

International Mobility in Higher Education within the Pacific Alliance

Does economic affinity matter?

SUEYOSHI Ana

I. Introduction

Since its creation in 2011, the member states of the Pacific Alliance, Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru, have never ceased to emphasize in unison its business relevance within and outside the regional block, which functions as an articulated mechanism of economic policy, cooperation and integration that aims to enable a common space for further economic growth and higher competitiveness performance of its four nation members, by seeking to guarantee the free movement of goods, capital and people (Alianza del Pacífico, 2012). Within this context, cross-border student mobility at higher education level is one of the Pacific Alliance's cooperation programs that has proven to be successful in terms of its continuity, quantity, geographical coverage and multidisciplinary participation, since its launch in 2013.

Considering that the world trends in higher education, such as universalization, internationalization and marketization have not been foreign to the economies of this region, and that those trends in tertiary education at global level have been the result of the prevalence of neoliberal praxis in the last three decades, the purpose of the current paper is to provide with insights on the relationship between neoliberal economic policy and international mobility in higher education within the Pacific Alliance. Macroeconomic fundamentals that are conducive to growth and competitiveness underlie the region's clear outward-oriented economic model, whose positive outcome is associated with regional integration through the creation of global or regional value chains, being one of them, the formation of human resources at global or regional level.

II. The Pacific Alliance

From its conception in 2011, the Pacific Alliance that has primarily been focused on the economic integration of its member countries, Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru, undoubtedly has caught the attention of entrepreneurial, governmental and academic sectors, not only in its country members, but also in other 52 non-member observer states, in which, besides Latin American nations, there are others from North America, Africa, Asia, Europe and Oceania. As the Pacific Alliance deepens its regional integration in different areas, the international attention grows. Regarding economic integration, the Additional Protocol to the Framework Agreement in 2014 facilitates trade and establishes modern commercial practices in the areas of financial services, shipping, telecommunications, and e-commerce. Concretely the protocol liberalizes 92% of their regional trade, with the remaining 8% over the coming years. Likewise, the protocol offers better conditions for the small-medium enterprises (SMEs) to their entry into regional markets, boosting their international competitiveness (Alianza del Pacífico, 2014). The Pacific Alliance has also created the largest exchange market in the region through the Latin American Integrated Market (MILA, by its acronym in Spanish). Besides promoting the free movement of goods, services and capital, the Pacific Alliance also facilitates the free movement of people, as it has implemented the waiver of tourist and business visas for citizens of the regional block and other foreign residents. This measure promotes foreign intraregional tourism, and its members' inbound tourism. Moreover, it allows the citizens of the three South American nations to cross their common borders solely with their national identity documents.

Figure 1
The Members of the Pacific Alliance



Source: Alianza del Pacífico, 2017a.

1. Its members and their commonalities

Over the past three decades, the Pacific Alliance nations have clearly embarked on export-oriented growth strategies, having a particular interest in the Asia Pacific region, as it is evidenced by the multiple bilateral free trade agreements signed with nations of that area. It is important to mention that Chile, Mexico and Peru are members of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC). This economic strategy that pursues positive outcomes in the commercial and capital balances, as it is expected to increase and diversify exports and attract more foreign direct investment and capital influx, is aligned with neoliberal economic policies that were applied in Chile and Mexico from the beginning of the eighties, and Peru and Colombia one decade later, differing in timing, breadth and depth. In spite of going through a succession of administrations with ideologically opposite political affiliations, the four nation members of the Pacific Alliance have consistently kept the foundations of the economic growth model that relies on the external sector as an instrument for its insertion in the global economy, which is pivotal for growth and development. Macroeconomic stabilization has also been a necessary component of their neoliberal economic policies.

