Improving Professional Licensure in APEC

Summary of Case Studies of Architecture and Engineering in Chile and Peru

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1 INTRODUCTION AND PROJECT OVERVIEW

This report presents a summary of findings from field visits in December 2018 to Chile and Peru, on a volunteer basis, and a data/literature review. It is part of Australia's self-funded project under the APEC Group on Services (GOS) and Human Resource Development Working Group (HRDWG) looking at improving professional licensure. The project runs from August 2018 to June 2019. The field visits focused on engineering services and architectural services, as defined below. Both sectors were identified by the two volunteer governments. We are grateful to the governments of both economies, as well as their respective professional Colleges, for participating in field work, and providing vital information on the regulatory environment for both professions. A further field visit to Malaysia is scheduled before June 2019.

The background for this project is the APEC Services Competitiveness Roadmap (ASCR), which commits member economies to taking action on professional mobility. It specifically highlights the APEC Architects and Engineers Registers as initiatives that can be built upon. With this framework in mind, the purpose of this report is to examine in greater detail the questions that arise for member economies based on our review of the regulatory regimes for architects and engineers in Chile and Peru, and in particular to highlight the way in which it frames international trade transactions in the two sectors. Given the nature of professional services and the importance of licensing in the project, the focus is on factors affecting the ability of individual architects and engineers to practice their profession in the region, but the analysis has clear implications for other modes of market entry as well, particularly GATS Mode 3.

The focus of this report is on professional licensure as one policy measure that affects the ability of professionals to provide services outside their home jurisdiction. Of course, many other factors also come into play. Prominent among these factors are the rules governing visas, either for general employment purposes or intra-corporate transferees. We explicitly exclude these measures from consideration in the present report, not because they do not have an impact on trade flows or market conditions, but because they fall outside the purview of professional licensure.

The report proceeds as follows. Section 2 presents background on regional trade in professional services, focusing on their importance relative to total services trade. Section 3 then presents a selection of key policy issues facing member economies, based on evidence collected during fieldwork. The following section discusses key findings of the two case studies. Section 5 concludes, and notes key points for consideration by member economies moving forward.

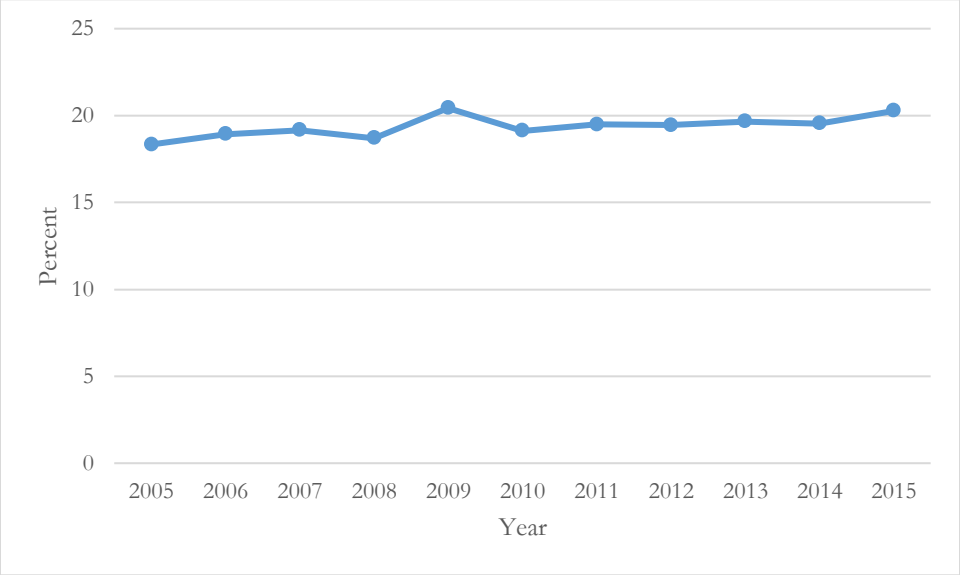
2 TRADE IN PROFESSIONAL SERVICES IN APEC

