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# Mémoire professionnel de fin d'études

**Les relations Pérou-Espagne à travers les opportunités de  
coopération éducative : Vers un nouvel accord-cadre de  
coopération ?**

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# **“Peru-Spain Relations through Opportunities in Educational Cooperation: Towards a New Cooperation Framework Agreement?”**

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## **Abstract**

This thesis is centered on intensifying bilateral relations through educational cooperation between Peru and Spain. The first chapter traces the historical evolution of the relations between the two countries, spanning three centuries, with a particular focus on the evolution of education-related activities. Moreover, it delves into fundamental concepts, drawing upon literacy related to bilateralism, educational cooperation, soft power and the internationalization of higher education. The second chapter meticulously examines the interests and national priorities of both Peru and Spain concerning educational cooperation strategies. It sheds light on relevant agreements and mechanisms that elucidate the current objectives of these nations. In the concluding third chapter, the document amalgamates the significance of Peru and Spain's shared trajectory, proposing a new model of cooperation framework agreement in order to improve their relations. This model is designed to harmonize with the dynamics of the contemporary international system, adeptly addressing the challenges and opportunities that both countries currently face.

**Keywords :** bilateralism, educational cooperation, soft power, internationalization, higher education, Peru, Spain.

## **Résumé**

Ce mémoire est centré sur l'intensification des relations bilatérales par le biais de la coopération éducative entre le Pérou et l'Espagne. Le premier chapitre retrace l'évolution historique des relations entre les deux pays, qui s'étendent sur trois siècles, en mettant l'accent sur l'évolution des activités liées à l'éducation. En outre, il se penche sur les concepts fondamentaux, en s'appuyant sur la littérature relative au bilatéralisme, à la coopération éducative, au soft power et à l'internationalisation de l'enseignement supérieur. Le deuxième chapitre examine minutieusement les intérêts et les priorités nationales du Pérou et de l'Espagne en ce qui concerne les stratégies de coopération éducative. Il met en lumière les accords et les mécanismes pertinents qui élucident les objectifs actuels de ces nations. Dans le troisième chapitre, qui conclut le document, la trajectoire commune du Pérou et de l'Espagne est synthétisée et un nouveau modèle d'accord-cadre de coopération est proposé afin d'améliorer les relations entre les deux pays. Ce modèle est conçu pour s'harmoniser avec la dynamique du système international contemporain, en répondant habilement aux défis et aux opportunités auxquels les deux pays sont actuellement confrontés.

**Mots-clés** : bilatéralisme, coopération éducative, soft power, internationalisation, enseignement supérieur, Pérou, Espagne.

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## **Introduction**

Recognizing the pressing necessity to equip the international community for the impending global challenges through diverse cooperative forms, this thesis embarks on an exploration of education as an indispensable sphere for nurturing future professionals capable of seizing opportunities for progress. Education, akin to an engine powering the intricate machinery of society, attains its utmost significance when it assures the individual's development within the social framework, thereby playing a crucial role in a nation's overall advancement.

In light of these considerations, and amidst the backdrop of the 21<sup>st</sup> century's transition to a multipolar global order, coupled with emerging interests and priorities for both Peru and Spain, this document scrutinizes the potential for elevating their relations through collaborative bilateral efforts in education. Special emphasis is placed on the internationalization of higher education as a central pillar of this collaboration, given its effect on personal growth, societal advancement, and the progress of human knowledge and civilization.

The selection of Peru and Spain as case studies is particularly compelling due to their intricate historical relations, evolving from colonial rule to independent nationhood, which offers a rich backdrop for examining how key subjects like education have not only influenced their past but also hold the power to shape and enhance their contemporary bilateral relations. Additionally, both nations are actively looking to expand their roles in international affairs, making them relevant for understanding how smaller or medium-sized countries can leverage cooperation to improve their global influence and contribute to a more equal and multipolar international system.



To convey these ideas effectively, the thesis is structured into three chapters and a conclusion. The first chapter deepens into the historical relations between Peru and Spain, inspecting the most important events from the 19<sup>th</sup> to the 21<sup>st</sup> century that have configured their current bilateral ties, especially in education. Moreover, this chapter provides definitions of key concepts, including bilateralism, education as a form of soft power and international cooperation. For this last aspect, educational cooperation will take a central place as well as the internationalization of higher education.

Moving to the second chapter, an evaluation of the dynamics of educational cooperation is presented, accentuating its implications for both Peru and Spain. This part begins with an overview of the broader Latin American region before delving into specific issues within the two countries under analysis. Armed with an integral understanding of their respective educational landscapes, existing collaborative efforts and current mechanisms for cooperation, this segment will set the stage for the subsequent discussion.

The third and final chapter takes a critical look at the information and findings previously reviewed. It uses an impartial perspective to propose a fresh framework agreement for educational cooperation between Peru and Spain that coincides with today's objectives of both nations in this domain. The proposal underlines the relevance of higher education as the primary driver of personal and national development. Finally, the conclusion synthesizes findings, providing an structured summary of the entire study.

## **1. Chapter I: Historical Evolution and Contextual Framework of Peru-Spain Educational Cooperation**

### **1.1. Historical Relations between Peru and Spain**

After the discovery of America, numerous expeditions were launched to explore the uncharted territories of the New World. Intrigued by rumors of unimaginable riches and enticed by prospects of acquiring titles and influence, many Europeans sought opportunities to improve their own impoverished social circumstances. Against this backdrop, the Spaniards became the pioneering explorers to reach Peruvian lands in 1526, as they made their way into the city of Tumbes. Six years later, their arrival would lead to the conquest of Peru, marking a crucial moment in the history of the country (Prescott, 1940).

As a result of its abundant resources and expansive territory, Peru swiftly rose to prominence as Spain's most significant colony. Recognizing its strategic importance, Spain established Peru as a viceroyalty in 1542, with Lima serving as its capital (De La Riva-Agüero, 1968). For three centuries, the Spaniards maintained dominion over Peru until its eventual decline, precipitated by the Peruvian emancipation. This period witnessed a flurry of uprisings, conspiracies, rebellions, major revolutions and warfare, ultimately culminating in the proclamation of Peru's independence in 1821. Although the decisive turning point arrived in 1824, with the victorious Battle of Ayacucho, where Spanish forces were decisively defeated, solidifying Peru's independence (Guerra, 2016).

#### **1.1.1. 19<sup>th</sup> Century: Establishment of Relations between Peru and Spain**

Following the birth of Peru as a republic, the two opposing sides engaged in negotiations and signed the initial treaties to determine their

respective fates. Among these treaties, the Capitulation of Ayacucho in 1824 held particular significance as it delineated favorable conditions for the Spaniards, specifically differentiating between the treatment of military personnel and civilians. For the former, options were presented allowing them to return to Spain with their passage financed by the Peruvian government, as well as receiving half of their salary while awaiting transportation. However, it was explicitly stated that they were not permitted to depart for any other occupied American destination. Furthermore, they were given the choice of joining the Peruvian army or relocating to another country alongside their families and properties. Conversely, civilians were granted the freedom to continue residing in Peru without repercussions for their past opinions or actions during the viceroyalty. Alternatively, they too could opt to migrate to another country accompanied by their families and possessions. Additionally, the rights concerning real estate would be respected for a duration of three years (Martínez Riaza, 2015).

By that time, Peru had already established its first constitution in 1823 (Basadre Grohmann, 2014), defining a relevant point for the country's political development. However, one final obstacle remained to be overcome. Despite the stipulations outlined in the Capitulation of Ayacucho, which also mandated the surrender of the Callao Square to the Peruvian forces, the Spanish military exhibited reluctance and staunch resistance, prolonging the relinquishment for several months. It was not until January 1826 that the Callao Square was finally handed over to the Peruvian forces (Martínez Riaza, 2015), marking a decisive moment in securing complete control and sovereignty over the territory.

Consequently, Peru aimed at acquiring international recognition. It was in 1839 that a significant event paved the way for the initiation of new relations between Peru and Spain. The Peruvian Congress, after careful evaluation of evidence showcasing Spain's willingness to acknowledge Peru as an

independent state, made the decisive move of opening its ports to the entry of Spanish vessels. However, progress in establishing formal diplomatic ties encountered obstacles in subsequent years. In 1841, a Peruvian consul in Bordeaux sought more direct communication by addressing the matter to the President of the Council of Ministers in Spain, but he received no response. In the same year, the Peruvian government designated Plácido Muñoz, a Peruvian diplomat, to serve as Consul in La Coruña. Regrettably, Muñoz's credentials were not accepted, as Peru had not yet been officially recognized as an independent state. Another attempt was made the following year, with José Valentín de Zubiría designated as Consul of Peru in Madrid. Nonetheless, this effort did not progress, further prolonging the quest for official recognition between Peru and Spain (Novak Talavera, 2001).

The primary impediment, despite Peru's persistence, lay in Spain's insistence on the recognition of expenses incurred during the wars of independence – a demand to which Peru was unwilling to accede. However, Spain would eventually relent on this issue. Meanwhile, certain steps were taken to foster closer ties between the two states. One of those involved Spanish and Peruvian vessels exchanging salutations offshore without the establishment of formal relations (Novak Talavera, 2001).

In 1853, a significant milestone was achieved in the relations between Peru and Spain with the signing of the Treaty of Peace and Friendship. This treaty included a crucial acknowledgment by Queen Isabel II of Peru's independence. But, despite this momentous development, the treaty did not receive the necessary ratification. The decision was influenced by specific phrases in the text that the Peruvian Minister of Foreign Affairs, José Gregorio Paz Soldán considered offensive (Novak Talavera, 2001). Additionally, the Peruvian president, Rufino Echenique, raised a significant objection to the clause in the treaty that imposed Peru's recognition of a national debt owed to

Spain for the expenses incurred during the struggle for independence. In response, the President argued that if Spain were to demand such recognition, then Peru should also be duly compensated in a similar manner for its own sacrifices and losses during that period (Chávez Aco, 2021).

Notwithstanding the impasse and potential tensions resulting from the aforementioned disagreement, Spain and Peru resolved to exchange consuls in their respective capitals. In 1855, Spain granted the *exequatur* to Mariano Moreyra, who became the first Peruvian consul in the peninsular country. It is important to note, however, that the appointment of consuls during that era did not carry the same weight as diplomatic agents representing a state, and hence did not imply an implicit recognition of Peru as an independent state (Chávez Aco, 2021).

Nevertheless, this initial achievement spurred further actions by the Peruvian government to attain its goal. Thus, in 1860, a representative named Pedro Gálvez was sent to Spain with the explicit purpose of negotiating the formal recognition of Peru as an independent state. Regrettably, Queen Isabel II declined to receive him (Novak Talavera, 2001), creating a difficult situation that along with other events would undermine any advancements made.

After a series of escalating incidents, including the death of a Spanish worker in Peru, the occupation of the Chincha Islands, and the capture of the Peruvian vessel "Iquique," tensions between Peru and Spain reached a critical level. To quell the growing dispute, negotiations between the two countries culminated in the signing of the Vivanco-Pareja Treaty in 1865. A controversial document that saw Peru capitulating to all Spanish demands, including the stipulation of a three million gold peso payment to cover Spain's expenses incurred during its intervention along the Peruvian coast. This decision sparked great public outcry, leading to several uprisings and ultimately the removal of

President Pezet's government. Therefore, when Chile declared war on Spain later that same year due to a separate altercation, a sentiment of unity swept over Peru, also fueled by its anger towards the Spanish mistreatment. In this context, Peru entered into a Treaty of Offensive and Defensive Alliance with Chile and subsequently declared war on Spain in 1866 (Novak Talavera, 2001).

Only in 1871, with the mediation of the United States, Peru and Spain reached an agreement for an indefinite armistice. Nevertheless, peace negotiations resumed several years later during the War of the Pacific that confronted Peru and Bolivia against Chile. Due to Spain's declaration of neutrality, the two countries were able to engage in discussions aimed at achieving peace. The successful signature and ratification of a new Treaty of Peace and Friendship occurred in 1879. The treaty outlined various commitments, including the resolution to set aside past altercations, the immediate exchange of diplomatic representatives and consuls, the establishment of agreements on commercial and navigation relations, and the mutual respect for the rights of citizens within their respective territories (Novak Talavera, 2001).

Intriguingly, as pointed out by (Chávez Aco, 2021), it is noteworthy that the treaty did not include a section for Spain's recognition of Peru as an independent country. This omission can be attributed to the fact that the recognition had already been considered accomplished through the acceptance of the diplomatic credentials of Domingo Valle Riestra as a Peruvian Plenipotentiary and Extraordinary Minister, which Queen Isabel II had received by the stipulated in the Treaty Vivanco-Pareja of 1865 (although it was never ratified by the Peruvian Congress). Furthermore, it is interesting to observe that the treaty did not make specific mention of the debt claimed by Spain from Peru as a result of the independence wars. An issue that had often resurfaced in the past and that blocked the establishment of formal relations.

To sum up, since 1821, Peru's primary objective was to gain recognition as an independent nation, with Spain playing a special part in this journey following nearly three centuries of colonization. While not explicitly stated, the Treaty of Peace and Friendship of 1879 is widely seen as evidence of this long-sought recognition, achieved after a tumultuous path marked by complications and even a war in 1866. This milestone not only reaffirmed Peru's rights and responsibilities on the international stage but also marked the continuity of Peru and Spain's relations based on a new foundation.

### **1.1.2. 20<sup>th</sup> Century: Normalization and Shaping of Diplomatic Ties**

In the latter decades of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, Peru and Spain embarked on a phase of peaceful and respectful relations. Like other American countries, Peru looked to Spain for assistance in several significant matters. A notable example of this cooperation was seen in 1887 when Peru and Ecuador agreed to submit their dispute over the delineation of their common frontier to the arbitration of the King of Spain. Similarly, following the 1879 war between Peru and Chile, both nations entrusted the King of Spain with the task of deciding crucial aspects of the plebiscite for the disputed cities of Tacna and Arica (Novak Talavera, 2001). These instances highlighted Peru's inclination to rely on Spain for addressing its most critical issues, a role that, in due course, the United States assumed when Spain proved unable to fulfill it (Martínez Riaza, 1998). This shift in responsibility would go on to shape the United States' influence over the region, significantly impacting the dynamics of regional politics and diplomacy.

Afterward, during the early years of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, Peru and Spain embarked on developing their bilateral agenda, engaging in cooperation across various fields, including the military, diplomatic, artistic and literary spheres. Additionally, both nations demonstrated their commitment to conflict resolution. Notably, on 11 May 1921, they celebrated the signing of the

Agreement for the Exchange of Diplomatic Pouches (Novak Talavera, 2001), solidifying their diplomatic ties.

Unfortunately, a couple of significant events redirected their attention to internal matters, inadvertently leading to a strain in their relationship. In Peru, the coup d'état orchestrated by Augusto B. Leguía in 1919 had already resulted in the voluntary resignation of several foreign diplomatic delegations, including that of Spain (Martínez Riaza, 1998). Concurrently, the outbreak of the Spanish Civil War acted as a catalyst that ultimately severed relations between the two countries.

