



UNIVERSIDAD
DE CHILE
Instituto
de Estudios
Internacionales



Diagnosis and strategy for the participation of women in leadership positions and decision-making in the international trade negotiations of the Pacific Alliance

Alicia Frohmann
Ximena Olmos

June 2023



CONTENTS

Introduction	3
1 The women of the Pacific Alliance (PA) in the glass labyrinth	5
1.1 The glass labyrinth: limitations on women's participation and leadership	5
1.2 Decision-making skills	8
1.3 Women's leadership in the PA countries	10
2 Diagnosis of women's leadership in the PA negotiations	13
2.1 Decision making in the PA	14
2.2 Characteristics of the female and male negotiators	15
2.3 Characteristics of the female and male lead negotiators	18
2.4 Leadership attributes in men and women	23
2.5 Obstacles to women's access to leadership positions	26
2.6 Care work	29
3 Tools to promote women's leadership	32
3.1 Promotion of a gender focus in the PA	32
3.2 Public policies for gender equality in the PA member countries	37
3.3 Institutional and legal framework for equality	38
3.4 Gender quotas in the public sector	42
3.5 More women in senior management positions	45
3.6 Gender standards and certifications	49
3.7 Gender policies in the institutional framework of international relations	51
4 Proposals and recommendations to strengthen women's leadership	53
4.1 Strengthening gender equality governance	54
4.2 Reducing gender gaps to strengthen women's leadership	55
4.3 Promoting a gender focus in the PA	57
Text notes	61
References	63
Methodological Note	67



INTRODUCTION

The Pacific Alliance (PA) Declaration on Gender Equality (2020) recognizes the fundamental role played by women, in all their diversity, both in the growth and development of the countries of the bloc, and in unpaid care work. The Roadmap for the Autonomy and Economic Empowerment of Women (HRAEM in its Spanish acronym), which follows from the Declaration, counts among its priority actions to advance towards the elimination of barriers that limit women's autonomy and economic empowerment; to promote women's participation in employment and business; to boost women's access to leadership and decision-making positions in the economic, political and social spheres; and to stimulate the production, analysis and dissemination of data with a gender perspective. In addition, the HRAEM's Implementation Plan includes among its 2030 goals to increase the regional balance of women in decision-making positions, and to implement laws, policies and/or measures aiming to ensure that men and women have equal rights and opportunities in the workplace.

Within this framework, in 2022 the High

Level Group (GAN in its Spanish acronym) of the PA authorized funding for the project proposed to the PA Cooperation Fund by the Technical Group on Gender, entitled *Diagnosis and strategy for women's participation in leadership and decision-making positions in the field of international and trade negotiations of the Pacific Alliance*. The objective was to review the present state of women's participation in leadership positions, particularly in negotiation processes, and to contribute inputs that are relevant in developing strategies and actions to achieve this aim.

This study focuses on the participation and leadership of women who are part of the technical teams, committees and subcommittees of the PA, as well as on the experiences and instruments associated with strengthening women's incorporation into public administrations in the member countries. Although small in size and limited, this subgroup includes professionals who work on international affairs in various branches of the Executive. Aspects of foreign policy, sectoral perspectives and very specific commercial aspects intersect in their work.

The study begins by identifying the limitations affecting women's incorporation in the public arena and in decision making; it describes the situation of the PA countries in these matters (Chapter 1). The diagnosis is based on a survey of men and women from the technical groups, as well as in-depth interviews with negotiators, particularly the men and women who have led international trade negotiation teams (Chapter 2).

It also includes the identification and description of each country's main normative instruments and programs that aim to strengthen women's participation and leadership in the public sector. Special attention is paid to the institutional and legal framework for gender equality in the Civil Service and Senior Public Management programs, and to some programs that have been successful in strengthening women's leadership (Chapter 3). Based on the survey and the review of best practices at the national level, some recommendations are proposed (Chapter 4).

This study was carried out by the Institute of International Studies (IEI) of the University of Chile, which among its lines of work includes gender issues in a multidisciplinary perspective[1]. It has engaged in research, teaching and dissemination

activities related to gender, trade and global public policies, both in academic programs and in multilateral forums through its WTO Chair. It has also engaged in activities addressing Feminist Foreign Policy and has gained recognition as a regional forum for debate on this topic. It has contributed to the PA by analyzing measures for women's recovery after the COVID-19 Pandemic.

The authors are Alicia Frohmann and Ximena Olmos, both professors at the Institute of International Studies in postgraduate programs and specialization courses. Alicia Frohmann is an expert in international trade policy and has worked in the Chilean government, as well as an academic and a consultant in developing countries. She has worked as a consultant for ECLAC and other international organizations on issues of trade, sustainable development and gender. Ximena Olmos is an international trade and sustainable development consultant. She has participated in different research and training projects on gender and trade, environmental sustainability and export entrepreneurship; and in technical assistance activities as a consultant for ECLAC. The authors acknowledge the collaboration of Javiera Arteaga Susan Rojas and Andrea Sprovera in the preparation of this study.





1.- THE WOMEN OF THE PACIFIC ALLIANCE AND THE GLASS LABYRINTH

The representation and participation of women in politics and in decision-making are conditions for the achievement of gender equality and adequate democratic governance. Likewise, they have positive impacts on economic growth and sustainable development (OECD, 2014). These are not only acts of compensation for the historical discrimination and exclusion suffered by women, but also a fundamental requirement for democracy, development and peace (UN Women Colombia, 2022).

An integration mechanism like the Pacific Alliance (PA) must necessarily be inclusive, due to the diversity of the member countries, as well as the wide variety of technical issues involved in decision-making and in the implementation of agreements. The mainstreaming of the gender approach and the participation of women in these negotiations has improved in recent years, but there is still a lack of recognition of women's skills and the need for co-responsibility in care work.

