

Chapter 46

The Role of Academicians' Networks in Latin America: The Fight Against Social Injustices. An Institutional Challenge

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Education and Social Policy in Latin America and Europe

Social Policy

By the first quarter of the twenty-first century in most countries in Latin America, the foundations of welfare regimes had been laid and led to important actions in the field of public health, such as health campaigns, vaccination, and health education. In education, through the Ministries of Public Education, the State assumed responsibility for providing primary education to all people. During the first half of the twentieth century, achieving national integration was one of the principles that promoted and justified social and economic policies as priority actions due to the large dispersion and isolation from population centers. The actions of governments in this direction were the construction and expansion of highways and roads to reach to small towns, cities, and states, to facilitate the transit of goods, services, and people.

In Mexico and other Latin American countries, Welfare State took the form of arrangements between government, employers, workers, and other sectors of the population to generate and distribute welfare. As these arrangements were subjected

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to the 6-year temporary government, they became what experts identified as a *welfare scheme*. This expresses a difference in the characterization which we will be looking to perform here on the evolution of social policy between the two regional blocks, because, as pointed out by Fleury and Molina (2000), “It was the recognition of poverty as a social problem that created the conditions for the development of powerful institutional mechanisms of social protection in the European context, known as the State Social Welfare (Welfare State).”

The *grosso modo* review we show here from the post-Second World War assumes that it is from this period in which different Latin American countries share relatively similar stories in economic and social terms. While in the post-war period the attention of governments in developed countries focused on the reconstruction of the standards of economic and social well-being that were seriously damaged or destroyed by war, the deployment of social development policies in Latin America were initiated and they embarked on a process of industrialization by import substitution, which emphasized economic growth. Since the 1980s, Latin America has experienced a decrease in the relative share of social spending in state budgets. Social security systems, public health, and education, which are fundamental to the achievement of social development, were seriously affected.

In order to contribute to the understanding of current social policy and developments and transformations of the welfare regime in Latin America and its relationship with the European Union, we focus initially on the periodization made by Carlos Barba (2004) with appropriate settings for the purposes of this chapter, as well as the reflections of Marco Antonio Rodríguez Camacho (2003) and several authors in *Social Development* of the Center of Social Studies and Public Opinion (CESOP, in Spanish) (2006).

Linkages Between Social Policy and the Imports Substitution Development Economic Model (1940–1970)

From the 1930s, health campaigns spread and began the systematic provision of health services, and measures were undertaken to extend public education beyond the primary level. By the 1940s, as discussed by Wilkie (1974), governments put greater emphasis on achieving economic growth through industrialization. Although state promotion of social development continued, economic growth was considered the mechanism *per se* to raise the standard of living of the population. To expand and diversify the production structure, the actions of well-bounded urban organized groups resulted in the improvement of various social indicators, especially in terms of expanding health coverage and education.

State intervention in the economy was financed with income from raw materials in various countries, such as oil in the case of Mexico; incomes were insufficient, and that opened the appeal of using the fiscal deficit. The strategy of economic growth without inflation and low deficit, known as stabilizer development, was encouraged by the proposals for economic growth through import substitution

industrialization promoted by the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). These recommendations coincided with the nationalist discourse and objectives that characterized this period, which were applied in much of the Latin American region.

In this period, social security had already been established in several Latin American countries (Argentina, Chile, Uruguay, among others), with lag in some countries, including Mexico. In the mid-1960s, the social protection system recorded a remarkable achievement to make mandatory contributions for the social housing business.

For Viviane Brachet (1996), the most significant feature of Mexico in the 1940s was the emergence and consolidation of corporatism, which became crucial for social development, as much of the welfare benefits and social security since then was assigned to groups of organized workers. Thus, Brachet finds that social security and progress in labor was a way to control the labor movement before the advance of socialism and the beginning of the Cold War, a situation which was common in different latitudes of the region.

International agencies began to increase its influence in designing social policies through the dissemination of European welfare measures as a model to raise the standard of living of the population or through the active involvement of agencies such as the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB). Before the triumph of the Cuban Revolution, the U.S. government, in 1963, created the Alliance for Progress (ALPRO) as the social development agenda in this decade, a strategy that had broad support from multilateral institutions such as the World Bank and the IDB.

High population growth was a big problem for employment policies, education, housing, health care, and human settlements, and the coverage of demand for food and clothing were inadequate in relation to the amount of funding provided by the ALPRO, the IDB, and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) declined drastically. Cordera and Lomeli (2005) report that, in Mexico, the substitutive industrialization strategy favored economic growth, but shaped and unbalanced social development; although there was a relative reduction of poverty, social inequality emerged as an inherent feature of the country's social development.

The economic and financial instability in the early 1970s was seen as an expression of attrition of the *stabilizing development model*.

Precursor Social Policies to Combat Poverty (1970–1980)

Cordera and Lomeli considered as precursors three programs. The first is the Public Investment Program for Integrated Rural Development (PIDER, in Spanish), created in 1973 to integrate existing programs at the three levels of government for the rural environment. Part of the resources came from multilateral agencies, such as the World Bank and the IDB.

Two flagship programs created in 1976 were the National Plan for Depressed Areas and Marginal Groups (COPLAMAR, in Spanish) and the Mexican Food

System (SAM). The first – remarkable in the history of policies to combat poverty – conducted an extensive assessment of the situation of marginalized groups and areas of the country. The results showed a radiograph of the marginalization that made it possible to program specific actions in the fields of health, food supply, rural housing improvements, expansion of potable water networks, electrification, road construction, and support for peasant activities organization. Although the program was in effect only from 1976 to 1982, the focus of attention to marginalized groups, especially in rural areas, was an implicit recognition that universal policies and widespread consumer subsidies applied so far did not reach those segments of the population, as revealed by studies conducted by the same COPLAMAR (1983).

The SAM purposed to fight the loss of food self-sufficiency and agricultural commodities contributing to reducing poverty. The COPLAMAR and SAM were canceled at the beginning of the financial and economic crisis of the early 1980s (Cordera and Lomeli, *op. cit.*), a crisis that resulted in the structural adjustment process, which led to a profound change in social policies.

Recurrence of Crisis and Change in the Paradigm of Welfare (1980–2005)

In all countries, there are private systems of provision besides public social services. México, Argentina, Costa Rica, Cuba, Uruguay, Brazil, Jamaica, the Bahamas, and Barbados all have more extensively developed social security systems. At least formally, 70 to 100 % of the population of that group of countries is covered by that system. At the opposite extreme, we have countries like Honduras, Guatemala, El Salvador, Dominican Republic, and Bolivia, where only a maximum of 20 % of the population is covered by public social security systems. Since 1988, there began a new stage of social policy through an alternative package of social welfare that sought to compensate for the socially disadvantaged with scarce fiscal resources.

Several experts (Brachet, 1996; Gordon, 2000) agree that social policies in the early 1990s meant an *easing of open market policies*, with a new approach to welfare policies, in which *assistencialism* together with selective social policies and targeted programs are found.

As pointed out by Rodríguez (2003), international agencies agreed on the requirement of a structural adjustment that is more *humanitarian*. Thus, in the 1990s the World Bank supported the development of strategies to fight poverty, but because they were subordinated to the economic structural adjustment, they worked only as a “buffer” – and only in the short term – for the social costs of adjustment.

In addition, the IDB and the United Nations Program for Development (UNDP) produced a Latin American social reform that relied more strongly not only on compensation and assistance programs in the short term and in various public and private services, but also in the integration of economic and social policies to create jobs. The State is, again, assigned a major regulatory role. The ECLAC also sought structural reforms aimed at producing social opportunities for education and

productive employment for the disadvantaged, and, above all, seeking to eliminate the long-term structural poverty.

