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The outflow of professionals with higher education from and among States Parties to the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean

Study prepared by the International Centre for Development





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Printed by Boudin, Paris © Unesco 1984 Preface

This study forms part of a series of activities undertaken by Unesco with a view to promoting the mobility of persons in higher education through a more flexible and more realistic evaluation of training and competence acquired by such persons both in their various educational experiences - whether academic or non-academic - in the context of lifelong education as well as in the course of their professional and social activities.

The main activity of the Organization in this field consists of promoting the adoption of international conventions on the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees in higher education. Six such conventions have already been adopted by six different groups of states, thus covering all the regions of the world. All these legal instruments draw upon common principles and are set out along similar lines; they also take into account the specific cultural circumstances of each region and the legal and institutional situation of the states to which they relate. They are all aimed at fostering a greater and more effective use of the human resources of the region or groups of countries concerned with a view to achieving full employment and overcoming the difficulties encountered by persons who return to their country of origin after receiving an education abroad, thus endeavouring to prevent the 'brain drain'.

It would seem to be essential to stress the importance of the outflow of professional persons in all countries. This study concentrates, in particular, on an analysis of the phenomenon within the framework of the States Parties to the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean.

The study draws attention to the magnitude of the problem in the area and its main causes. Special attention is paid to the measures needed to lessen the impact of such emigration.

The first part of the study, after considering essential questions of methodology, looks at the present situation as regards both the outflow from the States Parties to the Convention towards more industrialized countries and the movement of persons between the States Parties to the Convention. The second part of the work reviews the different approaches to the problems which offer an explanation of the brain drain phenomenon. The third part is devoted to an analysis of the instruments regulating the recognition of studies in the States Parties to the Convention and in other areas where the experience acquired appears likely to be relevant in giving effect to the legal provisions.

The study has been prepared by a team of the International Centre for Development headed by its executive director, Mr Juan Carlos Sanchez-Arnau, with the assistance of an outside consultant, Professor Elba Hermida Calvo. While the scope of the study is specifically

While the scope of the study is specifically limited to the States Parties to the Convention, it appears that both the methodology used and the approach adopted might serve as a basis for other similar studies relating to other geographical areas.

In the main, this work reflects the concerns of Unesco in the field under review, but the authors' views, the facts presented by them and the ideas expressed with regard to those facts do not imply any expression of opinion on the part of Unesco. Furthermore, the designations used should not be interpreted as implying any expression of opinion by Unesco concerning the legal status or political system of any country, area or territory or on the delineation of its frontiers.

Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in the Arab States (1978);

. Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the States belonging to the Europe Region (1979);

. Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific (1983).

Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (1974);

[.] International Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in the Arab and European States bordering on the Mediterranean (1976); . Convention on the Recognition of Studies,

[.] Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Certificates, Diplomas, Degrees and other Academic Qualifications in Higher Education in the African States (1981);

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Introduction

The aims of the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (referred to as the Convention throughout this study) involved much more than the simplification and standardization of arrangements relating to such recognition. This is made clear in the preamble to the Convention where the States Parties note that the recognition of studies completed, and diplomas, certificates and degrees obtained, in any one of them is an effective instrument for:

'(a) making the best use of the educational facilities of the region,

'(b) ensuring the highest degree of mobility of teachers, students, research workers and members of the professions within the region,

'(c) overcoming the difficulties encountered by persons who return to their country of origin after receiving an education abroad,

'(d) bringing about the fullest and most effective use of the human resources of the region with a view to ensuring full employment and preventing the migration of talent to highly industrialized countries'.

This study was accordingly undertaken with the aim of determining ways in which the Convention could play a part in solving the problems posed by the brain drain in the States Parties to the Convention.

The first task was to gauge the extent of the outflow of professional persons and other graduates from States Parties towards other countries and among the States Parties themselves. Next, it was necessary to assess, in much more general terms, the causes of this phenomenon and the resultant problems and to analyse the various preventive measures or policies being adopted. A number of conclusions and related suggestions are put forward for consideration in the final section of this study.

Each of these major themes forms the subject of a separate chapter of this study.

Before discussing these themes, there are a number of points that should be made clear. The first concerns the lack of adequate information on the subject in the region. As will be seen later, few of the States Parties have

sufficiently detailed statistics to permit an assessment of the movement of persons with higher education from one country to another. The official information available is generally fragmentary, sometimes unreliable and, in practically all cases, discontinuous. This seriously hampers the analysis of trends, frequencies, and so forth. By contrast, reliable information is available on the brain drain from States Parties towards some industrialized countries; or, to put it more accurately, reliable information is provided by some industrialized countries, particularly the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom, on the number and professions of nationals with higher education of States Parties who enter, leave or reside in those countries. Such information is particularly detailed as regards physicians and other health workers. For this same reason, and also because of the scale of the problem, a number of monographs have been produced on the emigration of professional persons from Latin America to the industrialized countries. Consequently, this question will only be touched on incidentally in this document. On the other hand, a more detailed study will be made of problems relating to the migration of professional persons between States Parties.

Another point concerns the shortage of resources available for the preparation of this study. The lack of statistics and other information necessary for a work of this kind can only be made up for by means of field surveys and inquiries. Such activity was not practicable within the framework of the present work. Furthermore, the low rate of response to one of the two questionnaires sent to the States Parties possibly reflects the shortage of basic information on the subject and the lack of suitable personnel to undertake work in this field.

^{1.} A bibliography listing the works consulted in the preparation of this study is given on pages 57-59.

This chapter is concerned not with assessing the 'cost' or adverse effects of the emigration of professional persons from the States Parties a subject that lies outside the scope of this study - but with determining the scale of the problem in terms of the number of persons involved in such migratory flows.

However, before doing that, it will be necessary to review some of the methodological and statistical problems posed by such an analysis.

1. Methodological problems in the analysis of migratory flow of professionals from developing countries

The problems connected with the outflow of professional persons from developing countries to industrialized countries have been widely studied. The available information and literature give a relatively balanced idea of the scale of the phenomenon, including the countries and professions concerned. This has largely been made possible by the basic statistical information published by the industrialized countries and various monographic studies on the emigration of professional workers from several developing countries, particularly in Asia, but also in Latin America (Argentina, Colombia, Chile).

On the other hand, very little work has been done on the migration of professional persons between developing countries. This is first and foremost because such migration does not occur on anything like the same scale as the outflow from these countries to industrialized countries. Another reason is that the statistics in most developing countries make this type of study extremely difficult. In Latin America, reliable information can be found on the overall level of migration between pairs of countries, particularly where a more or less steady migratory flow exists. However, such studies are concerned with the migration of workers and do not always cover members of the professions. Moreover, hardly any studies have been undertaken specifically on professional migration.

In a study of the outflow of skilled personnel from the region, produced in 1979 by the Latin American Demographic Centre (CELADE), the difficulties and limitations involved in such a study were clearly stated:

The data available for the analysis of the emigration of skilled personnel from the region are fragmentary and incomplete. This naturally makes it difficult to carry out in-depth studies on the causes and determining factors of the phenomenon. Two types of information may be used: on the one hand, there are statistics on the migratory flow between countries of origin and countries of destination; on the other, there are data on the numbers and particulars of skilled migrants in the countries of destination. The first type of information is usually taken from the records of the industrialized countries of destination, which periodically publish annual figures on persons admitted as immigrants according to certain particulars, which regularly include 'occupation'. The occupational category 'members of the professions, technologists and similar workers' frequently forms the field of observation in studies on the brain drain.

The drawbacks of this type of basic information include, for example, a lack of standardization in the definitions and categories adopted in the classification of immigrants, which makes comparison between countries difficult; failure to consider the reverse migratory flow of skilled personnel and the rate of return to countries of origin, resulting in a tendency to overestimate the loss sustained by the latter countries; incomplete coverage of the category 'members of the professions, technologists and similar workers', which does not necessarily include all skilled personnel who migrate to a given country; and, lastly, the fact that this information is rarely broken down on the basis of occupational speciality and the level of education of immigrant professional persons.

The second type of information which identifies the characteristics of migrants in the countries of destination comes from population censuses in these countries. It consists fundamentally of tabulations referring to the

economically active population by occupation and country of birth, which make it possible to break down information on professional persons and technologists from developing countries. Like the above-mentioned data, these statistical data also have certain shortcomings in relation to the study of the outflow of skilled personnel, such as the length of time between censuses (decades), which hamper the study of a phenomenon that is frequently subject to short-term variations; the difficulty of satisfactorily interpreting such census data, since this requires that immigrant groups in the country of destination be compared with similar elements of the population in the country of birth for the same time frame; and, lastly, the high level of aggregation and the lack of significant intersections between variables in the published census data for the countries of destination. These problems could to some extent be overcome by means of special census tabulations or a census sample referring specifically to the total foreign population or the foreign population from a certain geographic area' (Latin American Demographic Centre, 1979).1

These problems proved a major difficulty in carrying out the present study, particularly as it was to focus on migration between States Parties whose migration statistics are generally highly aggregated, infrequent and published with a considerable delay.

An attempt was made to overcome these limitations by seeking the co-operation of the governments of the States Parties. However, it was clear from the replies received that the real problem is the lack of basic information.²

In only one case (Panama) were data available on the number of foreign members of the professionals resident in the country, suitably broken down by nationality and profession. Hence, analysis of the problem in overall terms had to be conducted by reference to information on general migrational patterns and, at best, to piecemeal information on the economically active population which includes many occupational categories besides those for which higher education is required.

2. Emigration of professionals from States Parties towards industrialized countries

Since no basic information is available on overall professional emigration from the States Parties, the analysis will have to be confined to the case of physicians. As it is in the medical profession that the effects of emigration have probably been most marked, there are a number of monographic studies on the basis of which an initial approach to the problem can be made.

Table 1, prepared from data contained in one of these monographs, permits a comparison, for the year 1972, between the number of physicians in each of the Latin American countries that are parties to the Convention and the

See Annex A, the questionnaire on the subject sent to all the governments of the States Parties.

TABLE	1
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Stock of physicians in States Parties and nationals of those states practising abroad and in the United States of America, 1972

Country	Physician stock (a)	Practising abroad (b)	Practising in the United States (c)	Percentage abroad (b/a)	Percentage in the United States (c/a)	Ratio in the United States/ abroad (c/b)
Brazil	59,573	624	497	1.0	0.9	79.6
Chile	4,506	340	257	7.5	5.7	75.6
Colombia	10,317	1,246	1,161	12.1	11.3	93.2
Cuba	7,000	3,060	2,999	43.7	42.8	98.0
Ecuador	2,292	193	183	8.4	8.0	94.8
El Salvador	952	181	128	19.0	13.4	70.7
Mexico	38,000	1,718	1,622	4.5	4.3	94.4
Panama	1,209	49	29	4.1	2.4	59.2
Venezuela	11,222	275	222	2.5	2.0	80.7

Source: Based on data taken from Alfonso Mejía, 'Health Manpower Migration in the Americas' in Charles V. Kidd (ed.), <u>Biomedical Research in Latin America - Background Studies</u>, pp. 67-97, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, April 1980 (National Institutes of Health, publication No. 80-2051).

^{1.} See Bibliography, pages 57-59.

number practising abroad and in the United States. If the numbers of physicians in each of the countries under review are added together, it will be seen that, out of a total of 135,071 physicians in these countries in that year, 5.7 per cent (that is to say, 7,686) were abroad. Of this number, 92 per cent (that is to say, 7,098) which is equal to 5.3 per cent of the physician stock of the countries under review, were practising in the United States.

This professional migration percentage, particularly if account is taken of the relatively, if not very, low number of physicians per 10,000 inhabitants in such countries (see below, Table 9), is in itself a clear indication of the seriousness of the problem. Furthermore, if considered in terms of absolute figures, it will be seen that the outflow from these nine countries is greater than the number of physicians in a country such as Cuba which has a medium-sized physician stock.

Naturally, the problem did not arise on the same scale in all nine countries. Thus, while only 1 per cent of Brazilian physicians or 2.5 per cent of Venezuelan physicians emigrated, the corresponding percentage for Cuba up to 1972 was 43.7 per cent. Furthermore, in countries such as Colombia and El Salvador, which did not experience the kind of large-scale emigration that occurred in Cuba, 19 and 12 per cent respectively of the physician stock emigrated.

The other significant point in this analysis is the fact that the vast majority of emigrants go to the United States. The lowest percentage comes from Panama (59.2 per cent) and the highest from Cuba, from where 98 per cent of the emigrants went to the United States.

Furthermore, according to data presented in a WHO study on the migration of physicians and nurses (World Health Organization, 1979a). a good proportion of the other physicians who emigrated from the countries under review went to other industrialized countries. For example:

- in 1972 the number of Brazilian physicians who emigrated to Australia, Sweden, Japan, the United Kingdom and Canada was estimated as forty;
- the number of Colombian physicians who went to these countries may be estimated at twenty;
- between 1964 and 1972, eleven Chilean physicians emigrated to Canada and the United Kingdom;
- between 1964 and 1973, five Salvadorean physicians entered the United Kingdom;
- between 1962 and 1968, thirty-four Mexican physicians entered the United Kingdom;
- in 1965 and 1966, two Panamanian physicians entered the United Kingdom;
- between 1964 and 1967, 14 Venezuelan physicians entered Canada and the United Kingdom.

If these figures are added to those for emigration to the United States, it may be concluded that,

out of the physicians who emigrated around 1972 from the Latin American States Parties to the Convention, approximately 94 per cent went to industrialized countries. Accordingly, no more than 473 of the 7,586 emigrants appear to have gone to countries other than the United States or the other above-mentioned industrialized countries. It must therefore be assumed that, at most, 6 per cent of the emigrants went to other Latin American countries. Moreover, this is evidently a very considerable over-estimate. since it is very likely that some of these migrant physicians were practising in other European countries (such as Spain, France or Italy) or in African countries. It has, in fact, been possible to establish that this is the case in years subsequent to the completion of the above-mentioned WHO study.

Unfortunately, similar information is not available on other professions and it is therefore impossible to put forward any further views on this subject. The only item of statistical information that might represent a valid parallel is that, in the case of the Argentine Republic - one of the Latin American countries with the highest professional emigration rates - the outflow of engineers and scientists to the United States between 1960 and 1970 was 1.37 times higher than the outflow of physicians to the same country of destination (Oteiza, 1971).

3. The migratory flow among the States Parties

It has already been pointed out that, except in the case of Panama, no information is available on foreign professional persons, broken down by country of origin and by profession, practising in States Parties to the Convention. Accordingly, in order to determine the extent of this migratory process within the area, it will be necessary to refer to statistical information on overall migratory movements and to work out, on the basis of such information, a number of very general assumptions.

