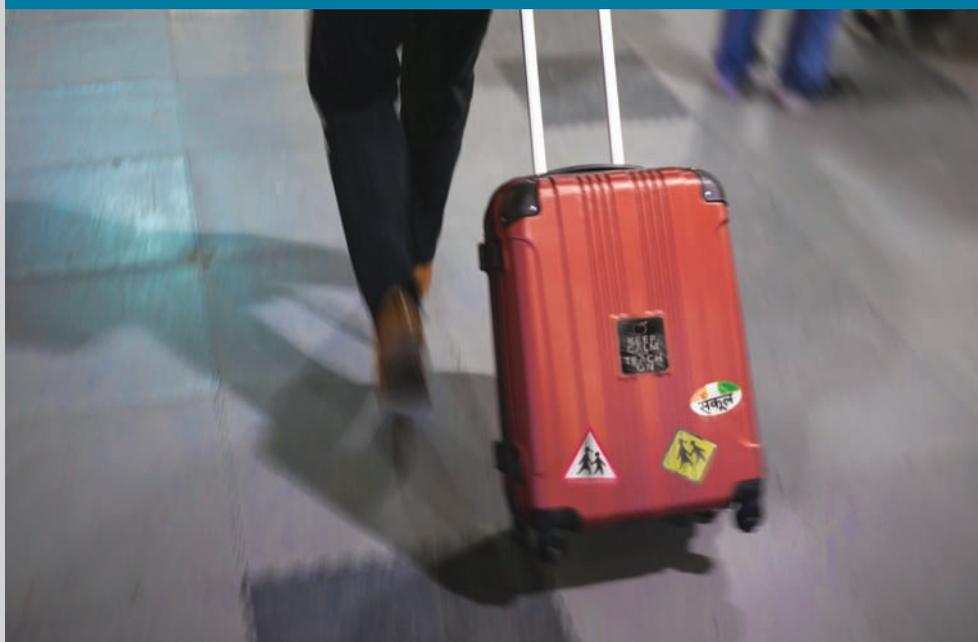




Education International

Getting Teacher Migration & Mobility Right



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FOREWORD

Teacher migration is a growing trend with many different forms and motivations that range from exemplary professional development to gross exploitation. Investigation of migration models, trends and issues is necessary in charting a constructive migration and mobility agenda in the future. Therefore, in 2013 Education International commissioned the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) to conduct research into different models of teacher migration and to collect a unique data set to explain them.

Despite an important, emerging body of research, much remains unknown about teacher migration trends, particularly on the quantitative side. Most countries have weak official data tracking international teachers entering their workforces, and few countries have any data at all tracking teachers leaving the country. Given the lack of aggregate data, it is even more challenging for researchers to describe migration flows in a more textured way, whether by source country, gender, level of experience, or content area expertise. This poses significant challenges for a global institution like EI to define the scale of the phenomenon of teacher migration. This research provides access to improved data sources, also generating our own data through direct contact with migrant teachers.

With this study EI aims to identify best practices for international teacher migration, as well as to highlight issues of concern and expose abuses. This research report contributes new data and analysis that will deepen our understanding of the teacher migration phenomenon. It reaffirms our commitment to ensuring that migration is an option rather than a necessity, that it happens ethically and supports the development of teacher professionalism and quality public education systems in all affected countries.

While there may be interest in the findings from the broader research and policy community, the study authors hope that the report will be especially useful to EI affiliates. As such, it is designed as a practical guide for defending teachers' rights and public education in a migratory labor context. The report also serves as resource for EI's migrant teachers' portal www.MigrantTeachersRights.org, which will become an important new source of engagement with teachers, providing individual teachers with critical information on migration options, and offering EI affiliates expanded opportunities to hear from teachers about their experiences and amplify their voices.

This research was informed by EI's resolution on teacher migration, as well as by the policy paper on Building the Future through Quality Education. This comprehensive policy outlines the guiding principles of EI's work, many of which have direct and indirect relevance to teacher migration issues, particularly in such areas as teacher preparation, privatization, international union solidarity, and access to quality education for all.

Fred van Leeuwen
General Secretary
Education International

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

As a global union dedicated to teacher voice and dignity, as well as to universal quality education for all, Education International (EI) has long recognised the profound importance of international teacher migration and mobility. This report, commissioned by EI, seeks to elevate the voices of teachers in order to better understand their motivations for migrating, the benefits they take away from their experience, and the challenges they face. The study briefly reviews existing literature on teacher migration and publicly available data sources, as well as information collected through research visits to a range of source and destination countries. Importantly, the global survey conducted for this report garnered usable responses from 1,358 teachers from 53 home countries who worked abroad in 127 host countries. This represents the largest and most extensive known survey of migrant teachers and offers useful insights to inform engagement by various stakeholders.

Teacher migration and mobility is not an isolated issue, but one that is integrally linked to the pursuit of professional dignity, education quality and socially just development. While this study reinforces long-held global union policies that reject temporary or circular migration schemes, it also asserts a need to diversify the vocabulary for describing the cross-border movement of professionals. To that end, **three key findings** frame the report:

- Authentic professional and cultural exchange programmes promote education quality by purposefully internationalising the curriculum and enhancing teacher skills and status. Investment in the types of well-designed programmes profiled in this report yields important benefits for students and teachers alike and should be expanded.
- When international recruitment is undertaken to address teacher shortages, it can mask their underlying causes and leave teachers and students in both source and destination countries vulnerable. International hiring efforts must be carefully structured to avoid reinforcing unequal distribution of teachers, ensure proper professional supports and protections, and lead towards permanent staffing solutions.
- Migrant teachers proactively make choices and take risks in order to support their families, improve their lives, or advance their careers. Protecting their rights, reducing the risks associated with migration, and promoting their agency will enhance educational outcomes, improve crisis response, strengthen unions, and bolster teacher professionalism.

The terms and conditions of teacher migration and mobility matter immensely, and it is important to clearly distinguish the models that are beneficial to teachers and students from those that are exploitative. For that reason, this report will outline three different

hiring models for international teachers and assess their impact on rights, professionalism, and educational quality. EI asserts that any form of international teacher hiring should:

- Empower teachers and protect their rights.
- Promote education quality and preparation for citizenship in a globalised world.
- Elevate the status of the teaching profession and the qualifications of educators.

The report provides real world examples of each of the three hiring models from a range of source and destination countries, and also analyses efforts to respond to the forced migration of teachers. International movement of teachers is a highly complex phenomenon, involving many stakeholders with their own varied motivations and objectives. However, because the purpose of this report is to steer the practice of teacher migration away from vulnerability and stop-gap approaches, and towards professional actualisation and a rich, well-rounded curriculum, the models are defined based upon the intent of those doing the hiring. Findings related to each of the models follow:

1. Professional exchanges that offer rigorous, meaningful professional development opportunities have the greatest potential to raise the status of the teaching profession.

- Public investment in high quality teacher exchange programmes is rare and decreasing. Longstanding programmes in the United States and United Kingdom have been defunded, and other countries such as Spain fear future cuts due to austerity. A union-operated teacher swap programme between New South Wales, Australia and other countries is a valuable example of proactive union engagement to offer professional exchange opportunities to members, but such efforts are not a substitute for government investment in international teacher exchange.
- **Best Practices:** Rigorous selection criteria and reciprocal structures promote shared benefits in source and destination countries.

2. Language or curricular programs that seek or dispatch teachers who can deliver specialised course work, most often through targeted language instruction, can expand the world view of students and teachers alike..

- Effective language instruction requires specific pedagogical training; however, numerous programmes require no teaching experience whatsoever. Also troubling are policies that discriminate based on national origin, paying teachers from certain countries less or more than teachers from other countries regardless of their language or teaching skills. Malaysia provides an important example involving the teachers' union in shaping the terms for a new national language initiative.
- **Best Practices:** Pedagogical training and full certification of foreign language instructors should be required.

3. Shortage hiring, generally temporary or circular in nature, is based on a purported inability to fill positions domestically. Countries or employers hire teachers from abroad who are willing to accept the wages and working conditions offered in hard-to-staff schools and content areas, often capitalising on global wage differentials and providing little professional support..

- Regardless of their personal motivations or aspirations, a mere 17 per cent of global survey respondents had permanent visa status while working abroad and 81 per cent had fixed term contracts, making their positions precarious by definition. Moreover, survey results demonstrate that teachers from key labour exporting countries were more likely to migrate due to financial need. Overall, just 38 per cent of global respondents reported that the most important motivations for them to seek work abroad were better pay and a need to support their families. However, 79 per cent of Filipino teachers and 73 per cent of Indian teachers ranked those motivations as the most important.
- **Best Practices:** Both source and destination countries need improved domestic workforce planning and investment, and migrant teachers should have pathways to permanent status.

In assessing these hiring models, it is important to recognise that they serve very different purposes. While those purposes may at times get blurred, distinguishing them is helpful for the formulation of coherent and effective policy. Two of these models, professional exchange and language programmes, could generally be said to serve aspirational purposes for the teaching profession, the student curriculum, or national development, and therefore tend to promote *professional mobility*. The shortage hiring model, on the other hand, generally has financial or needs-based motivations, both for employers and migrants, and therefore can more aptly be described as *labour migration*. While seeking to encourage policies that steer the growing internationalisation of the teaching profession in an empowering and quality-driven direction, this report acknowledges that one hiring model cannot simply be substituted for another, as they serve different purposes and respond to different external conditions. Therefore, the description of models highlights best practices within each, and recommends a harmonised policy framework that encompasses the larger context of education and labour policy in order to promote and strengthen workers' rights and education quality.

In addition to these intentional hiring models, it must be acknowledged that education systems around the world increasingly struggle to **respond to forced migration** flows. Forced migration occurs when teachers are pushed out of their home countries due to conflict, natural disaster, or economic collapse. Destination countries then struggle to respond to an influx of students and teachers. Displaced teachers in these difficult circumstances often face obstacles to staying in the profession. Even when forced to



migrate due to violence and instability, teachers maintain a strong sense of professional identity, but encounter significant structural and practical hurdles. Nonetheless, teacher refugees from Burma and Syria have demonstrated tremendous initiative to organise themselves into teachers' unions or councils in order to continue utilising their skills and contribute to response and recovery efforts. Therefore, this report underscores the need for thoughtful crisis contingency planning and suggests that active engagement of forced migrant teachers in disaster response and recovery efforts will improve outcomes.

Despite the wide variation in hiring models and circumstances, a few cross-cutting best practices emerge that are essential to successful teacher migration experiences:

- **Professional orientation and support** is critical to the successful integration of any new teacher into a school, and migrant teachers are no exception. More than 50% of survey respondents indicated that they valued the collegial support they received while working abroad. These forms of support ranged from formal mentor and peer evaluation programs to general professional collaboration and opportunities to interact with and observe colleagues. Teachers also cite formal professional development training and instruction as critical to their success. Of the training topics they identify as being beneficial, classroom or behavior management is cited most often, with strategies for instruction, assessment or lesson planning also rating highly.
- **Credential recognition** policies and practices must be consistent, coherent, and transparent. Credentialing challenges can present a significant hurdle to teacher mobility, or reduce their earning potential in the destination country. To address this concern, many regions, from the Caribbean to the European Union and the African Union are experimenting with mutual recognition agreements.
- **Equal treatment** regardless of gender, race, nationality, or language is essential to any rights-based migration advocacy. Unfortunately, this report documents persistent discrimination on many levels. Thirty four per cent of migrant teacher survey respondents cite discrimination as a moderate to major challenge, and 43 per cent report earning more or less than local teachers. An investigation of existing government programmes indicates that many migrant teachers are paid less than the local workforce, while others experience favourable pay differentials, depending on their country of origin. Like most migrant workers, teacher migrants also generally lack due process rights, and many work visa programmes limit their access to legal or union representation.

Migrant teachers are moving from and to every region of the world for a host of different reasons. Their experiences yield essential insights into the current forms of teacher migration and mobility.

- Teachers responding to this survey overwhelmingly believe that they benefit professionally from opportunities to teach abroad. Almost all (99 per cent) report that working abroad had a positive effect on their instructional practice. More than 65 per cent say that teaching overseas enhanced their ability to work with students with diverse needs, gave them new instructional tools, and improved their language competency.
- Teachers also report challenges, most frequently citing separation from family and classroom management. A small but intensely affected group encountered serious exploitation and some were even victims of trafficking.
- Global migration patterns are increasingly feminised, and teacher migration is no exception. Sixty one per cent of global survey respondents are women, with the majority migrating to pursue their own professional goals. Such trends have important implications for the status of women both as professionals and as caregivers.

Employers have the greatest degree of influence over a migrant teacher's working conditions and are largely responsible for providing the necessary supports to ensure teachers can succeed in their new work environment.

- Employers are central to the quality of a teacher's experience abroad. A combined 82 per cent of teachers report that they were directly employed by the public or private school where they worked. Teachers also report that employers are a primary source of support in their posts abroad: 38 per cent of employers assisted with settlement, 61 per cent conducted an orientation, 71 per cent offered professional development, and 91 per cent of employers evaluated job performance.
- Employers from both sending and receiving countries value the perspectives migrant teachers bring to the classroom. School administrators in Spain and Australia noted the professional growth they observed in teachers who had taught abroad and the benefit that brought to their schools. These school-level leaders are important allies to help returned migrant teachers share their experiences with colleagues.

Recruitment agencies profit most directly from the international movement of teachers, and still operate largely free from regulation.

- Recruitment agencies play an increasingly significant role in placing teachers in jobs overseas, yet their practices are almost entirely unregulated. The presence of intermediaries increases the risk of exploitation and introduces the potentially



corrosive motivation of profit into international hiring practices. More than 64 per cent of survey respondents report using an agency to secure a position abroad, and 10 per cent of them were employed directly by their recruiter rather than by the school in which they worked. One in five teachers indicate they were unsure or definitely would not recommend the agency they used, and those reporting negative recruitment experiences were much more likely to come from low or lower middle income countries. Nearly a quarter of respondents paid fees for their jobs and a similar percentage report taking out loans to cover their recruitment fees. Twenty per cent of respondents report fees in excess of US\$5,000, with a majority of those falling between US\$10,000 and US\$20,000, or levels that can lead to debt bondage. Nearly all teachers reporting fees of this level were recruited from the Philippines.

Unions have demonstrated that they can play an important role in steering teacher migration programs and practices, but the majority of migrant teachers lack union representation abroad.

- Migrant teachers who were members of a union abroad cited significant benefits including bargaining and advocacy, legal defence, and professional supports. However, just 31 per cent of migrant teachers who responded to the survey were members of a union abroad. Nearly a quarter of respondents said they were never asked to join the union while working overseas.
- Much of the existing research and advocacy around just migration has been undertaken by teacher unions in source and destination countries. Such efforts are most effective when they involve cross-border collaboration.

Recommendations for Getting Teacher Migration and Mobility Right

Stakeholders should work to harmonise the policy framework governing migrant rights, worker rights, and education quality within and across countries, including measures that:

- Improve data collection and make it publicly available
- Protect migrant teachers' rights and support their professional needs.
- Increase opportunities for well-structured professional exchanges and language programmes.
- Reduce reliance on international recruitment to fill shortages or spur development.
- Involve educators and unions, especially in times of crisis.
- Limit and regulate the role of recruitment agencies and eliminate fees for teachers.
- Empower migrants through unions.

CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW

Outline of the Report

This report begins with a brief summary of relevant literature as it pertains specifically to teacher migration and the availability of data on overall migration trends, as well as the few sources of data on teacher migration flows. Key studies have been selected to illustrate the data and methods other researchers studying the topics have employed. Selected tables from major studies are reproduced, as well as original tabulations extracted from the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and other databases that examine gender, level of education, and relationships between sending and receiving countries.

Chapter 3 highlights the findings of the global teacher migration survey conducted for this report. The chapter describes the survey methodology and reports respondents' demographic information, motivations for migrating, challenges faced, and personal and professional benefits. The chapter also addresses issues that migrant teachers report related to gender, status and identity. A full statistical breakdown is included in the Appendix.

Chapter 4 is organised according to the three international teacher hiring models. Each model is described in detail, including further relevant survey results. The description of each model includes real world examples of how it plays out in a range of source and destination countries. The analysis draws out best practices in each of the models with recommendations for adoption by the relevant stakeholders, with a special focus on teacher voices and union engagement. Chapter 5 follows a similar structure in assessing the challenges education systems face in responding to the forced migration of teachers.

Chapters 6 and 7 focus more specifically on the role of other stakeholders, particularly recruitment agencies and teacher unions, in teacher migration. Chapter 6 analyses issues related to the recruitment process, including discrimination, and presents options for regulation of the industry. Chapter 7 presents strategies that unions have employed in both sending and receiving countries to advocate on behalf of migrant teachers. The Union Engagement chapter also introduces areas of concern for unions, particularly the intersections that exist between privatisation schemes.

The report concludes with a summary of the analysis and recommendations for policies and practices that will maximise the benefits and minimise the risks of teacher migration and mobility.



Methodology of Study

The research team comprised four professional staff of the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), drawn from the departments of International Affairs and Research & Strategic Initiatives. The team pursued a variety of channels for research contributing to this report. After a thorough review of existing literature and data on the subject, a survey was distributed globally to primary and secondary teachers who currently teach abroad or who have returned home after teaching abroad. This primary research was supplemented with interviews with Education International (EI) regional coordinators and affiliates. Team members also conducted site visits to India, Georgia, Ghana, Jordan, Lebanon, and Spain to meet with teachers, union officials, government representatives, academics and other stakeholders. Focus groups were held with migrant teachers in these countries as well, and one focus group with teachers working in the United Arab Emirates was conducted via Skype.

CHAPTER 2

SYNOPSIS OF LITERATURE AND DATA AVAILABILITY

Synopsis of Literature Review

Research on teacher migration increased substantially following reports of significant losses of teachers by the education ministers of several Commonwealth countries, especially small states such as the nations of the Caribbean. Attendees of Commonwealth education meetings beginning in 1997 learned that large scale teacher recruitment and migration was having a serious impact on the education systems of Barbados, Guyana, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago. The Cayman Islands Education Minister acknowledged that more than 70 per cent of teaching staff at government schools were expatriate labour, with about 50 per cent coming from the Caribbean, but the large-scale recruitment of teachers by the United States and United Kingdom forced the islands to compete for the best-qualified teachers.

Ministers developed a plan of action calling on Commonwealth Education Ministers to examine teacher loss and the impact on each country's education system and mandating the Commonwealth Secretariat to develop a protocol for the ethical recruitment of teachers. The subsequent study of teacher migration received a major impetus from this action.¹ A report by Kimberly Ochs changed conventional thinking on the direction of migration, finding teacher loss to be a global phenomenon impacting both industrial and developing nations. There was evidence of considerable "south-south" and regional recruitment of teachers (for example, between South Africa and Uganda, Guyana to Botswana, India to the Seychelles), although the larger scale movement tended to be either "south-north" or between countries such as Canada and the UK.²

The Commonwealth Secretariat, informed by research of the Working Group on Teacher Recruitment, adopted the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol in 2005 as a standard of best practice. The Protocol's stated aim was to: "balance the rights of teachers to migrate internationally, on a temporary or permanent basis, against the need to protect the integrity of national education systems and to prevent the exploitation of scarce human resources of poor countries".³ The Protocol lays out a

¹ See The Commonwealth website for links to some of this literature at www.thecommonwealth.org, and Ochs and Jackson, "Review of the Implementation" for a history of the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol.

² Ochs, Summary of 'Teaching at Risk,' 2003.

³ Commonwealth Secretariat, "Protocol," 7. 2004



series of measures and regulatory guidelines for recruiters, as well as rights and responsibilities of sending and recruiting countries, and of recruited teachers.

The Commonwealth also addressed the issue of teacher qualification recognition standards and qualifications frameworks because qualifications are used to set pay and the recognition and transferability of teacher qualifications can facilitate migration. Migrant teachers are often put at a disadvantage or relegated to a lower status if the value of their qualifications and experience are not recognised in another country.

A study commissioned by the Secretariat investigated the extent to which teacher qualifications and professional registration were recognised and transferable across member states. Morrow and Keevy (2006) looked at Mauritius, South Africa, Australia, Sri Lanka, India, England, Jamaica, Canada, and Northern Ireland. The authors found that many countries had developed national qualifications frameworks (NQFs) to improve the transferability of credentials and facilitate migration. More than fifty NQFs were in place, and three were in development at the regional level. The authors suggest using professional registration to benchmark teachers' professional status internationally, which they argue would benefit the individual teacher and the receiving country, "in effect, offering a counter balance to the inevitable increase in the migration of teachers".⁴

As Ochs (2006) observed, patterns of migration had begun to diverge from the south-north model even before the development of the Teacher Recruitment Protocol, but subsequent researchers have been struck by the enormous expansion of the international market for teachers, and the complications this has created for policy, for national education systems and for individual teachers.⁵

While there has been general recognition that out-migration of teachers can have serious negative impacts in source countries, Bartlett argues that international recruitment as currently practiced in most schools may be harmful to the education system of the destination country as well.⁶ Thousands of teachers from the Philippines, India, and other countries were sought by employers in the United States between 2002 and 2008, primarily to teach in urban school districts that have traditionally struggled to attract teachers. The overseas trained teachers are well-qualified, experienced, and able to teach in areas like math, science, and special education where educators are in short supply. Nonetheless, Bartlett argues that to be effective, overseas trained teachers need

⁴ This review was carried out by Morrow and Keevy. *The Recognition of Teacher Qualifications*, 2006. Subsequent studies included; Ochs and Jackson, "Review," 2009; Ochs, "Implementation of the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol," 2011.

⁵ UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, "Trends in Migration Stock," calls this a "new era of mobility," 2005, 4.

⁶ Bartlett, *Migrant Teachers*, 2014.

specialised induction support to guide them as they adjust to the differences in student population, school workplace, and culture. The transformation of the profession into one characterised by a revolving door, low-investment, and low-status workforce undermines the conditions needed for good teaching and learning, and she calls on schools to provide better support to both internationally recruited teachers and their local counterparts.

Numerous case studies have looked at the experience of individual countries with teacher migration. For instance, teacher migration from India is driven by rising demand in the destination countries, dissatisfaction with the Indian education system, and a desire for a better life. While India is considered a labour-surplus country, it has a serious shortage of teachers, especially in rural areas, and further shortages are projected as demand grows under the Indian Right to Education (RTE) Act. The migration of qualified teachers from India is said to have posed an obstacle in achieving the country's educational goals.⁷

The Arab region saw substantial labour mobility after the oil boom of the 1970s. Jordan became a significant labour-exporter to other Arab countries. The expansion of higher education in Jordan created an excess supply of skilled labour that resulted in the migration of teachers to neighbouring countries. However, based on pupil/teacher ratios in Jordan, it would appear that the country has not suffered a domestic shortage as a result of teacher out-migration.⁸

In the late 1990s, facing high rates of teacher recruitment to the United States, the Barbadian government collaboratively worked to manage teacher migration.⁹ Ethiopia has had to resort to recruiting international teachers from China, Cuba, Germany, India, and the Philippines to meet teacher shortages resulting from rapid population growth.¹⁰ Several authors have reviewed the migration of Zimbabwean education professionals to South Africa.¹¹ Still others look at teacher migration in conflict, post-conflict, and forced migration situations.¹²

Drawing on earlier literature on brain drain, researchers have attempted to determine whether the costs of teacher migration outweigh the benefits. A number of theories posit that migration can benefit developing countries: emigrants send money home and remittances often constitute a large percentage of Gross National Product (GNP)

⁷ Sharma, "Teachers on the Move" 2013; Sharma, "Migration of Indian Teachers." 2011.

⁸ Zaqqa, "Economic Development and Export of Human Capital," 2006.

⁹ Rudder, "Managing teacher recruitment," 2012.

¹⁰ Shewarget et al., "The need for teachers," 2011.

¹¹ Manik and Singh, *Global Mobility and Migration of Teachers; South African Council for Educators, "Teacher Migration in South Africa," 2011, p.3*

¹² Kum, Menter and Smyth, "Changing the Face," 2010; Mononye, "Teacher migration and education," 2011; Penson et al., "Beyond the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol," 2011.



for some countries; since migrants often return home with valuable skills they have acquired abroad, migration results in “brain circulation” rather than brain drain; by demonstrating that more education can result in higher incomes, migration can encourage those who have stayed at home to pursue an education too. While there are no clear-cut answers, it is generally conceded that too much skilled emigration is harmful to source countries, especially if they suffer an educational haemorrhage.¹³

It is clear from the volume of literature on teacher migration that researchers still have much to learn about this rapidly expanding and ever-changing phenomenon: “The interaction between the migration of the highly-skilled and human development is heterogeneous, socially differentiated and complex. Its effects may be positive, negative or neutral.”¹⁴ This report identifies opportunities for teacher unions to effect policies and practices to ensure that the benefits for teachers, students, and countries are maximised.

International Migration Data

The task of tracking international teacher migration is challenging due to the paucity of data. Different government agencies, educational institutions, and research organisations collect information on migration, occupation, and education using multiple surveys and censuses. To the degree that these datasets are even complete, they use different definitions, and classification methods, and cover different time periods, so that the data is rarely compatible within a particular country, let alone internationally comparable. Moreover, government agencies that collect migration information rarely disaggregate data by occupations. Researchers have analysed the few sources of data that exist and employed proxies that provide some indication of the degree of the mobility of teachers.

A Macro Level View of Migration

There are several sources of data on immigrant stocks that come from population registers, labour force surveys, and national censuses generally carried out every ten years. However, these population surveys include all persons born abroad, regardless of how recently they have migrated. Thus, the data represents historical patterns of migration – included are people who may have migrated as children or students, or who are nationals but happened to be born abroad. This data does not allow researchers to isolate flows of migrants who cross borders for the purpose of work. Nevertheless, global migration trends provide a context for assessing various estimates of teacher mobility obtained from other sources. Macro-level data on migrant stocks can be a useful point of departure,

¹³ See, for example, Collier, “*Exodus: How Migration Is Changing Our World*,” 2013.

¹⁴ Lozano and Gandini, “*Migración calificada*,” 2011.

because, as countless case studies have found, migrants have tended to follow one another to countries where there is already an immigrant community from their country, or where there are long-standing historical ties.

The OECD maintains a Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC) assembled from national censuses, labour force surveys, and population registers. The latest available data for 2005-2006 provides a snapshot of the scope and main characteristics of migration to 25 OECD countries from more than 200 countries of origin.¹⁵ Migration between these countries accounts for approximately 75 per cent of all migration. Canada and the United States have the highest number of immigrants (44.7 million), of whom 32 per cent are tertiary educated.¹⁶ Australia and New Zealand, while having far fewer immigrants in absolute numbers (4.9 million) have the highest in terms of percentage of the population (27.7 per cent) and the highest proportion with a tertiary education (34 per cent). Africa has experienced the highest relative loss of its high-skilled population (i.e. “brain drain”) at 10.2 per cent of its tertiary-educated population, followed by Latin America at 9.2 per cent. Seventy eight per cent of African migrants have gone to Europe, while 82 per cent of Latin American migrants have migrated to the United States. In an earlier report issued in 2004, the OECD estimated that, since 1990, there had been a marked increase in the international migration of highly skilled professionals in three sectors: health, education, and new technologies.

International Data on Teacher Migration

The only internationally comparable database on immigrant stocks broken down by occupation is the Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries for 2000 (DIOC-E 2000). While this dataset only exists for one point in time (national censuses carried out around 2000), it does provide information on persons by country of birth and an occupational category for “teaching professionals” for OECD countries and about 100 destination countries.¹⁷ Analysis of this database confirms the claims made by officials from Commonwealth countries that they were experiencing large outflows of their teachers to other countries, primarily to other Commonwealth countries and the United States.

¹⁵ Widmaier, S. and J-C. Dumont, “Are recent immigrants different?,” 2011.

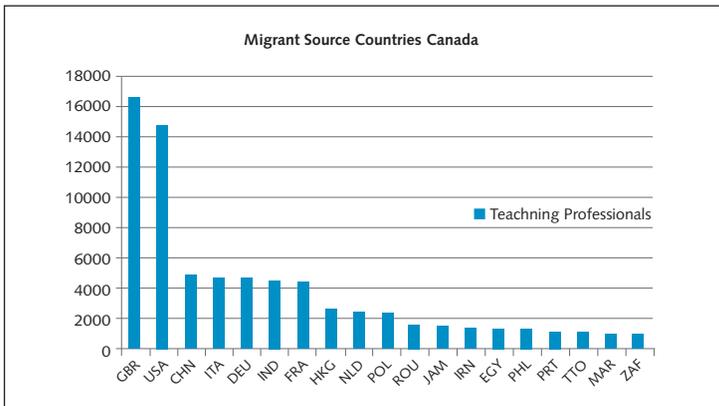
¹⁶ The OECD follows the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) that defines tertiary education as: post-secondary programs that provide sufficient qualifications for entry to advanced research and professions with high skill requirements and have a minimum duration of three years’ full-time equivalent (ISCED 5A); or programs that offer practical, technical or occupational skills for direct entry into the labour market and have a minimum duration of two years full-time equivalent (ISCED 5B).

¹⁷ The occupational category “teaching professionals” in the OECD database is ISCO-23 and includes university and higher education teachers, vocational education teachers, secondary education teachers, primary school and early childhood educators (including child care center managers), and other teaching professionals (including information technology trainers, private music, dance, arts teachers). This is the category reported for all countries except Argentina that reports only an “education” category; Japan reports “professional and technical workers,” Turkey actually has a category for “teachers,” and the United States reports total data for “education, training and library occupations.”

In Figures 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4, data for the top 20 migrant source countries for teaching professionals have been extracted for Canada, Great Britain, and Australia.¹⁸ South Africa (ZAF) appears in the ranking as a source country for all three industrialised countries, which is consistent with reports from South African education officials of major teacher losses. Jamaican teaching professionals are among the top 20 in both Canada and Great Britain. Two other small island states, Trinidad and Tobago (TTO) and Fiji (FJI), appear in the top 20 list of Canada and Australia.

Migrant Stocks by Source Countries

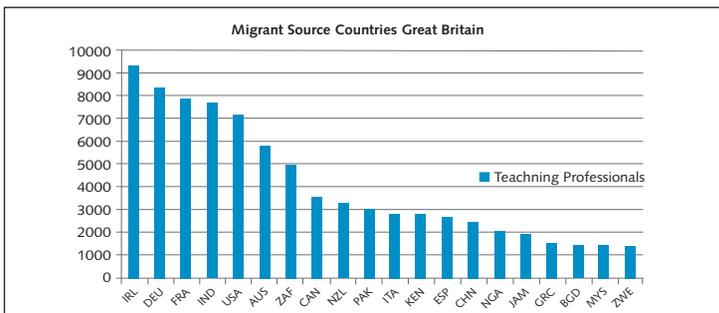
Figure 2.1 Top 20 migrant source countries for teaching professionals in Canada.



Source: Calculated from OECD DIOC-E 3 database: national censuses carried out around 2000.

Note: See Appendix B for country abbreviations.

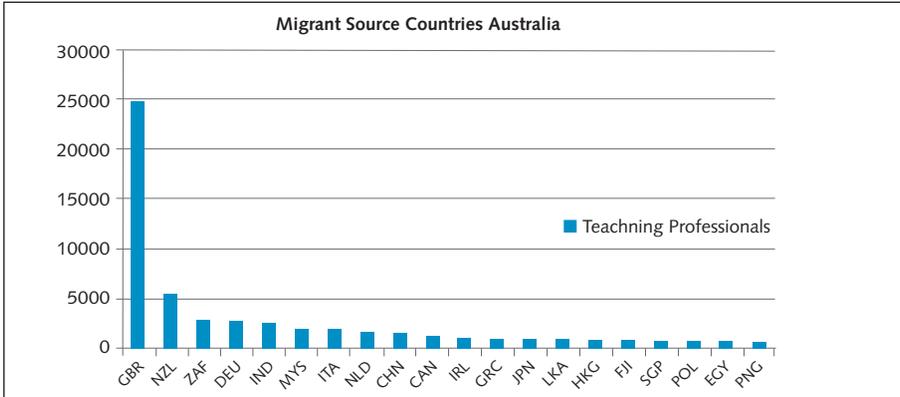
Figure 2.2 Top 20 migrant source countries for teaching professionals in Great Britain



Source: Calculated from OECD DIOC-E 3 database: national censuses carried out around 2000.

Note: See Appendix B for country abbreviations.

¹⁸ Data for Australia should be interpreted with caution since there are numerous entries where the country of origin is not identified.

Figure 2.3 Top 20 migrant source countries for teaching professionals in Australia

Source: Calculated from OECD DIOC-E 3 database: national censuses carried out around 2000.

Note: See Appendix B for country abbreviations.

Since the United States has long been a destination country for European immigrants, analysing migration from countries that have reported more recent losses of teachers to the United States requires exploration of a larger number of source countries. Table 2.1 lists the top 40 migrant source countries for the education, training, and library services occupational category, as well as male-female percentages and the percentage of each sex with a tertiary education in this sector. Although teachers are only a subset of this occupational category, other sources of information suggest that they constitute a large proportion for some countries such as the Philippines, Jamaica, Colombia, Trinidad and Tobago, Ecuador, and Guyana – all of which appear in the US top 40 list.¹⁹

The male-female breakdown for the foreign-born is fairly consistent with the 26-74 per cent breakdown for the U.S.-born working in this sector in the United States. Only China, India, Nigeria, and Turkey have a higher percentage of male-to-female migrants. The majority of migrants also have a higher proportion of tertiary-educated than the 87–77 per cent breakdown for U.S.-born males and females employed in the sector. For all sending countries, the percentage of men with a tertiary education is higher than the percentage of women. The authors' inability to disaggregate the data further makes it impossible to determine whether these differences are due to the fact that men work predominantly in higher education professions that require higher levels of education, while a larger proportion of female migrants work as teacher assistants, library technicians (professions that are included in this category) that may not require more than a high school diploma.²⁰

¹⁹ See the full literature review at www.MigrantTeachersRights.org

²⁰ See the Bureau of Labor Statistics Occupational Outlook Handbook for education requirements for this sector at: <http://www.bls.gov/ooh/education-training-and-library>

Table 2.1 Top 40 migrant source countries for teaching professionals in the United States in 2000

	Country of birth	Total	% Male	% Female	% Male Tertiary Educated	% Female Tertiary Educated
1	Mexico	67,520	24%	76%	67%	46%
2	China	38,615	52%	48%	93%	85%
3	Germany	38,150	30%	70%	89%	78%
4	India	32,600	54%	46%	95%	88%
5	Canada	32,105	36%	64%	91%	81%
6	Great Britain	29,500	40%	60%	91%	77%
7	Puerto Rico	28,110	20%	80%	73%	60%
8	South Korea	20,035	43%	57%	89%	79%
9	Philippines	18,510	24%	76%	76%	81%
10	Cuba	17,550	24%	76%	87%	77%
11	Japan	16,180	30%	70%	90%	83%
12	Italy	11,660	32%	68%	92%	67%
13	Jamaica	11,645	23%	77%	78%	74%
14	Taipei	11,170	39%	61%	89%	88%
15	France	10,742	30%	70%	91%	85%
16	Vietnam	10,080	37%	63%	66%	63%
17	Colombia	9,835	26%	74%	83%	70%
18	Denmark	9,695	33%	67%	68%	55%
19	Iran	8,930	45%	55%	92%	76%
20	Russia	8,550	36%	64%	86%	84%
21	Poland	7,545	36%	64%	91%	79%
22	El Salvador	6,615	25%	75%	64%	43%
23	Spain	6,580	32%	68%	90%	83%
24	Israel	6,435	36%	64%	78%	73%
25	Nigeria	6,309	55%	45%	94%	87%
26	Haiti	6,090	39%	61%	81%	60%
27	Peru	6,015	27%	73%	86%	70%
28	Argentina	5,830	29%	71%	93%	81%
29	Brazil	5,190	39%	61%	86%	77%
30	Trinidad & Tobago	4,885	25%	75%	75%	64%
31	Panama	4,849	22%	78%	81%	71%
32	Greece	4,780	42%	58%	97%	79%
33	Ecuador	4,545	24%	76%	67%	61%
34	Ukraine	4,400	33%	67%	86%	79%
35	Guyana	4,370	35%	65%	84%	72%
36	Egypt	4,335	47%	53%	94%	87%
37	Turkey	4,259	54%	46%	97%	85%
38	Guatemala	4,170	25%	75%	61%	46%
39	Netherlands	4,084	41%	59%	95%	83%
40	Pakistan	4,040	43%	57%	85%	77%

Additional census data is available for some countries, allowing us to look at changes over a ten-year period. For example, the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) carries links to online censuses for a number of Latin American countries. Table 2.2 contains data for Colombian teachers by destination country for various years. In 1990, the Venezuelan census recorded large numbers of Colombian-born teachers. Data from the census in 2001 shows that both the total Colombian migrant population and the number of Colombian teachers in Venezuela dropped sharply. However, in the other countries for which data is available, in total numbers, Colombian teacher migration increased.