Conceptually, trade in professional services can take place under any of the four GATS Modes of Supply. Technological change has made Mode 1 (pure cross-border trade) more relevant, whereas historically Mode 3 (commercial presence) and Mode 4 (temporary movement of natural persons). Comprehensive data on services trade by Mode of Supply are still at the experimental stage, and have not yet been cleared for use by the WTO. In any case, these statistics are based on approximations and estimates in many cases, rather than direct measurement, as few economies collect services trade data in a way that corresponds easily to the GATS Modes of Supply.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, we can use existing data to look at the importance of trade in professional services for the region, focusing on services trade as captured by the Balance of Payments, i.e. primarily Mode 1 and some Mode 2 (movement of the consumer). The data source is the OECD-WTO Trade in Value Added (TiVA) Database, although all statistics are quoted in gross shipments, not value added, terms. Because it combines trade data, national accounts, and input-output tables, the TiVA dataset is highly aggregated. It is impossible to identify professional services separately, so we use the category of "other business sector services".

Figure 1 shows that other business services, including professional services, account for around one-fifth of total APEC services trade with the world as partner. There is an upwards trend over time. Although we cannot break these data down to show precisely how much of the level and change come from professional services—even less so particular professions—the data nonetheless suggest that this sector is an important source of trade integration for the region.

Figure 1: APEC's exports of other business services to the world as a whole, percent of total services exports, 2005-2015.



Source: OECD-WTO TiVA Database. Note: figure shows trade = gross exports + gross imports, not trade in value added. Sectoral definition is D69T82 Other Business Sector Services, which includes professional services.

The above figure is based on trade data taken from the Balance of Payments Statistics (BOPS). As such, they primarily comprise trade under GATS Mode 1, namely pure cross-border trade in services. But in engineering and architectural services, other modes of market entry are likely to play an important role. For instance, trade via GATS Mode 3 takes account of the case where a foreign firm establishes a subsidiary in an APEC economy, which then sells services in the domestic market. In addition, GATS Mode 4 includes the case where a foreign engineer or architect comes physically to an APEC economy to supply services in the domestic market on a temporary basis. Data on trade under Modes 3 and 4 are not available for most APEC economies from international sources, so it is

not possible to quantify the importance of this kind of trade in the context of professional services. However, discussions with counterparts during the field visits for this project provided anecdotal evidence that foreign firms are indeed present in the local market (Mode 3), and that international firms make use of Mode 4 in particular through intra-corporate transferees.

3 Policy Issues for APEC: Facilitating Trade in Professional Services

The OECD's Services Trade Restrictiveness Index (STRI) project covers architecture and engineering as distinct services subsectors. As such, it provides a useful starting point for considering the types of policies related to professional licensure that affect trade in these professional services sector. Of course, this discussion does not prevent the addition or subtraction of policy measures as part of APEC's own STRI project. The OECD approach is presented as a starting point only, with the aim of facilitating discussion among member economies.

Professional licensure is identified as a distinct set of policy issues in the STRI, with identical treatment in the two sectors. Answers are coded based on responses to the following questions:

1. Is a professional license required in order to practice?
2. Are nationality, citizenship, residency, or domicile required for a license to practice?
3. Is there a legal or regulatory process for recognizing qualifications gained abroad?
4. Are foreign professionals required to take a local examination?
5. Are foreign professionals required to practice locally for at least one year?
6. Do foreign professionals have to completely re-do their university degree, exams, and practice domestically?
7. Is a temporary licensing system in place?

Clearly, the answers to these questions are suggestive of the extent to which professional licensure inhibits or facilitates international trade in professional services. However, APEC is a heterogeneous group of economies, so it is important to take account of differences in the structure of professional licensure systems. For instance, in the two case study economies, there is a close interaction between university qualifications and professional titles like architect or engineer. The emphasis in these economies is on a professional's educational background, and the path to licensing of foreign professionals in legal terms passes through an assessment of their qualifications, not their status as licensed professionals in another jurisdiction.