At that turbulent moment, the Peruvian consulate in Madrid provided asylum to numerous Peruvians seeking expatriation (Novak Talavera, 2001), as well as several Spanish pro-nationalists, including many aristocrats. This action drew the attention of the Republican authorities, prompting them to intervene in the consulate's affairs in 1937. The perceived abuse of diplomatic immunity during this incident sparked a strong protest from Peru, expressing its displeasure. Consequently, Juan de Osma, the Peruvian consul in Madrid, was withdrawn from his position, culminating in the formal breakup of diplomatic relations between the two nations the following year (Nalvarte Lozada, 2016).

Fortunately, the disruption in their relations proved to be of brief duration. In 1939, Peru and Spain successfully reestablished diplomatic ties under the government of General Francisco Franco, with Peru becoming the second country in Hispano-America to recognize his government (Martínez Riaza and Moreno Cebrián, 2007). This momentous decision led to a mutual agreement between the two countries to elevate their diplomatic missions to the status of embassies. Both nations mutually agreed to elevate their diplomatic missions to the status of embassies. Consequently, Francisco Tudela y Varela became the first Ambassador of Peru to Spain, while Pablo Churrua Dotres



assumed the role of the first Spanish ambassador to Peru. Notably, as a gesture of goodwill, Peru reaffirmed its support for the reestablishment of relations with Spain, choosing not to align with other American countries such as Brazil, Chile, Guatemala, or Panama, which sought to withdraw their accredited ambassadors to Spain. In response to Peru's conciliatory stance, Spain demonstrated its willingness to reciprocate by commuting the death penalty of a Peruvian imprisoned in Alicante jail. An individual that had been accused of conspiring with the Republicans during the Spanish Civil War (Novak Talavera, 2001).

From the 1940s onward, the relationship between Peru and Spain flourished with the exchange of prestigious diplomats such as Oscar R. Benavides (former President of the Republic) and Raúl Porras Barrenechea (diplomat, historian and politician) from Peru (Novak Talavera, 2001), along with Fernando María Castiella (diplomat and politician) from Spain (Gómez-Escalonilla, 2003). Clearly, the majority of events centered around demonstrations of appreciation and cultural interactions.

Among the most relevant actions that underscored this era were various noteworthy occasions. Only in 1941, Peru received a Spanish delegation to commemorate the discovery of the Amazon River, General Francisco Franco was honored with the "Orden del Sol del Perú" (the highest distinction bestowed by the Peruvian state), and the Peruvian Chamber of Commerce was founded in Madrid. Similarly, almost at the end of the decade, Peru had already established 18 new consulates throughout Spain to accompany the growing Peruvian community in the country and both countries agreed to cede real estate in their respective territories for the operation of each of their diplomatic missions (Novak Talavera, 2001).

Furthermore, with the intention to preserve their historical ties and establish new legal frameworks, Spain and Peru signed an agreement of dual nationality in 1959. In a further display of openness, both nations also reached an agreement in 1960 to eliminate the requirement for diplomatic and official visas (Novak Talavera, 2001). These measures facilitated individuals to hold citizenship in both countries and streamlined travel and communication for the diplomatic sphere.

In the subsequent years, both countries would go on to celebrate numerous agreements focusing on technical and social cooperation, while also establishing and strengthening their formal commercial ties. Nevertheless, the collaboration in cultural matters continued to flourish, drawing in more prominent figures to Peru. A special occasion occurred in 1978 when the King and Queen of Spain, Juan Carlos I and Sofia, visited Peru, participating in the signing of various treaties across diverse areas (Novak Talavera, 2001).

The strength of the relationship was so evident that, even during challenging times, Spain showed unwavering support to Peru amid the difficulties posed by terrorism in the 1980s. A notable moment occurred in 1986 when the President of Spain, Felipe González Márquez, visited Peru and was warmly received by President Alan García. At this visit, the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Economy, and Culture also accompanied President González Márquez, pointing out their mutual commitment to the endurance of their partnership (Novak Talavera, 2001).

Additionally, in a strategic move to foster closer ties not only with Peru but with the entire group of Hispanic American countries, Spain became an associate member of the Organization of American States (OAS) in 1967 and later pioneered in acquiring the status of observer (once it was created) in 1972 (Secretaría General de la OEA, 2013). Furthermore, in 1985, Spain established

the Secretaría de Estado de Cooperación Internacional y para Iberoamérica – SECIPI (Novak Talavera, 2001), which focused on facilitating technical cooperation between Spain and the Ibero-American countries.

During the 1990s, Peru relied on Spain, along with other states, to address its external debt with the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and other multilateral credit agencies. At that time, Peru had US\$2,000 million dollars in expired debts. However, with the support of foreign investment and the improvement of its international image, the country's economy experienced a reactivation. For this last purpose and in a demonstration of solidarity, Spanish President José María Aznar visited Peru in 1998 and, the following year, Queen Sofía returned to Peru to engage in various cooperation projects that took place through the Sofía Foundation (Novak Talavera, 2001). A trend that continued throughout the 2000s.

On its part, Peru made history by undertaking its first official visit of a chief of state to Spain in 1991. President Alberto Fujimori mainly assisted to sign an agreement on investment, but the visit also served as a platform for both governments to chart the future course of cooperation in various crucial areas, including politics, economy, technical and scientific-technological collaboration, as well as education and culture (Novak Talavera, 2001). This groundbreaking visit not only strengthened diplomatic ties but also laid the foundation for fruitful collaboration in diverse fields.

In summary, during the 20<sup>th</sup> century, Spain and Peru forged common interests and provided mutual support during various critical junctures. This era marked a significant departure from previous centuries, as it represented the first time both countries engaged in relations as equals, addressing a wide range of topics on their agenda and within their foreign policies. Unlike earlier periods, their connections in the 20<sup>th</sup> century extended beyond political and economic

ties, including the expansion of cultural initiatives and educational cooperation as integral components of their partnership.

### **1.1.3. 21<sup>st</sup> Century: Modern Diplomacy**

According to the insights of the former Ambassador of Peru to Spain, (Vázquez Ayllón, 1969), profound connections not only link Peru but also the entire Latin America to Spain. Consequently, it comes as no surprise that their foreign policies exhibit common ground. Both nations share deep fundamental principles that underscore the universality of their international relations, unwavering adherence to the norms outlined by international law and the United Nations Charter, and a commitment to promoting peace and security through diplomatic negotiations and disarmament efforts. Additionally, they are aligned in their dedication to upholding human rights and contributing to the establishment of a new global order.

This shared likeness has greatly fortified the ties between Peru and Spain, with diplomacy acting as a cornerstone. In the 2000s, both nations showcased their eagerness for deeper engagements by signing two agreements: one concerning the unrestricted pursuit of remunerated tasks by dependents of diplomatic, consular, administrative, and technical personnel within diplomatic and consular missions, and another regarding the mutual exemption of visas for holders of diplomatic, service, or special passports (Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores, Unión Europea y Cooperación, 2023).

Their bilateral ties ascended to a more elevated echelon when they jointly embraced the signing of a Cooperation Framework Agreement in 2004 (Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores, Unión Europea y Cooperación, 2023). This document propelled Peru and Spain into a broader dimension of collaboration, providing the foundation for the promotion of strategies, programs and projects

aligned with their mutual interests and the overarching goals of their developmental policies. Through this framework, various forms of cooperation were established, encompassing technical, economic, financial, humanitarian assistance and educational domains (Ministerio de Educación, 2004).

In light of the positive strides resulting from this agreement, and with a commitment to update and amplify its provisions, both countries have expressed their intention to enter into a fresh Cooperation Framework Agreement. An aspiration that was manifested during the meeting of their foreign affairs ministries in Colombia, coinciding with the inauguration ceremony of President Gustavo Petro in 2022 (Diario Oficial El Peruano, 2022).

Additionally, in 2008, Peru and Spain introduced an alternative avenue to fortify their bilateral cooperation. The Strategic Partnership Plan, inked during the visit of Spain's King Juan Carlos I and Queen Sofia, positioned Peru as Spain's sixth strategic partner in Iberoamerica to formalize such an agreement (AFP, 2008). As time elapsed, this plan underwent a renewal in 2013, becoming known as the Renewed Strategic Partnership Plan. On this occasion, the agreement was signed in Lima during a visit by Mariano Rajoy, the President of Spain. The updated plan notably shifted its focus toward tackling social challenges and fostering educational collaborations (Andina, 2013).

Adhering to a strategic orientation towards collaboration, in subsequent years, Peru and Spain solidified their partnership with two more focused agreements in 2015. First, a Memorandum of Understanding on Inter-institutional Cooperation was established between the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Cooperation of Spain and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Peru. Secondly and simultaneously, a separate Memorandum of Understanding was forged between these two entities to facilitate the shared utilization of facilities

and infrastructure in Embassies and Consulates within third-party states (Oficina de Información Diplomática, 2021).

Moreover, their strong rapport was formally acknowledged in a 2019 Joint Declaration, titled “Spain and Peru: a Strengthened Strategic Relationship” (Oficina de Información Diplomática, 2021, p.7). This statement not only addressed their bilateral concerns but also touched upon their joint participation in international organizations and other shared interests. Notably, Peru highlighted its efforts to attain membership in the OCDE, emphasizing the support it had received from Spain toward this goal. Furthermore, the declaration reiterated their shared stance in advocating for the restoration of democracy in Venezuela (Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, 2019).

Beyond this, Peru and Spain have unequivocally demonstrated remarkable progress in their diplomatic ties through a series of official visits by their respective authorities in recent years. From 2012 to 2019, three Presidents of Peru made a total of 7 visits to Spain. While these visits were primarily aimed at expanding the bilateral agenda, they also included participation in events such as the Ibero-American Summit of Cadiz (Oficina de Información Diplomática, 2021).

Conversely, during the period from 2011 to 2021, one Spanish President conducted a visit to Peru, while members of the Spanish royal family made four separate visits. The visits by the royal family members coincided with the inauguration ceremonies of Peruvian Presidents on three distinct occasions (Oficina de Información Diplomática, 2021). However, among these visits, the one in 2021 held special relevance as King Felipe VI's presence marked the commemoration of the 200 years of independence of Peru.

Spain has effectively maintained its enduring historical connections not only with Peru but also with other Latin American nations, yielding prosperous outcomes that resonate within the broader context of the European Union. Looking ahead, it is intriguing to consider the potential impact that Spain's current presidency of the Council of the European Union might bring. Within just a month of assuming this role, Spain has already taken several steps to invigorate European-Latin American relations. One notable achievement was the organization of the EU-CELAC summit in July 2023, following an eight-year gap since the previous one in 2015 (Gómez Díaz, 2023).

In summary, Peru and Spain enjoy a solid diplomatic relation that has facilitated the way for extensive cooperation across a wide spectrum of mutual interests. Their growth and advancement is mainly accentuated on three key axes that will be explored next: a) economic conditions, b) security and defense and c) cultural exchange and education. While economic and security interests reflect aspects of hard power, cultural exchange and education have emerged as Spain's primary tools for establishing itself as the bridge between Europe and its former colonies.

### ***Economic Conditions***

Peru and Spain have enjoyed economic relations since their early interactions, but it was only in the 1950s that they formalized these ties with their first commercial agreement (Fernández, 2012). Prior to that, commercial relations between the two countries were conducted informally, which posed risks to the rights of the individuals and goods involved in this trade. By formalizing their economic cooperation, Peru and Spain laid the groundwork for a more structured and secure partnership.

Initially, commercial relations between the two countries may have been weak, but starting from the 1990s, a significant consolidation of economic exchange occurred. During this period, Spain began investing on a large scale in various sectors such as telecommunications, banking, energy, and finances in Peru. This surge in Spanish investment contributed to Peru becoming one of the most favored Latin American countries benefiting from the cooperation of Spain (Embajada del Perú en España, 2023c). The strengthened economic ties between Peru and Spain not only bolstered trade but also fostered mutual growth and prosperity.

Subsequently, the bilateral agreement between Peru and Spain became obsolete when the Free Trade Agreement (FTA) between Peru and the European Union, of which Spain is a part, came into effect on March 1, 2013 (Ministerio de Comercio Exterior y Turismo, n.d.). This agreement has proven highly advantageous for both parties, with a particular focus on the benefits it brings to exporter industries. The elimination of duties has fostered market stability and diversification, opening up new opportunities and enhancing trade relations between Peru and Spain within the broader framework of the European Union (Delegación de la Unión Europea en Perú, 2021). The FTA stands as a testament to the enduring commitment of both nations to promote economic growth and cooperation through mutually beneficial trade associations.

Today, Spain stands among the primary clients of Peru. In 2022, Spain secured the 11th position as a destination for Peruvian exports, with 2.7% of Peruvian products being shipped to this European nation. Remarkably, Spain ranked as the second most significant market for Peruvian exports within the European Union, trailing only behind the Netherlands. That year, Peruvian exports to Spain amounted to a total value of US\$1,622 million dollars. The products that saw significant demand in Spain included copper, fruits, and vegetables, such as avocados, piquillo peppers, asparagus, and others, along



with frozen seafood (Oficina Económica y Comercial de España en Lima, 2023).

On the other side, Spain held the 15th position among the most important importers to Peru in 2022. Accounting for 1.5% of the total imports, Spain emerged as the second major supplier to Peru within the European Union, following Germany. Key imported products included wood materials, machine parts and vaccines for human medicine, which along with other articles concentrated a total value of US\$905 million dollars (Oficina Económica y Comercial de España en Lima, 2023).

Furthermore, in terms of foreign investment in Peru, Spain has consistently occupied a prominent position. As highlighted by Magali Silva, the Minister of Foreign Trade and Tourism (MINCETUR) of Peru in 2015, Spanish enterprises have established a robust presence across every sector of the Peruvian economy, a trend that predates the signing of the FTA with the European Union (Diario Cinco Días, 2015). Similarly, in 2019, Spain's Minister of Industry, Commerce, and Tourism, Reyes Maroto, reaffirmed this position by officially declaring that to the date Spain was the leading foreign investor in Peru. Building upon this statement, Maroto expressed Spain's intention to take a step forward in their relations by starting negotiations for an agreement aimed at preventing double taxation with Peru. This agreement, which is currently under negotiation (Ministerio de Hacienda y Función Pública, 2023), would provide solid legal certainty for Peruvian and Spanish companies.

In the year 2022, Spain maintained its standing as the second-largest foreign investor in Peru, contributing to approximately 17.3% of the total stock of investment, equivalent to a substantial US\$5.228 billion dollars. Within this category, Spain was outranked only by the United Kingdom while Chile secured the third spot. This position has remained consistent since 2020, attributed

primarily to significant investments in sectors such as mining (22.9%), banking (21.8%), and communications (18.3%). Conversely, Peru's own foreign investment ventures are relatively modest, preferably concentrated in neighboring countries such as Bolivia, Chile, and Ecuador, where the services and food sectors are the main areas of interest (Oficina Económica y Comercial de España en Lima, 2023).

