contexts demonstrates the importance of career progression for bolstering the teaching profession and strengthening the broader education system (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017; Mendenhall et al., 2021). Yet, research also demonstrates the dearth of leadership opportunities and career progression pathways in low- and middle-income countries (Martin, 2018) -- challenges further compounded by conflict and forced displacement (Mendenhall, Gomez, & Varni, 2019). For teaching assistants, there was a lack of clarity about their options regarding the potential for promotion to teachers (Image 15).

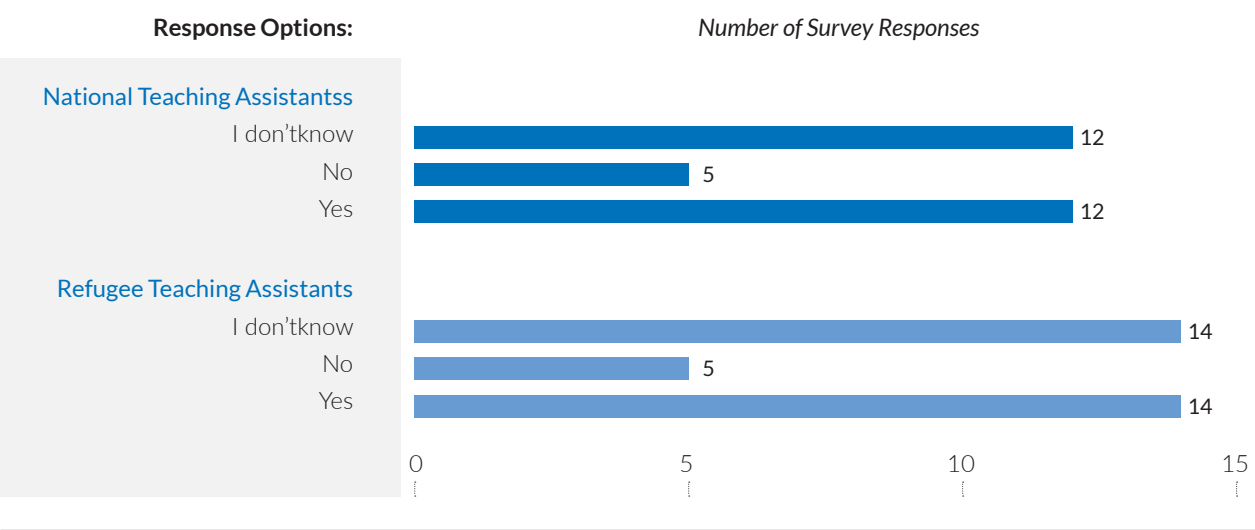
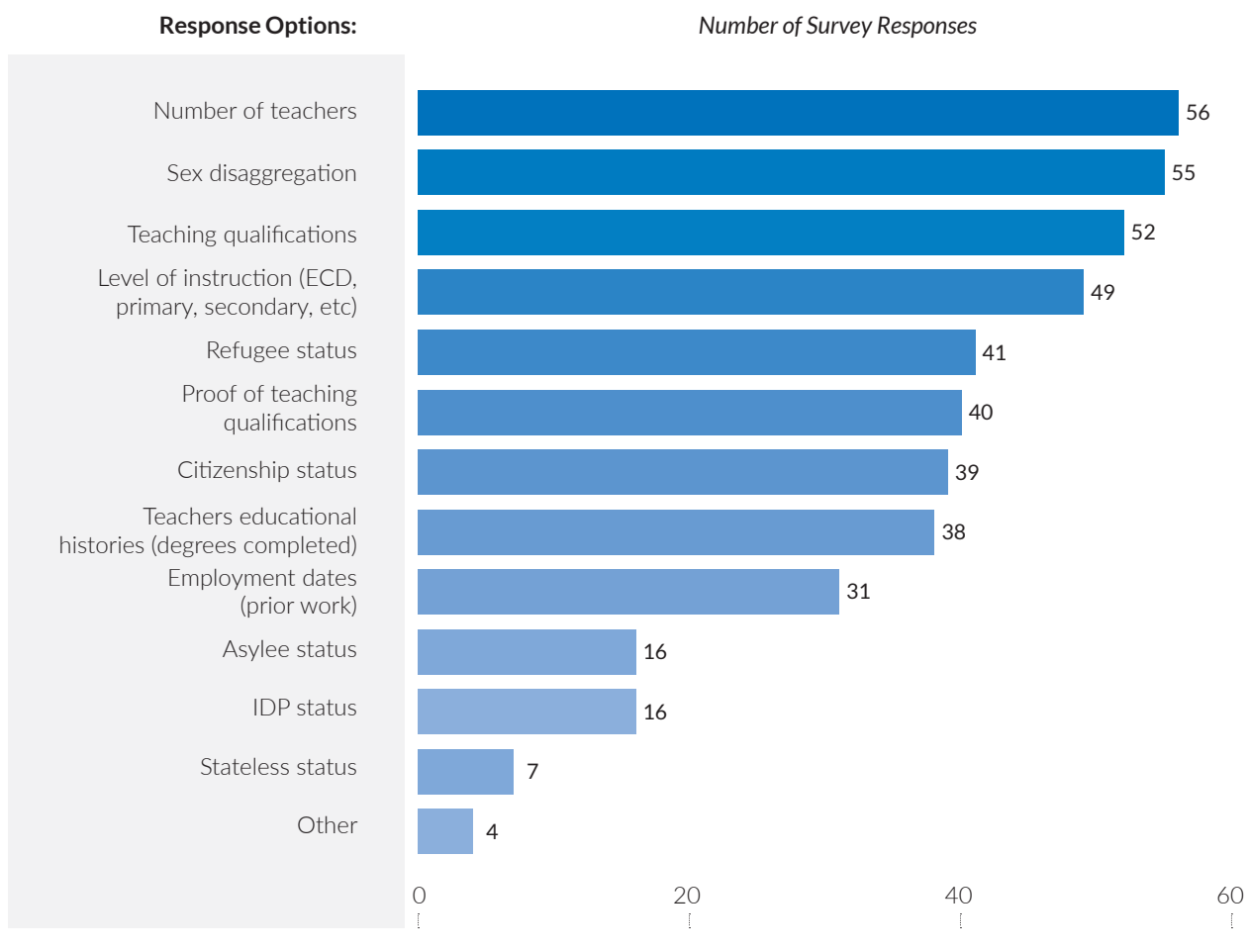


Image 15: Opportunities for classroom/teacher assessment promotion

The case study in Uganda revealed that CAs/TAs assume responsibilities far beyond their job descriptions, often taking on full-time teaching responsibilities in overcrowded classrooms. Many refugee CAs/TAs reportedly have formal teaching qualifications from their countries of origin but are unable to equate their credentials, leaving them in underpaid and exploitative roles. There is a need to strengthen existing and/or establish new equivalency mechanisms for reviewing teaching credentials acquired in other countries (and other languages). Accessible information about how teachers can navigate this process (including ways to minimize challenges related to costs and distance from processing centres) also needs to be provided.

## Data and evidence on teachers

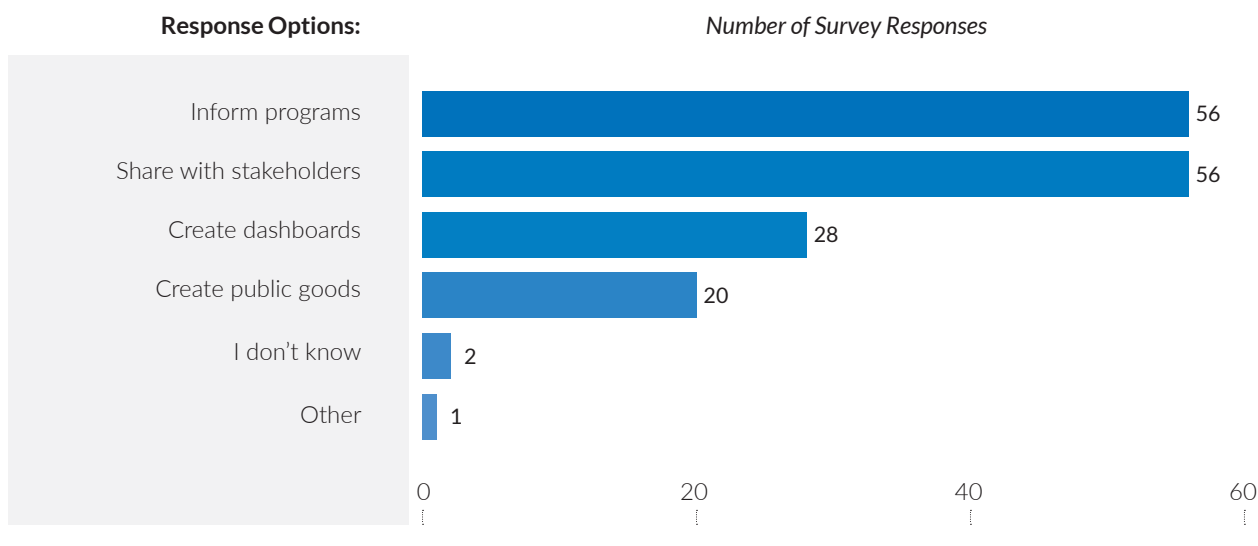
Participants also shared their data use practices. Most survey respondents shared that they “always” collect and use teacher-specific data. Survey respondents collect data on several indicators, including high-level data points such as the number of teachers, sex disaggregation, teacher qualifications, level of instruction, refugee status, verified teaching credentials, and nationality, among others (Image 16).



**Image 16: Data collected**

A few respondents shared additional data points that they collected, including the following: years of working experience and years of teaching experience (Malaysia, South Sudan); employment date (South Sudan); subjects taught (Chad, South Sudan); level of remuneration (Chad); donor funding sources (Chad); number of periods taught (South Sudan); presence/attendance at school (Chad); job titles and/or additional responsibilities (e.g. director, deputy director, supervisor, data collector, quality assurance officer, director of studies) (Chad).

The majority use teacher-specific data to “inform programmes” and to “share with stakeholders”, while several others use it to create dashboards (Image 17). A respondent from South Sudan shared that they use these data to advocate for better working conditions for teachers.



**Image 17: Data use**

Respondents attributed “rarely” or “never” using teacher-specific data to a lack of funding and time, though the number of respondents was very low. This indicates strong and promising uses of teacher data. However, they also cited numerous challenges in collecting and using data about teachers. These open-ended responses included the following examples.

## Lack of funding and/or fundraising to support data collection activities (Cameroon)

**Lack of (trained) personnel and/or equipment/tools to collect and verify data:** The data collection system is still manual and time-intensive (Chad, Kenya, Malaysia, Pakistan, Uganda).

- Lack of capacity and/or leadership to collect data at the school level (Uganda).
- Use of new online/offline applications (e.g. Kobo) proved challenging, especially in overcrowded schools/ learning centres, due to the need to submit one form for each student and teacher and the inability to access and correct inaccuracies post-submission, leading to further delays or non-completion altogether.
- Failure by the organization to update data collection tools (Chad).

**Poor management, inaccurate, inconsistent (including inflated figures), and/or unavailable data** (Cameroon, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malaysia, Rwanda, South Sudan, Sudan, Syria, Uganda).

- Teachers are reluctant to share personal info (e.g., among temporary and part-time teachers in Malaysia).
- Movement, turnover, and attrition of teachers (Chad, Kenya, Malawi, South Sudan, Uganda); constant need to collect new data due to low teacher retention (Malawi).
- Difficulty accessing teachers in hard-to-reach areas (Cameroon, Sudan, Syria) and/or insecure areas (South Sudan).
- Misalignment and lack of comparability across collected data between organizations and Ministries (i.e. national education management information systems [EMIS]) (Iraq).
  - » Lack of comparability due to variability in teachers’ resumes/CVs.
- Dysfunctional national EMIS system (Sudan).
- Inability to verify refugee teachers’ qualifications from their country of origin if they do not have any evidence to provide (due to flight and lost or inaccessible documentation).