3.1 An estimate of the scale of migration of professionals in the area covered by the Convention

The first step in making this estimate was to compile available figures on foreigners resident in each of the States Parties at the time of the latest census and to use these figures to construct the matrix presented in Table 2.

These data show that the sum total of the foreign-born population, whether nationals or other persons from a country of the area (according to the definition or criterion of classification used by the census authorities in each country) that had migrated to another country in the area was approximately 300,000 persons in 1970. It should be made clear at the outset that the figures for Colombia relate to 1964 and those for Ecuador to 1950, these being the latest figures available when this study was compiled.

TABLE 2

Population resident in States Parties to the Convention born in other States Parties - totals

Country of origin Country of residence	Year	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Cuba	Ecuador	El Salvador	Mexico	Netherlands	Panama	Venezuela	Total
Brazil	1970		1,767	805	375	343	337	461	4,771	355	935	10,149
Chile	1970	930	-	800	245	967	109	319	n.a.	216	388	3,974
Colombia	1964	2,267	1,130	-	1,259	10,126	146	753	548	2,208	16,224	34,661
Cuba	1970	n.a.	n.a.	227	-	n.a.	n.a.	1,201	n.a.	n.a.	546	(1,974)
Ecuador	1950	24	338	14,584	45	-	11	41	n.a.	127	70	15,240
Fl Salvador	1971	37	126	141	114	44	-	636	n.a.	5	30	1,133
Mexico	1970	538	845	1,333	4,175	n.a.	1,213	-	n.a.	1,183	805	9,892
Netherlands	1979	500	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	-	n.a.	n.a.	(500)
Panama	1970	210	476	12,128	1,140	1,467	n.a.	591	77	-	324	16,413
Venezuela	1971	2,345	2,999	177,973	10,139	5,292	342	1,717	3,062	1,079	-	204,948
Total		6,851	7,681	207,791	17,492	18,239	2,158	5,719	(8,458)	5,173	19,322	298,884

Source: CELADE, Boletín demográfico, Year X, No. 20. Santiago, July 1977, and national censuses.

The table shows that most of the emigrants were Colombian (69.6 per cent) and that the main recipient country was Venezuela (with 68.6 per cent). It may also be observed that the number of Venezuelans, Cubans and Ecuadorians resident in the area in countries other than their own was also relatively high; if one bears in mind the lack of traditional cultural relations and the distance involved, the same can be said of Netherlandsborn persons resident in Brazil and Venezuela.

Another point to be noted is the marked preference for emigration to Venezuela shown by Colombians (86.5 per cent of all Colombian migrants within the area) and by Cubans (58 per cent), Brazilians (34.2 per cent), Mexicans (30 per cent) and Ecuadorians (29 per cent). It should, however, also be noted that the Ecuadorians emigrated in the main to Colombia (55.5 per cent) and that practically the same proportion of Salvadorians emigrated to Mexico (56.2 per cent), while the proportion of Venezuelans emigrating to Colombia (84 per cent) was considerably higher.

There is no indication that the same trends occur in the migration of members of the professions between the countries of the area and little additional information is available as a basis for determining the scale of such migration. However, a rough idea may be obtained by comparing the figures for the total number of foreign-born residents with those for the foreign-born residents who belong to the economically active population or to the population aged 10 or over with more

TABLE 3

Chile, Panama and Venezuela: Economically active population or population aged 10 or over with more than four years' education(1) (whichever is less) born in other <u>countries that are States Parties to the</u> <u>Convention 1970-1971</u>

Country of residence	Chile	Рапава	Venezuela
Country of origin	CHITE	ranana	Venezueia
Brazil	324	51	900*
Chile	-	219	1,582
Colombia	358	5,561*	57,625*
Cuba	102	620	6,125
Ecuador	401	976	3,184*
El Salvador	32	n.a.	151
Mexico	104	178	750
Panama	62	-	587
Venezuela	68	103	-
Total	1,451	7,708	70,904

- This latter statistical category is taken as being the nearest to the 'graduate professional' category on which information is available. In the case of Panama, the economically active population totalled 9,025 persons.
- Source: CELADE, Boletin Demográfico, Year X, No. 20.

than four years' education(for which data are available in some countries) since those who do not fall into these two categories could not fall into the category of members of the professions with whom we are concerned. Thus, taking the case of Chile, Panama and Venezuela (Table 3), it will be seen that only 36.5 per cent of the foreigners resident in the first of these three countries belong to the professions; that this percentage is as high as 46.9 per cent in Panama and is no higher than 34.6 per cent in Venezuela.

In the case of Panama (Table 4), it may be observed that in 1970 the number of professional persons resident in the country who were nationals of Latin American countries States Parties to the Convention was 149, or 8.3 per cent of the total number of non-Panamanian residents belonging to the economically active population.

Comparison of Tables 3 and 4 reveals certain marked differences in the ratio of members of the professions to members of the economically active population according to the nationality of the persons concerned. Thus, for example, while 33 per cent of the Chileans resident in Panama belonged to the economically active population, 25.3 per cent of the Mexicans and 19.6 per cent of the Brazilians were members of the professions. This proportion dropped to 15.5 per cent among Venezuelans, 14.2 per cent among Cubans, 10.1 per cent among Ecuadorians and 5.2 per cent among Colombians. To some extent, it may be said that the number of members of the professions as a ratio of the economically active population from the same country of origin is higher in the case of those who come from more distant countries than in the case of those from neighbouring or nearer countries. The same would apply to Netherlands nationals, the total number of whom (that is to say, economically active and not economically active) was seventy-seven, sixteen of whom were members of the professions.

In attempting to ascertain the scale of migration by members of the professions between the States Parties to the Convention it may be said, very roughly, that if, on average, about 40 per cent of the emigrant population in the area is economically active (which is the arithmetical mean for the three countries for which data are available) and if the ratio of members of the professions to the economically active population is of the order of 8.3 per cent (as in the case of Panama, which is the only country for which it has been possible to make such a calculation) then, in about 1970, some 10,000 members of the professions residing in States Parties were nationals of other States Parties. While this estimate is, of course, not very solidly based, it gives at least a rough idea of the possible scale of the phenomenon under review.

Table 4 on members of the professions born in other States Parties to the Convention resident in Panama in 1970 shows a predominance of teachers, who represented almost a quarter of the total. This category also accounts for a considerable proportion of the Colombian members of the professions, almost a quarter of whom are teachers. A higher

Panama: foreign-born members of the professions by profession and country 1970 census

Profession	Total	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Cuba	Ecuador	Holy See	Mexico	Netherlands	Venezuela	Other countries
Total	3,093	<u>10</u>	<u>73</u>	<u>409</u>	<u>92</u>	<u>101</u>	<u>74</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>16</u>	2,254
Architects	96	-	2	13	1	3	-	1	_	-	76
Engineers	280	1	9	16	17	6	8	4	4	-	215
Chemists	118	1	-	15	7	4	8	1	-	-	82
Pharmacists	18	-	-	2	1	_	1	ī	_	1	12
Biologists	24	-	1	2	-	1	_	-	-	-	20
Physicians, surgeons						-					
and dentists	164	1	5	24	4	18	6	11	-		95
Paramedical personnel	35	-	1	6	1	1	-	1	1	-	24
Certified nurses	265	1	2	36	4	16	1	11	-	1	193
Midwives	1	-	_	<u> </u>	_	_	-	_	-	-	1
Teachers	751	4	13	105	20	26	21	2	5	3	552
Technologists and	-							-			552
mathematicians	103	-	4	8	3	2	-	1	-	1	84
Lawyers	68	-	2	7	ĩ	-	_	2	_	-	56
Journalists, painters,			-	·	-			•			20
writers, etc.	273	2	25	58	17	8	2	4	2	3	152
Religious	381	-	1	49	4	3	21	3	3	-	297
Other professional	201		-			5	~ +	5			277
persons	516	-	8	68	12	13	6	6	1	7	395

Source: Republic of Panama. Dirección de Estadística y Censo, 1981.

TABLE 5

Country of birth	Foreigners in the country on census dates							
	3.9.1940	1.7.1950	1.9.1960	1.9.1970(1)				
Colombia	336	516	411	805				
Cuba	2.35	262	248	375				
Chile	489	792	838	1,767				
El Salvador		13	60	337				
Ecuador	49	82	261	343				
Mexico	209	278	254	461				
Panama	24	64	497	355				
Netherlands	1,891	2,975	3,350	4,771				
Venezuela	608	311	668	935				
0thers	1,279,992	1,079,994	1,245,872	1,072,596				
Grand total	1,283,833	1,085,287	1,252,467	1,082,745				

Brazil: Foreigners present in the country 1940-1970

(1) Foreign residents. <u>Source</u>: Fundação Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística, 1981.

proportion of teachers is found only among the subjects of the Holy See (28 per cent). The table also shows a high number of journalists, painters and writers (121 in all) and of members of the paramedical professions, certificated nurses and midwives, who numbered eighty-three, whereas the total number of physicians, surgeons and dentists was sixty-nine. The relatively high number of engineers (sixty-five) and of chemists, pharmacists and biologists who together totalled forty-six is also to be noted.

3.2 <u>Trends in migration between States</u> Parties over the years

The few available data on trends in migration between States Parties provide no basis for any further conclusion. Tables 5 and 6 show data, drawn from different censuses, for the number of foreigners (nationals of States Parties) in Brazil and Venezuela. Tables 7 and 8 show the Mexican immigration figures for 1968/1973 and the Panamanian figures for 1970/1979. In the case of Brazil, it may be observed that in 1970 the nationals of States Parties constituted just under 1 per cent of the foreign population. The largest community was that of the Netherlands which, moreover, registered one of the fastest

TABLE 6

Venezuela: Population born in States Parties
to the Convention and total number
of foreign-born persons living in the country
in the census years

Country of birth	1950	1961	1971
Brazil	594	1,384	2,405
Chile	519	2,051	3,093
Colombia	45,969	102,314	180,144
Cuba	3,777	7,953	10,415
Ecuador	1,275	2,932	5,239
Mexico	642	1,178	1,567
Netherlands	1,736	1,976	1,194
Netherlands Antilles	961	1,851	1,868
Total foreign-born		-	-
population	208,731	541,963	596,455

Source: Republic of Venezuela. <u>X Censo de pobla-</u> ción y vivienda, 1971.

growth rates, second only to the rate of growth of the Chilean community.

In the case of Venezuela, by way of contrast, it may be observed that the Colombian community accounts for a significant proportion of the total number of foreigners, and that it has registered a marked increase over the years in both absolute and relative terms. While Colombians accounted for no more than 22 per cent of the total number of foreigners resident in Venezuela in 1950, in 1971 the figure was 30.2 per cent not counting the high number of illegal immigrants who presumably do not appear in the census returns.

Attention should also be drawn to the marked increase in immigration from Cuba and Ecuador and the fluctuation in immigration from the Netherlands and from the Netherlands Antilles, which may to some degree have been a result of the nationalization of the Venezuelan oil industry in which the Netherlands had a substantial interest.

It would seem that subsequently, between 1971 and 1976, Venezuela registered a twofold increase in the number of Latin American immigrants, particularly from States Parties to the Convention. According to data cited by Vessuri (1981), there was a substantial increase in the number of Uruguayans (257 per cent), Colombians (144 per cent), Ecuadorians (72 per cent), Chilians (55.6 per cent) and Argentines (52.3 per cent). The influx of Uruguayans, Chileans and Argentines mainly resulted from political factors, to which we shall return subsequently in this study.

In the case of Panama and Mexico, the available figures refer only to the entry of the immigrants into the country. This means that, as exit data are unavailable, it is impossible to establish the net immigration pattern. Furthermore, in the case of Mexico, information is only available for the nationals of three States Parties to the Convention. The only comment that may be made on the Mexican figures is that they would appear to be unduly low.

In the case of Panama (Table 8), the 1970/1979 immigrant entry statistics show a very clear curve, with a mean of around a thousand in 1970, 1975 and 1979, a decline between 1970 and 1972, a recovery from 1973 reaching a peak in 1978 with somewhat over 2,200 immigrants, and a very sharp drop in the following year. The only two interesting features, with regard to immigrants from States Parties to the Convention are that, with the exception of Cuba, the curves for the other countries roughly follow the total immigration curve and that, in the case of Cuba, a steady decline in the number of entries is observed from 1975 onwards.

TABLE 7

Nationality	<u>1968</u>	<u>1969</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1972</u>	<u>1973</u>
Cuban	72	24	20	11	5	6
Panamanian	3	6	19	3	6	-
Salvadorian	3	_	10	1	6	11
Other Latin American	135	162	209	165	262	200
Total number of immigrants	2,142	2,283	2,286	2,085	2,140	2,135
<u>Source: Mexico A</u>	nuário Estadía	stico 1973-197	<u>6</u> .			

Mexico: Entry of foreign immigrants by nationality 1968-1973

TABLE 8

Panama: Immigrants according to country of origin, 1970-1979

	<u>1970</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1972</u>	<u>1973</u>	<u>1974</u>	<u>1975</u>	1976	<u>1977</u>	<u>1978</u>	<u>1979</u>
Brazil	18	4	7	11	20	26	11	55	52	23
Chile	38	11	23	34	42	45	47	83	75	11
Colombia	101	60	88	72	116	149	200	222	224	64
Cuba	34	17	22	11	34	24	16	16	7	4
Ecuador	36	20	6	19	19	38	47	35	31	12
El Salvador	29	9	5	18	39	40	38	29	53	4
Mexico	25	9	18	6	18	37	25	48	51	7
Netherlands	8	1	3	-	14	9	4	12	3	6
Venezuela	14	13	3	3	8	10	24	22	13	12
All countries	967	560	468	585	886	1,079	1,802	2,049	2,205	1,071

Source: Republic of Panama, Dirección de Estadística y Censo, 1981.

Studies of the causes of emigration of skilled personnel have traditionally focused on economic factors, relating the current income level of the emigrant with the expected or potential income level in the chosen host country. While economic reasons seem to play a certain part in this type of migration, recent studies, particularly well-furnished with specific information, tend to show that the other factors involved, at least in certain professions, are at least as important as the economic factors.

Furthermore, while the traditional approach focused on 'push and pull' factors, the current tendency is to analyse the phenomenon more in terms of differentials between each of the push and pull factors in the home country and the recipient country.

Lastly, in Latin America, the statistics very clearly show a significant amount of emigration for political reasons and, probably in contrast with the pattern in other regions, a high number of graduate members of the professions among such emigrants.