Likewise, within the tourism sphere, Spanish travelers have emerged as a significant economic resource for Peru. From 2019 to January 2023, Spain consistently secured a place among the top 10 countries from which tourists visit Peru, emerging as the leading European contributor. Its most remarkable achievement was in 2022 when Spain got an impressive fourth position globally. In the same manner, Spain holds a prominent spot as one of the preferred destinations for Peruvian tourists. The peninsular country has consistently ranked among the top 10 most chosen destinations for Peruvian travelers since 2019 to January 2023, with its peak at third place in 2022 (Ministerio de Comercio Exterior y Turismo, 2023). However, while both states experienced a decline during the COVID-19 period, recent trends point out a notable resurgence, with numbers steadily increasing and nearly reaching pre-pandemic levels.

The initial collaboration between Peru and Spain in tourism dates back to 1968 (Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores, Unión Europea y Cooperación, 2023). Nonetheless, the 2016 agreement between Peru and the European Union has further facilitated the movement of tourists by abolishing visa requirements, encompassing a maximum stay of 90 days (Diario Oficial El Peruano, 2016).

In more recent times, the ties of collaboration in tourism have grown stronger, exemplified by the signing of a memorandum of understanding between Peru's Ministry of Foreign Trade and Tourism (MINCETUR) and

Spain's Ministry of Industry, Trade, and Tourism (MINCOTUR) in 2020. This document was crafted to harness the tourism potential of both countries, focusing on responsible, sustainable, and accessible initiatives (Oficina Económica y Comercial de España en Lima, 2023).

Moreover, in the present year of 2023, Peru and Spain continue to enhance their tourism-related agreements. A noteworthy example includes the collaboration between the Peruvian Tourism Training Center (CENFOTUR) and the Spanish Ibero-American Academy of Gastronomy (AIBG). This partnership aims to drive tangible actions that promote gastronomy and tourism in Peru (Embajada del Perú en España, 2023a), exemplifying the dedication of the two states to nurturing their rich cultural and touristic offerings.

Shifting the focus to another economic dimension, Spain stands out as the second country hosting one of the largest Peruvian communities abroad, accounting for 15.4% after the USA (INEI, 2022). This demographic presence places Spain in the third spot as a remittance source for Peru. In the sole year of 2022, Peru received a substantial sum of US\$3724 million dollars in remittances, with an impressive 65% originating from three primary countries: the USA, Chile, and Spain (Oficina Económica y Comercial de España en Lima, 2023). Clearly, this financial inflow highlights the essential role played by the Spanish-based Peruvian community in contributing to Peru's economic well-being through the flow of remittances.

To conclude, it is important to emphasize that historically, the balance of trade has favored Peru (PromPerú, 2017). Spain has consistently participated as a robust partner in terms of exports and investments. Hence, supporting cooperative relations and strategizing for the continuous expansion of commercial interactions becomes imperative. Specifically, as outlined in the Economic Report from the (Oficina Económica y Comercial de España en Lima,

2023), there are still promising opportunities for Spain to explore. These include tourism, agro-industrial advancements, technological innovations, and telecommunications. By capitalizing on these opportunities, Peru and Spain can further solidify the bilateral agenda while tapping into the untapped potential that can mutually favor them.

### *Security and Defense*

Security and defense are concepts that can vary from one nation to another. As such, Peru and Spain have tailored their own definitions to suit their unique circumstances. For Peru, security embodies the assurance of the country's independence, sovereignty, and territorial integrity, along with safeguarding citizens' fundamental rights as enshrined in the Constitution. On the other hand, defense is characterized as a comprehensive framework of strategies, preemptive measures, and actions taken by the State to uphold its interests and protect its integrity (Ministerio de Defensa, 2006).

Spain, however, interlinks these terms more closely. For Spain, national security encompasses a holistic endeavor aimed at preserving the freedom and well-being of its population, ensuring the defense of the nation while upholding its constitutional principles and values (Ministerio de Defensa de España, n.d.). Despite this divergence in interpretations, both countries share a commitment to international collaboration in matters of security and defense, viewing such cooperation as relevant to the maintenance of global peace, according to what both Spain (La Moncloa, 2019) and Peru (Ministerio de Defensa, 2006) have openly declared.

Owing to the historical conflicts that persisted between Peru and Spain, from the post-colonial era until the regularization of relations in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the two countries refrained from engaging in substantive discussions regarding

security and defense matters. This backdrop led to the emergence of their first security and defense agreement in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Prior to it, their interactions centered around deliberations related to extraditions, migration issues, and social security considerations (Oficina de Información Diplomática, 2021).

Henceforth, the signing of the inaugural Cooperation Agreement between the Ministry of Defense of Spain and the Ministry of Defense of Peru in 2006 marked a crucial moment (Oficina de Información Diplomática, 2021). Within this document, both nations established the foundation for the Spanish-Peruvian Joint Defense Commission, which in 2022 celebrated its ninth session. Consequently, in 2010, this cooperation was further bolstered through the endorsement of the Specific Cooperation Agreement between, again, the Ministry of Defense of Spain and the Ministry of Defense of Peru. An extension that aimed to solidify Peru's collaboration with the Spanish public company ISDEFE, a specialized entity in defense systems, tasked with advising Peru on its future acquisitions (Anon, 2010).

Following this initial contact, the Ministries of Defense of Peru and Spain convened with their respective delegations in Lima in 2013. Their productive engagement led to the formulation of a joint declaration, wherein Spain expressed its willingness to establish a Spanish Defense Attaché Office at the Embassy of Spain in Peru. In a gesture of reciprocity, Peru decided to designate a Naval Defense Attaché to the Embassy of Peru in Spain. Furthermore, within this framework, Peru emphasized Spain's valuable assistance in organizing and classifying equipment, arms, and other military resources in line with the standards and protocols of NATO (Ministerio de Defensa de España, 2013).

In 2014, an initiative funded by the European Union was put in place to combat drug trafficking in Peru. Known as UE-ENLCD, the project was led by

FIIAP, a specialized Spanish cooperation entity, in close collaboration with law enforcement agencies from Spain, France, the United Kingdom, Germany and the Czech Republic. The project's primary focus was on training local experts in various areas, such as the interception of goods at airports and ports, investigation techniques and intelligence operations (FIIAPP, 2015). After a duration of four years, the project concluded in 2018, followed by the approval and confirmation of another phase of collaboration with Peru (FIIAPP, 2018). In 2022, this new phase facilitated a notable exchange, during which Peruvian judges and public prosecutors traveled to Spain to immerse themselves in the Spanish jurisdictional models and their management, with the aim of incorporating relevant practices into the Peruvian context (FIIAPP, 2022).

Then, in the following year of 2015, Peru and Spain ventured into another significant realm of security and defense by officially signing a Memorandum of Understanding for enhanced cooperation in the domain of cybersecurity (Oficina de Información Diplomática, 2021). An event that manifested a major step in addressing contemporary challenges in the digital landscape.

Building on this momentum, in 2018, they further solidified their partnership with the signing of a new Memorandum of Understanding between their respective ministries of defense. This particular agreement focused on fostering cooperation in the realm of armaments and defense material (Oficina de Información Diplomática, 2021), which was signed as part of the first visit to Peru by Felipe VI and Letizia of Spain since assuming the titles of King and Queen of Spain, succeeding their roles as Prince and Princess of Asturias (Fuente, 2018).

The most recent agreements were concluded in 2019. In February of that year, the two nations came to a consensus to collaborate in two critical domains.

Firstly, they committed to joint efforts in combatting crime, underscoring their shared commitment to security. Secondly, a significant aspect of their cooperation was the establishment of a framework for the reciprocal protection of classified information within the defense sector. And, lastly, both nations signed a technical agreement focused on cooperation within the military sphere, particularly pertaining to the management of natural disaster risks (Oficina de Información Diplomática, 2021).

Currently, in 2023, the Embassy of Peru in Spain, along with its Peruvian Police Attaché Office, arranged a meeting with the Police Cooperation Office of the Secretary of State for Security within the Spanish Ministry of the Interior in order to reaffirm the ongoing collaboration between the Peruvian and Spanish entities, particularly in tackling crimes linked to the production of narcotics, as well as the unlawful trafficking of drugs, psychotropic substances, and their precursors. This interaction falls within the ambit of the previously established Agreement on Cooperation in the Fight Against Crime, which formally commenced its implementation in March 2023 (Embajada del Perú en España, 2023b).

Finally, while Peru and Spain began their foray into the security and defense arena in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, their progress has been substantial and remarkable. It is clear that numerous prospective avenues for collaboration remain on the horizon. As an illustration, in April 2023, the Chief of Staff of Defense of Peru extended an invitation to and subsequently hosted the Chief of the Joint Command of the Armed Forces of Peru. The objective was to gain insights into the facilities and operational strategies of the Spanish armed forces (Ministerio de Defensa, 2023), potentially laying the foundation for a new dimension of partnership between the two.

### ***Cultural Exchange and Education***

Cultural relations between Peru and Spain have served as a foundational cornerstone, fostering the expansion of their partnership into various domains. The first pact related to this sphere was the Agreement on Artistic and Literary Property, inked in 1924. This initial stride laid the groundwork for subsequent accords, including the Agreement on Cultural Exchange signed in 1971 (Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores, Unión Europea y Cooperación, 2023). As a result, both countries intensified their interactions, spanning areas like culture, education, science, and technology (Embajada del Perú, n.d.).

Since then, the cultural dimension continues to stand as a key element for enhancing bilateral relations between these two nations. Spain's approach to cultural engagement in Peru demonstrates a well-defined strategy characterized by a more structured and transparent cultural policy. This is evident in the comprehensive framework of the Spanish cooperation strategy within the realm of the Spanish Agency for International Cooperation for Development (AECID). There are two principal pillars of Spanish cooperation in Peru: technical and cultural collaboration, with the latter prominently facilitated through the Cultural Center of Spain (CCE) located in Lima (Oficina de Información Diplomática, 2021).

In parallel, Peru, while not having instituted an analogous cultural strategy (Aguilar Pinto, 2020), has made major strides in promoting cultural enrichment over recent years. A noteworthy accomplishment occurred in 2017 when Peru agreed to establish its first cultural center in Madrid. An initiative materialized with the establishment of the Cultural Centre Inca Garcilaso within the premises of the Cervantes Institute (Instituto Cervantes, 2017). Functioning as the principal Peruvian cultural institution affiliated with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Cultural Centre Inca Garcilaso further bolsters Peru's engagement on the global stage and reaffirms its commitment to fostering cultural exchanges with Spain and beyond.



Given that one of the main objectives of the Spanish foreign policy is to bolster the Ibero-American Community of Nations, culture assumes a fundamental role. Spain's ambition is to assert a leading position within this community, so to achieve this, it relies on a traditional approach: cultural diplomacy. A strategy that involves the projection of a unique Spanish national identity through cultural elements, aiming to secure economic and political advantages with other countries (Aguilar Pinto, 2020).

On the other hand, Peru has not formalized a unified cultural promotion strategy for its international presence. Various entities such as the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Foreign Trade and Tourism (MINCETUR), Promperu and the Ministry of Culture operate independently in this regard (Diario Oficial El Peruano, 2020). Consequently, in recent years, non-governmental actors have come to the forefront in shaping the country's image internationally (Aguilar Pinto, 2020). A noteworthy example is Gaston Acurio, a Peruvian chef who has singularly transformed Peru into a culinary destination, contributing significantly to enhancing the country's global reputation (Ortega, n.d.). This dynamic shows a different evolving landscape of cultural promotion beyond government channels.

Despite these differences in approaches, both countries have effectively worked on their cultural bonds. Some of the most pertinent and recent advancements in cultural collaboration surfaced in 2019. In February of that year, Peruvian President Martin Vizcarra, during his official visit to Spain, formalized a Memorandum of Understanding concerning cultural cooperation, specifically focusing on the preservation and enrichment of historical and cultural heritage. Then, in July, another agreement materialized between the Cervantes Institute and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Peru as both entities joined forces to orchestrate Peru's hosting of the IX International Congress of the Spanish Language (CILE) in May 2022. An event that was commemorated

in the city of Arequipa (Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, 2019; Oficina de Información Diplomática, 2021).

Likewise, in 2021, Spain entered into an important agreement with Peru, marking a historic moment as no such document had ever been forged with an Ibero-American country before. The memorandum on cultural industries and copyright protection symbolized a new era in the trajectory of agreements between Spain and the Ibero-American nations (Ministerio de Cultura y Deporte, 2021).

Turning to the realm of education, it is worth highlighting the longstanding and multifaceted interactions that have transpired between Peru and Spain over the years. In fact, the historical roots of mutual engagement in education extend back quite some time. For example, the earliest agreement regarding the recognition of higher education academic degrees can be traced back to 1904 (Ministerio de Educación, 1904). Moreover, as the decade unfolded, the first Peruvian student census at the beginning of this period revealed a count of 1081 Peruvian students enrolled across diverse universities in Spain. A figure that culminated in around 2320 students by the end of the decade (Novak Talavera, 2001).

Further enhancing this educational tapestry, the first Peruvian minister to ever visit Spain was General Alfredo Arrisueño Cornejo, the Minister of Education. In April 1969, his presence held significant importance as it centered on discussions regarding the allocation of land for a school in Madrid and the reaffirmation of Spanish support for Peru's educational reform efforts (Puertas Porras and Maldonado Felix, 2007).

From this historical foundation, the previously mentioned Agreement on Cultural Exchange of 1971 generated subsequent modifications, like the

Additional Protocol of 1998. Within this document, Peru and Spain outlined the acknowledgment of primary and secondary courses, while introducing the establishment of dedicated expert commissions on both sides. These commissions were entrusted with the task of cataloging official higher education degrees and administering the recognition of diplomas, contingent upon a thorough assessment of the candidates' academic transcripts (BOE, 1999)<sup>1</sup>.

In the contemporary context, both nations entered into a memorandum of understanding in 2009. This collaborative initiative involved the Ministry of Education of Peru, the Spanish Agency of International Cooperation for Development (AECID), and the Ministry of Education of Spain. The outcome was the establishment of the Educational and Social Inclusion Development Program (PRODIES), designed to benefit children with disabilities by providing them with essential academic support (Ministerio de Educación del Perú et al., 2009). Similarly, in 2013, Peru and Spain solidified, even more, their partnership by signing an Inter-institutional Collaboration Agreement. This accord, crafted between the Ministry of Education of Peru and the Universidad Carlos III de Madrid in Spain, aimed to offer 50 scholarships yearly for Peruvian students to pursue postgraduate studies in Spain (Ministerio de Educación, 2013).