The oil boom of the early 1980s in Mexico – which turned out to be very short – permitted new social reforms, but was interrupted almost immediately by the emergence of the crises in 1980–1982, which were triggered by the inability to repay foreign debt. A reform of the State was initiated; it involved, amongst other things, public sector downsizing and rethinking the role of government in social policy (Brachet, *op. cit.*). The economic model to guide the economic and trade liberalization and financial deregulation was much in line with the explicit inclusion of the country's economy into the global economy during the presidency of Miguel de la Madrid. This process brought about profound changes in the design and implementation of social policies, such as the replacement of universalism – which privileged the middle and upper strata of urban groups – selective policies, and programs targeting the segments of the population in greatest need and longest lags.

The adjustment process initiated in 1982–1983 on public spending in general and particularly social cuts was substantial. Social policy was subject to criteria of efficiency in resource allocation. The lack of funds to meet the demand for public goods and services widened social inequality and poverty increased. It is estimated that over 40 % of Latin Americans lived in poverty, many in extreme poverty. The relative share of social spending in state budgets decreased. Social security systems, health, and education – fundamental to the achievement of social development – were seriously affected. During this period, spending on new investments and maintenance of equipment were drastically reduced; in some countries, these costs fell to 70 %. This period is characterized by the absence of compensatory social policies to cushion the effects of the crisis and structural adjustment; with the exception of regional employment programs, the effects were very limited.

The above two paragraphs express the view taken by the cabinet predecessor Carlos Salinas de Gortari (1988–1994) in México, and from whose criticism formed the National Solidarity Program (PRONASOL), and with more explicit support of the guidance and support given by international agencies. Rolando Cordera (*op. cit.*) reports that to the cumulative lags were joined the demand for new services, such as building more schools, the expansion and rehabilitation of basic infrastructure (water, sewer), and the housing backlog and demand for health services, both from recipients of institutional systems and those who were external to them.

The linchpin for actions of PRONASOL was the building of social relationships in the communities in extreme poverty. Resources were provided directly to communities, a situation that Mariñez (2003) noted did invoke patronage of the program, and was certainly criticized at the time. The program was aimed at indigenous peasants in extreme poverty and marginalized urban groups most affected by adjustment policies. The actions took place in the areas of nutrition, health, land, housing, education, and agricultural infrastructure. According to Mario Coria (2005), the impulse to social networks in each community was one of the peculiarities of PRONASOL, unlike previous welfare programs that left no space for the participation of people.

Cordera (*op. cit.*) identifies that, while social spending in 1988 accounted for 31.9 % of programmable expenditure, in 1993, it accounted for 51.1 %, with health, education, and the lines of social spending having higher increases. In 1997, endorsing the sectional changing nature of public policies in Mexico, the Education, Health, and Nutrition Program (PROGRESA) replaced PRONASOL. The PROGRESA had a comprehensive social policy approach, included health services, food, and education to develop the capacities of individuals and families in extreme poverty, incorporating a gender approach intended to promote the attendance and retention of girls in schools and the role of women at home; women were appointed to manage the monetary transfers that the program provided.

Starting from 2001 – and the promise of political change in the country – PROGRESA was converted to the Human Development Program (OPORTUNIDADES). This program began its activities in response to families in extreme poverty in rural areas, while OPORTUNIDADES has extended its coverage to urban areas. OPORTUNIDADES, which is a conditional cash transfer program aimed at training human capital, is considered by the International Food Policy Research¹ as a social program that is successful and distinguished by its design, operation, and good results in reducing extreme poverty, and which has been encouraged to be taken as a model for other countries in Latin America.

The OPORTUNIDADES program is part of CONTIGO, which is a comprehensive strategy aimed at the social development of poverty reduction. CONTIGO is conceived as a new approach to social development, overcoming the shortfalls of previous programs, which tended to duplicate efforts and, on the other hand, to leave priority areas unattended. According to Miguel Székely (2002), “The central idea in the new strategy is that poverty in Mexico and, in general, social disadvantage, are mainly caused by high inequality in the possession of resources and not by the inability of the economy to generate goods and services for the entire population.” In a kind of self-criticism and self-justification, David Ibarra² (2004) considers that economic reforms have given mixed results for its success in achieving fiscal balance and control inflation; however, the pace of economic growth and development of the labor market have not been favorable for the reduction of poverty in Mexico.

The CEPAL (2004) notes that two general characteristics in the countries of Latin America in the 1990s have been the tertiarization and informalization of the economy, and poor economic performance combined with a profound transformation of the occupational structure; employment fell in primary and secondary sectors, and increased in trade and services. This resulted in the growing informalization of the labor force; it was estimated that, in Mexico, there were 8.6 million persons employed in the informal sector in 1995, equivalent to 25.7 % of total employed persons. The CESOP (2005) estimated that, by 2003, employment in the informal sector had increased to 10.8 million people, representing 26.7 % of the total

¹PROGRESA, *Rompiendo el ciclo de la pobreza*. <http://www.ifpri.org/spanish/pubs/ib/ib6sp.pdf>.

²David Ibarra Muñoz was Ministry of the Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público in the José López Portillo period (1976–1982).

occupation of the country, while by 2005, the informal sector production accounted for 10 % of the GDP. It is worth remembering that this large segment of the population in the informal economic activity has no access to social security or institutional health services; only from 2003 was the *Seguro Popular* available.

As a partial closure, we can say with Cordera and Lomeli (2005) and Boltvinik (2000) that economic policy has not been beneficial for the improvement of welfare conditions in the last 25 years, since there is no congruence between the objectives of social policy and economic policy. In fact, social policy has worked as a palliative for the negative results of low economic growth and structural adjustment processes.

Social policies and programs to overcome poverty were refined taking the PRONASOL experience and, above all, the World Bank recommendations. The approach of selective and targeted programs implies the view that poverty reduction can only be achieved with the participation of beneficiaries (the co-responsibility).

In the intention to remove the bias of welfare, both programs have emphasized the development of the capacities of people to stop the intervention of public policy to deal with the elements in the labor market and social life. However, given that governments continue to consider the *assistencialism* as a resource to maintain social control, and, consequently, its paternalistic view, despite the criticism of the populist PRI government promises, in the short term, we do not see it as a solution to equity issues.

Different governments have not neglected in their speeches education as a “tool” for the “leverage” of development, and we really consider that a broad sense is, indeed, a social resource for social and individual emancipation. However, few countries have placed meaning on education as a key factor for social change. We will review this topic in the next section.

The Educational Policy. From Developmentalism to Neoliberalism: The Fading of Social Perspective

In a similar temporal scheme to the previous section but in “packages” that are more compact, we will review the “discourses” on the role of education in Latin America, taking as reference the *Summit of the Americas* meetings (Feldfeber & Saforcada, 2005) and approaches of the ECLAC (Solano, 2000).

Regardless of how grounded conceptualization of the welfare state came to Latin America, which, for us, is more appropriate to refer to as *welfare regimes* (as defined at the beginning of this chapter), there is some consensus that, in the documents of the first summits (1956 and 1967), education, science, and technology are conceived as the basis of comprehensive development and social welfare of *developmentalism*.