1. <u>The different approaches adopted to</u> <u>explain the causes of professional</u> <u>emigration in the States Parties</u>

Acceptance of the argument that the causes of professional emigration are primarily economic would necessitate an attempt to relate income levels in the country of origin with income levels in the recipient country for the same categories of professional persons. This task would call for much more statistical information than is normally available. This may be why the estimates made to date tend to involve a comparison of the theoretical level of 'economic sustainability' of a profession in two countries. Thus, if we take the case of physicians - which is the profession for which detailed information is available - this economic sustainability would be determined by the ratio between the average per capita income in the country and the number of physicians per number of inhabitants. That is to say, migration would tend to take the form of an outflow from countries with a low income level and a large number of physicians to countries with a high income level and few physicians.

In the case of the States Parties to the Convention and also of Argentina (the second largest 'exporter' of physicians in Latin America) and of the United States (the main recipient of physicians from the region), the situation shown in Table 9 obtained in 1977.

The third column of this table (b/a) shows, with respect to each of the countries in question, the ratio between the per capita income and the number of physicians per 10,000 population. It is assumed that, the higher the resultant ratio the greater the pull exerted by a country on physicians practising elsewhere in the world. Conversely, the lower this ratio, the greater the attraction of emigrating.

On this basis, Table 10 has been constructed to show a comparison of the ratios thus calculated

TABLE 9

Ratio between per capita income and the number of physicians per 10,000 population in States Parties to the Convention, the United States and Argentina - 1977

Country	Per capita income (\$) (a)	Physicians per 10,000 population (b)	Ratio (b/a)
Brazil	1,410	6.07	2.32
Chile	1,250	6.11	2.05
Colombia	760	5.08	1.50
Cuba	750	9.02	0.83
Ecuador	820	6.17	1.33
El Salvador	590	2.71	2.18
Mexico	1,160	8.0	1.45
Netherlands	7,710	17.16	4.49
Panama	1,200	7.92	1.52
Venezuela	2,630	11.44	2.30
United States	8,750	16.80	5.21
Argentina	1,870	19.04	0.98
Sources: <u>Worl</u> and WHO World I			

TABLE 10

Theoretical migration trend of physicians on the basis of the ratio beween income level and the number of physicians per inhabitant. States Parties to the Convention, United States and Argentina

Country of destination	on Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Cuba	Ecuador	El Salvador	Mexico	Panama	Venezuela	Netherlands	United States
Brazil	_	0.88	0.65	0.36	0.57	0.94	0.63	0.66	0.99	1.94	2.25
Chile	1.13	-	0.73	0.40	0.65	1.06	0.71	0.74	1.12	2.19	2.54
Colombia	1.55	1.37	-	0.55	0.89	1.45	0.97	1.01	1.53	2.99	3.47
Cuba	2.80	2.46	1.80	-	1.60	2.62	1.75	1.83	2.77	5.40	6.28
Ecuador	1.74	1.54	1.13	0.62	-	1.64	1.09	1.14	1.73	3.76	3.92
El Salvador	1.06	0.94	0.69	0.38	0.61	-	0.67	0.70	1.06	2.06	2.39
Mexico	1.60	1.41	1.03	0.57	0.92	1.50		1.09	1.59	3.10	3.59
Netherlands	0.52	0.45	0.33	0.18	0.29	0.48	0.32	0.34	0.51	-	1.16
Panama	1.53	1.35	0.99	0.55	0.86	1.43	0.95	-	1.51	2.95	3.43
Venezuela	1.01	0.89	0.65	0.36	0.58	0.94	0.63	0.66	-	1.95	2.27
Argentina	2.37	2.09	1.53	0.84	1.36	2.22	1.48	1.55	2.35	4.58	5.31

Source: Calculated from data presented in Table 9.

for pairs of countries. The ratio figure in the third column of the previous table for country 1 is divided by that for country 2 (home country and recipient country) and, subsequently, the ratio for country 2 is divided by that for country 1 (with the previous home country becoming the recipient country, and vice versa). Thus, the nearer to zero the result, the lower will be the attraction of emigrating from country 1 to country 2. On the other hand, the higher the figure, from one upwards - since one would be the point of indifference - the greater would be the attraction of emigrating between the two countries.

This table gives an idea of the extent to which economic factors may account for many of the migratory flows of physicians that exist between the countries under review and for other migratory trends that are clearly identified in the available statistics: for example, from Ecuador to Colombia; from Colombia to Venezuela; from Cuba to Mexico, Panama and Venezuela; from Argentina to Venezuela; and especially from all the countries of the region to the United States.

Perhaps the most interesting aspect of this table is that it gives an idea of the trends which may develop in the migration of physicians between the countries of the area formed by the States Parties to the Convention if decisions concerning such migration are governed predominantly by economic considerations. Thus, if the case of the Netherlands is excepted, it will be observed that Brazilian or Venezuelan physicians would scarcely be interested in emigrating to any country of the area, whereas Cubans might be interested in emigrating to any of the other countries. It will also be observed that Colombians would by preference emigrate to Venezuela, El Salvador or Chile; that, for Chileans and Salvadorians, it would only be worth while to emigrate to Venezuela; that, for Mexicans and Panamanians, Brazil, Venezuela, Chile and El Salvador should be the preferred recipient countries.

Nevertheless, it would be oversimplification of the analysis to content oneself with a strictly economic explanation of this type of migration. This is borne out, furthermore, by the conclusions of a recent WHO study on physician and nurse migration (World Health Organization, 1979a), whose main conclusions on this subject are reproduced in extenso below, since they suitably illustrate the kind of reasons which should be taken into account in an explanation of professional migration processes:

- '... Emigration tends to be associated with a high degree of specialization by physicians, probably because a surplus of physicians <u>vis-à-vis</u> the economic demand for their services itself leads to overspecialization.

- 'In many developing countries medical education is modelled on developed country patterns. This is thought to encourage migration and certainly facilitates it.

- 'Physicians tend to migrate more from countries where the ratio of nurses and nursing personnel to physicians is low.

- 'No evidence was found to substantiate the theory that income differentials, either between

physicians in the donor and physicians in the recipient country or between physician income and other incomes within the donor country, cause physician migration ...

- 'Nurse migration paths and patterns tend to be different from those of physicians and more akin to those of skilled manual workers. Nurses tend to move shorter distances, make less permanent moves and remit more of their earnings home.

- 'Income differentials may play a role in nurse migration.

- 'The maldistribution of physicians and nurses between the urban and rural areas in any country appears to be related to affluence, but there is no discernible relationship with migration behaviour...

- 'The teaching of medicine in a language other than that spoken in the country does not seem to be associated with high migration rates. There is, however, a strong link between the teaching language and the language spoken in the recipient country, i.e. language tends to influence the direction of physician migration...

- 'Policies and practices in the recipient countries with regard to migration are more effective in determining the volume and direction of migration than are policies and practices in the donor countries.

- 'Restrictive policies in donor countries are ineffective and give rise to discontent and resentment among health professionals.

- 'Repatriation schemes, unless linked to more basic preventive measures, tend also to be ineffective.

- 'International agreements promoting the international recognition of medical and nursing qualifications facilitate and, possibly, encourage migration.

- 'There is no universal cure for migration. The measures that a given country needs to take will depend uniquely on the push or pull factors at work in that particular country.'

Unfortunately, it is impossible to extend this type of analysis to other professions or to establish whether its conclusions are applicable to those countries of the region whose situation was not studied by WHO (only Colombia was included). At the present time, the lack of statistics and detailed monogrpahs significantly hampers such analysis.

As regards the other professions, it is possible, at most, to attempt a comparison of isolated data and the development of hypotheses that can be compared with other obtainable isolated data. Such a task lies beyond the scope of this study. The most that can be done here is to refer to the type of analysis that could be applied in such cases, making particular reference to the approach involving differentials between push and pull factors. This approach has been explained in the following terms by E. Oteiza, in his study on the emigration of Argentine technologists and members of the professions:

'Within the international system of migration, which is selective as far as the recipient – developed countries are concerned, the flow occurs because between each of the pairs of countries (donor country and recipient country) there is a difference with respect to a series of factors in favour of the recipient country, resulting from the system of international relations and stratification. This difference in favour of the recipient country - which is more developed - gives it a "pull" and consequently a choice, exercised through the procedures for granting residence visas (or immigration visas). For the purposes of analysis, we have referred to this difference between the donor country and the recipient country as the "preference differential" (pr) between country 1 and country 2.

'The preference differential has itself been broken down into several factors, whose difference in favour of the recipient country may contribute to an understanding of some of the significant causes of high migratory flow. The main factors whose difference is considered significant in an explantation of this flow are:

- (a) the difference between the income obtainable in a given profession or activity in the donor country and in the recipient country (income differential);
- (b) the difference between the facilities available for the pursuit of specific professional or specialized work (such as laboratory or library resources) in the donor country and in the recipient country (logistic support differential);
- (c) the difference between the recognition and status accorded to the profession and its practice in the donor and in the recipient country (professional recognition differential);
- (d) the difference between other factors, also in the donor country and in the recipient country, which would represent a residual factor that includes differences relating to the political situation, the university situation, the social status attached to the profession, the level of repression or ideological or racial discrimination, the level of participation in the social development process, etc. (residual differential). This differential is less significant than the preceding differentials, though not, however, because it is more difficult to measure'. (Oteiza, 1971).

In the case of Latin America, as has been noted above, these last aspects, which are combined under the heading 'residual factor', would seem to play an extremely significant role. This appears to be particularly ture of political considerations.

However, before analysing the importance of migration brought about by political factors, it is necessary to consider two factors that also seem to have some influence on professional migration in the area.

The first concerns the migration of students who go abroad for undergraduate or post-graduate studies and either do not return to their country of origin or leave it after only a few years' practice there. This problem has led several authors to consider medical students studying abroad as a group that is highly likely to emigrate. Thus, for example, it has been maintained that 'in many countries of Africa \underline{f} ...] the problem is not so much one of losing locally trained physicians as it is of not regaining those nationals who obtained medical education outside the country. It would be desirable to investigate the extent to which this is true in Central and South America'. ¹

The only statistic which may be cited in this connection has reference to the high return rate (97.4 per cent) of Colombian students who went abroad to study between 1955 and 1968 on official repayable grants (Eusse Hoyos, 1969). This figure merely suggests that, in the case of students receiving official assistance in exchange for an undertaking to return to the country and practise there for some time, the rate of return is more than acceptable. It would merely be necessary, in this case, to establish the pattern among these same graduates several years later, and see whether they are more or less liable to emigrate than those who graduated abroad without official assistance.

The second factor to be noted concerns the role played by transnational corporations in the recruitment and emigration of specialized personnel in the area. This is a subject which perhaps, deserves more attention than it has so far received, since the relevant literature is extremely sparse. Given the type of multinational structure involved and the movement of personnel which is generally found in these corporations the different countries in which they operate. It is to be assumed that while they 'contribute' foreign managers and some foreign technologists to the countries in which they are established, they may possibly also recruit and send abroad technologists who are nationals of these countries.

2. The importance of emigration in the area for political reasons

The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the Intergovernmental Committee for Migration (ICM) estimate that more than 100,000 Latin Americans emigrate for political reasons each decade.

Any study dealing with intra-regional migration must take into consideration a depopulation factor of such magnitude.

Inasmuch as concerns the movements for political reasons of professional people within the countries adhering to the Convention, it has not been possible, in the present work, to obtain figures with sufficient enough precision for the effecting of proper analysis and the drawing of appropriate conclusions.

It is extremely interesting to note, however, that this migratory current carries away with it a high proportion of professionals with university degrees since they are usually more vulnerable to political changes than people in other social categories.

With this in mind, it seems appropriate here to at least give evidence of the importance of this phenomenon within the general context of the migratory process in the geographic area under consideration.

^{1.} Mejía, op. cit.

It should be noted, first and foremost, that this chapter will not consider fundamental measures that are essential for stemming the outflow of professional persons or promoting the return of migrants or the entry of new skilled immigrants. Such a subject lies largely outside the compass of this study - although it will be considered, to some extent, in the final chapter. By contrast, an attempt will be made to review the measures that have been taken, or could be taken, by the States Parties to the Convention in three areas that may have considerable significance for the attainment of the aims referred to in the title of this chapter:

- the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees;
- the conditions of access to professional practice; and
- the return of talent programmes.

On these three points, an attempt will be made firstly to review the current situation and the problems that have been identified. In certain cases, information will also be given on experiments conducted in other countries or regions that could serve as a basis for similar action in countries of the area covered by the Convention.

1. The recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees

The main aim of the Convention is to facilitate, through the simplification of the requirements and procedures for the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees the attainment of the objectives set forth in its preamble which have already been referred to in the introduction.

Furthermore, it is evident that measures to facilitate the recognition of studies can contribute to the return both of students who have graduated from foreign universities and of professional persons who have settled abroad and pursued postgraduate studies there. They may also help potential graduate immigrants decide to settle in a particular country.

These factors drive home the importance of reviewing the measures adopted to date by the States Parties. In order to do this, reference has been made to the reports provided by the delegations that took part in the third session of the Regional Committee for the Implementation of the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (hereafter referred to as the Regional Committee) (Guayaquil, 1980) and the replies forwarded by a number of governments of States Parties to an ICD questionnaire (see Annex B). From this material, it was possible to glean the following information referring to five States Parties.

Colombia. A special body has been set up, within the Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior (ICFES), with responsibility for implementing the provisions of the Convention. This body performs an advisory function in relation to the university authorities and a communication function in relation to the relevant government authorities and professional organizations. The body confers on persons holding qualifications, diplomas or degrees obtained abroad the rights or obligations assigned to persons who hold an equivalent qualification, diploma or degree obtained in the national system. It does so, in many cases, in pursuance of the provisions of the Convention, although in other cases -even in relation to States Parties - it acts under previously existing bilateral agreements or the Agreement on Academic Qualifications signed by Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela at the First Bolivarian Congress (1911).

In view of the detailed nature and significance of the information provided by ICFES in reply to the questionnaire sent out by ICD, particularly concerning the procedures for, and the scope of, the recognition of qualifications for different professions in Colombia, this reply is reproduced in full in Annex C.

The ICFES Recognition Section handled seventythree applications in 1978 and eighty-five applications in 1979. The distribution of these applications by professions spans a range of twenty-two professions.

Of these qualifications, 136 (that is to say, 40 per cent) were awarded by States Parties to the Convention, particularly Ecuador (49.3 per cent of the cases) and Mexico (14.7 per cent). Qualifications obtained in countries other than States Parties were awarded mainly in the United States (30.4 per cent), the Soviet Union (13 per cent), Italy and Spain (14.7 per cent in each case).