The statistics demonstrate Spain's position as the primary European destination for Peruvian students. An examination of the data from 2016 to 2019 reveals a compelling narrative: Peru granted a remarkable 230 scholarships to its students under the high-level scholarship competition program "Beca Presidente", enabling them to pursue education in Spain. This figure stands in stark contrast to the United Kingdom, the second most sought-after European

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<sup>1</sup> The agreement lost its validity when Peru and Spain adopted the Renewed Strategic Partnership Plan in 2013. This new plan introduced a more streamlined recognition process for academic diplomas by any educational institution, practically ensuring automatic recognition (República del Perú and Reino de España, 2013).

destination, which only achieved 59 scholarships during the same period (Cárdenas Cornejo, 2020).

Additionally, when considering educational loans for overseas studies, Europe emerged as the preferred choice for Peruvians. Once again, the period spanning 2016 to 2019 illuminates this trend. Spain took the lead as the most coveted country, with a noteworthy 195 loans granted through the *Reto Excelencia (RE)* program (available to professionals in public service only). Once more, this figure underscores Spain's popularity in comparison to the United Kingdom, which secured 49 loans as the second most favored destination (Cárdenas Cornejo, 2020). Spain's appeal and allure for Peruvian students seeking enriching educational opportunities is proved unmistakably through these numbers.

Against this background, Peru and Spain engaged in a focused dialogue, especially highlighted by their discussions in 2019 when Peruvian President Martín Vizcarra visited Spain. During this exchange, Vizcarra and Spanish President Pedro Sánchez reached a mutual consensus on exploring the creation of an international mobility initiative for young individuals, which was formalized in a joint statement (Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, 2019). Meanwhile, Spain offers scholarships to several American nations, Peru included, through the Spanish Agency of International Cooperation for Development (AECID). These scholarships are thoughtfully tailored for pursuing studies in fields such as art, music, education, science and culture at high-level institutions (PRONABEC, 2020).

On a different note, the collaboration in relation to science and technology roots back to 1971 when Peru and Spain signed the Agreement for Scientific and Technical Cooperation (Ministerio de Educación, 1971). Recently, their shared interest in this field has grown significantly, exemplified

by the signing of the Memorandum of Understanding on Antarctic Affairs between the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Peru and the Ministry of Science, Innovation and Universities of Spain. The primary intent of this memorandum is to facilitate an exchange between both nations, mainly aimed at conducting diplomatic, legal, scientific, environmental, and cooperative consultations, as well as harmonizing their stances in international forums (Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores y de Cooperación, 2018).

Moreover, another advancement in this area occurred with the 2018 inter-institutional accord between CONCYTEC (National Council for Science and Technology) of Peru and CDTI, E.P.E. (Centro para el Desarrollo Tecnológico Industrial, E.P.E.) of Spain. A strategic move that saw both entities collaborating to provide Peruvian and Spanish enterprises with a financial instrument designed to foster research and development (Ministerio de Ciencia e Innovación, n.d.). As of 2023, within the framework of this agreement, CONCYTEC and CDTI have announced the tenth call for project submissions, accentuating their involvement on innovation and scientific progress.

In the arena of science and technology academia, there exists a partnership between the two countries via the "Severo Ochoa Centers of Excellence" training program (García Dorado, 2020, p.11). This collaboration was made possible through the signing of a knowledge transfer mobility initiative in April 2013.

Lastly, a relevant observation is the mutual prioritization of science and technology by both Peru and Spain despite some nuances. In Peru's case, the Science, Technology, and Technological Innovation Framework Law was enacted in 2007. However, the "National Strategic Plan for Science, Technology and Innovation for Competitiveness and Human Development," active from 2006 to 2021, remains unaltered without any updates (CONCYTEC, 2006). In

contrast, Spain has demonstrated a more adaptive strategy. The initial enactment of the Science, Technology, and Innovation Law of 2011 was followed by recent refinements in 2022 (BOE, 2022a). Furthermore, Spain has introduced the "Spanish Science, Technology and Innovation Strategy 2021-2027", a comprehensive document that effectively aligns research, development and innovation policies with the EU's Horizon Europe 2021-2027 science and innovation program (Ministerio de Ciencia e Innovación, n.d.).

## **1.2. The Role of Education and Internationalization in International Relations**

Within the context where isolating actors in the international society proves impractical, the concept of international relations gains significance (Calduch, 1991). International relations, as defined as the "relations between nations, national governments, international organizations, etc., esp. involving political, economic, social and cultural exchanges" (Oxford English Dictionary, 2023), can be categorized into three distinct groups based on the number of participating actors: bilateral relations, involving interactions between two international actors; multilateral relations, encompassing interactions among more than two international actors; and global relations, involving interactions among all international actors (Calduch, 1991). In this regard, Peru and Spain have seen their relationship through different spaces, however, bilateral relations have been highlighted by historical factors such as the encounter of both civilizations in the 16<sup>th</sup> century making the foreign policy of both countries as a priority for their interests Americas and Europe.

### **1.2.1. Bilateralism within International Relations**

Bilateral relations are the most common way for countries to make agreements and maintain strong connections through diplomacy. When countries set up embassies, consulates and organize official visits of authorities

like the foreign affairs ministries in other countries, it helps them promote themselves and work toward their goals. Actions that also shape how a country is seen by others (Balzacq et al., 2020).

In bilateral relations, there's an important aspect that determines the nature of interactions between states. This factor signifies a certain level of closeness, leading to categories ranging “from ‘friendships’ and ‘special relationships’ to ‘enmity’ and other conflictual relations” (Balzacq et al., 2020, p.20).

From this viewpoint, bilateral relations can be categorized into at least three levels. At the first level, two governments communicate mainly due to transactions between their countries, whether they are directly related to government matters or not. In the next level, two states may need to talk and work together because their transactions are so complex and large that they require careful attention in their bilateral dealings. This can be due to reasons like being geographically close, exchanging a lot of goods and services, having many people living in each country, or both countries belonging to the same international organizations. Lastly, in the third level, the term "special relationship" (Balzacq et al., 2020, pp.28–29) is used to describe relationships that governments view as especially important and privileged.

In this last scenario, "special relationships" have proven to be the most significant due to their lasting success. This is mostly because the two countries involved are culturally similar, so they interact not only for economic or security reasons but also because it is in their national interest. These relationships involve “regular summits, frequent official visits, daily work, and staff exchanges between administrations, all regulated by intergovernmental agreements, treaties, and protocols” (Balzacq et al., 2020, p.29). For example, the relationship between the United Kingdom and the United States, whose ties

became stronger after World War II, is an example of this level. Also, previous colonizers like Spain and its former Latin American colonies, such as Peru, fall into this category, sometimes referred to as "particular relationships" (Balzacq et al., 2020, p.29).

### **1.2.2. Impact of Education and its Use as Soft Power**

According to Lawson et al. (2023), education is a “discipline that is concerned with methods of teaching and learning in schools or school-like environments.” Its aim is to prepare individuals with cultural norms and values for their roles in society as adults.

From this foundation, education on a national scale acts as a driving force that keeps everything functioning. People in a specific country who possess knowledge, skills, techniques and information are conscious of their rights, duties, and roles within their family and society. Moreover, armed with these abilities, educated individuals also recognize the presence of negative aspects within their country, contributing to the elimination of problems like injustice, violence or corruption (Prasad and Gupta, 2020).

To be more precise, education greatly affects society by offering numerous advantages for a nation's progress. In the words of Prasad and Gupta (2020, p.1), "without education, one will not explore new ideas. It means one will not be able to develop the world because without ideas there is no creativity and without creativity, there is no development of the nation". Education contributes to society in many ways. To begin with, it reinforces the success of democracy by empowering individuals to make informed decisions, such as during elections. Furthermore, education facilitates understanding and learning from historical errors, fosters equal chances for all, nurtures leadership, and brings about modernization. Additionally, education drives economic growth



within a nation through the development of human and social capital (Campbell, 2006).

Similarly, education also plays a role on an international scale by promoting tolerance and embracing diversity. This, in turn, helps in mitigating conflicts between diverse populations. Education serves as a unifying force, erasing boundaries, and fostering geopolitical stability by preventing the manipulation of free education for radical purposes (Prasad and Gupta, 2020).

With this concept in mind, countries globally have employed education to enhance their relations, particularly through the lens of soft power. This term, introduced by Joseph S. Nye in 1990, suggests a strategy of pursuing specific interests by captivating others, rather than using forceful pressure or direct rewards (Wojciuk et al., 2015). An idea that revolves around three primary domains: culture, ideology or national values, and foreign policy (Velásquez Goicochea, 2021).

Since authors like Herrera (2006, cited in Velásquez Goicochea, 2021) highlight the close connection between culture and education, where culture originates education and education originates culture, it is evident that education is part of culture and can thus serve as a form of soft power between nations. However, considering the subcategorization of culture into high and low culture by Nye (2011, cited in Velásquez Goicochea, 2021), it is worth noting that education falls into the former subcategory. In this context, the primary mechanisms of soft power in education involve language institutions and student mobility.

As a result, using education as a form of soft power between countries becomes a valuable strategy for projecting their global image and encouraging cooperation (Velásquez Goicochea, 2021). An excellent example of this

cooperative action occurs predominantly through the process of internationalizing higher education.

### **1.2.3. International Cooperation and the Educational Field**

Differing from the typical debates that often surround concept definitions, the case of international cooperation is a robust illustration of shared consensus. Regarded as a resource that emerges “when actors adjust their behavior to the actual or anticipated preferences of others, through a process of policy coordination” (Milner, 1992, p.467), international cooperation encompasses three primary aspects in its definition.

Firstly, the phrase "policy coordination" refers to aligning the plans of each actor within a cooperative framework to overcome hindrances and achieve their respective objectives. Secondly, it is assumed that all actors have their own distinct goals. While these goals might not be identical, their actions are logical based on their individual interests. Thirdly, the notion of cooperation also presumes mutual benefit for these actors. They gain something positive from collaborating, even if the exact advantages may differ among them; the notion of shared benefit persists (Milner, 1992).

Nonetheless, an essential aspect to clarify about international cooperation is the various methods through which it can be realized. In this regard, (Milner, 1992) outlines three distinct approaches: tacit cooperation, negotiated cooperation and imposed cooperation.

Tacit cooperation involves actors implicitly agreeing to cooperate without the necessity of formal agreements or accords. It often emerges coincidentally due to the unplanned alignment of actors' strategies. Negotiated cooperation, on the other hand, is the most commonly sought-after mode of cooperation. It entails a process

of discussing the terms of collaboration, particularly focusing on the benefits that each participant stands to gain (Milner, 1992).

Lastly, imposed cooperation represents an unexpected form of collaboration that might prove challenging to clearly define. In this case, imposed cooperation alludes to the execution of power by a stronger actor upon a weaker one, compelling the latter to alter its policies. For this to be considered a form of cooperation, the stronger actor must also undergo modifications and distribute benefits equitably (Milner, 1992).

On a different subject, it is advisable for states to concentrate their cooperative work on areas where they can discern palpable advantages for a specific group or population. This strategy has the potential to reduce trade expenses and stimulate greater cohesion within markets. It is prudent to focus on areas where there are no big problems with each country's control and where working together brings substantial economic benefits. In this way, regional integration could be better supported (Hoekman, 2016).

Considering this, countries have typically engaged in cooperation across various domains, including education. Evolved over time, educational cooperation is universally recognized as a means to implement educational projects and initiatives that respect cultural distinctions and promote understanding of the economic, political, social, and cultural interconnections among nations. Educational cooperation champions values and attitudes associated with harmony and equity, while striving to identify practical approaches for achieving sustainable human development (María Inmaculada González Pérez et al., 2013).

In the realm of educational cooperation, there are three modes of action. First is the intellectual mode, encompassing the generation of information, ideas or knowledge. The second is the ethical and normative mode, predominantly

employed by national or international organizations, involving the establishment of resolutions, declarations or recommendations. Lastly, the operational mode translates into concrete programs and projects across various countries, institutions, and organizations. Naturally, the key actors driving these modes are states, international organizations, governmental and non-governmental organizations, as well as diverse institutions such as municipalities and universities (María Inmaculada González Pérez et al., 2013).

When states employ educational cooperation, it proves to be an immensely advantageous resource for enhancing state relations. This is due to the image of solidarity projected by a country, along with the opportunity to cultivate familiarity with its language and culture (Ministério das Relações Exteriores, 2021).

#### **1.2.4. Internationalization of Higher Education**

Put simply, internationalization might seem like the act of taking something to an international level (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, n.d.). Yet, when combined with higher education, defining it becomes more intricate because the internationalization of higher education can enclose several ideas that shift based on factors like "stakeholder groups, government, private sector, institution, faculty member, academic discipline, and student" (Zolfaghari et al., 2009, p.2).

Nevertheless, amid various interpretations, one definition stands out over the rest. According to Jane Knight and the International Association of Universities (2006, cited in Zolfaghari et al., 2009, p.2), the "internationalization of higher education is the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service elements of an institution". Widely embraced by the audience, this definition

encapsulates several vital traits that highlight its dynamic nature, favoring the development of programs, policies and procedures.

Most importantly, describing the internationalization of higher education as an international and intercultural dimension suggests its relevance not only for countries but also for the diverse groups within those countries. This incorporates a cultural component into how universities operate (Zolfaghari et al., 2009).

In recent times, education has emerged as a global asset, prompting governments to progressively harness the potential of higher education through international collaboration and exchange to serve their interests. Similarly, higher education institutions, including universities, have developed strategic blueprints to internationalize their academic offerings (Zolfaghari et al., 2009), thereby attracting a fresh and broader audience.

That said, the motivations behind encouraging the internationalization of higher education can vary based on the source, the timing or the context. Thus, Knight (1999, cited in Zolfaghari et al., 2009, p.3), for instance, enumerated the following reasons: “human resources development, strategic alliances, commercial trade, nation building and socio/cultural development, cultural identity, citizenship development, national security, technical assistance, peace and mutual understanding, and economic growth and competitiveness”. While, in a contrasting view, authors like Wit et al. (2005, cited in Zolfaghari et al., 2009, p.3) mentioned that a country’s main drivers for the internationalization of higher education comprise “nation-building and positioning, development cooperation, technical assistance, national and regional cultural identity and national standards improvement”.

## **2. Chapter II: Educational Cooperation Dynamics between Peru and Spain**

### **2.1. Education in Latin America and the Caribbean**

Within the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and, more specifically, Sustainable Development Goal 4 which pertains to quality education, a UNESCO et al. report (2022) examines the state of education in Latin America and the Caribbean. This region's educational landscape has been significantly impacted by historical inequalities, pervasive poverty, extensive social disparities, and recent challenges such as the COVID-19 pandemic, which has set back any progress made.

As per the findings of this report, the year 2019 saw only 46.6% of children engaging in early childhood education in Latin America and the Caribbean, indicating less than half of the population. While there was a notable upward trend between 2003 and 2009, with an annual growth rate of up to 1.7%, progress has decelerated in recent times. Additionally, substantial discrepancies existed in access to this service across countries in the region. For instance, Cuba extends this service to 90% of its population, while Paraguay offers it to a mere 1% (UNESCO et al., 2022).

