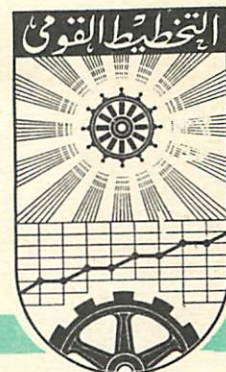


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INTERNATIONAL MARKET OF AFRICAN PROFESSIONAL SKILLS

(A COMPARATIVE STUDY)

Prepared by

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INTRODUCTION

One noteworthy aspect of international migration in the last two decades has been the systematic transfer of some labour force between different countries. Actual movement of professionals is only one aspect of integration into the international market. In order to move, certainly, a professional must be mobile, that is in possession of internationally negotiable qualifications.

The objective of this study is to investigate the trends, patterns and structural characteristics of the migratory movement from the selected African countries (Egypt, Sudan, Morocco, Kenya, Tanzania, Nigeria and Ghana) to developed countries and capital surplus (oil producer) developing countries. In this comparative analysis we discuss the influence of international migration movement on the local labour markets and on the determination of salary levels and remuneration in the countries concerned.

In this study other main interest is to identify the most important factors, which have contributed to the international negotiability (acceptability) of the qualifications of professionals in all of the countries concerned. First, the continued use of metropolitan qualifications by sending students abroad, especially to the United Kingdom, United States, Canada and France. Secondly, the maintenance of high level of local professional standards. Thirdly, the -

affiliation of local professional associations with the relevant international professional bodies. Identifying the role of International and Commonwealth professional associations emphasizes that the existence of such bodies has made it relatively easier to obtain reciprocal recognition for professional qualifications awarded by member countries. Here we discuss the impact of international negotiability of professional qualifications on salaries determination in some of the countries concerned.

Here we do not intend to analyse the economic implications of migration movement on employment, balance of payments, wage and price levels, etc. in the selected African countries (the countries of emigration). This is due to the complexity of such analysis, which requires a detailed investigation of the variables unique to each country case, including many socio-political factors.

From our analysis we notice that the migratory movement is mainly on a temporary basis from the african countries concerned to developed and oil-producing countries to satisfy a large term manpower shortage. The effects of exporting labour on the countries of emigration could be beneficial or detrimental to their economic development depending on the effectiveness of government economic policy in organizing and controlling labour and remittance flows.

SECTION 1: INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION OF PROFESSIONAL SKILLS

One noteworthy aspect of international migration in the last two decades has been the systematic transfer of some labour force between different countries. This migratory movement has taken place among the countries all over the world in general, and from the less-developed to developed ones in particular.

The purpose of this section is to investigate the "push" and "pull" factors of international migration of African professionals, and to describe trends and patterns of that migration in the African countries covered by this study (Egypt , Sudan, Morocco, Kenya, Tanzania, Nigeria and Ghana). A brief description of this comparative analysis is given in Fig.1. Moreover we discuss in this section the influence of international migration movement on the local labour markets and on the determination of salary levels and remuneration (Fig.2).

1.1. The "Push" and "pull" factors of International Migration of African Professional Skills

The "Push" factors, commonly mentioned by the less-developed countries are:¹

- 1) High rate of unemployment and under-employment among skilled manpower;

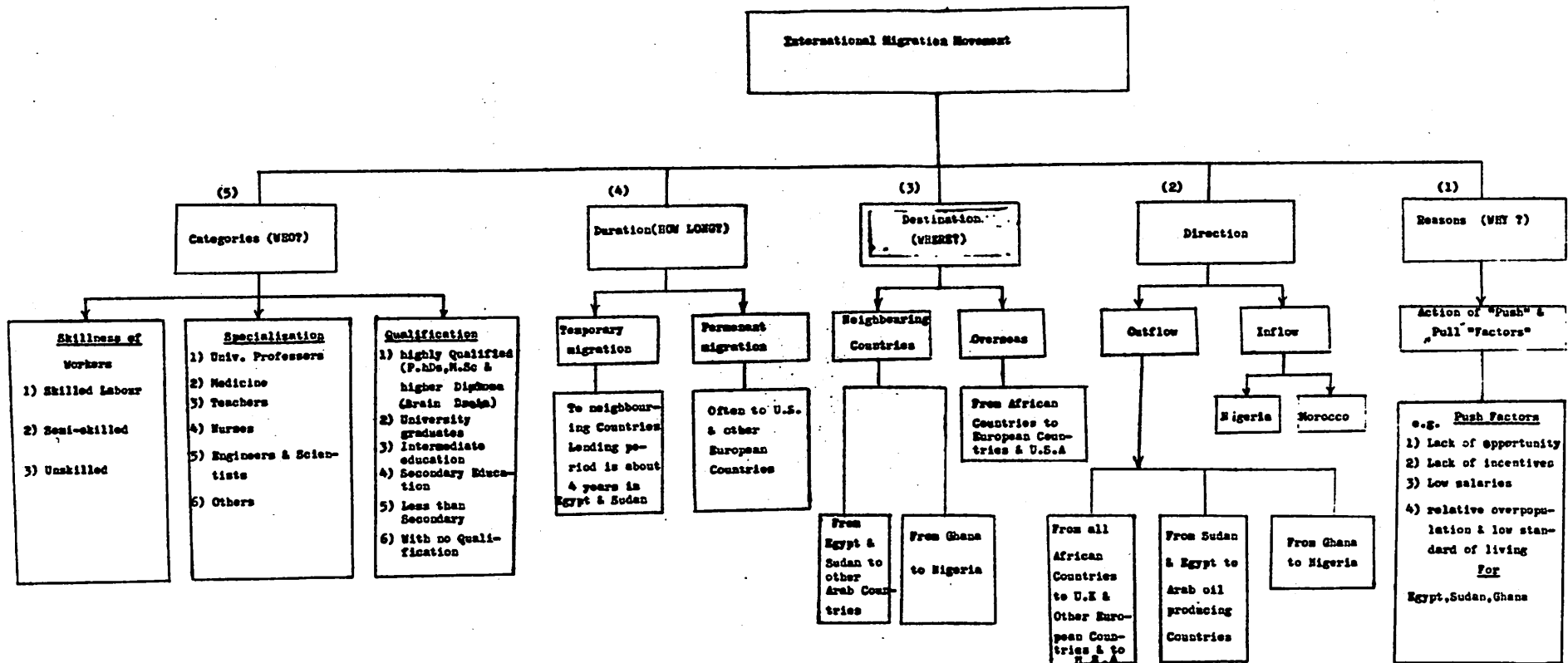


Fig. 1. The nature of International Migration of African Professionals.