The Pacific Alliance as a block is the world's eighth-largest economy, with an accumulative GDP that accounts for over 38% of the GDP of Latin America and the Caribbean. It has a population of 217 million inhabitants, and a GDP per capita of more than

US\$ 16,000 (measured in purchasing power parity). In 2016, this region has received 41% of the direct foreign investment destined for the region. The same year, these countries' average inflation rate and average unemployment rate were 3.8% and 6.7%, respectively, and they grew 2.5% in average (Alianza del Pacífico, 2017a).

a. The Pacific Alliance vs. the MERCOSUR

The prevalence of left-wing populist governments during the first decade of this millennium, some of them associated with threatening political and democratic institutions, has given the last impulse for these four countries to joined forces and create this integrated block. The Pacific Alliance arises as a regional platform that attempts to detach from nations whose inward-oriented economic policies are hindering, not only their own economic growth, but also that of the Latin American region and the global growth. Intendedly or not, since its launch, the Pacific Alliance has been compared with the Southern Common Market, commonly known as MERCOSUR. It started as a custom union of four founding member states, Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay, in which asymmetry has been a permanent obstacle for deeper and further cooperation among its members. Over the years, due to other reasons, its economic and institutional relevance has also been challenged (Gómez-Mera, 2013), and Brazil, the largest economy, has arisen as a "natural" block leader, taking the initiative for the creation of other regional blocks, in which Brazil has reassured its hegemonic position in the Latin American and South American regions. The Community of Latin American and Caribbean States (CELAC) and the Union of South American Nations (UNASUR), both established by the end of the first decade of the current millennium, exemplify the efforts of the Brazilian foreign affairs officials for a major role in the region. CELAC does not include the United States and Canada, but it includes Cuba, as a contraposed alternative to the Organization of the American States (OAS), in which the United States' hegemonic role is uncontested. UNASUR is

a sub-regional block of South American states. In both, CELAC and UNASUR, Brazil arises as the largest economy and the most powerful in terms of geopolitics, and beyond question it becomes the most influential nation of the region in global politics. While in CELAC, Mexican presence imposes certain balance to the Brazilian hegemon, in UNASUR, the second largest economy, Argentina, is far from becoming a counterweight to Brazilian regional influence. In order to confront the overwhelming Brazilian leadership in Latin America, the Pacific Alliance with far less asymmetric issues, and therefore with a lack of a “natural” hegemonic power, gathers four economies that face the Pacific Ocean and are ready to horizontally cooperate among them.

b. Neoliberalism and Macroeconomic Stability

In spite of the fact that neoliberal economic policies were applied differently in terms of timing, breadth and depth across these four nations, Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru, there are salient common denominators among their main economic measures. Macroeconomic stability has provided the proper grounds for those economies to register high growth rates in comparison with other Latin American countries. The sound performance of the main macroeconomic indicators over the last three decades has been an important factor for their sustained economic growth and has set the basis for creating a proper environment for further development that relies on keeping an open economy toward international trade and investment, mainly.

**Table 1. The Pacific Alliance
Main Macroeconomic Indicators (2016)**

	Chile	Colombia	Mexico	Peru
Population million (1)	18.2	49.0	123.5	31.8
GDP (PPP) US\$ billion	439	689	2316	406
GDP per capita (PPP) US\$	24113	14130	18938	12903
GDP growth % (2)	3.0	3.0	2.3	4.0
Foreign Debt as % of GDP	3.8	25.5	18.5	10.3
Inflation Rate %	3.1	4.1	4.6	4.2
Unemployment Rate %	6.8	10.3	4.3	5.2

(1) Estimate for 2017.

(2) Estimate for 2018. International Monetary Fund, 2018.

Source: Alianza del Pacífico, 2017a.

Werner, 2018.

These four economies have been able to leave the stigma of the so-called lost decade of the eighties behind. Inflation and unemployment rates have been registering one-digit figures over the last years, and the external debt has been under the control of each country's government officials. The GDP per capita in all nation members has sustainably grown since the new millennium and for this year, according to the International Monetary Fund's projections, it is expected to be above the Latin American average, which is of 1.9%, including Venezuela, and 2.5% excluding this country (Table 1). This robust macroeconomic performance has led to improve these countries' financial risk indicators, which are provided by rating companies, such as Standard & Poor's, Fitch and Moody's. These market intelligence providers rate the Pacific Alliance members as “risk free, high quality and high repayment capacity,” qualification that is consistent with these countries' characteristic of being depositaries of a significant part of the foreign direct investment and capital inflows that are funneled to Latin American countries.

Likewise, according to the Global Competitiveness Index, Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru have improved their positions as a result of structural reforms in the public sector, tax system, labor law and pension reform. Out of 138 economies, Chile's competitiveness has been ranked 33rd, followed by Mexico, Colombia and Peru, that take 51st, 61st and 67th positions, respectively.