When it comes to primary and lower secondary education, the scenario takes a different turn. In these instances, there exists an almost universal entitlement to education that has remained stable since the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. For example, in 2020, primary education witnessed a participation rate of 97.1%, while lower secondary education saw a rate of 93.2%. Conversely, upper secondary education recorded an attendance rate of 78.7%, which, despite rising from 60% since the year 2000, still requires further attention. Moreover, both primary and secondary education reveal disparities in enrollment that

disproportionately affect the low-income rural population (UNESCO et al., 2022).

In the case of higher education, this phase is marked by a complex interplay between conventional institutional autonomy and State interventions. This dynamic engenders obstacles in the political management of higher education, leading to weak governance and social inequalities. What further sets higher education apart in this region is the diverse array of policies surrounding it, often occasioning polarization among countries (UNESCO et al., 2022).

Simultaneously, the disparity between affluent and underprivileged families is especially pronounced. In Latin America and the Caribbean, the high-income demographic is seven times more likely to access higher education. A situation that is even more pronounced in Central American countries, where the gap widens to 18 times. “Poverty, crises and emergencies, high enrollment fees, entrance exams, limited geographic mobility and discrimination are the central barriers that limit marginalized communities’ access to higher education” (UNESCO et al., 2022, p.132).

Over the last two decades, there has been a substantial global increase in access to higher education, rising from 19% to 38%. In terms of regional trends, Latin America and the Caribbean experienced the second-highest surge, trailing behind East and Southeast Asia. In 2000, the higher education enrollment rate for this region stood at 23.1%, a figure that escalated to 54.1% by 2020. This translates to approximately 28.9 million individuals pursuing higher education, with 10% enrolled in short-cycle tertiary education, 84% in bachelor's degree programs, 5% in master's degree programs, and 1% in doctoral programs (UNESCO et al., 2022).

However, this rapid expansion is primarily driven by countries with already higher levels of access to higher education, typically located in the southern cone of the region. For instance, Uruguay saw an average growth of 8% between 2015 and 2020, while countries with lower rates achieved only around 1% growth during the same period (UNESCO et al., 2022).

Despite the increase in higher education access, there persists a low graduation rate of 46%, accompanied by a notable dropout rate primarily at the undergraduate level. This phenomenon can be attributed to the extended time required to complete a degree. The regular curriculum timeframe for undergraduate studies is 5 years, excluding thesis writing. Adding to this, a significant proportion of students opt for part-time study to accommodate work commitments. This predicament is reflected in the region's limited contribution to global knowledge production, accounting for only 4% since the onset of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Besides, the insufficient funding allocated to research and development in comparison to global standards further exacerbates the situation. Notably, individuals holding a PhD from this region are a minority within the research community (Gacel-Ávila, 2020).

Largely due to their education shortcomings, countries in Latin America and the Caribbean find themselves ensnared in the middle-income trap. This situation hampers their ability to generate sufficient competitiveness, thereby impeding robust economic growth. In the region, “the proportion of the population aged 25 years or older that has attained [higher education] is Chile 22%, Colombia 21.3%, Argentina 20%, Brazil 16.6% and Mexico 16.4%” while other countries like “the US stands at 45.1%, the United Kingdom 34.6%, France 39% and Germany at 25.7%” (Gacel-Ávila, 2020, p.143).

Furthermore, Latin America and the Caribbean have yet to establish a stronger higher education internationalization strategy, which serves as a vital



instrument for conducting international cooperation. In comparison to other regions, Latin America and Africa exhibit less advanced indicators in terms of possessing a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation framework, as well as clear objectives and benchmarks for internationalization efforts. The region mainly relies on student mobility as its chief mechanism, followed by seeking collaborations with key partners and engaging in international research collaborations, which ranks lower in importance for the region (Marioni, 2019, cited in Gacel-Ávila, 2020).

As a result, despite the relevance given to student mobility, Latin America and the Caribbean demonstrates the second-lowest growth rate in this domain. Outgoing student mobility is at its lowest (1.22%), and incoming student mobility is the second lowest (0.75%) among regions. The higher education system in Latin America and the Caribbean lacks sufficient appeal to international students and the limited availability of scientific or innovative programs further drives Latin American and Caribbean students to seek education abroad (Gacel-Ávila, 2020).

Among the preferred destinations for Latin American and Caribbean individuals are Spain, the United States, Argentina, France, Mexico, Chile, Brazil, Germany, Canada, and Colombia. Significantly, intraregional mobility is favored due to linguistic advantages. Furthermore, most international students arriving in the Latin American and Caribbean – aside from those originating within the region (69%) – come from the United States and Europe (12%), as well as other parts of the world (19%) (Gacel-Ávila, 2020).

## **2.2. Spanish Educational Cooperation in Latin America and the Caribbean**

With a rich historical legacy linking Spain and Latin America, Spain now stands as the third European country offering financial cooperation to Latin America and the Caribbean, trailing only behind Germany and France (Ramos Rollón, 2021).

This region, along with West Africa and the Sahel, as well as the Maghreb and the Middle East, holds a place among Spain's top three priorities for international cooperation efforts (AECID, 2023). In the year 2019 alone, Spain allocated a substantial portion of 44.08% of its total cooperation resources to Latin America and the Caribbean, amounting to US\$288.8 millions of dollars (Ramos Rollón, 2021).

In response to the specific needs of member countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, Spain has classified them into three subcategories to guide its bilateral strategies. The first category, named Least Developed Association Countries (which includes Haiti), focuses on Spanish cooperation to ensure social rights, services, and the strengthening of the country's institutions. The second category, Middle Income Partnership Countries (encompassing Bolivia, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru, and the Dominican Republic), receives Spanish assistance for developing sustainable productive models, quality social services, inclusion, diversity, and institution-building with resilience. Lastly, the third category, Advanced Partnership Countries (comprising Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Uruguay, Costa Rica, Mexico, and Panama due to their high development indicators), features Spanish cooperation in advanced dialogues spanning sectoral policies and technical and institutional cooperation schemes (AECID, 2023).

As per this distribution, education is a fundamental piece in every category. As a result, Spain has integrated this field as a vital component of its

approach to engaging with Latin American and the Caribbean community. Embracing what the country perceives as “a clearly differentiated and easily distinguishable identity – something that not all countries have – which is the synthesis of a rich legacy and an enriching diversity”, Spanish soft power involves educational cooperation as one of its best cards, along with scientific and technological endeavors and the dissemination of the Spanish language worldwide (Gobierno de España, 2021, p.30). In this latter aspect, Spain collaborates with Latin American institutions to promote its linguistic heritage through educational initiatives (Gobierno de España, 2021).

Spanish educational cooperation in Latin America and the Caribbean comprises a range of initiatives, from bilateral and multilateral agreements to active participation in numerous educational institutions. With over 16,000 Spanish students present in the region, Spain's engagement is multifaceted. The goal is not only to address the needs of its overseas population but also to leverage its presence for mutual benefit. Therefore, the ongoing creation of educational programs tailored to these demands remains a priority (Gobierno de España, 2021).

Spain is dedicated to maintaining strategic bilateral partnerships with Latin America and the Caribbean, focusing "on parameters of efficiency and effectiveness" (Gobierno de España, 2021, p.36). While its involvement spans various aspects of formal education, it places particular emphasis on showcasing its educational offerings through the internationalization of higher education. This proposition, bolstered by the appeal of its universities and business schools, garners great attention. Furthermore, Spain intends to amplify its impact by expanding its internationalization policy by establishing an Ibero-American space for higher university studies (Gobierno de España, 2021).

### **2.3. Education in Peru and its Cooperation Strategy**

“Peru has been growing steadily for the last 20 years, but economic growth has not been accompanied by a strong investment in human capital” (Saavedra and Gutierrez, 2020, p.153). Despite the significant progress the country has achieved in terms of educational access during the past two decades, it remains evident that there exists a noticeable lack of consistent and equitable education quality. An issue that became particularly apparent in 2013 when Peru ranked last in the PISA evaluation. To address this crisis, a reform was urgently introduced, consisting of four main pillars: teacher training, curriculum updates, enhancement of educational institution management and the education system as a whole, and addressing infrastructure deficiencies (Saavedra and Gutierrez, 2020).

In view of these circumstances and given the limited participation of the most economically disadvantaged population in early childhood education, this educational stage emerged as a primary concern for the Peruvian government. Consequently, Peru extended early childhood education services to over 4150 rural villages, marking the first instance of such provision, and undertook the training of 3000 teachers. Furthermore, in relation to primary and secondary education, Peru has achieved nearly universal net enrollment rates, with primary-level enrollment nearing 100% and secondary-level enrollment reaching approximately 80% (Saavedra and Gutierrez, 2020).

Concerning higher education, Peru demonstrated a rapid expansion at this level. However, this growth occurred without proper organization. As noted by Saavedra and Gutierrez (2020, p.166), “the system was almost completely unregulated and about 90% of the growth in higher education enrollment was explained by an expansion of the private sector”, resulting in considerable variations in the quality of education provided.

In order to revert this matter, Peru undertook a higher education reform in 2014 that restructured the university system. The reform entailed the dissolution of the National Assembly of Rectors (Asamblea Nacional de Rectores – ANR), a body comprising university rectors, and transferred its key responsibilities to the Ministry of Education (MINEDU). These responsibilities encompassed coordinating sector stakeholders and formulating the sector's budget and public investments (UNESCO et al., 2022). Crucially, the reform also mandated a focus on research to address Peru's developmental difficulties (Saavedra and Gutierrez, 2020).

In order to ensure the effectiveness of the state's reform efforts, the Superintendency of Higher University Education (Superintendencia Nacional de Educación Superior Universitaria – SUNEDU) was established. This autonomous regulatory body was tasked with evaluating and approving the operations of both private and public universities in Peru based on rigorous quality assessments. The outcomes of this measure have recently demonstrated that graduates from licensed universities enjoy superior incomes, enhanced job prospects and higher hourly wages compared to those who graduated from non-licensed institutions (Magnaricotte and Alba, 2020, cited in UNESCO et al., 2022).

Moreover, in its ongoing pursuit of improvement, Peru is currently engaged in the development of a specialized higher education entity, akin to a vice-ministry. An approach that is already in practice in nine other Latin American countries and that may soon become implemented in Peru (UNESCO et al., 2022).

Under the recent state oversight of higher education, internationalization has not held a significant role. This is partly due to the country's intricate bureaucratic procedures and educational policies, which have often lacked

clarity and openness towards international collaboration. Confronted by this landscape, universities have emerged as pivotal players, assuming the mantle of cooperation. Their intervention is driven by the recognition of necessary intercultural coexistence and the transfer of technology, which are integral to their own objectives (Auris Villegas et al., 2022).

Mostly driven by individual initiatives, many Peruvian higher education institutions, particularly private ones, have embarked on the path of internationalizing their academic offerings. This transformation has been realized through the implementation of strategies including the facilitation of mobility exchanges, active involvement in networks, collaborative research ventures, promotion of English language proficiency, raising awareness about opportunities and enhancing university visibility, curriculum internationalization, and the establishment of dual-degree programs. Additionally, two strategies, namely mobility exchange and network participation, have been of common practice, prompting Peruvian universities to fortify their human resources. A matter exemplified by the establishment of dedicated international relations offices (Quispe Prieto and Paucar Cáceres, 2018), signaling a tangible commitment to global engagement.

#### **2.4. Education in Spain and its Cooperation Strategy**

In recent years, education at various levels in Spain has achieved remarkable levels of participation. By 2020, early childhood education was accessible to 99.9% of the population, while primary education boasted a reach of 98%, and secondary education's access rate stood at 98.8%. Similarly, the enrollment ratio for higher education in Spain reached an impressive 96% in the same year (unesco et al., n.d.).

Remarkably, higher education has garnered significant prominence, not solely due to impressive statistics, but also owing to other compelling factors. Among the OECD member countries, Spain stands out for having the highest prevalence of higher education attainment among individuals aged 25 to 34. Moreover, in 2019, individuals in Spain holding higher education degrees earned 91% more than their counterparts with lower education levels (Schwabe, 2022).

In 2021, the Spanish higher education landscape saw a notable distribution of completed degree programs, with a higher proportion of students achieving master's degree programs (16%) compared to short-cycle tertiary education (12%) and bachelor's degree programs (11%). A pattern that differed from the OECD average, where bachelor's degree programs hold the highest popularity (19%), followed by master's degree programs (14%) and then short-cycle tertiary education (7%). In both contexts, however, whether in Spain or the OECD, the percentage of individuals with doctoral degrees remained minimal, standing at 1% in Spain (Schwabe, 2022).

A while ago, higher education may have principally served nation-building purposes, but in today's context, it has acquired a crucial international role in meeting the demands of global knowledge societies. Since Spain's accession to the European Union in 1986, the nation has witnessed the evolution of its internationalization policies. This European influence spurred Spain to become a prominent sender and recipient of Erasmus+ students, fostering its consistent engagement in European research initiatives and the Bologna Process<sup>2</sup>. This reputation, emanating mainly from higher education institutions, also has counted on other elements such as the widespread use of the Spanish

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<sup>2</sup> The Bologna Process involves the participation of 49 European countries and various European organizations, all with the goal of “[enhancing] the quality and recognition of European higher education systems and [improving] conditions for exchange and collaboration within Europe, as well as internationally” (European University Association, n.d.).