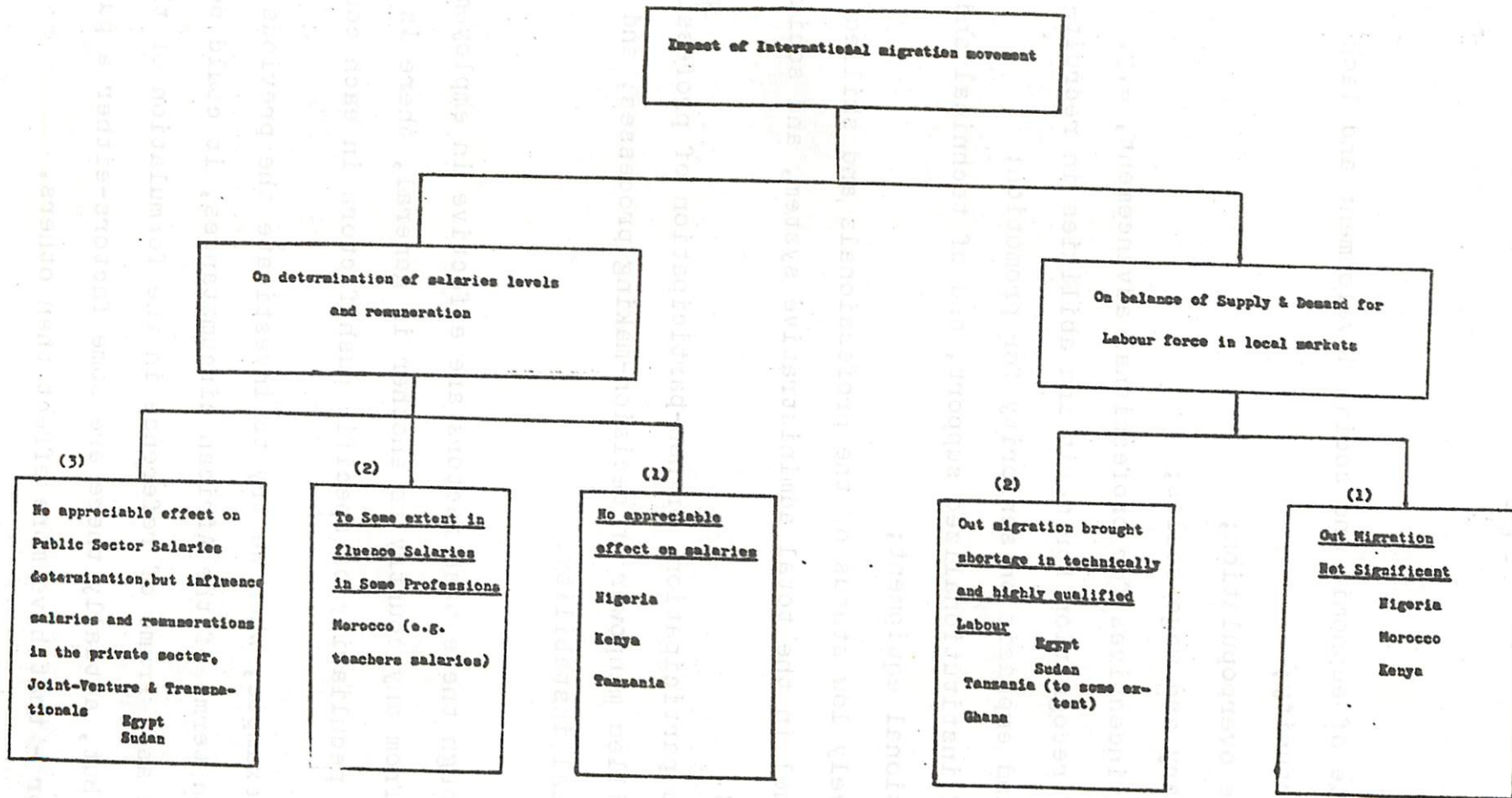


Fig. 2. Impact of International Migration Movement on Local Labour Market

- 2) Slow rate of economic and social development and lack of opportunity;
- 3) Relative overpopulation;
- 4) Low salary and wage scales;
- 5) Lack of incentives for professional advancement, e.g. lack of recognition for merit and abilities in recruitment, and emphasis on seniority for promotion;
- 6) Lack of institutionalized support, and of technical and professional equipment;
- 7) Relatively low status of the professionals and skilled personnel in the total administrative system, and social milieu;
- 8) Limited participation, or non-participation of professional and skilled manpower in decision-making processes; and
- 9) Political instability.

Although these push factors are effective in employment migration from any country to another in general, there is a noticeable peculiarity of specific push factors in each country.

For example, when we try to investigate the previous analysis in terms of the African circumstances, it could be considered as a frame of reference in the formulation of the problem. But, actually there are some factors-either a push, or pull factor - that have more effect than others.

Concerning Egypt and Sudan, it can be said that the fourth and fifth items, "the low salary and wage scale", particularly among highly qualified people, in comparison with similar salaries or wages in the oil-producing Arab countries (the average ratio between them is about 1:10 to 1:15 for Egyptians and about 1:7 for Sudanese civil servants) and "the lack of incentives for professional advancement" have the priorities as push factors of the Egyptian and Sudanese skills to abroad in general, and the highly qualified personnel to the rich Arab countries in particular.

In spite of this importance of the economic push factors, it has not complete sense without taking the pull factors into our consideration,

The main "Pull" factors from developed countries are as follows:

- 1) Shortages of manpower in certain fields in the receiving countries which provide employment opportunities for migrants;
- 2) Higher salaries and standard of living;
- 3) Better opportunities to come into contact with intellectual compass, and the stimulation and appreciation that result therefrom;
- 4) Personal aspirations and career expectations;
- 5) Prestige of foreign training;
- 6) Expectation of use of modern equipment;
- 7) Modern educational system;
- 8) Attraction of the cosmopolitan centres;

- 9) Relative political stability; and
- 10) Cultural and social considerations.

As a matter of fact the countries, as well as the individuals, have very wide disparities in their effect concerning these pull factors according to the internal and external circumstances of each one, and the degree and level of their push factors.

In the African countries concerned (Egypt, Sudan, Morocco, Kenya, Tanzania, Ghana, Nigeria), we can deduce that the former push and pull factors are applicable in the sense of the outflow of migrants to Western European countries and the United States. Meanwhile, it is evident that this list of pull factors is not representative - in all items - of the real pull factors concerning the temporary migration of the highly qualified labour to other neighbouring countries (e.g. the temporary migration movement from Egypt and Sudan to rich Arab countries and such migration from Ghana to Nigeria). The pull factors in such cases are mainly the first two items in the latter list - shortage of manpower in certain fields, and higher salaries.

As long as these two groups of "Push" and "Pull" factors are working together, it can be shown that as far as the efficiency of one of them, the effectiveness of the other will be defined.

In reality, Egyptian and Sudanese civil servants suffer from the very low salaries and wage scales in general, and among those

highly skilled labour in particular as a "push factor" so, the employment opportunities are offered by all Arab countries with uncomparable salaries, especially in rich Arab countries (the comparison ranges between 1:10 to 1:15 for Egyptian and about 1:7 for Sudanese) is standing as a "pull factor".