On the other hand, in the first two summits of the “new process” – Miami, 1994 and Santiago de Chile, 1998 – we can find a change in paradigm, in diluting the link between education and overall development and welfare, strengthening its relationship with economic development and competitiveness. Public education, therefore, is considered more as a palliative than a State’s duty towards the whole society. In line with the goal of limiting social policies and developing targeted

policies, typical of the neoliberal model, public education is raised in response to problem situations and attention focused on vulnerable social groups. It redefines the State's responsibility in education, moving to develop policies for dealing with diversity and poverty. Thus, education policy loses the reference of a social right to be guaranteed on an equal basis to all.

Based mainly on the document "Changing production patterns with equity, the priority task for Latin America and the Caribbean in the Nineties" (UN/ECLAC, 1990), Solano (2000) identifies the *shift* that occurs from the "education for development" to "education for productive transformation with equity," with ideological, political, and economic implications.

Even more, the paradigm of education for productive transformation with equity is not yet well assimilated, when education and *knowledge*, along with technology, are conceived as central to the achievement of competitiveness and penetration of international markets, but still with the remaining pending tasks of democratization and the achievement of equity (Solano, 2000: 84).

Therefore, it will not stop ringing strange that, meanwhile, our societies are being demanded to advance to the *knowledge society* – as technologies are available to do so – when there are major delays not to say in the modernization and democratization of institutions, but of social backwardness: lags such as low schooling compared with developed countries, high rates of poverty, unequal distribution of welfare, and so on.

Even so, but rather because of that set of situations that make reality more complex, is that opportunities for integrated approaches in areas of knowledge is seen as desirable, feasible, and urgent. Therefore, in the following section, we discuss in more detail the possibilities of a more equitable development and try to identify the role that higher education institutions could play, as well as academic institutions and their explicitly intended research-oriented networks.

Process Integration of Knowledge in Latin America and Europe

We are going to consider two initiatives whose objective considers integrating knowledge between Latin America and Europe: (1) The Ibero-American Space for Knowledge (EIC) that emphasizes its connection to productivity and competitiveness, giving priority to higher education and research, development, and innovation (Summit, 2005, Salamanca) and (2) The Latin America, the Caribbean, and the European Union Common Area of Higher Education (ALCUE Common Area of Higher Education), which considers education as "a public good, essential for human development, social and technological ... essential for overcoming inequalities between individuals, educational institutions and national societies, and the balanced exercise of their interdependence" (ALCUE Portal).

The EIC conceives the regional integration of knowledge as an interactive and collaborative space between universities, research centers, and companies for the

generation, dissemination, and transfer of knowledge on the basis of complementarity and mutual benefit. As for the ALCUE Common Area of Higher Education, the regional integration of knowledge is a Latin America–Latin America and between Latin America and the European Union higher education systems infrastructure for cooperation at the institutional, national, and regional levels for academic cooperation and integration.

The Ibero-American Space for Knowledge (EIC)

The EIC is promoted by the Organization of Ibero-American States for Education, Science, and Culture (OEI, in Spanish), among other organizations, an initiative that arises in the context of the Summit of Heads of State and Government, held annually since 1991. The agency noted the reiteration of the need for regional cooperation mechanisms, and current circumstances in the world make it even more necessary. The EIC is formally defined in the XV Summit of Salamanca (2005), where the text of the Declaration states that the “Iberoamerican Space for Knowledge, will be oriented to the necessary transformation of higher education, organized around the research, development and innovation, which are necessary to increase productivity by providing better quality and accessibility goods and services for our people and the international competitiveness of our region...” (Article 13).

In the OEI Summit at Santiago de Chile (2007), the “Latin American Initiative mobility for master and doctoral students” was approved, and seeks to promote the training of young scientists and technologists required by the region. The most advanced action of the *Initiative* is expressed in the *Pablo Neruda Program*, which is aimed at graduate academic mobility, of the subregional, regional, and multilateral levels. It is structured in thematic networks formed by higher education institutions of at least three countries participating in the program. It specifies that governments define priority areas which science and graduate programs may participate, provided they have accreditation of the quality of their respective national agencies and have the guarantee of academic recognition by the university of origin.

On the basis of common language, education is considered a natural place for the Latin American, and, in this context, is where it presents its full potential of building the Ibero-American Education Higher Education Area, which, in turn, will be fully linked to the Euro-Ibero American Higher Education Area.

The OEI considers promotion and support to research networks as fundamental to boost the Ibero-American Area of Knowledge, and includes support for the mobility of researchers and students. Human resources training in the field of science, research, and innovation should be targeted not only nationally but throughout the region. Among the objectives are:

- (a) Promote cooperation aimed at continuously improving the quality of higher education;
- (b) Strengthen efforts to create networks of cooperation and academic exchange and research, as means to build the Ibero-American Area of Knowledge;

- (c) Support national science and technology for the development of national science, technology, and innovation;
- (d) Promote scientific literacy and stimulate young people's dedication to the study of science and technology, while embracing the independence of mind and a sense of critical responsibility;
- (e) Develop and strengthen scientific and technological capabilities of Ibero-American countries and highly qualified human resources;
- (f) Promote a science and technology agenda that is responsive to the Ibero-American social demands for knowledge and to promote equity and social cohesion.

As strategies:

- (a) Consolidate the University Center for Advanced Studies (CAEU) of the OEI as a means of energizing the Ibero-American Area of Knowledge;
- (b) Enhance the operation of the Ibero-American Observatory of Science, Technology and Society as a tool for the monitoring and evaluation of policies for science and higher education in the context of the Ibero-American Area of Knowledge;
- (c) Implement and consolidate a system of mobility of students, with recognition of studies, as well as researchers and university professors from Latin American countries;
- (d) Create opportunities for interaction and collaboration between universities, research centers, enterprises, and social organizations for the generation, transmission, and transfer of knowledge and to generate social demands;
- (e) Strengthen the technical teams of national science and technology in design, management, and evaluation;
- (f) Advise on the design and implementation of actions aimed at promoting scientific careers among students, in coordination with the educational policies;
- (g) Establish disciplinary and interdisciplinary networks of academic and research cooperation in education, science, and culture;
- (h) Establish, under the coordination of the General Ibero-American Secretariat (SEGIB), lines of joint work with other Ibero-American programs in science, technology, and innovation.

The last strategy is expressed in Fig. 46.1.

The Latin America, the Caribbean, and the European Union Common Area of Higher Education (ALCUE Common Area of Higher Education)

This is an initiative of the European Union countries, Latin America, and the Caribbean, favored by the Inter-American University Organization (OUI) for the creation of an environment of bilateral and multilateral interaction among higher education systems. Its origin is in the Rio de Janeiro Summit, on June 29, 1999, in which the Heads of State and Government expressed their political will to strengthen



Fig. 46.1 EIC interactions and support



1. **(TINTIES) Las TIC's para la Innovación e Internacionalización de las IES**
2. **(UE) Relación Universidad-Empresa y la Innovación**
3. **(UNIGO) Universidad, Gobernanza y Gestión**
4. **(ALCUEMOVE) Movilidad de Estudiantes e Internacionalización del Currículo**
5. **(EMPLOYALCUE) Empleabilidad de los Graduados**
6. **(PymesALCUE) Desarrollo Local y Observatorios PYME para el Mercado Laboral**
7. **(DEMOPOL) Gobernabilidad Democrática y Políticas Públicas en América Latina**

Fig. 46.2 VertebrALCUE research networks

relations between these countries and identified higher education as a priority. The main goals and objectives of the ALCUE Common Area of Higher Education were established at the Conference of Education Ministers of European Union countries, Latin America, and the Caribbean, held on 2 and 3 November 2000 in Paris, whose Declaration envisages higher education as a public good, essential for human development, social and technological, and stated as being essential to overcoming inequalities between individuals, educational institutions, and national societies, and the balanced exercise of its interdependence. Actions take into account the fundamentals of common cultural heritage of the countries of the European Union, Latin America, and the Caribbean to contributing to promoting mutual understanding of those countries and stimulating the interaction of its colleges, universities, and non-universities, and their respective education systems.