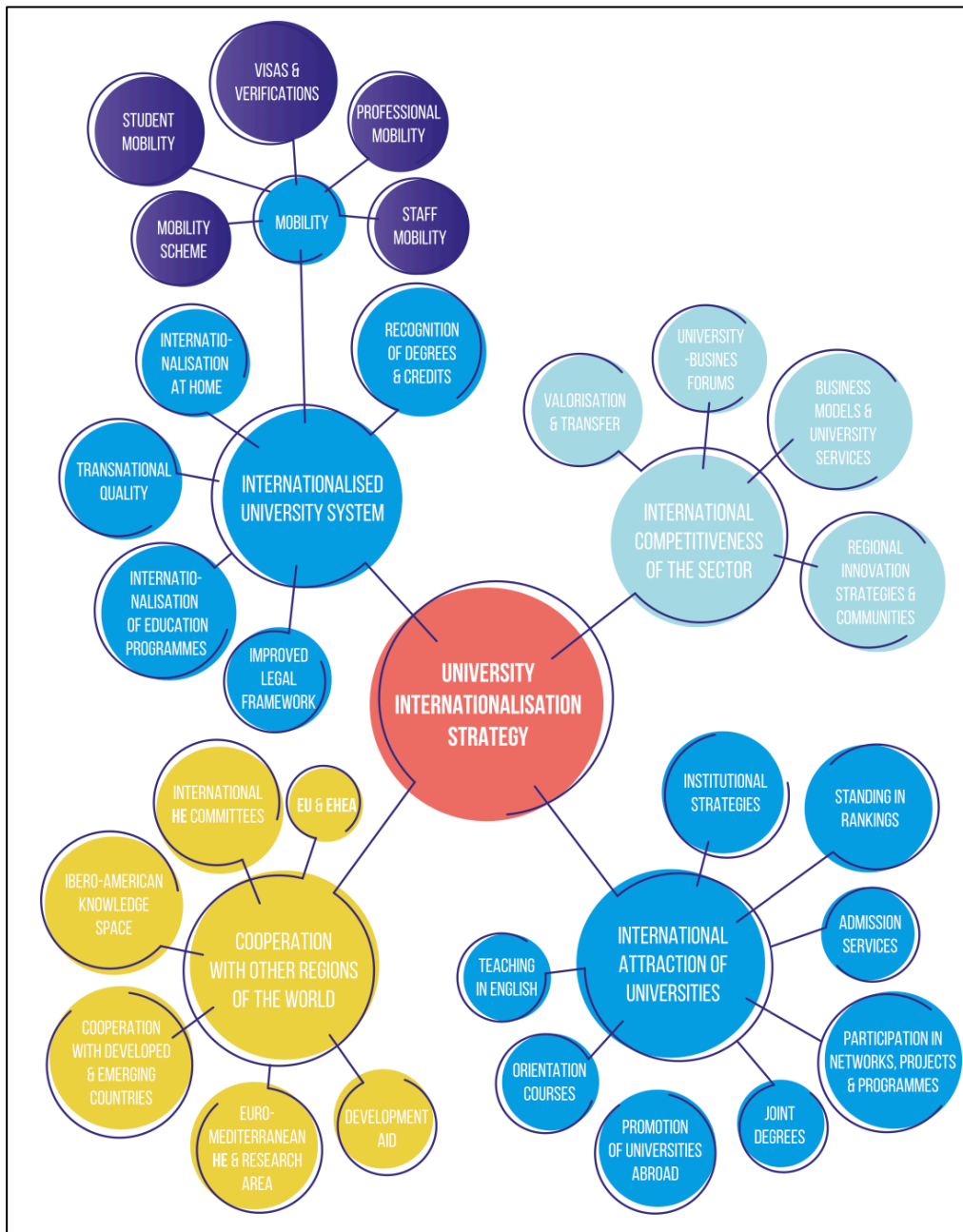
language, the warmth of Spanish culture, and the country's inviting climate (SEPIE, 2017).

At the dawn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, several Spanish universities collaborated closely with various government initiatives to formulate their international agendas, with a special emphasis on priority regions for Spain such as Latin America and North Africa. These initial efforts enabled Spanish universities to establish robust international connections. However, their efforts gained further momentum in 2008 with the inception of a dedicated national agency named "Universidade.es", entrusted with promoting Spain as a global hub for students and scholars (SEPIE, 2017, p.11).

Consequently, additional initiatives were launched, including the Strategy for Internationalization of Spanish Universities 2015-2020 which established the first draft for the internationalization of higher education. Currently overseen by the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Sport of Spain, this instrument is built upon four primary pillars and encompasses 28 specific initiatives:



Figure 1: University Internationalization Strategy.



(SEPIE, 2017)

Based on this context, Spain is an example of educational cooperation, particularly within the higher education domain. With well-defined initiatives orchestrated by the Spanish government, universities, private enterprises and civil society, Spain leverages internationalization as its main collaboration with

strategically important regions. Given its position as a gateway connecting two significant political and cultural spheres, Europe and Iberoamerica (Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte, 2016), the country recognizes its influential role in this realm to advance its own interests and provide assistance for development abroad.

## **2.5. Peru and Spain: Mechanism of Educational Cooperation**

Peru, once the main beneficiary of Spanish cooperation in Latin America (Andina, 2012), maintains deep-rooted historical ties with Spain that have extended to collaborative endeavors in education. As Peru aspires to establish itself as a contemporary, fair, inclusive, and globally recognized nation, the invaluable backing of its international partners becomes crucial to its aspirations (García Belaúnde, 2017).

Spain serves as a notable exemplar of Peru's most fructiferous relations, consistently advocating for tangible transformations within the country to enhance the well-being of its citizens and promote a robust, inclusive, and united society. A commitment that was further invigorated within the context of Peru's bicentennial celebration of independence in 2021 (García Belaúnde, 2017), emphasizing the shared wish to bring about positive change.

In pursuit of this goal, the Peruvian government has made a resolute commitment to expedite development by ensuring that the population has access to vital public services. In the field of education, Peru has dedicated itself to the ongoing provision of free and high-quality early childhood education, primary education and secondary education, while also offering opportunities for higher education both within Peru and abroad (García Belaúnde, 2017).

As briefly alluded to in the preceding chapter, there exist two primary agreements that highlight education as a focal point between Peru and Spain. The first one is encapsulated within the Cooperation Framework Agreement of 2004. This document delineates the facets of educational cooperation, which involves the facilitation of mobility exchanges for professors, students and experts, the provision of scholarships, the collaboration among educational institutions, and the validation of secondary and university diplomas in accordance with the prevailing regulations of each nation (Ministerio de Educación, 2004).

Furthermore, the agreement delineates the establishment of two distinct structures, potentially augmented by a third contingent upon mutual accord. These entities are entrusted with coordinating, executing, monitoring, and evaluating the initiatives derived from this accord: The Spanish-Peruvian Joint Commission and The Joint Evaluation and Follow-Up Committee (Ministerio de Educación, 2004).

Throughout the years, Peru and Spain have been actively engaged in cultivating these operational structures, which contribute to the progress in areas of mutual interest, including education. For instance, the Spanish-Peruvian Joint Commission convened its eleventh session in 2019, with the twelfth session scheduled for 2023 (BOE, 2019; APCI, 2023b). Likewise, the two nations also convened the twelfth Joint Evaluation and Follow-Up Committee in 2018 and have already committed to effectuate the thirteenth in 2023 (APCI, 2018; APCI, 2023a).

On a different note, the second most important document is the Renewed Strategic Partnership Plan of 2013. Through these pages, Peru and Spain get more specific about their cooperative efforts in education, highlighting their shared focus on:

- Boosting the Spanish language teaching and fostering collaboration among institutions that provide Spanish instruction.
- Developing financial mechanisms to augment the education budget. This includes prioritizing literacy and fundamental education for youth and adults, technical training, and facilitating job placements, with a focus on supporting vulnerable populations.
- Cultivating a high standard of education in secondary and higher education.
- Reinforcing training for teachers and experts in intercultural and bilingual education, with an emphasis on benefiting indigenous communities.
- Sustaining the recognition of diplomas to facilitate university-level mobility for students, researchers, and professors.
- Initiating joint online postgraduate programs and seminars to enrich university-level interactions.
- Expanding cooperative programs aimed at training public personnel and educational experts, including the exchange of human resources between the two countries.
- Underlining the promotion of scientific talent through exchanges, mobility, and training for scientists and experts in the fields of science, technology, and innovation (República del Perú and Reino de España, 2013).

Moreover, due to Spain's strategic partnership with Peru since 2008, both nations have collaboratively developed a planning tool known as Country Partnership Framework (Marco de Asociación País – MAP). A document used as a tool for Spanish cooperation, aiming to enhance alignment, harmonization, and coherence of interventions in accordance with each country's needs (Anon, n.d.) and the pursuit of sustainable development goals.

The Country Partnership Framework between Peru and Spain mentions Spain's extensive engagement in the Peruvian educational sector, with a notable focus on adopting a gender-sensitive approach to address challenges faced by vulnerable populations. Additionally, the document highlights the Spanish efforts made since 1992, which led to the establishment of several schools in Peru, three of which remain operational today. Alongside Spanish cooperation, numerous other stakeholders have also contributed and continue to participate in advancing educational collaboration, including business foundations and the social responsibility initiatives of Spanish companies operating in the country (Cooperación Española, 2019).

Directly speaking of higher education cooperation, Spain supports the participation of universities and research centers. From 2013 to 2016, Spain apported 1.6 millions of euros of Official Development Assistance (Ayuda Oficial al Desarrollo – AOD) via its Universidad.es agency for beginning promoting knowledge exchange and cooperation between partner institutions. In 2016, 27 universities had a presence in Peru through any mechanism of cooperation such as projects, scholarships, research programs, technical assistance or voluntaries, among others (Cooperación Española, 2019).

Regarding higher education cooperation, Spain actively encourages the involvement of universities and teaching and research centers. In the period between 2013 and 2016, Spain provided 1.6 million euros of Official

Development Assistance (Ayuda Oficial al Desarrollo – AOD) through its Universidad.es agency to initiate knowledge exchange and collaboration between partnering institutions. By that time, in 2016, a total of 27 universities were engaged in Peru through various cooperative mechanisms, including projects, scholarships, research programs, technical assistance, and volunteer initiatives, among others (Cooperación Española, 2019).

Following these directives, Peru and Spain have collaborated on a variety of academic programs that reaffirm their commitment to educational cooperation, aligning with the shared aspirations outlined in their agreements. For instance, as a result of Spain's membership in the European Union and its amicable relations with the Ibero-American community, Peru has gained access to diverse higher education scholarship opportunities to study in Spain:

- Erasmus+: Coordinated by the European Union, Erasmus+ extends valuable higher education opportunities to "partner countries" like Peru. Spain stands as a prime study destination, offering Peruvian students the chance to pursue studies in their preferred fields (European Commission, 2021).
- MAEC-AECID Scholarships: Spain's Ministry of Foreign Affairs, European Union and Cooperation (MAEC), in collaboration with the Spanish Agency of International Cooperation for Development (AECID), awards scholarships to Latin American professionals and public personnel, including those from Peru. These scholarships enable recipients to choose master's degrees in subjects ranging from education, migration, environment, gender equality, and diplomacy and international relations. Additionally, through partnerships with institutions such as the Royal Spanish Academy in Rome (RAER), the Royal Spanish Academy (RAE), the College of Europe and the Queen

Sofía School of Music (ESMRS), specialized courses are offered to artists, researchers, linguists, philologists, and musicians, respectively (PRONABEC, 2020).

- **Carolina Foundation Scholarships:** As part of its cooperative mechanism with Ibero-America, the Carolina Foundation offers scholarships to Latin American citizens, including those from Peru, for pursuing postgraduate studies and postdoctoral research in Spain. The scholarships also extend to professors seeking mobility programs (Estudia Perú, 2023a).
- **Santander Scholarships:** Facilitated by the Santander Bank, these scholarships encourage interinstitutional collaboration. They provide Ibero-American students with opportunities to study abroad at partner universities across Ibero-America at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Additionally, the program offers scholarships to researchers and university professors for courses lasting up to six months at any partner university in Ibero-America (Estudia Perú, 2023c).
- **Scholarships by the Ibero-American University Association for Postgraduate Studies (AUIP):** This consortium of universities extends scholarships from its partner institutions to students, professors, and researchers. This offers a valuable avenue for postgraduate-level education and development (Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, 2016).

In addition to these initiatives, Peru operates a unique postgraduate scholarship program known as "Beca Presidente de la República." This program identifies and rewards the most outstanding talents within the nation, granting them the opportunity to pursue studies at globally top-ranked universities, within the top 400. As part of this effort, students have the privilege of selecting

from a range of institutions annually, with universities in Spain consistently emerging as a popular choice (Estudia Perú, 2023b).

### **3. Chapter III: Discussion and Proposal of a New Educational Cooperation Framework**

#### **3.1. Historical Significance of Peru-Spain Relations**

To build a multilateral and equal system through international cooperation, a deep understanding of the past and concerted efforts in the present are essential. The historical narrative that binds nations with rich and intertwined trajectories forms the base for mutual understanding, diplomatic negotiations and collaborative alliances.

Examining the historical relationship between Peru and Spain, it is clear that their contemporary ties are firmly rooted in their history, with its complex blend of positive and negative aspects. In the initial stages of their interaction, Peru existed as a colony under Spanish rule. Peru held immense significance for Spain as it served as the gateway to its colonies and facilitated commerce between them. The strategic importance of Peru was exemplified by the port of Callao, which was the sole entry point into Spain's vast empire in America. This colonial era, spanning three centuries, reached its culmination in 1821 when Peru successfully achieved its long-awaited political independence.

With a vision to chart a new course, Peru established itself as a republic, founded on constitutional principles. Crucially, it aspired to gain international recognition, allowing it to participate in the global community as a sovereign nation. Despite numerous challenges, this desire was realized in 1879 when Spain, through a treaty, officially recognized Peru's independence, marking the onset of a new chapter. Subsequently, Peru and Spain embarked on a relationship between two equal nations. Their new phase was mainly focused



on conflict resolution, necessitated by the shifting dynamics between Peru and its neighbors.

In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, both countries shifted their focus from international affairs to internal issues, leading to a brief period of diplomatic tension. Nevertheless, Peru and Spain managed to overcome this situation and redirected their interactions towards a more fruitful pathway that marked the beginning of bilateral cooperation. Diplomacy played a crucial role in laying the foundation for collaborative activities, facilitated by the exchange of high-profile professionals and the opening of embassies.

Culture emerged as a central piece of this cooperation, with the commemoration of special occasions and expressions of mutual appreciation characterizing this period. Other aspects, such as technical and social cooperation, as well as formalized trade relations, also gained prominence. Spain's proximity to Peru was marked by acts of solidarity and support during challenging times, such as the terrorism wave that swept Peru in the 1980s. Simultaneously, Spain initiated a policy of special interest in the Americas, actively engaging with and promoting regional organizations to strengthen ties with individual countries.

In this context, education, although to a lesser extent and sometimes considered a component of cultural relations, emerged as a significant area of cooperation between Peru and Spain under the paradigm of soft power. Dating back to agreements from 1904 and official visits in the 1960s, education began to assume a more famous part in their cooperative endeavors.

As the 21<sup>st</sup> century dawned, Peru and Spain not only continued their existing cooperation efforts but also opened new doors for collaboration. Significantly, they ventured into discussions and agreements related to security

and defense, strengthening their political interactions, and Spain became a notable investor in the Peruvian territory.

Furthermore, educational cooperation between Peru and Spain made a remarkable expansion, especially after the establishment of a cooperative framework in 2004. This framework facilitated more specific initiatives in education, eventually leading to the formation of a strategic partnership in 2008 (renewed in 2013). A partnership that involved agreements on inclusion, interinstitutional collaboration between state institutions and universities, and initiatives related to science and technology.

Upon reflecting on this historical overview, it becomes evident that Peru-Spain relations have endured over the years. Even during times of crisis, certain aspects of cooperation have played a vital role in re-establishing engagement. Notably, the strong presence of cultural and educational programs, which often complement each other, has contributed “to keeping channels of communication open with each other” (British Council, 2021). These programs not only ensure the smooth functioning of the Peruvian and Spanish societies but also enhance their international influence through strategies of soft power, breaking down possible barriers.