There is also a significant outflow of professionals from Ghana to Nigeria (oil-producing country). The most important "push" factors for Ghanaian professionals are low salaries, lack of incentives, lack of promotion opportunities and relative over-population and low standard of living.

1.2 Trends and Patterns of African Professional Immigrants to overseas countries and the impact on public sector salaries determination

The first thing to emphasise apart from the extremely poor quality of data in this field is that Africa has always been a relatively minor source of migrant professionals to the main receiving countries in North America and Europe. According to UNCTAD calculations (UNCTAD, 1975) only 31 per cent of such immigrants into the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom in 1961-72 came from developing countries; over half of those from developing countries came from Asia and only 7 per cent from Africa. Table 1 gives a rough indication of the pattern of migration from Africa to these three countries in the 'sixties and early 'seventies.

Table 1: Migration of Professional, technical and related workers from Africa to the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom 1962-72.

	US 1962-72 ^a	Canada 1963-72	UK 1964-72	Total
Scientists and engineers	2334	523	1035	3892
Physicians and Surgeons ^c	912	302 ^b	3845	5059
Teachers	<u>n.a.</u>	<u>501</u>	<u>5296</u>	<u>5797</u>
Total	3245	1326	10176	14748

a. Excluding 1970 b. includes dentists, graduate nurses, medical and dental technicians

c. Doctors, dentists and nurses

Source: ILO (1976)

These estimates are extremely dubious but the picture that they give of the UK as a dominant destination for African professionals is probably accurate. Moreover, they also suggest that, while other parts of the world were more important as sources of migrant professionals the number of migrants may have been large enough at this stage to have made a quite significant difference to the rate of growth of the small stock of professionals in Africa. This point is reinforced by the facts that the loss was unevenly distributed between countries and that aggregated statistics often inadequately represent the impact of the loss of individuals in key positions.

These figures cover the period in which 'brain drain' was at its height and, indeed, tending to rise from year to year. Since -

1973, however, several important changes have occurred which might be expected to have affected the trend and pattern of migration. First, the international capitalist economy has suffered a recession which has reduced the rate of expansion in its demand not only for resource-based professionals such as engineers but also for school and university teachers, physicians and surgeons. Secondly, the medical profession in the main receiving countries has reversed its traditional policy of restricting its own size and is supporting programmes of huge increases in output from medical schools. Thirdly, the oil-producing countries have emerged as new areas of substantial excess demand for professionals.

As an illustration, Table 2 summarizes the unpublished data obtained from the Department of Health and Security on the flows into and out of the U.K. of doctors from four of the concerned countries.

Table 2: Flows of doctors from Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya and Egypt into and out of the U.K., 1970-74

	Stock in UK Sep 1970	1970		1971		1972		1973		1974		Net Change
		In	Out	In	Out	In	Out	In	Out	In	Out	
Nigeria	251	23	44	22	44	24	34	12	43	14	28	-98
Ghana	90	8	13	7	8	5	8	6	12	6	8	-17
Ghana	90	8	13	7	8	5	8	6	12	6	8	-17
Kenya	210	31	15	25	24	34	17	40	25	47	21	+75
Kenya	210	31	15	25	24	34	17	40	25	47	21	+75
Egypt	235	31	13	25	21	34	17	40	25	47	21	+74
Egypt	235	31	13	25	21	34	17	40	25	47	21	+74
Egypt	235	4	13	5	21	22	22	1	7	5	8	-34
Total	786	66	85	59	97	65	61	59	87	72	65	-74
Total	786	66	85	59	97	65	61	59	87	72	65	-74
Total	786	66	85	59	97	65	61	59	87	72	65	-74

Source: DHS, London.

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As can be seen the total number of such doctors leaving the UK consistently exceeded the number entering over this period, with the result that the stock of such doctors in the UK fell by about 9 per cent. Only in the case of Kenyan doctors did the inflow exceed the outflow and one might plausibly hypothesise special circumstances in this case; it would not be surprising to find, for instance, that many of the doctors entering the UK from Kenya were of Asian origin, perhaps disturbed by events in neighbouring Uganda. Of course not all of those who left the UK will necessarily have returned home, but the figures at least suggest a lower rate of net than of gross emigration from Nigeria, Ghana and Egypt. For more recent years the only figures available relevant to immigration of professionals into the UK are those on work permits. These cover a wide range of occupations (excluding doctors and dentists who do not require work permits) but are insufficiently disaggregated for our purposes. Table 3 shows the total number of people admitted with work permits from six of the countries concerned over the period 1973-1977, including those with permits for less than 12 months and trainees.

Table 3: Work Permit Holders Admitted to the UK 1973-77

Country of Origin	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
Egypt	n.a	345	274	237	305
Ghana	72	72	90	31	42
Kenya	35	27	22	16	19
Morocco	n.a	n.a	n.a	110	74
Nigeria	150	73	127	67	66
Tanzania	15	14	9	5	10

Source: Home Office

The figures in Table 3 suggest a sharp fall in the total number of work permits issued to immigrants from the countries concerned, which would bear out our expectation of a change in trend since 1973.

However, the figures cover a motley collection of occupations, including many that would probably be classifiable as skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled. It is probably more relevant to our purposes to look at the trend in the number of permits issued to professional and scientific workers, including nurses, as in Table 4.

Table 4: New Work Permits issued to immigrant Professional and Scientific Workers from Commonwealth East and West Africa, 1973-77

	<u>1973</u>	<u>1974</u>	<u>1975</u>	<u>1977</u>
East Africa	101	164	126	44
West Africa	<u>152</u>	<u>212</u>	<u>311</u>	<u>175</u>
Total	253	376	437	219

This suggests a slightly different trend. The number of permits issued in 1977 is certainly lower than four years earlier but the downturn did not come until after 1975. It appears that the inflow of African professionals may have responded with a greater lag to the onset of economic recession than did that of less qualified workers.

Table 5 gives details of the countries of origin of immigrant professionals over the period, 1962-69. The difference between the totals in Tables 1 and 5 reflects the strong upward trend in such immigration in the 'sixties and early 'seventies.

Table 5: Immigration of African doctors, scientists and engineers into the US, 1962-69.

	<u>Doctors</u>	<u>Natural</u> <u>Scientists</u>	<u>Social</u> <u>Scientists</u>	<u>Engineers</u>	<u>Total</u>
Ghana	17	10	2	28	57
Kenya	10	8	2	28	48
Morocco	14	4	2	18	38
Nigeria	15	20	6	64	105
Egypt	247	240	46	570	1103
Other Africa	94	47	10	151	302
Total	<u>397</u>	<u>329</u>	<u>68</u>	<u>859</u>	<u>1653</u>

Source: Bhagwati and Dellalfar (1973).