The report provided by ICFES in reply to the

TABLE 11

Qualifications recogn		
in the period 15 February 1	980-15 Nove	mber 1980
Medicine and surgery Engineering, architecture	93	28.4
and auxiliary professions	34	10.4
Education sciences	34	10.4
Advanced training and post-		
graduate studies	61	18.65
Others	105	32.15
Total	327	

<u>Source</u>: Based on data contained in the report presented by Colombia at the third session of the Regional Committee.

above-mentioned questionnaire gives an idea of the importance, among the qualifications recognized in Colombia, of qualifications in the health sciences awarded in Ecuador (55.2 per cent of the qualifications recognized up to March 1981) and in Mexico (9.7 per cent) and also of the qualifications in the 'Humanities and Religious Sciences' awarded in the Holy See (9.0 per cent).

<u>Cuba</u>. The degree of Doctor of Science has been recognized within the general framework of scientific degrees, in accordance with the regulations issued by the Ministry of Higher Education and the National Commissions on Scientific Degrees, while legislation on the recognition of studies and on professional practice in the spirit of the Regional Convention is in the process of being drafted.

<u>Chile</u>. A National Committee has been set up to study the interpretation and scope of the Convention, composed of the eight Academic Vice-Rectors of the Chilean Universities.

To date, Chile has recognized qualifications relating to completed secondary studies and higher-education courses, for admission to a more advanced stage of education (university or post-graduate education or futher training). Until now, qualifications have been recognized with a view to permitting the practice of a profession under various bilateral agreements in force, since up to November 1980 no application had been made for recognition under the terms of the Convention.

<u>Mexico</u>. Approval has been given to Internal Regulations of the Department of Education, which grants to a specific body, the Subdirectorate General for International Co-operation, the power to recognize studies within the terms of the Convention. By means of a bilateral convention with a third state, Mexico has accepted, upon the same terms as those laid down in the Convention, the equivalence between the <u>Baccalauréat</u> and the Bachillerato.

Holy See. The involvement of the Holy See with the Convention bears exclusively upon ecclesiastical academic establishments. Consequently, the body responsible for the implementation of the Convention was established as part of the Congregation for Catholic Education. Furthermore, the Apostolic Constitution, <u>Sapientia Christiana</u> was issued in April 1979 and, in updating the norms in force until that time, did so within the spirit of the Convention, through:

(a) the establishment of successive phases in the curricula of the ecclesiastical faculties or institutes under the authority of the Holy See, which should facilitate the establishment of equivalences in relation to studies pursued in other institutions;

(b) the validation of courses of study in themselves, in certain cases when they do not lead to an official qualification;

(c) the recruitment of students from all countries without discrimination;

(d) the formalization of a procedure to facilitate the recognition of ecclesiastical higher studies and diplomas, including recognition by contracting states that do not have diplomatic relations with the Holy See.

As may be observed, no further details are available on the measures adopted to date by the majority of the States Parties. Moreover, even in some cases where information is available, the impression is given that the measures envisaged by the Convention have not yet been fully implemented.

This is unfortunate, not only inasmuch as it hampers the attainment of the aims which the States Parties have set themselves, but also, because the experience of the only country for which some information is available - Colombia shows the relatively large number of cases that arise. This fact confirms the importance of bringing into force an appropriate system for the recognition of studies, degrees and diplomas in order to facilitate the return of students who graduate abroad or of emigrant professional persons, a good proportion of whom would then come back from industrialized countries, as shown by the statistics already cited.

2. <u>Requirements for admission to the</u> practice of a profession

Article 1 of the Convention, which is concerned with definitions, states that the recognition of a foreign diploma, degree or qualification implies the granting to its holder of the rights enjoyed by those who possess a comparable national diploma, degree or qualification, with respect to the continuation of studies or the practice of a profession. In this respect, subparagraph ii of the same article stipulates that:

'recognition for the purpose of practising a profession means acceptance of the technical competence of the holder (...) and implies the rights and obligations of the holder of national diplomas, degrees or qualifications, possession of which is required for the practice of the profession in question'.

In other words, it establishes equality between those who hold a national or a foreign diploma, degree or qualification as regards the implications of holding the qualification, in terms of the practice of a profession. This means, not that the States Parties have an obligation to accord such treatment to the holders of foreign diplomas, degrees or qualifications, but they have the 'intention' of doing so (Article 2). To this end, they undertake:

'... to adopt all the national and international measures that may be necessary to ensure the gradual achivement of the objectives set out in this Article, principally through bilateral, subregional or regional agreements, as well as through agreements between institutions of higher education, and such other means as may be conducive to cooperation with the competent organizations and institutions, both national and international'. Furthermore, the above-mentioned subpara-

graph ii of Article 1 states that:

'Such recognition does not have the effect of exempting the holder of the foreign diploma, degree or qualification from the obligation to comply with any other conditions that may be required, for the practice of the profession in question, by national legal provisions as well as by the competent governmental or professional authorities'.

This is possibly one of the major limitations of the Convention, inasmuch as it suggests that not all the States Parties were fully committed, at the time of its adoption, to granting equal treatment to nationals and foreign citizens holding equivalent qualifications, with regard to requirements for admission to the practice of a profession.

In more than one context, this fact may serve as a barrier either to the return of nationals who have studied abroad or to the immigration of foreigners with a level of education that is, in some cases, even higher than that which can be provided in the country itself. This would appear to go against the interests of more than one State Party that is particularly short of graduate professionals.

It should not be forgotten that, in such cases, as generally happens in other regions, this situation is to some extent the result either of pressure from professional bodies anxious not to lose long-standing privileges or of prejudices nurtured among the members of these bodies about the 'quality' of studies pursued in the country itself and the 'inferiority' of studies pursued abroad.

2.1 <u>The present situation in States Parties</u> to the Convention

Unfortunately, it has not been possible to review the requirements for admission to the main professions practised in countries of the area covered by the Convention. On this point, up-todate information was available only on the profession of physician, and information relating to the year 1971 on the profession of veterinary surgeon (see Annex D).

Analysis of this information has led to a number of conclusions favouring the adoption of some of the measures already provided for in the Convention and other measures that go beyond its provisions. Thus, for example, it has been possible to establish that, with regard to the practice of the profession of physician, in Brazil and Venezuela and also in Colombia, in certain cases - degrees or diplomas obtained abroad, by nationals or by foreigners, are only recognized after certain examinations are passed. Furthermore, in the case of Chile and El Salvador, persons holding such qualifications are required to complete one year's service as interns; this requirement apparently does not apply to persons holding national degrees or diplomas.

Lastly, according to the information provided by WHO, authorization to practise medicine in Panama is only granted to persons of Panamanian nationality. This is rather hard to understand in view of the apparent need for physicians in that country which has only 7, 92 physicians per 10,000 population. Furthermore, the information provided by WHO might controvert Panamanian statistics which seem to indicate that, in 1970, 194 foreign-born physicians, surgeons and dentists were practising in the country. This would imply either that the above-mentioned legislation has lapsed or that the foreigners practising in Panama have been obliged to opt for Panamanian nationality in order to practise their profession. This latter requirement may also represent a fairly significant limitation from the point of view of encouraging the inflow of foreign professional persons.

With regard to the profession of veterinary surgeon, in the cases of Brazil, Chile and Ecuador, recognition is also conditional upon the passing of examinations - which, in the case of Brazil, are fairly numerous. With regard to Chile, the information provided by WHO would suggest that some of the requirements for admission to the practice of the profession are not sufficiently specific.

In all these cases, the impression is given that the provisions in force in some States Parties, with regard to the recognition of diplomas and degrees, differ appreciably from those in force between most European countries. Thus, for example, the European Covention on the Academic Recognition of University Qualifications, adopted within the framework of the Council of Europe in November 1959¹, only envisages the possibility of requiring the passing of examinations prior to recognition,

'in cases where the examination requirements for a foreign university qualification do not include certain subjects prescribed for the similar national qualification...' (Article 4). Furthermore, the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the States belonging to the Europe Region, promoted by Unesco and adopted in Paris in December 1979, considerably extends

This convention has been ratified by Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, the Holy See, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Malta, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Yugoslavia.

the degree of co-operation in the area of recognition between the States Parties to that $agreement^1$.

Thus, for example, under this Convention, 'The Contracting States, in addition to any obligations of governments, agree to take all feasible steps with a view to encouraging the competent authorities concerned to

'give recognition, as defined in Article 1, paragraph 1 to secondary school leaving certificates and other diplomas issued in the other Contracting States that grant access to higher education with a view to enabling the holders to undertake studies in institutions of higher education situated in the respective territories of the Contracting States' (Article 3, paragraph 1);

'give recognition... to certificates, diplomas and degrees with a view to enabling the holders to pursue advanced studies and training and undertake research in their institutions of higher education' (Article 4, paragraph 1 (a));

'define, so far as possible, the procedure applicable to the recognition, for the purpose of the pursuit of studies, of the partial studies pursued in higher educational institutions situated in the other Contracting States' (Article 4, paragraph 1 (b);

'give recognition... for the purpose of practising a profession' (Article 5).

2.2 The experience of the European Communities²

With regard to the requirements for the admission of foreigners to the practice of a profession, it is useful to consider - besides the abovementioned Convention - the progress achieved within the framework of the European Communities since, in some cases, this might serve as a point of reference for similar initiatives among the States Parties to the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean. This applies particularly if it is borne. in mind that, in the case of the European countries, the marked cultural differences and the influence of long-standing traditions have made access to national life for foreigners far more difficult than it is in the Latin American countries, which are generally closer to each other in cultural terms than the European countries are.

The Treaty of Rome under which the European Communities were established proclaims four fundamental freedoms, which are the basis of the Common Market: free movement of goods, persons, services and capital.

The free movement of goods is a reality as evidenced by the elimination of customs duties between Member States, the common customs tariff in respect of third countries, etc. The free movement of persons and services has not yet been fully introduced and certain difficulties have been encountered in this context.

Some legal provisions dating from before the Treaty of Rome limit the admission of foreigners to the territory or restrict certain activities to nationals. However, since 1970, various agreements have prohibited all such discrimination against citizens of a Member State.

It is admissible, nevertheless, subject to the control of the European Court of Justice:

(a) to debar or expel citizens of other Member States on grounds of public policy, public security or public health. This possibility has been limited, however, in an attempt, above all, to protect migrants and their families;

(b) to restrict exclusively to nationals employment in activities that are connected with the exercise of official authority.

Through its various regulations, the Community has put into practice the principles of free movement and equality of treatment for wage-earners.

With regard to the self-employed, at the end of the transitional period established in the Treaty of Rome, and in the absence of any other Community provision, every citizen of a Member State has a legally guaranteed right to take up and pursue activities as a self-employed person in any of the Member States, under the same conditions as nationals of the recipient country and cannot be excluded on the grounds of his nationality or the place where he has established his professional domicile.

These principles apply, in general, to every profession. Nationals and other citizens of Member States have a recognized right to equal treatment and the rulings of the European Court of Justice have stated the need for direct implementation of the legislation on the right of establishment. Accordingly, any citizen of a Member State who is subject to discrimination may take action in the national courts to ensure that his right are respected, since Community legislation takes precedence over all national laws and regulations that are at variance with it.

Another type of obstacle to the free movement of persons arises from national laws and regulations applicable both to the citizens of the country and to foreigners which link admission to the profession to various general conditions (attestations of good character, diplomas, degrees and other formal qualifications providing evidence of theoretical and practical knowledge, etc.).

In this respect, one point to be noted is the pressure brought to bear by local professional bodies, anxious to maintain a monopoly over their

- At the time of its adoption, this Convention was signed by the following countries: Belgium, the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, Bulgaria, Denmark, Finland, France, the German Democratic Republic, the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, the Holy See, Hungary, Israel, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Romania, San Marino, Spain, Sweden, Turkey, the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, the United Kingdom, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and Yugoslavia.
- 2. Most of the information contained in this section was supplied by the Department on Free Movement of Self-Employed Persons and Recognition of Diplomas of the Commission of the European Communities.

professional activities. Nevertheless, there is every indication that such obstacles will gradually disappear, through the implementation of legislation aimed at facilitating the effective practice of economic activities and facilitating the recognition of attestations of good character and experience and the professional qualifications – obtained in any Member State.

The Community bases its decision to remove obstacles to the exercise of the right of establishment and the freedom to provide services, on three fundamental considerations:

(a) economic: the establishment of a common market presupposes the mobility of the various economic factors involved, particularly the mobility of labour;

(b) political: greater unity between the European countries is sought and, consequently, it is considered fundamental that citizens of other Member States be treated in the same way as nationals and, particularly, that their qualifications, where these correspond to courses of study offered in the Member States, be recognized as equal to national qualifications in all matters pertaining to the free practice of the professions;

(c) statistical: the free movement of professional persons does not involve large-scale movements. The number of professional persons who move from one country to another is at no time so great as to give rise to major changes in the social or economic structure.

The directives adopted to date refer to the medical and paramedical professions and to lawyers.

A brief description of these directives is given below.

<u>Doctors</u>. The relevant directives were adopted in 1975. Every doctor (whether a general practitioner or a specialist) may freely practise in the territory of every country of the Community. His basic training must consist of at least a six-year course or 5,500 hours of theoretical and practical instruction. Medical specialists must receive additional training lasting between three and five years.

<u>Nurses</u>. The directives date from 1977. Nurses have the same freedom to practise their profession as doctors. Their training must include, at least, general school education of ten year's duration and three years or 4,600 hours of training in nursing. There is a basic curriculum which is common to all the Member States of the Community.

Dentists. The directives were adopted in 1978. The texts prescribe a common curriculum to be taught for a period of at least five years in an institution of higher education. (As no formal qualification in dentistry existed in Italy, that country was given a period of four-and-a-half years to organize a suitable programme of training).

<u>Veterinarians</u>. The relevant directives were adopted in 1978. As in the case of the abovementioned professions, they provide for freedom to practise the profession in all the Member States. Training must include five years of study in an institution of higher education in accordance with a specific curriculum.

Midwives. The directives were adopted in 1980. They provide for freedom to practise the profession throughout the territory of the Community, provided the persons concerned have received a minimum level of training. Such training should involve specific training in midwifery lasting between eighteen months and three years, depending on whether the person concerned is in possession of a nursing diploma and has some professional experience. The specialized training must include certain basic subjects. However, this requirement may be waived, during a transitional period, for persons with at least three years' professional experience. This flexible approach has made it possible to solve the problem arising from the different forms of training in midwifery in the European countries, while at the same time guaranteeing the freedom to practise the profession and the required standard of professional competence.

Lawyers. The case of lawyers had to be considered separately, since the directive adopted in 1977 refers solely to the freedom to provide certain services and, unlike the directives on the above-mentioned professions, does not include any measures concerning the mutual recognition of qualifications.