This initiative has, in VertebrALCUE, the strategy factor in the process, in accordance to the different levels of articulation in academic cooperation in Latin America – Latin America and between Latin America and the European Union, through the design and implementation of an infrastructure of cooperation at institutional, national, and regional levels. This infrastructure is made up of 25 Units in VertebrALCUE among the member institutions. See Figs. 46.2 and 46.3.

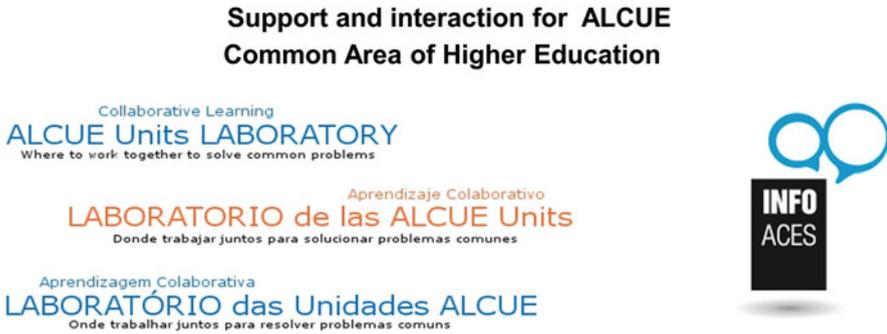


Fig. 46.3 Support and interaction for ALCUE Common Area of Higher Education

For the explicit purpose of this text, it is important to highlight the relevance of several projects. The fundamental purpose of DEMOPOL is to contribute to the definition and implementation of public policies [...] to build democratic societies that are more just and inclusive. This network is coordinated in Argentina (Buenos Aires Representation at the University of Bologna) and Bolivia (Bolivian Centre for Multidisciplinary Studies). Along with DEMOPOL and in a sense of complementarity, UNIGO aims to facilitate innovation and improvement in university management and governance. This network is coordinated from Colombia through the Colombian Association of Universities and ANUIES in México. EMPLOYALCUE (employability of graduates) exists to strengthen the link between university and professional sectors requiring graduates and reduce the gaps between labor demand and supply of graduates from higher education. This network is coordinated from Chile (Universidad Central de Chile) and Italy (University of Bologna).

So, as Fig. 46.3 shows, VertebrALCUE together with INFOACES give support to this initiative. INFOACES is an ambitious project whose aim is to improve the quality and relevance of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Latin America and to increase its contribution to the social and economic environment. To do this, INFOACES will generate comprehensive information on all Latin American IES and will allow institutional development and academic cooperation between the participating institutions and serve to support the development of the Common Area of Higher Education (ACES) in synergy with the European Union.

It is defined by Jose Carot as “An information system [that] will facilitate comparison of quality and case studies of good practice, [will] allow the definition of university policies based on the actual analysis of results and facilitate the transparency of the system of higher education in Latin America, an essential condition to build the Common Area of Higher Education (ACES), a common goal of Latin American countries and the European Union.”

The Role of Institutions and Academic Networks on Social Injustice

In Latin America, México along with Chile were among the first countries that made changes to the economic subsystem, conforming to the neoliberal trend that was implemented in Latin America in the late 1980s and early 1990s. With this, all social and educational policy became, for the purpose of responding to the significant changes that evolved during the growth of world trade, the emphasis on democracy and reducing state intervention in the economy.

Over time, the consequences of policies are meant to become an obstacle to the aspirations of vulnerable groups to pursue higher education. Mexico's history records the passage of a period characterized by the absence of policies on higher education (1950–1968) to its formation as a subsystem that has closer links with business and consumer markets and the production of goods, a concept that was part of the modernization of Mexico, designed by the government of Carlos Salinas de Garter (1988–1994). During this period, the government created the Fund for Educational Modernization (FOMES), and, in 1992, it joined the National Agreement for the Modernization of Education, amending in 1993 the Mexican Constitution and also promulgates the General Law of Education with the purpose of promoting a high-quality education system (Mendoza et al., 1986).

During the Salinas government, four strategic lines for higher education were raised: "... evaluation, competition for funding, opening and linking educational institutions and the productive sector, and organizational reforms" (Mendoza et al., 1986: 239). By the 1990s, evaluation became the central strategy to increase quality in higher education emerging what is known as the *Evaluator State*, reflected in a remote control of universities and conditioning funding to specific criteria, focusing on the use of measures and actions that appealed to assess excellence and relevance (Mendoza et al., 1986). To it was added a set of measures that radically transformed academic life, measures such as: the dehomologation wage, the creation of competitive funds for the purpose of modifying the scheme of resource allocation to universities, processes of evaluation by external bodies to the institutions, assigning a high importance to the quality of programs, and the social relevance of the institutions.

On this idea of modernizing the educational institutions appeared the first national assessment, reflecting the reality of education in the social sectors. It was found in the *National Assessment of Education*, developed in 2000, that young people from marginalized groups face serious barriers to entry, retention, and graduation in higher education institutions. Similarly, it was discovered that this educational level was attended by only 11 % of those living in poor urban areas, 3 % of those living in poor rural areas, and only 1 % of those belonging to indigenous groups. This situation created interest in responding to the issues of equity. To do so, aims were directed to expanding and diversifying opportunities of access to higher

education and offer educational opportunities to disadvantaged social groups. This included the diversification of institutional profiles and educational opportunities in states of different types of open and distance learning.

However, over time, the measures taken were scarcely investigated and analysis of the issue does not transcend the public domain, which is why the phenomenon of educational exclusion are unknown nationally, and, specifically, higher education discussion is practically abandoned. This situation, resulting in a reduced level of information available, has led us to write this section, based on the national census of 2010, which, while it provides updated statistical data, lacks disaggregated information of regions or particular cases.

In writing this section of the report, we developed a strategy for comparing the poorest states and states that reflect less poverty and can be considered among the states with the greatest drive to national development. By this procedure, we form a comparison of the conditions experienced by the inhabitants of the poorest states in order to enter and remain in colleges of education. The three states that have traditionally made up the specter of poverty in Mexico are Chiapas, Guerrero, and Oaxaca, according to data provided in the last measurement of poverty. The evaluation carried out from 2008 to 2010 by the National Council for Evaluation of Social Development Policy (CONEVAL)³ was updated with data from the 2010 Census conducted by the National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI).

According to figures from CONEVAL, for 2010, there were 52 million people in Mexico considered to be in poverty, representing 46.2 % of the total population. States with the largest population living in poverty are Guerrero, which ranks first in terms of poverty, Oaxaca the second, and Chiapas occupying the third place.⁴ In all three cases, the degree of social backwardness is considered to be very high.

The population living in poverty in Mexico has common characteristics: living in rural areas with homes devoid of basic services such as water, sewerage, and electricity; deprived of well-paid jobs, and social security as well as cultural and cognitive deficits suffered because educational services are poor. While it is true that the states of Guerrero, Oaxaca, and Chiapas are states which historically manifest poverty, it is not concentrated in this region; rather, poverty should be understood as a social scourge that is distributed across the different municipalities of Mexico and that it accurately expresses the enormous social inequality prevailing in the country.