A survey respondent from Rwanda also expressed ethical concerns about collecting disaggregated teacher data by nationality or refugee status and the undue fatigue on teachers when multiple organizations carry out parallel data collection efforts. They also shared resource-intensive efforts to verify education degrees, teaching credentials, and/or other documents when hiring teachers (Malaysia, Pakistan).

## More comprehensive teacher data needs

Survey respondents shared what additional data, evidence, and/or related activities they would find useful for supporting teachers in Table 6.

What data/indicators?	Why is it needed/helpful?
Compensation levels (Cameroon)	Data on teacher compensation across actors and education types (public and private), including additional benefits (such as retirement) <b>to support salary harmonization.</b>
Qualifications of both refugee and/or national teachers (Iraq, Kenya, South Sudan)	Verified documents from country of origin for refugee teachers (Kenya, Rwanda) or national Ministry for national teachers <b>to save time and to better connect teachers' qualifications and expertise in specific subjects</b> to the gaps/needs in specific schools (Pakistan, Rwanda, South Sudan).
Teachers' language(s) of instruction (South Sudan, Syria)	<b>To ensure literacy and experience</b> teaching in the LOI of the school setting.
Dates of employment	To verify <b>months/years of experience.</b>
Individual training activities, needs, and interests (Chad, Pakistan, Sudan)  Including training certificates (Syria)	Ability to follow up on the <b>impact of training received, the support provided, and needs for future TPD</b> (Mexico).
Level of education (South Sudan)	<b>Eligibility purposes.</b>
Daily teacher attendance and monthly verifications (Uganda)	<b>Meeting job requirements.</b>
Curriculum vita and qualifications, including recommendation letter from corresponding Ministry (South Sudan) and/or background checks from previous employers (Malaysia)	<b>Eligibility purposes.</b>

**Table 6: Needed data on teachers**

Some other suggestions are potentially onerous for teachers and/or their supervisors to collect, including teachers' time spent on lesson preparation, copy correction, research (Chad), student progress reports and examination results (Kenya, Uganda). A UN headquarters staff member shared that it was difficult to receive comprehensive data from country offices and that they seemed reluctant to share even within the same organization (UN KII, 2022). Given these various challenges, steps should be taken to agree on and streamline data collection on teachers and then to progressively add the types and range of indicators over time unless organizations are prepared to engage in a robust overhaul of their data collection procedures and have the staff to support it now. Research on education data collection and management in EiE settings



reinforces the urgency of this recommendation, demonstrating the prevalence of overlapping and divergent data collection systems across humanitarian and development sectors and the challenges of ensuring equitable representation amidst data collection efforts (Krause, 2017; Nicolai et al., 2019b).

A few of the suggestions—e.g., marital status (Chad), physical and mental health data (Malaysia), social media posts (Syria), and assessments of reputation and/or personal commitment (Syria)—raise concerns and questions about subjectivity and discrimination that would need to be considered carefully. Others—e.g., interests in recreational and sporting activities (Chad)—seem less concerning but merit further discussion about their relevance amidst the overall challenges of collecting data in these settings.

Overall, respondents would like to see more comprehensive teacher databases to identify teachers' qualifications, level of education, and experience, and identification to inform planning (Rwanda); use of EMIS for data collection (Kenya); a more effective process for automating teacher data and updating teachers' files periodically (e.g. every six months) (Syria); and joint monitoring reports (Uganda). There was also interest in better training teachers to support data collection efforts (Kenya). More streamlined approaches to data management across actors would better inform planning while reducing the burden on teachers to continuously share these details, taking away from their time to teach and carry out other responsibilities.

## Needed changes and promising pathways: teacher management

When asked, “What would you like to see changed?” survey participants offered several shared points for overcoming present-day challenges to teacher management in refugee and displacement settings. Not all countries are represented here, but contexts overlap about some of the needed changes. Study participants also cited many modifications required during the interviews and/or FGDs.

When it comes to teacher management, they suggested:

**Predictable, multi-year financing** to cover recurrent teacher salaries is needed to ensure the quality and continuity of educational opportunities in refugee and displacement contexts.

**Hire more and more qualified teachers**, with qualifications in line with national system requirements (Cameroon, Chad, Malaysia, Rwanda, Syria), including female teachers (Uganda), and allocate teachers more effectively.

- Allocate teachers more effectively to refugee host schools and/or rural areas, including deploying government teachers to enhance quality teaching and facilitate inclusion in national systems (Cameroon, Kenya, Sudan).
- Maintain teachers in the same school for at least three to five years as part of efforts to provide quality TPD (Malaysia).

**Increase teacher compensation** across all teacher profiles, including classroom/teaching assistants, to improve recruitment, retention, and motivation. Better pay also alleviates the burden on teachers to find additional work to cover their expenses (Cameroon, Chad, Kenya, Malaysia, Pakistan, Rwanda, South Sudan, Sudan, Syria, and Uganda) (Evans, Yuan, & Filmer, 2022).

- For refugee teachers, this would be facilitated by granting them the right to work, helping them acquire recognized teaching qualifications, and hiring them on par with national teachers; they would, in turn, pay taxes, as do national teachers. Two refugee teachers in Kenya are pursuing this pathway toward employment and have successfully acquired work permits, with support from UN and NGO partners in the camp. Securing work permits is no easy feat, and this is an isolated and one-off example in Kenya, but it is worth exploring.

**Harmonize salary scales across teacher profiles** with those of other actors and institutions (Chad, Kenya, Malawi, Pakistan, Syria), with government pay scales (Rwanda, Uganda), as well as across subject/content areas—e.g. sciences vs arts (Uganda).

**Establish clear frameworks for monetary and non-monetary compensation** (Rwanda).

- Provide hardship allowances for teachers in refugee camps and other remote areas where the prices of commodities are too high (South Sudan, Syria).
- Support transportation costs, especially to get qualified teachers to rural areas and/or refugee camps (Chad, Syria).
- Improve teacher accommodation provision, quality, and safety (Malawi, Uganda).
- Subsidize the provision of lunch so that teachers can remain at school during the workday and obtain the necessary nourishment (Kenya).

**Strengthen the integration of teacher data (in displacement and crisis settings) into national EMIS systems** to 1) harmonize salary scales and 2) recruit and deploy teachers to where they are needed most.

**Improve engagement with national systems (and national/international partners).<sup>3</sup>**

- Include refugee teachers on the national payroll (Djibouti).
- Include refugee teachers in the government sector plan (Iraq).
- Accredited qualified refugee teachers in the Teacher Management System (Kenya).
- Define career pathways (Pakistan).
- Support the inclusion of refugees into national systems, enabling access to certified and formal TPD opportunities (Malaysia).
- Help teachers to equate prior country of origin documents to access gainful employment in the host country (Uganda), including for refugees from Francophone countries of origin.<sup>4</sup>
- Support the government in spearheading and managing teacher-related issues (Sudan, Syria).
- Strengthen collaboration between international and civil society organizations with Ministries of Education (MOE) to improve support to teachers, schools, and other academic institutions (Mexico).

**Secure longer contracts** (Uganda) and pay teachers for 12 months (Chad).

**Include all teachers (including CAs/TAs) in activities that aim to recognize their work and/or have symbolic value** (Malaysia, Uganda).

Many of these points align with the Transforming Education Summit (TES) recommendations and other efforts to bolster support for teachers in refugee and displacement settings.<sup>5</sup>

Apart from these specific suggestions, participants also asked for more recognition and respect (through compensation and other approaches) for teachers' work (Kenya, Syria), including recognition and support from the state of teachers working in the camp (Malawi). This is a good reminder for everyone, as teachers tend to be overlooked among even smaller endeavours to support educational activities.

<sup>3</sup> It was also noted here that engagement with national systems would need to entail careful attention to the relationships between and among the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Interior/Home Affairs and/or government office responsible for refugee management (UNHCR, personal communication, December 2023).

<sup>4</sup> In some cases, such as for primary school teaching qualifications from the DRC, there may be no direct equivalency in Uganda, as the DRC qualification may consist only of secondary school completion. Such cases require alternative recognition pathways or bridging mechanisms.

<sup>5</sup> Teachers, teaching and the teaching profession. (May, 2022). United Nations, from <https://transformingeducationsummit.sdg4education2030.org/AT3DiscussionForum>

A KI from Malaysia reflected on their experience distributing school bags and uniforms to children and the joy the children expressed receiving these gifts. One of the teachers present that day asked – “Anything for us?” – a reminder that the refugee teachers in this setting were also in need. In another example, CAs in Uganda recounted how they were excluded when NGOs and other partners distributed t-shirts to teaching staff since they were not “regular” teachers. This all-too-common oversight negatively affected these teachers. Of all the challenges facing teachers and the organizations supporting them, including them in t-shirt distribution is a relatively easy fix. These examples show the need for fair treatment and recognition of all teacher profiles. Research across stable and crisis contexts further reinforces the urgent need to bolster respect for teachers amidst the overall deprofessionalization of the teaching career worldwide. One strategy for mitigating challenges related to teachers with different profiles being pitted against one another is, according to one KI, to “see all teachers as rights holders” and “as professionals who want what’s best for each other and their students” (July 2023). One key mechanism for doing so is to take an assets-based approach that values and includes teachers’ voices in decision-making processes and positions teachers as key actors in generating evidence to inform educational reforms (Darling-Hammond, 2021; Darling-Hammond et al., 2017; Bengtsson, 2023a; Mendenhall & Falk, 2023; Sayed et al., 2021).

## Teacher Professional Development

*“Without the teacher, then we can...forget all about the learning process, especially for the refugee setups where we don’t have innovations, we don’t have technology that would be utilized to even complement the teacher.”*  
(Study participant from Ethiopia)

Teacher professional development (TPD) is “the activities that develop an individual’s skills, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics as a teacher” (UNESCO, 2022, p. 12). This section focuses on the findings from the TPD-related survey and interview questions, with a particular emphasis on what TPD activities are provided, by whom, and for what purpose.

The inquiries about TPD further relied on the definitions of pre-service, induction, in-service training, and CPD depicted in Box 2.

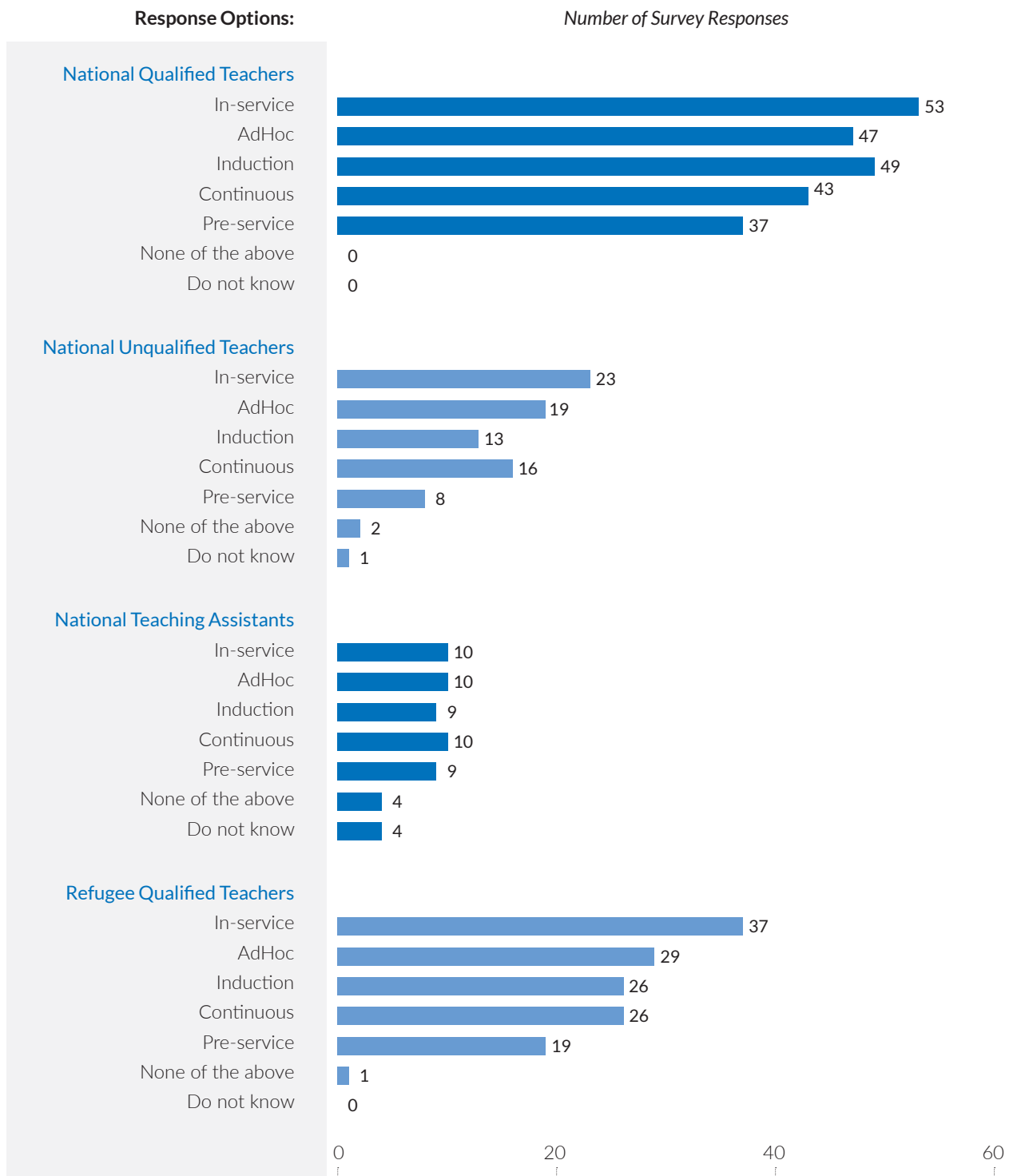
### Box 2: Definitions of TPD used in the survey