The adopted legislation authorizes lawyers to practise before the courts in conjunction with a local lawyer and to provide, either by themselves or in conjunction with others, certain consultative legal services. Everything would seem to indicate that the differences in the legislations of the Member States of the Community justify these limitations.

Since there is no legislation on the mutual recognition of qualifications, as stated above, the directive is based on the concept of the mutual recognition of the status of <u>lawyer</u>, as defined in each Member State.

In conclusion, the following three fundamental features of the above-mentioned directives stand out:

(a) They all include measures aimed at facilitating the mobility of professional persons, while retaining the necessary guarantees concerning the observance of the regulations governing the professions in each Member State.

(b) They include provisions relating to the establishment of Advisory Committees of experts (members of the profession, teachers, representatives of public authorities, etc.), responsible for formulating suggestions aimed at adapting the training of professional persons in relation to the development of research and professional practice. Furthermore, a Committee of Senior Officials in Public Health has been set up to study the difficulties which may arise in the implementation of the directives and to put forward suggestions for possible solutions.

(c) Reference is made solely to the professional aspects of the recognition of qualifications, without establishing any specific form of academic recognition of qualifications or periods of study, which would give students greater freedom to accumulate knowledge acquired in different Member States.

This problem has still not been solved by the Member States which, for the time being, are governed in these matters by bilateral agreements, the European Convention on the Academic Recognition of University Qualifications or national legislation.

Nevertheless, the provisions concerning certain 'minimum' basic programmes of study, in some of the professions considered, are already serving to approximate the different training systems. The Advisory Committees perform a similar function. Such efforts also contribute, in the opinion of the European authorities, to an improvement in training standards. Thus, for example, in the case of Italy, the Community directives on dentists will result in the establishment of a specific course of training and qualification in dentistry. In France, the length of the nursing course was increased from two to three years in compliance with the directives on nursing.

3. Return of talent programmes

According to calculations made by the Intergovernmental Committee for Migration (ICM) on the basis of UNCTAD data, more than 48,000 highly skilled migrants moved, between 1961 and 1976, from Latin America and the Caribbean to three countries, namely the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom.

Several countries of the region have, at different times, introduced programmes aimed at bringing back some of this 'talent' (Argentina, Colombia). Other countries are doing so or plan to do so in the near future (the Andean Pact Group, Costa Rica). Furthermore, since 1964 ICM has been developing a Selective Migration Programme which was established on the initiative of the Latin American countries. More recently, in 1974, ICM also put into operation a Return of Talent Programme, which has also been supported by a number of programmes in industrialized countries concerned with facilitating the departure of resident foreign professional persons.

The following sections will contain a review of the Colombian repatriation programme (as it is the most significant of the programmes undertaken to date by the States Parties to the Convention) and the different ICM programmes.

3.1 <u>The Colombian Programme for the</u> <u>Repatriation of Professional Persons</u> <u>and Technologists</u>

The programme for the repatriation of professional persons and technologists formally established by the Colombian Government, under a decree of 1972, was co-ordinated by the Fondo Colombiano de Investigaciones Cientificas y Proyectos Especiales 'Francisco José de Caldas' -COLCIENCIAS - and by the Instituto Colombiano de Especialización Técnica en el Exterior -ICE TEX.

This decree granted customs, tax and administrative allowances on the importation of the household effects and general equipment of the professional person and his family, including a car, on condition that he resided in Colombia for five consecutive years. With regard to professional practice in the country, the decree required merely the provision of services directly connected with the professional experience acquired abroad by the person concerned, but did not require such services to be provided under the terms of a contract of employment or that they should be provided on an exclusive basis. The aim of this arrangement was to allow a great freedom of choice in selecting the field of employment. 248 professional persons and technologists returned to the country in response to this decree.

While most of them had resided in industrialized countries, forty-eight of them had emigrated to countries of Latin America, particularly Venezuela and Mexico.

It will be seen from the length of time spent abroad that the majority of returnees fall into the 3/4 and 5/6 year bands; that is to say, they are for the most part selectively recent emigrants.

Some 50 per cent of the returnee professional persons worked in the private sector of production; 24. 7 per cent in the public sector and 17 per cent were self-employed. No information was obtained on the remaining 5.6 per cent. A total of forty-one returnees in the different branches of science were initially under contract to public and private universities (75 per cent worked for state universities and the remaining 25 per cent for private universities).

It is not necessary to study in detail here the desirability of attracting such highly skilled personnel back to the country. However, the importance of the returnees for national development and the training of new professional persons through teaching activities is obvious.

It is important, however, to indicate the difficulties that they encountered on their return, since such difficulties may provide an object lesson for the improvement of future efforts along these lines.

According to an evaluation report produced by Colciencias and the National Employment Service (Colombia, SENALDE, 1978), from which some data referred to here were taken, such difficulties could be summarized as follows:

- Lack of adequate information on employment in Colombia and on the level of remuneration with a consequent discrepancy between the actual situation and the rewards anticipated as a result of the return.

The programme did not involve any obligation on the part of the government or of the co-ordinating bodies to help in the placement of resources in employment. This fact, which seemed to afford freedom of choice to the returnee, actually led to a certain degree of insecurity.

- In the case of personnel taking up university posts, the following difficulties were experienced:

(a) a general lack of funds and a lack of research funds in particular;

(b) a shortage of libraries, laboratories and even essential resources with the consequent loss of working time;

(c) frequent labour disputes that hamper teaching and seriously disrupt university activities, arising from the pursuit of demands which the respondents consider justified;

(d) excessive academic duties.

TABLE 12

	Years of residence abroad										
Country of residence abroad	Total	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	11-12	13-14	15-		
North America	167	13	47	44	23	16	11	3	10		
Europe	33	3	9	7	3	5	1	-	5		
Latin America including:	48	10	16	6	8	2	2	1	4		
Brazil Ecuador Mexico	3 2 12	1 1 -	2 - 3	- - 1	- - 4	- - 2	- - 1	- - -	- 1 1		
Venezuela	18	3	7	4	2	-	-	-	2		
Total	248	26	72	57	34	23	13	4	19		

Absolute distribution of returnee professional persons and technologists, by countries of residence abroad, according to length of stay

One of the aims of the programme was to recruit teachers for the universities. Nevertheless apart from the above-mentioned difficulties, some of the returnees had to locate places of employment by themselves where they could be given contracts or find vacancies in their specialization.

In general, all the respondents agreed that the university enabled them to 'survive' until they found a better opportunity, whereupon they left the university.

A certain general feeling of discontent about the living conditions found, which, coupled with the poor working conditions, made 50 per cent consider the possibility of re-emigrating.

With regard to the practical implementation of the programme, the following disadvantages were noted:

(a) the period of one year is a very short time in which to attract professional persons who have spent a fairly long time abroad;

(b) the criteria for the acceptance of applicants were too vague and this favoured the entry both of persons who did not need the programme and of other persons whose particular specializations did not match the country's priority needs or who could not be provided with work by the country;

(c) the incentives offered, which amounted to little more than customs tariff exemptions, were not enough to attract professional persons who were firmly established abroad. Rather, they served, perhaps, to facilitate the return of persons who were going to return in any case;

(d) some found the five years' residence requirement excessive. Others took the view that it was the minimum which the country could require of them. What has been said above suggests the need for clear and precise planning and an effective framework for repatriation programmes, which should be aimed fundamentally at:

(a) planning repatriation through a selective policy that takes into consideration employment opportunities and the needs of the country;

(b) promoting the settlement of the returnee by all available means, taking into account the difficulties that have arisen in previous experiments, with a view to securing the permanent settlement of the returnee in the country;

(c) arranging short-term return schemes, in specializations where this is appropriate and for certain classes of academic personnel in university and postgraduate education.

3. 2 <u>The programmes of the Intergovernmental</u> <u>Committee for Migration</u>

ICM has specialized in promoting immigration, initially from Europe, and subsequently from other countries, to Latin America. In 1974, it began, at the request of various governments of the region, a 'return of talent' programme.

This programme was founded on ICM's infrastructure and network of offices in Europe and Latin America which had been established in the 1960s to organize a selective migration programme ICM's task consisted in identifying, in the Latin American countries, employment opportunities that could not be taken up by the available human resources in the country and where the vacancies could be filled by specialized personnel of the same nationality resident abroad. It also involved carrying out recruitment campaigns in the industrialized countries aimed at identifying professional persons

TABLE	13
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			through the intervention
of the CIM within the	framework of the	return of talent'	programme (to 31 December 1980)

ecipient country	Brazil	Chi	.1e	Colombia	El Salvador	Ecuador	Mexi co	Panama	Venezuela	St	tal ates rties	Tot Jatin	al America
Germany, Federal Republic of	14 (33)	201	(234)	69 (59)	2 (3)	56 (75)	7 (10)	3 (4)	8 (8)	306	(426)	563	(514)
ustria		1	(8)							1	(8)	1	(8)
elgium		19	(27)	17 (6)		3 (2)				39	(= =)	49	(42)
pain		148	(289)	16 (20)		5 (3)				169		174	(318)
taly		11	(22)	7 (-)		1 (2)				19	• •	2.2	(29)
razil		1	(2)							1	(2)	1	(2)
Penmark		12	(16)			2 (3)				14	(19)	14	(19)
nited States of America		166	(253)			1 (3)				167	(256)	167	(256)
rance		36	(51)	13 (8)		2 (2)				51	(61)	66	(73)
srael		3	(6)							3	(6)	3	(6)
nited Kingdom		32	(52)	9 (8)		3 (-)				44	(60)	46	(60)
omania		1	(3)							1	(3)	1	(3)
weden		1	(-)	1 (-)						2	(-)	2	(-)
witzerland		14	(12)	11 (3)		1 (-)				26	(15)	26	(15)
anada		1	(-)							1	(-)	1	(-)
Cotal	14 (33)	 647	(975)	143 (104) 2 (3)	74 (90)	7 (10)	3 (4)	8 (8)		(1,227)	

The figures in brackets refer to dependants. Source: Intergovernmental Committee for Migration, Geneva, 1981.

who were prepared to return to their countries of origin and giving them information on the available posts, living and working conditions and customs legislation in the countries where such opportunities existed; introducing the candidates; handling the documentation formalities connected with their return, their relocation, reception and settlement in the recipient country and assisting them during the reintegration process.

ICM also arranged reduced tariffs for selected candidates and their dependents, as well as a medical and accident insurance plan covering them. In some cases, it also granted financial assistance and additional salary for an initial period.

In conjunction with this programme, ICM has also been operating, in recent years, a special return programme for specialized personnel resident in the Federal Republic of Germany This programme (LARAP) receives official backing from the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany in the form of the payment of most of the travel cost of the returnee and his dependents together with personal effects; the payment of one year's insurance premium; and, in some cases, greater initial financial assistance than is provided for by the ICM Return of Talent Programme.

As a result of the implementation of these programmes, 1,126 professional persons (see Table 13), of whom 898 were nationals of States Parties to the Convention, had returned to Latin America up to the end of 1980. The vast majority came from the Federal Republic of Germany, Spain and the United States and went, in particular, to Chile and, to a lesser degree, to Colombia and Ecuador.

In early 1971, also at the request of several Latin American countries, ICM launched a special programme to secure the return of specialized personnel currently living in the United States.

A review of the different themes that have been considered throughout the preceding three chapters suggests a number of conclusions which, in turn, may serve as a basis for recommendations addressed, in some cases, to the Regional Committee; in other cases, to the governments of the States Parties; and, in still others, to the regional or international bodies whose activities are connected with skilled manpower migration. It must be observed at the outset that, in more than one case, such conclusions and recommendations concern areas outside the territory covered by the Convention, since they have a bearing upon problems that are very often common to all the Latin American countries.

These recommendations and conclusions are set out below in the order in which they have previously been considered in this study.

1. There is an obvious shortage of information on the 'brain drain' from the States Parties. The literature is relatively sparse and what information it contains is often repetitive. This stems mainly from a lack of basic statistical information on emigration and from the problems of obtaining or working with information from recipient industrialized countries. With regard to migratory movements in the region, the information is even more meagre.

With a view to alleviating these problems, it is suggested that:

(a) in the national statistics and census offices of the States Parties, account should be taken of this shortage of information and, with regard to immigration from other countries of the region, information on foreigners should be broken down, by nationality and by profession, and common definitions should be adopted that can serve as a basis for comparisons between different countries of the region;

(b) CELADE could carry out a wide-ranging statistical study on professional migration in Latin America. It should be adequately funded for this purpose. Demographic studies, including those on migration, call for greater attention on the part of the governments of the region and CELADE is the most suitable agency to undertake such studies; (c) an investigation of the type referred to above could be funded by the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA), whose contribution to the study of these problems in Latin America is becoming smaller, contrary to the requirements of the region;

(d) it would also be desirable, possibly within the framework of the activities of the Regional Committee, for several pilot studies to be carried out on professional migration between States Parties (even incorporating other countries of the region). This could be done by taking, in each case, one profession (which should not, as far as possible, be associated with medicine, a field on which some information is already available) and conducting an in-depth study on the situation in certain 'critical' countries.

2. The major problem connected with professional emigration in the region is the continuous outflow to industrialized countries, both on account of the scale of the phenomenon, as it represents a net loss for the region in terms of the professional skills of the emigrants, and in terms of the cost of their training. While migration within the region seems to be far less significant in numerical terms, it is impossible, on the basis of the available information, to gauge how it is distributed. It should be borne in mind, however, that such migration benefits some countries more than others.

3. The causes of the steady outflow of professional persons from the region to the industrialized countries are deep-rooted. The fact that this outflow is not greater today is possibly due, above all, to the economic situation that prevails in the industrialized countries and to the restrictive immigration measures that they are adopting. The above-mentioned causes are related to the general 'underdevelopment' of the countries of the region and a solution to them can only be found in so far as the underlying problems are resolved. In short, there has to be 'development'. But not just any kind of development: if such development is achieved in accordance with the patterns peculiar to today's industrialized countries, without being independently based at national and regional level, emigration will continue indefinitely. On the other hand, measures which serve merely to restrict the departure of personnel from the country, and which are at times used to prevent emigration, not merely encroach upon individual freedom but are inefficient and, in the long term, may serve to exacerbate the phenomenon which they are intended to prevent.

4. However, in several countries of the region, the causes of professional emigration are or have been essentially political. Furthermore, emigration for political reasons has possibly been numerically greater in recent years than emigration for what may be termed 'economic' reasons. This type of emigration, as seems to be indicated by the few available data, takes away from the donor countries a relatively high proportion of professional persons. Furthermore, it is the easiest kind of emigration to prevent.