Measurements by municipality in Mexico are not common, but data from the latest figures from the 2005 Human Development Index (HDI) by local authorities, on the basis of information from the 2000 General Census of Population and Housing, generated a huge dataset on wealth inequality in the country. At that time,

³The measurement of poverty made by the CONEVAL considers the following variables: current income per capita, average educational gap in the household, access to health services, access to social security, quality of living space, access to basic housing services, access to food, and degree of social cohesion.

⁴In 2005, these same states ranked in descending order in the measurement of poverty. The classification was as follows: Chiapas (1st place.), Guerrero (2nd place), and Oaxaca (3rd place) (CONEVAL, 2010).

there were 2,443 municipalities, of which only 20 were classified as entirely urban, as the population of all their locations exceeded 2,500 people. Similarly, 911 of these municipalities were considered as totally rural, given that among the total of their localities, the people who inhabit them numbered less than 2,500. Of all Mexican municipalities, 120 had fewer than 1,000 inhabitants and the 11 most populous municipalities made up 14 % of the population (PNUD, 2004).

Within the same state, there may be significant differences as to when the analysis was performed by the municipality. This is the case in 2004, when municipalities with the highest quality of national life, that is, those who occupied the top ten in terms of HDI, is concentrated in five states. Five of the ten municipalities were in the Federal District, two in Nuevo Leon, one in the State of Mexico, one in Morelos, and one in Oaxaca. A similar phenomenon appeared in the ten municipalities with the lowest HDI, that is, the poorest municipalities or those with a lower quality of life were distributed in just four states of the Republic. Four belonged to the state of Oaxaca, three to Chiapas, two to Veracruz, and one to Guerrero.

Thus, the inequality can be reflected within the same state, in this case of Oaxaca, which had rich and poor municipalities in the same measurement. This situation is common in all states of Mexico (PNUD, 2004).

The last measurement shows that the poverty situation in Chiapas is serious; it affects 78.4 % of the population. For Guerrero, the index is 67.4 and, for Oaxaca, it is 67.2 %. In these states lives a large proportion of indigenous population⁵: in the case of Chiapas, 1,209,057, 1,203,150 in Oaxaca, and in Guerrero 481,098. Among the three states, there is a total of 2,893,305 indigenous people, equivalent to 41.8 % of indigenous people throughout the country. To this sum, there are a large number of people with a disability.⁶ In Chiapas, there are 168,968 people with disabilities, in Guerrero 166,430, and in Oaxaca 227,262. Much of that population is in the preparatory school age range (National Council for Evaluation of Social Development Policy [CONEVAL], 2010; National Institute of Statistics and Geography [INEGI], 2010).

For the purposes of our work, it is important to reveal the conditions under which vulnerable groups need and receive support to join the national education system, specifically, higher education. We, therefore, consider as an axis of reflection the three poorest states in Mexico to compare with the support and conditions that are provided to the richest states and the Federal District,⁷ a federal entity which is lobbying for higher education for all and it stands as the most favored entity nationally.

⁵Mexico has an indigenous population of 6,913,362 distributed throughout the territory (INEGI, 2010).

⁶Mexico accounts a total of 5,739,270 people with disabilities. The highest percentage of national disability focuses on the inability to walk (58.3 %) and disability to see (27.2 %) (INEGI, 2010).

⁷The Federal District (DF) is a federal entity with special political status. As the headquarters of the Mexican federal government, it concentrates economic and political power. Nominally under the control of the federal executive, but since 1997 an elected official in the capital rules of the corresponding local government.

Table 46.1 Historical evolution of the national population at high school and university age

Age groups	1950	1960	1970	1990	2000	2010
16 to19	2,061,764	2,781,523	3,953,334	7,640,671	7,902,101	8,761,774
20 to24	2,299,334	2,947,072	4,032,341	7,829,163	9,071,134	9,892,271
Total	13,354,848	18,559,022	26,571,276	42,801,821	45,460,324	47,276,312

Source: Population census, INEGI

Table 46.2 School-age population (16–19 years) by state in 2000 and 2010

	2000	2010
Distrito Federal	642,949	583,118
Nuevo León	303,456	325,887
Coahuila	180,087	207,450
Chiapas	341,511	418,535
Oaxaca	282,549	317,728
Guerrero	259,266	290,239

Source: Population census, INEGI

Demand for education has increased with the massive expansion of the population in Mexico. The population groups have been distributed in the following manner. In 1950, Mexico had 13,354,848 school-age population, of which 2,299,334 were in the age range 20–24 years when reaching graduation. Sixty years later, in 2010, Mexico had 47,276,312 schoolchildren, with 9,892,271 in the 20–24 years range (see Table 46.1).

In this reporting framework, the states identified as being poorer reveal their educational reality, given the characteristics, conditions, and restrictions they faced historically. Here are some data. The percentage distribution of the school-age population, which ranges from 3 to 24 years, is as follows: Chiapas has increased demand for schooling from 2,014,435 (in 2000) to 2,295,041 in 2010; Guerrero had in 2000, a demand for education of 1,573,912 inhabitants and in 2010, this increased to 1,580,512; Oaxaca demanded spaces for 1,730,853 inhabitants in 2000 and 10 years later, there was a decrease to 1,691,868 (INEGI, 2000, 2010).

In the case of groups of interest for the present report, we note that claimant groups of high school education (those aged from 16 to 19) were as follows: in Chiapas, there was an increase from 341,511 in the year 2000 to 418,535 in 2010; in Guerrero, during the same decade, there was an increase from 259,266 to 290,239; in Oaxaca, in 2000, 282,549 demanded spaces, while in 2010, 317,728 spaces were demanded. At the opposite pole, the states that had a similar suit (Nuevo León) or less (Coahuila), except in the case of the Federal District which, although in 2010 reduced its population, there were more than half a million inhabitants of an age to attend to high school (see Table 46.2).

However, the levels of attention to the demand for the three poorest states that we analyzed are quite low, since none of them achieved the national average in the years reviewed, while in the richest states, they all reached the national average in

Table 46.3 Percentage of the population aged 16–19 years attending school by state and sex in 2000 and 2010

	2000			2010		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Country	41.4	42.3	40.6	51.2	50.7	51.7
Distrito Federal	60.3	61.3	59.3	65.2	64.9	65.6
Nuevo León	43.5	44.2	42.8	50	50.4	49.6
Coahuila	41.3	41.5	41.1	52.2	52.3	52.1
Chiapas	33	37.5	28.8	43.8	46.3	41.3
Oaxaca	37.2	40.2	34.4	47.9	48.2	47.6
Guerrero	40.4	42	38.9	46.5	46.2	46.7

Source: Population census, INEGI

Table 46.4 School-age population aged 20–24 years by state in 2000 and 2010

	2000	2010
Distrito Federal	832,517	753,404
Nuevo León	391,235	401,723
Coahuila	223,857	230,132
Chiapas	361,994	438,019
Oaxaca	288,035	313,523
Guerrero	265,129	290,684

Source: Population census, INEGI

that year. That is, the percentage of the population attending school is higher in these states (see Table 46.3).

In higher education, the percentage distribution of the school-age population aged 20–24 years by state for 2000 and 2010 is as follows: in Chiapas, it increased from 361,994 in 2000 to 438,019 in 2010; Guerrero had a population of 265,129 in 2000 and 290,684 in 2010; Oaxaca, having a population of 288,035 in 2000, increased to 313,523 in 2010. According to the review, these states have a demand equivalent to that of the stronger states, with the exception of Federal District, which almost doubles the pregraduate age population (see Table 46.4).