Regarding the structural reforms that were conducive to the implementation of a neoliberal economic model, there are differences in the breadth, depth and timing of the economic and institutional changes implemented in each country. However, their commonalities can be useful to understand better that economic neoliberalism has been a cohesive factor in this regional block.

There is an outward-oriented attitude that materializes in the dynamism of these four economies and their openness toward the free movement of goods, services, capital and people. In order to guarantee

these inflows and outflows, international trade was liberalized, as well as the international capital market. The financial system has been reformed, so it can respond to the needs of trade and investment, facilitating their competitiveness. The labor reform has also provided the private sector with more flexibility, that in turn has added into more adaptability to the rapidly changing global economy. Finally, the public sector has also been transformed, so that it could cope with its main role as a regulatory and promoting entity of the private sector dynamism. The public sector has gone through a downsizing process that could add efficiency to its operations, such as privatization of public enterprises, retrenchment programs, fiscal discipline, tax reform and enforcement of property rights. As the former-Minister of Foreign Affairs of Peru, Antonio García Belaunde, has stated, “the Pacific Alliance is based more on its affinity rather than its proximity” (the author’s own translation) (Martner, 2016).

2. The Pacific Alliance and its cooperation for student mobility

Besides the free mobility of goods, services and capital, the Pacific Alliance also promotes vigorously the free movement of people, which can be evidenced mainly by the visa waiver program, the facilitation of foreign inbound and its citizens’ intraregional tourism, and the student and labor cooperation programs. Aligned with these initiatives, “the Pacific Alliance seeks to encourage cooperation on aspects that significantly impact the comprehensive development of the member countries’ population and bolster the technology of their industries. To achieve this, ...[it] is focused on consolidating a student and academic movement platform, ...” (Alianza del Pacífico, 2017a).

a. The Platform of Academic and Student Mobility

Since 2013, each of the four member countries offers 100 scholarships and fellowships every year for the citizens of the other three member nations, which means that every year approximately 400 recipients participate in this program. Undergraduate

students represent 3/4 (300 scholarships) of the total, and the remaining 100 scholarships and fellowships are assigned to doctoral students, researchers and university professors. Until 2016, the application for this program was scheduled twice per year, but since 2017 there is only one annual application, while the number of scholarships and fellowships remains unaltered. This cooperation platform falls under the responsibility and administration of agencies designated by the government of each nation member. In Chile, the Chilean International Cooperation Agency (Agencia de Cooperación Internacional-AGCI) of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of that country; in Colombia, the Colombian Institute of Educational Credit and Technical Studies Abroad (Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo y Estudios en el Exterior-ICITEX); in Mexico, the Mexican Agency for International Development Cooperation (Agencia Mexicana de Cooperación Internacional para el Desarrollo-AMEXCID); and in Peru, the National Program of Scholarships and Educational Credit (Programa Nacional de Becas y Crédito Educativo-PRONABEC) are in charge of the annual announcement of the program, collection of the applications, selection of the recipients, and coordination with the institutes of higher education in the country of destination.

The 10 academic disciplines that are offered run the gamut: public administration, political science, international commerce, economics and finance, engineering, innovation, science and technology, environment and climate change, business, international relations, and tourism. Later, two other fields were added, gastronomy and sports science.

For undergraduate students, the scholarship covers one semester or a maximum period of 6 months, in which students are expected to take 4 courses. The scholarship consists on a monthly stipend, health insurance and the exemption of the tuition fees in the university of destination, which is possible thanks to the academic and student exchange agreement between the sending and receiving universities. The criterion for students’ eligibility is only his or her grades that

should be above certain specific grade, depending on the standards of each country (Alianza del Pacífico, 2017b).

b. The Program achievements

Since 2013 up to 2017, 1840 scholarships and fellowships have been granted to an equal number of recipients of the four nation members. As it can be observed in Table 2, the participation has gradually increased over the years, reaching to an almost 100%-assigned scholarships and fellowships. In spite of the fact that each country offers the same number of scholarships and fellowships every year, the applicants have shown certain bias regarding the destination country for international mobility. For that reason, even if 100 citizens of country A could receive the same number of scholarships from the other three countries (B, C and D) altogether, the A country could receive more or less inbound scholarship recipients from the other three countries. In other words, inbound mobility figures do not necessarily match outbound mobility figures for each country.