Table 2.2 Migration of Colombian teachers by destination country, various years

Destination Country	Year	# of Colombian Migrant Teachers	Total Colombian Migrant Population	Teachers as a % of Colombian Migrants
Argentina	1991	34	1323	3%
Bolivia	1992	4	62	6%
	2001	14	179	8%
Brazil	1991	76	359	21%
	2000	232	949	24%
Chile	1992	27	229	12%
Costa Rica	2000	110	609	18%
Ecuador	1990	65	1691	4%
	2001	115	1884	6%
El Salvador	2007	16	60	27%
Mexico	1990	145	851	17%
	2000	241	1467	16%
Panama	1990	84	563	15%
	2000	154	786	20%
Peru	1993	48	875	5%
Venezuela	1990	2528	15001	17%
	2001	617	7706	8%
Foreign born population over the age of 10, economically active By area of activity (Enseñanza) and occupational subgroup (Profesores)				

Source: IMILA: Investigación de la Migración Internacional en Latinoamérica, <http://www.eclac.cl/celade/migracion/imila/>

Census data for Costa Rica can also be disaggregated for foreign-born workers by source country and occupational sector for 2000 and 2011. However, the occupational sector “Enseñanza” includes teaching professionals from primary to university level

and cannot be broken down further to look at the number of primary and secondary teachers alone. Table 2.3 shows that the largest number of migrants came from Nicaragua with a net increase of 80 per cent between 2000 and 2011. This is consistent with high levels of general migration from Nicaragua. Data from 1997 shows that Nicaraguans accounted for 73 per cent of all immigrants in Costa Rica.²¹

Table 2.3 Top 10 migrant source countries for teaching professionals in Costa Rica, 2000 and 2011

Country of Birth	Census Year 2000	Census Year 2011
NICARAGUA	1416	2551
USA	539	690
EL SALVADOR	304	378
PANAMA	250	272
CUBA	242	232
COLOMBIA	174	362
PERU	134	168
MEXICO	123	139
CHILE	117	106
SPAIN	109	113

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censos, <http://www.inec.go.cr/>

Migratory Flows

Census data fails to capture periods of high and unanticipated migration flows that can be especially disruptive to a sending country's education system. This can be particularly problematic for smaller developing countries that do not have a large proportion of highly-educated citizens. Case studies, conference and research reports have attempted to estimate teacher migration flows for various countries. However, many of these estimates rely on media reports, speeches and projections that cannot be corroborated. While official teacher migration data do not exist, many researchers have used proxy data. UK Approved Work Permits suggest likely teacher migration magnitudes. As can be seen in Table 2.4, the numbers are broken down by country and a category that includes teachers. Eleven of the top twenty UK permit countries appear in the top twenty migrant source countries in the OECD data for the UK in Figure 2.2.

²¹ Organización Internacional para las Migraciones; OIT; Costa Rica. Ministerio de Trabajo y Seguridad Social. Acuña González, Guillermo, et al. *Flujos migratorios laborales intrarregionales: situación actual, retos y oportunidades en Centroamérica y República Dominicana*, 2011.

Table 2.4 United Kingdom work permits, 2001-2003²²

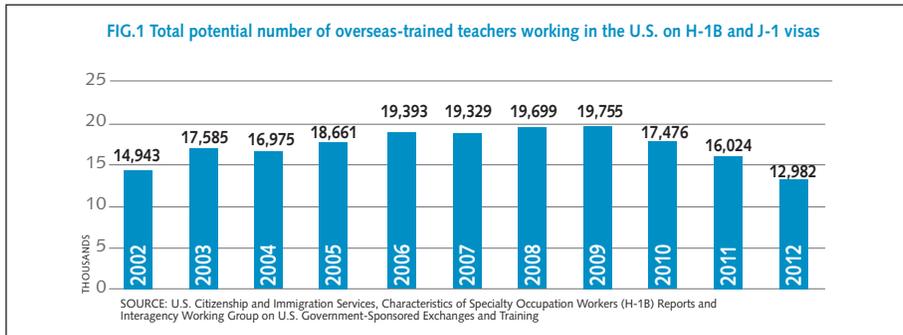
UK Approved <i>Work Permits</i> where Job Includes Teacher - 01/01/01-31/01/03					
	Total Population	2001	2002	2003	Total
South Africa	43,309,000	2010	2542	150	4702
Australia	19,138,000	1011	1528	140	2679
New Zealand	3,855,400	609	887	52	1548
Jamaica	2,576,000	381	530	63	974
Canada	30,007,094	348	513	37	898
Zimbabwe	12,627,000	194	325	28	547
India	1,008,937,000	130	317	10	457
Ghana	19,306,000	53	123	13	189
Nigeria	113,862,000	60	90	2	152
Kenya	30,669,000	39	77	4	120
Trinidad & Tobago	1,294,000	43	50	4	97
Pakistan	141,256,000	22	43	5	70
Mauritius	1,161,000	19	45	2	66
Uganda	23,300,000	16	22	2	40
Zambia	10,421,000	16	22	-	38
Malaysia	11,308,000	16	17	1	34
Guyana	761,000	8	21	1	30
Sri Lanka	18,924,000	10	16	-	26
Barbados	267,000	15	9	-	24
Singapore	4,405,000	9	10	-	19
Cameroon	14,876,000	10	5	-	15
St. Lucia	148,000	5	10	-	15
Namibia	1,757,000	8	6	-	14
Malawi	11,308,000	3	10	-	13
Malta	390,000	5	8	-	13
Seychelles	80,000	2	10	1	13
Sierra Leone	4,405,000	4	8	1	13
Cyprus	784,000	7	3	-	10
St. Vincent	113,000	2	5	1	8
Bangladesh	137,439,000	1	3	1	5
Tanzania	35,119,000	3	1	1	5
Swaziland	925,000	-	3	-	3
Antigua	65,000	1	1	-	2
Botswana	1,541,000	-	1	-	1
Papua New Guinea	4,809,000	1	-	-	1
Samoa	159,000	1	-	-	1
St. Kitts	38,000	1	-	-	1
Vanuatu	197,000	1	-	-	1
TOTAL		5064	7279	519	12,844

Source: Work Permits (UK) section of Home Office

²² Reprinted from Kimberly Ochs, *A Summary of 'Teaching at Risk'*, 2003, p. 26.

The National Education Association (NEA) and the AFT have both used data on visas to estimate the number of overseas trained teachers in the United States, since most internationally recruited teachers come into the country on two types of temporary visas. In 2002, there were 14,943 overseas-trained teachers working in the US on visas, with 10,012 working in public schools.²³ The AFT used the same methodology to update these numbers, providing a full ten-year view of the trends and indicating that nearly 13,000 teachers were working in the United States on temporary visas in 2012.

Figure 2.4 Primary and secondary teachers working on temporary visas in the U.S., 2002-2012



Source: U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services, Characteristics of Specialty Occupation Workers (H-1B) Reports and Interagency Working Group on U.S. Government-Sponsored Exchanges and Training.

Bartlett²⁴ uses publicly available U.S. Department of Labor "Labor Condition Applications" from employers seeking authorisation to employ overseas workers as an approximation of the number of teachers entering the country, although she admits that the number is subject to over-reporting. Using this proxy, she states that between 2002 and 2008, public schools in the United States sought to employ 91,126 teachers with labour shortage visas (H1Bs). Just three states – Texas, New York, and California – account for nearly two-thirds of all applications.

One country collects data on its citizens who work overseas and makes the data publicly available. As a major labour-exporting country, the Philippines has a large government agency, the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA), which monitors employment of its overseas foreign workers. Table 2.6 summarises available data for teachers working abroad from 2000 to 2010. Official data for teachers working abroad from 2000 to 2010 shows that the top destinations for Filipino teachers are

²³ Barber, *Report to the National Education Association, 2003.*

²⁴ Bartlett, *Migrant Teachers: How American Schools Import Labor, 2014.*

the United States, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, United Arab Emirates, and China. POEA data only captures those who secured teaching positions abroad through the government agency. It does not include those who were directly hired, those who left under non-work visas, or those teachers who left to accept non-teaching jobs abroad.

Table 2.5 Top destination countries for Philippine teachers, 2000-2010

Top Destination Countries for Philippine Teachers, 2000-2010												
Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	TOTAL
United States	86	202	402	314	266	484	516	950	793	240	98	4351
Saudi Arabia	61	69	74	26	39	37	74	116	163	150	144	953
Bahrain	4	9	3	5	14	26	43	60	67	49	53	333
United Arab Emirates	11	9	9	2	10	18	16	35	72	104	103	389
China	N/A	6	16	3	33	34	7	30	44	45	69	287

Source: Philippine Overseas Employment Administration statistics, www.poea.gov.ph.

As can be seen from the above, actual data on international teacher migration is a patchwork quilt. Obtaining accurate numbers requires cooperation amongst many government agencies and international bodies across the world. In the meantime, profound changes are affecting the teacher profession and the quality of education around the world and access to better data is critical to understanding migration trends and their impact. An organisation such as EI is well positioned to gather information from its affiliates, which have direct contact with people on the ground most likely to have a sense of what is occurring before the data appears, as well as with migrant teachers themselves via electronic networks.



CHAPTER 3

MIGRANT TEACHER VOICES

Overview of global survey

A primary goal of this study is to elevate the voices of migrant teachers in order to gain first-hand insights into their motivations for migrating, the benefits they take away from their experience, and the challenges they face. Toward that end, our research team designed a survey to reach out to migrant teachers globally. This survey was distributed between November 2012 and September 2013 to teachers around the world through a variety of mechanisms. Utilising the snowball methodology, the survey was primarily distributed through EI affiliates, teacher recruitment agencies, government programmes, academic research networks, migrant teacher social networks, as well as with focus groups conducted during country site visits to Spain, India, Jordan, Lebanon, Ghana, and Georgia. Surveys were available in English, Spanish, and French.

Without a known universe of migrant teachers, there is currently no way to select a representative sample. Therefore, the survey results, which are based on a self-selected group of respondents, are not generalisable to the entire population of migrant teachers. Due to travel and budget constraints, survey distribution was largely limited to online distribution, which may bias the data against regions with poor access to the internet. In particular, other researchers have observed significant regional teacher migration flows throughout Africa which we believe our survey did not fully capture. In addition, although a wide range of distribution channels were utilised, more than half of respondents received the survey through one international exchange programme sponsor. These respondents came from 35 different countries, but the majority taught in the United States on a language programme and was generally satisfied with their experience.

That said, this constitutes the first attempt to quantify migrant teachers' experience on a global scale and is therefore an important step toward building a more extensive information base. Ultimately, 1,358 usable surveys were collected from respondents who had taught abroad. Survey respondents came from 53 home countries and worked abroad in 127 host countries, with some teachers working in up to five different countries. Aggregate results present considerable depth of responses from a select number of countries. The top five sending countries (Colombia, India, the Philippines, Spain, and the United States) accounted for 61 per cent of the total number of respondents and 15 countries had 20 or more respondents. Receiving countries, however, were more heavily concentrated among a few. The United States accounted for 53 per cent of teacher visits, the United Kingdom and the United Arab Emirates were the next leading receiving countries, each claiming about five per cent of teacher visits. Ten receiving countries had 20 or more teacher visits.

Table 3.1 Top five sending and receiving countries

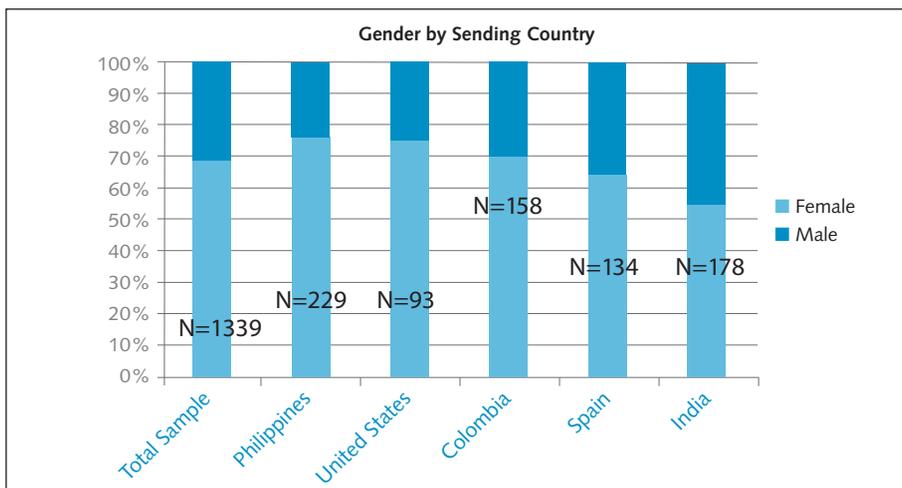
Top 5 Sending Countries	Number of Teachers (N=1358)	Top 5 Receiving Countries	Number of teacher visits (N=1737)*
Philippines	235	United States	917
India	178	United Kingdom	94
Colombia	162	United Arab Emirates	85
Spain	136	China	34
United States	94	Maldives	28

* Note: Many teachers worked abroad in more than one country and the number of teacher visits counts each work experience abroad.

The following statistics present highlights from the teacher survey responses. Survey questions that illustrate findings relevant to the four international hiring models, the recruitment process, and the role of unions are analysed within the corresponding chapters. A complete report of survey responses can be found on the EI portal at www.MigrantTeachersRights.org, along with a copy of the questionnaire.

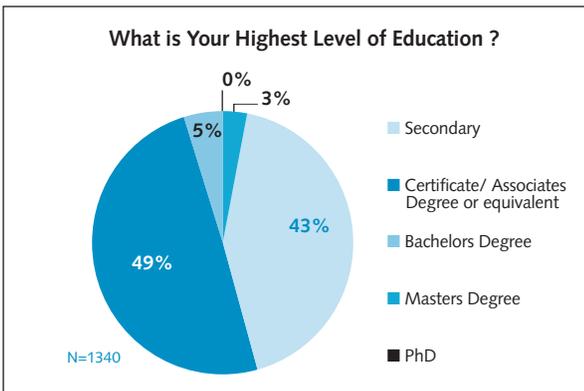
Characteristics of Survey Respondents

- Comparable to findings in many regional and national studies, **69 per cent of global respondents were female** while 31 per cent were male (n=1339). Analysis by country shows that some migration flows are more or less feminised than the overall sample.

Figure 3.1 Gender by sending country

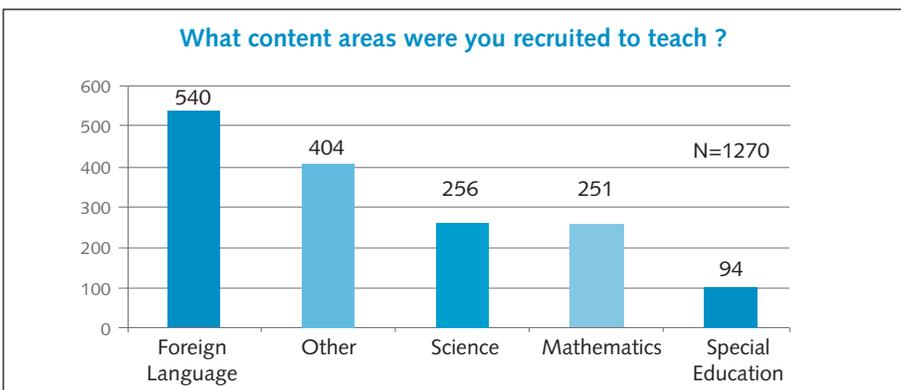
- The median age of teachers in the survey was 41 years (n=1337).
- Teachers had a median of eight years' teaching experience before working abroad (n=897).
- Consistent with OECD data on educational attainment of migrants, respondents are highly educated (see Figure 3.2). **Over half (54 per cent) of survey respondents hold a master's degree or higher** (n=1340).

Figure 3.2 Highest level of education attained



- Teachers were recruited to teach a wide range of subjects: 40 per cent taught math or science, 43 per cent taught a foreign language, seven per cent taught special education, and 32 per cent reported teaching other subjects ranging from art and music to social studies and physical education (n=1270).

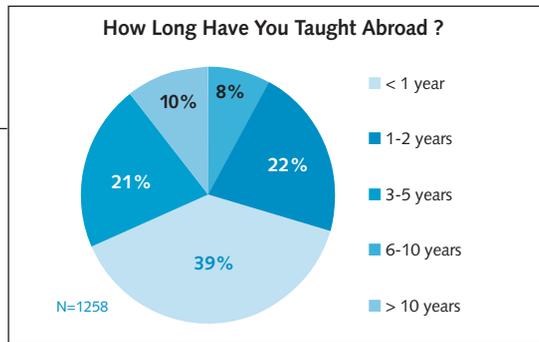
Figure 3.3 Content areas taught



Note: Some teachers were hired to teach more than one subject
 Note: More than 70 per cent of all special education teacher respondents were Filipino

- Survey dissemination was targeted to primary and secondary teachers. Teachers who worked in those positions represent 47 per cent and 52 per cent of the total number of respondents respectively, although some who had more than one posting worked in both sectors (n=1267).
- Forty eight per cent of teachers were currently teaching abroad, while 41 per cent had returned to their home country and continued teaching. Only 11 per cent had left the profession or retired (n=1345).
- Additionally, while the greatest proportion (68 per cent) of respondents taught abroad for a period of between one and five years, a significant proportion (31 per cent) had taught abroad for six or more years (n=1258).

Figure 3.4 Duration of teaching experience abroad



Teacher Motivations

Teachers have a wide and varied range of motivations for teaching abroad. Overall, survey respondents most often identified the opportunity for professional development as a primary factor motivating their decision to work abroad. Among male respondents, better pay was the strongest motivating factor, and the one with the widest gap between men and women, although differences in motivation by gender in general are relatively small.

	Total Survey N=1358	Male N=413	Female N=916
Opportunity for professional development	37%	32%	39%
Desire to see the world	26%	23%	28%
Better pay	26%	36%	22%
Looking for a life change	16%	14%	16%
Need to support family	12%	11%	12%
Other	8%	7%	8%
Lack of employment options in my home country	7%	8%	7%
Instability (political upheaval, natural disaster) in my home country	7%	8%	6%

Note: Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents gave equal weight to several factors
Note: For analysis of motivations by source country, see Table 4.3, page 48.



Analysis of open-ended survey responses revealed additional factors that influence teachers' decisions to work abroad, providing valuable insight regarding contemporary push-and-pull factors affecting teacher migration trends:

- To pursue a **better life**. Teachers saw job opportunities abroad as a way to access special health care services, religious freedom, the right for same sex partners to marry, and greater independence for women.
- Host countries offered **opportunities for their children**. Migrant teachers noted quality education, cultural exposure, and language immersion for their children as motivating factors.
- To **reunite with or follow family** who had migrated abroad. Uniquely among top sending countries, 26 per cent (n=178) of all Indian teachers responding to the survey reported that they migrated to accompany a spouse.
- The opportunity to **improve language skills** or **pursue an advanced degree** attracted teachers to posts abroad.
- Teachers noted that **frustrations with the educational system in their home countries** drove them to teach abroad. Specific factors cited included standardised testing, misdirected policies, and disrespect for teachers.

A Teacher's Voice: Looking for a Simpler Life, Veerle Masscheleyn



"I'm a Belgian teacher working in Ghana, West Africa. In 2009, I moved here with my family to avoid the rat race and leave a smaller ecological footprint. Wanting to teach, I looked for an appointment in a government school, but that was a tall order. Finally, with the help of The National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT), I was posted in Presbyterian Secondary Technical School, in Aburi, about one hour outside of the capital, Accra. I wanted to teach in a government school, because the private schools really pay very poorly in Ghana.

This was a whole new ball game. The first months, all eyes were on me but, after two years, I've found my place in the group and I now feel accepted. However, I had to cope with financial challenges, since it took 16 months to receive my salary. Another challenge was adapting to my public. Belgian children are inherently critical, so teachers are trained to work deductively. It is not the case here. It remains a tremendous yearly task to acquaint students with my teaching methods (e.g. class discussions, project work, etc.). Teaching teenagers to criticise mundane issues has become my ultimate goal. Also, I had to get used to teaching classes of 65 or more without modern conveniences. Schoolbooks, if present, are often useless and costly".

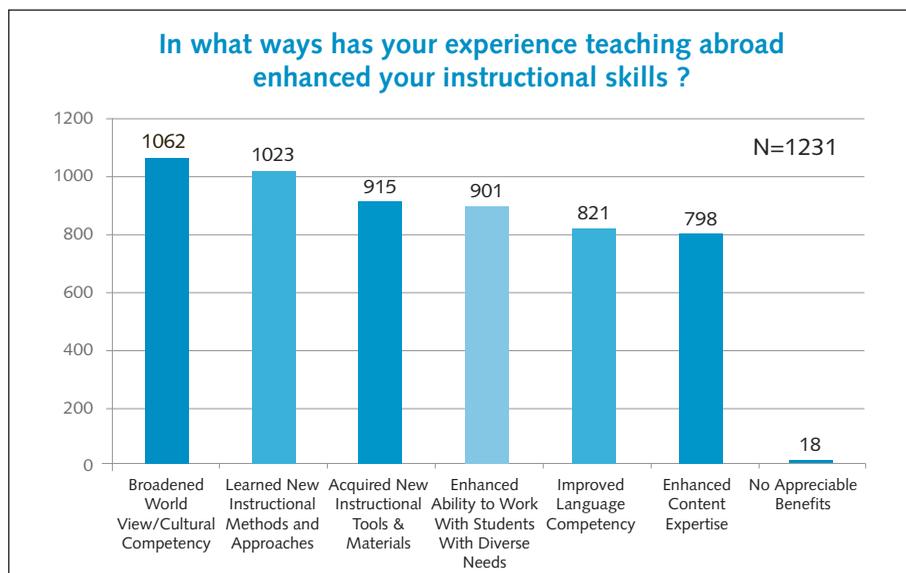
In all, the fine climate and slow pace of life make up for the challenges I've faced so far. And while you are reading this, I'll surely be teaching pupils such literary classics as 'The Importance of Being Earnest'.

Teacher Rewards

Regardless of teachers' motivations to migrate, the great majority report valuable professional and personal benefits from their overseas experiences.

- 99 per cent of teachers reported that working abroad had a positive effect on their instructional practice (n=1231).
- The most frequently cited benefit was that overseas teaching broadened respondents' world view and cultural competency.
- More than 65 per cent of teachers reported that teaching abroad helped them to learn new instructional methods and approaches; acquire new instructional tools and materials; enhance their ability to work with students with diverse needs; improve language competency and bolster their content expertise.

Figure 3.5 Impact of teaching abroad on instructional skills



- In open-ended responses, teachers also noted **exposure to new technology** and emphasised the value of **working in a team with colleagues** as other benefits of working abroad.
- An overwhelming majority (90 per cent) of survey respondents reported that their experience abroad met or exceeded their expectations.

Figure 3.6 Overall assessment of teaching experience abroad

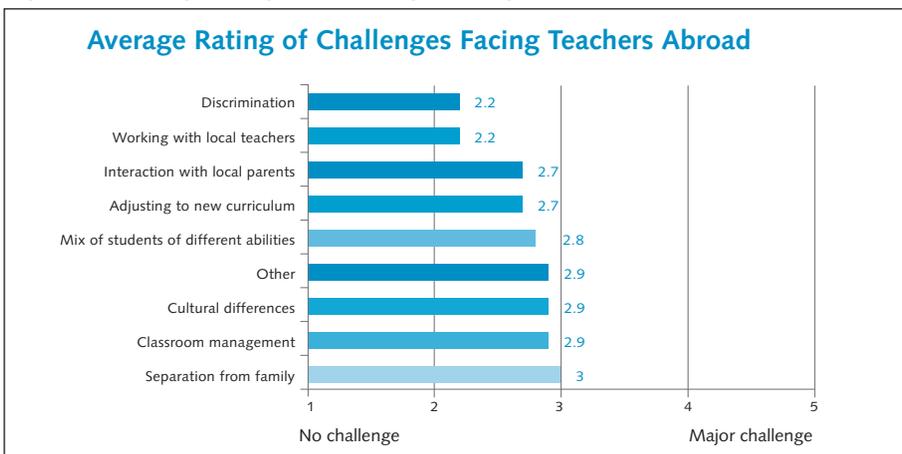


Challenges Teachers Face

Though most teachers who took the survey had a positive overseas experience, teachers also faced a number of challenges while working abroad.

- Teachers responded most frequently that separation from family and classroom management were major challenges (n=1245).
- More than half of teachers reported that adjusting to a new curriculum, the mix of students of different abilities in the classroom, cultural differences, and interaction with local parents were moderate to major challenges (n=1245).
- One in three teachers (34 per cent) indicated that discrimination was a moderate to major challenge (n=1245).

Figure 3.7 Average ratings for challenges facing teachers abroad



- Other difficulties teachers encountered abroad included the unexpected cost of living, family stress, immigration problems, and feelings of isolation, inadequate teaching resources and the lack of technology.

Gender, Status and Identity

Although we cannot generalise these survey results, they represent the only global survey of migrant teachers and the largest known numbers of respondents to a survey of migrant teachers to date. As such, they provide valuable new insights on migrant teacher demographics, their motivations, rewards, and challenges. This data builds upon and largely reinforces previous research exploring cross-cutting themes that affect all immigrants, particularly those that relate to gender, status, and identity.

Gender

Women account for an increasing proportion of international migrants and constituted close to half of the world's migrants in 2005.²⁵ This corresponds to an overall increase of female participation in the workforce in recent decades. A 2010 study of teacher migration from South Africa was among the first to document married women moving for their own careers.²⁶ It found that married teachers were leaving South Africa without their spouses or children, citing their careers and the economic advancement of their households as reasons for moving. A recent report released by the Australian Education Union (AEU) similarly identifies female-dominated flows among migrant teachers moving both into and out of Australia. Seventy three per cent of immigrant teacher survey respondents in Australia were female, as was 59 per cent of Australian emigrant teacher respondents.²⁷ Although the authors do not report on teacher motivations by gender, overall, professional factors feature highly in a teacher's decision to seek work abroad. Of immigrants, 20 per cent reported that they wanted to teach in Australia out of commitment to their chosen career and 17 per cent reported better resources and professional development as a primary factor. Meanwhile, 66 per cent of Australian emigrants reported that a desire to have an overseas work/life experience influenced their decision to teach abroad.

The results of this global teacher survey reinforce these findings. Sixty nine per cent of survey respondents were female and 67 per cent of female teachers indicated that their main motivations were professional development or a chance to see the world. As Manik wrote, "If the process of migration is linked to the decision-making power of females, their movement could indicate an increase in women's power".²⁸ Notably, Indian migrant teachers' experiences differ in our survey. Of Indian female survey respondents, 44 per cent indicated that they migrated abroad to accompany their husband.

²⁵ ILO, "In Search of Decent Work", 2008.

²⁶ Manik, "Transnational Teacher Migration Trends", 2010.

²⁷ Reid, Collins, Singh "Global Teachers, Australian Perspectives", 2014.

²⁸ *Ibid.*



Issues arising as a result of women's shift into paid labour in countries across the globe have received attention primarily in the area of caregiving.²⁹ In most societies, responsibility for the care of children, the elderly, and the sick has traditionally been assigned to women. Since the 1990s, women's entrance into the paid workforce in countries around the globe has strained their capacity to care for their own families. Literature describing this trend and its impact is limited, but the entry of more women into the workforce may have created a "care deficit" in developed countries that is often filled by women from the developing world.³⁰

While the focus on "women's work" is generally domestic in nature, it is logical to extend the "care deficit" analysis into those professions through which women have traditionally entered the workforce – namely nursing and teaching, two female-dominated fields with strong migration trends. Indeed, a marked transnational dimension sees "global care chains" increasingly draw women from poorer nations to take up paid care work positions in richer ones, producing care deficits in source countries.³¹

Award-winning documentarian Ramona Diaz described a similar phenomenon after a year of filming teachers who were migrating from the Philippines to the United States:

"In a modern-day story of immigration and globalization, these young professionals are coming West in pursuit of economic advantages. Back home, a public school teacher earns \$3,500 a year; a private school teacher earns slightly more. In Baltimore, they will earn as much as \$45,000 a year, most of which they will send back to the Philippines to support their families and, in some cases, entire villages. The irony is inescapable. The Filipino teachers – 90% of them women – are leaving their own children to the care and education of others in order to take jobs teaching inner-city children in schools abandoned by many of their American-born colleagues in favor of districts with better resources in the suburbs."³²

Status and Identity

Another strand of research investigates how teacher identity and status are positively and negatively influenced by migration. In his study of teacher migration in Southern Africa, Dennis Sinyolo describes the "love-and-hate" reaction to migrants as the teacher migration paradox. On the one hand, migrant teachers are celebrated for the

²⁹ See, for example, Michel, "Women, Migration and the Work of Care", 2011.

³⁰ Ehrenreich and Hochschild, ed., *Global Woman: Nannies, Maids, and Sex Workers*, 2003.

³¹ Michel, "Women, Migration and the Work of Care", 2011.

³² Nepales, "Only in Hollywood", 2006.

diversity and positive contributions that they bring to their schools. At the same time, school administrators, colleagues, and the larger community often treat migrant teachers as outsiders, causing them to feel marginalised.³³

Manik describes teachers who have gained experience in various educational settings and have thus attained an “international passport” as “transnational teacher-travellers”.³⁴ Results of the EI global survey support this notion, as 18 per cent of respondents have taught in two or more overseas countries. Teachers from industrialised countries (Spain, Canada, United Kingdom, and United States) are most likely to have worked in three or more countries, suggesting different motivations and opportunities for teachers from industrialised and developing countries.

A number of studies link negative experiences of migrant teachers’ to their ‘outsider status’. Manik (2011) found that South African teachers who migrated to the U.K. perceived themselves as marginalised as a result of reduced teacher authority. The AEU survey of immigrant teachers in Australia found that 15 per cent of teachers experienced racism or discrimination in the schools in which they taught, including from colleagues and supervisors.³⁵ One Indian teacher working in a school outside of Sydney related her story: in an interview with researchers “My supervisor, who was supposed to supervise me when I was teaching – she was very racist, she discouraged me continuously, [saying] you can’t do teaching, this is not the right kind of job for you”.

Bartlett describes the status adjustments that many migrant teachers are forced to make as a “chutes and ladders” phenomenon.

“An interesting labor market dynamic is confronting migrating teachers. For the largest share of teachers those coming from developing countries who are motivated by an economic desire to move from poverty – the experience resembles a game of chutes and ladders. Teachers in developing countries must make their way to the top of their home nation’s career ladders in order to get into a chute that takes them to the bottom of the industrialized country’s teacher labor market. This obviously alters the traditional local and national boundaries of teacher labor markets, but it also creates new motivations to teach – essentially replacing intrinsic motivations to teach with the new extrinsic motivations to migrate.”³⁶

In the same manner, teachers from this global survey related negative interactions in their host countries, although the degree to which teachers experienced adverse

³³ Sinyolo, “A Strategy for Managing Teacher Migration in Southern Africa”, 2013

³⁴ Manik, “Traversing New Terrain”, 2011.

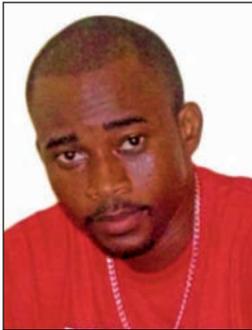
³⁵ Reid, Collins, Singh, “Global Teachers, Australian Perspectives”, 2014.

³⁶ Bartlett, *Migrant Teachers, How American Schools Import Labor*, 2014.

treatment varied. Some teachers report feeling isolated and struggling to build trust and be accepted by their community. A few teachers described more overt discrimination that made teaching difficult. Overall, 34 per cent of survey respondents reported that discrimination was a moderate to major challenge to them in their position abroad.

Another important form of discrimination relates to levels of compensation and benefits. Here, survey respondents reported both positive and negative discrimination, with 23 per cent reporting that they were paid less than local teachers and 19 per cent reporting that they were paid more. Indeed, only 38 per cent of respondents (n=1259) were able to assert that their compensation and benefits were equal to local teachers with similar credentials and levels of experience. This suggests a strong tendency to create tiers of status between migrant and local teachers, and is an alarming and important trend to watch. Issues of pay for migrant teachers are often connected to qualifications recognition.

A Teacher's Voice: Limitations for migrant teachers in Gambia, Abdul Conteh



"As a non-Gambian, teaching in Gambia comes with a lot of challenges. I have been teaching in Senior Secondary Schools in Gambia for the past six years. My primary purpose of travelling to Gambia was to visit friends. I later came to realise that Gambia was paying teachers better than my country, Sierra Leone. This motivated me to stay and take up a teaching job in the country.

In most schools, there is a cordial working relationship between Gambian and non-Gambian teachers. The administration works towards maintaining a professional, peaceful and friendly environment for all teachers regardless of your nationality.

The major challenge faced by non-Gambians teaching in Gambia involves those teaching in public schools. As a public school non-Gambia teacher, there is a limitation regarding the level you can attain on the Gambia pay scale designed for all civil servants. In a school setting, this scale ranges from 8.1 to 10.8 for all qualified and graduate teachers. Non-Gambia teachers in all public schools are only allowed to reach 8.8 on this scale. This implies that a non-Gambian teacher cannot be appointed as a Vice Principal or Principal in any Gambian public school regardless of your qualification or experience. [...] You are left with only two choices: either to accept the situation or quit the job, but your love for your profession and the children you teach gives you courage to help you accept the situation".

CHAPTER 4

INTERNATIONAL HIRING MODELS FOR TEACHERS

This chapter describes three different models of international teacher hiring. The exploration of each model describes its characteristics and provides global survey findings, relevant research, and real world examples from a range of source and destination countries. In addition, the profile of each model includes migrant teachers' voices and examples of how unions have engaged to support teachers and education quality.

The models have been defined based on the intent of the employer, which may or may not align with the intent of the migrant teachers. In assessing these hiring models, it is important to recognise that they serve very different purposes. While those purposes may at times get blurred, distinguishing them is helpful for the formulation of coherent policy and for promoting informed decision-making on the part of migrant teachers.

Hiring Model	Purpose
1. Professional Exchange	Provide professional development that enhances teacher knowledge and skills
2. Language and Curricular Programmes	Better prepare students for citizenship in a globalised world
3. Shortage Hiring	Meet staffing needs in shortage locations or content areas

Two of these models, professional exchange and language programmes, could generally be said to serve aspirational purposes for the teaching profession, the student curriculum, or national development and, therefore, would lean more in the direction of promoting *professional mobility*. The shortage hiring model, on the other hand, generally has financial or needs-based motivations, both for the employers and the migrants, and therefore can more aptly be described as a form of *labour migration*. While seeking to encourage policies that steer the growing internationalisation of the teaching profession in an empowering and quality driven direction, this report acknowledges that one hiring model cannot simply be substituted for another, as they serve different purposes and respond to different realities.