1.1 The glass labyrinth: limitations on women's participation and leadership

Traditional norms based on gender stereotypes assign roles to men as protagonists in the public and productive world, and to women as responsible for the private and reproductive sphere. This assignment of gender roles limits the development possibilities of individuals, countries and humanity. The participation of women in the economy, in politics and in government has traditionally been constrained by this pattern of gender roles.

In the productive sphere, the presence of women differs according to sector (horizontal segregation) and level of participation (vertical segregation). Horizontal segregation based on stereotypes installs women in certain sectors and so-called feminine tasks. Vertical segregation limits the presence of women in leadership positions and in decision-making. The



magnitude of these segregations is intersectional and varies according to specific sectors and regions.

Metaphors have been used to visually represent the different obstacles that women face in the public sphere and the reasons for these segregations. The so-called glass ceiling is the barrier that prevents women from reaching top positions in organizations; glass walls is a way of describing occupational division and how women are pigeonholed in certain areas, generally in supporting roles and at one remove from the organization's central strategies. In both cases, glass alludes to the invisibility of these discriminations. For its part, the glass cliff depicts women who are faced with making important decisions, generally in moments of crisis, when any decision will be poorly evaluated (for being unable to solve the crisis, or for being reckless).

The trope of the sticky floor is also used to show how difficult it is for women to advance in their careers, since there are many factors holding them back. The broken stair is a reference to how discrimination begins on the first ascending step within organizations. The cement

wall, the most difficult to surmount, refers to the limits that women impose on themselves due to low self-esteem. These and other obstacles have led to the suggestion (Eagly and Carli, 2007) that women face a true labyrinth in engaging in public activity. Various global investigations confirm year after year that these obstacles persist and progress is very slow (WEF, 2022; OIT, 2019; McKinsey, 2022, Gran Thornton, 2022).

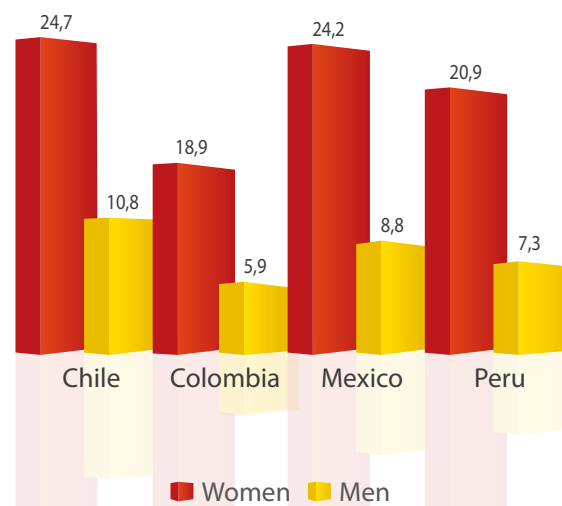
In contrast with this labyrinth of obstacles, various studies affirm that when women assume leadership positions in the public sector, their presence helps make the administration more responsive, provide better quality services, and citizens' trust increases (UNDP-University of Pittsburgh, 2021).

It is also highlighted that gender diversity in decision-making is related to better business results and greater productivity. A company with a gender policy improves its reputation, attracts and retains talent more easily, and achieves greater creativity and innovation. The evidence clearly shows that increasing the presence of women in the labor market has a positive economic impact on countries and

societies and generates greater opportunities (ILO, 2019).

In international trade negotiations, the various labyrinths and women's lack of opportunities are replicated both in the public and private sectors. In the foreign policy establishment, women suffer the same discrimination that they face in political and economic life, or worse. Diplomacy, for example, is recognized as a male field; underrepresentation of women is the norm, very few women become heads of mission, and even fewer influence the definition of policies. Their participation in certain issues has been restricted and they must face many prejudices related to family and motherhood, even though they meet the same professional demands as men (López and Henríquez, 2022).

Figure 1.1
Countries of the Pacific Alliance: percentage of 24-hour day dedicated to domestic chores and unpaid care work, by sex (in percentages)



Source: ECLAC, Gender Equality Observatory for Latin America and the Caribbean [online, <https://oig.cepal.org/es>] (consulted 02.13.2023).

Box 1.1 Care work

Gender roles and especially responsibility for care work (of children and dependents) tend to interrupt employment and the professional career of women during their period of greatest productivity and involve difficulties in returning to their former career path.

Career interruption and need for greater job flexibility result in fewer years of experience and fewer hours of employment, which limit career advancement and wages (the so-called mommy track [2]).

Women's time constraints (a product, in large part, of time dedicated to unpaid care work) also limit the development of the networks and social capital required to advance professionally.

In the Pacific Alliance countries, women occupy between a quarter and a fifth of a 24-hour day in care work. In Chile, the hours involved in these tasks represent 22.1% of the day; in Colombia, 16.2%; in Mexico, 28% and in Peru, 22.7%. Men, on the other hand, occupy less than 10% of their working day in care work (Figure 1.1).

1.2 Decision-making skills

Prejudice around conditions for leadership favors men and penalizes women. There is resistance to female leadership. It is socially considered that men have greater capacities for leadership, a perception that is only reinforced by the long tradition of male leadership. When women are in leadership positions (and frequently are more conciliatory than confrontational), they are often not taken into account in the same way as men; if their style of leadership is similar to that of men, they are criticized for being unfeminine or aggressive. Men can be either empathetic or dominant, but they are not penalized for being one or the other. This paradox occurs only in the case of women (Eagly and Carli, 2007).

Some studies indicate that, in both business and politics, most people believe that women are better leaders than men when called on to be compassionate and empathetic, and that they are better advocates for causes they believe in. On the other hand, male leaders are seen as better than their female counterparts when risk-taking is involved (Parker et al., 2018).

It is frequently believed that when women hold political power they see government primarily as a tool to solve so-called "women's problems" (women issues). Although most of these are societal issues, they affect women more directly, whether for biological or social



reasons, as a result of gender roles as mothers and caregivers in their communities (Markham, 2013).