Although it is a useful starting point, the STRI does not purport to capture all policy issues surrounding professional licensure that are relevant to trade in professional services. In addition to the questions identified above, field work for this project showed that there are significant differences among economies in terms of the duration of licenses accorded to professionals, and corresponding requirements for continuous professional development as a condition of renewal. Similarly, the paths available for recognition of foreign qualifications differ substantially across economies in terms of the structures and institutions involved, as well as the corresponding level of time and cost for the moving professional.

A key aspect that the STRI does not capture is the role of Mutual Recognition Agreements (MRAs) and other kinds of legal arrangements, including provisions in Free Trade Agreements, in facilitating the movement of professionals. Peru stands out as an economy that has been very active in this area: it has agreements of different types in place with over 50 economies, including in the Asia-Pacific. Signature of an agreement covering recognition of professional qualifications typically involves a simplified path to recognition of professional qualifications in sub-sectors like engineering and architecture. These agreements can significantly reduce the time and cost for professional service providers in seeking to practice in another economy. Of course, a significant amount of mutual trust and good faith between regulators, construed broadly, is necessary to make it possible to sign and abide by a recognition agreement. But they offer a clear mechanism for facilitating trade, and numerous APEC economies have recognized this by engaging with partners inside and outside the region to promote mutual recognition as a way of reducing trade costs in professional services markets.

A final aspect economies should remain cognizant of is the difference between de jure and de facto measures. Field work for this project showed that it is possible for there to be a significant gap between professional licensing measures in law and in practice. In the case of the economies examined here, the difference was in the direction of more liberal measures in practice. Indeed, experience in other professional services, which is replicated in some but not all cases in the sectors examined here, shows that businesses sometimes adopt practical solutions to facilitate the movement of professionals. For instance, it is often possible for a foreign professional to perform certain tasks as part of a professional services firm, provided that a locally licensed professional signs final documents like plans and certifications. Under this model, there can be significant legal impediments to a foreign professional obtaining full recognition of their qualifications or license to practice, but they may still be free to work in a wide range of activities within the sector. Working as a consultant rather than a licensed professional is one way of de facto liberalizing restrictive measures, but it is not a perfect fix: anecdotal evidence from field work suggests that professionals in this position are typically paid less than fully licensed professionals.

4 KEY FINDINGS FROM THE CASE STUDIES

Details on the policy environment in each case study economy, focusing on areas that may create burdens for international service providers, has been shared with the relevant governments. This report does not repeat the findings of the case studies in detail, but instead identifies the issues confronted in the context of the policy questions presented above. These issues can serve as a guide for discussions among APEC economies regarding ways to facilitate trade in professional services in the region.

In both Peru and Chile, the regulatory environment for architects and engineers is set out in relevant legislation. Both economies treat the two professional categories as "titles", rather than licenses as such. They grant titles for life, based on a candidate's university degree. As such, the path for foreign professionals to obtain recognition of their license lies through "revalidation" of their university studies. This process is different in the two economies, but in essence the candidate needs to produce documents, in Spanish, showing their academic background and establishing that it is essentially equivalent to the domestic degree course in question. If it is not, candidates can be required to

undertake further study or sit additional exams. The exception to this process is in Peru, where another government agency, SUNEDU, is responsible for recognition of foreign diplomas with economies where Peru has a formal agreement in place. The recognition, as opposed to revalidation, procedure is greatly streamlined both in terms of time and cost. Both economies indicated that their particular circumstances lead to special requirements for both categories of professionals, in particular to deal with issues of cultural heritage, as well as specificities relating to the prevalence of seismic activity.

The mechanics of revalidation of degrees vary across economies, but typically it is universities, not professional associations, that drive the process. Recognition via agreement offers a major alternative track in Peru, with another government agency, SUNEDU, providing a document certifying that a foreign professional as an equivalent qualification for domestic regulatory purposes.