Table 2. Scholarships and fellowships offered by each country 2013-2016

	Chile		Colombia		Mexico		Peru		Total
	U	P	U	P	U	P	U	P	
2013	76	11	49	4	66	10	38	3	257
2014	80	20	92	9	84	16	92	6	399
2015	79	21	74	24	74	26	79	10	387
2016	72	28	73	27	75	25	82	15	397
Total	307	80	288	64	299	77	291	34	1440

U=Undergraduate

P=Postgraduate

Source: Prado (2016) and Alianza del Pacifico (2017b).

Over the years, Chile's inbound and outbound student numbers has shown the widest gap (see Table 3). This country is sending fewer students than receiving them. Traditionally, Chile's educational system has been regarded as one of the best in the Latin American region, and its institutions of higher education are of considerable prestige. During the last years, this country has achieved remarkable progress in terms of education attainment as can be evidenced in the results of the Program for International Students

Assessment (PISA). In the PISA results of 2015, Chile has ranked 44 in science, 48 in mathematics and 42 in reading comprehension, which are the best positions of a Latin American country in each category. Chile is followed by Colombia and Mexico that rank ten or fifteen positions behind, and Peru that is positioned 20 places below, depending on the subject. Likewise, Chilean institutes of higher education appeared to be at the top of several university rankings, right after Mexican and Brazilian universities.

Table 3. Platform of academic and student inbound and outbound mobility 2013-2016

	Outbound		Inbound		Total
	U	P	U	P	
Chile	208	37	307	80	-142
Colombia	302	85	288	64	+35
Mexico	361	82	299	77	+67
Peru	314	51	291	34	+40
Total	1185	255	1185	255	

U=Undergraduate

P=Postgraduate

Source: Prado (2016) and Alianza del Pacifico (2017b).

While there are fewer outbound students from Chile and there are more inbound students going to Chile to study, in the other three countries, Colombia, Mexico and Peru, there is a positive balance, as the number of outbound students is higher than the number of inbound students. Particularly, Mexico has the largest gap, while Colombia and Peru have similar figures. Chilean higher education institutions are absorbing all the imbalances originated in the number of inbound and outbound students from the other three countries. Along with this country-level bias, there is also a similar trend pertaining to the student allocation among institutions of higher education, bias that will be explained in detail in section III.

The applicants can choose among 12 disciplines of approximately 400 public and private institutes of higher education in the three countries. However, the participants have shown their preferences for some field of studies such as engineering, economics and finance, business, international relations, innovation, science and technology, and tourism, in this order. From largest cities and provincial areas, and from public and private sector, out of almost 400 institutes

of higher education, Mexican universities account for more than the half, less than 80 from Colombia, and the remaining 80, half from Chile and half from Peru.

III. A case study of an institute of higher education

In November of 2017 an interview was conducted to the person in charge of student mobility in one of the most prestigious private institutions of higher education, in Lima, Peru. Besides, giving a succinct balance of the last 5 years since this platform of student mobility started, detailed information regarding the number of inbound and outbound students, as well as sex, nationality, university affiliation, or university of destination in the case of the outbound students, and field of study, the latter only for the outbound students, was also provided.

(1) Inbound and outbound figures

Table 4 shows that outbound students from this university have only participated in the first two years of this program. While during the first year almost all applicants from this university were granted the scholarships, in the second year, in 2014, this number decreased drastically. In 2015, there were applicants, but no one became recipient of the Pacific Alliance scholarship. In 2016 and 2017 even the number of applicants showed a declining trend, due mainly to the lack of motivation among the students, who considered their chances for being granted a scholarship very low or even null. Students from this institution of higher education that participated in this program of international mobility during the first two years, were concentrated in solely two countries, Mexico and Chile, and in six institutes of higher education, with which the surveyed university has signed academic agreements that make possible their participation in this platform of student mobility in the Pacific Alliance. Also, it can be observed that international mobility takes place within few disciplines or faculties, such as political science, business and engineering.

Table 4. Outbound student mobility in a Peruvian private university 2013-2015

	Sex	IHE	Country	Discipline
2013-I	M	U. Aut. Metropolitana	Mex.	Political Sc.
	F	Tec. Monterrey	Mex.	Business
	F	U. Guadalajara	Mex.	Engineering
2013-II	F	P. Univ. Católica	Chi.	Business
	M	Tec. Monterrey	Mex.	Engineering
	M	Tec. Monterrey	Mex.	Engineering
	F	Politécnico Nac.	Mex.	Business
2014-I	F	U. Mayor	Chi.	Engineering
	F	Tec. Monterrey	Mex.	Political Sc.
2014-II	M	U. Aut. Metropolitana	Mex.	Engineering

Source: Surveyed university (2017).