On the other hand, women are considered less likely to accept bribes and tolerate corruption, and to be more supportive of redistributive policies than men.

However, it is noted that the latter may be due to the fact that women are more active in these areas. In other words, these trends can be erroneously attributed to the policy maker's gender, when they can be explained by the horizontal segregation of employment (Hessami and Lopes da Fonseca, 2020).



Box 1.2

Gender equality in decision-making





The global goal adopted in the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action is to achieve balanced political participation and distribution of power between men and women in decision-making. At the current rate of change, gender equality in the highest decision-making spheres would be achieved in about 130 years (UN Women, 2023).

As of January 1, 2023, of the 193 member states of the United Nations, only 31 were headed by women (either as heads of state and/or government). Globally, women who lead ministries in political areas represent 22.8% of all cabinet members. Only in 13 countries do women occupy 50% or more of the ministerial posts that focus on political issues (UN Women, 2023).

In Latin America and the Caribbean (15 countries), women hold only 23.6% of level 1 positions (equivalent to a cabinet minister), compared to 44.2% in level 4 positions (equivalent to a director). Vertical and horizontal segregation persists even in those countries where the participation of women is higher. The presence of women is greater (45.4%) in areas associated with care and gender stereotypes such as Education and Health, and their presence declines (38.1%) in sectors where men have traditionally led, such as Finance and Defense (Naranjo and others, 2022).

In the private sector, the proportion of women in management positions is growing significantly around the world. Since 2002, an upward trend has been observed in Latin America and other developing regions. Between 1991 and 2018, women in management positions in the region represented an average of 34%. There has also been a sustained growth in the number of companies owned by women in Latin America and the Caribbean (13.9% in 1991 to 24.5% in 2018 of all companies) (ILO, 2019).

It is estimated that the business benefits derived from gender balance in organizations grow when there is a critical mass of at least 30% women in management positions (ILO, 2019). It is estimated that, globally, in 2022, 32% of senior management in large companies were women. In Latin America, participation is estimated to be 35%, with higher percentages in developing regions, which may be due to greater flexibility in adapting to new business strategies after the pandemic (Grant Thornton, 2022).



1.3 Women's leadership in the Pacific Alliance countries

According to the World Economic Forum's Global Gender Gap Report, among 146 countries, the Pacific Alliance member countries are positioned at a medium and medium-high level in terms

of the general gender gap and political empowerment (WEF, 2022).[3] The core of inequality between men and women lies in the gap concerning economic participation and opportunities (where the Alliance countries show the greatest gaps), which affects the participation of women in leadership and decision-making positions (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1
Relative positions in ranking of the i. overall gender gap, ii. political empowerment and iii. economic participation and opportunities
Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru, among 146 countries, 2022

	Chile	Colombia	Mexico	Peru
i. Overall gender gap ranking	47	75	31	37
ii. Political empowerment ranking	34	70	15	27
- Ranking of women in parliament	39	104	1	25
- Ranking of women ministers	51	32	20	20
- Years with woman as head of state	18	78	78	43
iii. Ranking of economic participation and opportunities	105	93	113	86

Source: Prepared by the authors with data from the World Economic Forum (2022), Global gender gap report.

Latin American governments have promoted policies and programs to increase the participation of women leaders. According to the 2021 Female Leadership Barometer, among the countries in the region with the most favorable scenarios for promoting female leadership are Chile, Colombia, and Mexico. The case of Chile stands out for having more laws and policies that favor parenthood than other countries in the region. Colombia draws attention as the country with the highest female participation in the ownership of companies. Mexico is notable for its high female participation

in politics.

In the public sector of the Alliance countries, leadership in decision-making is usually male (Box 1.3). Political factors are highly relevant in determining senior decision-making positions, particularly in Latin America, where women occupy between 30% and 40% of managerial positions, while they represent approximately half of public sector employees[4].

Women are well represented in professional ranks, thus their scarce participation in managerial positions is not due to the

lack of an expert group from which women can be recruited. The higher the level of the post, where political and personal ties often weigh more than merit, the fewer women there are (UNDP, 2020).

Recent data shows the presence of women in public administration in the Alliance member countries at different levels of decision making (Table 1.2). A significant variation is observed in their participation in ministerial posts in January 2023, as a result of changes in government in some countries.

Table 1.2
Participation of women in decision making posts in
the public sector Chile, Colombia, Mexico y Peru
(% of the total of female officials in high level positions)

Country	Ministers February-March 2022	Ministers January 2023	Deputy ministers or Under-secretaries February-March 2022	Secretary or general director February-March 2022	Director February-March 2022
Chile	18,2	58	39,1	28,4	35,9
Colombia	46,2	50	33,3	50	50,4
Mexico	38,5	42,1	28,6	38,1	25
Peru	15,4	47,4	21,6	33,8	43

Source: Prepared by the authors, based on: i. data for February and March 2022 from Naranjo Bautista, Sandra, M. Chudnovsky, L. Strazza, E. Mosqueira, C. Castañeda (2022), Mujeres líderes en el sector público de América Latina y el Caribe: brechas y oportunidades, Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo (BID); y ii. data for January 2023 from UN Women (2023), Women in Politics.

Countries have also begun to give visibility to women on the boards of large companies. Based on the publicly available information on companies that trade on the stock market and, in some cases, state-owned companies, the percentage of women on corporate boards has been estimated at 14.7% in Chile,[5] 20.8% in Colombia, and 11.5% in Mexico in 2022.[6] In Peru, only 10% of board members of publicly traded companies were women in 2018 (CENTRUM PUCP, 2018).

The public sector generally employs more women, especially in care work-related positions, and may offer better conditions than the private sector for combining work and family obligations. In 2018, in Latin America and the Caribbean, on average, 51% of public sector employees were women and this proportion has remained fairly stable over time (OECD-IDB, 2020).