International mobility gives teachers greater professional agency and can be viewed as a vehicle for developing pedagogical expertise and teacher leadership. Well-designed programmes provide teachers with the opportunity to expand their world view, develop their pedagogical practice, and become cultural ambassadors forging global connections between students and educators. For decades, policy makers at all levels have advocated for greater global awareness in classrooms and have pointed to teacher exchange as a fundamental component in achieving this goal. As far back as 1966, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and UNESCO referred to the value of teacher exchange in their Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers.³⁷ The principles outlined then continue to hold strong contemporary relevance:

- 104. Authorities should recognize the value both to the education service and to teachers themselves of professional and cultural exchanges between countries and of travel abroad on the part of teachers; they should seek to extend such opportunities and take account of the experience acquired abroad by individual teachers.
- 105. Recruitment for such exchanges should be arranged without any discrimination, and the persons concerned should not be considered as representing any particular political view.
- 106. Teachers who travel in order to study and work abroad should be given adequate facilities to do so and proper safeguards of their posts and status.
- 107. Teachers should be encouraged to share teaching experience gained abroad with other members of the profession.

By contrast, labour migration generally responds to financial needs and systemic failures. Schools need teachers because they are unable to fill positions locally; teachers need to find work abroad because they are unable to adequately support their families at home. For this reason, migrants in shortage hiring contexts are generally deemed to be more vulnerable and in need of purposeful supports and protections. Indeed, it was concerns about problems arising from increased shortage hiring that compelled EI affiliates from both source and destination countries to call upon the global union for a concerted campaign to address teacher migration and mobility.

The description of the international teacher hiring models that follows highlights best practices within each, with a goal of promoting worker justice and education quality.



³⁷ ILO/UNESCO. " Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers", 1966.

HIRING MODEL #1— PROFESSIONAL EXCHANGE

Characteristics of Professional Exchange Programmes

High quality teacher exchange programmes offer rigorous, meaningful professional development opportunities and, as such, have the potential to raise the status of the teaching profession and improve the educational experience for multiple stakeholders. For teachers, professional exchange programmes offer exposure to different pedagogical methods and curricula as both international and local teachers have opportunities to share their expertise. Source and destination country students benefit from teachers' expanded world view and improved teaching skills that come from experience working in different educational settings. School systems and administrators benefit from the diversity international teachers bring and from exposure to global best practices in teaching. In an increasingly interconnected world, international teacher exchange programmes that provide support for teachers to learn and grow can be equally enriching for all parties involved.

In the highest quality professional exchange programmes, international teachers work side by side with peers from the host country to instruct local students in a wide range of subject areas and grade levels. This gives teachers the chance to fully immerse themselves in a different educational environment and maximises the impact on teachers' professional practice. In contrast to a shortage hiring model, professional exchange programmes are not designed to address gaps in the local labour market. They are of a fixed duration, which serves to align programme design with the expectations of participants, whose primary interest is enhancing their pedagogical practice. A predefined duration of teacher stay provides sending governments with greater assurance that they will benefit from investment in the programme when teachers return. Likewise, a clear understanding of the terms and expectations protects teachers from manipulation and allows them to plan for life and career events.

Rigorous candidate qualifications are an essential element of professional exchange programmes. High quality teacher exchange programmes require applicants to have completed a minimum number of years of service or to otherwise demonstrate their teaching competence. The profile of a teacher who pursues a professional exchange opportunity is a career professional who has achieved a degree of expertise in his/her grade level or content area of instruction and who is eager for exposure to new approaches and best practices in education.

Well regarded programmes are often government-sponsored professional exchanges in which countries sign official and, sometimes, reciprocal agreements. Such programmes are publicly funded and the direct relationship between educational systems helps to minimise overall costs. Additionally, agreements between governments can add a key



element of security for sending and receiving counties, as well as for participating teachers. For the education systems, government-to-government agreements ensure a level of quality by establishing mutually agreed standards for candidates. Government support legitimises programmes in the eyes of teachers and tends to ensure greater protection of teachers' rights and more rewarding educational and cultural experiences in host countries. In some instances, government-to-government programmes grant certain rights of reentry into jobs for returning teachers and recognise teachers' years of service abroad in salary advancement and pension calculations. Unfortunately, recent austerity measures have threatened many high quality exchange programmes.

Survey Highlights

Teacher feedback gathered through interviews and surveys relates overwhelmingly positive feelings about professional exchange programmes. A theme commonly related by teachers is that working abroad is as personally fulfilling as it is professionally stimulating, and teachers who have participated in exchange programmes are likely to recommend them to friends and colleagues. Regardless of their motivations for teaching abroad, 86 per cent of survey respondents reported that they received professional development of some kind while abroad. Notably, in open-ended survey responses, a significant number of teachers mentioned the value of having a mentor teacher who supported and encouraged engagement with new curricular tools and pedagogical techniques.

The opportunity to participate in an exchange can also serve to retain skilled teachers in the profession. Some teachers reported feeling as though they had reached a plateau in their careers and sought out opportunities abroad for the new professional challenge and to reinvigorate their passion for teaching. As one teacher noted in her survey response, "It was time for a change in my career. Either move up or move away" (Survey Respondent, from United Kingdom, taught in United States). Upon returning, teachers who have worked abroad reported that they blend the most effective teaching techniques from their home and host countries to hone their own instructional practice.

"My experience as a teacher in other countries taught me to reflect and to continue learning, above all to view the world as a kaleidoscope in which the visions and actions of each society are not static, rather they go on evolving."

Survey Respondent, Spanish teacher who had taught in the United Kingdom, Egypt, and Jordan

Table 4.1 shows that respondents to this survey overwhelmingly felt that their experience teaching abroad had helped them to hone their instructional skills. Only 18 out of 1,231 respondents felt that their experience had provided them with no appreciable benefits.

Table 4.1 Impact of teaching abroad on instructional skills

Survey Question #47: In what ways has your experience teaching abroad enhanced your instructional skills? Check all that apply:		
	Count	As a % of Total
Broadened world view/cultural competency	1062	86.27%
Learned new instructional methods and approaches	1023	83.10%
Enhanced content expertise	798	64.83%
Acquired new instructional tools and materials	915	74.33%
Enhanced ability to work with students with diverse needs	901	73.19%
Improved language competency	821	66.69%
No appreciable benefits	18	1.46%

* Note: Totals sum to more than 100 per cent because respondents identified multiple benefits.

Professional Benefits of Exchange

Although teachers and administrators alike speak of the implicit value of exchange opportunities for teachers, few empirical studies have been conducted to assess the relationship between international teaching experience and professional growth. The most compelling data on this front comes from a European Union study of the ERASMUS programme which promotes the mobility of students and teachers in higher education.³⁸ Over half of ERASMUS mobile teachers reported that the programme had a positive impact on their professional development in general, broadened their academic knowledge, and offered opportunities for them to get involved in innovative academic discussions. Forty five per cent of mobile teachers reported that the programme improved their teaching skills and 40 per cent developed and implemented new teaching methods. The authors of the study also surveyed ERASMUS experts to assess their views on the programme's impact on teacher competencies. In all areas assessed (Knowledge of structures and modes of higher education in the host country, Foreign language proficiency, Intercultural understanding and competencies, Academic knowledge), ERASMUS experts considered mobile teachers to be more competent than their non-mobile peers.

Other literature indicates that exchange participants gain a greater understanding of other people and had the desire to teach more accurately about other countries and

³⁸ International Centre for Higher Education Research, *The Professional Value of ERASMUS Mobility*, 2006.



peoples when they returned to their classrooms. One study also found that returned teachers were more enthusiastic and excited about teaching and creatively utilised teaching materials gathered abroad in their classrooms at home.³⁹ Another study looks at returned U.S. Peace Corps volunteers who entered the teaching profession. This study finds that the overseas volunteer work influenced the content of teachers' lessons and encouraged them to approach teaching with more understanding of differences among students.⁴⁰

A case study examining the impact of teacher exchange programmes sponsored by the Russian government after the fall of the Soviet Union provides broader insight on the value of international opportunities for teachers, students, and educational systems in the context of dramatic social and political change.⁴¹

The Russian teachers interviewed said that teacher exchange programmes to the United States, Canada, China, and Finland were instrumental in breaking down stereotypes and overcoming prejudices. Participating teachers changed their instructional practices by adopting active teaching methods. The case study also explained teachers' motivation to put new teaching techniques into practice: the '*pioneering effect*' gave international teachers the sense that they had learned leading educational theories and pedagogical techniques. Returning teachers felt charged with sharing new ways of thinking with colleagues and students, and viewed themselves as laying the groundwork for their country's new educational system. Additionally, having seen different educational approaches in practice, the '*eyewitness effect*' instilled in Russian teachers the belief that reform and new methods of teaching were possible in Russia.

Though this case study is limited from broad generalisation by the unique time and place under which these programmes were initiated, it adds valuable insight about the benefits of teacher exchange programmes and begins to document what teachers and administrators have intuitively known to be true about international opportunities for teachers. Exchange programmes open teachers' minds and lead them to be more inclusive and understanding of different points of view. Teachers learn from one another and come away from global exchange programmes with greater professional competency. Lastly, exchange opportunities motivate teachers to innovate and reinforce teachers' passion for educating children.

Further research to investigate the characteristics of professional exchange programmes that are most effective in fostering professional growth and the impact on student learning would be a valuable contribution to the literature on this topic.

³⁹ Wilson, "*Teachers as Short-Term International Sojourners*", 1984.

⁴⁰ Wilson, "*Returned Peace Corps Volunteers*", 1986.

⁴¹ Rapoport, "*The Impact of International Programs*", 2008.

Examples of programmes

FRANCE

The Jules Verne programme is a teacher exchange programme sponsored by the French Ministry of Education. It is open to fully trained and certified primary and secondary school teachers from France to live and teach abroad for one to two years, allowing them to immerse themselves in the culture, language, and civilisation of the host country. The goal of the programme is to develop reciprocal educational exchanges between school districts in France and other countries in order to strengthen international and cultural relations.

The French Minister of Education and the partner state sign a temporary posting agreement in which the host country identifies the educational institution to which the teacher will be assigned, in agreement with the French local education authority and the teacher in question. The teacher's work obligations and holiday entitlement are defined by the host country. Elementary teachers are certified to teach general elementary school classes. Secondary teachers are certified to teach one of a variety of subjects, including (but not limited to) French language and literature, history, geography, math, and science. All participants must be highly proficient in both spoken and written English.

SPAIN

The Spanish Ministry of Education, Culture, and Sport (MECD) supports numerous programmes that offer teachers placements in partner country public schools, Spanish government schools abroad, and European schools in order to facilitate cultural exchange between countries. One such programme is the Profesores Visitantes (PPVV) scheme that began in 1986 as an exchange programme between Spain and the State of California and is now the largest overseas programme sponsored by the Ministry. The programme currently facilitates exchanges for primary and secondary teachers with 35 U.S. states, as well as Canada and Germany. In the 2012-13 school years, more than 1,000 Spanish teachers worked in public schools through this highly competitive programme.⁴² Visiting teachers may instruct any grade or subject for which they are qualified, from Pre-K to high school math and science. Though most visiting teachers instruct in English, some also staff International Spanish Academies (ISAs), bilingual programmes collaboratively developed between the Ministry and partner governments, where they teach in both English and Spanish.

Spanish teachers working in the United States enter on a three-year J-1 visa, which is designated for cross-cultural and educational exchange opportunities. Teachers are

⁴² *Ministerio de Educación, Cultura, y Deporte. Statistics by type of programme.*



directly employed by the school in which they work and, as such, their working conditions follow the local collective bargaining agreement where there is one. They can belong to a union and be represented should a grievance arise. Teachers who have completed the civil service exams in Spain are guaranteed employment in the area where they previously taught when they return. Reentry provisions are reassuring not only to teachers but, equally, to school administrators who appreciate faculty with international experience and have been pleased with teachers' performance after having returned.

UNITED STATES

The U.S. government began to sponsor and fund international exchanges through the Fulbright Classroom Teacher Exchange Program shortly after the end of the Second World War. However, funding has been successively reduced. In 2012-13, the programme placed teachers in only five countries: The Czech Republic, Hungary, India, Mexico, and the United Kingdom. When fully functioning, Fulbright provided opportunities for full-time teachers with at least five years of teaching experience to participate in direct exchanges of positions with colleagues from other countries for a semester or a year. Teachers exchanged classroom teaching assignments and related school duties. US teachers were granted a leave of absence with pay and benefits while international teachers were generally paid by their home schools and replaced their U.S. counterparts at no additional cost to the hosting school.

The Fulbright programme is widely recognised for its high quality, and programme participants were carefully screened and matched with international applicants. While abroad, they were supported by the international cooperating agency and also assigned a mentor at their matched school. While the programme was designed to improve mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of other countries, exchange teachers reported other direct benefits: gaining an in-depth understanding of a foreign educational system and culture, development of a range of professional skills, learning new and innovative teaching practices, and improving their foreign language skills.

Fulbright exchanges have also resulted in continuing relationships between schools, some of which established their own student and faculty exchanges and Internet links. Upon their return, exchange teachers have numerous opportunities to remain connected to the programme and nearly 300,000 Fulbright alumni worldwide.⁴³

Union Engagement Strategy: International Teacher Swap as Member Benefit

Beginning in the mid-1980s, the Independent Education Union (IEU) of New South Wales, Australia acted as the coordinating body for teacher exchanges with partner organisations in Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom, and with European international schools. For the duration of one school year, teachers from the two countries directly swap jobs and homes and return to their original classrooms upon completion of the programme. Teachers are required to have a minimum of five years' classroom experience and, in order to complete a match, teachers must be fully qualified to instruct their partner's grade or subject. While abroad, each teacher retains employment status with their home school and continues to earn the same salary and benefits that they would in their home country.

The union, in partnership with overseas organisations, reviews outgoing and incoming teacher candidates to find matches for similarly qualified teachers. Once a match is identified, the union serves as the visa sponsor of the incoming teacher. IEU hosts an orientation to acclimate visiting teachers to the Australian educational system and organises a pre-departure meeting with recently returned alumni for Australian teachers who will be going abroad. An important benefit of the teacher swap programme is that participants retain affiliation with the IEU while overseas and, through agreements with unions in partner countries, teachers have complimentary representation in the host country should a problem arise. Likewise, the IEU is committed to representing foreign teachers while they are in Australia.

Though matching teachers' qualifications, location preference, and housing needs can be complicated and time consuming, the union has found that the programme is highly beneficial to teachers and to the union. The union reports that offering teacher swaps as a member benefit has helped to grow and engage the membership. Participants tell the union that the programme helped to refresh their passion for teaching and both teachers and principals find value in the programme. Teacher swaps offer teachers the opportunity to change their environment for a short period of time, while guaranteeing job security upon their return. This type of professional challenge can go a long way to help retain mid-career teachers in the profession. By their reciprocal nature, swaps avoid resource depleting effects that may be present in other types of teacher migration. The balance of human capital and financial resources between sending and receiving countries offers a sustainable model for teacher mobility.

IEU received the following quote from a returning teacher. It speaks volumes regarding the union-building potential of offering such a member benefit:

"My family and I did an exchange to the USA last year (2012). The union was instrumental in supporting the process and providing us advice we



could trust. As a long time union member with limited interaction with the union, it has given me an opportunity to see the union in action, supporting its members. Without the guidance and support of the union, I may never have had such an opportunity. Also, providing such an opportunity to members encourages collegial discussion about the value and necessity of union membership, helping to recruit new members, and reaffirm existing members."

Ben Arthurs

A Teacher's Voice: Expanding horizons through job swap, Angeles Manzanaque

Manzanaque, a teacher from Spain, swapped jobs and houses with a Canadian teacher for one year.



"One of the major advantages of a teacher swap is the opportunity to get to know a school very different from your own and to experience it thoroughly, so much so that you are part of it. It is not the same to read a book about the educational system of the country; you have to live it fully. Also, it permits you to know a different teaching methodology. You observe and you learn to plan according to the guidelines that they use there

and that, in many aspects, are different than ours. You have the experience of seeing how the family relations are, the diversity of the students, the pedagogical criteria followed for the students with special learning needs, and the evaluation criteria. Of all of this, you learn and you acquire a more ample vision of distinct educational models.

I must say that the experience in Canada has made me more open to other horizons and has created certain interest in learning about other educational systems outside of my country, other centres, other professionals... In the future, I would like to participate in another programme that would allow me to share my teaching experience in yet another country. Now I can say with clarity that teaching abroad has been the most enriching experience of my professional career. My advice to other teachers going abroad is to integrate yourself fully in the destination school. Participate in cultural excursions, extra-curricular activities, etc. It is a unique opportunity and you have to take advantage of it fully. Get close to the professionals that are available to help you. Share your ideas, relate your doubts, and always ask for advice when you need it. Keep in mind that, for you, everything is very new and they have the experience. Create ties between the two schools wherever it is possible, this will be very beneficial not only for you, but especially for your students and your colleagues."

HIRING MODEL #2— LANGUAGE AND CURRICULAR PROGRAMMES

Characteristics of Language and Curricular Programmes

Many teachers travel the world to support language acquisition programmes. Through these programmes, native speakers of a target language provide foreign language instruction to students in overseas schools. In general, programmes can be categorised as either inbound or outbound in terms of the directional flow of participating teachers. Inbound programmes recruit native speakers of a priority language from abroad to satisfy instructional needs. Economic development goals and national interest objectives have typically been the motivations for inbound language programmes, which strive to equip young people for a globalised world. Outbound programmes, on the other hand, are designed to promote a country's mother tongue and culture among speakers of other languages. The focus of outbound programmes tends to be around diplomacy, international cooperation, and relationship building.

Many countries have emphasised language learning and cultural awareness among top educational priorities. As part of a defined development strategy, both Georgia and the United Arab Emirates have increased English instruction and have recruited teachers from the US, Canada, and Australia to provide classes. At the same time, students in English-speaking countries are learning Chinese, Arabic, Hindi, and Japanese. New curriculum mandates often generate staffing needs that go beyond the capacity of the local teaching force – the recruitment of international teachers can be an attractive solution. However, if language initiatives are to be long-term priorities, educational authorities must consider ways to train and develop local teachers to deliver quality instruction.

While some language programmes studied for this report require candidates to be fully qualified as foreign language instructors, others have far less rigorous selection criterion. In some cases, programmes admit candidates who are native speakers of a target language but lack professional training as teachers. Teaching in a foreign country is challenging, even for seasoned experts. Specifically, classroom management skills are a common deficiency reported by international teachers who are unaccustomed to the demands of teaching overseas. Without the proper credentials and experience, novice teachers in a foreign country encounter many challenges in the day-to-day responsibilities of leading a classroom. Under such conditions, a student's chance to study and master a language is limited. Research shows that students learn best from teachers

⁴⁴ Jackson, "Foreign Language Policies Around the World"; Henry, "Foreign languages to be compulsory", 2013.

⁴⁵ Dillon, "Foreign languages fade in class"; "Will Americans Really Learn Chinese?" 2010.

⁴⁶ Fricano, "Teachers from China overcome culture shock", 2013.

⁴⁷ Medgyes, "Native or Non-Native", 1992.



with a high level of language competency who are also professionally prepared to teach a foreign language. For this reason, this report's research supports rigorous programme requirements to ensure that qualified teachers are selected for opportunities abroad and there is ongoing support to foreign teachers who may require assistance in adjusting to a new educational environment.

A related issue deals with the exclusion or disparate treatment of teachers based on national origin. In South Korea, for example, to qualify for an E2 visa to teach a foreign language, candidates must provide proof that they are citizens of a "first" English-speaking country. Accepted countries include the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, England, Ireland, and South Africa.⁴⁸ Effectively, teachers from other countries – who may have a deep knowledge of the language and hold well-recognised credentials – are excluded from teaching English in South Korea on the basis of their national origin. Interviews and surveys of English language teachers in the United Arab Emirates revealed a distinct preference for teachers from the United States, Canada, and Australia. One benefit of language proficiency tests, such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) or The European Language Certificates (TELC), is that they set standard credentials for candidates regardless of country of origin. International labour standards make clear that educational authorities must avoid disparate treatment of teachers based on their nationality and grant equal opportunity to candidates based on the strength of their credentials.

Survey Highlights

The majority of foreign language teachers in the EI global survey were certified to teach abroad. Out of a total of 540 foreign language teachers, only 59 (11 per cent), were not certified. Of the uncertified, 22 had not worked as teachers in their home country, with previous occupations that included lawyer, management consultant, salesperson, psychologist, and winery worker.

" The programme (Teach and Learn Georgia) did not require certification, only a Bachelor. You could take TOEFL classes in tandem with teaching, but I decided not to. I used this opportunity to decide whether I would get certified for future opportunities."

Respondent (American working in Georgia)

" They didn't care about a credential; after I was hired, they asked me what I wanted to teach."

Respondent (science teacher who also taught English spelling and grammar, but was not a teacher before going to Honduras)

Of the survey respondents recruited to teach a language, 96 per cent felt that their pedagogy had benefitted from the experience, with 84 per cent of those who answered the question reporting that they had learned new instructional methods and approaches and had improved their language competency. Not surprisingly, the largest percentage (89 per cent) reported that they had broadened their world view and cultural competency.

Pedagogy of Effective Language Instruction

There are differing opinions about the effectiveness of native or non-native speaking foreign language instructors. However, research has shown that both native and non-native speaking foreign language teachers can excel in the classroom. The difference between native and non-native teachers lies in how they speak the language and the unique skills that each brings to students' learning experiences. Native speakers possess a deep understanding of the nuances of the target language and are attuned to regional differences in how it is spoken. Non-native speakers are more adept at anticipating challenges learners will face and can be more effective at teaching learning strategies.⁴⁹ In a study of student perceptions of native and non-native language instructors, researchers found that, on the one hand, students felt they could learn more about pronunciation and culture from native speakers, while they preferred the grammar and vocabulary teaching methods of non-native speakers.⁵⁰

The critical factor in effectiveness, therefore, is not whether a teacher is a native speaker. Rather, pedagogical preparation and experience determine a teacher's strength as a language instructor. Numerous studies cite native-speaking foreign language instructors' under-preparation as a contributing cause of programme failure.⁵¹ Inexperienced teachers often struggle in their classrooms, and that can have a negative impact on the overall school culture.⁵²

Interviews and teacher surveys conducted for this research revealed some instances in which discrepancies in pay between international foreign language teachers and local teachers bred distrust among faculty members. Granting international teachers higher pay, particularly in cases where they do not possess qualifications equal to those of local teachers, can be harmful to teachers' sense of collegiality and can create a strained learning environment for students.

Education researchers generally agree on the abilities language instructors should possess. Language teachers must demonstrate strong competence in the target language,

⁴⁹ Medgyes, "Native or Non-Native", 1992.

⁵⁰ Hertel and Sunderman, "Student attitudes", 2009.

⁵¹ Schrier, "Preparing Teachers of Critical languages", 1994.

⁵² *Ibid.*



understand the structure of the language, and be knowledgeable about the culture of countries where it is spoken. Additionally, foreign language teachers should be knowledgeable of how students learn languages and should be trained in the pedagogical skills appropriate to the level they will be instructing.⁵³ Native speakers will have a natural advantage in displaying some of these characteristics. However, research shows that a migrant teacher's pedagogical practice is highly influenced by the learning environment of his or her home country.⁵⁴ Migrant teachers who will be introduced to a new teaching and learning environment will require additional professional development to be adequately prepared to teach students in a setting different from that with which they are familiar.⁵⁵

Examples of Language Importing Programmes

REPUBLIC OF GEORGIA

Teach and Learn with Georgia (TLG) is an English language programme started by the Ministry of Education in 2010, among other wide-ranging education reforms. Then President Mikhail Saakashvili was personally involved in the launch of the programme, making compulsory English language instruction a centrepiece of his "educational revolution". Ministry reports make clear that TLG is intended not only to improve English language proficiency, but also to promote development more broadly by exposing Georgians to Western values and culture.⁵⁶

The programme invites native speaking "volunteer" teachers to work in Georgian public schools teaching English and introducing new methodologies and ideas. In the first year of implementation, 1,000 volunteer teachers were recruited to Georgia through TLG, and the programme touted their impact as a great success.⁵⁷

Despite calling these teachers "volunteers", the programme offers accommodation with a local host family, provides medical insurance, covers travel costs and one flight home per year, and compensates them approximately US\$300 per month. That salary is roughly three times as much as Georgian public school teachers earn. Despite calling these volunteers "teachers", the programme requires no teaching experience or training whatsoever. The eligibility criteria are merely that candidates be native English speakers with two years of post-secondary education and a clean criminal and medical record.⁵⁸ Indeed, TLG teachers interviewed for this project had no prior experience

⁵³ National Foreign Language Center, *The Teachers We Need*, 2010.

⁵⁴ Haley and Ferro, "Understanding the Perceptions of Arabic and Chinese Teachers". 2011.

⁵⁵ *Ibid.*

⁵⁶ <http://www.tlg.gov.ge/>

⁵⁷ *Ibid.*

⁵⁸ *Ibid.*

in teaching. They were interested in seeing the world, and the programme offered them a chance to do so. Although the programme purports to track progress in areas such as lesson planning and preparation, co-teaching, teaching methods, classroom management, and evaluation of student outcomes, school administration support, and extra-curricular activities, the teachers indicated that there was nominal oversight of or support for pedagogical efforts.

*"Teach and Learn Georgia is a good programme and I hope it's a worthwhile investment in Georgia's future... In a way, though, it's like buying an espresso machine before you've built a kitchen. There are so many obstacles preventing this cadre of foreign teachers from doing their jobs effectively, and I often wonder whether the government would be better off focusing on fundamentals first — buying books for all students, training teachers in modern techniques (as opposed to the translation-and-memorisation doctrine that is currently rampant), paying Georgian teachers a living wage, better accountability metrics, etc."*⁵⁹

James Norton, TLG teacher from the United States

UNITED STATES

The U.S. Department of State operates an exchange visitor programme with 15 different categories of exchanges, one of those being for teachers. The programme facilitates intercultural experiences for thousands of people from around the world each year, and 1,208 exchange visas were issued for teachers in 2011. This popular diplomacy effort, though government initiated, is structured to rely on designated sponsors to recruit exchange participants and place them in U.S. schools. While many of the official sponsors of teacher exchanges are schools or departments of education, others are private companies. The sponsor that has historically placed the most exchange teachers is VIF Education (VIF).

VIF was founded in 1998 as Visiting International Faculty with the mission of expanding students' exposure to world cultures.⁶⁰ Although VIF was designed as a language exchange programme for teachers, administrators began using the agency to fill gaps in other difficult-to-staff subjects during a period of U.S. teacher shortages. The misalignment of teacher expectations and programme design led to a decrease in satisfaction with the programme and VIF eventually made the business decision to refocus on the company's core function.⁶¹

⁵⁹ "American Voices, Far From Home", 2011.

⁶⁰ Fricano, "Teachers from China", 2013.

⁶¹ Author interview with VIF founder David Young, July 2013.



Today, VIF exclusively recruits Spanish and Chinese language teachers and envisions schools as global learning centres in which international teachers serve as cultural ambassadors to their host schools and communities. VIF is also actively engaged in a multi-stakeholder effort to develop a U.S. Code of Ethical International Recruitment of Teachers. More than 700 past and current VIF teachers completed this survey and more than 90 per cent of them indicated that they believed that their contract was fair and the programme met or exceeded their expectations.

Examples of Language Exporting Programmes

EUROPEAN PROGRAMMES

In contrast to models of importing teachers to offer instruction in a desired language, other national governments have established programmes to promote the study of their culture and mother language abroad. The French government supports an extensive network of Lycées, staffed by French, international, and local teachers to offer mainly French instruction to students on a fee-for-enrolment basis. The Lycées use the French curriculum, but some also have a local curriculum. L'Agence pour l'Enseignement Français à l'Étranger (Agency for French Teaching Abroad) in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs has 470 schools in its worldwide network. Teachers can be hired under different contracts depending on whether they are French nationals working as expatriates, local residents, or recruited to work under local law. Those hired to work under the Ministry are civil servants who retain benefits, are paid according to the civil service pay scale, and remain union members.

Since 1957, the member states of the European Union have jointly supported a network of European Schools. There are currently 14 schools in the network that employ local and international staff. By drawing teachers from around the European Union, each school could have as many language offerings as official languages spoken in the Union. All of the schools in the network have a strong emphasis on language learning, and some are designated as immersion programmes.

The Spanish government sponsors a number of programmes designed to promote the Spanish language and culture abroad. Spanish Centres abroad are schools that offer an entirely Spanish curriculum taught in Spanish. These schools enrol predominantly local students from kindergarten through high school and offer a diploma equivalent to a Spanish high school degree. The Spanish government has also initiated agreements with educational authorities in Argentina and Brazil to establish 'Mixed Centres' that offer a dual curriculum and employ both Spanish and local teachers.

Table 4.2 Spanish teachers' overseas placements through the Ministry of Education

Teacher overseas placements through the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Sport* (2012-13)							
Andorra	86	United Kingdom	63	Belgium	52	Switzerland	50
Colombia	52	Argentina	51	Alicante, Sp.	21	Bulgaria	15
France	114	Brazil	154	Luxembourg	17	China	2
Italy	55	Germany	50	Australia	7	Slovakia	29
Morocco	351	USA	1105	Austria	1	Hungary	18
Portugal	75	Netherlands	8	Canada	46	Poland	30
Czech Republic	20	Romania	10	Russia	9	Turkey	1

Source: Ministerio de Educación, Cultura, y Deporte, "La Acción Educativa en el Exterior".

CHINA

Hanban, the Office of Chinese Language Council International, a non-governmental organisation under the Chinese Ministry of Education, was established to promote exchange between China and other countries and strengthen the teaching of Chinese as a foreign language. Chinese Embassies and Consulate Generals help Hanban to establish cooperative relationships with education ministries, educational institutions, organisations, and associations of Chinese language teachers. These agreements often include the placement of Chinese language teaching advisors and teachers to primary and secondary schools and universities in other countries. The teacher placement programme has two tiers: the Volunteer Chinese Teachers Program and the Government Sponsored Teachers Program.

Started in 2004, the Volunteer Program primarily recruits recent liberal arts graduates with a Bachelor's degree or above. Volunteers are placed overseas for one year initially, with the option to stay up to three years if they receive strong evaluations from host institutions. Hanban offers volunteers training, a living allowance, and international travel costs, but no salary. Local hosts are expected to provide housing, medical care, and local transportation. By the end of 2012, Hanban had dispatched more than 18,000 volunteers to 101 countries.⁶²

By contrast, the Government-sponsored Teacher Program is smaller and more selective. In 2006, there were 357 posts for government-sponsored teachers, covering 92 countries. Unlike Volunteers, these teachers are required to have at least two years of classroom experience, in addition to a degree and language fluency. The placement is generally for a two-year term.

Hanban's growth has been rapid and its reach is expansive. As of 2013, it reported 429 Confucius Institutes and another 629 Confucius Classrooms in 115 countries, with

⁶² http://english.hanban.org/node_9807.htm



more than 10,000 teachers and volunteers working in and through them. Interest in learning Chinese is also increasing rapidly. The number of foreigners taking the Chinese proficiency test rose from 117,660 in 2005 to 3.5 million in 2012.⁶³

Example of Curricular Programmes

INTERNATIONAL SCHOOLS

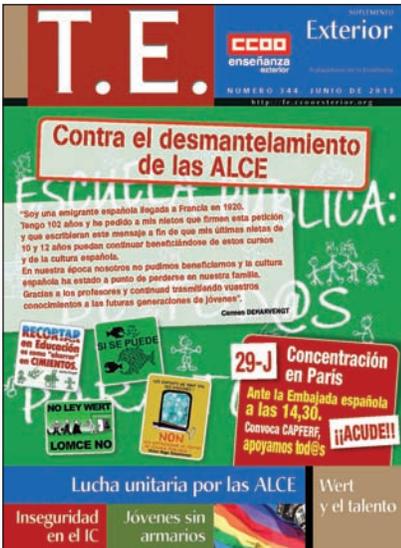
The International Schools Consultancy Group estimates that three million children worldwide are currently being educated in international schools. They predict that the rapid expansion of this network will continue over the next decade, with the number of schools increasing from its current level of 6,000 to as many 10,000. While there are not firm criteria for what constitutes an international school, they are all privately run and follow a curriculum different from that of the country in which they operate. According to the International Association of School Librarianship, one of the other characteristics of international schools is a transient and multinational teacher population.

While international schools were not a focus of this study due to the unique nature of their structure and their lack of significant connection to public education, it should be acknowledged that there is a massive subculture of teacher migrants who travel the world to staff international schools. As might be expected, these teachers communicate extensively via the internet and social media to share experiences, advice, and warnings about specific schools, communities, and administrators. International Schools Review, an internet based network of international educators shares a treasure trove of such user-driven feedback. In addition, a number of teachers who completed the EI survey had worked in international schools.

Union Engagement Strategies Communicating with Members Abroad

Many of the teachers who work in Spanish government overseas programmes maintain their status as civil servants. The Spanish unions continue to represent teachers while they are overseas, and though they do not negotiate wages, the unions engage with the Ministry on other terms and conditions of employment.

FECCOO, one of the unions representing Spanish workers in the educational sector, has formed a division devoted to representing overseas teachers. In collaboration with the Ministry, the union offers professional development courses specifically designed for teachers who have been accepted to international postings. The union also



produces a monthly newsletter to keep members informed of issues related to international programmes and union activities. In order to be eligible for a post abroad, teachers must have three years of experience and complete a rigorous application that includes language test, written exam and a practical planning and assessment exercise. Typically, teachers are posted for five to six years and can reapply or return to their position in Spain. While abroad, teachers are subject to the civil servant pay scale and may receive additional compensation according to location.

Monthly Newsletter produced by FECCOO Exterior. Cover story: Against the dismantling of the ALCE (Language and Culture Centers Abroad).

Influencing the structure of language programmes

In 2009, the Malaysian government announced a plan to phase out their policy of using English as the medium of instruction. Among the reasons cited by the education minister was the risk of undermining students' grasp of their first languages, as well as the fact that the policy had exposed the dearth of Malaysian teachers who were prepared to deliver instruction in English. This gap was exacerbated by outward migration of English speaking teachers to Brunei and Singapore, which began in the 1980s and continues today. The gap was particularly acute in rural schools because many English option teachers prefer to serve in urban areas. Rural students' performance in math and science had begun to drop as a result.

In an effort to both stem teachers leaving and to meet ambitious national mandates for improved instruction and performance outcomes with English taught as a priority foreign language, the National Union of the Teaching Profession (NUTP) has negotiated with the Ministry of Education to ensure teachers get the support they need to teach in-country. This includes promotion opportunities and a better career path. The former is in part facilitated by up to 14,000 School Improvement Specialist Coaches (SISC+), trained by the ministry. These peer mentors are part of an extensive programme to "improve Bahasa Malaysia, English and Mathematics" by providing job-embedded professional support.⁶⁴ SISC+ works with schools where just one in ten students

⁶⁴ Olivia Miwil, "Sabah chosen to pioneer education transformation", *New Straits Times*, January 23, 2013, <http://www.nst.com.my/nation/general/sabah-chosen-to-pioneer-education-transformation-1.206142>.



has successfully passed national exams. Coaches see their work as a “tough task, but something need to be done”.⁶⁵

Though primarily filled by Malay teachers, some migrant teachers have also been recruited to ensure that participants “learn new ideas and teaching techniques”, as well as “gather best teaching experience”, as the NUTP described in an email correspondence. Indeed, Malar Raj writes on her blog, Cease to Learn–Cease to Teach: “Because peer review can lead to changes in employment, teacher unions often have been involved in the implementation and evaluation of peer review programs.”⁶⁶ This represents an important example of union engagement to influence the structure of international recruitment programmes to support meaningful professional development and language acquisition.