### **3.2. Educational Cooperation Relevance**

Peru, like many other Latin American countries, finds itself in a region marked by a long history of grappling with deep-rooted social inequalities and disparities, especially when it comes to access to basic services like education. Although primary and secondary education in Latin America have made strides with relatively higher rates of attendance, the situation is different at the two ends of the educational spectrum – early childhood education and higher education. These disparities disproportionately affect the most vulnerable

families. Furthermore, the observed increases in enrollment tend to be more pronounced in South American countries, like Uruguay, which already had relatively favorable enrollment rates in higher education.

Undoubtedly, education holds high importance in shaping a nation's international image and bolstering its economic indicators, yet it has been sidelined for years, experiencing minimal progress. Achieving universal access to education could effectively bridge social gaps and enhance the population's ability to contribute to the nation's competitiveness. Furthermore, beyond economic benefits, such investments could lead to substantial gains in human development. If the government were to allocate more resources to social services like education, the positive outcomes would resonate throughout enterprise management, institutional governance and governmental functioning, ultimately fostering a state of well-being for the entire nation (Vásquez, 2012).

Statistics reveal that, although access to higher education may be expanding, graduation rates remain low in the discussed region. Besides, an important percentage of inequality persists between Latin American countries (even those performing nearly well) and countries like the United States, the United Kingdom or France. An issue that, compounded by the lack of a well-structured internationalization strategy – which could potentially open doors to international cooperation –, does not make the scenario too promising.

It has been evidenced that, in higher education, student mobility serves as the primary tool for internationalization in Latin American, with intraregional mobility being the most favored due to the common language, Spanish. Conversely, mobility to other regions has seen limited growth, making Latin America the second-lowest performer in this regard, which is largely attributed to a poor academic proposal. In this context, Peru, like its regional counterparts, has faced numerous difficulties, particularly in early childhood education and

higher education, both of which suffered from low attendance rates. However, the country has displayed resilience by implementing crucial educational reforms, effectively reorganizing its system to yield improved outcomes.

In higher education, Peru witnessed a situation where private enterprises monopolized the sector, a scheme that underwent a transformation in 2014 with increased state intervention. Nevertheless, despite these reforms, the internationalization of higher education in Peru remains underdeveloped, primarily due to administrative hurdles that do not encourage international cooperation. Consequently, universities, mainly private institutions, have taken this task upon themselves.

Under these circumstances, Spain's education system came out as a story of success due to its remarkable participation across all levels. Higher education, in particular, has garnered significant attention, and in comparison to other OECD countries, Spain stands out as having the highest number of graduates at this level, fostering a stronger human capital base. Spain's longstanding commitment to quality higher education has paid off.

Most importantly, Spain's internationalization policy, which has rapidly augmented since its membership to the European Union, has positioned the country as a prominent sender and recipient of international students within the Erasmus+ program. An initiative that has allowed Spain to share its ideas and traditions on a global scale. The Spanish government has consistently played a pivotal role in expanding cooperation through well-established policies and institutions, thanks to concerted efforts from its society.

The following table provides a comparative overview of the education statuses of Peru and Spain:

Table 1: Education statuses of Peru and Spain.

Education in:	Peru	Spain
<b>Early Childhood Education</b>	Extended early childhood education services to vulnerable populations in rural villages.	Achieved universal access to early childhood education.
<b>Primary and Secondary Education</b>	Achieves nearly universal net enrollment rates.	Ensured high-quality primary and secondary education.
<b>Higher Education Growth</b>	Developed rapid expansion of higher education.	Maintained high participation rates in higher education.
<b>Higher Education Quality</b>	Improved the quality of higher education.	Promoted internationalization and research in universities.
<b>Regulation and Oversight</b>	Applied a higher education reform: dissolution of ANR and establishment of SUNEDU for quality assurance.	Created a clear strategy for the Internationalization of Spanish Universities.
<b>Internationalization</b>	Limited state involvement; universities drive internationalization through initiatives like mobility exchange and networking.	Well-defined government initiatives and policies for internationalization with a focus on key regions.

*(Elaborated by the author)*

As the third European nation with significant involvement in Latin America, Spain highlights the relevance of the region, considered as one of its core priorities. Educational cooperation stands as a cornerstone within Spain's engagement in various aspects of social services. Therefore, Spain has leveraged its soft power initiatives to enhance education, a domain where it has excelled, solidifying its status as a preferred destination for Latin American students seeking international educational opportunities abroad. This focus aims not only to elevate the quality of education for Spain's own population but also to foster mutually beneficial relationships with its partner countries, thanks to the substantial presence of Spanish expatriates. The long-term aspiration is to create a unified space for higher education within the Ibero-American community on the basis of the robust Spanish internationalization.

In the case of Peru, a similar approach has been undertaken. Over the years, Peru and Spain have collaborated closely on numerous cooperative initiatives, positioning Peru as a primary beneficiary of Spain's regional outreach efforts. Both nations share a commitment to providing essential public services, with a special focus on enhancing education at all levels. This shared goal has led to the establishment of various cooperation mechanisms, especially through agreements that later allowed them to delve into specific educational subjects, guiding their collaborative actions.

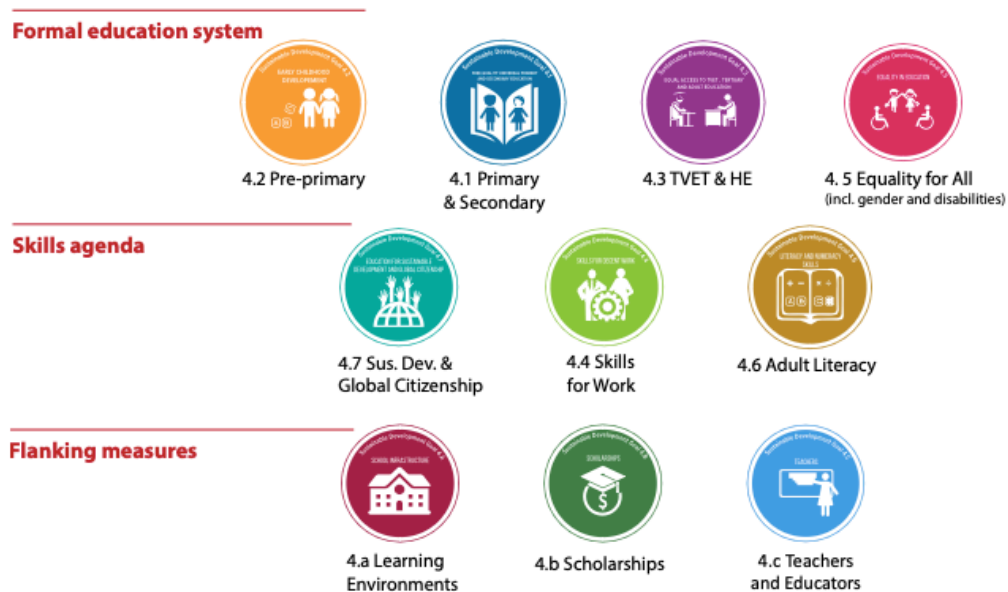
### **3.3. The future of education**

The assessment of the education landscapes in Peru and Spain is critical to ascertain whether these countries are effectively addressing current and future global challenges. To contextualize this assessment, it is essential to acknowledge that both nations are committed to a global initiative, the 2030 Agenda, established by the United Nations in 2015. This agenda is dedicated to achieving sustainable development and seeks to press global issues like climate change, poverty, unemployment and conflicts, which have far-reaching impacts on the international community. To effectively confront these challenges, coordinated action is necessary at the national, regional and global levels (United Nations, 2015).

Embedded within this overarching framework are the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), each targeting specific objectives. Particularly, the SDG 4 places emphasis on education, aiming to “ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all”(United Nations, 2015). The SDG 4 further breaks down into seven sub-goals and three resources, all meticulously designed to ensure the successful achievement of its educational objectives. A manner in which the role of education in the global

effort is highlighted to tackle critical issues and promote sustainable development worldwide.

Figure 2: Specific targets of the SDG 4.



(Miao et al., 2019, p.7)

Education is undeniably a cornerstone among the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) because it serves as the linchpin through which substantive changes can be catalyzed. It is through education that individuals are best equipped to face the future with a forward-looking perspective. The field of education “plays a pivotal role in nurturing the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values necessary for people to contribute to and thrive in an inclusive and sustainable future” (OECD, 2018, p.4).

As students evolve into active participants in an ever-changing world, they must possess the ability to set clear objectives, collaborate with individuals holding diverse viewpoints, uncover unexplored possibilities and generate an array of solutions to confront decisive circumstances that lie ahead. Education's role extends beyond merely preparing the youth to work within their respective

societies; it aspires to endow them with the competencies essential to empower them as proactive, accountable and participative members of society (OECD, 2018). Hence, education can be an instrument for constructing a welfare state, advancing equality and reinforcing democracy. Given that both Peru and Spain share similar principles, fostering educational cooperation within a multipolar framework can be a means to forge a more equitable international system.

### 3.4. Peru-Spain current educational objectives

Taking into account that analyzing the current educational objectives of Peru and Spain is crucial to evaluate the effectiveness of their existing agreements and mechanisms, the following table offers a comparative overview of the two countries' objectives.

The table is organized into thematic categories in the first column to facilitate a clear understanding of each country's educational priorities. The second column outlines Peru's specific objectives, while the third column details Spain's objectives. Spain's objectives are based on the European Educational Objectives, a framework followed by all European Union member states to enhance education, and the Education and Training Strategy 2023, which indicates the European Educational Objectives for the period from 2020 to 2023 (Gobierno de España, 2023).

Table 2: Comparison of Educational Objectives.

Themes	Peru's Educational Objectives	Spain' Educational Objectives
Quality Education for All	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Generate opportunities and equal educational outcomes for everyone.</li> <li>- Ensure that students and educational institutions achieve relevant and high-quality learning.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Full development of students' personalities and capacities.</li> </ul>
Inclusivity and Equality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Promote a society that educates citizens and engages them in their community.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Education in respect for fundamental rights and freedoms, gender equality, and non-discrimination.</li> </ul>



		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Education in tolerance, freedom, and democratic principles, conflict prevention, and peaceful conflict resolution.</li> <li>- Education in individual responsibility, merit, and personal effort.</li> </ul>
<b>Teacher Professionalism</b>	- Strengthen teachers' capacities for professional teaching.	-
<b>Global Citizenship</b>	-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Promote values such as peace, respect for human rights, social cohesion, cooperation, and solidarity among peoples.</li> <li>- Development of students' ability to self-regulate their learning, trust in their skills and knowledge, and nurture creativity and personal initiative.</li> <li>- Education in recognizing Spain's linguistic and cultural diversity and interculturalism as enriching elements of society.</li> <li>- Acquisition of intellectual habits, work techniques, scientific, technical, humanistic, historical, and artistic knowledge.</li> <li>- The training for the exercise of professional activities, care, and social collaboration.</li> <li>- Training for communication in the official language and co-official language if applicable, and one or more foreign languages.</li> </ul>
<b>Citizenship and Society</b>	-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Training for citizenship, integration into the surrounding society, and active participation in the economic, social, and cultural life with critical and responsible attitudes.</li> <li>- Training for full integration of students in the digital society, safe use of digital media, and respect for human dignity, constitutional values, fundamental rights, and privacy.</li> </ul>

*(Consejo Nacional de Educación, 2006, p.11; BOE, 2022b, pp.15–16; Ministerio de Educación, n.d., elaborated by the author)*

Based on this table, a comparative analysis of educational objectives between Peru and Spain is effectuated under common themes. Both countries

share a commitment to providing quality education for all and promoting inclusivity and equality in their education systems. Peru aims to generate equal educational opportunities and improve learning outcomes, particularly focusing on early childhood education and teacher professionalism. Inversely, Spain's objectives establish a broader range of themes, stressing the full development of students' personalities, the promotion of democratic principles, individual responsibility and a strong focus on global citizenship, which incorporates linguistic and cultural diversity. Furthermore, Spain also pays attention to preparing students for a digital society and respecting human rights, demonstrating an approach to education that extends beyond academic excellence.

This analysis emphasizes that Spain has continually updated its educational objectives to address contemporary challenges, specifically those of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. In contrast, Peru's educational focus appears to have been predominantly centered on historical issues, with less attention given to current and future considerations. It is worth noting that Spain recently updated its educational law in July 2022, reflecting its commitment to modernize education in response to evolving societal needs. In contrast, Peru's objectives have been in place since 2006, as outlined in the National Educational Project to 2021, which is based on the General Education Law of 2003 (Gobierno del Perú, 2003).

On the other hand, considering that, from all the levels of education, the realm of higher education is crucial for the development and progress of a country, as well as acts as a bridge for the exchange of knowledge and culture between nations due to its instrumentalization for cooperation through internationalization; the following table presents a comparison of the objectives delineated by Peru and Spain in higher education:

Table 3: Comparison of Higher Education Objectives.

Themes	Peru's Higher Education Objectives	Spain's Higher Education Objectives
Equitable Access	- Increase equitable access to Higher and Technical-Productive Education (HTPE).	- Develop competencies specific to each professional training program.
Integral Student Formation	- Strengthen the integral formation of HTPE students that aligns with social, cultural, and productive contexts.	- Understand the organization and characteristics of the relevant productive sector and mechanisms for professional integration.
Teacher Performance	- Improve the quality of HTPE teachers' performance.	- Know labor legislation, rights, and obligations derived from labor relations.
Institutional Quality	- Strengthen the quality of HTPE institutions in the exercise of their autonomy.	- Learn to work independently and in teams, focusing on conflict prevention and peaceful resolution, with attention to gender violence prevention.
Institutional Governance	- Strengthen HTPE governance and the leading role of the Ministry of Education.	- Promote effective equal opportunities for men, women, and people with disabilities in accessing training and professions.
Resource Mobilization	- Mobilize resources to HTPE institutions for quality improvement, research, and innovation.	- Work safely and healthily, preventing possible work-related risks.
Professional Identity	-	- Develop a motivating professional identity for future learning and adaptation to evolving production processes and social change.
Innovation and Entrepreneurship	-	- Develop innovation and entrepreneurship competencies to enhance employability and professional development.
Educational Progression	-	- Prepare students for progression within the educational system.
Environmental Awareness	-	- Understand and prevent environmental risks.
Digitalization	-	- Prepare students in digitalization within their productive sector.

(Ministerio de Educación, 2020, pp.33–35; BOE, 2022b, pp.38–39, elaborated by the author)

As per the information observed in this table, there exist certain differences and similarities in the thematic focus for higher education in each country. Among the differences, Peru highlights equitable access and resource mobilization to enhance quality and research, reflecting its efforts to broaden educational opportunities based on an academic improvement of higher

education. In contrast, Spain's objectives emphasize a deep understanding of the workforce, labor laws and environmental issues, indicating a commitment to producing graduates well-versed in professional dynamics and environmental sustainability. Additionally, Spain places a strong accent on conflict resolution and the prevention of gender-based violence, which gives relevance to social harmony and equality.