Box 1.3

Gender gap in public administration in the PA member countries

In Chile, six out of ten employees in the public sector are women. Most women are concentrated in technical and professional levels and 42% in managerial positions (2019), with the Ministries of Education, Women and Gender Equality, and Health registering the highest participation. Management positions held by women have been increasing since 2013, when they were at 39.7%. By 2019, 62% of the central government payroll were women and 60% of the people trained between 2018 and 2021 were women. In 2019, around a third of public servants were aged between 25 and 34 and a similar percentage between 35 and 44 (Budget Directorate, 2021).

According to a report on the participation of women in the Colombian government, in 2022 47% of public positions at the top decision-making level (45% in 2021), and 48.1% of positions at other decision-making levels (47% in 2021) were held by women. Women employees represent 52% of civil servants, most of them (38.4%) aged on average between 50 and 62 years, with 38.8% at a postgraduate educational level. A third of them do not have children and almost 40% are single. Women in managerial positions are on average younger (40-49 years); 42.1% do not have children, almost 37% are single and more than 65% have a postgraduate degree (Public Service, 2022).

Turning to the situation of women in Mexico's Federal Public Administration, as of June 2022 women held 50.4% of public sector jobs and 41.7% of the decision-making positions (Secretaría de la Función Pública, 2022). To the extent that women are concentrated in lower-level positions, their average income is lower: 54.6% of women civil servants and 40.7% of male civil servants were in the lowest range in 2021. However, more women than men held a college degree (46.5% women and 40.9% men) and a technical or commercial qualification (15.5% women and 9% men) (INEGI, 2023). At the sub federal state level, in 2021, 56.3% of public jobs were held by women and 25.3% of the state administrative institutions were lead by women (INMUJERES, 2022 a).

In the case of Peru, in 2021 just under half of public officials were women (47.3%) and women occupied 34% of management positions. The predominant age group in recent years is 45-64 years old (41% in 2021) with a stable growth rate compared to the cohort of younger women, where number have decreased. Regarding educational levels, 46% of women have a university education (compared to 40% of men). Women heads of household tend to be more concentrated in the public sector (30% in 2021), than in the private sector (25.2%). Just over half of heads of household in the public sector are between the ages of 45 and 59 (SERVIR, 2023). The greatest presence of women is in the sectors associated with care work (Ministries of Women, Health and Education) (SERVIR, 2022).

Table 1.3
Participation of women in employment and leadership positions in the public sector
(percentage of total)

Country	Women in public employment	Women in leadership positions
Chile (2019)	60%	42%
Colombia (2022)	52%	47%
Mexico (2022)	50,4%	41,7%
Peru (2021)	47,3%	34%

Source: prepared by the authors, based on Dirección de Presupuestos, 2021; Función Pública, 2022; INEGI, 2023; and SERVIR, 2023.

2.- DIAGNOSIS OF WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP IN PACIFIC ALLIANCE NEGOTIATIONS

The diagnosis of women's leadership in the Pacific Alliance negotiations involved a survey and a series of interviews. The survey, which was anonymous, was sent to persons listed in the 2022 directory of participants in the PA technical groups, committees and subcommittees.[7] In order to broaden and deepen the information obtained in the survey, confidential interviews were conducted with male and female lead negotiators -past or present- of the four Alliance member countries, as well as with some members of the working groups and representatives of institutions that promote the participation of women in the public administration.

The majority of participants in the technical groups are women, and there is a strong presence of women leaders in the groups, larger than the average participation of women in public administration in the four countries. Despite no significant differences *vis-à-vis* men in terms of age and education, women respondents face the same gender inequalities which

exist in the economic sphere in their own countries: i.e., gender wage gaps, lower level of seniority, interruption of their professional careers due to care work responsibilities, and sexual harassment. Even though care work is an important issue overall, the respondents characteristics are not particularly revealing in this matter: more than half do not have children, and the surveyed mothers have fewer children on average than the fathers.

Despite the fact that international affairs are often associated with men, respondents of both sexes highlight soft skills as the most valued to attain leadership positions. Although it is not clear that a "feminine style" of leadership exists, it is notable that in the negotiation of agreements -generally between different countries- characteristics such as empathy, communication and teamwork are valued the most. The social and political trend towards mainstreaming gender equality seems to have sensitized some men regarding the specific obstacles that

women confront to attain leadership positions. However, at the top decision-making level, women still face deep rooted cultural obstacles.

2.1 Leadership and decision-making in the PA

Decision-making in the PA is top-down. The highest authorities are the presidents of the four member countries, and below are the ministers of trade and/or foreign relations. Finance ministers are an entity unto itself. Permanent work is headed by the High Level Group (at the under-secretary and vice-ministerial level), below which are the national coordinators. At the base, there are more than 30 working groups (technical groups, committees, subcommittees), whose members were

the target group of the survey for this diagnosis. Authorities associated with the highest decision-making levels were excluded from the scope of the survey, but some of them were interviewed.

The PA working groups were established over the years by mandate of the authorities, in tune with the priorities on the bloc's agenda. The committees and subcommittees are responsible for issues concerning the AP Trade Protocol, while the technical groups address issues related to the PA Framework Agreement, focusing mostly on cooperative initiatives (Table 2.1). Each group has a coordinator (the post rotates among countries) and experts who represent their country in the PA report back and coordinate with peers in their own countries.