The rates of attendance in higher education in poor states are very low. In all cases, these states are below the national average of 17.7 % in 2000 and 22 % in 2010. The three states are far from the percentage of the leader, Federal District, which was 36.3 % in 2010 (see Table 46.5).

The situation is confirmed when one identifies the total undergraduate population, that is, the data of the highest level of studies in the population over 24 years of age obtained at the country level. In 2000, 12 of 100 people had at least 1 year of graduation; in 2010, this increased to 17 in every 100. In this case, leadership is maintained by the Federal District, as, currently, 30 out of 100 have at least 1 year of graduation. In contrast, the poorest states show rates below the national average. In the case of Chiapas, in a span of 10 years, the proportion increased from 6.7 to 12.3 %; Guerrero, in 2000, 9 out of 100 had 1 year of graduation compared to in 2010, where this proportion reached 13 %; Oaxaca is last in this indicator, as, in 2000, only 6.5 % of its inhabitants had 1 year of graduation, but in 2010, this population increased to 10.8 % (See Table 46.6).

Table 46.5 Percentage of population aged 20–24 years who attended school in a state by gender in 2000 and 2010

	2000			2010		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Country	17.7	19.1	16.4	22	22.8	21.3
Distrito Federal	31.6	34.2	29.2	35.3	36.3	34.2
Nuevo León	19	21.1	16.8	22	23.6	20.2
Coahuila	16	17.7	14.4	22.3	23.8	20.8
Chiapas	12.2	14.2	10.3	15.3	16.6	14.1
Oaxaca	14	15.8	12.5	17.6	18.7	16.7
Guerrero	15.1	15.7	14.6	17	16.8	17.1

Source: Gobierno Federal de México (2011). Population census, INEGI

Table 46.6 Percentage of population aged 24 years and over with a degree in higher education by state and sex in 2000 and 2010

	2000			2010		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Country	12	14.5	9.8	17.8	19	16.7
Distrito Federal	22.1	27.2	17.6	30.2	32.6	28.2
Nuevo León	16.9	20.5	13.5	23.6	25.8	21.4
Coahuila	14.8	17.3	12.4	20.9	22.6	19.4
Chiapas	6.7	8.5	4.9	10.8	12.3	9.4
Oaxaca	6.5	8	5.1	10.8	11.9	9.9
Guerrero	8.9	10.6	7.4	13.1	13.7	12.6

Source: Population census, INEGI

Table 46.7 Evolution of educational coverage for the population aged 19–23 years

Cycle	Distrito Federal	Nuevo León	Coahuila	Chiapas	Oaxaca	Guerrero
1995–1996	29.5	20.9	18	5.9	9.2	11.8
2000–2001	43.3	28.9	26.6	13.1	16.6	20.7
2005–2006	46.9	33.4	28.7	15.2	19	20.6
2006–2007	49.2	34.9	29	15.7	18.9	20.2
2007–2008	50.2	35.7	30.6	16.2	19.1	19.5
2008–2009	54.1	36.9	32.3	17.2	18.7	19.3
2009–2010	57.2	38.2	32.7	18.2	18.4	19.1
2010–2011	65.4	38.7	34.2	18.5	19	20.9
2011–2012	68.8	40.4	35.6	19	19.4	22.7

Source: Gobierno Federal de México (2011). Fifth report of the government of Felipe Calderón, 2011

Next, we analyze the historical evolution in coverage on higher education and school age. Data by state show a significant rise over the past 15 years. States with higher rates of poverty substantially increased the coverage at this level. Chiapas went from a coverage of 5.9 % in the cycle 1995–1996 to 19 % for the 2011–2012 cycle, that is, it nearly tripled its coverage. Minor advances are shown by Guerrero and Oaxaca, as they doubled their coverages in the same period (see Table 46.7).

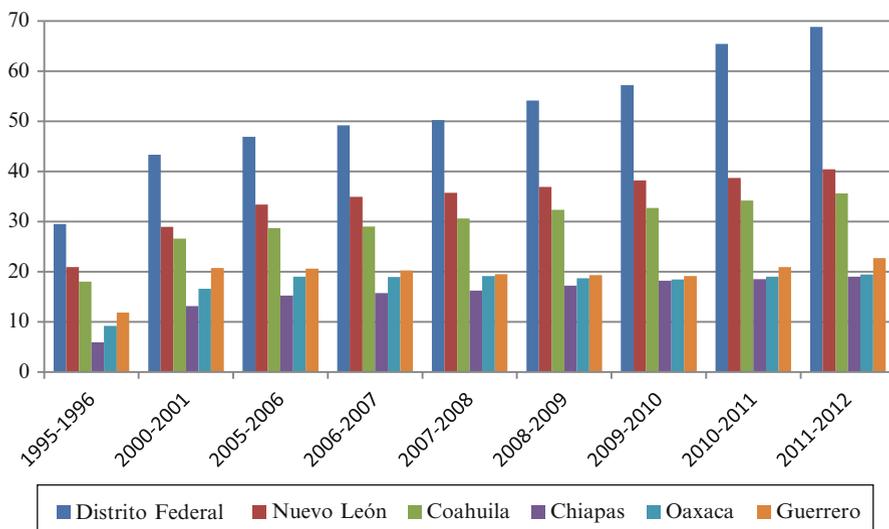


Fig. 46.4 Change in the percentage of population coverage of people aged 19–23 years (Source: Gobierno Federal de México (2011). Fifth report of the government of Felipe Calderón, 2011)

The same information shows the enormous gap between rich and poor states. Coahuila and Nuevo Leon have, in the last school year, coverage above 30 %. Coahuila has a rate of 35 %, while that of Nuevo León reaches over 40 %. The leader in the coverage of higher education is the Federal District with 69 %, which means that only 31 out of 100 people in that state had no access to education (see Fig. 46.4).

Attempts to strengthen the entry of Mexican youths into higher education have led to the creation and maintenance of different types of scholarships. The National Scholarship Programme for Higher Education (PRONABES)⁸ encourages the retention of students by means of economic support; grants from the National Council of Science and Technology (CONACYT) are awards to support research training in postgraduate programs of high impact; there are other types of scholarships which are awarded by various Mexican agencies to train undergraduate and graduate students.

PRONABES scholarships can be seen as support for those students who seek to pursue economic conditions of graduate studies. While its approach is not mentioned,⁹ it is clear that it serves to cover the cost of the opportunity of education for

⁸Scholarships from PRONABES started in the 2001–2002 school year with the participation of all states and the four higher education institutions of the Federal Government (IPN, UAM, UNAM, and UPN). The fund's resources are provided by the Federal Government, state governments, and public institutions of higher education in equal parts.

⁹Grants from this program are intended to ensure that students in adverse economic situations and with the desire to excel (such as during further studies) can continue their education project at the top level in public institutions in degree programs or higher technical colleges.

Table 46.8 PRONABES scholarships by school year

e	2005–2006	2006–2007	2007–2008	2008–2009	2009–2010	2010–2011
Distrito Federal	20,235	23,702	36,194	40,076	61,584	78,358
Nuevo León	4,418	4,495	4,744	3,954	3,880	3,294
Coahuila	4,851	5,070	5,275	5,293	5,314	4,844
Chiapas	6,310	8,037	7,742	6,809	9,401	9,222
Oaxaca	2,396	2,251	4,057	5,878	5,610	5,812
Guerrero	3,603	4,088	4,032	4,852	4,132	4,350

Source: Gobierno Federal de México (2011). Fifth report of the government of Felipe Calderón, 2011

those students who pursue their studies that are prevented from earning an income to support their families, that is, to offset the income they could have had if they were working instead of studying.