The data on immigration into the US presented in this and other tables may understate the number of African professionals entering the American job market, since a large proportion of entrants have 'non-immigrant' short-term visas but later take up employment. However, whatever the definition, the dominance of Egyptian

immigrants representing more than two thirds of the total in Table 5, would remain.

Table 6 gives an annual tabulation of gross immigration flows from the seven African countries covered by our project and this enables us to bring the picture rather more up to date.

It is noticeable from table 6 that the outflow of African professionals to the U.S. reached its peak in 1970. Since then it has fallen away, particularly if Egyptian immigrants are excluded.

As well as underlining the dominance of Egypt, this shows the growing relative importance of Nigeria as a source and the relative unimportance of Morocco and, particularly, the Sudan in this respect. Interestingly professional, technical and kindred (PTK) migration to the U.S. from the six countries other than Egypt in our analysis seems to have held up more strongly than has total or total African PTK migration.

To conclude we can state that the most popular foreign countries for migration of professionals from East and West African commonwealth countries have traditionally been the United Kingdom and United States of America.

This can be explained partly because of the traditional role of the U.K. in the commonwealth countries and partly because most of the professional associations have their international headquarters in the U.K. The relative attractiveness of the U.S., on the other hand, can be explained in terms of its versatile educational

**Table 6: Total African Professional, technical and kindred (PTK)
Immigration into the U.S., 1966-76.**

	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	Total
Ghana	10	42	43	32	61	56	78	90	59	73	65	609
Kenya	20	30	50	61	132	142	90	89	97	110	93	914
Nigeria;	39	71	64	94	132	193	278	273	185	191	213	1733
Sudan	6	8	8	7	11	6	6	6	4	8	4	74
Egypt	108	160	371	1137	1942	1026	587	441	358	377	408	6915
Morocco	21	28	22	31	27	23	29	29	30	19	33	292
Tanzania	5	7	13	20	30	74	116	45	42	37	45	434
Total	209	346	571	1382	2335	1520	1184	973	775	815	861	10971
Total Africa	441	668	952	1810	2854	2062	1834	1539	1242	1350	1414	16166
Total Africa exc. Egypt.	333	508	581	673	912	1036	1247	1098	884	973	1006	9251

Source: U.S. investigation authorities.

system and more importantly by the very high salary levels for professionals.

In spite of the international negotiability of Nigerian professional qualifications and the constraints on growth of professional remuneration in Nigeria, especially in the public sector, there has been no significant movement of professionals out of the country. The problem of "brain-drain" relates primarily to students who, after acquiring professional qualifications abroad, decide not to return to Nigeria.

Morocco has its special peculiarities as far as international marketability of professionals skills is concerned.

The Moroccan salaries are comparable to other European salaries, therefore there has not been an appreciable migration to overseas countries. Some of the professionals who studied abroad have not returned home. Jews also have migrated national association which does not have links with international associations.

International mobility concerns almost exclusively the foreign cadres, and it is related to the employment policy of MNC's. The utilisation of foreign cadres corresponds to the needs of certain public or Moroccan private enterprises. Most of the time, it involves special skills which are not available under reasonable conditions in the local labour market and temporary needs which are met by signing fixed term contracts. Private firms usually call upon foreign

cadres more often and on a longer basis than public corporations. As a matter of fact, most of the MNC's in Morocco had a policy of cadres mobility and rotation on an international scale. The usual duration is from two to four years. It affects the directors as well as the other cadres. The situation now is different and there is a marked tendency towards Moroccanisation.

Expatriates, receiving high salaries between two or three times higher than Moroccans, influence salaries in Morocco between 12,000 and 15,000 expatriates especially teachers have an influence on teachers' salaries in Morocco.

1.3. Trends and Patterns of African Professional Immigrants to Neighbouring Oil-Producing countries.

A new feature of the international labour market that has already been noted is the emergence since 1973 of oil-producing countries as areas of substantial excess demand for labour of all levels of skill.

For example, Birks and Sinclair (1978 , 1979) have estimated that non-nationals accounted for about half of the total employment of 3.3 million in Saudi Arabia, Libya, Kuwait, Bahrain, United Arab Emirates and Qatar in 1975 and that about three quarters of these non-nationals were of Arab origin. Table 7 summarises their findings.

Table 7: Employment by nationality and Country of employment
in capital-rich Arab States, 1975

	<u>Nationals'</u> <u>employment</u>	<u>Non-nationals employment</u>				<u>Iranian</u> <u>Turkish</u> <u>African</u>
		<u>Total</u>	<u>Arab</u>	<u>Asian</u>	<u>European</u>	
Saudi Arabia	1,026.5	733.4	669.9	38.0	15.0	20.5
Libya	449.2	332.4	310.4	5.5	7.0	9.5
Kuwait	91.8	208.0	143.3	33.6	2.0	29.1
Bahrain	45.8	30.0	6.2	16.6	4.4	2.8
United Arab Emirates	45.0	251.5	62.0	163.5	5.0	21.0
Qatar	<u>12.5</u>	<u>53.8</u>	<u>15.0</u>	<u>34.0</u>	<u>0.8</u>	<u>4.0</u>
Total	1,670.8	1,649.1	1236.8	291.2	34.2	86.9

Source: Birks and Sinclair (1979)

The largest single category of migrant workers in the Middle East is unskilled, but migration by professionals is also important.

For instance, Birks and Sinclair estimate that, of 160,000⁶ foreign workers in Kuwait from the ten main LDC source countries in 1975, about 7 per cent were in professional, 14.3 per cent in semi-professional and 44.3 per cent in skilled and semi-skilled occupational categories.

Of the countries covered by our analysis only Egypt and the Sudan are substantially affected by migration to capital-rich Arab states. There are a few Moroccan migrant workers in the region

(mainly in Libya), but the total from Morocco and Algeria together in 1975 was only estimated at 2,547, less than 0.2 per cent of the total number of Arab migrant workers.

It is quite clear that Egypt is an important supplier of highly qualified and skilled labour especially to the group of Arab countries. The Arab countries receive the largest share of the Egyptian migrants, about 98 per cent of the total in 1975. Even though the export of Egyptian labour is not a new phenomenon, it is necessary to stress that their present large scale is only very recent, and essentially after the rise of oil-price at 1973 and 1974.

Table 8 shows that there are noticeable disparities among Arab countries themselves concerning their dependence on Egyptian skilled labour. It is also evident that the noticeable concentration of Egyptian temporary migrants in some specific Arab countries (Saudi Arabia, Libya, Kuwait) is due to the increasing levels of salaries and wages in them (at least in the date of these available data).

Moreover, from table 8 we noticed that it is not only concentration by the absolute numbers and ratio, but also by the specific numbers of qualified personnel in general and particularly among the Ph.D's.