A Teacher’s Voice: Reflections of a transnational teacher, Damianne President



“I have been working overseas for 10 years. As a student, I never considered working overseas. However, I graduated with my Bachelor of Education when there was a shortage of jobs for teachers. I needed a full time job to meet my responsibilities and, in my job search, came across a job fair for international schools. I attended the fair, having been warned by the recruitment agency that it was unlikely that I would find a job there as a new teacher, and was offered three jobs. Out of Trinidad, Colombia and India, the last seemed most interesting. The school in India was a for-profit school. We were given housing, a yearly ticket to our home of record, and a salary. All utilities were paid. However, it was sometimes challenging to get resources at the school, which was a constant reminder of the commercial nature of school.

Since India, I’ve worked in not-for-profit schools in Sudan, Japan, and the Czech Republic. They have all been international schools with international curricula. Benefits have included medical insurance and housing. Japan and the Czech Republic were the most generous, with some dental and vision medical insurance as well as a retirement contribution from the school.

My first three schools were small K-12 schools and there was always a lot to do. There were frequent complaints from teachers of being overworked because we were all involved in curriculum development and other school improvement initiatives. This

⁶⁵ Norizan, “SISC – School Improvement Specialist Coach Program”, *Cikgu_izan Blog*, July 26, 2011, <http://cikgu-izan.blogspot.com/2011/07/sisc-school-improvement-specialist.html#!/2011/07/sisc-school-improvement-specialist.html>.

⁶⁶ See <http://malar2teach.blogspot.com/2011/06/school-improvement-specialist-coach.html>

translated to lots of meetings and other work besides teaching. The positive aspect of this focus on school improvement is the ability to innovate in the classroom, with a focus on collaboration, creativity, and authentic learning. I find the opportunity to be a teacher-leader and change agent very appealing in the international schools that I've chosen to work in.

To me, teaching in international schools allows me greater freedom to teach. I know that there are stateside schools that have similar programmes but the bureaucracy of the U.S. and Canada is daunting to me. Additionally, if I were to return to Canada to work in public schools now, I would be starting out as a new teacher and my international experience would be given no value. That alone is a huge deterrent to returning "home". The other is the fact that I am third-culture and Canada no longer feels like home."

HIRING MODEL #3 – SHORTAGE HIRING

Characteristics of Shortage Hiring

Shortage hiring responds to market failures and mismatches in supply and demand in a teacher labour market that is increasingly global. Unable or unwilling to meet their staffing needs locally, a growing number of countries have looked abroad to find teachers with skills and qualifications who will accept the wages and working conditions on offer. As a result, internationally recruited teachers are often placed in hard-to-staff schools providing instruction in the hardest-to-fill subject areas with little professional support. Job security for these teachers can be uncertain, as restrictions imposed by their visa, employer, or recruiter often limit the length of time they can stay in the host country, the rights they have on the job and in society, and even their ability to travel with their families. Because these teachers are sought to fill staffing needs, rather than with the intention of diversifying the curriculum or the faculty, their "foreign" status is not always valued and respected, with many reporting that they face unequal treatment.

In the shortage model, the countries with the greatest resources attract teachers, rather than the countries with the greatest need. Extensive recruitment from abroad can create both quantitative and qualitative shortages in source countries, many of which can ill afford to lose their most effective and best trained teachers. Without regulation and oversight, the dynamics of shortage hiring could undermine efforts to achieve the Education for All goals.

Generally, trends toward hiring from abroad to fill shortages tend to align with a diminution of teacher status. Rather than raising wages or improving working conditions to attract local teachers, employers cast a more global search net. In her study of the experiences of South African teachers working in the UK, Manik put it this way, "Although

teachers were regarded as professionals, the working hours were long, the pay was relatively unattractive, and there was a lack of autonomy at all levels.”⁶⁷ Placing internationally recruited teachers into hard-to-staff positions does little to address the causes of shortages, and may serve to mask systemic issues.

The best alternative to international recruitment to fill shortages is long range workforce planning and investment in both source and destination countries. Where shortage hiring is undertaken, it should be done following ethical standards such as those set out in the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol, and it should be part of a search for lasting staffing solutions, affording teachers a path to permanence should they choose it.

Survey Highlights

Shortage hiring exploits global income inequalities to attract teachers. Salary differentials and job availability are motivators or “pull” factors for teachers in this model. Teachers from prominent labour exporting countries responded to this report’s survey in significantly different ways than teachers who were pursuing professional or cultural exchanges overseas. Overall, only 38 per cent of teachers indicated that their top motivation for migrating to another country was to earn higher salaries or support their families. However, income considerations were the primary motivations for teachers from the Philippines (79 per cent) and India (73 per cent). This contrasted sharply with the lower percentages of teachers from Spain (24 per cent), Colombia (20 per cent), and the United States (20 per cent) who moved in order to earn higher wages or support their families.

Table 4.3 Teacher motivations for working abroad, by top five source countries

Motivation*	Total N=1358	Philippines N=235	India N=172	Spain N=135	Colombia N=161	U.S. N=94
Better Pay	26%	53%	64%	10%	13%	13%
Support Family	12%	26%	9%	14%	7%	7%
Professional Development	37%	35%	13%	39%	68%	13%
See the World	26%	16%	6%	36%	21%	45%
Lack of Jobs at Home	7%	3%	1%	16%	8%	11%
Instability at Home	7%	3%	0%	14%	7%	6%
Life Change	16%	14%	7%	13%	13%	22%
Other	8%	5%	5%	7%	7%	14%

⁶⁷ Manik, “Globalization and Transnational Teachers”, 2006.

Table 4.4 Subjects recruited to teach, by top five countries

Subject*	Total N=1270	Philippines N=209	India N=173	Spain N=118	Colombia N=152	U.S. N=86
Math	20%	27%	15%	7%	18%	14%
Science	20%	24%	39%	7%	17%	12%
Special Education	7%	32%	2%	2%	1%	0%
Foreign Language	43%	2%	25%	75%	93%	58%
Other	32%	25%	34%	31%	11%	44%

*Note: Some teachers reported multiple subjects taught, resulting in totals that may exceed 100%

Trend toward Temporary Work

Regardless of their personal motivations or aspirations, a mere 17 per cent of global survey respondents had permanent visa status while working abroad and 81 per cent were offered fixed term contracts, making their positions precarious by definition. While temporary status may be logical or even desirable for professional and cultural exchanges, it poses serious concerns for both rights and quality when used to address critical shortages.

Global unions have long called attention to the dangers of the expansion of temporary and precarious work and, in this context, international recruitment can accelerate troubling trends. According to a 2010 statement, “The surge of temporary workers has contributed to a general erosion of workers’ ability to exercise their rights, to join trade unions and to bargain collectively with their employers.”⁶⁸ Moreover, when undertaken in the education sector, temporary work can exacerbate concerns over teacher turnover, often in the neediest schools.

A 2013 study of immigration policies in 46 high and middle income countries makes clear that employer dependent temporary visa programmes are the dominant model for bringing in workers of all skill levels, although higher skilled workers are more likely to have an eventual path to permanence.⁶⁹ Only about 10 per cent of destination countries in this study would offer permanent access upon entry to workers with a Bachelor’s degree or equivalent, the level most commonly required of teachers. The vast majority of teachers would need to wait at least five years before becoming eligible to upgrade to permanent status if they were afforded a path at all.

To the extent that international recruitment for shortages continues under temporary visa schemes, it may contribute to the broader trend of casualisation of the teaching

⁶⁸ *Global Unions, “Where is the GFMD’s Contribution?” 2010.*

⁶⁹ *Ruhs, The Price of Rights, 2013.*



profession. Moreover, the use of temporary workers to fill critical shortages demonstrates a misalignment between immigration, labour, and education policy.

Global Teacher Shortage

Although limited in its scope, the majority of research on teacher migration has focused on the impact of shortage hiring trends. Chapter 2 of this report describes the evolution of the research of this model in some detail and provides a valuable point of reference. The scholarship on shortage hiring finds that the emergence of global labour markets has led to a rapid increase in international migration across professions. Researchers have documented flows of significant numbers of teachers leaving developing countries in order to teach in developed countries, with potentially serious consequences for economic and human development in the source countries.

Strong public health and education systems are essential for any society's development.⁷¹ In recognition of that, the Millennium Development Goals call for universal primary education by 2015, a goal that would require the hiring an estimated additional 1.7 million teachers worldwide.⁷² According to UNESCO, "The shortage of well-trained teachers impedes all development efforts, denying young people of the quality instruction needed for today's knowledge societies."⁷³ Within this global context, the continued international recruitment of teachers to fill shortages in developed nations raises significant concerns.

Some argue that countries of origin benefit from "trickle-up", a theory that locates the burden of benefits to source countries squarely on the shoulders of individual migrant workers.⁷⁴ They assert that remittances offset the loss of human capital through the influx of income to the place where it is needed most – the household and local level. The labour movement has long taken issue with this notion:

"Trade unions have expressed concerns about the fact that some developing countries are pro-actively seeking to export their labor because they view the attendant remittance generation as a development strategy. Receiving countries of migrants are complicit in this approach, as it sub serves their needs for filling labor market shortages. Trade unions maintain that while remittances are beneficial to the family recipients concerned, they cannot be viewed as integral to sustainable development. Remittance policies should therefore not be adopted as part of national development strategies."⁷⁵

⁷⁰ See for example Ochs, "Review of the Implementation of the Commonwealth Teacher Protocol", 2007 and 2009.

⁷¹ International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis, "Education, not fertility, key for economic development", 2013.

⁷² Education International/Global Campaign for Education, "Closing the Trained Teacher Gap", 2012.

⁷³ UNESCO eAtlas of Teachers.

⁷⁴ See for example Agunias, "Remittances and Development", 2006.

⁷⁵ Global Unions, "Constructing an Architecture", 2008.

It is imperative that migration policies consider the impact in source countries of the loss of service providers, many of whom are trained through public investment.

Examples of Labour Exporting Countries

PHILIPPINES



Research indicates that remittances improve the standard of living for the majority of families with migrant members.⁷⁶ However, a review of poverty, education, and health indicators over time suggests that remittances alone have not been sufficient to spur broad-based development in the Philippines. To compound the concerns, there is evidence that the loss of nurses and teachers is hurting public health and education delivery.

The Philippines is an important model to study, not just because of the volume of nurses and teachers it sends abroad, but also because the Philippine government has built an extensive bureaucratic infrastructure to facilitate the export of workers. An estimated one in seven Filipino workers works abroad⁷⁷ and, by anyone's measure, the Philippines has been tremendously successful in attracting remittances. The country now receives more than \$1 billion per month in formally documented remittances. In the decade from 1998-2007, remittance flows into the Philippines nearly tripled,⁷⁸ demonstrating the effectiveness of the country's labour export programmes and processes. However, an analysis of social indicators over the same period shows far less progress.

The Philippines has the highest teacher-to-student ratio in Asia and in the greater Manila area it is possible to see 100 students or more in a single class.⁷⁹ The often asserted premise that the Philippines has a surplus of teachers is misleading. Put another way, the Philippines does not have a shortage of teachers in the country, but rather has a shortage of teaching positions in the school system due to inadequate funding.⁸⁰

More persuasive than the quantitative concerns about out-migration of teachers are the qualitative issues. The Philippines Overseas Employment Agency (POEA) is the primary

⁷⁶ Agunias, *Remittances and Development*, 2006.

⁷⁷ DeParle, "Good Provider is One Who Leaves", 2007.

⁷⁸ Schelzig, *Poverty in the Philippines*, 2005.

⁷⁹ Author school visits, Greater Manila, Philippines, June, 2009.

⁸⁰ Author interviews, Manila, Philippines, June 2009.



government body responsible for facilitating labour export. Even a report from this body suggests a negative impact from the recruitment it facilitates:

*"In Philippine education, brain drain is said to be evident in both the public and the private school system, though more felt in the former. The fields most vulnerable are special education and elementary and secondary science and mathematics education... Those leaving for teaching jobs abroad are generally those with better credentials. Finding suitable replacements for them is not easy."*⁸¹

Source Country Reinvestment Options

Shortage hiring by countries such as the United States and the United Kingdom essentially allows developed nations to subsidise their health and education systems on the back of the developing world. As such, recruiting countries face a moral imperative to consider ways to broaden the benefits, or mitigate the harm, to source countries for the loss of their essential service providers. A rare and useful description of possible systemic reinvestment models was presented to the UN Expert Group on Migration. The report indicates that:

*"Moving professionals from a developing to a developed country benefits the employers who hire them, the professionals who move, and generally the society in which they work. However, migrant countries of origin may lose important keys to economic development. Three policies can help to promote virtuous rather than vicious circles: having sending countries maintain links to their "stored brainpower" abroad, having receiving countries provide human capital replenishment, and re-examining the content and financing of education in countries sending professionals abroad."*⁸²

Implementation of the proposed "human capital replenishment" would mean that "developed countries could provide Human Capital Replenishment Assistance (HCRA) equivalent to the usual cost of recruitment, 5 to 10 percent of first year earnings. Under such an HCRA program, a country accepting 1,000 nurses or IT engineers earning an average of U.S. \$40,000 a year or a total of \$40 million would provide an additional \$2 to \$4 million to migrant countries of origin".⁸³ Such a programme could help to reduce the negative consequences of current recruitment practices and generate at least some financial return for the human capital investment of sending countries.

⁸¹ POEA, 2006 National Manpower Summit.

⁸² Martin, "Managing Labour Migration", 2005.

⁸³ Ibid.

The financing of education institutions in countries sending professionals abroad also bears consideration. If, indeed, there is a worldwide shortage of teachers, then increasing and improving training opportunities will be essential, and all those who benefit from the training should provide financial support.

INDIA

Although India is also considered to be a prominent labour exporting country, little research has been done to date specifically regarding the out-migration of teachers. New studies are now underway, and the sample size of 178 respondents to this EI survey provides a valuable new window into Indian teachers' motivations and experiences. Notably, the Indian teacher respondents had travelled to 22 different countries for work in nearly every region of the world, confirming that recruitment and hiring patterns are quite diverse.

A recent study by Rashmi Sharma neatly places Indian teacher migration patterns within the shortage hiring model:

*"Migration of teachers from India is on a rise mainly due to shortage of teachers in developed countries which are recruiting teachers to fill these gaps from developing countries... India has increasingly participated in sending teachers for about two decades, however, since 2000, the volume has increased significantly... Education acts as a double loss for the source countries, as through out-migration of teachers a country loses not only its human capital, but also its future developmental base. Teachers are an important component of migration outflows from India, and shortage of well-qualified teachers in the Indian education system makes them even more valuable."*⁸⁴

Within India, the State best known for sending professionals abroad is Kerala. The Keralite population is highly mobile due to a healthy local economy, a degree of prolonged exposure to overseas opportunities, and a tradition of investment in education and particularly education of women and girls.⁸⁵ More than five percent of Keralites work abroad⁸⁶, many of them as professionals – doctors, nurses, teachers, and engineers. Local policies are designed to facilitate migration both out of and back into Kerala. Teachers can take leave for up to 15 years to work abroad and still return to their positions. Kerala officials estimate that 70 per cent of those who leave return to take their pensions, which are generous and structured to be available despite extended stints of overseas work.⁸⁷

⁸⁴ Sharma, "Teachers on the Move", 2013.

⁸⁵ Walton-Roberts and Rajan, "Nurse Emigration from Kerala", 2013.

⁸⁶ The Hindu, "Survey finds only 16.25 lakh NoRKs", 2013.

⁸⁷ Author interviews, Thiruvananthapuram, India, May 2013.



The Centre for Development Studies (CDS), one of the most widely known and respected migration research schools in India, assisted with the collection of responses for this survey, utilising a database of returned Keralite workers to identify the largest known sample of Indian migrant teachers to date. Indian survey results indicate some distinctions from the global sample. Comparatively, Indian respondents were more likely to be male, more likely to teach math or science, and more likely to have moved for income reasons.

CDS researchers also conducted a small companion survey of family members of migrant teachers from Kerala. Thirty two people responded, about half of whom were parents ($n = 15$). The group offered insights into how having a family member teach abroad can impact the family that remains. Nine out of ten respondents reported that having a family member teach abroad had a positive impact on their family. These evaluations were predominantly based on economic considerations. Overwhelmingly, Indian families reported that a migrant teacher helped raise the family's financial standing, improved quality of life, and increased opportunities for a child's education.

Examples of Labour Importing Countries

UNITED STATES

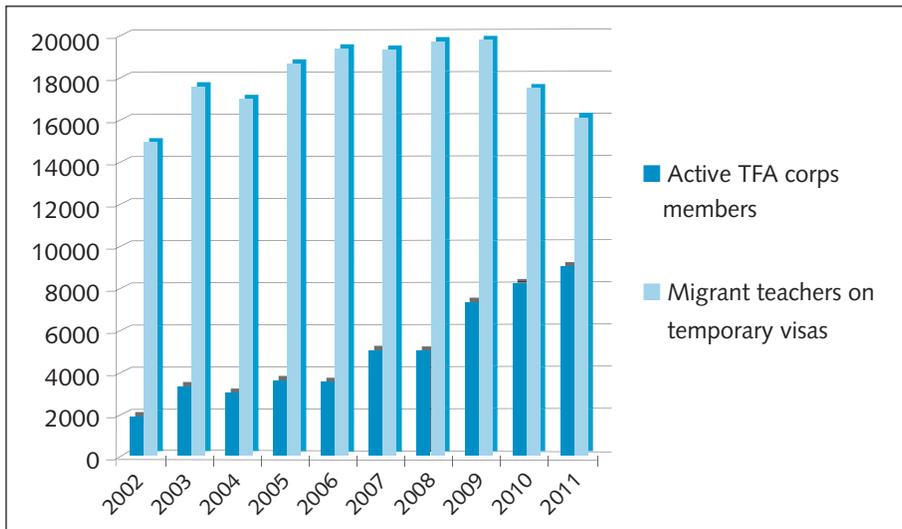
International recruitment has been and can be used explicitly to increase the labour supply in the United States, resulting in depressed wages and working conditions. In 2005, the Heritage Foundation, a U.S. think tank, published a paper in which it advocated recruiting math and science teachers from abroad as more cost effective and efficient than increasing compensation to attract more domestic teachers.⁸⁸ The paper recommended tripling the size of the temporary work visa programme (from 65,000 to 195,000 visas per year) used to bring skilled professionals into the American workforce.

Just as troubling as the reliance on international recruitment to supply teachers to the American education system is the structure of the temporary work visa programme through which the majority of those teachers are hired. The most commonly used visa for teachers, the H-1B "Specialty Occupation" visa, is issued to the employer, rather than to the worker. The employer maintains full control, not just of the migrant's wages and working conditions, but also of his or her ability to remain in the country. Thus, the temporary and employer-controlled nature of the work visa can erode job security, undermine union negotiated due process protections, and exacerbate teacher turnover in needy schools.

In general, the positions for which teachers are being recruited from abroad are the most difficult-to-fill positions in the most difficult-to-staff schools. While the international hiring practices may place a teacher into the classroom, they do nothing to address the root causes of the staffing shortage. They also create a situation in which migrant teachers are assigned to some of the most challenging jobs in the U.S. education system.⁸⁹

A pronounced teacher shortage in the United States in the 1990s began a wave of alternative approaches to staffing schools, including international recruitment and a programme called Teach for America (TFA).⁹⁰ Given the attention TFA has garnered globally, it is interesting to compare its scope over the past decade to the recruitment of migrant teachers, many of whom fill positions in schools with a similar demographic profile, particularly in needy urban schools. In the ten years outlined below, TFA recruited nearly 30,000 teachers for temporary jobs in U.S. schools, while international recruitment accounted for more than 76,000 teaching visas issued, also with temporary status. Nonetheless, international teacher recruitment trends and their impact have gone virtually unnoticed and unstudied in U.S. education circles.

Figure 4.1 - Comparison of migrant and Teach for America teachers, 2002-2011



Source: U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services, Characteristics of Specialty Occupation Workers (H1-B) Reports, Interagency Working Group on U.S. Government-Sponsored Exchanges and Training, and <http://www.teachforamerica.org/>.

⁸⁹ AFT, "Importing Educators", 2009.

⁹⁰ Started in 1990, Teach for America recruits graduates from top universities to teach in high-needs schools for two years. These recruits are not licensed teachers. Teach for America's founder recently launched a worldwide programme dubbed Teach for All that promotes similar programmes in 31 countries and is growing rapidly.

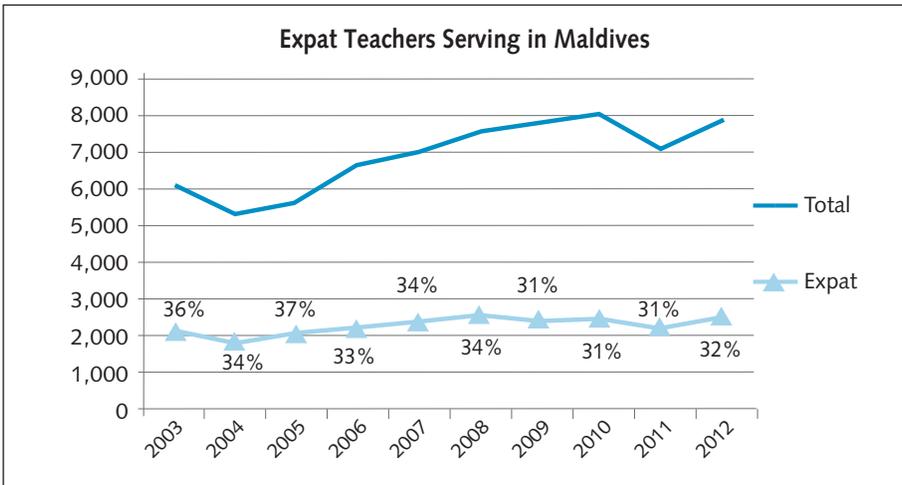
MALDIVES

The Maldives, an island nation in the Indian Ocean, has been largely dependent on teacher recruitment in order to staff its schools. The Maldives' model for teacher staffing has been well documented and researched. As the charts below indicate, approximately one third of the country's teaching force has consisted of expatriates over the past decade, many of them coming from India.

A 2012 World Bank report assessing this model offered a measured analysis:

"The high dependence on expatriate teachers is controversial. Critics argue that expatriate teachers are inadequately aware of the local culture, and that these teachers are not committed to the Maldivian schools, resulting in rapid turnover. The cost of expatriate teachers, too, is higher. The counter-arguments made against the critics are that: (a) there is a shortage of educated Maldivians willing to become teachers; (b) foreign teachers are willing to serve in schools in remote islands that Maldivians are not; and (c) expatriate teachers bring new ideas and cultural diversity to the education system of the country."⁹¹

Figure 4.2 Number of expat teachers versus total teachers in Maldives, 2003-2012



Source: Reprinted from Aturupani, "Enhancing the Quality of Education".

Moving forward, the report called for greater and more effective investment in local teacher training and development.

⁹¹ Aturupani, "Enhancing the Quality of Education", 2012.

Examples of Regional Flows

THE MIDDLE EAST

After the Arab oil embargo of 1973 and the ensuing quadrupling of oil prices, oil-exporting countries embarked on ambitious development plans that included expansion of social services, particularly in the education sector. The International Organization for Migration estimates that in 1970 there were about 1.9 million migrant workers in the Gulf States. By 1985, there were 5.1 million.⁹² Professionals from Egypt, Palestine, and Jordan had been employed in the Gulf States as doctors, teachers and engineers going back to the 1950s and 1960s, but new patterns of migration have emerged as global competition has placed a premium on English language skills.

The Gulf States and the Jordanian Education Ministry have a formal procedure for seconding teachers to work abroad. Teachers must apply to the Ministry of Education to work abroad. The Ministry posts vacancies from other Gulf Ministries of Education though some teachers work directly with recruitment agencies. Teachers who go abroad to work in private schools leave the Jordanian public education system and are not tracked. The Jordanian Ministry of Education reports 5,000 Jordanian teachers working overseas in 2012.⁹³ Most return to their home country since they can only remain abroad for a maximum of ten years if they want to return to teach in Jordanian public schools.

Although Jordan has promoted expatriate labour because of the remittances on which the Jordanian economy relies, concerns about skills shortages led to an agreement that Jordanian teachers could only be seconded to Gulf state schools with the approval of the education ministry.⁹⁴

Many governments throughout the region have introduced initiatives to establish English as part of the national curriculum; consequently, the demand for native English speakers has increased. While there are no statistics on the numbers of foreign workers entering and leaving Gulf States, country visits by this report's research team and focus groups have found not just continued migration of Jordanian teachers to Gulf States, but also American, British, and Australian teachers working in Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Oman, and Kuwait. On top of competitive salaries, many schools offer benefits, including housing, settlement allowance, paid flight home once a year, and health coverage. However, not all foreign teachers receive the same pay or benefits.

⁹² International Organization for Migration, "Intra-Regional Labour Mobility in the Arab World", 2010.

⁹³ Author meetings with Ministry of Education officials, March, 2013, Amman, Jordan.

⁹⁴ Brand, *Jordan's Inter-Arab Relations*, 1994



Findings from Fieldwork: Teachers describe divergent experiences in the United Arab Emirates

A wealthy Gulf nation with a small local population, the United Arab Emirates has long relied on international recruitment to staff its schools. As far back as the 1970s, this meant importing teachers from within the region and treating them as a source of cheap labour. Government figures from 2009-2010 showed that only 1,787 of the 3,154 teachers working in the state system were Emirati.⁹⁵

Then, in 2011, hiring practices began to change when the Abu Dhabi Education Council instituted a new school model curriculum intended, among other things, to make English a medium of instruction by 2030. This policy change meant that the Egyptian and Jordanian teachers who had been staffing Emirati schools were sent home and replaced by a new crop of English speaking recruits, largely from developed Western nations, who were hired under much more favourable terms and afforded generous benefits. Focus groups of teachers on both sides of this policy change reveal striking differences in their experiences.

Jordanian teachers who had worked in the United Arab Emirates spoke of discrimination, lack of support, and wide pay disparities between themselves and the teachers who were nationals of their host country. Jordanian teachers were paid between one half and one quarter the salary of local teachers. Most felt discriminated against by their employer, and some felt mistreated by parents and teachers as well. Few felt the experience had met their expectations.

By comparison, the Americans and Australians who were hired as English Medium Teachers reported in a focus group that they were treated lavishly. Upon arrival, they spent the first month at the five-star Intercontinental Hotel in Abu Dhabi, where their only job was to acclimatise. They earned a tax-free income that exceeded their home country salaries, in addition to free housing, health care, several trips home, and even a furniture allowance. They noted with concern the inequity between their treatment and that of their predecessors from Egypt and Jordan, and suggested that there was even a third tier of salary and benefits reserved for the South African teachers, who fell mid-way between the Westerners and the teachers from the region.

The teachers also noted differing levels of support from school administrators. While some reported supportive management, others said they were forced to attend faculty meetings held in Arabic with no translation and confronted open hostility from other teachers.

⁹⁵ *Edarabia*, "Expatriate teachers aren't the only ones", 2011.

Six American teachers explained their reasons for working in the United Arab Emirates in striking terms. They described their frustration and despair at conditions in U.S. public schools, including the fixation on high stakes tests, budget cuts that directly reduced their pay, and the negative media attacks on teachers.

NIGERIA AND GHANA

As noted in an OECD report (2009), immigration flows and policies are inextricably linked to economic fortunes. Countries experiencing rapid economic growth and tight labour markets have turned to foreign labour at times to meet some of their demand. For example, the oil boom of the 1970s resulted in significant migration flows in the Arab region, West Africa and Latin America. Such migration flows, which begin as an enthusiastic response to expanded opportunities, often end with the economic retraction, reducing funding capacity and forcing migrants into a vulnerable context.⁹⁶

For example, in Nigeria, the oil boom of the 1970s resulted in national government expenditures rising as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) from nine per cent in 1962 to 44 per cent in 1979.⁹⁷ The education sector experienced increased investment, but Nigeria had a shortage of qualified teachers and imported Ghanaian teachers to fill the gap.

This time period coincided with an economic collapse in Ghana as a result of economic mismanagement and a crash in cocoa prices, Ghana's primary export. Ghana's pay scale was the same for degreed teachers and those with a teaching certificate, creating an incentive for better educated teachers to migrate to Nigeria where salaries were more attractive.

Later, when Nigeria's economy collapsed in the early 1980s, tensions between domestic and foreign workers arose, leading to the expulsion of foreign workers in early 1983 and again in 1985. Ghanaian teachers faced non-renewal of their contracts and felt sufficiently concerned about growing anti-immigrant sentiment that they returned home. Yet the returnees who tried to re-enter the Ghanaian education system received no credit for their years of experience teaching abroad and had to return to the same step on the salary ladder as when they left.

CARIBBEAN

The Caribbean Single Market Economy (CSME), an agreement between the member states of the CARICOM⁹⁸ community was launched in 2006 with the primary goal

⁹⁶ Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development. *International Migration Outlook*, 2009.

⁹⁷ Khan, *Nigeria: The Political Economy of Oil*, 1994, p. 190.

⁹⁸ CARICOM member countries include: Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Monserrat, Saint Lucia, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago.



of facilitating the free movement of goods and services within the region. Since 2007, trained teachers have been among the professional groups to which the CSME grants free movement of skills, allowing Caribbean nationals to seek employment in member states without the need for work permits. Overall, the movement of professionals under the CSME agreement has been small. Out of a total regional population of more than five million people, it is estimated that fewer than 12,000 CARICOM nationals have moved using the regime. Most member states have experienced little impact on their educational systems from the relatively low flow of CSME movement. However, there are distinct examples of winners and losers as a result of the agreement. Guyana, the region's largest sending country, has experienced the greatest loss of trained professionals, compounding the challenges it faces in achieving development goals. A report commissioned by the CARICOM Secretariat to determine the impact of free movement of persons on member states assessed the impact to the country's educational system as follows:

*"The policy makers and technocrats are, at the moment, very concerned about issues relating to the quality of education... If the loss of its human capital continues at the same rate, one is forced to ask whether Guyana will ever emerge from the economic crisis that it now faces. As one travels around the region, it becomes quite obvious that Guyanese teachers are making significant contributions to the quality of education delivered to children in the region, while children in Guyana are not able to benefit from this."*⁹⁹

The Bahamas, Cayman Islands, Turks and Caicos Islands, on the other hand, are predominantly labour importing countries and have drawn teachers from the Caribbean through the CSME agreement. These countries have more developed economies and a higher standard of living than their island neighbours and as such, offer a stronger relative advantage to Caribbean migrants. As Roy Bodden, Minister of Education for the Cayman Islands, explained at a conference in 2002, "Cayman is in a somewhat unusual position in the region. More than 70 per cent of teaching staff at government schools is expatriate labour and, last year, some 50 per cent of new recruits came from the Caribbean."¹⁰⁰

THE COMMONWEALTH

As described in Chapter 2, concerns over teacher losses from Caribbean nations and small states spurred action and research into the growing phenomenon of teacher migration. This research informed collaborative consultations between Education Ministers and the Commonwealth Teachers' Group (CTG) to explore the ethics of international teacher recruitment and clarify the roles of all parties.

⁹⁹ A-Z Information Jamaica Limited. *A Consultancy to Assess the Impact of Free Movement of Persons and Other Forms of Migration on Member States*. 2010

¹⁰⁰ Thompson, "Why Do We Have Expat Teachers?" 2012.

The outcome was the 2005 adoption of the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol.

In brief, the Protocol addresses the following core issues:

- **Rights and responsibilities of recruiting countries, including:**
 - to manage their domestic teacher supply and demand in a manner that limits the need for recruitment;
 - to give advance notification of recruitment drives;
 - to establish employment conditions for recruited teachers that are the same as for nationals; and
 - to provide orientation and induction.
- **Rights and responsibilities of source countries, including:**
 - to improve the attractiveness of the teaching profession; and
 - to establish categories of teachers whose recruitment they will not support.
- **Rights and responsibilities of recruited teachers, including:**
 - transparency and full information; and
 - compliance with terms and conditions of contract.
- **Monitoring and evaluation of international recruitment, including:**
 - collection of data.
- **Future action, including:**
 - assessment of equivalences of teacher qualifications;
 - comprehensive study of teacher flows; and
 - promotion of the Protocol as a standard of best practice.

Union Engagement Strategy: Commonwealth Teachers' Group Helps Develop Standards

Steve Sinnott, elected General Secretary of the National Union of Teachers (U.K.) in June 2004, played a major role in the development of the Commonwealth Protocol as the Convener of the CTG. His vision of the CTG and its mission is excerpted here:¹⁰¹

¹⁰¹ Sinnott, "The Commonwealth Teachers' Group", 2007.



“The Commonwealth is an organisation of over 50 countries that are expected to observe key principles and values... Over the years at Commonwealth Education Ministers' meetings, some EI affiliated teacher organisations have co-operated on a number of activities to promote education and human rights and to take forward some key EI policies. A small group of organisations meeting informally at the EI World Congress in Jomtien 2001 agreed that a paper be drafted which sought to address the issue of establishing a Commonwealth teachers' grouping for unions affiliated to Education International. These organisations were the Australian Education Union (AEU), the All India Federation of Teachers' Organisations (AIFTO), the Caribbean Association of Teachers (CAT), the Canadian Teachers' Federation (CTF), the National Union of Teachers (NUT) and the South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU). In 2005, the EI Executive Board formally agreed the establishment of the Commonwealth Teachers' Group, which [was] formally launched at The Teachers' Forum at 16th Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers, where its constitution [was] adopted.

The CTG, operating under the auspices of EI, has a number of important functions. EI has within its membership established organisations and contacts in all Commonwealth countries. This is an enormous asset. The unions share common values expressed in the constitution of Education International. In addition, such organisations have a perspective that understands the interplay between the concern for teachers' rights and interests, wider professional concerns and the educational interests of children and young people.

Perhaps the most significant achievement to date for the CTG has been the establishment of the Commonwealth Protocol on Teacher Recruitment. It is fair to say that without the CTG it would never have happened.

In recent years it has been the case that to deal with the problem of teacher shortages in developed countries, such as in the UK, teacher recruitment agencies acting for schools, national and local governments scoured the world looking for teachers to fill vacancies in many schools. Little regard was paid to the needs of the education systems in developing countries and damage to the education systems of many Commonwealth countries was the result. Many teachers paid a heavy price too for their rights were trampled upon and example after example of teachers being told lies by recruitment agencies can be cited. Teachers from developing countries were often placed in the most difficult schools after little if any preparation, training or orientation. In the UK, many of these migrant teachers were made redundant and according to a teachers' charity a number were made destitute. The lives and careers of some teachers from developing countries were disregarded.

The protocol is having a real impact in the Commonwealth and beyond. The National Union of Teachers reports fewer migrants experiencing difficulties and it is likely that provisions in the Protocol dealing with the targeting of vulnerable education systems seems to be having an effect. Kenya and Rwanda, a non-Commonwealth country, used the protocol to manage the recruitment of English teachers by Rwanda. UNESCO and the International Labour Organisation (ILO) are supportive of the protocol”.

A Teacher’s Voice: Expat teaching within the Caribbean, Nicole Thompson



“Why have Caribbean teachers left? We left for better salaries, for better working conditions, for smaller student-teacher ratios, for more flexible opportunities, for advanced qualifications, for better behaved students, for better student attitude to learning, for intrinsically motivated students, for an opportunity to see more of the world, for personal change... and the list can go on.