This theme of emigration for political reasons in Latin America also deserves greater study than it has received to date from the various international agencies. What is needed is a better knowledge of the scale and nature of the problem. In the current climate of growing economic crisis, the assimilation of political emigrants, particularly if they enter in large numbers, is becoming increasingly difficult and their living conditions are increasingly precarious. The economic crisis considerably reduces the scope for solidarity and the governments of many countries often tend to forget that their obligations towards their nationals also extend to those who are in exile. Furthermore, the problems connected with the reintegration of such emigrants when they return to their countries do not seem to have been studied to any great extent either. Perhaps bodies such as Unesco and ICM could contribute to a more effective study of these questions.

5. In analysing the specific measures that may help to limit emigration and encourage immigration, reference should be made to improveing the provisions for the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees. Such improvement may have the effect of increasing the return of students who go abroad for a course of study or further training and may facilitate the immigration of foreign professional persons. In this context, there would seem to be an urgent need for the full implementation of the intentions expressed by the governments of States Parties to the Convention and for the speedy ratification of the Convention by all the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean.

The European experience shows that it is possible to simplify considerably the legislation and procedures for recognition. There is no justification for maintaining recognition criteria based upon a preconceived notion of the superiority of the studies provided in the country concerned or resulting from the pressure brought to bear by professional bodies, interested in maintaining their privileged positions which do not necessarily have anything in common with the national interest.

6. In the same connection, it would also seem to be extremely important to establish in the region the principle whereby, at least in relation to admission to postgraduate or specialized studies and teaching activity and research, what is taken into account is not merely the diplomas and degrees obtained, but also the overall training, ability and experience of the person concerned. Royal Decree 486 adopted in February 1981 by the Spanish Government and the practices already in force in other States Parties could provide guidelines for the extension of this principle to the entire region. This would seem desirable, not only on the grounds of the growing complexity of higher education, but also because it may be a means of eliminating obstacles both to the return of nationals with professional qualifications and to the immigration of foreigners.

7. With regard to the return of professional persons who emigrated for political reasons, the volatile nature of Latin American politics would seem to dictate the application of particularly liberal recognition criteria for returnees. Here again reference should be made to the case of Spain and to Royal Decree 1784 of July 1980 which introduced a particularly liberal system for those who 'left the country during and after the civil war', their spouses and their dependents.

8. With regard to admission to the practice of a profession, it would appear that speedy progress could also be made to facilitate the return of professional persons and promote the entry of foreigners, doing away with any discrimination on grounds of nationality or the place where qualifications were acquired. There seems to be little justification for this kind of discrimination, particularly when the country needs such professional persons. This is a question which it would, perhaps, be appropriate for the Regional Committee to consider in some detail, since it has a fairly direct bearing upon some of the aims of the Convention.

9. The same could be said on the subject of the requirements for vocational training and for the practice of certain professions. In such areas, there is wide scope for regional co-operation, particularly with a view to preventing emigration to countries outside the area by improving the conditions for mobility within the area. The Regional Committee could perhaps, act as an instrument for promoting consideration of this question in the country of the area.

10. With regard to the repatriation programmes, everything would seem to indicate that it is necessary to develop such programmes on the basis of prior study of the conditions obtaining in the country, linking them to specific programmes or projects particularly in connection with university development and the establishment of new training or research centres. At the same time, every precaution should be taken to prevent these programmes themselves becoming a cause of definitive reemigration for the returnees. ICM can play an extremely important role both in the design of such programmes and through co-operation in their implementation. It could also perhaps co-operate in this field with the countries of the region and identify new sources of funding in the industrialized countries to be allocated towards the implementation of these programmes in which such countries

having a growing interest as they help to take some of the pressure off their own labour markets.

11. Following this same line of reasoning, the Latin American Economic System (SELA), whose task is to act as an effective spokesman for the region in its relations with regional associations of industrialized countries, could, perhaps, consider the possibility in its dealings and discussions with the European Communities of placing this question, as well as the broader question of the scope for further immigration to Latin America, on the agenda.

12. On the subject of the return of talent, moreover, the impression is given that one of the issues to which the Regional Committee should give some priority concerns students from States Parties who go to industrialized countries in order to study or receive further training. This is, perhaps, one of the main instigations of emigration. The experience of a high rate of return at the end of the course of studies achieved with scholarship students from Colombia should encourage similar arrangements. Nevertheless, it would be necessary, first and foremost, to be able to determine the emigration rate among such students several years after their return. This factor has to be taken into account, quite apart from other objections which may be made to the more or less indiscriminate promotion of courses of study pursued abroad. 1

13. Attention should be drawn to the role which may be played by regional co-operation in preventing the brain drain to industrialized countries, particularly by establishing conditions for keeping in the region professional persons who, if such co-operation did not exist, would have chosen to emigrate. Reference has already been made to the role which transnational corporations may be playing in promoting the brain drain - a subject which certainly merits inclusion on the list of issues requiring further study. Conversely the multinational corporations of Latin America, the bi-national projects or regional or subregional specialized agencies, the Action Committees of SELA or the multinational firms of consultants in Latin America and private corporations formed with Latin American capital represent some of the different ways in which the development of the Latin American integration network may help to stem, to the benefit of the region as a whole, much of this outflow to the industrialized countries

14. A contribution may also be made, through regional co-operation, to greater use of graduate personnel in the region, through the establishment of machinery for the dissemination of information on education, employment and research opportunities within the region, and through the establishment of machinery for bilateral or regional consultation in connection with specialized professional services. To date, very little has been done in these areas in Latin America.

15. Reference should be made, lastly, to the desirability of consideration by the Regional Committee of the possibility of taking some initiative with a view to more effectively analysing the needs of the region in regard to research and postgraduate training. Bearing in mind the high cost of such activities, the scope for developing such programmes at bi-national, subregional or regional level, the availability of skilled personnel in the area or the possibility of creating the opportunity for bringing them from outside the area, and the ways in which promotion of such activities may play a part in preventing the outflow of professional persons, it would appear that this is one of the subjects to which some degree of priority should be given. Unesco's Regional Centre for Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (CRESALC) would seem to have an active role to play in this context.

See, on this point, the section on 'La acción sobre los factores intervinientes', in the article entitled 'Exodo de personal calificado' published in the <u>Cuadernos del CELADE</u> (Santiago de Chile), No. 2, 1979.

ANNEX A

International Centre for Development Statistical questionnaire

Please return the reply to this questionnaire to the International Centre for Development by 15 April 1981 at the latest

A. Statistical information requested from States Parties to the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean

Please provide the following statistical information (or indicate publications likely to contain such information) on an annual, quinquennial or decennial basis, as continuously as possible, for the last twenty-five years (thirty, in the case of decennial information):

1. Population of the country.

2. Number of foreign residents.

3. Number of foreigners of the following nationalities (or persons originally from these countries or whose last domicile was in the countries, according to the criterion used for census purposes).

Brazil Chile Colombia Cuba Ecuador El Salvador Holy See Mexico Netherlands (and Netherlands Antilles) Panama Venezuela

4. Distribution of the population by professions which require university or other higher studies, in particular:

- physicians
- dental surgeons

- engineers
- architects
- lawyers
- physicists
- mathematicians
- economists
- sociolists and other social scientists
- psychologists

and other professions for which specific statistics are available.

5. Same distribution, by professions, for the foreign-born population (totals).

6. Same distribution, by professions, for the population from each of the countries listed in 3.

7. Number of foreigners of the nationalities listed or other persons from these countries, who entered the country as residents each year, over the last twenty-five years, broken down by profession where the relevant information is available. If information as detailed as requested is not available or if the series lacks the desired degree of continuity, it would be appreciated if you could send incomplete or more general information, since it may be useful in studying the trends over a relatively long period in the number of professional persons of foreign nationality or origin who have practised or are practising in the country and in comparing them with the population of national origin.

We are aware that the task of compiling all this statistical information is tedious and time consuming but we should be very grateful for any assistance you can provide along the lines requested so that we can prepare our report on the basis of official information without having to rely merely on estimates which may be questionable value.

ANNEX B

International Centre for Development Questionnaire on measures adopted in connection with the recognition of studies by the States Parties to the Convention

Please return the reply to this questionnaire to the International Centre for Development by 15 April 1981 at the latest

Information on the recognition of studies and other measures, requested from the States Parties to the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean

Please answer the following questionnaire in the greatest possible detail:

1. Does the country recognize diplomas and degrees (or other certificates) in higher education obtained in the territory of another State Party to the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education (Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, El Salvador, the Holy See, Mexico, the Netherlands including the Netherlands Antilles - Panama and Venezuela) which are awarded at the end of a complete state of study in higher education? On what conditions? Please state whether the same criterion is applied for all the countries in question, or whether there are exceptions for certain university courses (medicine, law, etc.).

2. Does such recognition automatically give admission to the practice of a profession or to teaching posts? If not, please state the exceptions and the other requirements with which the persons concerned must comply in order to gain admission to the practice of a profession or to a teaching post.

3. Do the same criteria apply to citizens of States Parties to the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education who have obtained higher education diplomas and degrees in third countries, in cases where these qualifications have been recognized in their own country? 4. How many cases of recognition of diplomas or degrees in higher education obtained in the territory of another State Party to the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education (or in an institution under the authority of one of the Contracting States) have been recorded in recent years? Please provide information on an annual basis for as many years as possible, broken down according to:

- (i) nature of the diploma or degree,
- (ii) country in which it was awarded.

5. Has the country adopted measures aimed at facilitating the re-integration of nationals who hold diplomas or degrees in higher education and who have been residing or studying abroad? If so, please state the measures in question (whether automatic recognition of studies, admission to the practice of a profession, tax exemptions, recognition of length of service and other measures connected with social security provisions such as superannuation, pension, retirement, etc.). To what extent have such provisions been implemented? (If possible, please provide statistics or indicate from what source such information might be obtained.)

6. Have such measures or other measures been adopted with the aim of promoting the entry of foreigners who have pursued studies in higher education or who hold diplomas or degrees in 'higher education? If so, please indicate whether iny of these measures apply specifically to nationals of a particular country or group of countries (neighbouring countries, countries in another continent, parties to a subregional agreement, etc.).

Reply from the Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior (ICFES) to the questionnaire on measures adopted in connection with the recognition of studies by the States Parties to the Convention

1. Colombia validates and recognizes the higher education degrees and diplomas obtained in any of the States that have ratified the regional Convention - Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Ecuador, El Salvador, the Holy See, Mexico, Panama, the Netherlands and Venezuela.

1.1 <u>Requirements</u>. The person concerned must submit to the Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior - ICFES - a written application accompanied by the diploma, degree or certificate duly authenticated by the competent authority that supervises or regulates the educational activity of the awarding institution, by the Colombian Consulate in the country in question and by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Colombia.

He must also submit the course certificate issued by the educational institution in which he studied, recording the theoretical and practical subjects studied, the qualifications obtained and the system of assessment. This certificate must be authenticated in the same way as the diploma or degree. In the case of a medical qualification, the <u>Acta de Grado</u> (grading certificate) should also be attached, if the university issues one.

The qualification is recognized by means of a judgement, together with a full statement of reasons, issued by the Directors of ICFES, in which reference is made to the undertaking given by the Contracting States in Article 5 of the Regional Convention to secure recognition of degrees, diplomas, and qualifications in higher education conferred by the competent authorities of another Contracting State, for the purpose of practising a profession.

In the case of qualifications awarded in Brazil, for example, reference is made, in the judgement on recognition, to the cultural Exchange Agreement approved by Colombia in Law 64 of 1973, the instruments of ratification of which were exchanged in Brasilia on 30 August 1974 and Article IX of which provides that: 'The diplomas and degrees legally awarded for the practice of liberal professions by official or officially recognized institutes of one of the High Contracting Parties to citizens of the other shall be wholly valid in the country of origin of the person concerned, subject to the absolute necessity for authentication of such documents'. Furthermore, reference is made to the undertaking given in the Regional Convention.

In the case of qualifications awarded in Cuba, the Regional Convention is applied on the same basis as for qualifications awarded in El Salvador. Mexico, Panama, the Netherlands and the Holy See.

With regard to qualifications awarded in Chile, besides the undertaking given in the Regional Convention, Colombia applies Law 60 of 1921 which approves the Convention on the Practice of Liberal Professions, signed in Santiago, Chile, on 28 June 1921 which provides, in Article 1 thereof, that 'Colombians in Chile and Chileans in Colombia may freely practise the profession which they are qualified to practise by virtue if a diploma or degree, legally awarded by a competent national authority'.

With regard to Ecuador various conventions are in force. There is the Convention on the Free Practice of Liberal Professions signed in Lima on 3 May 1895 and approved in Colombia under Law 49 of 1898 in which it is established that 'lawyers, physicians, surgeons, engineers, surveyors and, in general, all persons who hold a professional qualification awarded by the courts, universities and other learned bodies of Colombia shall be permitted to practise their profession freely in the territory of the Republic of Ecuador and conversely those persons who have obtained such qualifications in Ecuador may secure their recognition in Colombia without complying with any requirement other than that of proving the authenticity of their document and their identity'.

There is also the Agreement on Academic Qualifications signed in Caracas on 17 July 1911 by the plenipotentiaries of the Governments of Ecuador, Bolivia, Peru, Colombia and Venezuela at the First Bolivarian Congress. Under this agreement, degrees and diplomas relating to the practice of the liberal professions will be recognized and will qualify the holders to practise in the other States, although the persons concerned must, if necessary, take an examination in one or more additional subjects required by the country in which the qualification is to be recognized.

In the case of Venezuela, the Agreement on Academic Qualifications, signed in Caracas on 17 July 1911 at the First Bolivarian Congress, is applied upon terms of diplomatic reciprocity.

1.2 Professional qualifications recognized upon compliance with special requirements.

<u>Medicine</u>: qualifications must correspond to the traditional academic curricula in medicine and surgery. The law on professions provides that only persons who have qualified as physicians or surgeons or obtained an equivalent title may practise medicine in Colombia. In the case of qualifications awarded abroad with a different name that relate merely to the practice of a specific branch of medicine without covering general studies in medicine and surgery, the holders may not practise in Colombia notwithstanding any international treaties or conventions. The law on professions does not permit it, nor does the Ministry of Public Health issue a licence with respect to such qualifications. Furthermore, the professional classification of medicine in the country does not accord them a special status or assign them an official field of professional practice. Doctors must be physicians or surgeons and, if they so wish, may continue in Colombia their specialized academic studies in a given field of medicine.