Table 2.1
Pacific Alliance working groups

Trade Protocol groups	Technical groups
<i>Committees</i>	Trade promotion agencies
Access to markets	Digital agenda
Global value chains and productive linkages	Institutional issues
Public procurement	Technical Groups Committee of Experts CEAP
Sanitary and phytosanitary measures	Ciencia, Tecnología e Innovación
Regulatory improvement	Cooperación
Technical barriers to trade	Culture
Rules of origin and procedures related to origin, trade facilitation and customs cooperation	Development and social inclusion
<i>Subcommittees</i>	Education
Digital economy	Communications strategy
Investment	Gender
Services	Labor
<i>Working groups</i>	Environment and green growth
Authorized economic operator	Movement of persons and migration facilitation
Single window for foreign trade	Fisheries
	SMEs
	Tourism
	Ad hoc group on intellectual property

Source: <https://alianzapacifico.net/>

2.2 Characteristics of female and male negotiators

In the directory which listed the 2022 PA working group participants, 58% were women and 42% were men (Table 2.2). The large percentage of women is in line with the general trend in the Alliance countries of greater female participation in public administrations. In general terms, there are two profiles in this group: the trade negotiators, who usually participate in more than one committee or subcommittee, and the negotiators responsible for the international

relations and cooperation within of specific ministries or secretariats.

During April 2023, an online survey form was sent to participants listed in the 2022 directory, with the objective of characterizing the group, obtaining their perceptions about the attributes and obstacles to female leadership, as well as their employment history and care work responsibilities. A total of 82 people responded the survey, of whom 63% were women and 37% men (graph 2.1 A). One person self-identified as non-binary. Two people identified as belonging to an indigenous ethnic group (Graph 2.1 B).

Table 2.2
Distribution of people in the 2022 directory and survey respondents
(by sex and country, in numbers)

Directory				Survey respondents		
Country	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total(*)
Chile	29	34	63	9	12	21
Colombia	36	48	84	6	11	17
Mexico	38	61	99	7	18	25
Peru	40	51	91	8	10	18
Total	143	194	337	30	51	81

Note (): One of the respondents self-identified as non-binary*

Source: Prepared by the authors, based on the 2022 PA directory and the survey responses.

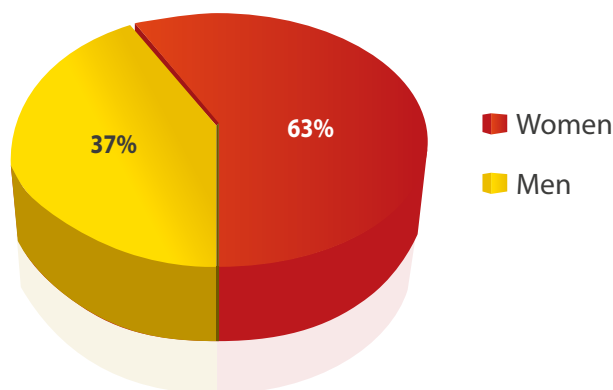
In terms of age, a majority of respondents are middle-aged. 51% of women and 66.7% of men are in the 35 to 50 year range, followed by those under 35 years of age, 35.3% of whom are women and 20% men. The percentage of women under 35 was higher than that of men, while the latter tend to concentrate in the 35 to 50 age bracket. In the over-51 age bracket, the percentage of men and

women was almost identical (Graph 2.1 C).

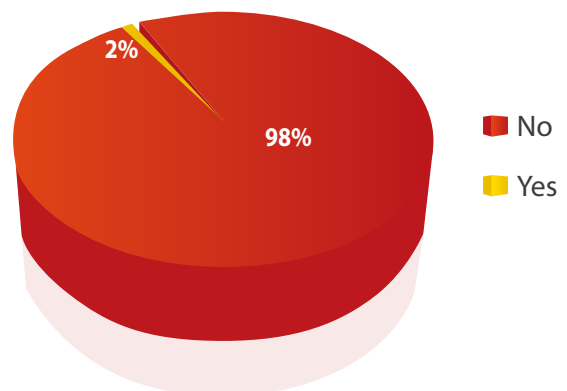
The educational level of respondents is high: 100% have completed university studies and half have a postgraduate degree. A somewhat higher percentage of men (56.7%) than women (47.1%) have a postgraduate degree (Figure 2.1 D).