As an expatriate teaching professional, I feel it is important to interject that leaving one’s homeland to live and work in another country does not indicate a lack of patriotism or appreciation for one’s country of birth, but rather is an act of self-determination and can often be an act of self-preservation. We, in fact, often act as ambassadors in our new countries of residence, exporting and sharing our culture when opportunities present themselves and therefore help to develop the cultural literacy of the students and other colleagues with whom we work.

Using my experience in the Cayman Islands as an example, on any given school day, a student can encounter a math teacher from Trinidad, a science teacher from Ireland, a history teacher from Jamaica, and a support teacher from Canada. They each bring their own beliefs, values, and goals into that learning environment of the classroom.”



CHAPTER 5

RESPONDING TO FORCED MIGRATION

Overview

Forced migration describes situations in which migrants have fled their home country or region due to crisis. In the majority of cases, the migrant is in physical danger stemming from armed conflict, situations of generalised conflict, persecution, torture, serious human rights violations, natural or manmade disasters, or environmental degradation. Some cases of extreme economic collapse have also given rise to forced migration. In contrast to the intentional hiring models described in Chapter 4, when migrants move by force, not choice, then receiving countries receive, rather than seek, the influx. Crisis migrants are often the most vulnerable, especially refugees and asylum seekers.

The situation faced by refugees and asylum seekers depends on their legal status, the prevailing laws and regulations of the host country to which they have fled, and whether they are residing inside or outside of official refugee camps. There are few qualified teachers in refugee or displaced persons camps.¹⁰² Teachers, like other salaried professionals “may not have left with the rest, preferring to stay at home or move somewhere else in the country”.¹⁰³ When they do flee, qualified teachers may be hired by non-governmental organisations (NGO) or offered “escape scholarships” to other countries. Unlike lower-skilled refugees, they can resettle more easily and find jobs, when allowed, in the host country, but they often face challenges to remaining within the teaching profession. There is little data or research on refugee teachers, as most of the research deals with the provision of primary and secondary education by relief agencies to children in refugee camps. This section highlights some rare glimpses into experiences of teachers who have been forced to migrate.

Although not typically considered a motivator of forced migration, economic collapse is often a consequence of political instability and conflict. When labour markets collapse and hyperinflation occurs, the incentive to migrate to seek a job abroad is high. Crises in public finances and the collapse of tax revenues affect public services and expenditures on education, affecting teachers directly. A number of countries have experienced economic crises and large out-migration, but there are few studies of how teachers specifically have been affected. Research and anecdotal evidence suggests

¹⁰² Sesnan, “Where have all the teachers gone?” 2011. The author’s conclusions are based on experience working with refugees in Chad, Côte d’Ivoire, Malawi, Sudan, Uganda, and Zambia.

¹⁰³ *Ibid.*

that flows are particularly strong between countries sharing a common language and within certain regional corridors.

Unlike in other models, forced migration finds schools and governments in a reactive posture. Rather than recruiting teachers from abroad, they are responding to an influx for which they are often ill prepared. However, the examples profiled in this section make clear that, even under dire circumstances, teachers are eager to contribute to recovery and resettlement efforts. Forced migrant teachers from Syria, Burma, and Ecuador have self-organised in different ways in order to play constructive roles despite substantial structural obstacles.

Survey Highlights

Of the 1,358 respondents who rated their motives for migrating, 144 cited instability, political upheaval, and natural disaster among the top three reasons for going abroad, although only 91 said it was a major factor. Of the latter, 19 were from Spain, 12 from Colombia, nine from Jamaica, seven from the Philippines and six from the United States, all countries that have experienced economic retrenchment, suggesting that economic factors are a strong incentive to migrate. Smaller numbers were from Ecuador, Venezuela, Peru, Lebanon, Sierra Leone, South Africa, and Zimbabwe.

Forced migration context

The United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) estimates that an average 23,000 people became forced migrants every day in 2012. The total number of 45.2 million displaced persons includes a record high 7.6 million displaced within the past year. About one in four (10 million) were stateless, and more than half resided in countries with a GDP per capita under \$5000. Forced migrants are most likely to move to a neighbouring country, so the global south hosts 80 per cent of this population, with the three largest refugee populations found in Pakistan, Ethiopia, and Kenya.¹⁰⁴ The number of forced migrants is expected to rise significantly in the coming years.¹⁰⁵

The 1951 UN Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and the 1967 Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees define who is a refugee, their rights (not to be returned to the country they fled) and the legal obligations of states. Countries that ratified the 1951 Convention are expected to “respect the right to asylum through the creation of national legislation” but they are not compelled to offer asylum. Thus, the right to asylum and determination processes differs by country. Teachers may have unique motivations to seek asylum, especially where political violence targets education

¹⁰⁴ UNHCR, *Global Trends 2012: Displacement*, 2012.

¹⁰⁵ Penson et al., “Beyond the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol”, 2011.



systems and teachers directly, as has been the case in Burma, Iraq, Ivory Coast, Palestine, and Zimbabwe, to name but a few.¹⁰⁶

Currently, different procedures govern teacher hiring in refugee camps. In some camps, the receiving government may insist on staffing first, primarily, or exclusively with teachers from the receiving country. In other instances, refugees with a secondary education may be allowed to teach in camps because there is a shortage of qualified teachers, due to low pay and difficult conditions. When these teachers leave, or are repatriated, the experience and credentials they earned in the camps are not likely to be recognised in the receiving or home country's schools, especially if issued through an NGO or other informal provider.¹⁰⁷ The result may be that forced migrant teachers may "consider it wise to stay behind in the countries that trained them", opting out of or jeopardising rebuilding efforts.¹⁰⁸ For example, Liberian educators working in refugee camps in Guinea received training that was "better quality than the population would get access to in Liberia".¹⁰⁹ Nonetheless, during post-conflict recovery, these teachers' experience and training were not recognised. The International Rescue Committee (IRC) and UNHCR supported initiatives to negotiate recognition of teacher qualifications with the Liberian Ministry of Education.¹¹⁰

More than half the refugees UNHCR now serves live in urban areas. Qualified teachers are often drawn to urban centres rather than remaining in dangerous and crowded refugee camps. Their ability to find work as teachers in government schools depends on whether the host country permits non-nationals to work as teachers and whether there is a mechanism to evaluate their education and teaching credentials, which may have often been lost when they fled their home country.

Receiving governments rarely plan to incorporate forced migrant teachers into the labour market. New influxes of forced migrants represent a potential drain to the nation's finances and the local or receiving population may resent or resist new arrivals, all of which may discourage receiving countries from recognising credentials. When displaced teachers cannot find work in education, or struggle with financially untenable situations, they often leave the profession, resulting in deskilling and the loss of a valuable pool of qualified labour.¹¹¹

¹⁰⁶ Research and Advocacy Unit, "'Fragility' and Education in Zimbabwe", 2012.

¹⁰⁷ Penson et al., "Beyond the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol", 2011.

¹⁰⁸ Omolewa, "Towards a Global Response", 2011.

¹⁰⁹ DAC Fragile States Group, *Education in Fragile States*, 2006.

¹¹⁰ *Ibid.*

¹¹¹ See Penson et al., "Beyond the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol", 2011, for a discussion of bureaucratic hurdles faced by forced migrants and lack of effective collaboration between relevant ministries and organisations.

Examples of Forced Migration Flows

KENYA

Kenya is home to the largest refugee complex in the world, hosting some 600,000 refugees, mainly from Somalia and Sudan. About 51,000 were urban refugees as of December 2012 when the Government of Kenya issued a directive transferring refugees from urban areas to the refugee camps at Dadaab and Kakuma. According to a 2010 UNICEF report, there are few qualified teachers in the Dadaab camps, and refugee teachers are paid about \$70 a month. While many refugees work for aid agencies in various capacities, they tend to receive meagre “incentive payments” rather than proper salaries, purportedly because of Kenya’s restrictive labour laws.¹¹²

A pilot programme has been developed to offer 400 students in the Dadaab camps a chance to earn accredited diplomas in teaching and an opportunity to earn a university degree. Kenyan law does not allow refugees to have formal jobs within the camps but participants in the newly introduced programme can hold what are known as “incentive” positions in the camps’ education and community health services. One of the project’s partners at the University of British Columbia explains: “It was felt that training the teachers was the most important thing that we could do... It would be the greatest multiplier effect on the opportunities people might have in the camps, in the future, if they were able to get out of the camps.”¹¹³

ZIMBABWE

Teachers in Zimbabwe fled both economic collapse and politically motivated violence. A Zimbabwe Teachers’ Association (ZIMTA) report chronicles the impact of the nation’s post-independence economy on teachers and the educational system.¹¹⁴ Accelerated inflation, a decline in real wages, contested presidential elections, and political instability resulted in Zimbabweans leaving in droves. Figures published by the International Organization for Migration suggest that the largest group of migrants - 36.8 per cent of the total - went to the United Kingdom, while 4.8 per cent went to South Africa.

These tumultuous circumstances were made even worse by direct attacks on educators beginning in 2000. Teachers were singled out because of their longstanding role as election monitors. In 2008, thousands of teachers were physically attacked as part of post-election violence. They were accused of rigging the election in favour of the opposition,

¹¹² UNOCHA, “Kenya-Somalia: Hungry for learning”, 2011..

¹¹³ Brownell, “Bringing Universities to Refugee Camps”, 2013.

¹¹⁴ ZIMTA, “Impact of the Economic Meltdown on the Education System in Zimbabwe”, 2010.



and hundreds were arrested and imprisoned on charges of fraud. More than half of teachers surveyed reported direct experience of political violence in 2008; nearly half of those experienced violence at the school during working hours.¹¹⁵ Abandoned schools became bases for youth militias that continued attacks. Throughout the crisis, the Progressive Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe (PTUZ) denounced the violence against teachers. Estimates suggest that nearly 70,000 teachers left Zimbabwe since 2000 to seek work abroad, including 25,000 – almost a quarter of the workforce – in 2007 alone.¹¹⁶

According to ZIMTA, migration and cutbacks in public spending on education have left the country's 5,200 primary and 1,500 secondary schools facing a 30 per cent shortage of teachers. Newspaper accounts describe makeshift huts used as classrooms, students without textbooks, and high drop-out rates because children are too hungry to go to school. Others noted increased hiring of temporary and under-qualified teachers, zero per cent pass rates on public examinations for whole schools, and reduced attendance, especially by female students avoiding the threat of sexual abuse.¹¹⁷

Large numbers of teachers migrated to neighbouring South Africa, where wages were significantly higher for those filling teacher shortages in science and mathematics. The South African Qualifications Agency (SAQA) reported evaluating approximately 13,483 new foreign teachers' qualifications between 2005 and 2010, with the majority of qualifications going to Zimbabweans. But, according to the Commonwealth Secretariat, thousands of teachers from Zimbabwe are unable to work as teachers because their qualifications are not recognised by South African qualifications agencies.¹¹⁸ By one estimate, just 47 per cent of Zimbabwean teachers who moved to South Africa remained in the profession.¹¹⁹ The African Diaspora Forum reports that many expatriate Zimbabwean teachers working in South Africa live from hand to mouth, with threats of non-renewal of contracts and, in one case, refusal to pay for five months of work.¹²⁰

¹¹⁵ *Research and Advocacy Unit, "Fragility' and Education", 2012.*

¹¹⁶ *See Bevan, "Thousands of teachers abandon Zimbabwe", 2007; and Sibanda, "45,000 teachers quit", 2010.*

¹¹⁷ *Research and Advocacy Unit, "Fragility' and Education", 2012.*

¹¹⁸ *Commonwealth Secretariat, 2010.*

¹¹⁹ *Scientific and Industrial Research and Development Centre, Analysis of the Cause and Effect, 2003.*

¹²⁰ *Kajengo, "Teachers battle to make voices heard", 2013.*

Integrating Refugee Teachers in Scotland

In an effort to expand the recruitment of ethnic minorities into teaching and respond to a wider European Union call for refugee support in member states, the Scottish Executive, General Teaching Council (GTC), and University partners came together to establish "Refugees Into Teaching in Scotland" (RITeS).¹²¹ The programme set out to make teachers eligible for professional service by establishing official refugee status, recognising equivalent qualifications, and assuring English proficiency.

The Department for Education and Skills' National Recognition Information Centre helped coordinators compare "degrees, teaching diplomas and even school leaving certificates gained at, perhaps, Harare High and the University of Pristina with those awarded at, for example, Cumnock Academy and the University of Glasgow".¹²² When faced with exceptional barriers, such as that of one woman from Kosovo whose university was bombed, thereby destroying the records of her degree certificate, GTC was creative: "We took oral testimonies from her, in which we went through her education in great detail, right from schooldays. She had shadow placements in Glasgow schools and was a big success, with the teachers confirming our judgment that she was the genuine article."¹²³ Beyond shadow placements, RITeS facilitated access to university retraining, upgrading, and English courses, coordinated practice teaching opportunities in Scottish schools, guided GTC registration, and helped with the job search, interview techniques, and work placements.

In 2009, five years later, the RITeS programme supported 262 teachers, mostly from Zimbabwe, Iraq, and Pakistan. By May 2010, only 41 of the 301 registered teachers had achieved GTC registration.¹²⁴

THE MIDDLE EAST

Forced migration has been a persistent feature throughout the Middle East region. Prior to the latest violence in Syria, the region was host to 4.7 million Palestinian refugees,¹²⁵ and two million Iraqi refugees.¹²⁶ The Palestinian Arab refugee and displaced population is the largest in the world. Jordan received the first wave of Palestinian refugees in 1948, followed by a second major exodus following the Arab-Israeli war of 1967, as well

¹²¹ Blane, "Rites of Passage," 2008; Kum, Menter and Smyth, "Changing the Face", 2010.

¹²² Blane, "Rites of Passage", 2008.

¹²³ *Ibid.*

¹²⁴ Smyth and Kum, "When They Don't Use It They Will Lose It", 2010; "End of Project Social Event", 2011.

¹²⁵ UNRWA (2009), cited in IOM, 2010.

¹²⁶ UNHCR (2009), cited in IOM, 2010.



as Iraqis after 2003. Lebanon, Syria, the West Bank, and the Gaza Strip also host Palestinian refugees. Only around 1.4 million of registered Palestinian refugees, approximately one third, live in the 58 refugee camps in these countries, with the rest settling outside the camps.¹²⁷

The United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) was established to provide education, health care, social services and emergency aid to the five million Palestinian refugees from the 1948 and 1967 wars and their descendants. UNRWA runs nearly 700 schools, providing education to nearly half a million refugee students. It follows the host authorities' curricula and textbooks and hires mostly Palestinian teachers. Like the camps themselves, UNRWA-operated schools are overcrowded and suffer from major infrastructure problems. The UN estimates that less than a quarter of young Palestinian refugees are getting any formal education, and many are out on the streets working to survive.

SYRIAN EXODUS

As of November 2013, the Syrian civil war had already pushed an estimated 2.1 million people out of the country to neighbouring countries. The largest number of Syrian refugees are in Lebanon (756,630), followed by Jordan (523,607). Turkey is also witnessing increased flows.

With a native population of four million, Lebanon is ill-equipped to handle a projected influx of one million Syrian refugees. There are around 400,000 refugee children of school age and the number is expected to reach 500,000. Syrian students are integrated into the public school system, although by some estimates enrolment is under 10 per cent.

Nevertheless, because of the sheer numbers, schools are now running double shifts and some even a third. Since non-Lebanese nationals are not allowed to teach, Syrian refugee teachers cannot be hired as public school teachers, although there is an accreditation exchange agreement between Syria and Lebanon. NGOs have programmes to employ Syrian teachers, but only as teaching assistants and for remedial education. Many of the Syrian teachers serve on an education board that works with relief agencies to coordinate the delivery of education services. These teachers have worked with the agencies to assess the skills of teachers who may have no documentation.

There are approximately 1,500 Syrian teachers working in Turkey's camps for Syrians, who are not regarded as refugees, but have been given a temporary protection status designed for a mass influx of people. One camp, the Kilis refugee camp, has a school which is run by a Turkish director and a board of volunteering Syrian teachers providing classes for anyone aged between five and 18. At another camp, volunteer Syrian teachers have set up a school system teaching a modified Syrian curriculum. Thirty-three Syrian

¹²⁷ *Dumper, ed., Palestinian Refugee Repatriation, 2006.*

refugee teachers divided four large-sized tents into grades one to 12, with two daily shifts to accommodate all the children whose parents allow them to study. There are handcraft classes for women and Turkish language classes twice a week.¹²⁸

ECUADOR

Ecuador's economy grew throughout the 1970s thanks to its oil reserves, but as oil prices fell in the early 1980s, Ecuador experienced a debt crisis, increase in inflation, and dramatic decrease in wages. In the late 1990s floods, political instability, and financial mismanagement caused a simultaneous banking, currency, and fiscal crisis.¹²⁹ According to the Migration Policy Institute, Ecuadorian entrance and exit data suggest that nearly a million Ecuadorians left the country since 1999, with the majority going to Spain, and others are emigrating to the United States, Italy, Venezuela, and other Latin American countries.¹³⁰

Table 5.1 Number of Ecuadorians overseas

Number of Ecuadorians Overseas		
Destination	Official figure	Estimated number
United States	436,409 (2005)	550,000 - 600,000
Spain	487,239 (2005)	550,000
Italy	61,953 (2005)	120,000
Venezuela	28,625 (2000)	Unknown
Chile	9,762 (2002)	Unknown
Colombia	Not Available	Unknown
Peru	Not Available	Unknown

Sources (official figures only):

United States : American Community Survey, US Census bureau

Spain : Instituto Nazionale di Statistica

Venezuela : 2000 Census

Chile: Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas

Many Ecuadorians, including teachers, were attracted to Spain due to its relatively open immigration policy which grants citizens of Latin American countries legal residency for two years. Teachers did not anticipate the obstacles they encountered gaining

¹²⁸ Fanack, "Syrian refugees in Turkey", 2013

¹²⁹ Jácome, "The Late 1990s Financial Crisis in Ecuador", 2004.

¹³⁰ Jokisch, "Ecuador: Diversity in Migration", 2007.



recognition for their teaching credentials. Many of the Ecuadorian teachers residing in Spain are seasoned professionals with five to 12 years of experience in the classroom, but very few have become certified to teach in Spain. Their efforts to obtain credentials by attending university were stymied; they could not afford the time or cost of classes while simultaneously working other jobs to support themselves and their families. With Spain's unemployment rate now above 25 per cent, immigrants are finding it difficult to maintain employment in any sector, let alone their profession of choice.

As the economic situation has stabilised in Ecuador, the new political leadership has made deliberate efforts to recover some of the human capital that was lost a decade ago. The Secretaría Nacional del Migrante (SENAMI) is an Ecuadorian government organisation dedicated to reconnecting overseas Ecuadorians with their homeland. Since access to teaching jobs is one of the most pressing issues facing Ecuadorian teachers in Spain, in 2010, SENAMI, along with other partners, conducted training to help teachers maintain their skills. More than 100 teachers attended the first training held in Madrid. Through that process, Ecuadorian teachers formed the Asociación de Profesores y Profesoras Ecuatorianos Residentes en España (APROFERE).

Initially organised to support educational equality for Ecuadorian children living in Spain, as well as more general migrant rights, APROFERE called on the Ecuadorian government to offer the same return plans to teachers that healthcare and agricultural workers were offered. The Plan Retorno Educación, launched in January 2013, is aimed at attracting migrants back to the country in anticipation of increased need for teachers as a result of changes to education policy. The government projects that new educational reforms will create between 12,000 and 16,000 jobs and has promised to significantly increase teachers' salaries. To be eligible for posts in Ecuador, residents in Spain were required to pass an exam. APROFERE played an instrumental role in providing materials and organising study groups for members. Of the nearly 400 who took the exams in the spring of 2013, 43 passed with a score that would qualify them for a teaching post.¹³¹

Union Engagement Strategy: Burmese Refugee Teachers Form Union in Exile

Burma, also known as Myanmar, is home to the world's longest running civil war, which has caused nearly 200,000 refugees to flee Burma and led to the internal displacement

¹³¹ "772 Ecuadorian residents living in Spain take education plan to return tests". 2013 <http://www.elnorte.ec/ecuador/37093-772-ecuatorianos-residentes-en-espa%C3%B1a-rinden-pruebas-del-plan-retorno-de-educaci%C3%B3n.html>.

of another two million people. A shaky ceasefire signed in 2012 has brought the hope of peace, but many ethnic minority refugees are as yet unable to return home.

In 1998, teachers from the Karen ethnic group founded the Karen Education Workers Union (KEWU) to safeguard workers' rights, promote solidarity, raise the qualifications of educational workers, and assist in the Karen people's struggle for democracy, human rights, and ethnic rights. By the beginning of 2005, KEWU officials estimated that they had nearly 1,500 members living as ethnic minorities within Burma or in the refugee camps on the Thai border. The AFT conducted interviews and surveys of KEWU members to explore their conditions and why they decided to form a union. The study revealed three important findings:

- The motivation of members for union involvement was almost exclusively non material.
- The union was seen as a crucial link to the outside world for a people who felt invisible.
- Members believed that their union activities were related to the larger struggle for democratic reform within Burma.

This study demonstrates that, for these refugee teachers, union engagement represented a key to their survival and the hope for the long-term restoration of a normal life. The KEWU channelled members' energies and aspirations to practice their professions and make a difference in the lives of their fellow refugees, much as the Syrian teachers are seeking to do through their volunteerism and organising.

A Teacher's Voice: Lack of recognition as a teacher in Spain, Alfredo Ramirez



Alfredo Caicedo Ramirez taught in Ecuador before migrating to Spain. He is among the founding members of APROFERE and serves as the organisation's Vice President.

"The devaluation of the Ecuadorian currency affected me personally, and the buying power of my monthly salary deteriorated terribly. All of the products and essential needs, the price of clothing, and of transportation, were quoted in dollars at prices imposed by globalisation and changed by the international standard currency. Facing the economic chaos of the moment, the only option that remained for us was to immigrate to countries that could give us better opportunities and that permitted us to enter without visa requirements.



The Ecuadorian teachers who are residing abroad feel that the Ecuadorian government should return us to our teaching posts so that we can return to our country. We left due to the economic slaughter that occurred in the country. With our remittances from abroad, we help not only our families, but the state in general so much so that the remittances were the second largest source of national revenue after oil and helped Ecuador to get out of the crisis. On the other side, Ecuadorian teachers cannot work in Spain. It does not recognise our degrees here even though we have prepared and worked within the Spanish system. Moreover, due to the crisis throughout Spain, there is no work. [At the time of this interview, unemployment in Spain was over 27 per cent.]

Professionally, the barriers that have been imposed on us in Spain create a sense of deception. After you have carefully prepared for many years, put in the effort to become part of the profession, and even though we use the same pedagogical system, you will not be accepted into teaching because, according to them, your degree is not valid.

It would have been of great importance to recognise our professional pedagogical degrees with a short course or workshop. Having prepared ourselves in the Spanish system, it would be useful to be able to maintain our professional development in a series with instructors or Spanish nationals trained here. They should give us the same treatment or better opportunities to participate in the civil service exams”.

CHAPTER 6

THE BUSINESS OF TEACHER RECRUITMENT

Overview

This chapter will focus on the recruitment practices prevalent in international teacher migration. International recruitment happens in three ways – through direct hire by an employer, through job placement by a third party private intermediary, and through the staffing or supply agency model, where the recruiter also serves as employer and leases the worker out to temporary postings at job sites. Research shows a declining role for direct employer recruitment and increasing roles for private agents.¹³² This trend increases worker vulnerability to manipulation.

Without effective regulation, internationally recruited workers in both high- and low-wage sectors face a host of serious abuses, including fraud, discrimination, economic coercion, retaliation, debt bondage, and even human trafficking. Teachers have not been spared from these forms of exploitation, as stories from around the world, collected as part of this research, make clear.

The presence of private agents in the recruitment process introduces profit as a motivator in international teacher placement and creates a corresponding incentive for volume—the more placements, the more profit. Problematically, research also shows a trend for recruitment costs to be shifted from employers to workers.¹³³ Push factors are so strong for some teachers that they are willing to take out loans and risk exorbitant debts in order to secure a post abroad, particularly when that post promises significantly higher wages than the worker can earn at home. As with most aspects of teacher migration and mobility, effective regulation will require cross-border coordination. By their nature, recruitment abuses begin in the country of origin, where fees are paid and a contract is signed. However, accountability for the actions of recruiters must be shared by the employers who enlist their services. ILO Convention 181 details a number of core principles of ethical recruitment, including the prohibition of fees charged to workers. Voluntary codes and protocols are also being developed, including a number focused on the education sector, to compensate for gaps in government regulation.

¹³² Martin, “Managing Labour Migration”, 2005.

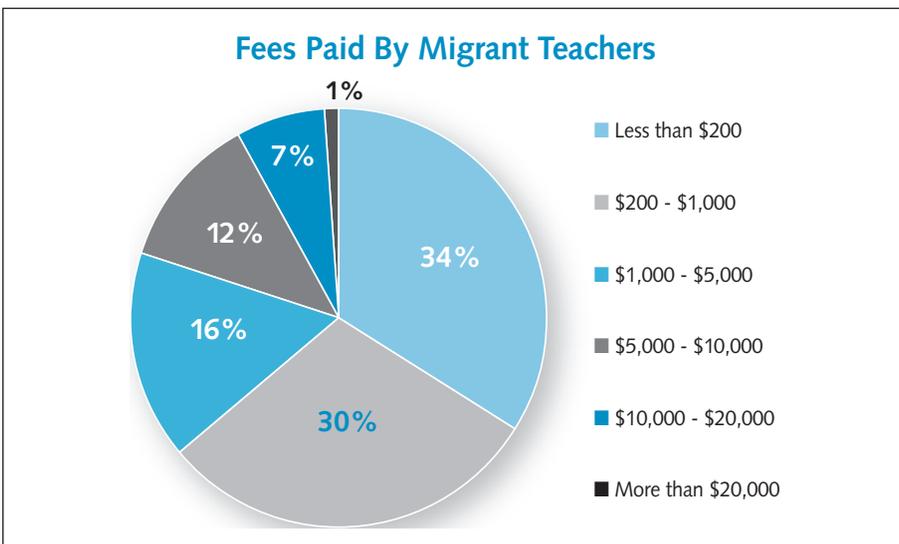
¹³³ *Ibid.*

Survey Highlights

In total, 871 of the teachers surveyed, or 64 per cent of respondents, indicate that they went through an agency to secure their position abroad. A list of more than 90 agencies from around the world identified by the respondents has been included in the Appendix. Eighty per cent of respondents indicated that they would recommend the agency they used, and only 20 per cent indicated that they were unsure or definitely would not recommend the agency. However, 170 of the teachers who answered this survey had a mixed or negative impression of their recruiter. Notably, in open-ended responses explaining why they would not recommend their agency, teachers raised grave concerns regarding such things as harassment, lack of transparency, excessive fees, fraud, legal violations, and even human trafficking. Moreover, teachers reporting negative recruitment experiences were much more likely to come from countries designated as low income countries by the World Bank Country and Lending Group. Of those who reported they would not or might not recommend their recruiter, 57 per cent were from low or lower middle income countries, despite the fact that teachers from those countries constitute only 36 per cent of overall respondents.

Nearly a quarter of respondents report that they paid a placement fee in order to secure their teaching job abroad, and roughly the same percentage indicated that they had to take out loans in order to cover the fees they incurred in the recruitment process. Overall, 693 respondents provided specific information regarding upfront fees they had to pay, including medical, travel, visa, and testing fees, in addition to recruitment fees. Figure 6.1 shows the range of amounts teachers paid.

Figure 6.1 Fees paid by migrant teachers, in U.S. dollars



These responses indicate that 80 per cent of teachers who report paying fees incurred upfront costs less than U.S.\$5,000. Twenty per cent of respondents reported fees in excess of \$5,000, with the majority of those falling somewhere between \$10,000 and \$20,000. Notably, nearly all of those who report fees in this highest range were from the Philippines. While the recruitment industry in India is well established, nearly half of respondents from India declined to provide information regarding fees that they may have paid. This is consistent with feedback from other researchers, who indicate that Indian teachers are reluctant to disclose any specific details regarding their recruitment arrangements.

Of the teachers who used a recruiter, 80 per cent were required to sign a recruitment contract. More than 80 per cent of those with recruitment contracts indicated that the terms of the arrangement were clear to them and they felt that their contracts were fair. However, nearly half (47 per cent) indicated that they risked monetary penalties if they were to terminate their contracts early.

Almost one in five, or 18 per cent, of survey respondents reported that their recruitment contract was unfair. Of these, more than half are from a low or lower middle income country, using World Bank designation, and fully 47 per cent are from the Philippines (a lower middle income country). Teachers from lower middle income countries are over-represented among those who perceived their contract as unfair, and teachers from upper middle income and high income countries are underrepresented.

Recruiters' roles were significant on many levels:

- 32 per cent of teachers were interviewed by a recruiter.
- 35 per cent of teachers said a recruiter helped secure their housing and travel arrangements.
- 57 per cent said a recruiter provided an orientation.
- 31 per cent said their recruiter offered professional development.
- 20 per cent indicated that a recruiter was responsible for evaluating their job performance.

For those teachers fortunate enough to be working with an ethical recruiter, this level of involvement in all aspects of their teaching experience abroad could be quite helpful. However, more exploitative agencies can use each of these various levels of interaction to exert or maintain control, and also to extract fees.

Notably, one in ten respondents indicated that their recruiter was also their direct employer. This suggests that the temporary staffing or supply agency model is a significant force in the international teacher recruitment industry, although perhaps not as dominant as it is in other sectors, such as healthcare.



Issues Related to International Recruitment

In reflecting the need to regulate international labour recruitment practices, Pittman describes the challenge this way:

The structural problem is the enormous asymmetry in information and power between the aspiring migrant, on the one hand, who, when coming from low income sending countries, are often desperate to leave their countries, and the employer, on the other, who holds the keys to migration. Labour brokers form "hiring chains" and at each level have the opportunity to misrepresent the process, extract fees and loans, and promote unfair labour practices at the expense of migrants.¹³⁴

Martin concurs, noting that the chain of actors in the recruitment process increases overall costs by adding layers of fees. In this imperfect market, recruiters hold vital information about job and visa requirements, as well as available positions. Particularly when there is a high wage differential between source and destination country, much of the regulatory challenge relates to how what Martin calls the "wage wedge" will be apportioned between stakeholders.¹³⁵ When a position abroad promises to substantially increase a teacher's earnings, then recruiters often feel that they can charge higher fees, employers may be tempted to pay lower wages that will still be comparatively attractive, and source countries hope for returns in the form of increased remittances.

Unfortunately, examples of real efforts to regulate the international recruitment industry are rare. In too much of the world, recruiters are free to conduct business on whatever terms they can sell to employers and migrants. Predictably, this can lead to abuse. Recruiters have a financial interest in making the "pull" factors seem as tempting as possible and too often mislead teachers by encouraging inflated and inaccurate expectations about life abroad. An analysis of the websites of 43 U.K.-based agencies that were recruiting teachers from South Africa found that online teacher recruitment agencies "overall are selling schools a low-cost, low-hassle 'solution' to their teacher shortage problems while, in many cases, encouraging teachers to see registration as a first step to a fun-filled life of travel and adventure".¹³⁶ The sites were notably absent in frank discussions of the real challenges of working abroad, such as classroom management or pupils with English as a second language.

In another example, while on a site visit to Delhi, an AFT researcher attempted to visit the bricks and mortar offices listed as the headquarters of a recruitment agency with

¹³⁴ Pittman, "Alternative Approaches", 2013.

¹³⁵ Martin, "Managing Labour Migration", 2005.

¹³⁶ deVilliers, "South African Teachers as Mobile Knowledge Workers", 2011.

a professional-appearing website. However, no agency could be found at the street address provided. This suggests that the agency may be part of a worrisome trend of shady and sometimes sham private institutions seeking to exploit Indian workers' intense interest in posts abroad.¹³⁷ Such examples underscore the need to do careful background work to verify the legitimacy of an agency before paying fees online.

Recruiting agencies commonly earn between \$5,000 and \$20,000 for each teacher they place in a U.S. teaching position, with fees being collected from teachers or school districts, and in some cases, both. All too frequently, recruiters have also intimidated teachers, forced them into housing contracts, misrepresented their pay, charged inflated fees, required them to use predatory lenders and threatened to rescind their visas. Such practices continue because the international teacher recruitment industry is almost entirely unregulated under U.S. law and the worker protections that do exist are poorly enforced.¹³⁸

In the U.K. recruitment model, supply agencies are prohibited from charging upfront fees, and instead take a cut of teachers' pay on an ongoing basis. This fee can be as much as Stg£50 for each day of work performed.¹³⁹ Indeed, Manik asserts that the empowering potential of transnational teachers is threatened as recruitment agencies seek to maximise profits by facilitating movement and commodifying teachers.¹⁴⁰

Discrimination in Recruitment

One third (34 per cent) of teachers surveyed for this report indicated that they had been the victims of some form of discrimination while working abroad. Often, this discrimination begins at the point of recruitment. Employers demonstrate preferences in the simple act of deciding from which countries to recruit, and are often very specific about the characteristics they are seeking.

Manik reports that agencies recruiting from South Africa to the U.K. screened for a number of attributes considered to lead to success in teaching in a new cultural context, including self-management, emotional resilience, cultural awareness, and even a sense of humour. Indirectly, race was a criterion as well. An interview with a recruiter revealed that no African teachers had been hired by the agency, despite constituting 10 per cent of the applicant pool. The reason offered was that English was a second language for these candidates, whereas Indian South African applicants were native English speakers.¹⁴¹

¹³⁷ Duttagupta, "Shady agents are to be blamed for illegal immigration from India", 2012.

¹³⁸ AFT, "Importing Educators", 2007.

¹³⁹ Manik, "Covert Research", 2010.

¹⁴⁰ *Ibid.*

¹⁴¹ *Ibid.*



A report produced by the U.S.-based International Labor Recruitment Working group found that government sponsored temporary work visa programmes were circumventing workplace equality laws and “quietly reclassifying entire sectors of the U.S. workforce by race, gender, national origin and age”. A look across visa programmes found that employers sorted workers into jobs based on racialised and gendered notions of work and that they were able to shop internationally for workers on employment agency websites that advertise workers like commodities. An agency advertising Filipino nurses and teachers touted the attraction of their cultural attributes, “inherent warmth, caring nature and adaptability to different cultures and environments”.¹⁴²

Moreover, research indicates that race and country of origin may affect not only a teacher's likelihood of being recruited, but also the terms of the recruitment contract. Pittman's study of problems faced by foreign educated nurses indicated that nurses recruited to the U.S. from high income countries were significantly less likely to experience a violation of ethical recruitment principles than nurses from low income countries.¹⁴³ Indeed, serious problems were faced almost exclusively by nurses from low income countries.

This differential of terms and treatment in the healthcare sector is relevant for two key reasons: first, because many of the agencies recruiting teachers internationally were originally formed to facilitate nurse migration.¹⁴⁴ And, second, because the patterns of discrimination based on country of origin appear to be the same in the education sector. A comparison of the experiences of two groups of teachers working in the state of California underscores the significance of recruitment conditions:

“The teachers from Spain find their government pathway here easy and relatively inexpensive and they are ready to make the return journey if conditions don't suit them. The Filipinos find their agency pathway steep, arduous, and expensive. They do not readily return home and their relative success here is imbued with a much greater significance in their lives.”¹⁴⁵

Thus the recruitment process and terms have far reaching implications for a teacher's ability and willingness to assert her rights or raise concerns or questions.

Recruitment Contracts

Because the terms of recruitment are so important, a careful review of the recruitment contract is one of the most essential steps in the recruitment process. However, teachers

¹⁴² Source: <http://www.arrowheadmanpower.com/about.html> (website suspended; last accessed May 2012).