Both economies have professional bodies, Colleges, that are involved in structuring the sector. In some but not all cases, membership of the relevant College is required for practicing; in others, not all practicing professionals are necessarily members. The situation is therefore different from other subsectors, like the legal profession, where some economies strictly enforce membership of a professional association as a pre-requisite for lawful activity. While compulsory membership of a professional association can in some cases place barriers in the way of foreign professionals, it can provide a benefit for consumers because the association can maintain a complete list of people legally entitled to practice in a given economy, and equally those who have lost that right for disciplinary or other reasons. One area that the Colleges in the two case study economies are working on is making it easier for members of the public to easily identify legally authorized professionals.

Only the engineering sector in Peru is affiliated with the two relevant regional initiatives in this area, APEC Architects and APEC engineers. Anecdotal evidence suggests that these initiatives are not widely known among professionals in the two case study economies, even where there is a formal affiliation, so the numbers of people involved is still small. In addition to recognition, these initiatives offer ways for member economies to move forward in promoting trade in professional services in these subsectors.

A key concern expressed by professional bodies in both economies was to ensure that movement of professionals is indeed two-way. In other words, they are interested in being sending as well as receiving economies. With this in mind, MRAs have a natural appeal, as they depend on the mutual agreement of the signatories. But considerations like market size, common language, and remoteness also influence trade flows in professional services, so it is important to be aware that as in any other area of trade policy, imbalances in flows are likely and should not necessarily be seen as indicating that market developments are impacting a particular economy negatively.

There are important similarities between the licensure systems in Chile and Peru. Both are fundamentally driven by recognition of professional qualifications, for example. The role of professional organizations in determining whether or not an individual is authorized to practice as an architect or engineer is not as strong as seen in some other sectors or member economies. However, there are also significant differences. One is that Peru gives greater scope to recognition, rather than revalidation, through its extensive network of agreements in the region and beyond. In Chile, revalidation is essentially the only path open to foreign professionals looking to be fully licensed

domestically, whereas in Peru, professionals from economies with which an agreement is in place have access to a much simpler and less costly track. Finally, the structure of the revalidation process is different between the two economies, in the sense that in Chile, only one university is authorized to carry out revalidation. In Peru, by contrast, any university with the necessary academic departments can revalidate a foreign degree.

The following table summarizes the most important features of the licensure systems for architects and engineers in the two economies, and presents similar information for Australia as a base of comparison.

Table 1: Key features of professional licensure in architecture and engineering, Chile and Peru.

Issue	Chile	Peru	Australia
STRI score	0.112 (architecture), 0.113 (engineering)	NA	0.167 (architecture), 0.137 (engineering)
Regulatory/titles	Validated by Universidad de Chile and granted for life	Validated by SUNEDU (MRAs) and universities (other economies) and granted for life	Full membership of professional bodies is based on recognized qualifications and relevant work experience
Foreign professionals access	Revalidation of their university qualifications – produce documents in Spanish demonstrating equivalence to the domestic degree course		Qualifications and work experience assessed for equivalence to Australian standard by relevant professional body
Continuing professional development (CPD) requirement	No	No	Yes (managed by professional bodies)
Professional colleges	Yes	Yes	Yes
Affiliated with APEC regional initiatives	No	Engineers – yes Architects – no	Yes (both)
Recognition Agreements (MRAs, Trade Agreements with Recognition)	14	61	48 covering engineering, architecture, accounting, quantity surveying, veterinary, and actuarial services

Source: OECD STRI database, and project fieldwork.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5 CONCLUSION

Fieldwork for this project, combined with background information on Australia's system and details on selected member economies from the OECD STRI, has highlighted the diversity of regulatory systems in member economies in these two subsectors. The roles of universities and professional associations—and therefore of qualifications and licenses—varies significantly across economies. It is important to take account of this diversity in discussions on professional licensure in APEC. As in many other areas in APEC, a "one size fits all" approach to facilitating trade in professional services is neither necessary nor desirable.