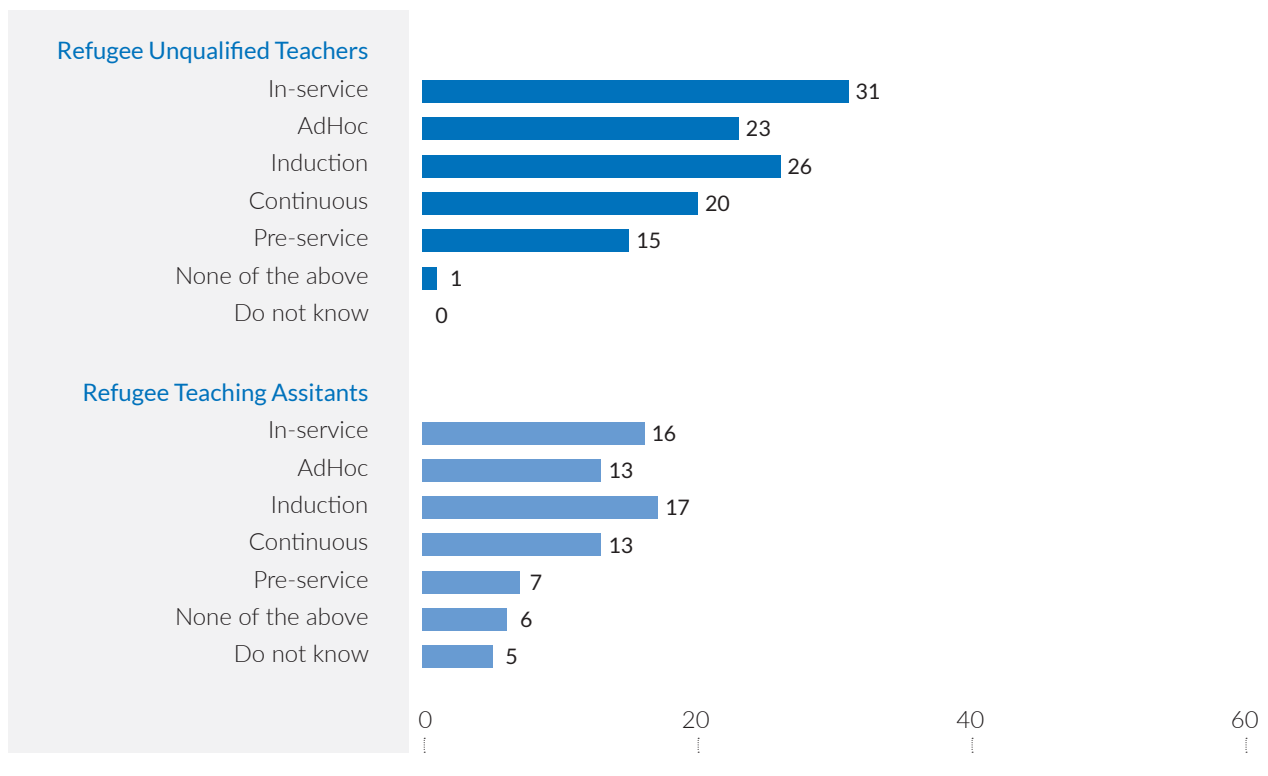
- **Pre-service training:** activities that take place before teaching begins
- **Induction training:** orientation when hired to teach in a new school and/or for a new education programme
- **In-service training:** activities that take place while teaching is ongoing
- **Continuous professional development:** mentoring, coaching, and communities of practice throughout the teaching period (Mendenhall et al., 2021)

## Type, access, and providers of teacher professional development

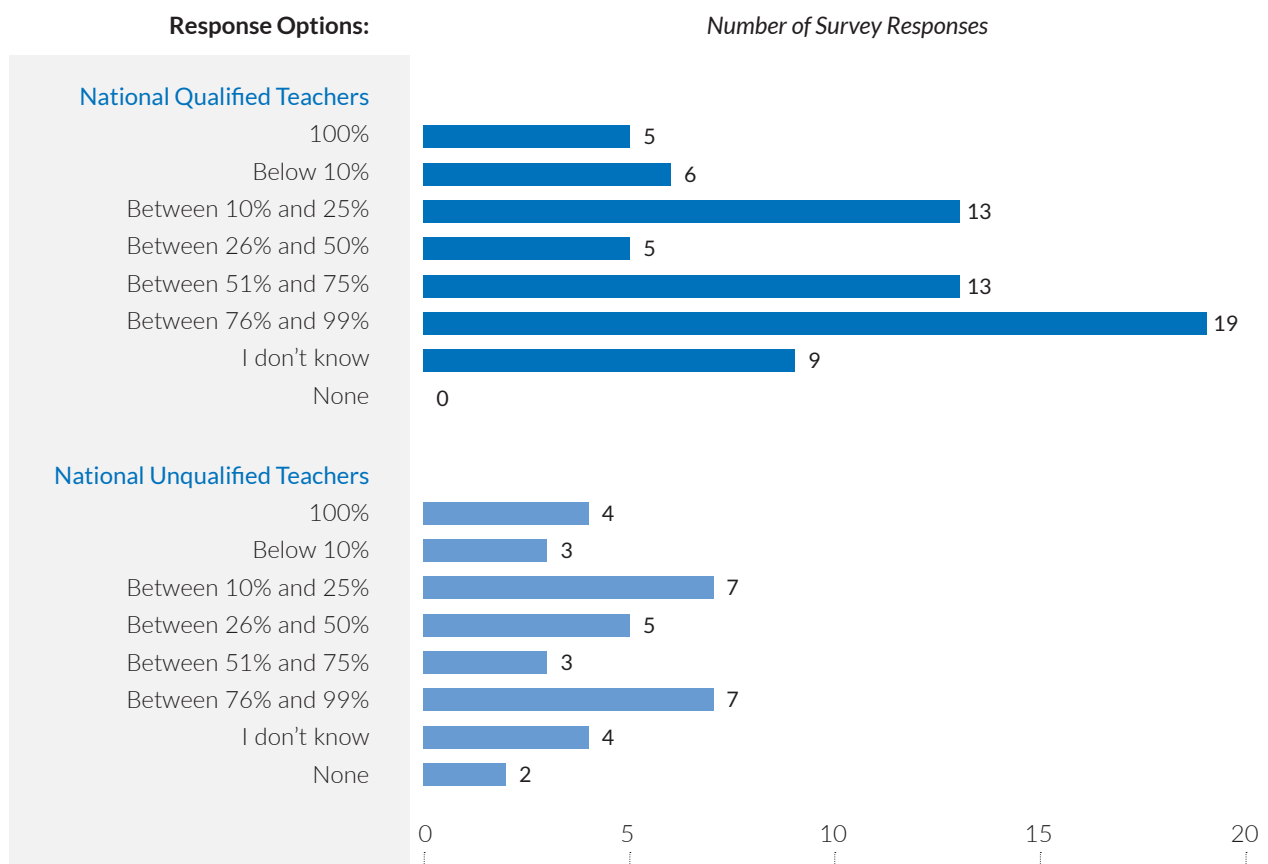
TPD is more likely to be ad-hoc rather than continuous, with in-service TPD being the most common for all profiles. However, it is important to note that there are more programmes in which a high percentage (over 76 per cent) of teachers have access to TPD, in the case of national teachers with formal qualifications.

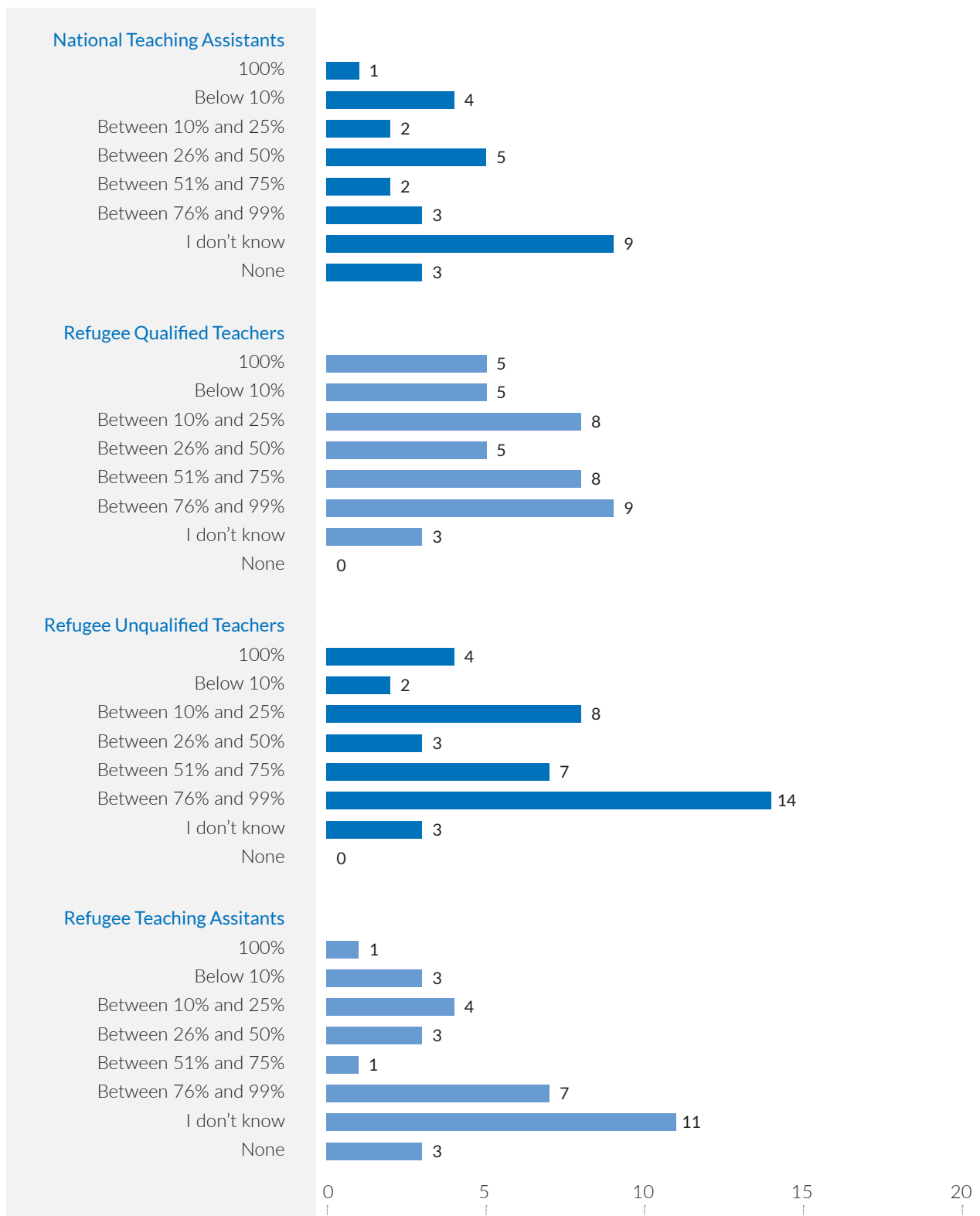
INGOs are the most likely to provide TPD for all teacher profiles, although UNHCR is as likely to offer TPD to refugee teachers with formal qualifications (see Images 18, 19, 20). Despite clear evidence that it is needed to effect lasting change in teaching practices, providing continuous TPD for different teacher profiles is still a struggle.