¹⁴³ Pittman, “Ethical recruitment Practices”, 2012.

¹⁴⁴ Bartlett, *Migrant Teachers*, 2014.

¹⁴⁵ *Ibid.*

are often given little or no time to review the terms of their contract and, even when time is provided, they generally lack a detailed understanding of the legal framework of the country to which they are being recruited. This creates a moment of high vulnerability for the aspiring migrant; once a contract is signed, it often carries with it binding commitments and restrictions.

Thus, empowering teachers to conduct thoughtful and informed assessments of their contracts is a huge challenge to those working to ensure that their rights are protected. A bookmark prepared by the Alliance for Ethical International Recruitment provides some simple and clear guidance, along with a phone number and an email address where workers can report suspected abuses.¹⁴⁶

- Have a lawyer review the proposed agreement.
- Do not permit changes without your consent.
- Include a time limit in your contract or details about what happens if no visas are available,
- Do not provide collateral.
- Do not allow anyone to withhold your legal documents.
- Be sure the contract includes a clear agreement about the jobs and locations acceptable to you before signing.

The importance of careful contract review is highlighted by labour and immigration attorneys around the world. To underscore the point, AFT Legal Department associate director Daniel J. McNeil indicates that it is not unusual to see recruitment contract language that:

- Lacks specificity regarding the job location, the prospective employer, and the services that will be provided by the recruitment agency.
- Fails to list all of the costs that will be charged by the recruiter.
- Disclaims the truth or accuracy of the information provided in the contract.
- Waives the teacher's right to bring legal action against the recruiter, even if the recruiter breaches the contract.
- Includes "breach fees" to be paid to the recruiter if the teacher leaves the position with the employer.
- Requires teacher to maintain confidentiality about the recruitment agency, fees paid, and contract terms.

Such contract clauses are often illegal or unenforceable, but without proper counsel or better alternatives, teachers may nonetheless be compelled to sign. This survey indicates that teachers from developing countries are far more likely to enter into unfair contract arrangements.

¹⁴⁶ <http://www.fairinternationalrecruitment.org/>



Options for Regulation of the Recruitment Industry

Amidst a clear and compelling body of evidence that recruitment abuses have been experienced by workers in every part of the world and every sector of the economy, many academics and advocates have begun to consider the most effective strategies for regulating international recruitment. In a paper commissioned by the MacArthur Foundation, Pittman outlines a set of strategy domains that include states, international organisations, NGOs, unions, and multi-stakeholder initiatives.¹⁴⁷

After assessing each of these strategies based on criteria such as clarity, stringency, detection capacity, market incentives, enforcement consequences, and reach, Pittman concludes that a blended approach involving all of these actors and tactics is necessary in order to ensure meaningful protections.¹⁴⁸ This analysis makes clear that unions have a central role to play in the effective regulation of recruitment agencies and practices.

A 2013 report of the Instituto de Estudios y Divulgacion Sobre Migracion, A.C. (INEDIM) found that both workers and employers were dissatisfied with existing regulations that are bureaucratic and fail to prevent rampant rights violations. The study also noted "a progressive tendency towards the privatization of agents involved in the temporary labor migration systems, which leads to precarious hiring conditions for women and men migrant workers in the countries of origin".¹⁴⁹ INEDIM recommended numerous mechanisms for regulating private recruitment agencies, nearly all of which included a cross border component. Among the recommendations were these:

- Set up registries in both the country of origin and destination so that recruiters are registered with government agencies.
- Introduce joint liability of recruiters and employers so that migrant workers have greater remedy options in the event of contract violations.
- Prohibit the charging of fees to migrant workers.
- Require governments in the country of origin and destination to validate employment contracts.
- Mandate that employers file a bond that will serve as a guarantee for compensation in the event of harm to temporary migrant workers.

These recommendations are consistent with another policy framework document produced in 2013. "The American Dream Up for Sale: A Blueprint for Ending International Labor Recruitment Abuse"¹⁵⁰ catalogues the unjust practices and exploitation to which immigrant workers recruited to the U.S. in all sectors of the economy are being subjected and

¹⁴⁷ Pittman, "Alternative Approaches", 2013

¹⁴⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁴⁹ Pagaza and Bonnici, "Quo Vadis?" 2013.

¹⁵⁰ International Labor Recruitment Working Group, "The American Dream Up for Sale", 2013.

highlights the need for systemic reforms. Key recommendations include a national recruiter registry, public disclosure of information, and the elimination of fees to workers. In support of a rights-based approach to migration, the report outlines eight principles that should underpin the regulations in all work visa programmes:

1. Freedom from discrimination and retaliation
2. Right to know the process and their rights
3. Freedom from economic coercion
4. Right to receive a contract with fair terms and give informed consent
5. Accountability of the employer
6. Freedom of movement while working in the U.S.
7. Freedom of association and collective bargaining
8. Access to justice

The most meaningful global efforts to shore up these principles involve pushing for the adoption of relevant ILO conventions and protocols. Unfortunately, the most relevant convention, No. 181, regarding the practices of private employment agencies, has only been ratified by 27 countries, with few of the major teacher recruiting or exporting countries on the list. Outside of this normative framework, the International Office on Migration has recently launched a new project called the International Recruiter Integrity System that many advocates are watching carefully.¹⁵¹ A number of private efforts to shore up industry practice have also been undertaken in recent years, including the Dhaka Principles for Migration with Dignity set out by the Institute for Human Rights and Business, but they are voluntary guidelines lacking in enforcement and accountability mechanisms.

At national level, many unions and advocates are pushing for more effective recruitment regulation and enforcement. However, in the absence of strong national laws governing recruitment practices, voluntary codes of ethics are an alternate path to try to improve industry practice. In one such example, the National Education Association and the AFT, along with EI, took part in a multi-stakeholder process to negotiate a Code of Ethical international Recruitment and Employment of Teachers to the U.S. The negotiations were convened by the Alliance for Ethical International Recruitment, and included employers, recruiters, unions, and migrant teachers. The Code, which bans placement fees and staffing or supply agencies, is due to be released in 2014.

COUNTRY EXAMPLE: PHILIPPINES

The Philippines is widely recognised to have the most developed system of recruiter licensing and monitoring in the world. The POEA reviews and registers contracts, and

¹⁵¹ <https://www.global-economic-symposium.org/review-2012/table-of-contents/ideas-fair/the-international-recruitment-integrity-system-iris>

caps the fees that can be assessed to workers can be charged. This system allows aspiring migrants to review a public registry of agencies to determine which are licensed and whether any may be suspended for violations. The POEA site also posts a list of active job orders for any given profession.

A review of the postings for POEA-approved teaching positions conducted for this research revealed nearly 1,400 open positions advertised by 82 different recruitment agencies. While the bulk of available posts were concentrated in the Gulf States, there was nonetheless a broad range of countries seeking Filipino teachers.

Table 6.1 Philippine Overseas Employment Agency teacher job orders active on 16 January 16 2013

Listings	Positions	Agencies	Countries
165	1366	82	16

Country	Number of Positions	Percent of Total
Bahrain	43	3%
Brunei	6	0%
China	1	0%
Indonesia	4	0%
Japan	106	8%
Kazakhstan	12	1%
Kuwait	99	7%
Libya	8	1%
Malaysia	Unspecified	
Mozambique	6	0%
Oman	10	1%
Qatar	134	10%
Saudi Arabia	334	24%
Singapore*	334	24%
UAE	209	15%
USA	60	4%

* (Includes many pre-school and teacher aides)

Source: <http://www.poea.gov.ph/cgi-bin/jobvacancies/jobsmenu.asp>

A primary limitation of the Filipino approach is that it is a single state regulation. In the absence of collaboration with receiving country governments and other actors, enforcement of standards is difficult.

Union Engagement Strategy: Cross-Border Collaboration to Prevent Recruitment Abuse

In December 2012, a federal jury in the U.S. ordered Universal Placement International of Los Angeles to pay U.S.\$4.5 million to 350 Filipino teachers exploited in the process of their recruitment to positions in Louisiana public schools. The case, filed by the AFT in cooperation with partners, established important legal precedent as the teachers were the first plaintiff class ever to be certified under the U.S. Trafficking Victims Protection Act. In allowing the class action suit to proceed to trial, the judge also ruled that “serious harm” is not limited to physical coercion, but also includes financial coercion.

AFT's advocacy on behalf of the exploited Filipino teachers began with a state-level complaint filed by the AFT and the Louisiana Federation of Teachers against the private recruiter, a twice convicted felon, who cheated the teachers out of thousands of dollars and controlled the immigration process to ensure payment. In 2010, the Louisiana State Workforce Commission ruled in the teachers' favour, ordering the recruitment agency to refund \$1.8 million in fees found to have been collected illegally.

“It is an outrage that these abuses are occurring in the United States,” said AFT president Randi Weingarten. *“The AFT is adamant that all teachers working in our school system must be fairly treated, no matter what country they are from.”*¹⁵²

Importantly, the AFT first learned of the abuses occurring in Louisiana through contact with the Public Services Labor Independent Confederation (PSLINK) in the Philippines. The scale of intimidation of these teachers was so great that they did not know who to trust in the U.S., and had turned instead to their connections with Partido ng Manggagawa, the Philippine Labor Party, to seek help. Without an established relationship, PSLINK may have been loath to share confidential personal information regarding Filipino migrants with an American union. However, having built trust over years of joint activity, PSLINK and AFT were well positioned to combine forces as advocates for the teachers in Louisiana and in efforts to ensure that their exploitative recruiter was brought to justice. In addition to legal work on the U.S. side, PSLINK assisted in efforts to ensure that the recruiter working in the Philippines was suspended from practice and was required to make financial restitutions to teachers as well.

¹⁵² See, “AFT Report Finds Abuses”, 2009.



A Teacher's Voice: Filipino Teacher Trafficked to the United States, Ingrid Cruz



"Back home in the Philippines, when I made the difficult decision to leave my family to go work in the United States, I did my homework. I researched the recruitment agencies that were registered with our Overseas Employment Agency and tried to make sure that I was working with a legitimate one. Even still, we paid high fees, but that was only the beginning of the problems for me and 350 of my fellow educators.

Immediately when we landed in the US, we were taken by a second recruitment agency to a place where we were forced to sign a second contract while they were holding our passports. I can still remember how it felt. This second contract stipulated another round of fees, and many other violations of our basic rights, but we had already invested so much and gone into such debt, it would have been impossible to turn around and fly back home at that point, so we signed again.

Once we got to our work site in Louisiana, the problems just kept getting worse. The recruiter had signed apartment leases on our behalf at above market value, and told us who we had to live with. She told us not to talk to people in Louisiana and not to join the union. She kept close tabs on us, and frequently called to harass and intimidate us if she didn't like our behaviour. She threatened to have us sent home and used the visa renewal process to get more money from us.

I'll never forget when she sued me for allegedly starting a blog to raise concerns about our treatment. She had the court serve me papers in the classroom in front of my students.

It is only because of the American Federation of Teachers' legal defence that I am still in the U.S. today, teaching robotics, with my family now by my side. This is why I believe that freedom of association is so critically important for migrants, because it was the union that helped us amplify our voices and seek justice".

CHAPTER 7

UNION ENGAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Overview

As one of the key stakeholders in the process of international teacher migration and mobility, unions have a vital role to play in protecting and supporting migrant teachers while safeguarding the standards and status of the profession. The first and most basic obligation of the labour movement is to ensure that the labour and human rights of migrants are protected. This requires unions to organise migrant teachers and advocate for necessary regulations in keeping with core labour standards. Where necessary, unions must also provide legal defence and conduct case work to address violations and prevent discriminatory practices. The results of this study clearly demonstrate that migrant teachers need and value professional development support, so this is also an important role for unions to consider.

Next, unions must work to ensure that international teacher recruitment patterns do not benefit the education systems of some nations at the expense of others. The benefits of teacher migration and mobility must be broad and reciprocal in order for programmes to be supported. This requires ongoing and careful study of the impact in source countries for the loss of their educators, as well as scrutiny of the extent to which the benefits of remittances are publicly distributed and shared. Labour export should not be seen as a substitute for job creation or development strategy, nor should extractive recruitment models be allowed to become routine hiring practices.

In addition to curtailing bad practice in international teacher recruitment and employment, unions have an opportunity to advance a vision for what constructive internationalisation of the teaching profession would look like. By developing and encouraging more and better models of high calibre professional exchange, unions can lead the way in promoting international mobility as a vehicle for advancing the quality of teaching and learning in both source and destination countries.

Throughout this report, numerous examples of union engagement strategies have been provided in order to demonstrate how labour policies and practices are responding to the various models of teacher migration. Please refer to:

- International Teacher Swap as Member Benefit, IEU, Australia
- Supporting Members Who Working Abroad, FECCOO, Spain
- Influencing the Structure of Language Programs, NUTP, Malaysia
- The Commonwealth Teachers' Group Helps Develop Standards, NUT, U.K.
- Unionism for Burmese Refugee Teachers, KEWU, Burma
- Cross-Border Collaboration to Prevent Recruitment Abuse, AFT, USA and PSLINK, Philippines



It is a central premise of this report that research is conducted in order to inform action. As these examples and many others indicate, much important work on this topic has been done by EI affiliates around the world. This report provides a vehicle for sharing the lessons that emerge from these various efforts and for considering new possibilities for joint action. This section will outline a broad range of strategies that can and have been employed by unions in source and destination countries to address issues and possibilities emerging from international teacher migration and mobility.

EI Survey Highlights

Ensuring that more migrant teachers have representation, protection, and a voice through union membership is an express goal of EI, as articulated in a 2011 World Congress resolution. While definite numbers are impossible to determine, most indicators suggest that a minority of migrant teachers are represented by a union today. The results of this global survey support this conclusion:

47 per cent of migrant teachers surveyed were members of a union at home
31 per cent of migrant teachers surveyed were members of a union abroad

Similarly, the National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers (NASUWT), reports that only 44 per cent of overseas trained teachers working in the U.K. in 2003 were union members.¹⁵³ Moreover, we know that a large number of migrant teachers are being recruited into Gulf States, where there is little independent union representation or voice.

Teachers responding to the survey reported they were members of over 75 EI affiliates at some point in their career. However, it is instructive to read the reasons teachers offered to explain why they were not union members while working abroad:

Table 7.1 Reasons teacher did not join a union while working abroad

Reasons teachers did not join a union while working abroad	Respondents*	
	#	%
No union to join	215	35%
Not asked/no information	138	22%
Not interested/did not perceive value	123	20%
Not eligible	54	9%
Short term of contract	22	4%
On fence/still considering	15	2%
Negative impression/opposed to unions	15	2%
Told not to	6	1%
Did not want to pay dues	3	<1%
Afraid	2	<1%
Other	22	4%

*N = 615

¹⁵³ NASUWT, "The Recruitment of Overseas Trained Teachers", 2004.

The main reason offered for not joining a union was the lack of a union to join. While many of these responses came from teachers working in Gulf States, there were also a surprising number of respondents who had worked in the U.S. who indicated that there were no unions to join, or even that they believed unions to be illegal in the states where they were working. This is a telling indication of the depth of misinformation and anti-union sentiment and policy in many parts of the U.S. and signals a clear need for better dissemination of information on legal rights.

Importantly, more than 20 per cent of respondents reported that they had received no information about unions while working abroad, or that they had not been asked to join. As for those indicating that they were not eligible to join a union, the reasons they specified varied. Some indicated that expats were not able to become members, others indicated that they could not join because of their work in private schools or on temporary visas. For many, the short term nature of their contracts presented a disincentive to join the union, and a handful was discouraged from doing so by their employer or their recruiter. Only two teachers actually reported a fear of joining the union, one who was working without formal authorisation and one who was working in a country with a significant history of anti-union violence. Opposition to unions or a lack of willingness to make a financial commitment were rather minor factors as described in this sample. General lack of interest or failure to perceive clear value to membership was a more common response, with 20 per cent of respondents indicating that unions did not rate as a priority for them.

As for benefits that migrant teachers received from union membership, there was little evidence from the survey results of unions providing concrete induction services for migrant teachers. Of those who reported being union members abroad, only eight per cent indicated that a union had provided settlement assistance, 10 per cent had received orientation from a union, and 16 per cent took part in a union-sponsored professional development session. These numbers are concerning given the forms of support that teachers identified as being most valuable to them while working abroad. Their responses in an open-ended question clearly demonstrated a desire for professional and cultural induction support, and the needs they articulated should prove instructive to unions in destination countries looking to attract migrant members.

Of the 960 responses, the largest share of teachers (519) indicated that they valued the **collegial support** they received while working abroad. These supports ranged from formal mentor and peer evaluation programmes to general professional collaboration and opportunities to interact with and observe colleagues. Many teachers placed particular value on connecting with fellow educators with experience teaching abroad, sometimes making these connections in person and sometimes online.

The second most cited category of supports that teachers valued (501) related to **formal professional development** training and instruction. These responses included conferences



and continuing education to strengthen qualifications. Of the training topics most valued, classroom or behaviour management was cited most often, with strategies for instruction, assessment, or lesson planning also rating very highly. A sizeable number of teachers also valued training related to the integration and use of technology. In addition, many teachers valued support specific to their content areas.

The third broad category of responses indicates that many teachers (291) value support for their **social and cultural integration** into a new environment. These supports might come in the form of formal orientation programmes, or through less structured channels. Sources for this support were wide-ranging, and included employers, recruitment agencies, unions, community or religious organisations, or individual family or community members. Importantly, teachers found that cultural understanding was important both for their own integration and for their ability to effectively reach students.

Support for professional and cultural integration is highly valued by migrant teachers, particularly when it comes in the form of peer-to-peer mentoring and guidance. Bolstering efforts on these fronts might assist unions looking to recruit more migrant teachers into membership ranks. In addition, it should be noted that sizeable clusters of the migrant teachers surveyed were grateful to their unions for proactive work on other fronts. A good number had received legal assistance from a union while working abroad, most notably in the case of Filipino teachers working in the U.S. who were part of a case filed by the AFT. Another group of teachers from Australia owed their placement in an enriching exchange programme to their union, IEU, which had arranged the opportunity to teach abroad as part of a member benefits programme. In another important example, the majority of the teacher respondents from Spain maintained their home country union membership while working abroad, and FECCOO negotiated their working conditions and stayed in contact with them throughout their overseas placement. In all such cases, migrant teachers spoke very highly of the role the union had played.

Union Research on Teacher Migration

Effective engagement around any issue is informed by solid research. Many EI affiliates, staff, and allies have undertaken important studies that have helped to guide policy and advocacy on teacher migration both at national and global level. Among those cited in this report and included in bibliography are: Trends in Foreign Teacher Recruitment (NEA), The Recruitment of Overseas Trained Teachers (NASUWT), Importing Educators (AFT), Impact of the Economic Meltdown on the Education System in Zimbabwe (ZIMTA), and Global Teachers, Australian Perspectives (AEU).

In addition, through the Commonwealth Research Network, EI affiliates have made contributions to many consolidated reports and publications. Taken together, this body of work provides valuable insight into the under-studied phenomenon of international teacher migration. However, many gaps remain in our knowledge. This report endeavours to provide some global context and analysis of teacher migration trends

and their impact, but the most important data to inform any national strategy will be grounded in the realities of the local education system and teaching force. Further research will be of great benefit to all those striving to influence these trends, and will enhance the effectiveness of advocates.

There is also a growing body of documentation and research on the range of union engagement strategies being implemented in other sectors of the global economy. The 2008 Global Unions' Statement to the 2nd Global Forum on Migration and Development catalogues examples of cross-border union partnerships in public services and construction and woodworking, as well as through central labour councils. The ILO manual, *In Search of Decent Work*, highlights union organising and education examples both in countries of origin and destination. Gordon analyses the obstacles and incentives for cross-border collaboration to reinforce workers' rights using examples from construction, agriculture, and domestic work, presenting suggestions for moving towards a transnational notion of labour citizenship.¹⁵⁴

Destination Country Strategies

In its manual on migrant worker rights, the ILO outlines the role for trade unions in the context of international migration. For unions in destination countries, it offers the following straightforward guidance:

*"Organizing, collective bargaining and the protection and promotion of rights are the three key tasks for unions – exactly the same principles apply to migrant workers... Once migrant workers see that the trade union movement is on their side, they will join, if they can do so without fear of losing their job or being deported."*¹⁵⁵

The ILO provides numerous examples of creative strategies for organising migrant workers in other sectors of the economy. Looking more specifically at the education sector, NASUWT has produced a comprehensive and useful analysis of union strategies for organising migrant teachers. The Support for Overseas Trained Teachers Project, undertaken in 2009, aimed to increase participation by overseas-trained teachers in the life of the union and to build a culture within the union that fosters engagement with the issues of migrant teachers. The findings¹⁵⁶ of this project provide valuable guidance to any teachers' union with similar objectives, so they are summarised here:

- **INTEGRATION** - Perhaps most importantly, NASUWT found that, in order to be effective, overseas-trained teacher engagement had to be integrated with the core work of the union, not isolated or sidelined. Thus, awareness of the issues and commitment to addressing them was built by:

¹⁵⁴ Gordon, *"Towards Transnational Labor Citizenship"*, 2009.

¹⁵⁵ ILO, *In Search of Decent Work*, 2008.

¹⁵⁶ NASUWT, *"The Support for Overseas Trained Teachers Project, An Evaluation"*, 2011.



- identifying existing **events** at national and local level at which migrant teachers and key activists within the union could come together to share information and experiences
 - developing tailored **tools** and materials to improve migrant teacher recruitment and representation
 - training** activists and leaders in the issues relevant to migrant educators
- **INFORMATION** - Based upon its research, NASUWT knew that migrant teachers lack and need both professional and social/cultural information. To address these gaps, the union undertook a number of strategies:
 - developing a **website** devoted to migrant teachers' issues, including a question board to which the union responded weekly
 - creating of an **e-bulletin** to communicate information about relevant news and events
 - reaching out through Facebook and other social media, including efforts to connect with existing online migrant communities
- **PROFESSIONAL SERVICES AND SUPPORT** - Any new teacher entering a school requires professional orientation and guidance in order to be successful, and this need is even more acute for teachers entering a national education system for the first time. NASUWT's research made clear that internationally recruited teachers lacked familiarity with the structure and detail of the English school system, including the curriculum, expectations in relation to assessment, behaviour and special education needs. Through this project, the union identified ways to address these gaps, including:
 - Providing **professional development** support, particularly in curricular areas commonly taught by migrant educators
 - Assisting with **credential recognition** and assuring that teachers' experience and training was adequately credited
- **COLLABORATION** - Engaging in this work led NASUWT to the realisation that, in order to be effective advocates, it needed to work with and learn from other allies and partners. The collaboration occurred on many levels:
 - Professional Organisations.** Based on the subjects taught by migrant teachers in the UK, NASUWT found it beneficial to collaborate with the National Centre for Excellence in the Teaching of Math. Many other professional organisations might be useful partners in order to support the professional needs of migrant educators
 - Migrant Advocacy Organisations.** To better address the acute needs of teachers entering the UK as refugees or forced migrants, NASUWT built a relationship with the Refugee Council for the Welfare of Migrants

- ❑ **Other unions.** NASUWT drew ideas and lessons from the work of the labour movement on many levels:
- **At national level,** it worked closely with the Trade Union Confederation and its affiliates in forming and implementing a comprehensive strategy
 - **At bi-lateral level,** it cooperated with unions in source countries to improve understanding of cultural issues and clarify matters relating to credentials recognition
 - **At global level,** as part of the EI taskforce on teacher migration, it worked to share information across borders and advocate for improved global governance of migration within a rights-based policy framework

Through this comprehensive strategy, NASUWT demonstrates that an effective organising plan requires a broad review of the structures and processes of the union to ensure that migrant teachers will not only have the opportunity to join, but will also find value in membership.

Indeed, an analysis of the existing research, as well as the responses to EI's global survey, makes clear that work on teacher migration should not be narrowly defined. When developing an engagement strategy, unions should consider every function they perform, from the legislative and bargaining process, to legal case work and grievances, to public relations and internal messaging, to professional development and mentoring programmes.

10 Questions to Consider

Based on the learning from this research, below is a list of basic questions that unions in destination countries should consider in assessing any international recruitment policy or programme:

1. Will migrants have the same rights as local teachers, most importantly the right to join your union?
2. Will migrant and local teachers have the same wages and benefits?
3. Will the migrants' work eligibility be temporary or permanent?
4. Will migrants be required to have teaching certification or experience?
5. Will recruits be required to pay any fees to get their jobs?
6. What parties will be involved in recruitment and hiring?
7. Will migrant and local teachers have the same employer?
8. Is the international recruitment addressing a legitimate need or educational objective?
9. Will incoming teachers receive a quality orientation and professional support?
10. Will your union have access to data to study the scope and impact of the recruitment?



Source Country Strategies

The ILO manual, *In Search of Decent Work*, makes clear that the role of trade unions in source countries is both essential and challenging. According to the ILO, “When the whole cycle of migrating for work is examined, it starts and finishes in the origin country. This is often where the least resources exist.”¹⁵⁷

In outlining some concrete strategies for unions in source countries, the manual provides examples such as:

- Influencing bilateral agreements to improve worker protections
- Providing pre-departure or pre-decision briefings and “know your rights” materials
- Collaborating with unions in destination countries to promote seamless protections and informed decision-making
- Organising workers prior to migration so that they can work collectively abroad
- Establishing reciprocal union membership agreements with unions in destination countries
- Maintaining contact with expatriate members

Promoting informed decision-making is an essential piece of empowering migrant workers, and there is much progress to be made. In response to the survey, 36 per cent of the respondents indicated they were not informed of the legal rights afforded them in their destination country. Unions can and have played an important role in addressing this information gap. For example, PSLINK in the Philippines is the only labour union that has signed a Memorandum of Agreement with the POEA to promote ethical recruitment of migrant workers. Under this partnership, PSLINK has been accredited as a provider of Pre-Employment Orientation Seminars. These seminars help workers who are considering migrating abroad make informed decisions, focusing on migration realities and workers’ rights. In another example, the Barbados Union of Teachers distributed pocket copies of the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol to teachers who were setting off to work abroad. These were designed and printed by the U.K.’s NUT, as part of its commitment to cross-border collaboration with source countries.

In addition to these important efforts, many teachers unions play an important role in helping migrant teachers to reintegrate into the domestic workforce after teaching abroad. In the EI teacher migration survey, 13 per cent of respondents who had returned home had difficulty reentering the workforce. Unions in countries experiencing a repatriation of teachers have many important issues to consider regarding their seniority and retirement benefits, among other issues.

¹⁵⁷ ILO, *In Search of Decent Work*, 2008.

In assessing strategies used by various source countries to improve the protections for their workers abroad, Gordon concludes that without a cross-border component, these efforts are unlikely to be successful: “no matter how creative or active an origin country is in the protection of migrant workers’ rights, there are limits to what it can achieve without the active cooperation of the destination country. Not only do destination countries hold most of the bargaining power, but it is on destination country territory that labor violations occur and it is destination country laws and legal institutions that are largely used to remedy them.”¹⁵⁸ This assessment underscores how vital cross-border union collaboration is to ensuring adequate worker protections. Indeed, the most promising strategies for shoring up labour rights are not bilateral, but rather multilateral or regional, where there is a greater potential to establish a solid baseline for a cluster of nations by removing some elements of competition between and among them.

Finally, it is important that unions in countries that are losing their teachers help to document the impact on the quality of public education services and build a body of evidence to challenge the notion that remittances alone can compensate for out-migration of highly-qualified teachers.

Trends to Watch

Education privatisation schemes rely on cost structures that keep labour costs lower than traditional public education to maximise potential for profit. While little research has been done to analyse these schemes through the lens of migration, the examples highlighted below suggest intersections that warrant further examination.

Low fee private schools

The growth of low fee private schools in countries ranging from India to Nigeria to Brazil aims to create an alternative to public schools in poor communities around the world. In South Africa, the number of independent schools believed to be in operation varies widely, but by all accounts their presence is growing. Interviews with officials from National Professional Teachers’ Association of South Africa (NAPTOSA) indicate that many of the unqualified migrant and particularly refugee teachers in South Africa are finding employment on fixed term contracts in these low fee private schools. With an average of two years’ wait for qualifications recognition, migrant teachers in South Africa often have little choice but to accept positions with low wages and no benefits from independent schools or in governing board posts. According to Centre for Development and Enterprise, what constitutes low fees in South Africa is still relatively high by international standards, preventing the sector from serving the very poor at present.¹⁵⁹ As a result, further efforts are sought to reduce costs and increase subsidies

¹⁵⁸ Gordon, “Towards Transnational Labor Citizenship”, 2009.

¹⁵⁹ CDE, “Affordable Private Schools in South Africa”, 2013.



in order to attract even more students away from the state school system. The ability to hire well trained yet vulnerable teachers from Zimbabwe and the Democratic Republic of the Congo at low wages may prove to be one of the factors that help these schools offer a low cost alternative to public education.

Privately operated “public” schools

Privately operated public schools known as charter schools in the United States and free schools in the United Kingdom are expanding rapidly, totalling nearly 6,000 in the U.S. in 2013 and 174 in the U.K.¹⁶⁰ Governed by widely varying policies and regulations, the schools operate on both a nonprofit and for-profit basis, with some locally controlled by parents and educators, and others part of national or international chains with proprietary curricula. In the U. S., nearly one in five students enrolled in charter schools attends a school operated by a for-profit management company.¹⁶¹ According to Bartlett’s analysis, charter schools in the U.S. sought to employ more than 4,000 teachers from abroad between 2002-2008. Using her formula, this amounts to roughly five per cent of the international teacher recruits sought in that period in the country.¹⁶² In 2003, an NEA report on foreign teacher recruitment estimated that 67 per cent of the teaching positions certified by the Labor Department in the U.S. were for applications from public school authorities. The remaining third would have come from private and charter school employers.¹⁶³

Within this landscape of international recruitment by American charters, one network of schools bears further examination. A loosely affiliated network of at least 130 charter schools specialising in math and science in the U.S. has been connected to Fethullah Gulen, a Turkish Islamic cleric whose teachings promote tolerance, interfaith dialogue and education.¹⁶⁴ The American schools are part of a worldwide network of more than 1,000 Gulen-inspired schools in more than 100 countries. Uniquely, Gulen network schools in the United States are publicly funded. Moreover, these schools applied for 771 three-year teacher visas in 2011 alone and are known to rely heavily on Turkish recruits to staff their schools. Taken together, these schools constitute the largest network of charter schools in the U.S.¹⁶⁵

Corporate teacher supply agencies

“The practices of many offshore umbrella companies are proving to be damaging to supply teachers who are being forced into signing dubious contracts which seek to deny them basic legal rights and entitlements and allow these agencies to dodge their

¹⁶⁰ *Dashboard: A Comprehensive Data Resource, “Total Number of Schools”*; Department for Education, “Open free schools”, 2011.

¹⁶¹ *National Education Policy Center, Profiles of For-profit and Nonprofit Education Management Institutions*, 2012.

¹⁶² *Bartlett, Migrant Teachers*, 2014.

¹⁶³ *Barber, “Trends in Foreign Teacher recruitment”*, 2003.

¹⁶⁴ *Toppo, “Objectives of charter schools with Turkish Ties questioned”*, 2010.

¹⁶⁵ *Ibid.*

tax and national insurance liabilities," decried Chris Keates, General Secretary of the NASUWT, in an effort to call attention to the practices of the U.K.'s teacher supply agencies and the precarious conditions of the teachers who work for them.¹⁶⁶ Among the pool of supply teachers working in the U.K. is a large number of overseas-trained teachers, for whom supply work is the most accessible employment option without Qualified Teacher Status.

Research indicates that recruitment of supply teachers from overseas increased dramatically in the late 1990s, with the greatest shortages in London.¹⁶⁷ While concrete data is not available, a Department for Education and Skills-funded study of 1,554 supply teachers in 2006 had 126 overseas-trained teachers in its sample, suggesting a healthy representation. The international recruitment of supply teachers allowed for greater flexibility in addressing teacher vacancies, especially in more challenging schools, despite difficulties in the form of 'cultural clashes'.¹⁶⁸

NASUWT has documented severe problems with the practices of supply agencies, such as gag clauses and blacklisting of teachers who complain about their conditions. Manik's interviews with South African migrant teachers identified problems with U.K. supply agency recruitment practices and contracts, such as agencies' routine failures to reveal that they would be taking a cut of teachers' daily wages, in addition to the upfront fees they receive from the schools.¹⁶⁹ One return migrant declared that "Agencies are a rip-off! The school paid £175 per teacher per day; however, the agency only paid the teachers £90."¹⁷⁰ In addition, teachers were not informed that, due to the temporary nature of their positions at schools, they would not be entitled to paid sick leave or holidays.¹⁷¹ They were relegated to the status of hourly wage earners and risked a reduction in hours should they raise concerns.

Virtual Schools or Teachers

Among the experimental school management models being tried around the world, virtual schools may represent the most concerted effort to eliminate or reduce the reliance on quality teachers. These experiments take a range of forms, some of which involve teachers in countries far removed from the schools' base of operation. One example was flagged recently by Bartlett. Futuristic as it may sound, small penguin-shaped robots are being used to teach English to kindergarten students in South Korea.¹⁷² Initially, developers attempted to operate the Engkey (English jockey) robots with scripted programming, but the automated system was deemed too rigid. Developers decided instead to employ overseas teachers to control the robots remotely from the Philippines. According

¹⁶⁶ NASUWT, "Teachers Being Exploited", 2013.

¹⁶⁷ Warner, "Overseas Trained Teachers", 2010.

¹⁶⁸ Maylor, "Culture Clash", 2006.

¹⁶⁹ Manik, "Covert Research", 2010.

¹⁷⁰ *Ibid.*

¹⁷¹ *Ibid.*

¹⁷² Bartlett, "Robots in the Classroom", 2013.



to Bartlett, this allows “South Korean classrooms to import the teaching without the teacher, to pay the teacher at the much lower local wage, and to downplay the fact that the English teacher is Asian”. Such experiments are likely to continue in new and challenging ways, further blurring the national boundaries of the world’s teaching force.

A Teacher’s Voice: Fired for Forming a Union Abroad, Patricia Raclot*



In 2010, Patricia Raclot, a French citizen and elementary school teacher, joined an effort to organise teachers and staff at the Portland, Oregon-based PortlandFrench School (PFS) to help give employees there a voice in their working conditions, similar to what she experienced in France. However, she never imagined the anti-union campaign the school would wage. The day after the union requested recognition, Raclot was informed that her visa paperwork had been stopped and that her contract would not be renewed. In 2011, an administrative law judge ruled that the school had violated the National Labor Relations Act in its opposition to union organising by its teachers and staff.

As part of the decision, Raclot was to have her work visa and position at the school restored, along with back pay. Instead, the private school opted to close due to financial concerns caused at least in part by the legal fees it invested in its union busting campaign. What follows are some of Raclot’s reflections about her experience:

“I wanted to study and work in a school where you have teachers who come from all over the world to share experiences from different countries and cultures. I received a lot of support from parents and the community. Everything was fine—parents were proud of my teaching, and children had good results in my classes.

I had been in a union as a teacher in France. There, with a union, you have answers right away, or you can go on strike if something is wrong. You can work with those who can change the laws.

It’s so important to be represented when there are so many people concerned—the kids, parents, teachers and staff. But the day after we requested recognition, I was told by the head of the school that my visa paperwork for the following year had been stopped. I was not expecting that at all. We were really willing to work with administration, but just wanted to have a way to raise our concerns. I thought the head of the school would just recognise the union without having an election.

I was shocked by the anti-union campaign at PFS. It’s not like that in France. But it’s not my personality to step down. I’d rather stay and fight for all who were fired, laid off, or harassed. I want to show that an employer cannot do whatever it wants just because it has the power.”