The available evidence suggests that member economies could benefit from working together within existing frameworks like APEC Architects and APEC Engineers to ensure that the benefits of mutual recognition and similar mechanisms are distributed as widely as possible within the region. Economies that do not participate in those initiatives could benefit from doing so, as it would increase two-way trade in professional services: imports from other member economies can improve variety, quality, and price for consumers, while exports to other member economies can improve market position and income for producers.

More broadly, however, economies could consider additional measures that could facilitate trade in professional services in these two subsectors. Those measures will necessarily differ from one economy to another. In line with Good Regulatory Practice, each economy could determine the costs and benefits related to different aspects of its professional licensure system. Coordinating forward movement on professional services within relevant APEC fora could be a helpful adjunct to this process. Similarly, focusing on the objective of reducing trade costs facing professionals in the region would give shape to ongoing discussions in this area, in the same way that the issue of trade costs in goods markets structured APEC's early, world-leading work on trade facilitation. The issue of trade facilitation in services has been raised at the WTO, but the concept is currently lacking in analytical support, data, and legal structure. APEC economies could both move forward on regional trade promotion, and support ongoing discussions at the multilateral level, by developing a framework for thinking about practical measures that could make it easier to trade in professional services even without major regulatory reform. Licensure is, of course, one part of that discussion.

ANNEX 1: KEY POINTS FROM THE CHILE CASE STUDY

The proportion of Chile's business sector services trade accounted for by other business services, including professional services, approximately doubled between 2005 and 2014, reaching a peak of just under 13%. The figure for 2015 represents a significant drop. It is as yet unclear whether this represents a change in trade patterns, or an excess of noise in these more recent data. Nonetheless, the general pattern is clear: other business services, including professional services, are in important and growing part of Chile's overall services trade. APEC plays a very important role in terms of Chile's trade in other business services, including professional services. The proportion is relatively steady over time, at just under half of all trade, or 46-48%. This finding is significant, as it suggests that although Chile's neighbors in the Latin American region share cultural, linguistic, and institutional similarities, the proportion of trade accounted for by the much more diverse APEC is in fact very significant.

Architecture

Legally, no license is required to practice as an architect in Chile. However, that does not mean that the profession is completely open, in the sense that any person can hold themselves out as an architect, and perform work commonly associated with the architecture profession. Instead of a license, "architect" is regarded as a professional title that can only be obtained after a particular course of study, typically lasting at least six years and often longer, is completed. Most courses include some component of practical training, to give students familiarity with the social aspects of architecture, public works, and the functioning of an architectural office.

Crucially, only a person with the recognized title of architect can have the responsibility of signing off on architectural plans. There is no general law restricting the types of activities that can be undertaken by people without the title, but under the Chilean system, this particular activity must be performed by a Chilean titled architect. So while foreign architects do not need to be licensed in order to practice in Chile, they cannot have final responsibility for their plans unless they have the Chilean title of architect. In practice, this means that foreign architects can work in local or international firms with offices in Chile, but that plans must always be signed by a Chilean titled architect.

Given this requirement, it is important to look at the procedure a foreign architect must follow in order to obtain the relevant Chilean title if they wish to do so. A foreign architect seeking to obtain the Chilean title needs to submit certified translations of all of their professional qualification documents to the University of Chile, which is the only organization with the ability to issue the Chilean title of architect. Officials at the University not only review the relevant documentation to ensure that it represents a valid degree from an established University, but go much further: they look at the list of individual courses taken by the postulant, and ensure that they correspond exactly to the courses required in Chile.

Given that there is no licensing system as such for architects in Chile, there is equally no register of professionals. The College of Architects maintains a register, but membership in the organization is voluntary. There is thus no comprehensive database of architects that can easily be consulted by the public. There are special provisions for foreign architects practicing temporarily, but again coverage is unlikely to be universal.

It appears that newly issued Chilean national identity cards indicate if the bearer has a professional title, including architect. Over time, this system will make it possible for the public to know easily whether or not a particular professional holds the relevant title. But there is currently no online database, for example, that would enable a member of the public to check whether or not a particular person holds the title.