PRONABES scholarships are aimed at more depressed social and economic sectors nationwide. Its application and competition takes place in all states. The analysis we performed allows us to establish a set of differences between rich and poor states that we have outlined. First, it highlights a slight change in the support accorded to the rich states. In 2005–2006, these states received a high number of scholarships (only Chiapas received more than Coahuila and Nuevo Leon). By the 2010–2011 cycle, the three poorest states are able to overtake Coahuila and Nuevo Leon. However, over time, the dramatic growth is noticeable in terms of scholarships provided to the Federal District. In only five school years, more than 58,000 scholarships were earned by their students (see Table 46.8).

In comparative terms, the three poorest states show an increase in support. Oaxaca has been the state which benefited the most, as grants increased from 2,396 in 2005–2006 to 5,812 in the cycle 2010–2011 (an increase of 142 %); the other two states have not yielded generous benefits. Chiapas has achieved a 46 % improvement in the number of scholarships for the last five cycles, but Guerrero has only obtained a 20 % increase over the same period of time. In the case of the three richest states, Coahuila remains at virtually the same level of support over the past 5 years. Nuevo Leon has seen a decrease in the number of scholarships, going from 4,418 to 3,294 (25 % less). A special case is the Federal District, increasing from 20,235 to 78,358 grants (a 287 % increase) in just 5 years (see Fig. 46.5).

The last dataset we present are the fellowships awarded by the government for the training of researchers through postgraduate study. CONACYT grants have been awarded for 40 years. This program is designed to support people in undertaking high-level studies in academic institutions of excellence, both in the country and abroad. The objective is to contribute to the training of scientists and technologists of the highest level and increase scientific and technological capacity in Mexico. The training of human resources for research and development in Mexico are practically taken by rich states. It highlights the fact that, in 2001, the state of Guerrero received only a single scholarship, while the Federal District had 4,603 scholarships for students (see Table 46.9).

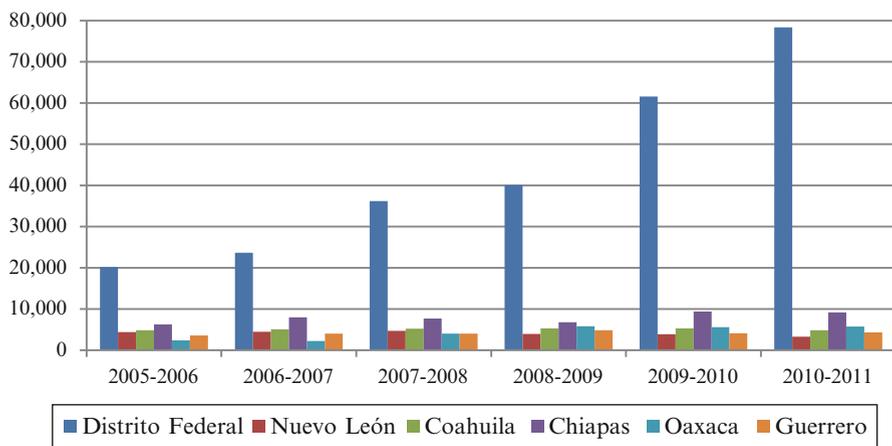


Fig. 46.5 PRONABES grants evolution (Source: Gobierno Federal de México (2011). Fifth report of the government of Felipe Calderón, 2011)

Differences between states are evident. Students of Coahuila and Nuevo Leon have greatly benefited over the past 10 years, since they have achieved an increase of those who access them. Coahuila has grown from 116 students with scholarship in 2001 to 887 in 2011, an increase of 664 %. Nuevo Leon also has had a good increase, as numbers went from 253 to 1,897 in the same 10 years; its increase is 649 %. But the most notable increase is the Federal District, since, in 2001, it had a high number of scholarships (4,603), and this tripled in 10 years, reaching 12,731 students with scholarships. The differences are best appreciated in Fig. 46.6.

The data presented allow us to understand the high degree of inequality existing in Mexico. This is expressed by the enormous weight of the Federal District in obtaining and consuming resources for higher education. Similarly, via documentation, we have shown how the state of Mexico receives more support than poor states, although demand for educational services is equal to or greater than rich states.

These characteristics should allow the placing of higher education in an educational context that is witnessing a rapid growth of scientific discovery, with an impressive advance of information technology and communications (ICT) to be applied in the educational context worldwide. However, it must also be understood that the context of inequality in Mexico means a barrier to reach a higher level of collective life in which to enjoy the benefits of scientific and technical progress, because, in a context of growing inequality, the consequences of this situation can lead to a social demarcation (and not just territorial) of boundaries, the growth and acceptance of interpersonal differences.

This level of inequality and lack of opportunity should be part of national priorities and international agendas, as this type of phenomena is important because their impact is unknown (directly or indirectly) on the issues that have been privileged in

Table 46.9 Graduate scholarships awarded by CONACYT

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Distrito Federal	4,603	4,735	5,665	6,136	7,202	7,642	8,800	11,461	12,678	11,879	12,731
Nuevo León	253	285	326	401	427	475	795	1,202	1,649	1,770	1,897
Coahuila	116	133	151	300	410	433	461	404	500	828	887
Chiapas	60	95	94	89	108	80	422	202	218	292	313
Oaxaca	12	13	15	62	61	65	61	51	80	229	245
Guerrero	1	1	1	4	46	77	50	48	56	49	53

Source: Gobierno Federal de México (2011). Fifth report of the government of Felipe Calderón, 2011

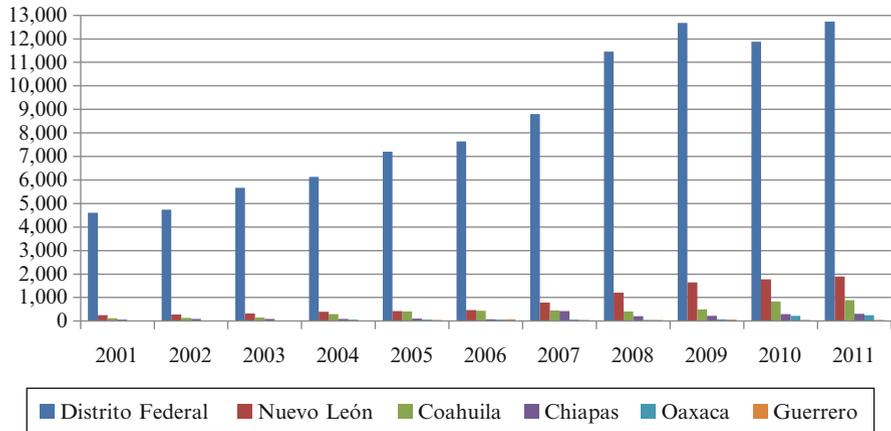


Fig. 46.6 CONACYT grants (Source: Gobierno Federal de México (2011). Fifth report of the government of Felipe Calderón, 2011)

the educational agenda: economic competitiveness and market share, sustainability, identity within globalization (including information, trade, and people and their cultures), equity, and, increasingly, the role of public institutions, including educational institutions.

The existing social structure we have, including the identity and cohesion in society and their understanding and acceptance of other societies, is largely created in schools. Educational institutions are one of the few trusted entities that may provide opportunities for socialization subjects and escaping poverty through learning. School education helps give meaning to and promote the sustainability of these changes, in particular, through life-long learning. In this regard, we believe that it is necessary to nourish the high expectations of a change in every country in the shared work of officials and scholars from institutions of higher education, who can lead the processes of learning and managing social change.