* Story and photo courtesy of Jillian Smith, AFT-Oregon

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In an increasingly globalised world, migration is a part of the human condition, and teacher migration is an inevitable part of that story. As this report has demonstrated, how teachers move and how they are treated in their home and host countries matters a great deal. The three hiring models profiled have distinct characteristics and implications, and although they may at times overlap, delineating them aids in the formulation of coherent and effective policy.

International teacher exchanges, when structured properly, are a highly desirable form of professional mobility. Such programmes elevate the status of the teaching profession by providing rich professional development and opportunities to reflect on the craft of teaching. Importantly, by targeting experienced teachers, they can also serve to refresh and reinvigorate career educators. In the ideal model of reciprocal exchange, students on all sides of the teacher flows benefit equally from the new perspectives and approaches brought into their classrooms. The value of such programmes has long been realised, with the ILO and UNESCO embedding support for authentic exchange into their 1966 Recommendations Concerning the Status of Teachers. Unfortunately, too few opportunities for such high calibre exchange are available to teachers today, and many of those that do exist are threatened by austerity budget cuts.

Language and curricular programmes that seek to diversify course offerings also have an important role to play in preparing students for a global knowledge economy. Such programmes take many forms, with some countries importing language expertise and other countries exporting it as a form of popular diplomacy. While promoting cross-cultural awareness and foreign language acquisition are laudable goals, some of these programmes undervalue the need for pedagogical training in their teacher selection criteria. Moreover, the many examples outlined in this report reveal that there can be a perceived hierarchy of value placed on native fluency from certain parts of the world which leads to discriminatory levels of pay and conditions.

Shortage hiring from abroad generates a host of issues related to workers' rights, teacher professionalism and education quality in both source and destination countries. Unfortunately, the majority of teacher migration in the world today is responding to labour market supply and demand, rather than purposefully internationalising the profession or the curriculum.

In analysing the purported teacher shortages around the world, it must be said that most shortages are created. They come about not due to a lack of willing teachers,



but due to a failure to invest in sufficient training of the teaching workforce or sufficient salaries and benefits to attract teachers in fields such as math and science in which their earning potential may be higher in other sectors of the economy. Market-based reforms that promote competition and high stakes testing lower the bar for entry into the teaching profession and erode professional autonomy and dignity. These are also pushing teachers out of the classroom and even out of the country. The way to deal with such shortages is not through stopgap hiring from abroad, but by addressing the underlying factors that are keeping the local workforce from joining or staying in the profession.

In addition to these intentional hiring models, many nations face the challenge of **responding to forced migration**. Forced migration affected at least 45 million people in 2012 and groups such as UNHCR only expect it to increase in the future. Recognising that such upheavals have severe implications for students and teachers, there is a need for more careful planning for the provision of education services in the wake of crisis. While the precise nature and location of future emergencies are impossible to predict, there are lessons to be learned from each new example. Even under the direst circumstances, teachers such as those from Syria and Burma have demonstrated a desire to contribute to education and recovery efforts. Their skills should be recognised and valued, and they should be seen as important agents for meeting the needs of displaced populations.

Stakeholders

Within the diverse landscape of these models and circumstances, the role of four key stakeholder groups must be considered:

Migrant teachers – Moving for a host of different reasons, migrant teachers are proactively making choices and taking risks in order to improve their lives or advance their careers. Supporting their rights and agency should be a key component of any strategy to address teacher migration trends. Paramount among the rights of these teachers should be the right to stay or not to have to migrate in order to support their families. Only when migration is a matter of choice rather than necessity can it be fully empowering, as examples in this report demonstrate.

Employers – Governments on all sides of migration flows ultimately bear the responsibility for protecting migrant rights and ensuring education quality. Employers have the greatest degree of influence over a migrant teacher's working conditions and are best positioned to provide the necessary supports to ensure teachers can succeed in their new work environment. When teachers work for an employer that is directly involved in the recruitment process, provides an orientation, offers professional

development, and conducts constructive evaluations, they are able to gain much more benefit from their overseas experience. When school-level leaders value the perspectives international teachers bring to the classroom, they can be important allies to help returned migrant teachers share their experiences with colleagues.

Recruitment Agencies – The international recruitment industry profits most directly from teacher migration and operates largely free from regulation. There is a growing global consensus that workers should not be charged fees in order to secure jobs and migrant teachers should be afforded that same basic protection. Teachers from developing countries are particularly vulnerable to recruitment abuse and regulation and monitoring of international recruitment practices is a pressing priority for the labour movement. EI can help to facilitate this work in the education sector, both through policy advocacy and through EI's online portal www.MigrantTeachersRights.org the online portal that will allow teachers to share their experiences directly.

Unions – This report has provided numerous examples from around the world to demonstrate that unions have an important role to play in policing and steering teacher migration programmes and practices. However, it is clear that without proactive efforts to inject themselves into the dynamics, unions can easily be marginalised in these hiring trends that may even be seeking to erode their bargaining power. Working together in a cross-border fashion to address issues of concern regarding rights and quality will be essential, and the Commonwealth Teachers Group has shown great leadership in building a platform for such collaboration and cooperation.

Recommendations for getting teacher migration and mobility right

Improve data collection and make it publicly available

More access to better data is critical to understanding teacher migration trends and their impact. Government agencies and international organisations should collect and make detailed information available regarding the international teaching workforce and more qualitative and quantitative research should be conducted to document trends and their impact.

This study was exploratory in nature and its findings reveal many areas that warrant further investigation, including: broader survey dissemination and analysis of first-hand experiences of migrant teachers; investigation of the professional benefits of international exchange and the characteristics of effective exchange programmes; examination of the impact of out-migration of teachers in source countries and potential models to mitigate negative consequences; review of the implications of the feminised nature of teacher migration; documentation of the extent of deskilling and brain waste related to teacher migration and policies that might help to reduce it; and analysis of the role of refugee teachers in crisis response and recovery efforts.



Protect migrant teachers' rights and support their professional needs

All teachers need support to adapt to a new educational environment and migrant teachers are no exception. The success of any international teacher hiring depends heavily on cultural orientation and professional development. Teachers are accustomed to the teaching and learning cultures of their home country, which may be at odds with the environment to which they are introduced, and classroom management is the most consistently cited challenge they face. Recruited teachers should receive ongoing support to ensure they are able to be as effective as possible in the classroom.

Equal treatment regardless of gender, race, nationality, or language is essential to any rights-based migration advocacy and this report advocates for the eradication of policies that create inequities between teachers. For migrant teachers, credentialing challenges can present a significant hurdle to mobility or reduce their earning potential in the destination country. Credential recognition policies must be consistent, coherent, and transparent.

Expand opportunities for well-structured teacher exchanges and language programmes

Consistent public investment enables teacher exchange programmes to thrive. Policymakers around the world have enriched the educational experience of both teachers and students through professional exchange and language and curricular programmes. However, fiscal austerity and a move to privatisation of educational services threaten such programmes. This report advocates for sustained government support of teacher exchange programmes but, in the absence of government leadership, the IEU model in Australia provides an example of union leadership in organising and conducting teacher swaps.

The most successful exchange programmes recruit highly qualified teachers, provide the structure and time for professional growth, and maximise benefits to sending and receiving countries. Qualified, experienced teachers who have achieved a degree of professional expertise will more easily adjust to a new teaching environment and will be able to share their knowledge with colleagues in their host country. Sufficient programme duration allows teachers to fully engage in the learning environment and achieve a depth of professional growth from immersion in the school and local culture. At the same time, however, programmes of excessive length may be misused by school administrators for shortage hiring needs. Lastly, multi-directional participation fosters the truest form of exchange for all stakeholders and deepens the impact of teacher exchange on educational systems.

Reduce reliance on international recruitment to fill shortages or spur development

This report, similar to the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol, urges a reduction of the reliance on international recruitment to meet predictable staffing needs. Teacher shortages should be addressed by identifying and alleviating their root causes,

rather than through stopgap international hiring practices. Consistent with the policies of the ILO, temporary shortages must not be allowed to turn into structural shortages. This can only be done through careful, long range workforce planning and investment, which is the obligation of governments on all sides of teacher migration flows. International recruitment is neither a solution to routine staffing needs nor to development. Whether on the basis of migrant rights, teacher professionalism, or education quality, shortage hiring as most commonly undertaken generates a host of concerns, particularly in a context when countries the world over are struggling to staff their schools with highly qualified and effective teachers.

When international recruitment is deemed necessary, it should be seen as part of a strategy to create lasting staffing solutions. To that end, teachers hired to address shortages should not be in precarious work conditions, but should have a path to permanence in their destination country should they desire it. Moreover, the loss of investment in human capital through the out-migration of teachers that many source countries are experiencing requires some form of redress. Some possible models for ensuring return on investment to countries that prioritise the training of teachers have been identified and they should be explored further.

Involve educators and unions

Forced migration, often accompanied by a major humanitarian crisis, requires the concerted action of national governments, relief agencies, donors, and NGOs to ensure immediate access to basic needs. Even in the midst of existential concerns, education is critically important in helping to restore a sense of normalcy and hope for the future. Teacher unions, on a national and international level, should partner with relief agencies and responders to ensure effective education, which should include efforts to more effectively integrate refugee teachers into their assistance programmes. Even under the most difficult circumstances, teachers maintain a strong professional identity and can be an invaluable resource in recovery planning and response.

The deskilling that occurs when forced migrant teachers have to turn to work in other fields in order to survive is a waste of the investment made in their education. Greater efforts should be made to help teachers remain in the profession, and programmes such as those profiled in this section provide useful models for addressing common barriers. Better data and research on the numbers and experience of teachers forced to migrate could help relief agencies and receiving governments develop strategies for recognising credentials or evaluating skills and education where records have been lost or destroyed.

Limit and regulate the role of international recruitment agencies

The need for regulation of the international teacher recruitment industry is widely recognised, and EI and its affiliates must continue to push for more and better



regulations at national and global level. Transparency, employer accountability, and a ban on fees to workers are essential components of meaningful regulation. Moreover, governments need to commit resources to enforcement and establish penalties for violations that are serious enough to deter abuse.

Even as they push for binding legal frameworks consistent with ILO conventions and protocols, migrant rights advocates are experimenting with other ways to improve recruitment practices through such strategies as voluntary codes of ethics and creating platforms for workers to directly and publicly share their experiences with recruiters and employers. EI has plans to launch a global portal for migrant teachers. This will be a vital space in which to provide improved access to information and promote such lesson sharing, with a goal of helping migrant teachers make more informed choices before they sign a recruitment contract.

Empower migrants through unions

In order to be effective in steering international teacher migration trends in a positive direction, union engagement strategies must be multifaceted and well-coordinated. For unions, a primary lesson from this report is the inadequacy of unilateral responses. The global causes and consequences of teacher migration are something about which every individual union understands only one small piece. Sharing information, insights, and strategies is essential in order to address these global forces responsibly and effectively. Meaningful partnerships will require authentic reciprocal interest, sustained commitment, and shared core values.

Through building cross-border relationships and open channels of communication, unions will be better able to notify each other when there is a need to act and poised to coordinate strategies. Workers must be represented by strong unions at home and in any country to which they choose to travel for work, with as seamless a transition as possible. The role of EI in supporting this work is fundamental. Only through work at a global level can unions coordinate an effective engagement around teacher migration. Among the essential roles for EI to play will be:

- Collecting evidence, information, and data from around the world to highlight best practices and expose injustice.
- Brokering connections between unions in source and destination countries.
- Creating a platform for migrant teachers to share their experiences and raise questions or concerns.
- Advocating for just migration and development policies through the UN, World Bank, and other international institutions.

Create a harmonised policy framework

Contemporary push and pull factors for teacher migration relate as much to education policy as they do to migration or labour policy. However, most countries in the world currently develop these policies separately, often leading to disconnect and problems. Therefore, an overarching recommendation of this report is to call for a policy framework that aligns workers' rights, migrant rights, and education quality. To that end, EI and its affiliates will continue to advocate just migration and just development policies consistent with EI's core priorities. Namely:

EDUCATION POLICY

- Well-rounded curricula to prepare young people for citizenship in a globalised world.
- End to the mania of over testing and high stakes.
- Full and equitable access to quality education.
- Meaningful investment in pre-service and in-service training and development for teachers.
- Teacher salaries and benefits on a par with professionals in other fields.
- Safe and healthy school environments for teaching and learning.
- Fair system of recognition of credentials of teachers trained abroad.

MIGRATION POLICY

- Ending employer-driven temporary work programmes that create precarious work conditions.
- Regulation of recruitment agencies and practices.
- Banning the charging of fees to workers.
- Full rights and access to justice for migrant teachers.
- Requirements to document a domestic shortage before recruiting from abroad.
- High standards for professional and cultural exchange programmes (ideally reciprocal in nature).

ECONOMIC/LABOUR POLICY

- Freedom of association for public and private employees.
- Collective bargaining rights for public and private employees.
- Equal pay for equal work, regardless of country of origin.
- Meaningful investment in public education.
- Fair taxation structures to support public services.
- Effective jobs creation and workforce planning processes.
- End to restrictions on social spending by international financial institutions that require disinvestment in education and healthcare.



Such policies must be pursued not only at national level, but also at global level, where many deals are struck and prescriptions made that have a profound impact on migration patterns and the provision of public services. The Global Unions have actively engaged with the Global Forum on Migration and Development since its inception, and have produced a number of comprehensive statements on how best to ensure the protection of human and trade union rights for migrant workers. Unfortunately, there is no effective structure for the global governance of migration and powerful forces are resisting labour's push to address these issues within the normative framework of the ILO. Only through the intense and ongoing engagement of trade unions and civil society will better systems and protections be established.

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International Teacher Mobility Survey

2012 - 2013

Appendix A

This survey was distributed in English, Spanish, and French from November 2012 to September 2013. Primary channels for survey dissemination were through Education International affiliates, teacher recruitment agencies, government programs, non-government organizations, migrant teacher social networks, as well as during country site visits conducted by research team members. Ultimately, 1,435 teachers completed the survey however, the number of responses for each specific question varies depending on the number of teachers who answered that question. In some instances, the percentages add up to more than 100 percent because respondents could select more than one answer. For comparative purposes, questions where respondents could select more than one answer are presented as a percentage of the total question respondents. Responses to questions not presented graphically are available upon request.

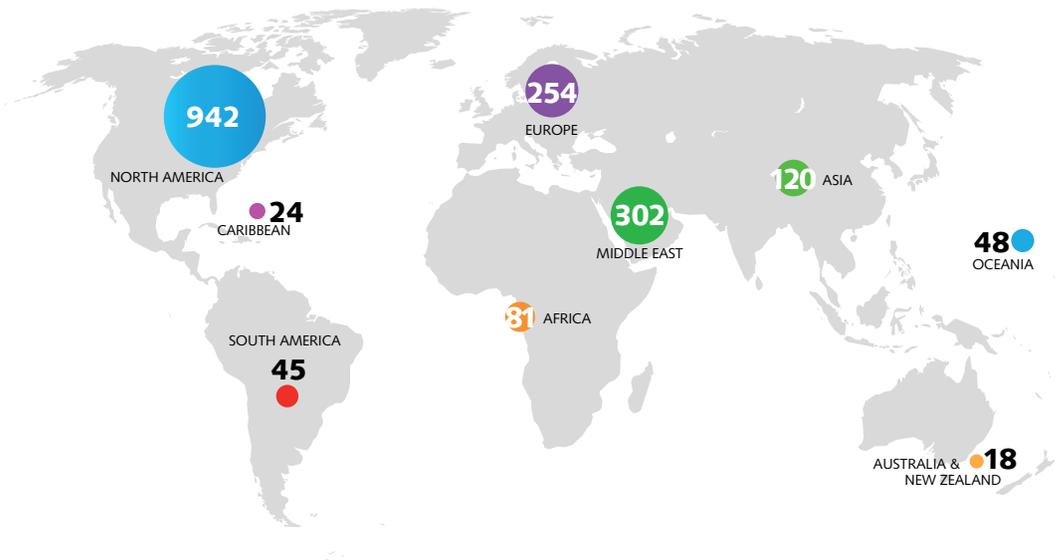
International Teacher Mobility Survey

2012–2013

Section One. Background Information

Question 1. In which countries have you worked abroad as a teacher ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1358** (1737 TEACHER VISITS)



Question 1. In which countries have you worked abroad as a teacher? (cont.'d)

AFRICA

Africa
Botswana
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Kenya
Liberia
Mali
Namibia
Nigeria
Mauritius
South Africa
Sudan
Swaziland
Tanzania
Togo
Uganda
West Africa
Western Sahara
Zambia
Zimbabwe

ASIA

Bangladesh
Cambodia
China
Hong Kong
India
Japan
Kazakhstan
Korea
Macao
Myanmar
Nepal
Pakistan
Russia
South Korea
Thailand
Uzbekistan
Vietnam
Bhutan
Taiwan

AU & NZ

Australia
New Zealand

CARIB

Bahamas
Cayman Islands
Cuba
Dominican Republic
Jamaica
Trinidad and Tobago
West Indies

EUROPE

Andorra
Austria
Azerbaijan
Belgium
Bulgaria
Cyprus
Czech Republic
Finland
France
Georgia
Germany
Holland
Hungary
Ireland
Italy
Latvia
Luxemburg
Macedonia
Netherlands
Norway
Poland
Portugal
Romania
Serbia
Slovakia
Slovenia
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
Turkey
Ukraine
United Kingdom

MID EAST

Algeria
Bahrain
Egypt
Iraq
Israel
Jordan
Kuwait
Libya
Morocco
Oman
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Syria
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates

N. AM

Canada
Mexico
United States of America

OCEANIA

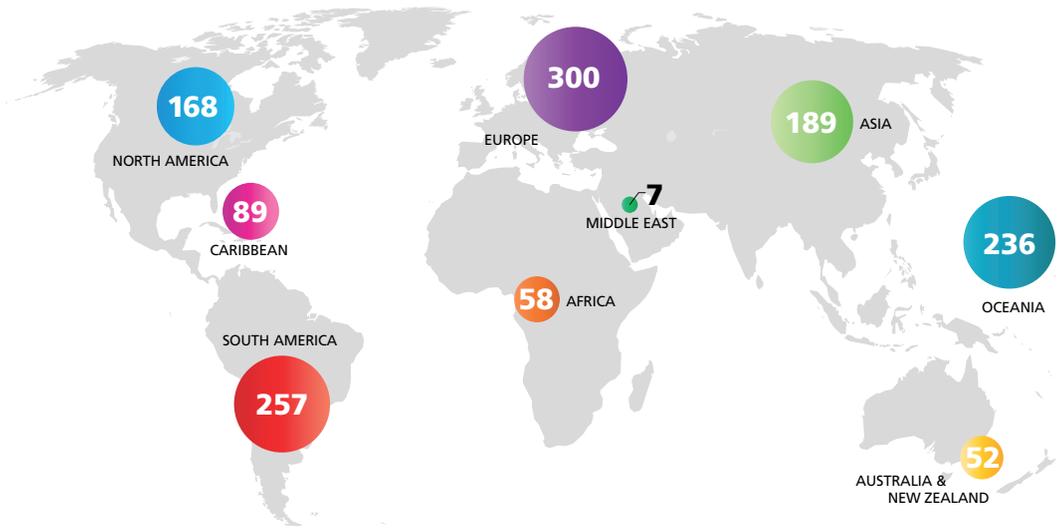
Papua New Guinea
Brunei
Guam
Indonesia
Malaysia
Maldives
Palau
Philippines
Samoa
Singapore
Sri Lanka

S. AM

Argentina
Bolivia
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Ecuador
Falkland Islands
Forsyth
Guyana
Honduras
Nicaragua
Panama
Peru
Venezuela

Question 2. What is your home country ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1358**



AFRICA

- Ghana
- Nigeria
- Sierra Leone
- South Africa
- Zimbabwe

ASIA

- China
- Hong Kong
- India

AU & NZ

- Australia
- New Zealand

CARIB

- Bahamas
- Barbados
- Grenada
- Honduras
- Jamaica
- Antilles
- Trinidad and Tobago

EUROPE

- Belgium
- Bulgaria
- Denmark
- France
- Germany
- Hungary
- Ireland
- Italy
- Malta
- Netherlands
- Portugal
- Romania
- Scotland
- Spain
- Ukraine
- United Kingdom

MID EAST

- Jordan
- Lebanon
- Morocco

N. AM

- Canada
- Mexico
- United States of America

OCEANIA

- Philippines
- Sri Lanka

S. AM

- Argentina
- Brazil
- Chile
- Colombia
- Costa Rica
- Ecuador
- El Salvador
- Guyana
- Panama
- Peru
- Uruguay
- Venezuela

Question 3. What is your nationality ?

Results from this question are available upon request

Question 4. What is your gender ?

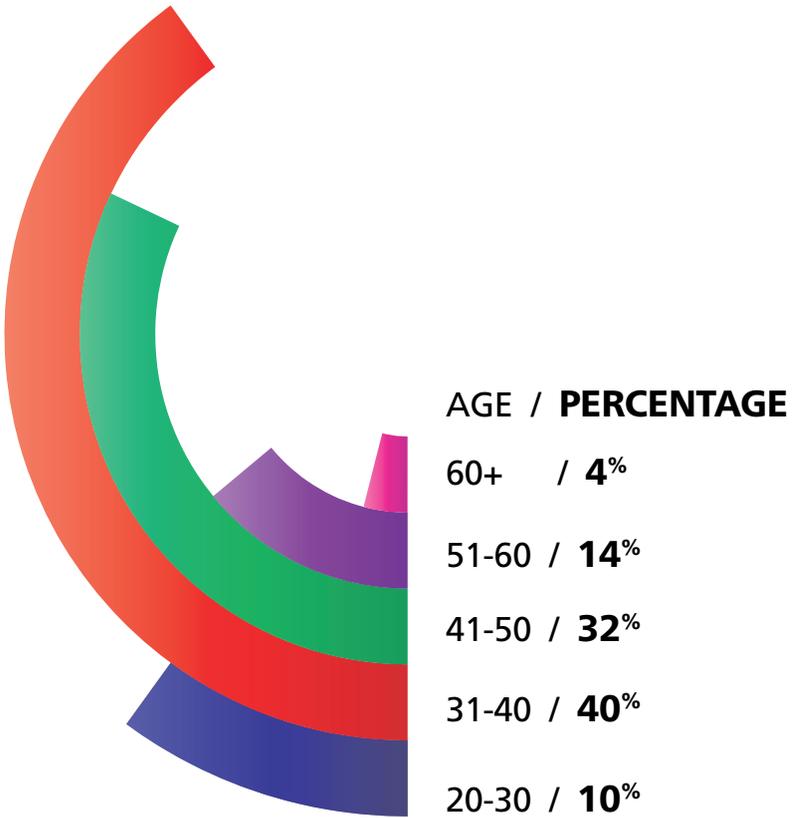


TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1339**

 FEMALE
924

 MALE
415

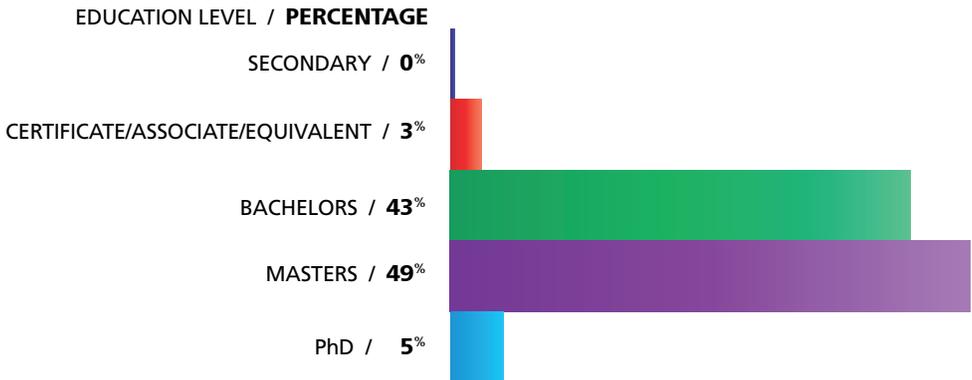
Question 5. What is your age ?



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1333**



Question 6. What is your highest level of education ?



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1340**

 SECONDARY
4

 CERTIFICATE/
ASSOCIATE/
EQUIVALENT
35

 MASTERS
663

 PhD
62

 BACHELORS
576



Question 7. In what fields are you trained at the post-secondary level ?

Results from this question are available upon request

Question 8. Which best describes your current teaching status?



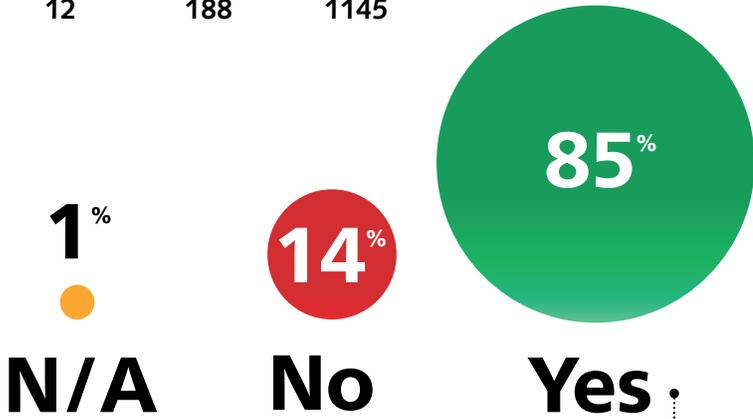
TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1345

103 546 651 45

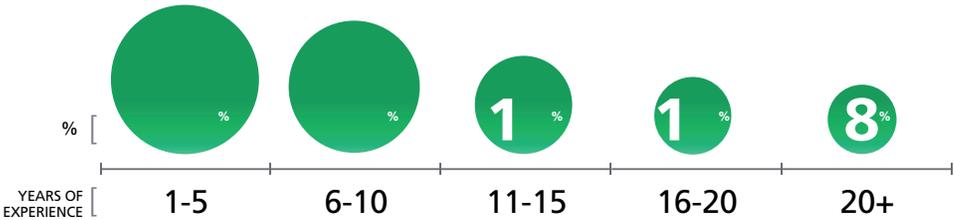
Question 9. Were you working as a teacher in your home country when you decided to teach abroad ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1345**

● N/A **12**
 ● No **188**
 ● Yes **1145**



• Years of teaching experience prior to working abroad



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **997**

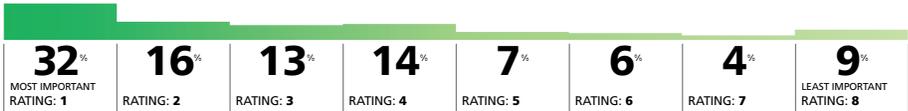
1-5 YRS	6-10 YRS	11-15 YRS	16-20 YRS	20+ YRS
330	265	144	88	70



Question 10. Why did you choose to teach in another country ?

Please rank the following factors in order of importance to you, where 1= most important, 8 = least important, or leave blank if not applicable.

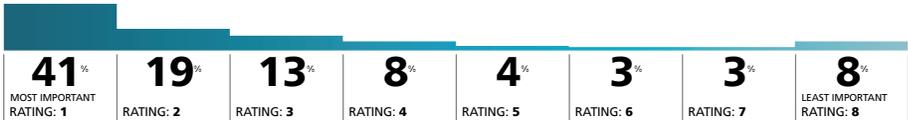
Better Pay



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1134

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:359 | 2:181 | 3:144 | 4:156 | 5:77 | 6:72 | 7:46 | 8:99

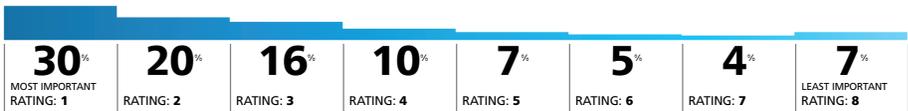
Opportunity for Professional Development



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1204

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:498 | 2:226 | 3:155 | 4:97 | 5:52 | 6:40 | 7:36 | 8:100

Desire To See the World



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1182

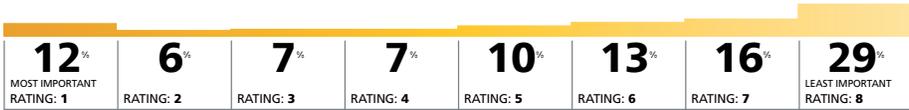
RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:358 | 2:242 | 3:186 | 4:122 | 5:83 | 6:59 | 7:47 | 8:85

Question 10. Why did you choose to teach in another country ?

(CONTINUED FROM PAGE X) Please rank the following factors in order

of importance to you, where 1= most important, 8 = least important, or leave blank if not applicable.

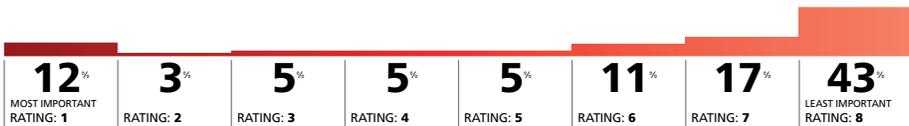
Lack of Employment Opportunities in Home Country



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **860**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**101** | 2:**51** | 3:**57** | 4:**63** | 5:**85** | 6:**116** | 7:**135** | 8:**252**

Instability, Political Upheaval Or Natural Disaster In Home Country



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **747**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**91** | 2:**19** | 3:**34** | 4:**34** | 5:**40** | 6:**83** | 7:**124** | 8:**322**

Need To Support Family

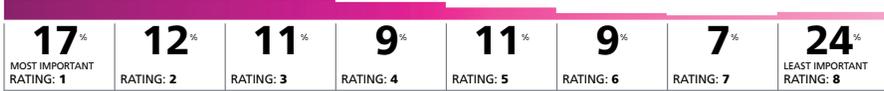


TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **950**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**163** | 2:**111** | 3:**102** | 4:**89** | 5:**108** | 6:**85** | 7:**68** | 8:**224**



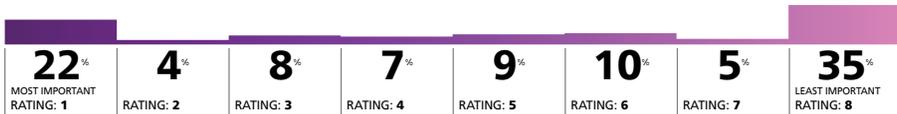
Looking for a Life Change



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1135**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**213** | 2:**219** | 3:**215** | 4:**177** | 5:**121** | 6:**65** | 7:**49** | 8:**76**

Other



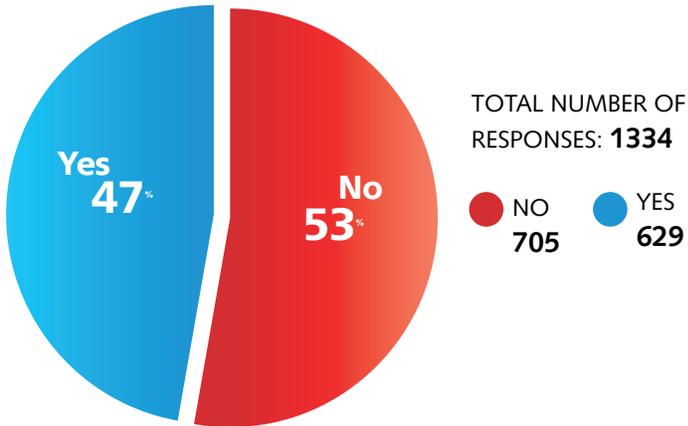
TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **470**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**102** | 2:**21** | 3:**36** | 4:**32** | 5:**44** | 6:**47** | 7:**23** | 8:**165**

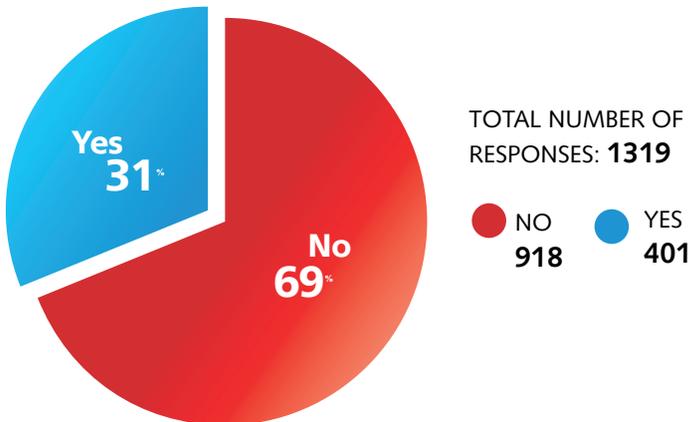
Question 11. If you had another reason for teaching abroad, please specify :

Results from this question are available upon request

Question 12. Are /were you a member of a teachers' union in your home country ?

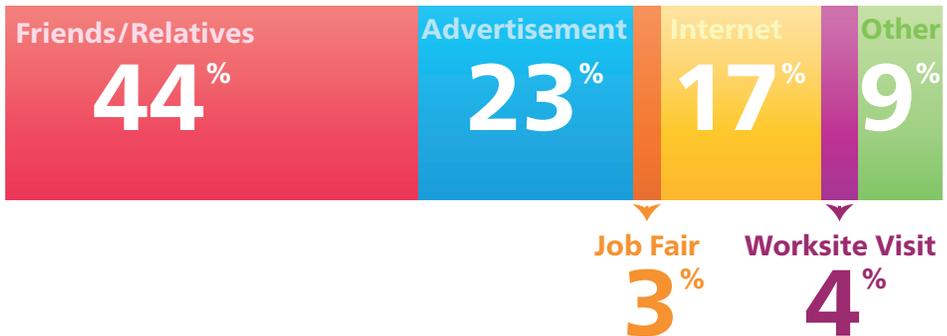


Question 13. Are /were you a member of a teachers' union while working abroad ?

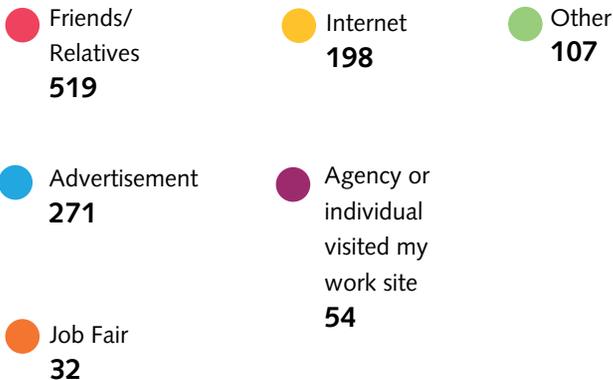


Section Two. Recruitment Process

Question 14. How did you first learn about the opportunity to teach abroad? *Check all that apply.*



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1181**

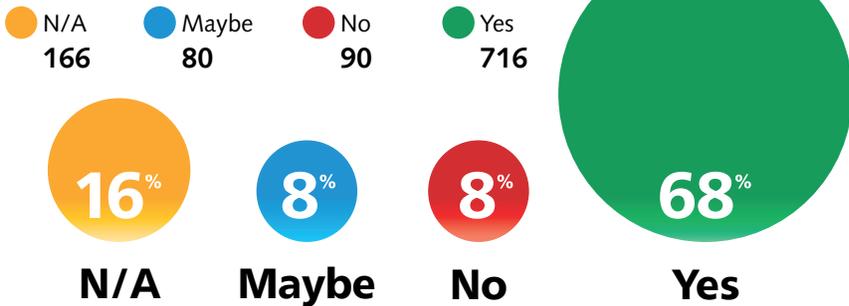


Question 15. If you worked with an agency, organization or company to secure your position to teach abroad, what is the name of that group ?