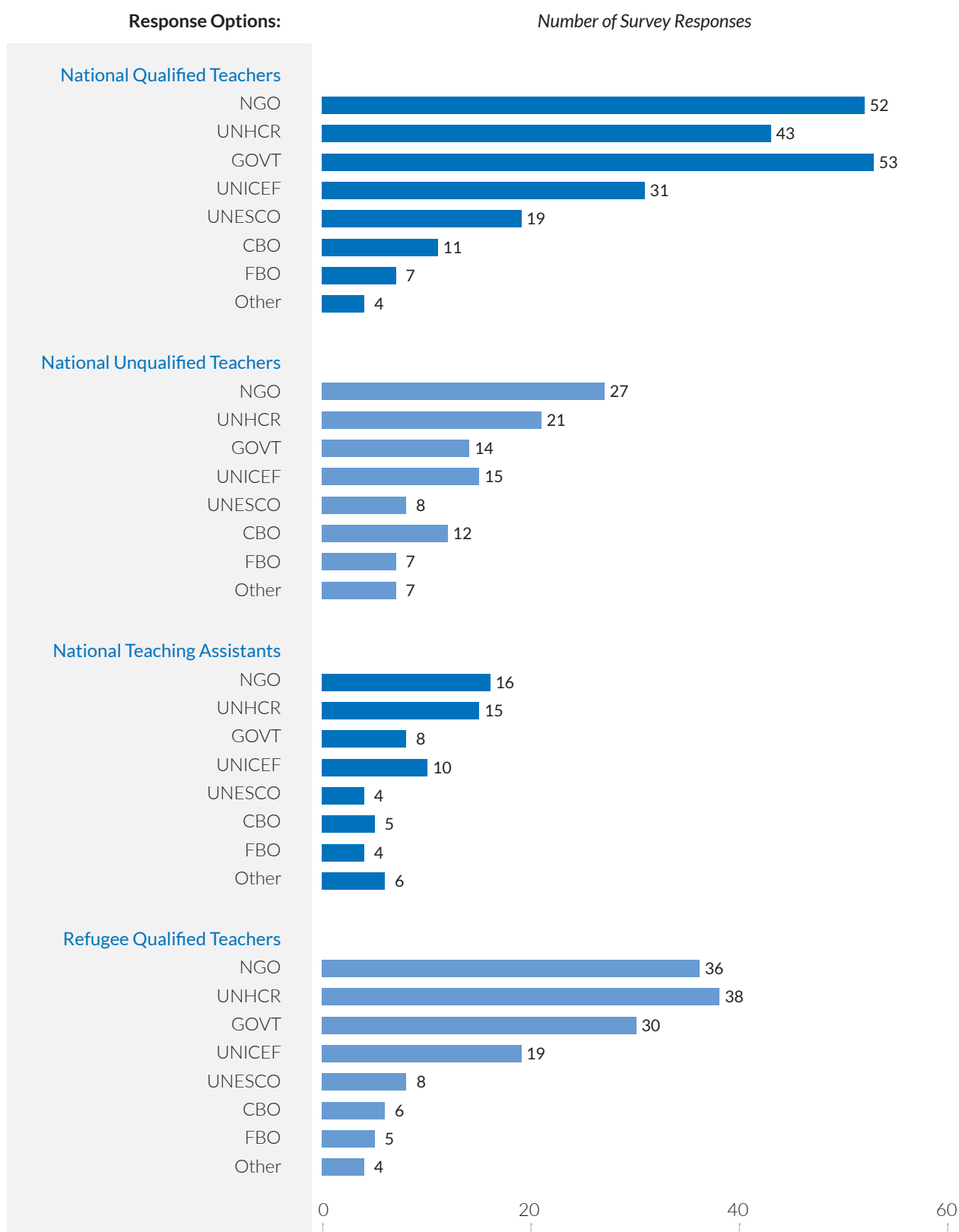


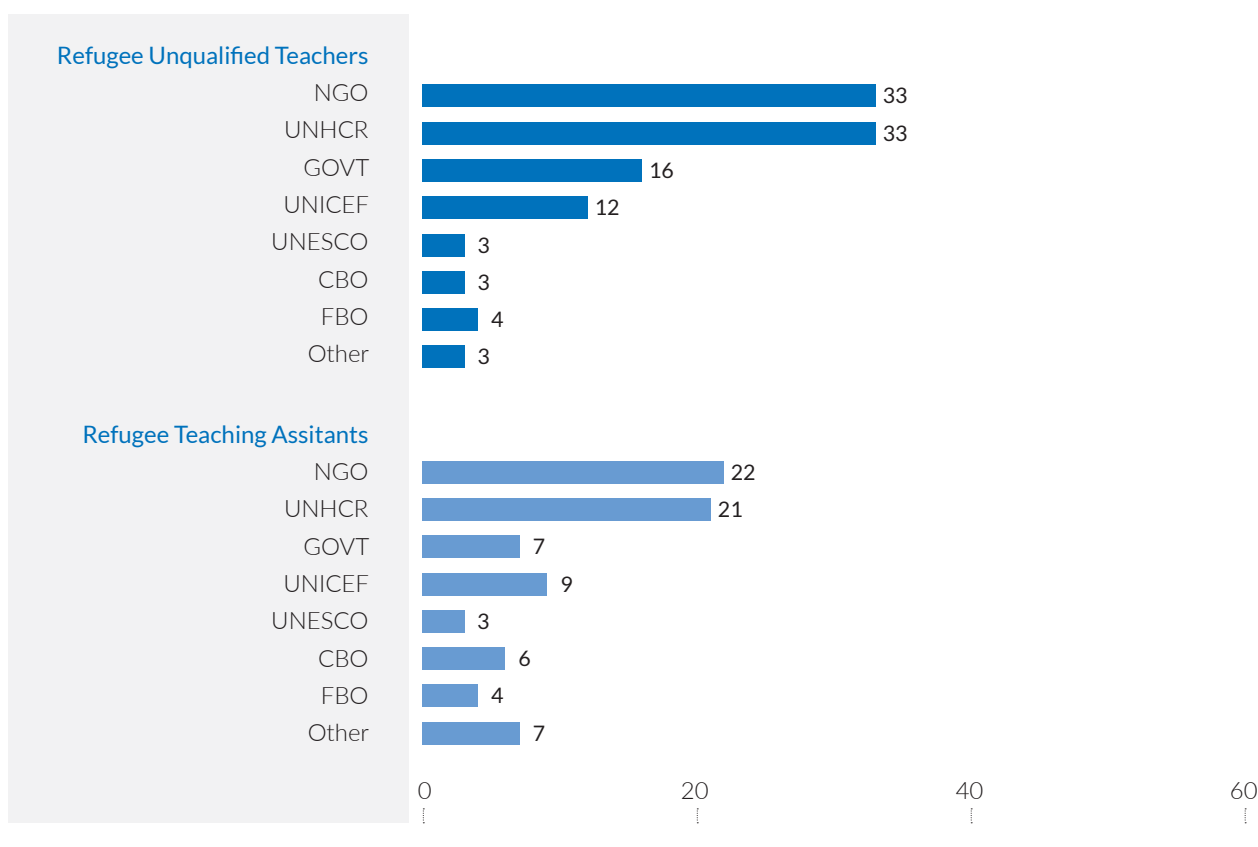
**Image 18: Types of teacher professional development access**





**Image 19: Percent of teachers with teacher professional development access**





**Image 20: Teacher professional development providers**

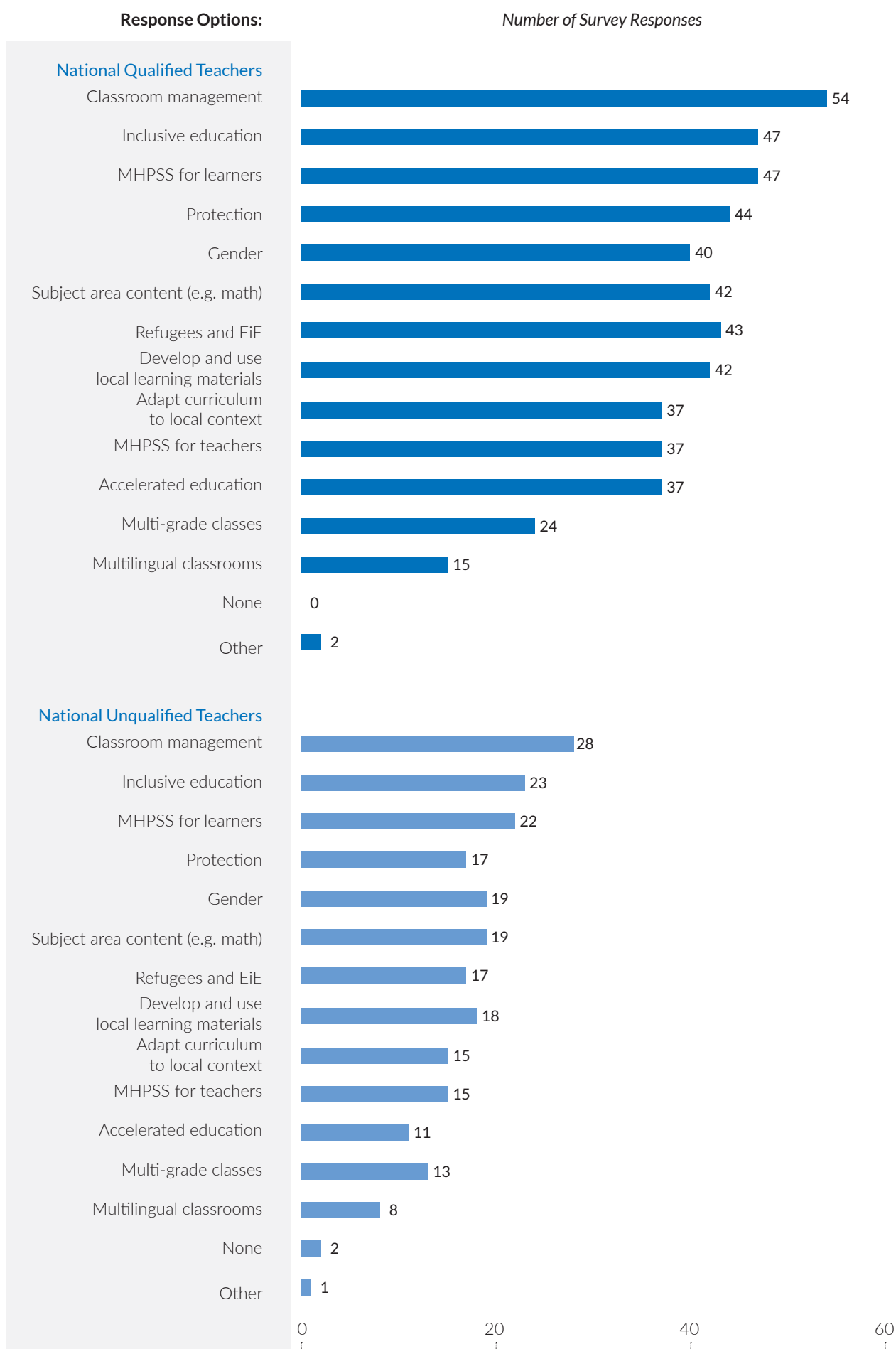
Respondents also commented that classroom/teaching assistants are rarely included in TPD activities, given the limited resources available to support all teaching staff. In Uganda, where there are higher numbers of classroom/teaching assistants, respondents called for more access to in-service TPD for classroom/teaching assistants. Again, more consistent, equitable, and inclusive access to continuous TPD is needed, including for classroom/teaching assistants.