Table 5. Inbound student mobility in a Peruvian private university 2013-2015

	Sex	IHE	Country
2013-I	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	U. Austral	Chi.
	F	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	F	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	F	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
2013-II	M	U. Austral	Chi.
	F	U. Valparaíso	Chi.
	F	U. Aut. Metropolitana	Mex.
	M	Instituto Politécnico Nacional	Mex.
	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	F	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	Instituto Politécnico Nacional	Mex.
2014-I	F	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	F	U. Valparaíso	Chi.
	F	U. Valparaíso	Chi.
	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	F	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	F	U. Valparaíso	Chi.
	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	F	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	Instituto Politécnico Nacional	Mex.
	F	Instituto Politécnico Nacional	Mex.
	F	Instituto Politécnico Nacional	Mex.
2014-II	M	U. Valparaíso	Chi.
	F	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	F	U. del Norte	Col.
	F	U. Aut. Del Estado de México	Mex.
	F	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	U. de Colima	Mex.
2015-I	F	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	U. Guadalajara	Mex.
	M	Pontificia Universidad Javeriana	Col.

M=Male

F=Female

Source: Surveyed university (2017).

Pertaining to inbound students, Table 5, much

longer than the previous Table 4, shows that the number of foreign students has been much higher than the number of students affiliated to the surveyed university, and that most of them are coming from Mexico, from public state universities, particularly from Guadalajara University. More than 2/3 of the inbound students from Mexico are sent by this university. Unfortunately, there is no information about their field of studies or faculty affiliation.

(2) Several biases

In many aspects, student mobility has been biased in both, inbound and outbound flows that were received and sent, respectively, by the surveyed university. First, there is a negative gap regarding net outcome of inbound and outbound student figures. In Table 6 that summarizes this university participation from 2013 to 2015, it can be observed that while the number of inbound students totaled 39, the number of outbound student barely reached 10, for the same period, which means that the number of incoming students almost quadrupled the number of the outgoing students. Second, there is a clear bias pertaining to the country and even the institute of higher education of affiliation, with which student mobility is conducted. Mexican universities account for more than 3/4 of the total cases of student mobility, in the case of inbound students, and more than 4/5 of the total number in the case of outbound students. Moreover, as it was mentioned before more than 2/3 were affiliated to Guadalajara University. Third, there is also a marked bias in respect to the field of studies or faculty of affiliation of the outbound students. Unfortunately, there was no similar information for the inbound students. In Table 4, it can be evidenced that out of 10 outbound students, half pursued studies in the faculty of engineering (general engineering (3), mechanical engineering (1) and civil engineering (1)), two in political science and the same number in business.

Table 6. Student mobility in a Peruvian private university inbound and outbound 2013-2015

	Inbound			Outbound		
	Chi.	Col.	Mex.	Chi.	Col.	Mex.
Males	3	1	16	0	0	4
Females	4	1	14	2	0	4
Total	7	2	30	2	0	8

Source: Surveyed university (2017).

Regarding gender, there is no bias, as it can be seen in Table 6. In fact, the figures of male and female students appear to be the results of a careful selection process, in which gender equality was considered to be highly relevant.

(3) Eligibility issues

As the interviewee showed me the unbalance between the inbound and outbound student figures, it could be noted that this person's main concern was that this institute of higher education only participates as recipient of inbound students, and that this fact may threatens the future participation of this university in the program. This has clearly demotivated students from this university, who lately are even reluctant to start the application process. The interviewee explained that the criteria for the selection process are the same for all citizens of every nation member, but operationalized by the governmental agency responsible in each country. In the case of Peru is PRONABEC, which besides the student's grades, could be taking into account additional variables related to affirmative action policies such as, gender equality, geographic diversity, urban decentralization and minority rights.