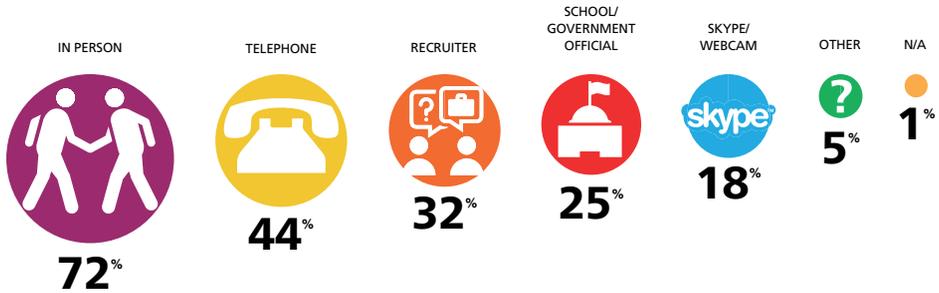
ADNIC	InfoJobs
AECI	International House
Ahmadiyya Mission	International School Services
Al-Qudra Sports Management	Jerry Varghese Agency
Agency for Personal Service Overseas	Jobs Alive
Arrowhead Manpower Resources Inc.	LoveTEFL
Association of American Schools in South America	Multicultural
Association of Independent Schools	National Teacher Recruitment
Avenida International Consultants, Inc.	Nova
Badilla Corporation	Orleans Parish Teaching Fellows
Bridges for Education	PARS International Placement Agency
Center for International Education	Profesores Visitantes en Estados Unidos y Canadá
Checkpoint Charlie Stiftung	Protocol Teachers/Protocol Education
CITEL	Ram Asia
Council for the Development of French in Louisiana	Reach to Teach
Cognition Education	S.U.N.B.O
Council of International Schools	SAS
Commonwealth Youth Exchange Council	Search Associates
Dipont Education	Select Travels
Direct Recruitment	Sindicato dos Professores do Norte
DISD	Smart Teachers
Doha Management School, Qatar	SPLASH
ECC Korea	Stichting NOB
English First	Students For Central and Eastern Europe
EnglishWork	Symbiotic Solutions
Educational Partners International	Tahir Amandzur Agency Madras/
Footprints Recruiting	Tahir Manzoor Agency Madras
Independent Education Union	TANDOM/Pearson Group of Education
Institute of International Education	Teach and Learn with Georgia
Gema Foundation	Teach Away
GEMS Academy	Teachanywhere
GEMS, Our Own English High School Boys Branch, Sharjah	Teacher Placement Group
GEOS Language School	Teacher Recruitment International
Global Culture	Teachers Training
Global Language Village	TeachLondon
Global Placement	TES
Greenheart Travel	The British Council
GTIE	The International Educator
Hanban	TIC Recruitment Agency
Health Quest Enterprises	Universal Placement International
ICETEX-British Council	Uteach Recruitment
Ideal Group of Schools	Visiting International Faculty
Independent Work	World Goal
	World Teach
	YES

Question 16. Would you recommend this agency, organization or company to other teachers ?

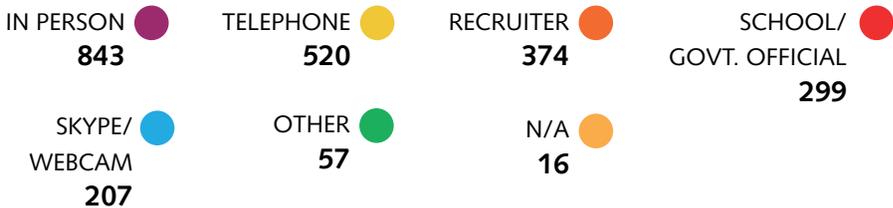
TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1052



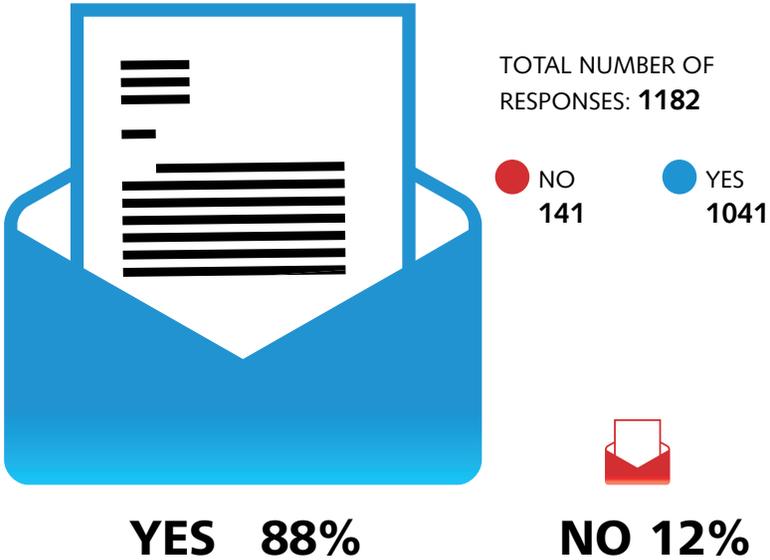
Question 17. How was the interview for your job abroad conducted ? *Check all that apply.*



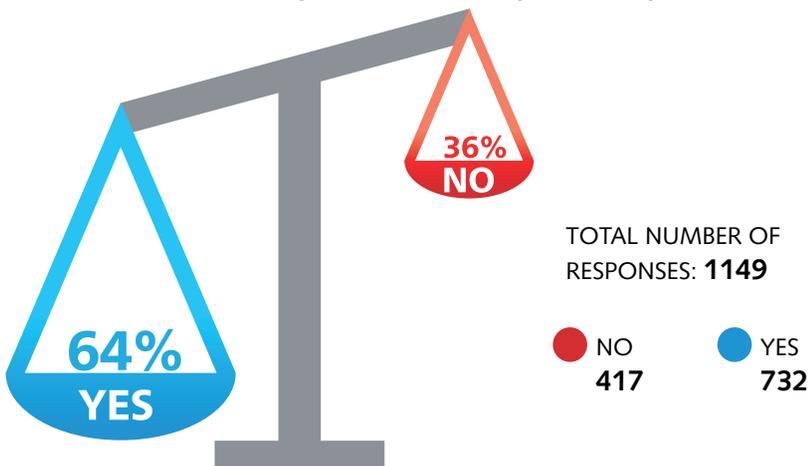
TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1177



Question 18. Did you receive a formal job offer before leaving your home country ?



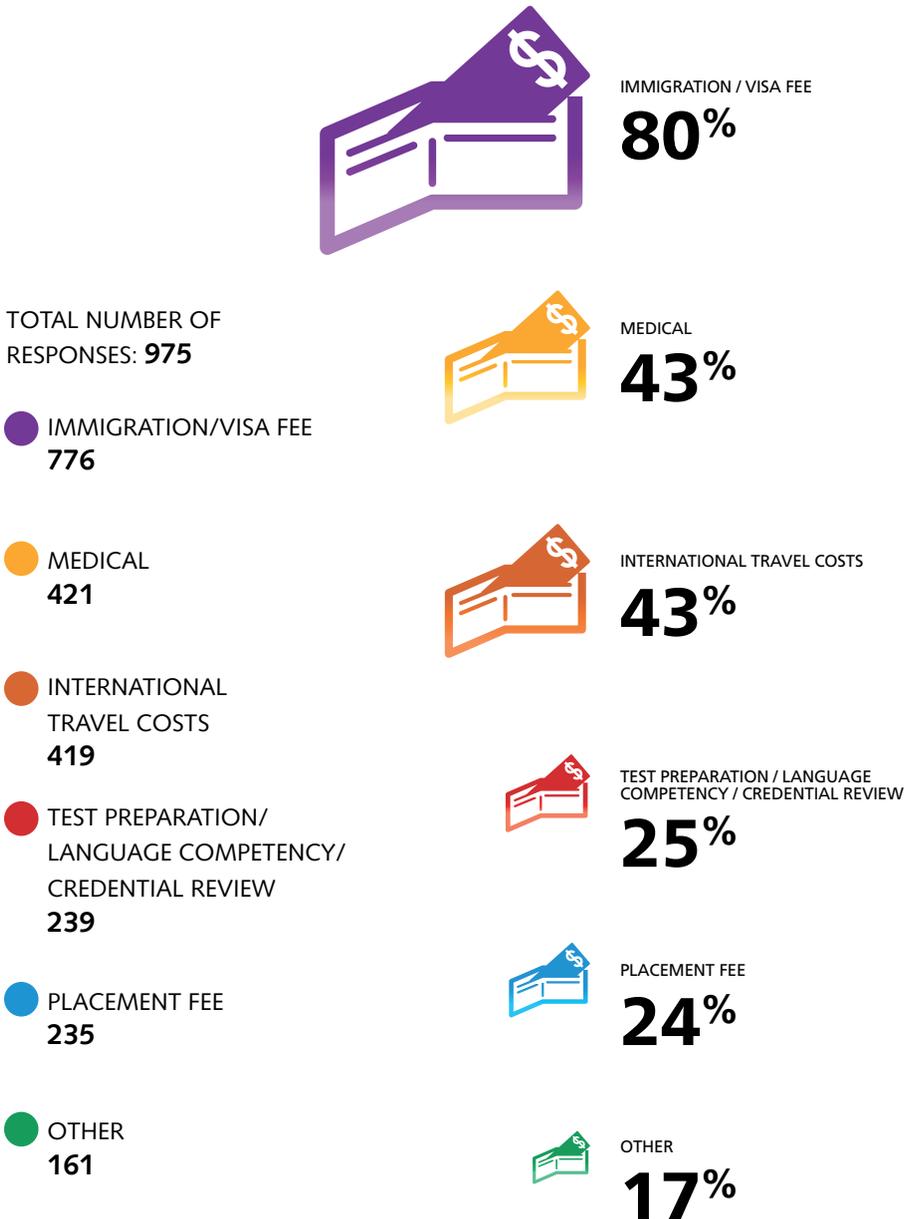
Question 19. Were you informed of the legal rights you would have in your country of destination ?





Question 20. Which, if any, of the following fees did you pay ?

Check all that apply.



Question 21. If you incurred any of the above fees in order to secure your job, how much did you pay in total? Please specify the currency and the amount paid:

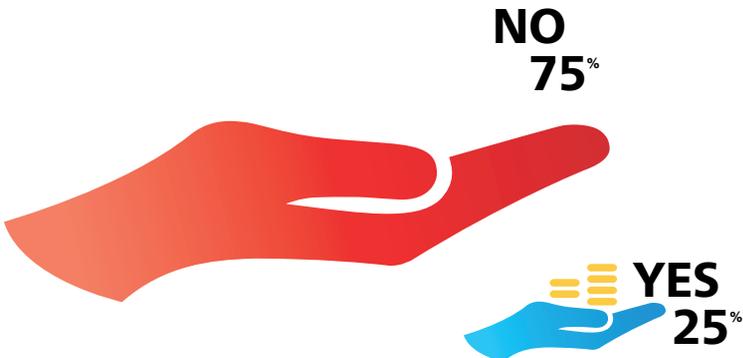
Results from this question are available upon request

Question 22. Did you have to take out loans in order to cover these fees ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1085

● NO
816

● YES
269



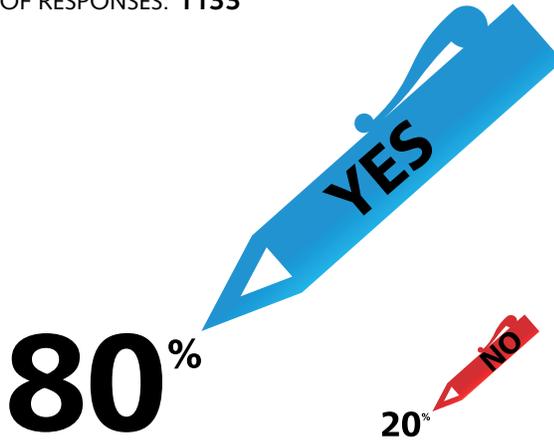


Question 23. Were you required to sign a contract with your recruiter ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1133

● YES
901

● NO
232

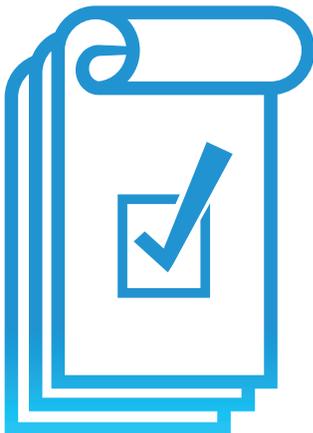


Question 24. If yes, were the terms of your recruitment contract clearly explained to you before you signed ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 930

● NO
138

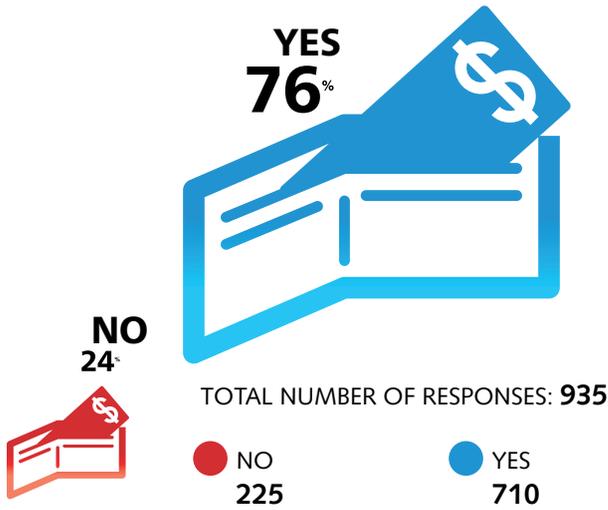
● YES
792



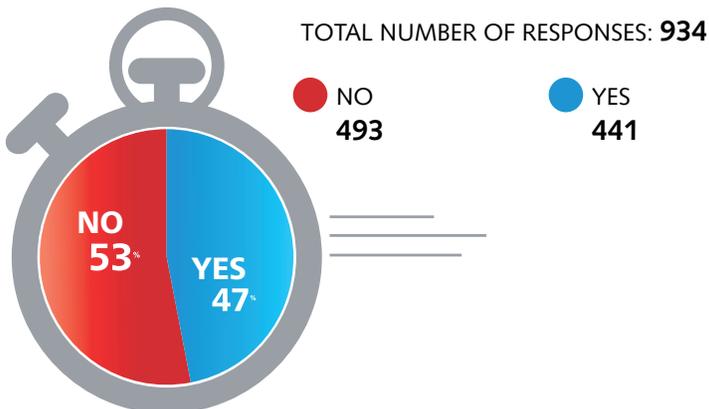
YES
85%

NO
15%

Question 25. Did your contract specify the financial responsibilities of all parties involved in the recruitment process ?



Question 26. Are there any monetary penalties for terminating your contract early ?



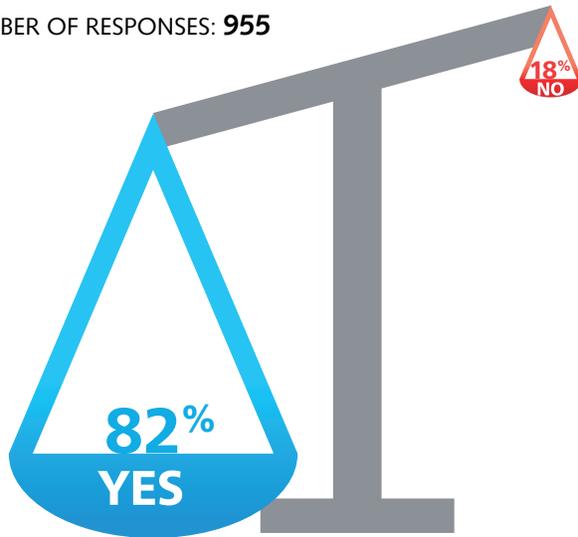


Question 27. Do you feel that your recruitment contract was fair ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **955**

YES
781

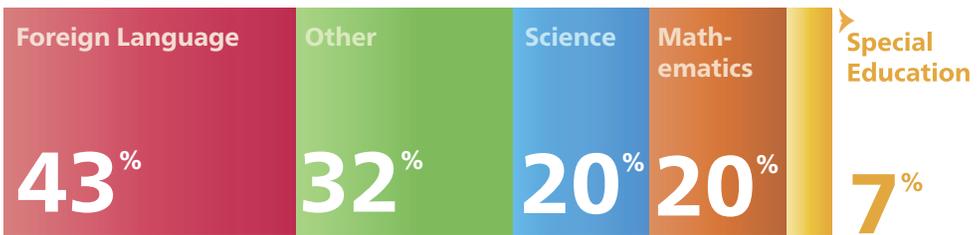
NO
174



Section Three. Experience Teaching Abroad

Question 28. What content areas were you hired to teach?

Check all that apply.



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1270**

● Foreign Language
540

● Other
404

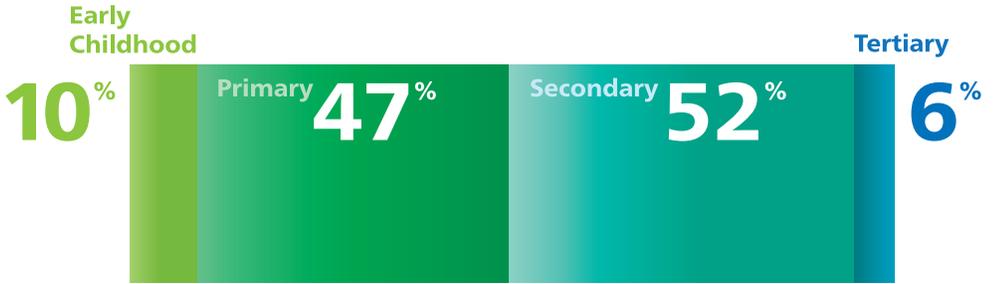
● Science
256

● Mathematics
251

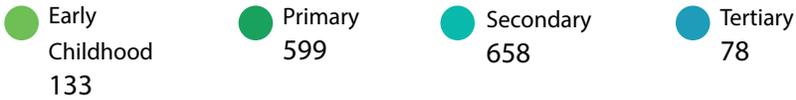
● Special Education
94

Question 29. At what grade level were you hired to teach ?

Check all that apply.

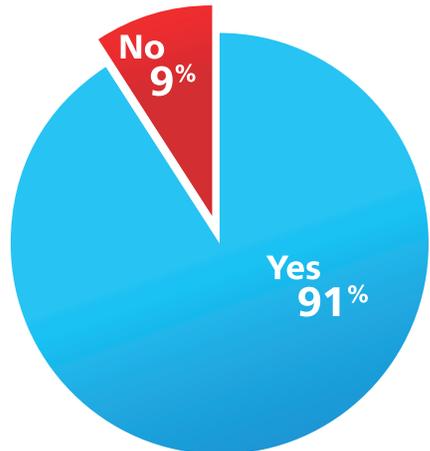


TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1267



Question 30. Are/were you fully accredited/certified to teach in your position abroad ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1270



Question 31. What type of position were you offered abroad ?

Check all that apply.

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 640

- FIXED TERM CONTRACT 520
- PERMANENT 144



FIXED TERM CONTRACT

81%



PERMANENT

23%

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 865

- FULL-TIME 822
- PART-TIME 51



FULL-TIME

95%



PART-TIME

6%

Question 32. What is/was your work eligibility/visa status abroad ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1254

Temporary
83%



- TEMPORARY 1038

- PERMANENT 216

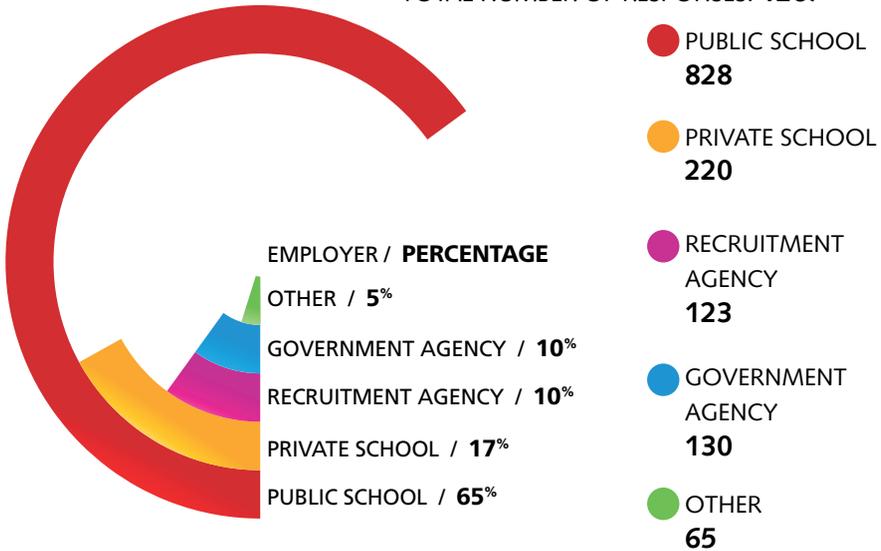
Permanent
17%



Question 33. Who is/was your direct employer abroad ?

Check all that apply.

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1267**



Question 34. Did your compensation and benefits match the level promised ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1256**

● N/A 95
 ● No 133
 ● Yes 1028

7%

N/A

11%

No

82%

Yes

Question 35. Compared to local teachers with similar credentials and level of experience, how would you describe your compensation and benefits ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1259



Don't Know
20%



Equal
38%



Lower
23%



Higher
19%



Question 36. Who made your housing and local travel arrangements in your destination country ?

Check all that apply.

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1260



Other
10%



Employer
17%

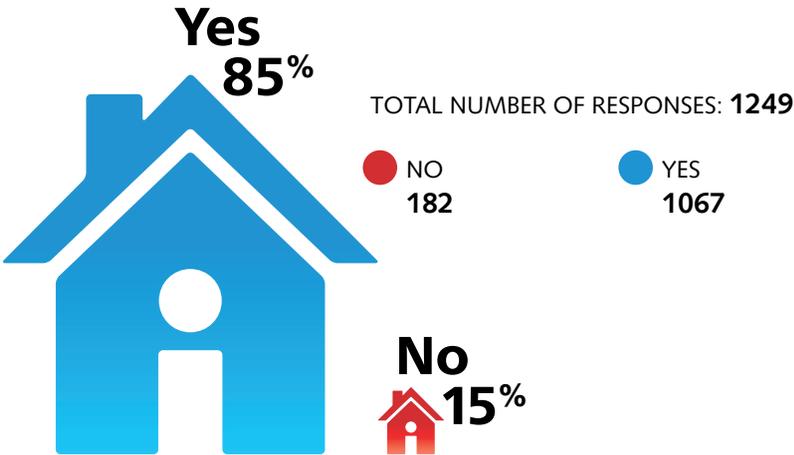


Recruiter
35%

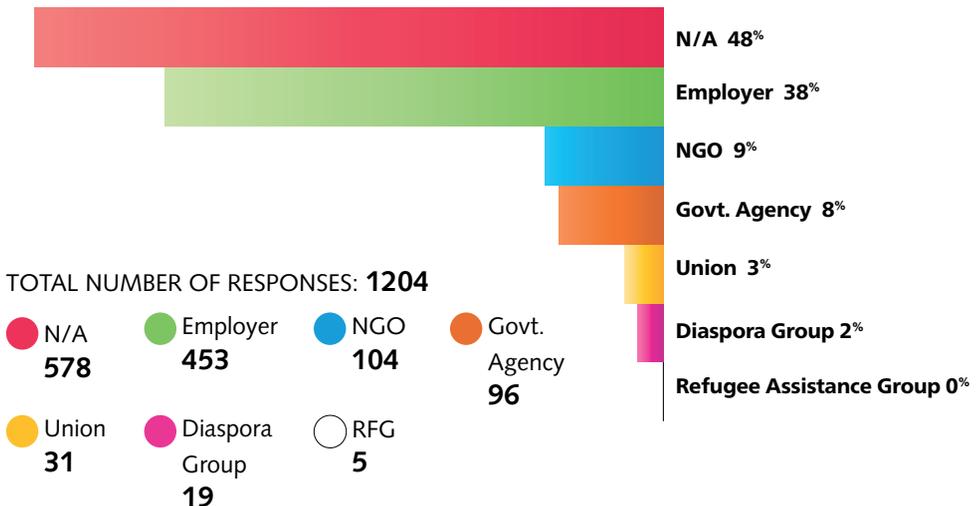


Me
56%

Question 37. In general, were you satisfied with local accommodations and arrangements ?



Question 38. What organization or agency, if any, provided you with settlement assistance in your destination country ?



Question 39. Who was responsible for providing you with orientation to your teaching position abroad ?

Check all that apply.



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1254



Question 40. In general, were you satisfied with the content and quality of your orientation ?

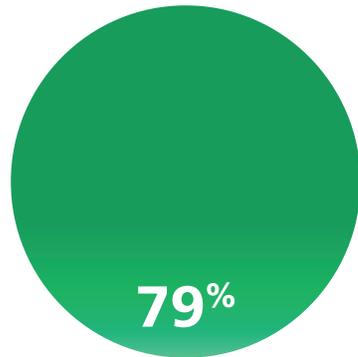
TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: 1251



N/A



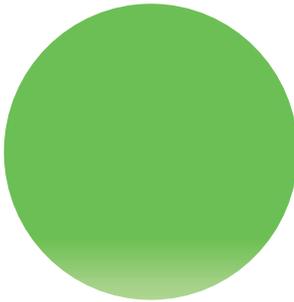
No



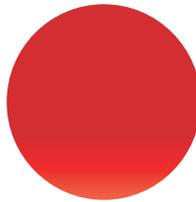
Yes

Question 41. What organization or agency, if any, provided you with professional development training in your position abroad ?
Check all that apply.

Employer 71%



Recruitment Agency 31%



None 14%



Government Agency 13%



Union 5%



NGO 4%

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1248**

 Employer
884

 Recruitment Agency
385

 None
176

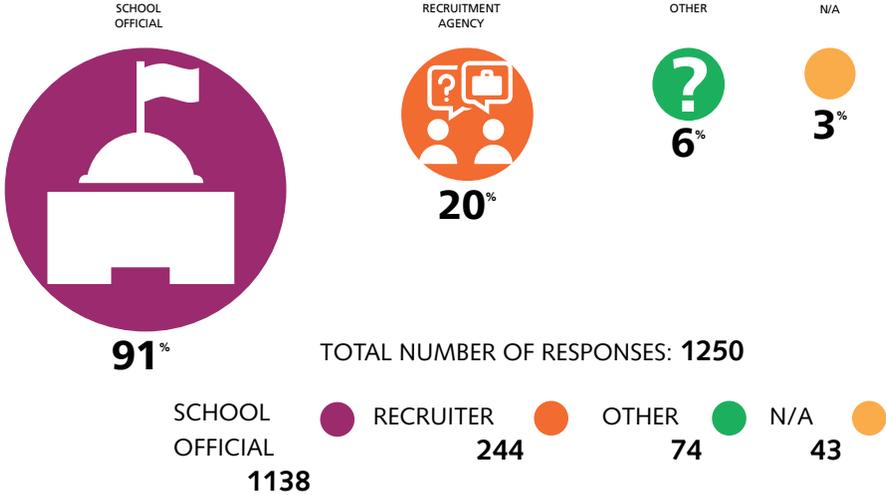
 Government Agency
160

 Union
61

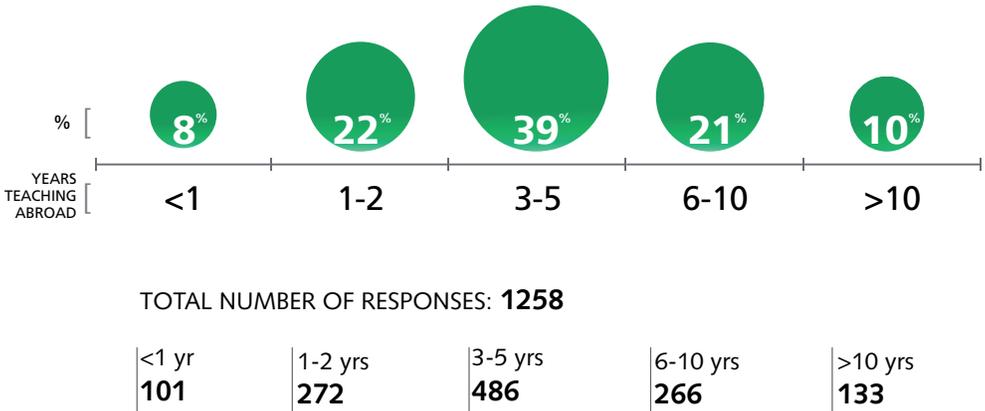
 NGO
55

Question 42. Who is/was responsible for evaluating your job performance abroad ?

Check all that apply.



Question 43. How long have you taught abroad ?

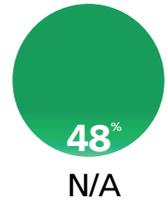


Question 44. If you are currently teaching abroad, how much longer do you hope to continue teaching there ?



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1140**

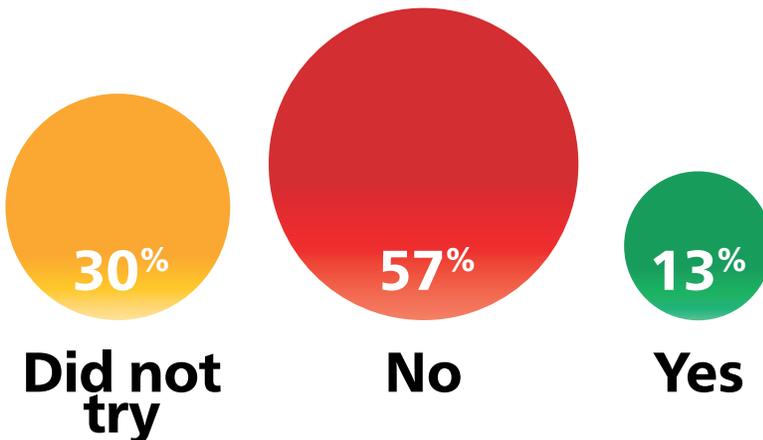
<1 yr	1-2 yrs	3-5 yrs	6-10 yrs	>10 yrs	N/A
16	100	178	71	226	549



Question 45. If you have returned to your home country, have you experienced difficulties trying to re-enter the teaching force ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1077**

● Did not try **328**
● No **614**
● Yes **135**



Section Four. Reflection on Experience Teaching Abroad

Question 46. On a scale of 1 to 5, what have been/were the biggest challenges you faced teaching abroad?

Adjusting to new curriculum



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1232**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**324** | 2:**196** | 3:**413** | 4:**185** | 5:**114**

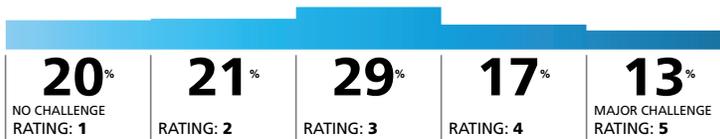
Classroom management



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1237**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**273** | 2:**250** | 3:**321** | 4:**195** | 5:**254**

Mix of students of different abilities in the classroom



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1231**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**243** | 2:**260** | 3:**354** | 4:**210** | 5:**164**



Separation from family



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1233**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**213** | 2:**250** | 3:**321** | 4:**195** | 5:**254**

Cultural differences



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1231**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**179** | 2:**266** | 3:**394** | 4:**226** | 5:**166**

Interaction with local parents



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1222**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**262** | 2:**291** | 3:**376** | 4:**183** | 5:**110**

Question 46. On a scale of 1 to 5, what have been/were the biggest challenges you faced teaching abroad?

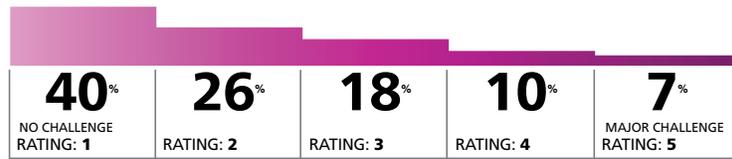
Working with local teachers



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1228**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**416** | 2:**353** | 3:**335** | 4:**93** | 5:**31**

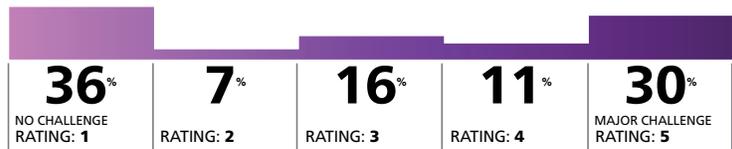
Discrimination



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1232**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**495** | 2:**316** | 3:**219** | 4:**120** | 5:**82**

Other

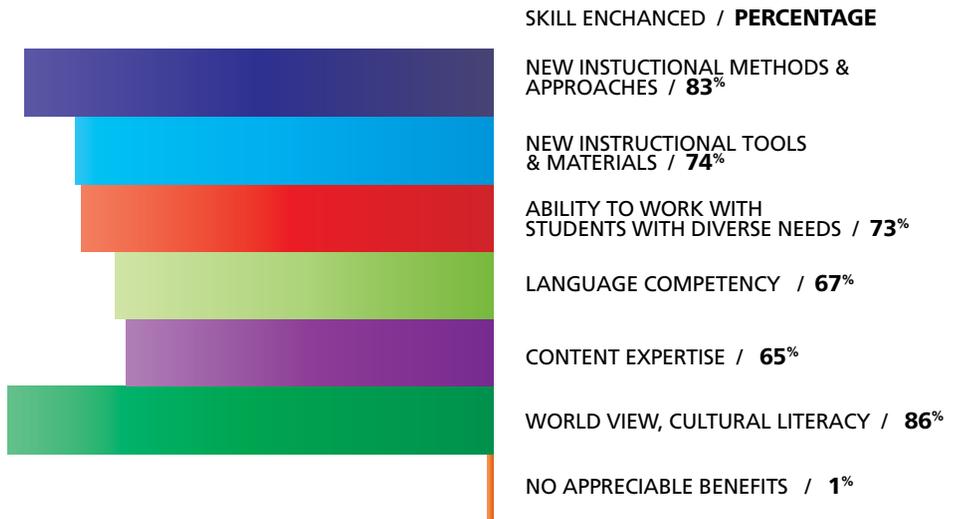


TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **214**

RESPONSES PER RATING: 1:**76** | 2:**15** | 3:**35** | 4:**24** | 5:**64**

Question 47. In what ways has your experience teaching abroad enhanced your instructional skills?

Check all that apply



TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1231**

- Learned New Instructional Methods and Approaches
1023
- Acquired New Instructional Tools & Materials
915
- Enhanced Ability to Work With Students With Diverse Needs
901
- Improved Language Competency
821
- Enhanced Content Expertise
798
- Broadened World View/Cultural Competency
1062
- No Appreciable Benefits
18



Question 48. What kind of guidance, support of professional development is/was most helpful to you in your work environment while abroad ? Please explain.

Results from this question are available upon request

Question 49. Overall, how would you assess your experience teaching abroad ?

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES: **1229**

 Fell Short of Expectations 119	 Exceeded Expectations 476	 Met Expectations 634
--	---	--



Question 50. Are there any other details you would like to share regarding your experience teaching abroad ?

Results from this question are available upon request



Appendix B

Key to Country Abbreviations from figures 2.2-2.4

AUS-Australia	LKA-Sri Lanka
BGD-Bangladesh	MAR-Morocco
CAN-Canada	MYS-Malaysia
CHN-China	NGA- Nigeria
DEU-Germany	NLD-The Netherlands
EGY-Egypt	NZL-New Zealand
ESP-Spain	PAK-Pakistan
FJI-Fiji	PHIL-The Philippines
FRA-France	PNG-Papua New Guinea
GBR-Great Britain	POL-Poland
GRC-Greece	PRT-Portugal
HKG-Hong Kong	ROU-Romania
IND-India	SGP-Singapore
IRL-Republic of Ireland	TTO-Trinidad and Tobago
IRN-Islamic Republic of Iran	USA-United States of America
ITA-Italy	ZAF-South Africa
KEN-Kenya	ZWE-Zimbabwe
JAM-Jamaica	
JPN-Japan	



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