Table (9)
Destinations, Educational Status & Qualification
of Egyptian Temporary Migrants by the End of 1975

Country	Ph.D.	Master	Higher Diploma	Bachelor or its Equivalent	General El-Azhar Secondary Cert.	Technical Secondary Cert.	Nursing	Other Intermediate Qualif.	Less Intermediate Qualif.	With No Qualif.	Total	Ratio % of Total
1. Saudi Arabia	400	147	651	4737	181	1015	435	2111	164	310	10151	38.07
2. Libya	92	27	299	2858	55	423	142	2796	37	96	6820	25.60
3. Kuwait	86	27	180	1726	29	44	177	192	21	28	2510	9.41
4. Algeria	61	46	75	1883	10	20	1	219	-	10	1625	6.09
5. Yemen	29	20	115	795	17	85	18	176	1	10	1267	4.75
6. Oman (Sultanate)	2	8	28	306	58	83	14	609	16	7	1131	4.24
7. Iraq	338	40	33	388	4	44	-	12	7	34	800	3.00
8. Qatar	35	6	44	234	10	82	1	37	8	24	491	1.86
9. The Emirates	1	1	18	241	4	36	21	90	2	6	420	1.58
10. Bahrain	-	2	23	225	1	6	-	9	1	19	286	1.07
11. Sudan	15	2	17	180	2	20	2	10	1	6	255	0.96
12. Abu-Dhabi	7	4	11	121	14	27	2	42	11	13	252	0.95
13. Arabian Gulf	-	-	19	73	-	10	-	43	1	7	153	0.57
14. Dobbie	4	1	7	62	4	32	1	11	6	12	140	0.53
15. Jordan	4	1	1	10	1	4	68	-	39	9	137	0.51
16. Lebanon	26	5	8	47	2	4	-	9	1	2	104	0.39
17. Syria	11	2	2	20	-	-	-	-	2	-	37	0.14
18. Shariga	-	-	1	14	-	5	-	1	1	5	27	0.10
19. Morocco	21	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	25	0.09
20. Tunisia	-	1	1	7	-	-	-	3	1	-	13	0.05
21. Bass El-Whia	-	-	-	5	-	1	-	3	-	-	9	0.03
22. Aden	2	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	5	0.02
23. Gasa (Palestine)	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	3	0.01
Total	1135	341	1534	13137	392	1942	882	6376	320	608	26667	100.00
Ratio %	4.26	1.28	5.75	49.26	1.47	7.28	3.31	23.91	1.20	2.28	100.00	

* Source: Central Agency for Public Mobilisation and Statistics (CAPMAS), "Main Features of the Egyptian Temporary Migration Movement from Arab Republic of Egypt at 31 December 1975: Quarter ending and personnel contracts", REF. No. 32404/004, Cairo, May 1977, P. 3.

It is remarkable that temporary migration movement, from Egypt to other Arab countries, because of its selectivity, has had a disproportionate impact in causing shortages of certain types of labour within Egypt. This educational bias of the expatriate population has led to the migrant movements being referred to as a "Brain Drain".

It is noticed also that the concentration of Egyptian migrants in some specific Arab countries depends mainly on the stability or deterioration of political relations between Egypt and other Arab countries. These political relations are considerably responsible for what has been occurring in the Arab employment market in general, and particularly between Egypt on one side, and Libya, Syria and Iraq on the other side.

Next to the Arab countries, after a very wide gap, came a group of African countries (non-Arab), about 1.6 per cent of total Egyptian migrants in 1975. Then came the European countries, about 0.3 per cent, followed by the Asian countries, (about 0.1 per cent of total migrants in 1975). The American countries receive the smallest share of the Egyptian migrants.

It is clear that, not only the temporary migration that brought about exports of Egyptian skills, expertise and technology, there are also more permanent Egyptian migrants.

These are perhaps moves which are more justifiably referred to as "Brain Drain" than the temporary migration. Although the scale

of this movement is not clear, there is little doubt that Egypt does lose a number of its skilled and professional classes every year. These emigrate mainly to Europe and North America, and to a certain extent to Kuwait and Abu Dhabi in the case of the permanent movement of professionals.

The net balance of Egyptian international migration is decidedly outwards. In contrast to the 1.4 million Egyptian nationals resident outside the country, the 1976 census reported that only less than 100,000 persons of non-Egyptian nationality are living in Egypt. This represents a decline in the number of foreigners living in Egypt over the past decade and a half from 0.55% of the total population in 1960, to 0.26% in 1976.⁷

It must be stated here that in reality no attempt has been made to raise salaries in the Egyptian public sector to compete with the international labour market. At the same time no strategy has been adopted to regulate the outflow of professional, technical and highly qualified labour from Egypt.

In Sudan it is very clear that emigration to the Arab countries has a much greater influence than international organizations and MNCs, not only because of its quality. Not less than half of the emigrant labour is professional and skilled labour, whilst unskilled labour made up 26.4 per cent of the total in 1978.

This development in the labour market has begun to have an important impact on the level of wages in the private sector, which is influenced by the forces of supply and demand. In 1979, a skilled worker (e.g. a mason or a mechanic) with primary education and about five years informal training may get an income which is twice the salary of a graduate with a B. Sc. in economics employed in the public sector. Such a change may be beneficial to the Sudanese economy and society, because it has given a new value to skilled manual labour. However, a large part of the society still seeks university degrees in Arts, law and social sciences although graduates in such subjects suffer from unemployment. Under the current new pressure such illusions cannot persist for much longer.

Though international labour market (ILM) has influenced the Sudanese labour market and wages and salaries in the private sector to a large extent, it has not influenced wages and salaries in the public sector to the same extent. The "special cadres" which were introduced during 1974-76 were partly the result of this influence of ILM which resulted from the increased emigration as from 1974. This increased emigration was due to the October war (1973) and the rise in oil prices, coupled with inflation in the Sudan. Through the pressure of influential groups e.g. doctors, some professionals managed to increase their salaries. More recently the Job Evaluation Scheme (JES) has tried to bring about uniformity in salaries of -

civil servants. However, pressure groups, which are aided by the ILM, such as doctors, bankers and university staff, have continued to demand higher salaries above the scales allotted to them in this scheme.

Finally, one of the countries covered by our study, Nigeria, is an oil-producer and, like other oil-producers, has been attracting professionals from other countries, particularly Ghana, also covered by our project. In the case of some categories this is on quite a large scale. For example some 13 per cent of the 163 full members of the Ghana Institute of Architects have addresses abroad, mainly in Nigeria, and 50 per cent of the annual output of architects from Kumasi University of science and Technology are estimated to have migrated to Nigeria in recent years. Most of the temporary migrants from Ghana to Nigeria are professionals e.g. accountants, planners, surveyors, doctors, engineers and pharmacists.

SECTION 2: International Negotiability of Professional Qualifications and its Impact on Salaries Determination

Actual movement of professionals is only one aspect of integration into the international market. In order to move, certainly, a professional must be mobile, that is in possession of internationally negotiable qualifications.