IV. Economic neoliberalism and recent trends in higher education in the Pacific Alliance

According to Amano (2014) there are three megatrends in higher education. The first one is the shift toward "universal" access to higher education, that has been described as a steady increase of the enrollment rates over time, leading to a massification of a service once considered to be a privilege of the

elite. The second trend is marketization, as there is a gradual privatization process in the last years. Public funding has constantly decreased and it has been replaced by the households' budget, in which higher education and everything that entails are like other services, whose consumption is evaluated in terms of cost-benefit. At aggregate level, higher education supply responds to the education demand in the market economy. The third trend is globalization, that has narrowed spatial distances by facilitating more accessible transportation and communication all over the world. Economic liberalism is at the center of these three megatrends, which have also impacted Latin American countries, particularly, the Pacific Alliance members, in which neoliberal economic policy has prevailed in the last decades, as it was analyzed previously.

1. Higher education in the Pacific Alliance

The wave of neoliberalism did not sweep Latin America without repercussions, particularly its effects and outcomes can be evidenced in the Pacific Alliance member nations. Domestic and international openness and liberalization became key words that pervaded not only the economic sphere, but also other sectors that had been kept out of the domain of the free-market forces, because they were considered to be of "different" nature, or because the decisions that were supposed to be taken in it, were based on other variables that differ from those of cost-benefit analysis. Following the megatrends, commodification and internationalization processes have led to higher enrollment rates in the Pacific Alliance (Solanas, 2014). Higher education has been accompanied by a steady increase of cross-border student mobility, as universities have created the institutional mechanisms in which student exchange takes place, such as academic agreement between institutes of higher education, study abroad programs and short-term international internships. Also, the benefits of the globalization process through more accessible transportation and communication have helped this trend.

For the Pacific Alliance members, the opening of their economies toward the global market, mainly through trade and investment, has also meant technology transfer, innovation and improvement of competitive standards. However, in the case of higher education, the market forces work mostly domestically, but not internationally. This is what Kariya (2014) has called "imagined competition," in the case of Japan. According to him in order to have international competitiveness, the education field should exist in a market where real competition takes place on an international level. For example, there is need for reliable and standardized rankings that qualifies universities, from which students can take decision across countries. Also, for the sake of students' free mobility and therefore decision making, the institutions of higher education should provide transparent and accountable information regarding admission, curriculum, requirements for graduation, among others. A lingua franca that it could be English, arises as an important factor for information availability and decision making. Finally, Kariya points out that in education, international competition does not exist in the same sense we find in global markets, as the consumers, the students, still cannot move massively, from one country to another, seeking the best education system. The same happen for the supply and demand of "labor" in the education field, Professors and teachers have more mobility than before, but this human capital is yet so far away to be considered cross-border high-skilled labor that responds to the international job-market in the educational sector.

2. Education and competitiveness in the Pacific Alliance

The Platform of Academic and Student Mobility in the Pacific Alliance has been analyzed by Aguilar (2016). She emphasizes its role as a cooperation program that strengthens the integration process, as she calls it an "instrument" for deeper integration. This paper does not only collect her findings, but also attempts to go beyond them by suggesting that

this cooperation program can become a trial for the establishment of a common higher education sector to all four members of the Pacific Alliance, that operates under market forces. There are several arguments in favor of sustaining that. First, there is a lingua franca in the region, which is Spanish, their geographical proximity can facilitate the creation of a free market for the demand of education services, and for the labor supply associated with it. Transparency and accountability about admission, studies and graduation processes are provided by most prestigious institutes of higher education in the Pacific Alliance, so the students can rely on them and take the best decision for their nascent careers. The fact that rankings can be trusted or not, is a difficult issue. There are several rankings that offer information about the universities in the area, but they present the same shortcomings pointed out by Kariya (2014).

3. Global Value Chains in the Pacific Alliance

“International production, trade and investment are increasingly organized within so-called global value chains (GVCs), where the different stages of the production process are located across different countries. [...]. Firms try to optimize their production processes by locating the various stages across different sites” (OECD, 2018). It entails the full range of operations that are needed for a product since its design, production, distribution, marketization and commercialization. Usually, GVCs have been associated with production chains that essentially refer to the industrial manufacturing process. However, as GVCs could be any fraction of the production process, education is an important component of it that can strengthen competitiveness and foster innovation. The Platform of Academic and Student Mobility is a mechanism for the creation of GVCs in the Pacific Alliance as they bring students from the four member states to be in contact with students with similar field-of-studies background, benefiting from the strengths offered by the institutions of higher education of the destination country. Through GVCs, international division of labor can be conducted in detailed at each