Foreign physicians and surgeons accepted in Colombia with qualifications awarded in countries with which Colombia has not entered into reciprocal agreements concerning academic qualifications must take a competence test at one of the Medical Schools of the country before ICFES can recognize their qualifications. The same applies to Colombians who obtain their professional title of physician and surgeon abroad in universities whose curricula are not of a recognized academic standard.

Subsequent to recognition, in accordance with the regulations in force, all Colombian or foreign physicians holding qualifications awarded in countries with which Colombia has entered into international conventions or treaties or in other countries have to complete one year's rural service before the Ministry of Public Health grants them a licence to practise medicine in Colombia.

<u>Nursing</u>: in view of the changes that have occurred in the nursing course over the years and the diversity of nursing qualifications that have been awarded by the different foreign institutions, Colombia makes its own assessment of all qualifications submitted for recognition, undertaking to accord them the appropriate academic status and the corresponding field of professional practice.

Law: as this is a field where professional practice requires clear and precise knowledge of the laws and procedures of the country, all persons wishing to secure recognition of their qualification with a view to practising law in Colombia must first obtain validation of those subjects relating to the relevant areas of knowledge before ICFES recognizes their qualifications.

<u>Geology</u>: persons holding the professional title of 'geologist' or equivalent qualifications, awarded by institutions of higher education in countries with which Colombia has entered into treaties or conventions on the equivalence of qualifications or in other countries, must pass an examination on the 'Geology of Colombia' at a Colombian university before ICFES issues the judgement on recognition with respect to their professional qualification.

Engineering and Architecture: Law 64 of 1978 regulates the practice of the engineering, architectural and auxiliary professions and establishes that persons who hold the appropriate qualification awarded by foreign universities, schools or institutions in countries with which

Colombia has entered into treaties on the mutual recognition of qualifications may be registered as engineers or architects in any of the specializations corresponding to such professions. Those persons who have complied with the legal requirements concerning validation and have secured the recognition of their qualifications may also be registered. For the purposes of such recognition, the law on professions refers to the National Classification of Occupations, adopted by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, in which groups and subgroups are described according to the engineering and architectural specializations, and the National Professional Council effects the corresponding registration on the basis of these groups and subgroups.

Courses of study not available in Colombia

When the programme of studies completed abroad is not available in the country, ICFES may recognize the qualification submitted by the person concerned after establishing that the awarding institution and the programme of studies offered are of a recognized academic standard. Such cases involve recognition and not equivalence, since no course is available and there is no law regulating the profession in question in the country.

2. Practice of the profession

In Colombia, the practice of some professions has been regulated through the following laws:

dowing taws.
Law 145 of 1960
Law 20 of 1971
Decree 523 of 1976
Law 18 of 1976
Law 53 of 1975
Law 10 of 1962
Law 41 of 1969
Law 24 of 1976
Law 64 of 1978
Law 9 of 1974
Law 51 of 1975
Law 62 of 1928
Law 11 of 1979
Law 14 of 1962
(Regulatory Decree
605 of 1963)
Law 44 of 1971
(Decree 2184 of
1976) Law 87 of
1946
Law 73 of 1979
Degree 825 of
23 March 1974
Law 23 of 1962
Law 47 of 1967
Law 9 of 1976
Law of 1977

In most of these laws on the professions, it is established that the National Professional Councils or the corresponding ministries should issue the professional licence, registration certificate or card authorizing the practice of the profession in Colombia after the qualification has been recognized by the corresponding State body, which is currently ICFES.

2.1 The practice of the teaching profession in secondary education establishments is covered by Decree 2777/1979 relating to the Official List of Teachers. For the purpose of assimilation and promotion within the framework of this official list, it is necessary to secure the recognition of the professional qualification awarded abroad and the subsequent registration with the Ministry of Education or Departmental or District Education Authority.

2. 2 For the practice of the teaching profession in universities and institutions of higher education, Article 92 of Extraordinary Decree 80 of 1980 provides that: 'The minimum requirement for admission to the teaching profession is the possession of a degree in the appropriate field...' Institutions must issue their own statutes or regulations for teaching personnel, according to the procedure established in Article 120 of the same Decree and must determine in these statutes in what cases the foreign degree is to be recognized. Consequently, each institution is free to decide on such matters as it sees fit.

3. <u>Citizens of States Parties to the</u> <u>Convention holding qualifications</u> <u>obtained in third countries</u>

Colombia applies the Convention to persons holding qualifications obtained in States Parties to the Convention. The criterion is the academic recognition of qualifications by the awarding country bound by the Convention and not the nationality of the persons concerned.

If the qualification has already been recognized in the country of the person concerned, it must be revalidated in Colombia, according to the appropriate procedures. If Colombia has signed a convention on the recognition of higher education qualifications with the awarding third country, the provisions of such a convention will apply.

4. Cases of recognition

Between February 1980 and March 1981, which was the period in which the Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior (ICFES) had exclusive authority to recognize higher education qualifications, the following qualifications of States Parties to the Convention were recognized.

HIGHER EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS, BY FIELDS OF KNOWLEDGE, AWARDED IN COUNTRIES THAT HAVE RATIFIED THE REGIONAL CONVENTION FOR LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN, WHICH WERE RECOGNIZED BY ICFES BETWEEN FEBRUARY 1980 AND MARCH 1981

	BRAZIL	СНП.Е	CUBA	ECUADOR	EL SALVADOR	HOLY SEE	MEXICO	NE THERLANDS	PANAMA	VENEZUELA	TOTAL
Agronomy, veterinary medicine and related fields	1		1		3	1					6
Economics, adminis- tration, accountancy and related fields	1					1					2
Education sciences			3		1	2	1				7
Engineering, architecture, town planning and related fields	1		1		1	2				1	6
Fine arts											
Health sciences	2	6	3		80	14					105
Humanities and religious sciences							1		13		14
Law and political science			1	1	1						3
Mathematics and natural sciences						1	1				2
TOTAL	5	6	9	1	86	20	4		13	1	145

ANNEX D

Requirements for admission to the practice of medicine and veterinary medicine to be met in States Parties to the Convention by foreigners and nationals who graduated abroad

Medicine (1979)

Brazil

Brazilians who have graduated abroad and foreign doctors who wish to practise in Brazil must have their medical studies validated through examinations at an official university. The licence to practise is obtained through one of the regional medical councils, upon presentation of the respective diploma.

<u>Chile</u>

Chilean nationals and foreigners who hold a foreign medical degree must spend a year as interns and pass the same final examinations as are compulsory for Chilean students before being authorized to practise in the country.

Colombia

Colombian nations with foreign diplomas obtained in schools of medicine in countries with which Colombia has reciprocal agreements or conventions concerning the recognition of university degrees may practise after completing a period of work in the public health service (one or two years as necessary), as required from national or foreign graduates holding Colombian qualifications.

Colombian nationals with foreign diplomas obtained in countries with which Colombia has no such reciprocal agreements may be accepted in the public health service if the Colombian Association of Medical Faculties considers the medical school in which the diploma was obtained to be of good standing. Otherwise, the persons concerned must pass the appropriate final examinations that are compulsory for those graduating in Colombian universities and must work for the required period in the public health service.

On the other hand, foreigners holding diplomas obtained in foreign medical schools recognized by the Colombian Association of Medical Faculties must pass the final examinations and complete the required period of work in the public health service.

Cuba

In order to practise medicine in Cuba, it is necessary to obtain a licence and to be admitted to the roll of the National Register of Health Workers (Registro Nacional de Profesionales de Salud).

Ecuador

Both nationals of Ecuador and foreigners who hold foreign medical qualifications must have their diplomas validated and, like persons holding Ecuadorian qualifications, must work for one year in the rural medical service before being authorized to practise.

El Salvador

Nationals of El Salvador who hold a foreign medical qualification must have their degree recognized by the Higher University Council, after having presented a favourable recommendation from the medical school in which they qualified and after having spent one year in a hospital and one year in a social service (only the latter requirement applies to medical practioners who have graduated in El Salvador).

Foreigners who hold a foreign medical degree or who have qualified in El Salvador are authorized to practise if they comply with the immigration regulations and with the above-mentioned requirements.

Mexico

Nationals of Mexico and foreigners who have graduated in Mexico must present their diploma, certificate of internship and attestation of social service before they can be registered with one Ministry of Health and Social Welfare.

Nationals and foreigners who hold foreign medical degrees must have their qualifications recognized at an accredited Mexican medical school.

Netherlands

Holders of the <u>Arts</u> diploma are registered with the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health, which issues the licence to practise.

Foreigners who have qualified in the Netherlands are freely admitted to professional practice. Netherlands nationals and foreigners who, by means of examination, have acquired full rights to practise medicine in another country may, under certain conditions, obtain an authorization to practise in the Netherlands from the Ministry of Social Affairs and Public Health. Such authorization may be revoked at any time.

Panama

The licence to practise medicine is issued by the Technical Council of the Ministry of Health and is granted to Panamanian nationals only.

Venezuela

Foreigners who have obtained their degree in Venezuela may practise immediately after graduating. Both nationals of Venezuela and foreigners who hold foreign medical qualifications must have their degree validated in order to be able to practise in the country. The number of examinations they are required to pass in order to obtain the validation varies according to the country in which the degree was awarded.

Veterinary medicine (1971)

Brazil

Holders of foreign veterinary qualifications, whether nationals or foreigners, must have their degree or diploma validated by means of an examination in clinical medicine, surgery, zoo-technics hygiene, communicable and parasitic diseases, inspection of food products of animal origin, therapeutics and obstretrics.

Chile

Persons with foreign veterinary qualifications who wish to practise veterinary medicine in Chile must present a duly authenticated diploma or certificate and a short thesis. In addition, they must pass an examination in the Spanish language held by the Faculty of Philosophy and Education on the history and geography of Chile, and comply with the conditions laid down by the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine with regard to clinical practice and the validation of their degree or diploma.

Colombia

Nationals and foreigners with foreign veterinary qualifications must have their degree validated by the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine and Zootechnics of the National University.

<u>Cuba</u>

Nationals and foreigners with foreign veterinary qualifications are authorized to practise in Cuba. Membership of the professional association (Colegio de Ciencias Veterinarias) is obligatory.

Mexico

Persons with foreign veterinary qualifications wishing to practise in Mexico must have their degree or diploma validated by one of the Mexican universities. If they are foreigners they must also comply with the requirements regarding immigration and residence. Foreigners who have qualified in Mexico must be registered and possess a residence permit before being authorized to practise.

Netherlands

The licence to practise veterinary medicine in the Netherlands is granted only to those who hold the degree of <u>Dierenarts</u> conferred by the Veterinary Faculty of Utrecht, and who are registered with a local veterinary inspector.

Persons with foreign veterinary degrees may be admitted to practise in the Netherlands provided they have attained the standard of the Utrecht graduates or have had special permission granted to them personally by Royal Decree on the recommendation of the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine and in accordance with the relevant legal provisions.

Ecuador

Holders of foreign veterinary qualifications who wish to practise veterinary medicine in Ecuador must, in most cases, have their degree validated by means of examinations. If the applicant for the licence to practise is a citizen of a country with which Ecuador maintains cultural relations, he is required to pass examinations only in those subjects included in the curriculum of the schools of veterinary medicine in Ecuador that do not figure in the curriculum of the schools of veterinary medicine in Ecuador that do not figure in the curriculum of the school in which the applicant obtained his degree.

Venezuela

Holders of foreign veterinary qualifications, whether nationals or foreigners, must have their degree or diploma validated by one of the universities in Venezuela.

<u>Sources</u>: World Health Organization (WHO). For the medical profession: <u>World Directory</u> <u>of Medical Schools</u>, 5th Edition, Geneva 1979; for the veterinary profession: <u>World Directory of Veterinary Schools</u>, 1971, Geneva, 1973.

ANNEX E

Reply from the Integration and Validation Department of the Ministry of Education of Mexico to the ICD questionnaires

Such is the importance of the information contained in the reply from the Integration and Validation Department of the Ministry of Education in Mexico to the questionnaire set out in Annexes A and B that the reply is given in full in this Annex.

As this information only reached the International Centre for Development after the completion of this study, it could not be used in its preparation. 1. Population of the country.

- This information can be provided by: the Department of Programming and the Budget.
- 2. Number of foreign residents This information may be obtained from the Department of Internal Affairs.
- 3. Number of foreigners of the following nationalities (or persons originally from these countries or whose last domicile was in these countries, according to the criterion used for census purposes). This information may be obtained from the Department of Internal affairs.
- 4. DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION BY PROFESSIONS WHICH REQUIRE A UNIVERSITY EDUCATION OR ANOTHER FORM OF HIGHER EDUCATION, IN PARTICULAR

Profession	1960	1970	1980
Physicians	25,914	35,360	47,798
Dental surgeons	3,723	5,080	6,866
Engineers	34,024	47,640	65,977
Architects	5,456	7,640	10, 580
Lawyers	13,726	20, 200	29, 302
Physicists	435	580	766
Mathematicians	570	760	1,004
Economists	2,174	3,200	4, 641
Sociologists and other social scientists	597	880	1,276
Psychologists	675	900	1,189
Teachers and professional educational personnel	187,270	237,060	339, 929
Others	135,543	238,366	393, 251
Total	410,107	733, 209	902,579 (e)

Estimated on the basis of data from the General Directorate of Statistics, Department of Programming and the Budget.

Source: (1) Department of Industry and Trade. Population censuses

(2) Department of Education. General Directorate of Professional Manpower

- 5. Same distribution by professions for the foreign-born populations (totals). Annexed table 1.
- 6. Same distribution by professions for the population from the countries stated in 3. Annexed tables 2-10.
- 7. Number of foreigners of the nationalities listed or persons from these countries who entered the country as residents each year over the last twenty-five years, broken down by profession where the relevant information. is available.

In regard to this point, the requested information may be obtained from the Department of Internal Affairs.

8. How many cases of recognition of diplomas or degrees in higher education obtained in the territory of another State Party to the Regional Convention on Recognition (or in an institution under the authority of one of the Contracting States) have been recorded in recent years? Please provide information, on an annual basis, for as many years as possible broken down according to:

(i) nature of the diploma or degree,

(ii) the country in which it was awarded.

This question is answered by means of Table 1. With regard to question (i), 90 per cent of the degrees and diplomas recognized were <u>licenciaturas</u>¹ and 10 per cent were technical qualifications, masters degrees and doctroates.

1. <u>Translator's note</u>: Equivalent to B. A. or B. Sc. in British and North American universities.