Figure 2.1
Characterization of survey respondents

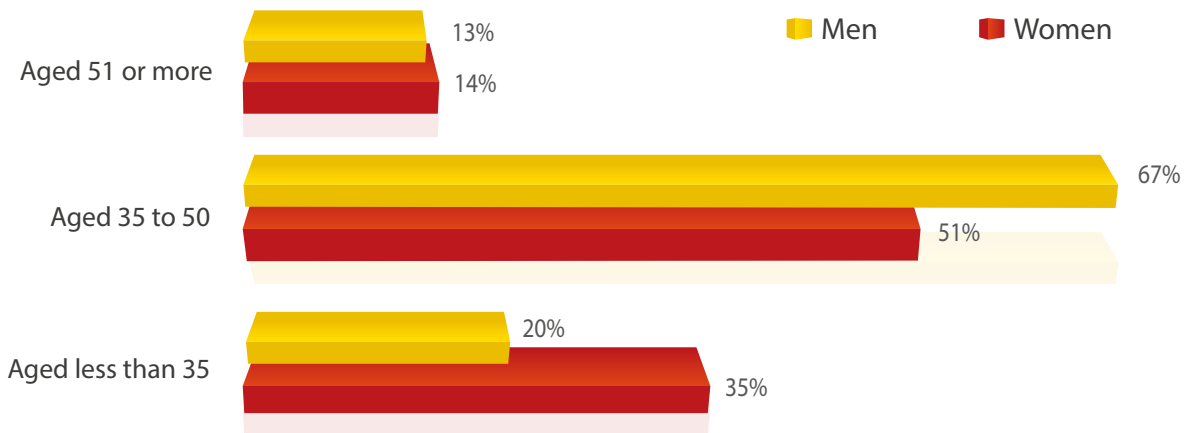
A. Sex



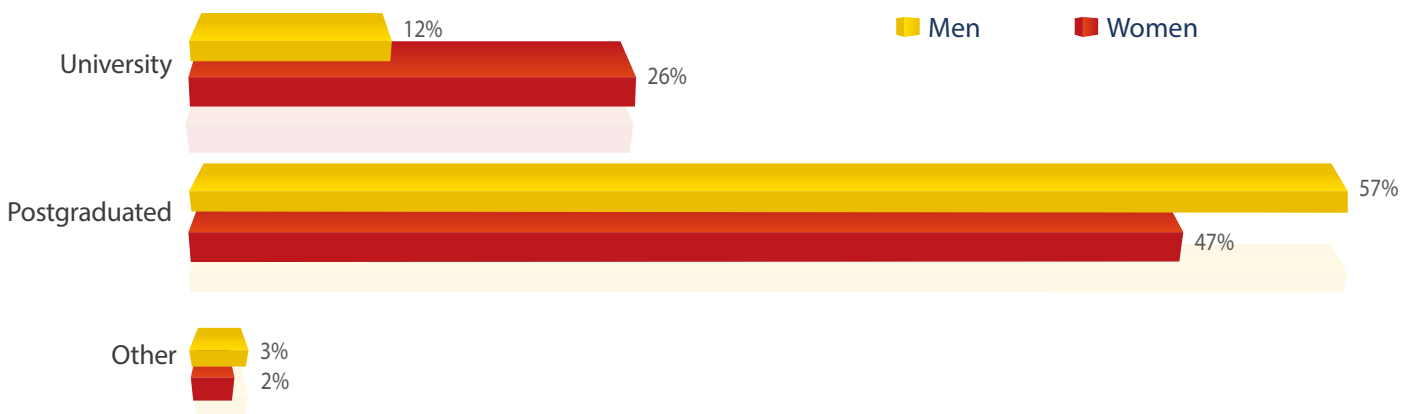
B. Do you belong to an ethnic group?



C. Age ranges by sex



D. Higher education by sex



Source: Data based on survey results.

The majority of respondents (63% of the women and 73% of the men) have participated in trade negotiations other than the Alliance; hence, this is mostly a group experienced in international issues. Persons interviewed as part of this study agreed that generally women negotiators are involved in “soft” issues. The “hard” core negotiations (such as services, investment, and the digital economy) are frequently led by men. This perception could not be confirmed with the availa-

ble survey data on men and women’s participation in the working groups, since the distribution by sex within the groups is rather heterogeneous. One possible explanation is that a significant role of the group members is to monitor progress and coordinate work by other experts. One female interviewee explained that when an issue of great technical complexity needs to be resolved, her job is to seek the most knowledgeable expert, who tends to be a man.

2.3 Characteristics of the female and male lead negotiators

Given the diversity of countries and institutions that were included in this diagnosis, in order to analyze participation in decision-making, the survey asked whether or not the respondent occupied a leadership position. Within the survey respondents, 40.7% stated that they did, of whom 22 were women and 11 were men. Among respondents, a higher percentage of women (67%) were in a decision-making role (Figure 2.2 A). This percentage exceeds the national averages of women in leadership positions, which, as noted in chapter 1 (Table 1.3), range between 34 and 47%, depending on the country.

There are relatively more women than men as heads of household among respondents. 68% of women were heads of household,

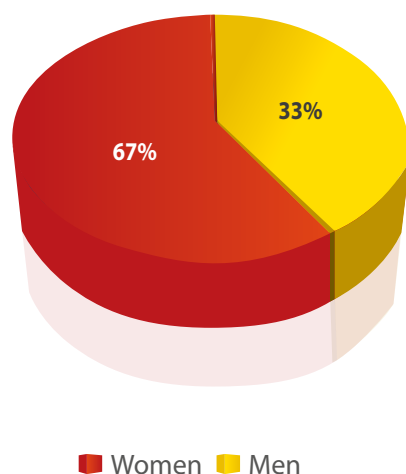
compared to 60% of men. Among the women who occupy leadership positions, more than two thirds (68.2%) are head a household. The vast majority of leaders also head their households (90.9%) (Figure 2.2 B).

Among respondents of both sexes who were lead negotiators, 72.7% were between 35 and 50 years old, with a majority in the median age, similar to the total number of respondents. However, more than 27% of the male leads were 51 years or older, while 13.5% of the female heads were under 35 years of age. The presence of young leads occurs only among women (Figure 2.2 C).

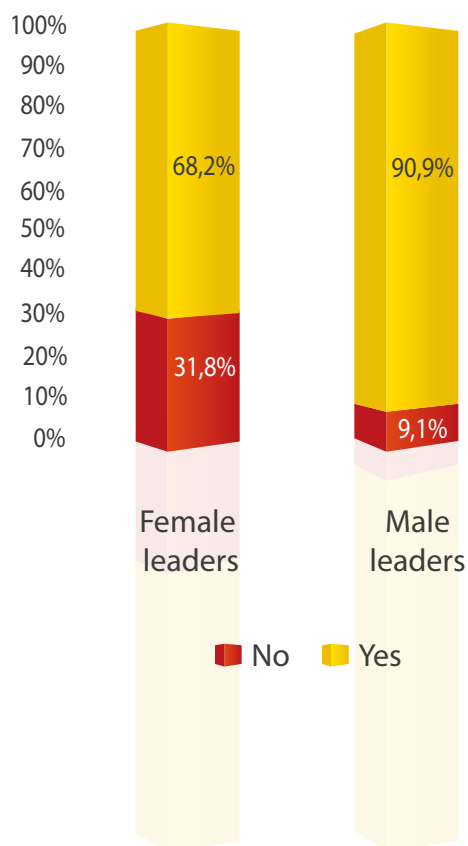
The educational level of male and female leads is high. 59.1% of women had reached a university degree and 40.9% a postgraduate degree. In the case of men, 36.4% had reached a university degree and 63.6% had a postgraduate degree (Figure 2.2 D).