step of the production process, which can be associated to very specific fields or disciplines, in which each member of the Pacific Alliance could particularly excel at. For instance, Aguirre (2016) quotes that Chile is highly demanded as a destination country for the students who are interested in international mobility in the area of engineering, because institutes of higher education in this country have been recognized as one of the top-notch institutions in the area. Aguirre’s findings point in the same direction as the information collected from the survey conducted in 2017. Colombian universities are demanded for their business programs, while Peru for tourism and agronomy. In the case of Peru, being one of the most popular tourist attractions in the region and the recent development of its gastronomy at global level can explain these results. Finally, students look forward to study political science, international relations and tourism in Mexico.

V. Final discussion

The Platform of Academic Student Mobility in the Pacific Alliance can be considered one of the most successful cooperation programs, judging by its quantitative and qualitative results in Latin America. As it was suggested by the existent literature, it serves as an instrument for deeper and further integration, but it also can be an instrument that can lead to the creation of Global Value Chains in the formation of human resources, considering that each nation member possesses different strengths, depending on the discipline or field of studies. The nation members, in this respect, rather than academically compete, they complement each other, in a very fractured international division of labor.

Finally, student mobility takes place in four countries where their long-term economic policies and development strategies share significant commonalities, which will set the guidelines for the studies and career of students who participate in this international mobility program. The program offers scholarships and fellowships precisely in the areas that the four countries have considered to be relevant for

gaining competitiveness and promoting innovation. The fields of studies covered by the program are those related to engineering, business and finance and international relations.

References

- Aguilar Baca, Jaqueline (2016) *La Cooperación Académica como un instrumento para la integración regional en la Alianza del Pacífico: el Caso de la Plataforma de Movilidad Estudiantil y Académica*, Tesis para obtener el grado de maestra en cooperación internacional para el desarrollo, Instituto Mora, Mexico, https://mora.repositorioinstitucional.mx/jspui/bitstream/1018/137/1/Jacqueline%20Aguilar%20Baca%20_%20La%20cooperación%20académica%20como%20un%20instrumento%20para%20la%20integración.pdf#search=%27institute+mora+Aguilar+ Baca+alianza+del+apacifico%27 (accessed on May 11, 2018).
- Alianza del Pacífico (2012) *Acuerdo Marco de la Alianza del Pacífico*, <https://alianzapacifico.net/download/acuerdo-marco-de-la-alianza-del-pacifico/> (accessed on May 11, 2018).
- Alianza del Pacífico (2014) *Protocolo Adicional al Acuerdo Macro*, <https://alianzapacifico.net/download-category/protocolo-adicional-al-acuerdo-marco/> (accessed on May 11, 2018).
- Alianza del Pacífico (2015) *Plataforma de Movilidad Estudiantil y Académica, Gestión 2013-2015*, <https://alianzapacifico.net/download-category/informes/> (accessed on May 11, 2018).
- Alianza del Pacífico (2017a) *Pacific Alliance Business and Investment Guide*, http://www.rree.gob.pe/Documents/2017/Pacific_Alliance_Business_and_Investment_Guide_2017-2018.pdf#search=%27entrepreneurs+visa+pacific+alliance%27 (accessed on May 11, 2018).
- Alianza del Pacífico (2017b) *Beca Alianza del Pacífico, Convocatoria 2018*, https://www.pronabec.gob.pe/2018_Becas_AlianzaPacifico.php (accessed on May 11, 2018).
- Amano, Ikuo (2014) "International Competitiveness of Universities in a Global Age, Globalization and Higher Education Reforms in Japan: The Obstacles to Greater International Competitiveness," *Nippon*, <https://www.nippon.com/ja/in-depth/a02801/> (accessed on May 11, 2018).
- Cairns, David (2017) "The Erasmus undergraduate exchange programme: A highly qualified story?" *Journal Children's Geographies*, vol. 15, issue 6, 728-740.
- Chan Sánchez, Julio (2015) "Perú, las cadenas globales de valor y la cooperación en la Alianza del Pacífico," Roldán Pérez, Adriana (ed.) *La Alianza del Pacífico: plataforma de integración regional con proyección al Asia Pacífico*, Fondo Editorial Universidad EAFIT, 107-144.
- De la Mora Sánchez, Luz María (2015) "Movimiento de personas de negocios y facilitación de tránsito migratorio en la Alianza del Pacífico," Roldán Pérez, Adriana (ed.) *La Alianza del Pacífico: plataforma de integración regional con proyección al Asia Pacífico*, Fondo Editorial Universidad EAFIT, 107-144.
- Gómez-Mera, Laura (2013) *Power and Regionalism in Latin America*, the Politics of Mercosur, University of Notre Dame Press.
- Kariya, Takehiko (2014) "Japan's Drifting Education System, Higher Education and the Japanese Disease," *Nippon*, https://www.nippon.com/en/simpleview/?post_id=4108 (accessed on May 11, 2018).
- Martner, Gonzalo D. (2016) "¿Pueden converger Mercosur y la Alianza del Pacífico?" *Estudios de Política Exterior*, n. 77, <https://www.politicaexterna.com/articulos/economia-externa/pueden-converger-mercosur-y-la-alianza-del-pacifico/> (accessed on May 11, 2018).
- Morales Martín, Juan Jesús and Consuelo Manosalba Torres (2016) "Dilemas y tensiones alrededor de la Plataforma de Movilidad Académica y Estudiantil de la Alianza del Pacífico," *Universidades UDUAL Mexico*, n. 69, 1-13.
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2018) *PISA 2015, Results*