Once the title of architect is obtained, it is held for life. There are no continuing education or professional development requirements. The title does not have to be renewed at set intervals. However, a career as a professional architect in Chile also requires municipal authorization, known as a "patent". This authorization must be renewed, upon payment of a fee, every six months. There is no examination or continuing professional development requirement linked to renewal of the municipal patent.

Engineering

The regulatory regime for engineers is very similar to the one for architects. Once again, the profession is not licensed in the strict sense: "engineer" is a professional title based on a course of study, not a license given out by the state. The course of study is of similar length, i.e. typically six years. The legal framework governing engineers does not generally reserve activities to the exclusive purview of titled engineers, with the exception of certain works related to the robustness of structures to seismic events, which are relatively common in Chile and represent a particularity of the economy's geology.

Anecdotal evidence suggests that unlike with the case of architects, where the degree denotes a well-defined specialty, the term "engineer" or "engineering" is applied to a multitude of diplomas, only some of which are connected to the historical sense of the term, covering disciplines like mechanical engineering, civil engineering, and electrical engineering. An example cited in interviews was tourism: it appears that in cases like this, some universities use the term "engineer" in an attempt to give a certain social status to degrees in other areas, given the prestige that has historically attached to the engineering profession in Chile, as in many other economies.

The process for a foreign qualified engineer to obtain the corresponding Chilean title is essentially the same as for architects. The central player is again the University of Chile, which is responsible for examining certified translations of diplomas and ensuring that they match their Chilean counterparts. Again, recourse is frequently had to individual course descriptions and curricula, and candidates can be required to undertake further courses or sit exams in order to demonstrate full compliance with the established course of study in Chile. Again, the title of engineer is based on university qualifications, not a license granted by the state. As in the case of architecture, the title is granted for life, without any requirement that the holder undertake continuing education or training.

The most regulated part of the engineering profession is structural design, which overlaps with architecture. Again, designs have to be certified by a Chilean titled engineer. They are also subject to peer review, which can only be performed by engineers registered with the Housing Ministry.

As in the case of architecture, the College of Engineers is a professional association. Membership is not obligatory, and is not linked to the ability to practice as an engineer. Again, there is no

comprehensive register of engineers in Chile that can easily be consulted by the public. There is a special register for foreign engineers practicing temporarily, but its coverage is unlikely to be universal.

ANNEX 2: KEY POINTS FROM THE PERU CASE STUDY

The proportion of Peru's services trade accounted for by other business services, including professional services, increased by around 1.7 times between 2005 and 2016, reaching a peak of just under 8%. There is a clear upwards trend over time. In more recent years, the upwards trend is uninterrupted, which suggests that trade in this services category is growing more rapidly than services trade as a whole. APEC plays a very important role in terms of Peru's trade in other business services, including professional services. The proportion is relatively steady over time, at just over 60% of all business sector services trade This finding is significant, as it suggests that although Peru's neighbors in the Latin American region share cultural, linguistic, and institutional similarities, the proportion of trade accounted for by the much more diverse APEC is in fact very significant.

Architecture

The architecture profession is regulated by law in Peru. Architecture is a five-year long university course. Most courses include some amount of practical training, but the period varies from university to university. Particularities of architecture in Peru include the risk of seismic activities, and the economy's rich cultural heritage, which both have implications for design and project management.

In addition to having a degree, professionals also need to be members of the College of Architects. Once approved as permanent members (cf. temporary membership, below), the authorization to practice is life-long. There is currently no requirement for continuing professional development.

There are three "tracks" for becoming a member of the College. Track A requires a diploma from a recognized Peruvian university, and is the most common track. Under Track B, people with a foreign qualification, whether of Peruvian or foreign nationality, can apply for permanent membership. This system can involve recognition of a foreign diploma, or its revalidation (see further below). The final option is Track C, which is a temporary license for one or two years, for foreigners. Approval is based on having a work contract, along with recognition or revalidation of the candidate's diploma. Foreign architects wishing to practice permanently in Peru go through Track C first, for a period of two years, shortened to one year if they have a higher degree.