Figure 2.2
Characterization of female and male lead negotiators

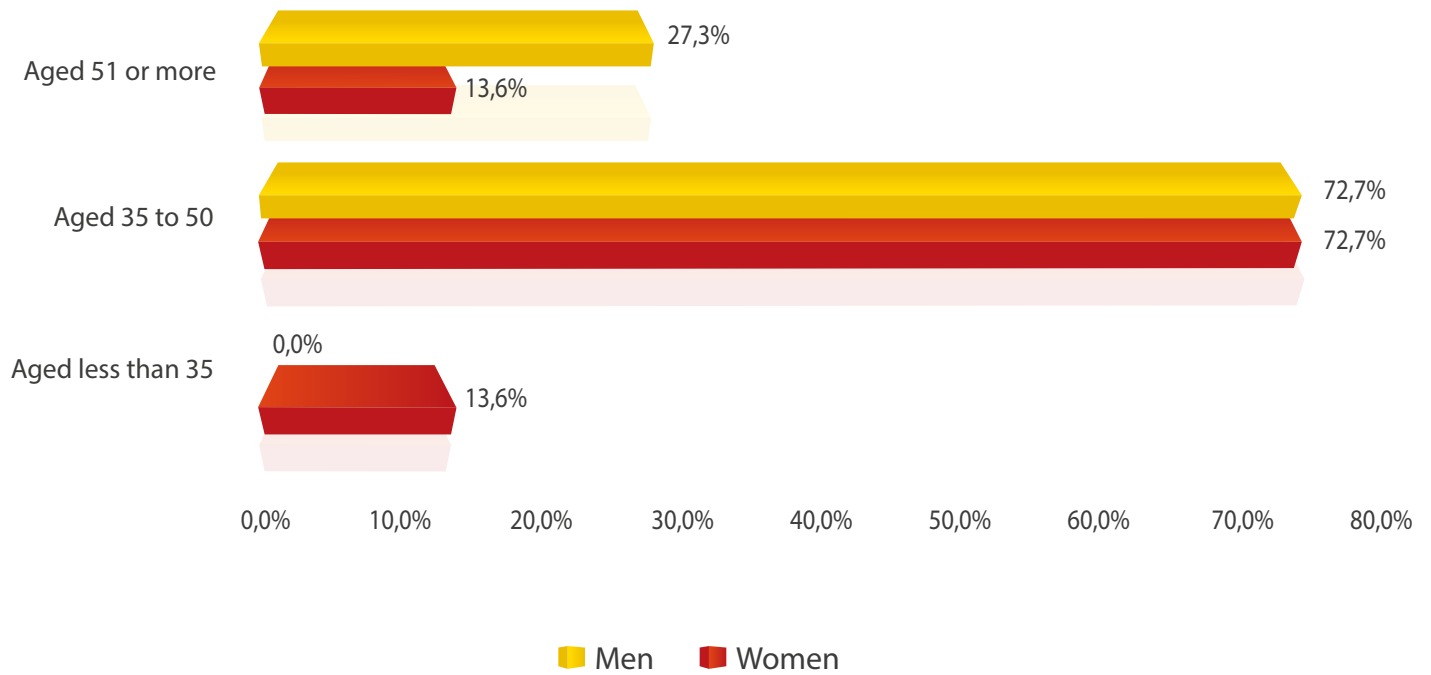
A. Leads by sex



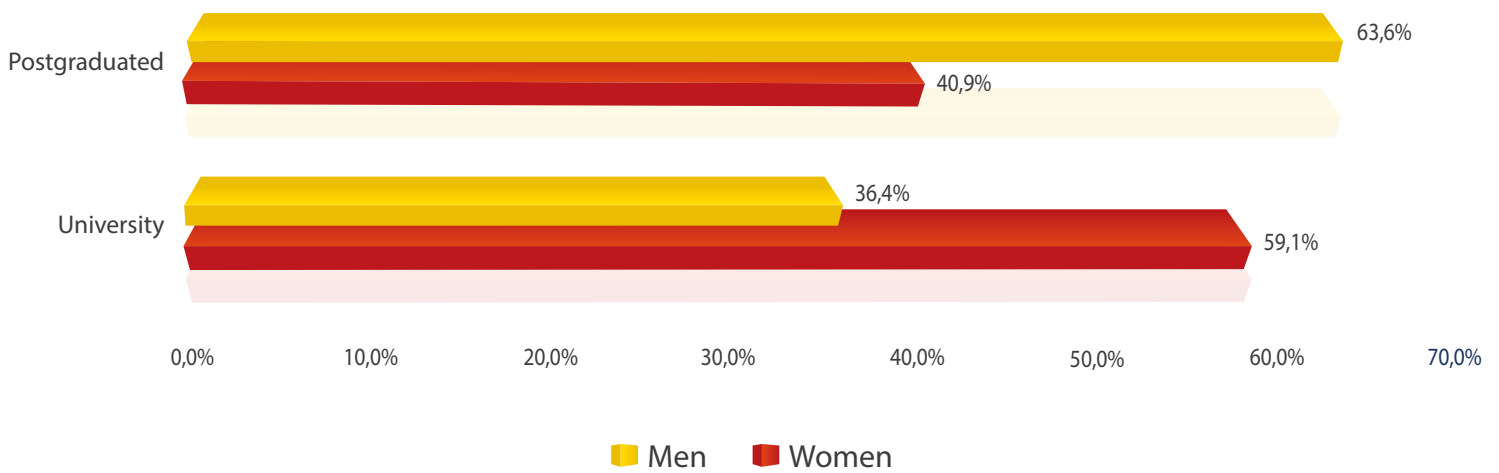
B. Are you a head of household?