There are a number of factors, which have contributed to the international negotiability (acceptability) of the qualifications of professionals in all of the countries concerned. First, the continued use of metropolitan qualifications by sending students abroad, especially to the United Kingdom, United States, Canada and France, Secondly, the maintenance of high standard of local professional education to meet international standards. Thirdly, the affiliation of local professional associations with the relevant international professional bodies.

It is noteworthy to mention that the existence of international bodies like the Commonwealth professional associations has made it relatively easier to obtain reciprocal recognition for professional qualifications awarded by member-countries.

2.1 The Use of Metropolitan Qualifications:

One indicator of the first form of integration into the international market is the extent to which a country sends students abroad.

Table 9 summarises the position with respect to students from the indicated countries in the UK. The statistics are not very reliable and coverage of non-university students is particularly patchy. Nevertheless the impression given by table 9, that the number of overseas students in the UK, after seeming to be on a plateau in the second half of the sixties, has been increasing fast in the seventies, is probably correct. These countries have shared to varying degrees in this growth; it has been spectacular in the case of Nigeria, less so in the cases of Kenya, Egypt, Morocco and the Sudan, and the number of students from Ghana and Tanzania has tended to fall.

Table 10 summarises the position with respect to students in the USA. Table 10 also shows an increase in the total number but at a slower rate than in the UK. Again Nigeria shows the fastest growth rate, but in this case the figures for Ghana are on a rising trend, showing that there has been a switch in the destination of Ghanaian students from the UK to the US.

We can gauge very roughly the importance of study in the UK and the us for each of our project countries by adding together the totals in Tables 9 and 10 and comparing them with each country's population. This is done in Table 11.

Table 9. Overseas Students in the U.K. Annual Totals, 1968-69 to 1977-78.

Total of which	<u>1968-69</u>	<u>1969-70</u>	<u>1970-71</u>	<u>1971-72</u>	<u>1972-73</u>	<u>1973-74</u>	<u>1974-75</u>	<u>1975-76</u>	<u>1976-77</u>	<u>1977-78</u>
	69819	74757	69283	79346	82834	95209	100609	114064	124942	123759
Ghana	-	-	-	-	1505	-	-	1503	1335	1177
Kenya	1777	1802	1818	1929	1893	2229	2160	2347	1998	1635
Nigeria	3015	4383	2086	2297	2672	3426	4178	5273	6336	7011
Tanzania	1127	1106	1029	1936	1011	1069	991	927	895	740
Egypt	-	-	-	-	687	-	-	896	1089	1040
Morocco	-	-	-	-	64	-	-	41	125	124
Sudan	-	-	-	-	607	-	-	1124	1061	907
--	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
--	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: British Council, Statistics of overseas students in Britain (various years).

Table 10 : Foreign Students in the USA, Annual Totals, 1968 - 69 to 1977-78

Total of which	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75 ^a	1975-76 ^a	1976-77 ^a	1977-78 ^a
	121,362	134,959	144708	140126	146097	151066	154580	179344	203068	235509
Ghana	407	539	647	745	871	946	-	1620	1570	1650
Kenya	523	492	534	499	540	568	-	1120	1190	1430
Nigeria	1790	1851	2333	3077	4092	4817	-	11440	11870	13510
Tanzania	207	215	238	217	256	272	-	370	320	360
Egypt	836	1015	1103	1027	1148	1163;	-	910	1200	1500
Morocco	69	83	78	72	93	92	-	110	160	110
Sudan	119	135	111	109	157	166	-	360	500	340

a Excluding immigrants (not comparable with earlier years).

Source: Institute of International Education, Open Doors, various years.

Table 11: Students in the U.S. and the U.K. in relation to Population.

	1977/1978 Population Estimate (000)	Number of Students in the U.K. and U.S. in 1977 - 78	Number of students in U.K. and U.S. per 100,000 population
Ghana	10,480	2827	27
Kenya	14,340	3065	21
Nigeria	66,630	20521	31
Tanzania	16,090	1100	7
Egypt	38,740	2540	7
Morocco	18,240	234	1
Sudan	16,540	1247	8

Source: as for Tables 9 and 10, and the UN Demographic Yearbook.

The table 11 suggests that the countries fall fairly nearly into three groups, as far as this indicator of integration into the international market is concerned.

(1) Morocco is clearly not in the US/UK orbit; comparable figures on Moroccan students in France would be of interest.

(2) Tanzania is in a middle group with Egypt and the Sudan rather than with the other three commonwealth countries; indeed the Sudan now sends more students to the UK (and more per 100,000 population) than does Tanzania.

- (3) Nigeria sends by far the greatest number of students to the UK and the US, but the other two countries in the top group, Kenya and particularly Ghana, are only slightly less oriented towards overseas study, when relative size of population is taken into account.

2.2 The Role of International and Commonwealth Professional Associations:

The main pressure for international negotiability comes, then, from the professionals themselves but they have been encouraged in this aim by international and, particularly, commonwealth professional associations. Indeed, Sir James Currie, in his introduction to the first edition of Professional Organizations in the Commonwealth (Currie, 1970), proclaimed that "it would be ideal if standards of education and qualification could be the same throughout the Commonwealth for all professions and if such qualifications could be reciprocally recognised... The commonwealth-wide associations now being formed in many fields," he went on, "have much good work to do in the endeavour to promote as far as possible standards of education generally acceptable in most commonwealth countries". Such endeavour has been especially strong in the cases of the architectural and medical professions. The International Union of Architects, which includes the local associations from all of our project countries, is a rather loosely knit body with vaguely defined aims. These do not include

international standardisation of qualifications since the Union feels that each country should maintain its own characteristics to promote and encourage the development of the formation of the architects in all forms, and to facilitate the international exchange of architects.

The Commonwealth Association of Architects, described by Johnson and Caygill (1972, P.261) as a "model for other commonwealth professional associations to follow or depart from", goes further than this. It aims explicitly at promoting "the free movement of architects between countries by the accrediting of qualifications and the encouragement of systems of inter-recognition of qualifications" (CAA Articles of Association, 2.12) ⁽⁸⁾. However, recognition does not necessarily imply standardisation, since it leaves room for variations in cultural and technological needs in different countries. In the case of the medical profession also the Commonwealth association has been more active than the international association on the issue of reciprocity. The stated objects of the Commonwealth Medical Association are limited; "to promote... the interests of the medical and allied sciences; to maintain the honour and traditions of the profession; to effect the closest possible links between its members; and to disseminate news and informations of interest" (Tett and Chadwick, 1976, P. 522). However, it has shown signs of wanting to follow in the footsteps of the CAA.

Other professions vary in the extent to which their international and Commonwealth associations press for interrecognition. The Commonwealth Pharmaceutical Association founded in 1969, has as one of its aims "to foster high standards of pharmaceutical education at all levels and high standards of practice in all branches of the profession" (Tett and Chadwick, 1976, P. 527). Interrecognition was endorsed as a long-term objective.