A key issue is recognition or revalidation of diplomas. An independent agency, SUNEDU, is responsible for recognition, which is does for those economies with which Peru has an agreement, typically either a Mutual Recognition Agreement (MRA) or a Free Trade Agreement (FTA) that covers recognition of qualifications. There are currently 61 such agreements, including a number in APEC (Chile, Mexico, and Russia). SUNEDU's recognition procedure is rapid and not costly, which means that professionals from some APEC economies have relatively easy access to the Peruvian market.

For architects from economies where there is no recognition agreement in place, their diploma needs to be revalidated. This process is undertaken by an accredited Peruvian university, and takes substantially longer than recognition. The revalidation process involves presentation not only of a diploma, but also of course lists and other documents designed to demonstrate that the educational

qualification is substantially equivalent to a Peruvian one. Estimates of the cost for revalidation were around a few thousand dollars.

For architects seeking to access the local market through Tracks B and C, it is necessary to produce official documents with certified translations, although the recognition process is primarily based on the foreign university's official seal (apostille). However, there is no formal Spanish language requirement for architects. Once a foreign qualification is recognized or revalidated, issuing a professional license through the College takes around 30 days and costs less than $1,000.

It is important to be cognizant of the de facto reality of practice as an architect in Peru, in a context where firms and associations of course exist. In Peru, a licensed architect must sign and take responsibility for architectural plans, whereas a licensed engineer signs and takes responsibility for structural plans. As a result, it is common to have architectural firms where not all people undertaking substantive work are licensed: they can be assistants, consultants, or hold other titles. However, it must always be a locally licensed architect who signs off on the architectural plans. As a result, dealing with licensing is reputed to be relatively easy once the commercial opportunity has been secured.

The College maintains a register of architects licensed to practice in Peru. It is available online, and is readily consultable by the public. It is regulatory kept up to date, on a monthly basis. There are currently around 21,000 licensed architects in the economy, although it is impossible to know how many are actively practicing, given that the license is life-long. It is difficult to know exactly how many foreign architects have been licensed to practice in Peru, but the total number is thought to be around 1,000. No data are available on people either working informally, or under alternative job titles in larger architectural practices.

Engineering

Peru has a College of Engineers on much the same footing as the College of Architects. Regulation sets out the activities that only a licensed engineer can undertake, specifically performing engineering studies and works.

Engineering courses at Peruvian universities are typically of five years' duration. They can have varying requirements for practical experience, typically undertaken during university vacations and/or towards then end of the period of study. Engineering degrees are regarded as state degrees, i.e. they are not titles of the individual university where the study was undertaken.

As in the case of architecture, it is the College of Engineers that licenses professionals. The College consists of 28 local chapters, as well as a national committee. Each of these bodies can license new engineers. As in the case of architecture, for graduates from a Peruvian university, licensure requires presentation of their diploma and ongoing payment of fees. There is no requirement for continuing professional development, as the license is given for life, subject to the continued payment of fees.

For foreign engineers seeking to practice in Peru, there is a special temporary membership of the College that is available, much as in the case of architecture. Although it is a legal requirement for all practicing engineers in Peru to be members of the College, it is known anecdotally that not all practitioners in fact take out membership. As with architecture, the options of revalidation and

recognition are also available. Revalidation involves the examination by an accredited Peruvian university of an applicant's academic background, including a detailed consideration of courses undertaken.

In light of Peru's 61 agreements containing recognition provisions, it is also in theory an option for a candidate for an engineering license to use SUNEDU's recognition procedure, if she is from one of the economies covered by these agreements. In practice, applicants are likely to be subject to a more detailed examination.

As a matter of law, it is not just engineers who sign structural plans and other official documents who have to be registered. The requirement in fact extends to every person practicing as an engineer. But anecdotal evidence suggests that not everyone complies with this requirement. Although it is not legally possible for a foreign engineer to practice her profession in a Peruvian company without being licensed, the reality is that that in fact happens. It is impossible to estimate how many people, Peruvians and foreigners, practice as engineers without being licensed.