in Focus, <https://www.oecd.org/pisa/pisa-2015-results-in-focus.pdf#search=%27Chile+rank+pisa%27> (accessed on May 11, 2018)

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Global Value Chains, <http://www.oecd.org/sti/ind/global-value-chains.htm> (accessed on June 1, 2018)

Organization of American States (OAS) (2018) *Foreign Trade Information System (SICE)*, http://www.sice.oas.org/TPD/Pacific_Alliance/Pacific_Alliance_e.asp (accessed on May 11, 2018)

Prado Lallande, Juan Pablo and Rafael Velázquez Flores (2016) “La Alianza del Pacífico: comercio y cooperación al servicio de la integración,” *Revista Mexicana de Política Exterior*, n. 106, 205-235.

Solanas, Facundo (2014) “Intercambio cooperativo versus mercantilización competitiva: las políticas de movilidad académica en el MERCOSUR y la Unión Europea,” *Revista Iberoamericana de Educación Superior*, Número 12, Vol. V, 3-22, <https://www.ries.universia.unam.mx/index.php/riearicle/view/107/424> (accessed on May 11, 2018).

Werner, Alejandro (2018) “Latin America and the Caribbean in 2018: An Economic Recovery in the Making,” *IMF Blog, insights and analysis on economics and finance*, International Monetary Fund (IMF), <https://blogs.imf.org/2018/01/25/latin-america-and-the-caribbean-in-2018-an-economic-recovery-in-the-making/> (accessed on May 11, 2018)

太平洋同盟の高等教育における学術モビリティ

～経済的な親和性との関係性～

スエヨシ・アナ

概要

本研究は、2011年にチリ、コロンビア、メキシコとペルーが締結した太平洋同盟の「学術モビリティ」に着目し、「グローバル・バリュー・チェーン (GVC)」との関係構築と域内の人的資本の形成との関係を明らかにする。太平洋同盟は、財・サービス・投資・資本・人の自由移動を通じた国際競争の経済的ダイナミックスを基盤としている。

世界の高等教育の中で新自由主義の傾向として3つのメガトレンドがある。それは、高等教育のユニバーサル化、市場化とグローバル化である。この中で、学術モビリティはメガトレンドの1つの手段である。太平洋同盟内では2017年までに1,840人の奨学生(大学生と大学院生)の交流が推進された。同盟締結国は、年間100人の在学中の学生(大学生75%、大学院生25%)に奨学金を授与し1学期間の留学を認めている。大学教授と研究者の研修も対象とされている。

本研究は、学術モビリティが太平洋同盟国間の共通した政策・目的に沿った人的資本形成を促進していると究明した。その理由として、加盟国間の共通言語(スペイン語)が学術モビリティを容易にしている。また、将来的な高等教育と労働市場の競合を生み出すことから太平洋同盟間の教育レベルにおけるCVGの形成にとっても主要たる観点であると結論付ける。

(2018年6月1日受理)