Perhaps surprisingly, there is no commonwealth association for dentists, but there is an international association, the Federation Dentaire Internationale. The federation is certainly aware of the inter-recognition issue and has set up a "working group on standards of postgraduate education and portability of licence" but its recommendations are as yet unpredictable.

The International Council of Nurses regards international standardisation of nursing qualifications as impracticable, but has its own programme, Nursing Abroad, to enable nurses to work outside their own countries.

The International Confederation of Midwives goes no further in its constitutional objectives than "advancing the training and professional status of midwives".

The Commonwealth Nurses' Federation on the other hand, has thought through its position on reciprocity with greater realism -

than most associations and has explicitly abandoned it as an aim.
(9)
As it points out nurses in less developed countries require more experience in primary health care for rural populations than do those in more developed countries and their nurses and midwives have to perform duties which are normally performed by doctors in more developed countries; formal worldwide reciprocity would therefore make little sense. The CNF's objective is "equivalence of qualifications and a common examination procedure for a region or group of Commonwealth countries to facilitate assessment for registration in another country in the region". Examples of such regions are the Atlantic(Caribbean); West Africa; East, Central and Southern Africa; South Asia; and Australia , Far East and pacific. The emphasis in these regional arrangements is "on the preparation of the nurse/midwife to meet the specific needs of their respective countries and the sharing of expertise and post-basic education facilities for a given area or region".

The objects of the Commonwealth Association of Planners include that of encouraging "the development of adequate educational facilities and research and the establishment of appropriate standards with the aim of promoting free movement of planners, coordinating rights of professional practice and facilitating reciprocity of qualifications". However, the secretary of the association puts it slightly less forcibly: the association -

"would support as much standardisation as possible in the core elements of education, but, on grounds of everyday realism, accepts that planning has to be related to conditions in the country where the planners will have to do their jobs and that the requirements will not be identical".

The International Federation of Surveyors is involved in "struggles ... to get international standardisation" of surveying methods but has found it easier to achieve in some fields (e.g. engineering surveying, hydrographical surveying) than in others (e.g. where legal aspects are involved)⁽¹⁰⁾. Only Nigeria of the countries concerned is a member of the Federation.

The aims of the Commonwealth Association of Surveying and Land Economy, established in 1969, include the fostering of "appropriate standards for surveyors and surveying technicians and to ensure that adequate facilities are provided for those purposes" (Tett and Chadwick, 1976. P. 526).

The Commonwealth Library Association (COMLA) is much exercised on the issue of reciprocity having appointed a working party on the topic and convened a seminar to discuss its findings in November 1975. One of COMLA'S aims, in its constitution, is "to promote the status and education of librarians and the reciprocal-

recognition of qualifications in librarianship. The 1975 seminar endorsed this aim and urged COMLA "to pursue its interest in reciprocity, as a high priority". According to the working party report there appear to be few legal barriers to international mobility in the profession but local (particularly metropolitan) associations are suspected of obstructing employment of outsiders (11)

The Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration (CCEA) is another association that is "working towards reciprocity of recognition within the Commonwealth". As a step in this direction it has published the Commonwealth Directory of Qualifications and Courses in Educational Administration, including so far information on relevant university courses in Kenya, Nigeria and Tanzania but not yet Ghana, among the countries concerned. However while "reciprocity is substantially a fact within the old commonwealth", the CCEA recognises that "in relation to the African universities and others within the new commonwealth there is still a good deal of variation in that courses in educational administration are frequently taught at the undergraduate rather than the graduate level and there is typically a great shortage of qualified indigenous teachers" (12). However, it is optimistic about the future in this respect.

The International Federation of Consulting Engineers is, in the words of its managing director (13), "a professional -

association and not a learned society and therefore does not generally occupy itself with such matters as "reciprocity". What it does "promote is standardisation of contract conditions under which the professional services of consulting engineers may be procured". Only two of the countries concerned, Kenya and Nigeria, have associations of consulting engineers affiliated to the Federation.

The commonwealth Engineers' Council, on the other hand, formally constituted as a commonwealth professional association only in 1974, seems to be rushing to catch up with the pacesetters in inter-recognition. "The most vital of immediate issues", according to its entry in Professional Organizations in the Commonwealth (Tett and Chadwick, 1976, P. 532), "is that of parity of standards of engineering education and training. Norms for recognition of engineering degrees and diplomas should be set down. Reciprocity and recognition of qualifications should be a goal". As a first step along this road, regional groupings are to be formed on the argument that "if local problems can first be solved, harmonization of the total body may be expected to follow". It is proposed that an identity card be issued to those on a register of commonwealth engineers; "in the long term the system could well develop to provide for reciprocal recognition when qualification systems have finally been rationalised".

Our review of the role of international and Commonwealth professional associations suggests that most international associations take a cautious approach towards the question of interrecognition and many are not in a position to act as effective pressure groups. For example, the International Federation of Surveyors, which does take the question seriously, covers only countries, including Nigeria alone of those in our study. Commonwealth associations, however, are another matter. Of the eight such associations discussed above all except one (the nurses) count ~~interrecognition~~ among their aims, and many play an active role in trying to achieve it.

2.3. Impact of International Negotiability of Professional Qualifications on Public Sector Salaries Determination

Once professionals acquire international recognition for their qualifications, they could make use of their potential ability to migrate to other countries-even though their actual ability to migrate may be limited-as a basis for negotiating for better pay for their lot. If they succeed in this then the less mobile labour in comparable posts in the rest of the public sector also begin to press for higher pay on grounds of comparability.

Most of the Nigerian professional associations attach considerable importance in the international acceptability of the qualifications of their members. Many professional associations in

Nigeria have attempted to use their integration with the international market for skills as an argument for securing increases in pay for their members in the public sector. These attempts, made either through the process of collective bargaining or through the submission of memoranda to the periodic salaries and wages review commissions, have had little or no effect on the levels of professional remuneration in Nigeria. The principle of international comparability has been rejected as a factor in the determination of public sector wages and salaries. The basic reason for the rejection of the principle appears to be its potential conflict with the objective of distributive equity in public sector wages and salaries.

Not only have the professionals in the Nigerian public sector not been able to use the international negotiability of their qualifications to enhance their pay, some of the premia that in the past accrued to them as a result of excess demand for professionals in the local market have in recent years been eroded by government measures such as the ban on private practice.

Indeed, the argument of international comparability of remuneration has been used openly by the Nigerian Association of Airline Pilots and Flight Engineers in their frequent **industrial** actions with the Government in 1979.

In actual fact, the remuneration for Nigerian professionals are much higher in the private sector not because of the acceptance

Of the argument of international comparability but because more than in the public sector, the forces of supply and demand have been given greater scope there in the process of the determination of professional remuneration. Consequently, there has been a significant drift of the professionals from public to private sector, particularly into self-employment. The movement has adversely affected the implementation of public sector projects.