UNITED MEXICAN STATES RECOGNITION OF FOREIGN QUALIFICATIONS REGISTERED WITH THE GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION* (1960-1980)

PROFESSION	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1 980	Total
Physician-surgeon	19	12	14	25	12	17	31	33	37	41	36	31	65	18	17	20	34	27	24	14	21	548
Lawyer	3	1	1	2	(2	1	4	3		1	2		1		2		1	7	_	3	34
Chemical engineer	2		3	3	2	1	5	1	2	3	2	1	4		1	-	1	<u> </u>	1	7		38
Civil engineer	1		1	2	2	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	{	2	1	2	ł	7	4	4	7	44
Agronomist	2					Ì			1		1	1					1					5
Geologist	1						1				1						ļ					3
Topographer and geodesist		1									1	Į				1	Ì	ļ				2
Marine engineer		1		1	1																	1
Electromechanical engineer			1			[1	4	5	2	3	2	1	2	1	2	1		3		6	33 1
Engineer-manager								1			1	1									ł	
Hydrographic surveyor				l					1		l					i 1				l	[
Aircraft engineer											1	1					1				1	2
Petroleum engineer									_		_	1	1		•		ł	7	7	4	7	80
Dentist (odontologist)	5	3		7	2	5		3	3	4	5	2	3	1	9	3		'	1	4	4	24
Economist		1				1	2	2	2				4	1			2	!	6	43	–	12
Chartered accountant	1				{													1	1	1	5	9
Actuary						l				1			1		4		2		3	5	5	35
Architect	1	1	2	2	1		1	1		1	4		3	1	1		4	ł	5	5	{	2
Diplomatic specialist		1		1												2	4	1	5	11	12	70
Veterinarian and zootechnician	3	1	1	3	5	4	7	3	1		2		4	1	9		([±]	ł		* *		39
Nurse			1		1	2	4	6				}	6	1	9	2 ²	ł				1	1
Physicist			1												1			1			1	14
Primary school teacher	1	1	1		1		4		2	1	1				2		3		4	3	3	21
Biologist				1		1		2		1			1		4		3		т	, U		2
Optometrist		[I		l	Į 1							{				}	۱ '	1		})	
Electrical engineer				1														1		1		2
Mathematician									1	10						[(35
Nursing officer (male)		1	1	1					5	10	3	8					1			2		6
Social worker										2			1			ļ				1		1
Textile engineer				1			1				1		2			[2
Mining and metallurgical engineer				1						ľ			4							1	4	12
Chemist	1			3	2	1					1	2				1	} ')			1	1
Metallurgical chemist						1												l		l		
Psychologist	.	[\		1				1					{ · · ·		{		1		
Arts graduate					j				1							1 :		ĺ				-

(Table 1 - cont.)

PROFESSION	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1 980	Total
Communications and Electronics engineer Pharmacobiological chemist Chemico-industrial engineer Industrial chemist											1	1	2	1		3						1 1 2 4
Subtotal (states parties to the Convention) Other countries	39 106	23 104	27 88	52 68	28 66	36 76	61 110	62 113	66 156	67 121	66 154	53 102	99 190	29 190	42 202	37 217	47 217	51 223	65 220	58 237	84 221	1.092 3.181
TOTAL	145	127	115	120	94	112	171	175	222	188	220	155	289	219	244	254	264	274	285	295	305	4.273

Foreign professional persons not covered by these tables may be found in the following cases:

(a) When the practice of their profession does not require a Professional Registration Card which serves as a licence to practise, under Article 2 (provisional) of the relevant law.

(b) If they were registered with the Federal Agencies of the country prior to 1974, when the co-ordination agreements for the standardization of professional registration were entered into.

* Includes recognized qualifications of foreign-born naturalized Mexicans.

Source: Department of Education General Directorate of Professional Manpower. Compiled by Professional Manpower Planning Service.

UNITED MEXICAN STATES REGISTRATION OF QUALIFICATIONS OF COLOMBIAN CITIZENS. QUALIFICATIONS RECOGNIZED BY THE GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER* (1960-1980)

PROFESSION	1960	1961	1 962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1 980	Total
Physician-surgeon	8	4	5	4	3	4	6	11	9	14	12	7	12	3	6	2	6	9	7	4	7	143
Dentist (odontologist)	1				1	1		1	1						3			3		2		13
Geologist	1																					1
Lawyer		1			ļ				1									1	1		1	5
Chemical engineer			1								1			1						3	2	8
Architect			ļ		1		1															2
Optometrist							1															1
Veterinarian zootechnician					ŀ				1							2	2		2	3	2	12
Biologist					ľ				1							2					2	5
Electromechanical engineer										1	1				1		3					6
Civil engineer									Ì	1					1			1	1	3	4	11
Petroleum engineer											1	1										2
Economist																1				3	3	7
TOTAL	10	5	6	4	5	5	8	12	13	16	15	8	12	4	11	7	11	14	11	18	21	216

* Foreign professional persons not covered by these tables may be found in the following cases:

(a) When the practice of their profession does not require a Professional Registration Card which serves as a licence to practise, under Article 2 (provisional) of the relevant Law.

(b) If they were registered with the Federal Agencies of the country prior to 1974, when the co-ordination agreements for the standardization of professional registration were entered into.

Source: Department of Education

General Directorate of Professional Manpower

Complied by Professional Manpower Planning Service.

UNITED MEXICAN STATES REGISTRATION OF QUALIFICATIONS OF CUBAN CITIZENS, QUALIFICATIONS BY PROFESSION, RECOGNIZED BY THE GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER* (1960-1980)

PROFESSION	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	Total
Physician-surgeon			1	2	1	2	2			1		3		1		2		1		1		17
Electromechanical engineer			1		İ	ļ		2	2	1		1							2			9
Dentist (odontologist)	1			1	}	1													2			5
Veterinarian and zootechnician		}			1																1	2
Economist							1					1										1
Architect								1		1	1										1	4
Chemical engineer									1		1		1						2			5
Civil engineer																		1		l	l	1
Biologist																			1		1	2
Actuary		ļ]]											1			1
Primary school teacher	1		1				1				1							1				5
TOTAL	2		3	3	2	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	1	1		2		3	8	1	3	52

* Foreign professional persons not covered by these tables may be found in the following cases:

(a) When the practice of their profession does not require a Professional Registration Card which serves as a licence to practise, under Article 2 (provisional) of the relevant Law.

(b) If they were registered with the Federal Agencies of the country prior to 1974, when the co-ordination agreements for the standardization of professional registration were entered into.

Source: Department of Education

UNITED MEXICAN STATES REGISTRATION OF QUALIFICATIONS OF CHILEAN CITIZENS, BY PROFESSION, RECOGNIZED BY THE GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER* (1960-1980)

PROFESSION	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	Total
Dentist (odontologist)				:	1																	1
Primary school teacher							1															1
Physician-surgeon								1				1								1		3
Architect																	2					2
TOTAL					1		1	1				1	·				2			1		7

- * Foreign professional persons persons not covered by these tables may be found in the following cases:
 - (a) When the practice of their profession does not require a Professional Registration Card which serves as a licence to practise, under Article 2 (provisional) of the relevant Law.
 - (b) If they were registered with the Federal Agencies of the country prior to 1974, when the co-ordination agreements for the standardization of professional registration were entered into.

Source: Department of Education

UNITED MEXICAN STATES REGISTRATION OF QUALIFICATIONS OF SALVADORIAN CITIZENS, BY PROFESSION, RECOGNIZED BY THE GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER* (1960-1980)

PROFESSION	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	Total
Physician-surgeon	2	5	4	8	1	2	7	6	10	12	11	5	19	7	5	6	7	9	5		4	135
Lawyer	1		1	2	ł	2	1	4	2			2		1				3	-		-	19
Pharmaceutical chemist	2			1					•		1		ł	1	1			[1	7
Dentist (odontologist)	2	2	1	4		1		1	1	2				1		3]	4		2	2	25
Civil engineer	1				1	l	1	2		1	5	1		1		2			1			16
Veterinarian and zootechnician	1	{	1	1		1	1		1				1				}	}	2		3	10
Agronomist	1	ţ		•]]						t	1				ł					2
Primary school teacher		2			1		1		2	1		ſ	i i	1			1	1				9
Architect		ł	1	1	1		ļ			2		j .					1			3		7
Diplomatic specialist				1									1]. '		[[[1
Economist		ł			1	1	1	1				1	1	1]		1	9	1			3
Electromechanical engineer							1		1	l	1		1	ļ '	1		ļ	1				3
Topographer and geodesist	ĺ	1			ĺ	í	1				1	{	1	į i			1					1
Chartered accountant							1		1		1				1		Į –					1
Nurse							¶ '						1		2	1	1				1	4
Social worker																	}			2		2
TOTAL	10	9	7	18	3	7	11	14	16	18	20	8	20	12	8	12	8	17	9	7	11	245

* Foreign professional persons not covered by these tables may be found in the following cases:

(a) When the practice of their profession does not require a Professional Registration Card which serves as a licence to practise, under Article 2 (provisional) of the relevant Law.

(b) If they were registered with the Federal Agencies of the country prior to 1974, when the co-ordination agreements for the standardization of professional registration were entered into.

Source: Department of Education

UNITED MEXICAN STATES REGISTRATION OF QUALIFICATIONS OF ECUADORIAN CITIZENS. BY PROFESSION, RECOGNIZED BY THE GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER* (1960-1980)

PROFESSION	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1 97 9	1980	Total
Agronomist	1																					1
Architect	1	1							1										1			3
Physician-surgeon		2										1	2									5
Civil engineer			1																			1
Nurse										1												1
Actuary										1			1			ĺ		1				2
Economist													1				1				;	2
Dentist													1									1
Petroleum engineer													1								:	1
TOTAL	2	2	1						1	2		1	6				1		1			17

* Foreign professional persons not covered by these tables may be found in the following cases:

(a) When the practice of their profession does not require a Professional Registration Card which serves as a licence to practise, under Article 2
 (b) The relevant Law.

(b) If they were registered with the Federal Agencies of the country prior to 1974, when the co-ordination agreements for the standardization of professional registration were entered into.

Source: Department of Education

UNITED MEXICAN STATES REGISTRATION OF QUALIFICATIONS OF PANAMANIAN CITIZENS, BY PROFESSION, RECOGNIZED BY THE GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER* (1960-1980)

PROFESSION	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	Total
Physician-surgeon	1	3	4	4	3	3	8	10	17	12	11	15	27	7		8	10	7	8	4	7	169
Lawyer	1		[_	1								2	-	2	6
Economist	{ .	1	}										1						_		1	3
Dentist		1	·	1		2	ł	1	1	1		1	2		2							12
Veterinarian and zootechnician		1)	1	3	3	5	1			1		4	1			2		3	6	5	36
Architect		1					1							1						2	, T.,	4
Nurse	1		1	1	1	2	4	6	5	9	3	7	6	1	7	1		6			6	66
Civil engineer	{	{	1		1	}	ł		2					1				}	1		3	9
Biologist			ł	1		1							1					4	3	3		13
Marine engineer		ł		1]	ł											_	-		
Chemical engineer							2	1				1	4	1		-	1		1	2	1	14
Electromechanical engineer						1	1		1	1				1		2	_			-		8
Agronomist	1	[ĺ			1	í –		1		1							ł			-	2
Social worker						}				2			1	ł			1					4
Chartered accountant		ł				1	1	1				1		1					4	3		9
Aircraft engineer						ł	}					1							_	-		1
Mining and metallurgical engineer						1	 (1									1
TOTAL	2	7	6	9	8	11	20	19	27	25	17	26	47	14	9	11	14	17	22	20	27	358

* Foreign professional persons not covered by these tables may be found in the following cases:

(a) When the practice of their profession does not require a Professional Registration Card which serves as a licence to practise, under Article 2 (provisional) of the relevant Law.

(b) If they were registered with the Federal Agencies of the country prior to 1974, when the co-ordination agreements for the standardization of professional registration were entered into.

Source: Department of Education

UNITED MEXICAN STATES REGISTRATION OF QUALIFICATIONS OF NETHERLANDS CITIZENS, BY PROFESSION, RECOGNIZED BY THE GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER* (1960-1980)

PROFESSION	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	Total
Physician-surgeon Geologist Textile engineer											1 1 1											1 1 1
TOTAL											3											3

- * Foreign professional person not covered by these tables may be found in the following cases:
 - (a) When the practice of their profession does not require a Professional Registration Card which serves as a licence to practise, under Article 2 (provisional) of the relevant Law.
 - (b) If they were registered with the Federal Agencies of the country prior to 1974, when the co-ordination agreements for the standardization of professional registration were entered into.

Source: Department of Education

General Directorate of Professional Manpower

Compiled by Professional Manpower Planning Service.

UNITED MEXICAN STATES REGISTRATION OF QUALIFICATIONS OF BELGIAN CITIZENS, BY PROFESSION, RECOGNIZED BY THE GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER* (1960-1980)

PROFESSION	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	Total
Physician-surgeon Chemical engineer	1	1													1							2 1
TOTAL	1	1													1							3

- * Foreign professional persons not covered by these tables may be found in the following cases:
 - (a) When the practice of their profession does not require a Professional Registration Card which serves as a licence to practise, under Article 2 (provisional) of the relevant Law.
 - (b) If they were registered with the Federal Agencies of the country prior to 1974, when the co-ordination agreements for the standardization of of professional registration were entered into.

Source: Department of Education

General Directorate of Professional Manpower

Compiled by Professional Manpower Planning Service.

UNITED MEXICAN STATES REGISTRATION OF QUALIFICATIONS OF VENEZUELAN CITIZENS, BY PROFESSION, RECOGNIZED BY THE GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER* (1960-1980)

PROFESION	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	Total
Physician-surgeon Lawyer Veterinarian and zootechnician Topographer and geodesist Chemical engineer Physicist Civil engineer Architect Biologist Economist Geologist Electromechanical engineer Engineering manager Hydrographic surveyor Mining and metallurgical engineer Chartered accountant Dentist Mathematician Actuary	6 1 1	1	1	2 2 1 1	3	3 3 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 2 1 1	1 1 1	3	1 2 2	2	2	1 1 1	5	4 2 2	8	2	4 1 1	3 2 2	2 1 4 3	53 4 6 1 12 1 6 2 2 6 1 12 1 12 1 12 1 1 1 1 1 10 1 4
TOTAL	8	2	3	6	4	8	3	7	4	5	5	3	5	3	9	8	8	4	8	8	14	125

* Foreign professionals not covered by these tables may be found in the following cases:

(a) When the practice of their profession does not require a Professional Registration Card which serves as a licence to practise, under Article 2 (provisional) of the relevant Law.

(b) If they were registered with the Federal Agencies of the country prior to 1974, when the co-ordination agreements for the standardization of professional registration were entered into.

Source: Department of Education

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