Nevertheless, the similarities between both countries include developing competencies relevant to their respective fields, promoting equality of opportunities and providing a sense of professional identity and adaptability. Peru and Spain also emphasize the importance of safety and health in the workplace and acknowledge the significance of digitalization in their sectors. Overall, while Peru and Spain share some higher education objectives, they differ in their emphases, which aim to reflect their unique contexts.

### **3.5. Proposing a New Model for Educational Cooperation**

Considering the transition of the international system into a multipolar order and reflecting on the current state of education in Peru and Spain and their respective objectives, with a specific focus on higher education as a means of internationalization for bilateral cooperation, this section proposes a revised and enhanced Cooperation Framework Agreement between both countries. The proposal aligns with the expressed goodwill of their governments in 2022<sup>3</sup> and dovetails with the United Nations 2030 Agenda, particularly with the SDG 4.

The existing document, drafted in 2004, covers various areas of cooperation, including education. However, its emphasis on this field no longer fully corresponds to the demands of today's multipolar world and power

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<sup>3</sup> See “1.1.3. 21<sup>st</sup> Century: Modern Diplomacy”, paragraph 4.

balance. Therefore, it is strategically imperative to open the door to more contemporary suggestions that can better reflect the needs of both countries, aiming at intensifying their relations. This entails updating the agreement in line with Peru's educational objectives of 2006 and Spain's objectives of 2022, as well as the connotations of both countries' strategic partnership since 2008.

With a foundation built on mutual benefits, sustainability, inclusivity, and alignment with not only the interests of Peru and Spain but also international educational and developmental goals, this new proposal has the potential to transform the Cooperation Framework Agreement between Peru and Spain, especially in addressing critical challenges in education. Keeping these principles in mind, the following tables present a comparative analysis of the themes and objectives of the Cooperation Framework Agreement of 2004<sup>4</sup> and the proposed Cooperation Framework Agreement, drawing from the research conducted in this study:

*Table 4: Cooperation Framework Agreement of 2004.*

<b>Cooperation Framework Agreement of 2004</b>	
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Objectives</b>
Academic Mobility and Exchange	Exchange of professors, students and experts.
Educational Funding and Access	Provision of scholarships.
Educational Institution Collaboration	Support for cooperation between universities, secondary and primary schools.
Degree Recognition and Equivalence	Mutual recognition and equivalence of secondary and university degrees and diplomas.

*(Ministerio de Educación, 2004, pp.3–4, elaborated by the author)*

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<sup>4</sup> The choice of this agreement as the basis for proposing a new model stems from its status as a "cooperation framework agreement," which serves as the cornerstone for any subsequent agreements that might be negotiated between the two countries. Its contents provide a foundation upon which more intricate documents and guidelines related to the agreed-upon areas of cooperation can be built.

Table 5: Proposal for a new Cooperation Framework Agreement.

Proposal of a new Cooperation Framework Agreement	
Themes	Objectives
Quality Assurance and Enhancement	Collaboration to improve the quality of education at all levels, including regular assessments of educational outcomes, curriculum enhancements and the adoption of best practices in pedagogy and educational management.
Equality and Inclusivity	With a particular emphasis on reducing educational inequalities, efforts will be directed towards ensuring that no student is left behind, regardless of their background, origin or circumstances.
Teacher Professionalization	Acknowledgment of the key role of educators in shaping the future. Thus, promote investment in the continuous professional development of teachers in order to deliver high-quality education. This includes opportunities for teacher exchange programs, trainings, sharing of teaching methodologies and capacity-building initiatives.
Cultural Exchange and Linguistic Diversity	Recognition of the importance of respecting and promoting linguistic and cultural diversity. Hence, facilitate cultural exchange programs, language proficiency initiatives and the preservation of linguistic heritage.
Global Citizenship and Values Education	Engagement to nurturing responsible global citizens who uphold democratic values, human rights and environmental sustainability. Education will be used as a means to share values such as tolerance, respect and social responsibility in students.
Digital Literacy and Innovation	Cooperation to ensure that students are well-prepared for the digital society by acquiring training in digital literacy, cybersecurity and the ethical use of digital technologies.
Recognition and Equivalence of Degrees and Diplomas	Mutual recognition and equivalence of all degrees and diplomas to promote academic mobility.
Scholarships and Educational Aid	Provision of scholarship programs and financial assistance to students who require it.
Sustainability and Environmental Education	Integration of environmental education into the curricula and promotion of sustainable practices within educational institutions.

*(Elaborated by the author)*

Furthermore, in addition to the general recommendations on education, it is advisable to consider a dedicated section within the agreement about cooperation in higher education. The importance of higher education in shaping future professionals and the analysis of the educational objectives of both Peru and Spain justify the potential importance of this dedicated section for strengthening bilateral relations. To this end, the following table outlines the additional themes that should be incorporated into this specialized section:

Table 6: Proposal of a new Cooperation Framework Agreement - Higher Education Section.

<b>Proposal of a new Cooperation Framework Agreement - Higher Education Section</b>	
Innovation and Entrepreneurship	Development of entrepreneurship and innovation ecosystems within higher education institutions, such as startup incubators, technology transfer offices and partnerships for research and innovation.
Professional Identity and Employability	Motivation of professional identity among students through the acquisition of competencies that enhance employability and adaptability to evolving job markets.
Research Collaboration	Collaboration in research and development, especially in areas of mutual interest and societal importance.
Technology Integration	Integration of emerging technologies, such as artificial intelligence, data science and digital learning tools, into higher education curricula. This ensures that graduates are well-prepared for the digital economy.
Flexible Learning Models	Explore flexible learning models, such as online education, blended/hybrid learning and others, to meet the diverse needs of students and professionals.
Internationalization	Encouragement of internationalization efforts that go beyond student and faculty exchange. Promote joint-degree programs, collaborative research projects and partnerships with universities and higher education institutions.
Lifelong Learning	Promote the concept of lifelong learning, where individuals continue to acquire new skills and knowledge throughout their careers. Develop programs that facilitate upskilling and reskilling opportunities for professionals.

*(Elaborated by the author)*

This last table is derived from an analysis of agreements between Peru and Cuba, Peru and France, and Peru and Brasil. In the case of Peru and Cuba, the governments of both countries entered into a Bilateral Cooperation Agreement in 2011, with the intention to expand their collaboration in the fields of education, health, sports and culture. Each of these areas served as an annex to the Agreement on Cultural, Scientific, and Educational Cooperation of 1999. The first annex related to education was further divided into two sections, one addressing general aspects of education and another focusing exclusively on higher education. The latter outlined various actions, including prioritizing research exchanges and providing scholarships for key fields of study such as biotechnology, agronomy, informatics, medicine and more (Delegación de la República de Cuba and Delegación de la República del Perú, 2011).

In the case of Peru and France, they collaborated through their Cooperation Framework Agreement on Education, which was in effect from 2007 to 2012. Among various actions, this agreement aimed to promote the internationalization of Peruvian education, particularly by focusing on language learning, specifically the French language, in collaboration with national universities and other higher education institutions. Moreover, it underscored the importance of quality education through the need for student and professor accreditations. The exchange of Spanish and French teaching assistants also represented a peculiar action within this document as it is an initiative characteristic of the French government (Ministerio de Educación, 2007).

Lastly, the Memorandum of Understanding on Educational Cooperation between Peru and Brazil, subject to renewal every four years, placed particular emphasis on distance education, the recognition of degrees and diplomas in higher education and fostering cooperation for student, professor and specialist exchanges (Gobierno de la República del Perú and Gobierno de la República Federativa del Brasil, 2006).



## **Conclusion**

With the aim of enhancing Peru-Spain relations through the lens of educational cooperation, this thesis meticulously analyzed and identified key opportunities within the field of education to ultimately propose a specific course of action in order to achieve its objective. Thus, the following conclusion specifies how each chapter has been methodically developed to address the core issue of this thesis and provide a practical and viable solution.

The first chapter, divided into two parts, commenced by tracing the historical interactions between Peru and Spain, and establishing a foundational understanding of the essential concepts and information related to their relation, which has evolved through the centuries. The initial part of this chapter delved into the historical backdrop of the relations between both countries, spanning from the period of conquest and colonization in Peru to its eventual independence and the subsequent evolution of interactions with Spain. This historical journey highlighted the diplomatic efforts made to ensure peace and progress between the two nations, laying the groundwork for collaboration across various strategic domains, including economy, security and defense, and culture and education. Of particular note, the cultural and educational ties between Peru and Spain emerged as a longstanding and influential aspect of this relation, functioning as the primary tools of soft power through which both nations project their national interests on the international platform. The culmination of these interactions resulted in the establishment of a strategic partnership between the two countries, where education plays a part of the agenda and international cooperation emerges as a main theme in modern diplomacy.

The second part of the first chapter focused on four central themes related to educational cooperation. The first theme examined the concept of bilateralism

within international relations, recognizing the importance of exploring interactions between Peru and Spain through the lens of a shared agenda that places a high level of importance on their "special relations." The second theme delved into the societal impact of education and its role as a tool of soft power, revealing how education brings numerous advantages for national development and international engagement, like fostering diversity and tolerance, and facilitating interactions between nations. The third theme described the significance of international cooperation with a specific focus on the educational dimension, emphasizing how cooperation partners seek cohesion through policy coordination to align their strategies in pursuit of common goals, often through negotiations. In the realm of education, such cooperation encourages mutual engagement with each other's cultures and unique national characteristics through various projects and initiatives. At last, the fourth theme highlighted the critical role of higher education internationalization as a valuable resource for international cooperation, emphasizing the immense potential of this highest educational level as a catalyst for collaboration between nations.

The second chapter delved into the educational relations between Peru and Spain, building upon the central aspects of educational cooperation introduced in the first chapter. Divided into five parts, this chapter started by examining the regional context, outlining the significance of education in Latin America and the Caribbean. Then, it proceeded to elucidate Spain's educational engagement in this region. Subsequently, it conducted a study of the education scenarios and cooperation strategies in both Peru and Spain. And, finally, it scrutinized the mechanisms and agreements that underpin their educational cooperation efforts.

As per this distribution, it was evident that education in Latin America and the Caribbean has a long history of struggling with inequalities and disparities, explicitly affecting early childhood education and higher education, which disproportionately impacts poor individuals and countries in the region.

Additionally, the region's higher education sector faces challenges in terms of internationalization due to suboptimal strategies that hinder collaboration. However, given that international mobility, especially to Spain, is Latin America and the Caribbean most prominent tool for internationalization and with a significant number of Spanish students traveling to Latin America, this region emerges as a priority for Spain, not only due to historical ties but also for its potential in educational cooperation. Education, among other social services, has been a strategic focus for Spain, utilizing its soft power to promote internationalization, particularly thanks to the reputation of its higher education institutions in order to strengthen its international image.

Shifting the focus to Peru, the chapter revealed that the education situation in the country mirrored that of the broader Latin America and Caribbean region. It indicated past challenges in access to early childhood and higher education, highlighting repetitive issues with the quality of education, particularly in the latter due to the dominance of private enterprises. Reforms have led to improvements, but Peru faces hurdles in internationalizing higher education due to unclear and complex policies, indicating a need for a stronger cooperation strategy. In contrast, Spain has made steady progress in all levels of education, visible from its impressive accessibility scores. Spain also boasts a well-structured internationalization strategy for its universities, attracting a growing number of students from around the world.

In closing, the chapter revealed that Peru and Spain have actively explored certain mechanisms and heightened their efforts to pursue their shared interests. Both nations recognize that enhancing education through internationalization can bring numerous benefits. However, Spain, in this context, aims to extend its influence into Latin America, while Peru mainly concentrates on dealing with the imbalances of its territory through international cooperation.

The third chapter discussed the insights gained from the preceding sections, ultimately proposing an enhancement to one of the main agreements on educational cooperation between Peru and Spain: the Cooperation Framework Agreement of 2004. A proposal that became clear because of the necessity of an agreement that could take into account the historical Peruvian and Spanish relations (which have consistently emphasized culture and education as channels of communication even during times of crisis), along with the education landscapes of Peru and Spain, the international implication of education within the United Nations 2030 Agenda, and the respective general and higher education objectives of both countries.

The proposed model was founded on the principle of mutual benefits and designed to address the demands of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, acknowledging that the existing agreement falls short in adequately tackling contemporary educational challenges. As such, the chapter underlined the distinctions between the previous agreement and the proposed model, drawing attention to the inspiration and incorporation of some objectives from the old model into the new one.

In a new international order, it is imperative for Spain and Peru to forge a renewed agreement that takes into account contemporary imperatives like digital literacy. The 21<sup>st</sup> century, and especially the past decade, has witnessed significant transformations in technology, international relations, the economy, and other crucial domains. Therefore, these additional considerations form the basis of a new model for educational cooperation, linking up with the evolving interests of both Peru and Spain within the transitioning international system.

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## Appendices

### Appendix B - Archive Permission Form



#### Dissertation Archive Permission Form

I give all EUROSUD Consortium Partner Universities permission to archive an e-copy of my Master dissertation in a publicly available folder (i.e. on open access in the University Library) and to use it for educational purposes in the future.

Student Name (BLOCK LETTERS) ERIKA CARINA DELGADO RUBIO

Student Number: 2681288D

Student Signature: Erika Delgado Rubio Date: September 10th, 2023

**PLEASE INCLUDE A COPY OF THIS FORM AS AN APPENDIX OF YOUR DISSERTATION.**

## Appendix F – Declaration of Originality Form



### Declaration of Originality Form

This form must be completed and signed and submitted with all assignments.

Please complete the information below (using BLOCK CAPITALS).

Name..... ERIKA CARINA DELGADO RUBIO
Student Number..... 2681288D
Course Name..... SOUTH EUROPEAN STUDIES
Assignment Number/Name..... DISSERTATION

An extract from the University's Statement on Plagiarism is provided overleaf. Please read carefully THEN read and sign the declaration below.

<b>I confirm that this assignment is my own work and that I have:</b>	
Read and understood the guidance on plagiarism in the Undergraduate Handbook, including the University of Glasgow Statement on Plagiarism	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Clearly referenced, in both the text and the bibliography or references, all sources used in the work	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Fully referenced (including page numbers) and used inverted commas for all text quoted from books, journals, web etc. (Please check the section on referencing in the 'Guide to Writing Essays & Reports' appendix of the Graduate School Research Training Programme handbook.)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

- Provided the sources for all tables, figures, data etc. that are not my own work
- Not made use of the work of any other student(s) past or present without acknowledgement. This includes any of my own work, that has been previously, or concurrently, submitted for assessment, either at this or any other educational institution, including school (see overleaf at 31.2)
- Not sought or used the services of any professional agencies to produce this work
- In addition, I understand that any false claim in respect of this work will result in disciplinary action in accordance with University regulations

**DECLARATION:**

I am aware of and understand the University's policy on plagiarism and I certify that this assignment is my own work, except where indicated by referencing, and that I have followed the good academic practices noted above

Signed *Rika Delgado Rubio*