Adding to the expectations placed on education to promote equity and social justice, we find pressures of the approaches promoted by international agencies to ensure educational reform worldwide. The approaches of international agencies (OECD, OEI, World Bank) make clear the presence of a particular political leadership to drive change in higher education institutions, which has a huge impact on the kind of research that is legitimate and the notion of social transformation that is induced, as we have noted in the two preceding paragraphs.

Epistemology of Research and Social Transformation

One of the most pressing educational issues is the configuration of educational research in the way that it has become an international agenda since the last century. The OECD (1995) explored the trends, issues, and challenges of educational research

and development. The agency acknowledged, among others, four generic problems that limited the value of educational research. The first was the fragmentation, not only among political actors, policy makers, and practitioners, but also among researchers themselves. Second, the irrelevance of the issues set. The third was low quality and efficiency because of the resources invested and the products were meager. The fourth was the low applicability in educational institutions, which was attributed to the poor dissemination of results.

The reconfiguration of the research agenda for Latin America must pay special attention to the issue of educational leadership, as has already been confirmed to be an important factor in the success of educational institutions.

This leadership is especially important because of the impact of principals on student achievement, which demonstrates the influence of this work in academic outcomes through the proper organization of teachers and the setting of relations with society and families (Bell et al., 2002).

It is clear that, given the enormous gap that has been generated in Latin America, the educational leadership demands needs to incorporate issues such as providing education to promote social tolerance at a time of increased pluralism and multiculturalism. Similarly, it is important to meet the needs of growth and development within the context of economic and social gaps that have been generated with neoliberalism and, finally, it must include the educational agenda in the field of government, especially in reference to the responsibilities of governance that have been acquired with the multiple reforms driven by different sectors. In the same way, it is important to link education and research development with the type of preparation required by the government commitment to democracy, equitable development, and increased social capital and its citizens.

We have considered that the issue of educational research, leadership, and transformation is a subject that passes through the newly minted education policies in the countries of Latin America. In previous writings (Ramírez & Ruiz, 2011), we considered necessary a set of dimensions, linked to epistemology, linking higher education and social transformation. At one level, it is intended to analyze the instances that act on the higher education systems. This is a reflection on the structure, processes, and relationships that determine the general orientation of national systems of higher education. Relevant questions about it are: Who defines the problems for higher education to attend and which tools should be used? What theories support the defined problems?

To answer the previous question would imply taking into account the ideology and setting of the educational agenda. It may also be useful for discovering and criticizing the models and theories that explain the problems and activities that create a collective perception of the problems. Why do they choose these problems and not others? How do you define the problems and policies for resolution? With the search for answers at this level, we generate an explanation of how and why the decision-making happens, and how the analysis of problems structures the decision-making process in the academic leaders.

Another aspect to consider is the presence, relationship, and influence of businessmen in international organizations for educational policies that are really needed to

form a framework to promote greater equity (Slaughter, in Torres & Schugurensky, 2001). At a second level, one can seek to understand the structure, processes, and relationships that determine the orientation of the institution. This is intended to identify and characterize the processes by which institutional change takes place, that is, identify how knowledge is produced in order to structure the practice of politics. How are educational policies in the institutions operated? How is their transition to the institutions facilitated? Are the issues raised by researchers and specialists considered on the agenda? When asked of their responses, we explore the implementation and maintenance of educational policies.

Outstanding issues at this level also include: Ways to influence the entrepreneurs and capitalists of education in the decision makers in institutions; Alternatives of resistance or acceptance of the educational agendas of institutions and, if this situation has not diminished, the social commitment of educational institutions. What is analyzed is the acceptance or rejection of the demand function for public universities to the detriment of the historical conception of the university; Conception and exercise of university autonomy; New forms of government acquired; The nature and impact of the new bureaucracy cordoned off the axis of planning – evaluation – accreditation, decisions to fulfill a social responsibility as an institution.

For a third level of analysis, one can explore the structure, processes, and relationships that define the new practices in the institutions: The belief systems and interests of individuals to accept, resist, or give consent to the projects and emerging education policies; Identities arising under the guise of competition. The scope of an academic culture based on individualism and competition among students recreated.

Conclusions. The Role of Transnational Education and Research Networks for the Construction of Citizenship and Fighting Social Injustice

To understand changes within universities, a deep reflection on the mission of the university and, therefore, relations between the university and society are necessary. Motivation in many countries to participate in processes of regionalization have been linked to trade negotiations to determine certain “social” objectives or to obtain arguments to use within their nations in an attempt to show a more human face of regional economic integration against the growing criticism of citizens (Gudynas, 2004a, in Feldfeber & Saforcada, 2005: 19). It is here where researchers are called to address a social responsibility as members of an institution of higher education to conduct research on controversial topics or the shared goals and resources of business organizations or international organizations, because of possible distortions and misapplications of the results. Thus, the responsibility does not end with the presentation of technical reports, but, instead, with the review of the impact of their research results. In this line, the Ibero-American Area of Knowledge

received in 2010 in Guadalajara from *Universia*¹⁰ the commitment to allocate 60 million Euros over the next 5 years for student mobility and the training of young researchers. Considering the source of this support, and the widespread presence of *Universia*, one realizes the magnitude of the goals and limited opportunities that are financed with government resources or institutions of higher education themselves. It also realizes the complexity of the required actions, whereupon it is highly recommended to create social observatories on different thematic issues, actions of governments, and knowledge transfer from universities to society.

The problem of inequality and social injustice that has been accentuated by the incursion of neoliberal policies is not a problem that is exclusive to Mexico. There is evidence that it is presented throughout the regions of Latin America. In this final section, we will refer to the relationship between translational research and the fight against social injustice.

We consider that we are in a transcendent point in time for research. The importance that the U.S. has granted to the research agenda has been leaked to the point that the American Educational Research Association (AERA) unanimously approved a resolution (AERA, 2003), which recommends to keep under special surveillance the questions that guide the research methods and, thus, improve the approach to problems. In essence, it should be to formulate what is worth knowing, how to know, and make the new knowledge produced to address the inequalities and foster a culture of citizen participation, having the expected effect.

This approach to the knowledge of social problems can only be followed if one is able to interpret social research as an academic commitment to exercise leadership for social transformation. For this, it is essential to recognize that social leadership requires the action of the officials who run educational institutions, and that their actions are of high impact inside and outside the institutions, as has been documented that leaders play an important role and make significant contributions through the good organization of teachers. Transmitting and exercising leadership by teachers is also essential, for it may be necessary to make changes to the organization or the substantive functions. These actions are, in fact, a construction of powerful teaching and learning, strengthening communities, and the development of educational cultures (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003).

So far, we face the challenge of understanding that justice is part of a social construction that is composed of educational practice, which is why we cannot assume that equity and social justice have fixed meanings, as these are manifested only when educational practices propose social transformation through the practice of educational leadership that responds to the everyday realities and, under the principles of no discrimination based on social, economic, and political background, race, or gender, are created in each school (Bogotch, 2002).

¹⁰*Universia* is a network of universities integrated by 1,232 institutions of 23 Latin American countries, representing 14.3 million teachers and students. It was founded in 2000 with the support of 35 Spanish universities, the Conference of Rectors of Spanish Universities, and the Higher Council for Scientific Research. Between 2000 and 2005, it was established in 11 Latin American countries, completing its presence in all countries by 2010. The network promotes activities, products, and services to encourage joint projects between universities and explore the potential relationship between academia and industry. <http://www.universia.net/nosotros/quienes-somos/>

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