## Teacher professional development content<sup>6</sup>

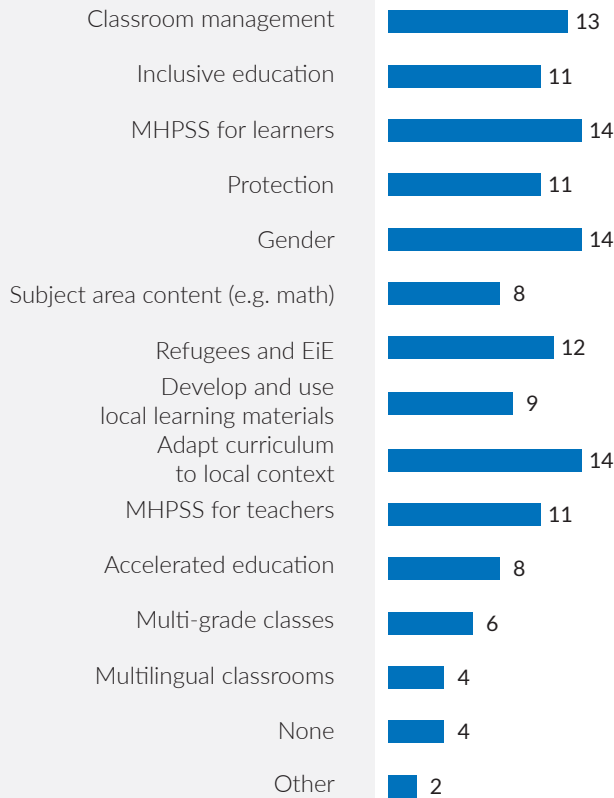
The top five most common topics TPD covers include classroom management, inclusive education, mental health and psychosocial support (MHPSS) for learners, protection, and gender. The pattern is consistent across profiles, except teaching assistants with refugee backgrounds are more likely to be trained in multilingual education (when they receive training) (Image 21).

<sup>6</sup> For a full list of suggested TPD topics provided by survey respondents for different teacher profiles per country (with the exception of Yemen), please contact the report author.

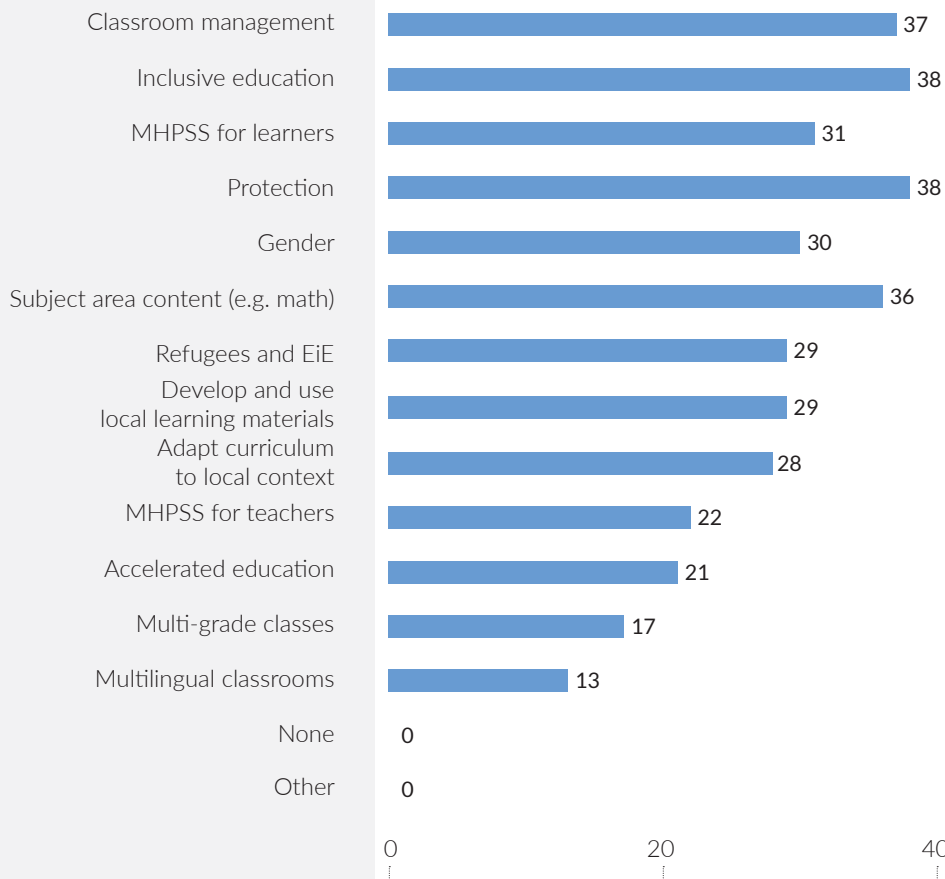


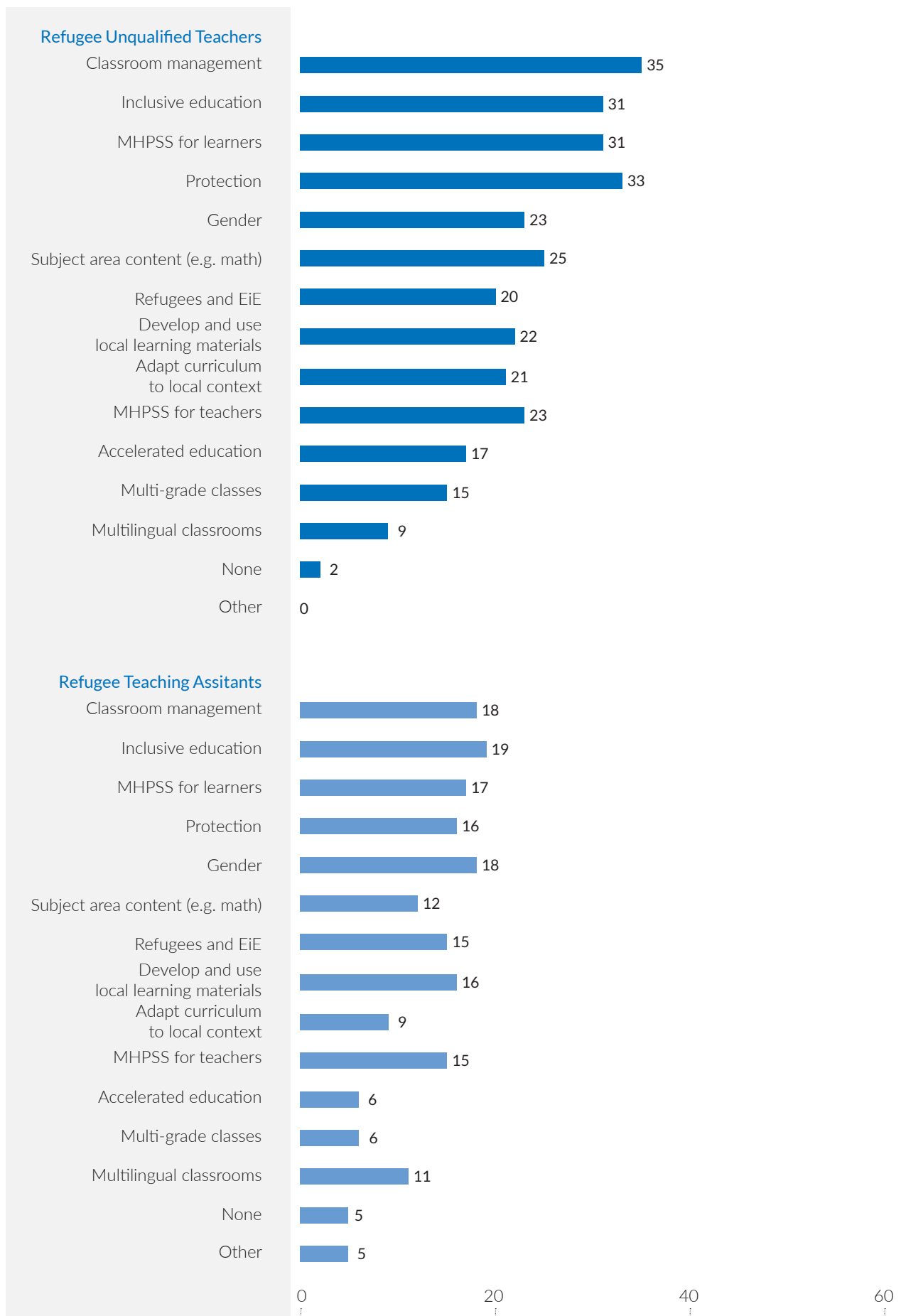


### National Teaching Assistants



### Refugee Qualified Teachers





**Image 21: Teacher professional development topics covered**

Reflecting on what is missing from the content and/or skills development currently offered by TPD, many respondents across country contexts reiterated the need for some of the items captured in the graph above: safeguarding learners, lesson planning, MHPSS for students and teachers, inclusive education, managing multi-grade classrooms/ages, measurement and evaluation, student discipline, teaching in cross-cultural contexts, and peace and unity in among diverse students groups.

Respondents in several countries reported that the content and/or skills development currently offered by TPD was missing a component of either MHPSS (for teachers and/or students), social-emotional learning, or training on recognizing signs of distress in children (Cameroon, Chad, Iraq, Kenya, Malaysia, Pakistan, Rwanda, South Sudan, and Uganda). Others reported a need for MHPSS support for teachers (Iraq, Pakistan, South Sudan, and Uganda). In contrast, others listed training on active learning/listening (Chad, Ethiopia, and Syria) and 21st-century skills (Pakistan, Kenya, and Uganda) as missing components of the current TPD content and/or skills offered.

For Chad and Iraq, respondents also mentioned science subjects and pedagogical follow-up/skills training, pointing out that more than 50 per cent of the teachers at the primary level are unqualified and need basic training (in Chad's case).

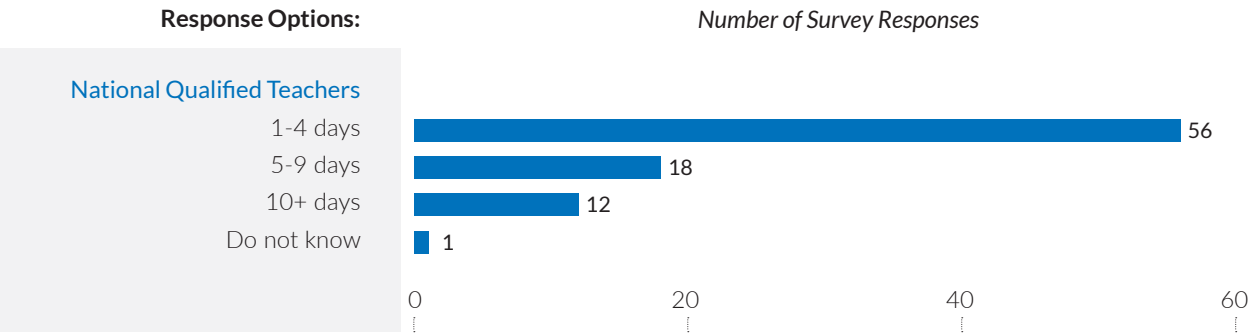
Others asked for more TPD and CPD (CPD, including resource videos) on how to utilize modern teaching aids such as projectors, laptops, tablets, and smartphones to enable the teacher to prepare lessons and keep pace with developments such as the virtual and 3D world (Syria).