It is also noticeable that although most of the Nigerian professional qualifications are internationally negotiable, very few professionals make use of the mobility potentials.

In Kenya few categories make use of their international mobility. But they still make use of their potential to move as a basis for asking for higher salaries. Once they are awarded such demands even the less mobile categories benefit financially from having acquired similar qualifications on grounds of comparability.

In spite of lack of total integration of Kenya's market for high and middle level skills with the international market for such skills, we found that due consideration is given to the role of transnational corporations, when salary review commissions recommend changes in salary scales and structures and other terms of service in the public sector. This is done with a view to attracting and retaining labour with the requisite skills.

In fact any move to lower the top salaries in the public sector is likely to run into powerful contradictions arising from international factors and the use that can be made of them. The local market for skills is not insulated from, though it is not yet completely integrated with the international market for such skills.

From available information, it is noticeable that in Egypt and Sudan workers trade unions and associations of professionals either did not exist or when they did exist, were very localised and did not have any international relationships. Thus they did not contribute in any way to bringing the effects of the international labour market to the local one.

CONCLUSIONS:

The foregoing discussion has given us some idea of the trends and patterns of African professional immigrants to developed and neighbouring oil-producing countries. In fact the main features of the international migration of African professionals could be summed up in the following:

1. The migratory movement is characterised as outflow of professionals from all African countries concerned (Egypt, Sudan, Morocco, Kenya, Tanzania, Nigeria and Ghana) to overseas countries (mainly European countries and the United States). There are also significant outflow of professionals from some African countries to neighbouring oil-producing countries, e.g. from Sudan and Egypt to Arab, rich countries and from Ghana to Nigeria.
2. There are also inflow of professionals (as foreign experts) from developed countries to the African countries concerned. It is remarkable that the net balance of African international migration is decidedly outwards. However, there exist significant inflow of professionals to Morocco and Nigeria to satisfy labour shortage in these countries.
3. A predominant feature of some African migratory movements in the last decade has been the systematic transfer of professional skills, on a temporary basis, to neighbouring rich countries (e.g. from Egypt and Sudan to Arab oil-producing countries). Unlike the previous permanent migrant (e.g. from Egypt and Sudan to Europe and -

the United States during the sixties) the temporarily recruited professional migrates for a specific period of time (e.g. 4 years as a lending period) with the understanding that he will return to his home country after a designated period to be replaced by others. The country of emigration is still responsible for providing employment upon the worker's return.

4. The "push" and "pull" factors of international migration of African professional skills, given in part 1.1., are applicable in the sense of the outflow of African professionals to Western European countries and the United States. In reality, Egyptian and Sudanese civil workers suffer from the very low salaries and wage scales in general, and among those highly qualified and skilled labour in particular as a "push factor" so, the employment opportunities are offered by all Arab countries with incomparable salaries, especially in rich Arab countries (the comparison ranges between 1:10 to 1:15 for Egyptians and about 1:7 for Sudanese) is standing as a "pull factor". There is also a significant outflow of professionals from Ghana to Nigeria (oil-producing country). The most important "push" factors for Ghanaian professionals are low salaries, lack of incentives for professional advancement, lack of promotion opportunities and relative over - population and low standard of living.

Concerning the impact of international migration movement of African professionals on the balance of supply and demand for labour force in local markets we can classify two country groups: First, Nigeria, Morocco and Kenya, where the out migration of professionals is not significant and secondly Egypt, Sudan, Ghana and to some extent Tanzania, where the significant out migration has brought shortage in technically and highly qualified labour. In fact, it could be argued that this situation has appreciable effect on determination of public sector salaries levels and remuneration in the African countries concerned. However, the international migration of African professionals has influenced to some extent the salaries and remunerations in the private sector, joint venture enterprises and transnationals (e.g. in Egypt and Sudan).

It is to be emphasized here that, actual movement of professionals is only one aspect of integration into the international market. In order to move, certainly, a professional must be mobile, that is in possession of internationally negotiable qualifications. The most important factors, which have contributed to the international negotiability of the professionals' qualifications in the African countries concerned are: the continued use of metropolitan qualifications by sending students abroad; the maintenance of high level of local professional standards and the affiliation of local professional associations with the relevant international professionals bodies (e.g. the International and Commonwealth Professional Associations).

From the available information, it is noticeable that in Nigeria and Kenya very few professionals make use of the international negotiability of their qualifications to enhance their pay. In other countries, e.g. Egypt, Tanzania and Sudan, workers' trade unions and professional associations either did not exist or when they did exist were very localised and did not have any international relationships. Thus they did not contribute in any way to bringing the effects of the international labour market to the local one.

In reality, we can sum up that, in order to benefit from the international migration of African professionals and to overcome the problem of shortage in certain types of labour, manpower planning in the African countries concerned should realize the following objectives:

1. The necessity to establish and implement a national educational and training policy, which should be in accordance with the economic and social objectives of the country and the needs of regional labour market (as Egypt and Sudan are considered a great suppliers of manpower to most neighbouring Arab and African countries).
2. Special attention should be paid to the salary structure in the African countries concerned, especially among highly qualified people to limit their migration to other countries.

3. The importance to fulfil a serious training policy to improve the labour productivity and to gain more experience and skillness.
4. The importance to increase vocational training levels for workers through relating salaries to education and training levels.
5. Full employment or provision of enough work opportunities (as many as possible) through increasing labour absorptive capacity of the economy.
6. The necessity of increasing the national income growth rates and justice in income distribution.

Footnotes

1. The Colombo plan, A report from education and World affairs, The Committee on the International Migration of Talent, Washington, 1970.
2. Among other weaknesses, definitions and categories of immigrants are not standardised; gross rather than net flows are usually measured; country of origin usually means country of last permanent residence rather than nationality; and visa categories not covered by such data may include some migrant professionals.
3. The possibility of extracting and analysing work permit holders figures for more recent years, unsatisfactory in many ways but comparable with those in Table 1 is being explored.
4. There are no separate figures for Sudanese and no separate figures for Egyptians prior to 1974 nor for Moroccans prior to 1976.
5. According to WHO data 67 per cent of African doctors entering the US in 1967 were on 'non-immigrant' visas. By 1973 the proportion had fallen to 39 per cent.
6. Palestine, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, India, Syria, Iraq, Pakistan, Yemen, Iran.
7. CAPMAS, Preliminary Results of the Population and Housing Census of 1976, Cairo.
8. The International Union of Architects, Practical information, January, 1976.
9. Letter from executive secretary, 29 September 1978.
10. Letter from Federation spokesman, 20 February 1979.
11. Letter from secretary, 19 January 1979.
12. Letter from executive director, 26 September 1978.
13. Letter dated 3 October 1978.

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