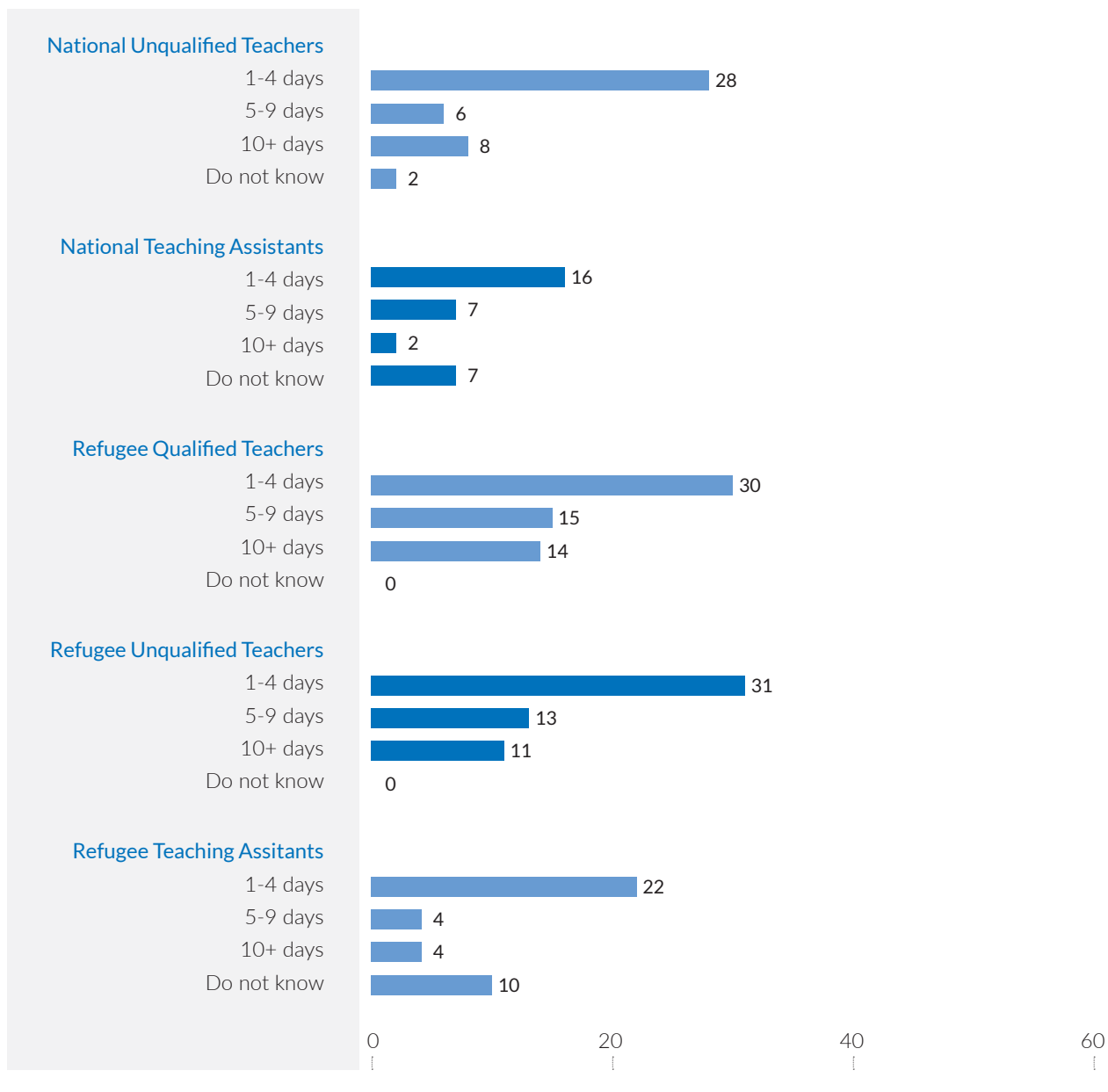
While others asked for more frequent TPD during policy changes and other education reforms (e.g., roll out of new curriculum in Pakistan and South Sudan, for example), a respondent from Pakistan shared that during the transition to the national curriculum, teachers were supported through ad-hoc teacher training. However, it is clear that many still lack specific competencies in certain subjects (e.g., math, science, Urdu, and English). This speaks to the need for a more robust TPD process during curriculum reform efforts. The respondent further notes the stress this entails for teachers and that investments in accredited teacher training recognized by host and countries of origin are warranted to support and incentivize teachers.

Ultimately, teachers must be involved in decisions about what TPD topics and skills to prioritize to ensure that these activities meet their immediate needs and buy-in and ownership of the TPD efforts.

## Duration and results of teacher professional development

TPD is usually only a few days in length and is most likely to result in a certificate of attendance, followed by a certificate of completion, while contributing to a diploma is much less common (Image 22).



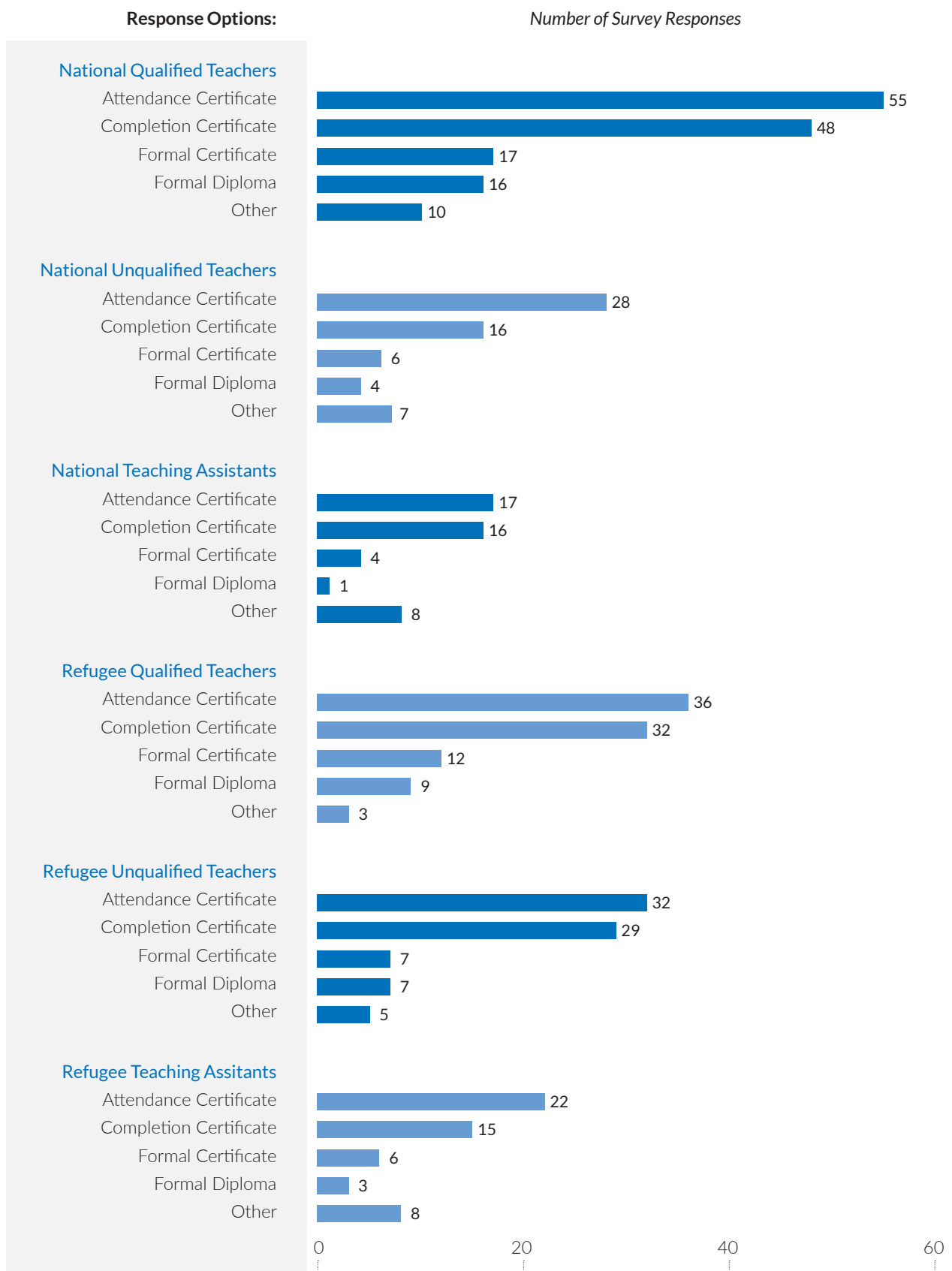


**Image 22: Length of teacher professional development**

In most cases, participation in TPD activities only resulted in a certificate of attendance or completion (Image 23). Respondents called for improved access for both national and refugee teachers to certified and accredited professional development opportunities (Chad, Kenya, Malaysia, Pakistan, South Sudan). Although respondents in Chad called for more opportunities to acquire certification, there are promising pathways for refugee teachers in Chad (See Inset: In Focus - Pathways toward Teacher Professionalization in Chad).

A respondent from South Sudan called for a crackdown on teacher training programmes/activities that do not lead to formally recognized qualifications so that teachers do not get “duped” and waste their time attending training in institutions not legally recognized by national authorities (South Sudan). While this is an important point, some of these opportunities may be the only ones teachers can access within a struggling national education system unprepared to vet or replace these TPD activities with something more substantial. In these cases, the participating teachers must understand what is and is not offered through these TPD opportunities. Respondents in Malaysia and Pakistan reiterated the need and benefits of teachers receiving “accredited” training for strengthening their teaching practices and teachers’ confidence. A respondent from Kenya called for sponsoring refugee teachers to access qualified teacher training opportunities in the host country, but this must also be accompanied by the right to work (Mendenhall & Falk, 2023). The literature reaffirms these

findings, with EiE scholars and practitioners documenting that TPD in crisis contexts is sporadic, uncoordinated, and of varied quality, which has important implications for career progression and retention in the profession (Burns & Lawrie, 2015; Mendenhall et al., 2021).



**Image 23: Results of teacher professional development**

## IN FOCUS: PATHWAYS TOWARD TEACHER PROFESSIONALIZATION IN CHAD

In Chad, UNHCR and NGO partners have prioritized TPD opportunities that support teachers in earning formal qualifications, as opposed to ad-hoc training that does not provide certification pathways. These efforts target *maîtres communautaires* (community teachers; who are often refugees)) who have varied qualification levels, to help them earn formal qualifications—a primary teacher education diploma (*certificat élémentaire de fin d'études normales* (CEFEN)) or a bachelor's degree—through two pathways:

(1) Primary teachers can access training through the *École Normale des Instituteurs Bilingues d'Abéché* (ENIBA), one of the 22 teacher training schools across the country (UNESCO, 2020), located in the town of Abéché. An MOU between UNHCR and ENIBA enables refugee teachers to obtain their CEFEN through a condensed, 60-day programme that includes classes and an internship (compared to the 75-day programme for Chadian nationals). UNHCR covers tuition, transportation, and accommodation costs for refugee teachers through a scholarship of approximately 570,000 XAF (\$1,000). ENIBA has trained 5 cycles of Sudanese refugee teachers (761 in total) who are teaching in camps across Eastern Chad. ENIBA accepts as many refugee teachers as UNHCR is able to provide funding for. Due to budget constraints, the 2023-24 cycle was limited to 31 teachers. After completion of the programme, teachers are considered qualified and receive higher compensation levels.

(2) *École Normale Supérieure d'Abéché* (ENSA), also located in Abéché, provides a pathway for middle school and secondary teachers to obtain a bachelor of arts (BA) in teaching. The three-year programme has five departments and follows a set curriculum. UNHCR and NGO partner Jesuit Refugee Services (JRS) each have an MOU with ENSA that enables refugee teachers to access this programme and covers their tuition costs through cash transfers. Since 2017, a total of 105 refugee teachers have graduated from ENSA. According to UNHCR there are currently 13 refugee participants continuing their studies at ENSA through scholarship support.

ENIBA and ENSA graduates have opportunities for continuous teacher professional development (CTPD) in theory, although contextual challenges (i.e. travel difficulties and security concerns for CTPD providers) often impede this in practice. ENIBA graduates are supported through the institute's trainers, while ENSA graduates are evaluated by a pool of *Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Promotion Civique* (MENPC) inspectors. Inspectors observe teachers to identify gaps and areas for improvement, with a focus on teaching methods, lesson planning, and lesson management. Long-term CTPD is also available through two MENPC bodies *Centres Départementaux de la Formation Continue d'École Primaire* (CDFCEP) and the *inspections pédagogiques* (UNESCO, 2020), while MENPC inspectors provide “pedagogical days” that are available to all teachers in public schools.

The steps taken to create pathways for refugee teachers to acquire formal teaching qualifications through both the ENIBA and ENSA initiatives are incredibly promising. They are even more notable given the resource constraints that the Chadian education system faces. Evidence that these approaches are proving effective can be found in improved student learning outcomes on the school-leaving Bac exams (St. Arnold et al., 2023; KI, 2022). This approach requires steady attention to ensure that it continues to be successful. Concerns about inadequate teacher compensation, insufficient CTPD, and a diminishing prospective teacher pipeline can further undermine these efforts.

## Short and long-term implications: Teacher professional development and language of instruction

The implications for teachers committed to acquiring teaching qualifications (through hard work and/or equivalency measures) must also be addressed in host countries with a different LOI. KIs mentioned the short-term need to help teachers transition to implementing the curriculum in a new language (e.g. Arabic-speaking Syrian refugees in the Kurdish-speaking regions of Iraq or Arabic-speaking Sudanese refugees in South Sudan, which now calls for English as the LOI). In these cases, study participants spoke about the need for language-bridging programmes for teachers and the role and support of mentor teachers. KIs reflected on the long-term implications around the LOI as well. Refugees in Rwanda, for example, may have been there for a considerable amount of time, having learned the national Kinyarwanda language and now English as the official LOI in the classroom, only to (potentially) return to Francophone Burundi or the Democratic Republic of Congo and face challenges. KIs did not offer specific solutions to these dilemmas, but there will be much to learn from the national government's efforts in Djibouti to offer the curriculum in three languages (French, English, and Arabic), given surrounding countries and refugee influxes.

## Needed changes and promising pathways: teacher professional development

When asked, "What would you like to see changed?" study participants offered numerous ideas about approaches, structure, and content to overcome challenges and improve TPD for the various teacher profiles in refugee and displacement settings.

These include:

- Provide contextually relevant TPD that responds to teachers' needs for supporting learners in their classrooms. It includes incorporating classroom management and pedagogy content in overcrowded and mixed-age classrooms, child protection, inclusive education, conflict-sensitive education, social-emotional learning, and MHPSS for learners and teachers.
  - » Collaborate with teachers to identify contextually relevant content for TPD.
  - » Offer TPD that aligns with recent/ongoing education and curricular reforms (e.g., the rollout of the new curriculum in Pakistan and South Sudan).
- Work with national actors to:
  - » Create pathways to recognize hands-on/experiential training acquired through NGO training and employment.
  - » Establish partnerships between national teacher training colleges (TTCs) and NGO/UN agencies through which TTCs provide intensive in-service training during school holidays/breaks and NGO/UN partners provide CPD while teachers are in their classrooms.
  - » Create opportunities for refugee teachers to access TTCs that offer courses and training in the camps/settlements (see a promising example from Melkadida camp in Ethiopia).
    - In some cases, this may require additional steps – e.g., a bridging programme – to ensure teachers can meet the minimum entry qualifications for the TTCs. There is an initiative underway in Ethiopia, with support from the World Bank, to provide a "tailor-made" programme to teachers who do not meet the entry requirements. However, there is concern about the time/investment needed to provide the programme for teachers and then oversee their transition to the TTCs within the timeline of the initial agreement.



- In other cases, this support might focus on teachers' needs to acquire literacy in unfamiliar languages of instruction/curriculum.
- Provide longer TPD (that lasts more than a week) that includes sufficient time for in-depth learning and time to practice/apply skills and knowledge.
- Support teachers' mental health and well-being (Malaysia, Syria) (see Inset: In Focus - Teacher Well-Being in Malaysia).
- Define clear career pathways for different teacher profiles (Pakistan).

### IN FOCUS - TEACHER WELL-BEING IN MALAYSIA

Teachers' well-being, which "encompasses how teachers feel and function in their jobs," is impacted by protective and risk factors at the individual, school, and community levels, as well as by national and global contexts (Falk et al., 2019, p. 7). Research findings from Malaysia reveal how contextual factors can negatively impact teachers' well-being, as well as provide opportunities for resilience.

Teachers working in alternative learning centers (ALCs), the only options for providing refugees with education in Malaysia, shared how the stressors of teaching were heightened by the experience of working in an environment hostile to refugees (FDG, 2022). This manifested differently based on teachers' own identities (ethnicity, faith, nationality, etc.). Refugee teachers were more vulnerable to harassment from authorities, arrest, or deportation, while host community (or national) teachers often faced the disapproval and disappointment of their families for their decision to teach refugee students.

Due to the complexities of teaching amidst crisis, teachers often took on roles that extended beyond their professional duties. These included acting as sources of authority for families navigating displacement, arrest, and detention, as well as providing transportation, financial support, health information, and counseling for their students.

Negative interactions with parents and students further hindered teachers' well-being and sense of safety. Parents' abrasive treatment of teachers, their involvement in school conflicts, their inability to support their own children with school work, and a perceived devaluing of education due to their own schooling experiences (or lack thereof), exacerbated these challenges. Teachers also shared concerns about their students' hygiene and unresolved trauma from displacement that further contributed to challenging classroom experiences. Language barriers and the lingering effects of COVID-19, which continue to hamper teacher compensation payments, also contributed to teachers' vulnerabilities.

Across examples, teachers shared how these challenges often manifested as depression, procrastination, insomnia, and self-harm (FDG, 2022).

Despite these challenges, many teachers expressed how their students inspired and motivated them to remain in the profession, while KIs noted teachers' passion and commitment to their roles. Advocating for improved teacher support among government and humanitarian actors is a necessary step in supporting teachers' well-being. Furthermore, care should be taken to ensure teachers' voices and experiences are included within policy and decision-making processes that directly affect them.

# Notable Distinctions across Teacher Profiles

In addition to the findings and recommendations described in this report, study participants also pointed to cross-cutting factors that may also affect teachers, pending their status as primary or secondary teachers, male or female teachers, teachers working in rural or urban areas, and the opportunities (or lack thereof) to engage in collective bargaining and/or to seek support from teachers' unions. This section points to some of these notable distinctions.

## Primary versus secondary teachers

Survey respondents pointed to increased attention, funding, and training support for primary teachers in an effort to unpack important distinctions between primary and secondary school teachers (Cameroon, Malawi, Malaysia). They pointed out the differences in teaching preparation in that secondary teachers are typically better trained and have diplomas (at minimum) and often university degrees (Kenya, Iraq, Uganda) compared to primary teachers who may only have a certificate (if they have accessed tertiary education opportunities). Of course, this varies across contexts.

In Pakistan, primary education teachers must have a minimum qualification of a bachelor's degree, but secondary teachers must also have expertise in a particular subject. In other contexts, most primary teachers are refugee or national teachers without formal qualifications, while secondary teachers are national and formally trained teachers (Kenya, South Sudan, Sudan).

A respondent from South Sudan also pointed out the language differences whereby most primary school teachers rely on the "Arabic pattern" compared to secondary school teachers teaching in English. A respondent from Malaysia pointed out that no refugee teacher in the 10-year history of their organization had been able to teach beyond a grade 5 level given the "rigour and increased specialization requirements" and that they must rely on volunteer teachers (in this case, typically retired teachers) to cover the upper grades. Respondents in Syria noted difficulty finding qualified teachers to teach high school students in rural areas.

Survey respondents find secondary teachers more motivated and inclined to pursue further education despite limited options in some settings (South Sudan); they are also better paid than primary school teachers and are often granted higher status in the community. There are differences of opinion about which teachers have a "harder job". Some cite that secondary teachers face more challenges given the subject matter they need to teach, while primary teachers have many more students/learners to manage overall.

## Female versus male teachers<sup>7</sup>

Overall, there is a shortage of female teachers across most contexts. Most primary teachers are men in Cameroon, Chad, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, South Sudan, Uganda, and even more at the secondary level. Conversely, respondents from three countries (Malaysia, Sudan, and Syria) reported more female teachers than males in these settings.

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<sup>7</sup> For a more detailed country overview of the distinctions between female and male teachers provided by survey respondents for different teacher profiles (with the exception of Yemen), please contact the report author.

Female teachers are more plentiful at the primary level (and in early childhood education spaces), yet few female teachers cover science and mathematics, including at the primary level (Sudan). Respondents in Pakistan shared concerns that female teachers supporting the accelerated learning programme (ALP) for adolescent girls have limited preparation and qualifications. They called for more training and coaching at primary and secondary ALP levels.

These shortages of female teachers are attributed to low education rates among girls and women, early marriages and teen pregnancies, household chores, and a lack of female teachers who serve as role models for others to enter the profession (Chad, Kenya, Malaysia, South Sudan, Sudan, Uganda). Others cited difficulties for female teachers to work in rural areas without the necessary accommodations and facilities (Syria).

Suggestions that emerged called for placing teachers near their places of residence (Syria), supporting female teachers who have families with childcare support (Malaysia), confronting existing biases—e.g. the perception that female teachers are “weak” teachers (Pakistan), offering more flexible and online TPD support (Pakistan), and of course bolstering salaries to attract more women to the profession.

INEE’s (2023) recently published report – *Mind the Gap 3: Equity and Inclusion In and Through Girls’ Education in Crisis*—reminds us why increasing the number of female teachers is important. Their presence contributes to “better outcomes for learners [in terms of enrollment, retention, and learning] and safer schools for girls” (p. 28).

## Rural versus urban school settings

In rural settings, teachers face challenges finding housing accommodations (Cameroon, Uganda), securing reliable transportation (Iraq), navigating greater distances (Kenya), managing with few teaching and learning materials (Kenya, Malaysia), receiving lower salaries (Malaysia, Syria); and receiving less training, support, and supervision from education authorities due to remote and/or insecure locations (South Sudan). Teachers are also isolated both from information/news and their families. They may not have access to the internet or FM radios. They may lack antennas for mobile communications with loved ones (South Sudan).

In camp settings, the perception and/or reality is that teachers working in refugee camp-based schools are better off than those in non-camp schools (Chad) but that teachers are typically managed entirely by NGOs (Malawi) compared to government, private sector and/or school boards of management in more urban areas. Refugees and national teachers deployed to camps also lack adequate accommodations (Malawi). They might also experience more stress due to overcrowded classrooms and the psychological health of their students (South Sudan).

In urban settings, teachers are more readily available, paid better, live better, access more training opportunities, and have more resources. However, it depends on their profile and the setting in question. Refugee teachers in Malaysia are subject to safety and security issues, including arbitrary arrests and detention.

Suggestions that emerged to overcome the divide between rural and urban settings included providing additional incentives to those working in rural and refugee settings (Rwanda) and accounting for the financial cost of transportation (Syria). While many governments offer hardship allowances to the teachers they deploy to remote areas, a streamlined process is needed to provide them across different employers and teacher profiles. Adjustments must also be made to acknowledge wider economic realities (e.g., the COVID-19 health pandemic ongoing war in Ukraine) and their global impact on fuel and food processes (Falk et al., 2022).

## Role of teachers' unions and collective bargaining

Survey respondents shared how teachers' unions defended teachers' rights, ensured payments, and looked after teacher welfare (Cameroon, Chad, Kenya, Malawi, Pakistan, Uganda, Syria). They pointed out that although refugee teachers are typically not members of teachers' unions, they still benefit from the guidelines that unions secure at the national level (Kenya). Conversely, multiple respondents in Sudan stated that unions advocate exclusively for national teachers' rights and not the diverse teacher profiles present in the country. Respondents from South Sudan and Uganda discussed the need to advocate for the inclusion of refugee teachers into the national system, salary parity across teacher profiles, and increased opportunities for TPD as key agenda points for the teachers' unions to consider.

Some respondents from the same country context provided conflicting information about the presence (or not) of unions. Others discussed that teachers can still come together without unions and/or representation in those unions to raise issues (Malaysia, South Sudan), while others felt this would be risky to do as they would be stirring up trouble. The absence of refugee teachers and other teachers in crisis contexts in these coalition-building and collective bargaining spaces and the lack of clarity about how they could be better engaged is concerning and needs to be addressed (Sayed et al., 2021). Additional recommendations suggested that IIEP UNESCO could add how to engage and collaborate with teachers' unions to their training programmes and that Education International (EI) could play a stronger brokering role between inter/national organizations and teachers' unions as well as advocate for refugee teachers in their outreach efforts with national partners (KI, May 2023).

## Key Findings and Recommendations

There are myriad teacher profiles taking shape in refugee and displacement settings. While individual and contextual factors shape each teacher's role, they can be categorized into a practical typology based on their recognition in the countries where they work (e.g., nationality, citizenship, and/or refugee status) and their qualifications. The same applies to the different profiles for classroom/teaching assistants. Regardless of the various profiles, key study findings (in the aggregate) point to clear challenges that continue to dominate the education sector. These include:

1. **Inadequate teacher compensation:** The issue of teacher pay is one of the most significant and pernicious challenges hindering progress in the education sector. Regardless of who is paying, how much teachers receive, and when and how they accept payment across various teacher profiles, there is a quagmire of concerns that remain unresolved and affect teacher recruitment, retention, motivation, well-being, and the overall quality and professionalization of the teaching profession.

Rising costs of living, unpredictable and unreliable funding to pay teachers (amidst competing economic and/or humanitarian crises), and better pay for civil servants and/or incentive workers outside of the education sector contribute to a continued weakening of the teaching profession. Amidst national budgetary shortfalls, there is no clear consensus about how to shore up additional resources to cover teachers' salaries. Donors continue to express reticence for covering recurrent expenditures for all teacher profiles, including refugee teachers, despite efforts to foster responsibility- and burden-sharing in refugee-hosting contexts.

2. **Minimal support beyond compensation:** There is a lack of support to offset inadequate teacher compensation that would help teachers carry out their work—e.g. school-based feeding programmes, limited and/or poor quality accommodations (which are almost non-existent for female teachers), and insufficient transportation to and from school. There are minimal to no safety nets for teachers who have dedicated years and often decades to the teaching profession (e.g. long-term retirement/pension benefits).
3. **Insufficient teacher professional development:** Despite clear recognition and evidence that teachers must be supported through CPD (e.g. ongoing training, coaching, mentoring, communities of practice), education actors continue to struggle to provide adequate support for all teacher profiles, inevitably undermining all efforts to strengthen teacher quality and introduce innovations for teaching and learning practices.

Even when displaced teachers have access to formal teacher training institutions, there are barriers to entry (e.g. lack of documentation required for online registration platforms, challenges replacing hard copies of formal teaching qualifications in cases of teachers trying to upgrade their qualifications, no scholarships). When displaced teachers participate in TPD, it rarely culminates in recognized credentials, allowing them to be registered with national entities (e.g. Teachers Service Commission) and seek more gainful employment.

4. **Unrecognized refugee teachers' credentials and qualifications:** Refugee teachers' previously acquired credentials and/or accumulated experiences and skills on the job continue to be devalued or ignored. When equivalency mechanisms are in place, they are challenging to access and navigate without guidance and, in some cases, additional financial resources.
5. **Incomplete teacher data:** Comprehensive data about who teachers are and what experiences and skills they bring to the profession remain uncollected or non-standardized across agencies working in the education sector.

Building on the specific recommendations put forward by study participants detailed in this report in response to these challenges, there are necessary and promising pathways to ameliorate the situation.

Key recommendations call for efforts to:

- **Explore plausible strategies and solutions for covering teacher compensation:** Donor and national government representatives need to come together through national and/or global policy gatherings to identify existing and new channels for securing adequate, harmonized, and sustainable funding for teachers. UNHCR and other education actors can facilitate policy roundtables or financing conferences supporting teacher compensation. Experimental models and phased approaches can be identified and tested. If the education sector continues to ignore this problem, no other humanitarian or development-oriented educational goals will be realized or sustained.
- **Audit and share existing teacher policies and contracts:** Existing teacher management policies can be strengthened by sharing promising practices across actors and contexts. It will take time to roll out new measures to bolster teacher compensation, but in the meantime, other policies can be strengthened to acknowledge better and respect the work and commitment of teachers now (e.g. teachers' need for time off for bereavement without loss of pay, within reason, and teachers' inclusion, across all profiles, in TPD activities). More symbolic gestures, like including all teacher profiles in the provision of smaller ticket items (e.g. t-shirt distribution), can be easily rectified with more attention and care. This process can also be applied to exploring new ideas for acknowledging teachers' needs and interests in career progression—i.e. comparing and contrasting different roles that teachers might assume to align with their ever-expanding roles and responsibilities in their schools and communities.

- **Expedite and expand equivalency mechanisms for teachers' qualifications:** Activate existing or new national mechanisms for refugee teachers to access and transfer their credentials to their new teaching environment, including efforts to translate and recognize credentials from settings with different languages of instruction in their countries of origin.
- **Collaborate with national teachers' unions to expand support to different teacher profiles:** Closer working relationships with teachers' unions can smooth the way to ensure operational equivalency mechanisms and identify new pathways into the teaching profession that benefit national and refugee teachers. EI can support brokering these relationships and negotiations with their national affiliates. IIEP UNESCO can include training opportunities for humanitarian, development, and other education actors who would benefit from gaining understanding and skills for engaging teachers' unions.
- **Commit to offering continuous TPD:** More education actors have been developing and testing programmes that move beyond one-off and cascade training exercises. Donors and other actors can establish expectations for TPD that require multiple touchpoints with teachers and include different sets of activities over an extended period, including ways to leverage the existing expertise among different profiles of teachers. In terms of content, teachers in cross-border displacement settings may need help learning a new LOI and/or a new national curriculum, not to mention additional support for dealing with the implications wrought by the conflict and displacement of their learners.
- **Establish robust teacher data:** A clearer understanding of the financial and technical needs, including costed financial plans, can feed into the policy-making and fundraising process for strengthening teacher compensation and professional development plans. Education actors responsible for hiring and training teachers can pursue progressive and/or robust updates to existing monitoring, evaluation, and indicator development.
- **Ensure teacher participation in all facets of efforts to improve teacher policies and practices:** In line with global advocacy efforts to ensure teachers' participation in the development of the policies and practices that they are expected to carry out, teachers must be given more opportunities to be primary actors in programme and policy design and development.

The challenges and related recommendations illustrated here speak to larger structural and systemic barriers that must be addressed through comprehensive policy and practice reforms (Mendenhall & Falk, 2023; Shah, 2023) coordinated by local, national, and international actors. There are no easy fixes or workaround solutions for improving support for the range of teacher profiles working in these contexts, but promising policy and practice shifts can be pursued to raise these issues and improve support for teachers working in refugee and displacement settings.

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# Appendix

## Monthly teachers' salaries by country and profile

\*Teacher compensation for refugee teachers (qualified or unqualified) in Kenya is categorized as an "incentive" rather than a salary. See real and plausible explanations for this terminology under this report's Compensation Policies and Donor Practices section.

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)	Primary (US\$)*	Secondary (US\$)*
National Qualified	241-300 <i>Compared to government rates of 116-266</i>	241 <i>Compared to government rate of 116</i>	300
National Unqualified	25-66		
Refugee Qualified	42		
Refugee Unqualified	17-50		
National CA/TA	25		
Refugee CA/TA	25		

Table 7: Cameroon

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)
National Qualified	67-465 <i>Compared to government rates of 100-581</i>
National Unqualified	8-116
Refugee Qualified	60-125
Refugee Unqualified	8-100
National CA/TA	100
Refugee CA/TA	46-100

Table 8: Chad

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)	Primary (US\$)*	Secondary (US\$)*
National Qualified		<i>Government rate of 508</i>	734 (Upper Secondary) <i>Compared to government rates of 678 (Lower Secondary) - 819 (Upper Secondary)</i>
Refugee Unqualified	281-339	281	339

Table 9: Djibouti

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)	Primary (US\$)*	Secondary (US\$)*
National Qualified	54-275 <i>Compared to government rates of 69-280</i>	54-275	265
Refugee Unqualified	16-18		

**Table 10: Ethiopia**

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)
National Qualified	267-1145 <i>Compared to government rates of 382-1145. NGO/INGO reported figures pegged to government rates but not UNHCR</i>
National Unqualified	267-344
Refugee Qualified	267-382
Refugee Unqualified	153-229
Refugee CA/TA	191-267

**Table 11: Iraq**

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)	Primary (US\$)*	Secondary (US\$)*
National Qualified	153-763 <i>Compared to government rates of 245-610</i>	277 <i>Compared to government rates of 245-400</i>	402 <i>Compared to government rates of 300-610</i>
Refugee Qualified	55-92		
Refugee Unqualified	51-92		
National CA/TA	173		
Refugee CA/TA	60		

**Table 12: Kenya\***

\*Although reported separately, unqualified national and refugee teachers are the same as the national and refugee CA/TA positions.

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)	Primary (US\$)*	Secondary (US\$)*
National Qualified	231-394 <i>Compared to government rates of 250-394</i>	232 <i>Compared to government rate of 250</i>	335 <i>Compared to government rate of 352</i>
Refugee Qualified	83-92		
Refugee Unqualified	83-111		

**Table 13: Malawi**

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)
National Qualified	258-645 <i>Compared to government rates of 331-1214</i>
National Unqualified	172-538
Refugee Qualified	168-387
Refugee Unqualified	104-462
National CA/TA	108-280
Refugee CA/TA	108-280

**Table 14: Malaysia**

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)
National Qualified	362-890
National CA/TA	453

**Table 15: Mexico**

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)	Primary (US\$)	Subject specialist (US\$)
National Qualified	92 (entry-level) – 115 <i>Compared to government rates of 89 (entry-level) - 214 (teachers with 20+ years of experience)</i>	<i>Government rate of 94</i>	<i>Government rate of 118</i>
National Unqualified	98-118		
Refugee Qualified	88-114		
Refugee Unqualified	88-118		
Refugee CA/TA	67-100		

**Table 16: Pakistan**

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)	Primary (US\$)	Secondary (US\$)
National Qualified	80-295 <i>Compared to government rates of 80-270</i>	91 <i>Comparable to government rate</i>	177-216 <i>Compared to government rate of 216</i>
National Unqualified	90		
Refugee Qualified	20-213	90	213
Refugee Unqualified	22-30		
Refugee CA/TA	23-91		

**Table 17: Rwanda**

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)	Primary (US\$)	Secondary (US\$)	AE (US\$)
National Qualified	40-975 <i>Compared to government rates of 22-840</i>	275 <i>Compared to government rate of 100</i>	300-975 compared to government rates of 150-840 975 amount indicated "inclusive of all allowances."	154 <i>Compared to government rate of 50</i>
National Unqualified	40-400			
Refugee Qualified	120-300	274	300	154
Refugee Unqualified	110-175			
National CA/TA	40			
Refugee CA/TA	100-150			

**Table 18: South Sudan**

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)
National Qualified	50-300 <i>Compared to government rates of 50-416</i>
National Unqualified	25-67
Refugee Qualified	5-50
Refugee Unqualified	3-33
National CA/TA	5

**Table 19: Sudan**

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)* <i>*exchange rates wildly fluctuated during this study</i>
National Qualified	40-318 <i>Compared to government rates of 40-398</i>
National Unqualified	40
Refugee Qualified	52-73
National CA/TA	2-72
Refugee CA/TA	72

**Table 20: Syria**

Teacher profile	Monthly salary range (US\$)	Primary (US\$)	Secondary (US\$)
National Qualified	131-330 <i>Compared to government rates of 131-344</i>	131-157 <i>Most organizations are on par with government rates, while some are under</i>	257-330 <i>(including science teachers paid by UN/NGO actors)</i> <i>*Science teachers on government pay scale: 1073</i>
National Unqualified*	52-87		
Refugee Qualified	131-288	131-150	257-288 <i>*Science teachers: 1073</i>
Refugee Unqualified*	67-87		
National CA/TA	67-87		
Refugee CA/TA	67-90		

**Table 21: Uganda**