C. Age range of leads



D. Higher education of leads



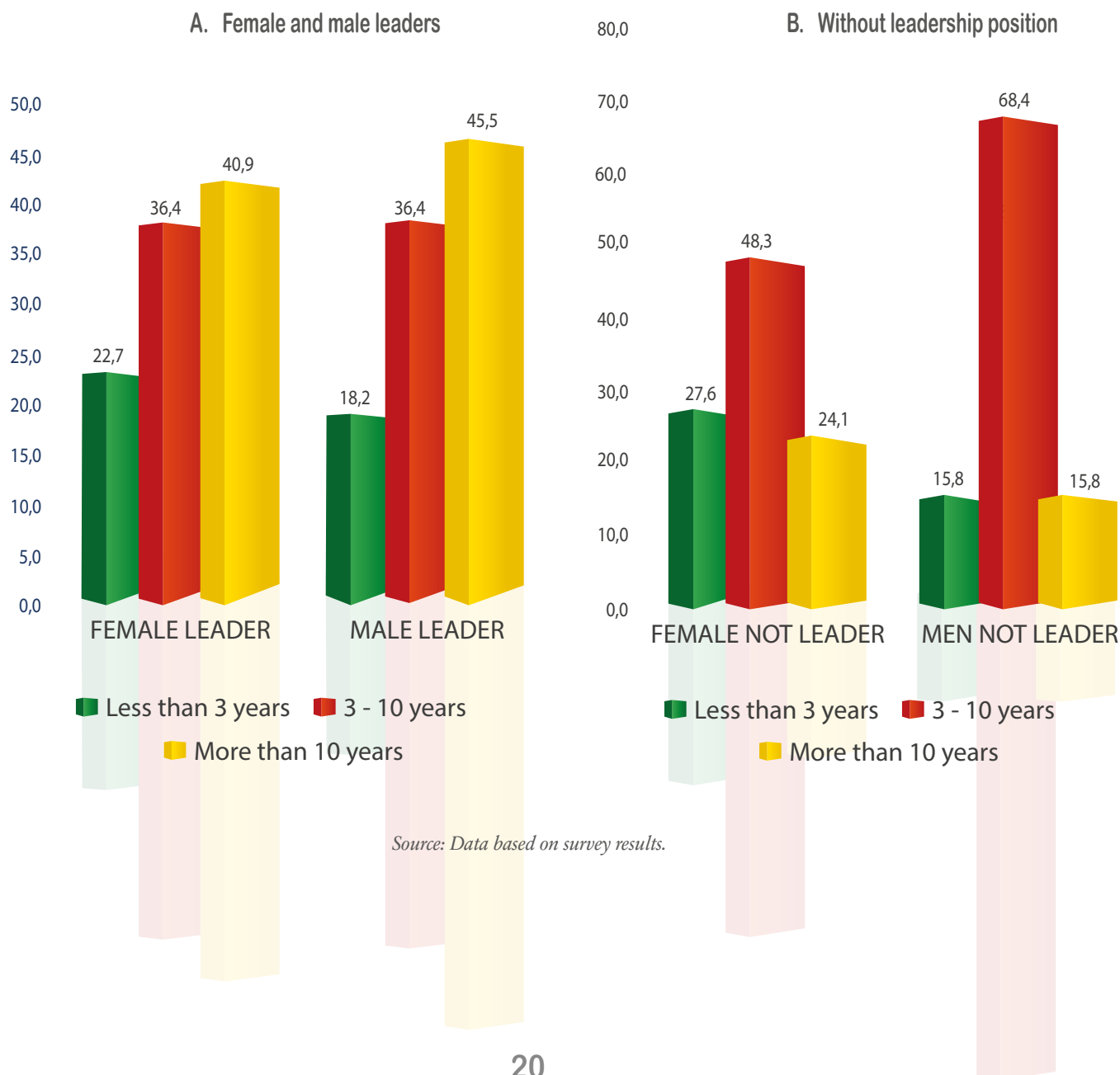
Source: Data based on survey results.

In most cases, seniority in the institution influences access to a leadership position (Figure 2.3). The largest group of male and female leaders is in the more-than-10 years-of-service bracket (40.9% of women and 45.5% of men); the next group is in the 3-10 years of service bracket, with 36% for both sexes; and the smallest group includes those with less than 3 years of service (22.7% of women and 18.2% of men).

men).

In the case of those who do not occupy a leadership position, on the other hand, the largest is the group which has served for 3-10 years (48.3% of women and 68.4% of men). If all respondents are considered, almost half (48%) have been at their institution between three and ten years.

Figure 2.3
Length of service in the institution by gender and leadership position (in percentages)





Among respondents, seniority in the institution is a clear asset when attaining a leadership position. This was also highlighted in interviews. The professional career path -particularly in the case of trade negotiations- is very relevant. However, it was also stressed that, due to care work responsibilities and given the requirement of technical expertise, it is more difficult for women to reach their first leadership position, and it is common for some to remain there for many more years than men, before moving up in the professional ladder.

The survey data shows that, although the percentage of women occupying leadership positions is higher than that of men, these positions are, on average, at lower levels of decision-making. The survey asked respondents to identify at least three levels of rank: level 1 is that which reports to the institution's top authority; level 2, reports to level 1; and level 3, reports to level 2. If the rank of leaders is compared by gender, men are equally distributed in the three decision-making levels, while women's participation

increases as they descend in rank (Figure 2.4).

Among respondents in leadership positions, there do not seem to be many differences between men and women in regard to career path and professional expertise, but the fact that women occupy lower ranks seems to confirm that gender continues to condition discriminatory behavior. In the case of the survey respondents, there are currently more women with university education, including at the postgraduate level, but gender bias often leads to the affirmation that "there are no women" to take on leadership roles.

Regardless of their rank, the majority perception of men and women is that their salary is at a middling level. However, more than a third of the men consider their salary high, compared to less than 10% of women. On the other hand, women who consider their salary to be low are double the percentage of men (Figure 2.4). This perception is similar among respondents who do not occupy leadership positions.

Figure 2.4
Rank (*) and estimation of salary of female and male leaders (percentages)



The Alliance member countries have made progress in reducing the gender wage gap, especially in the public sector. One of the instruments has been the standardization of salaries based on the different levels or grades of public employment. However, women tend to be more concentrated in the lower grades. Added to this, there are special categories (such as honorariums or provision of services),

whose rates are not tied to the public standard. This leads itself not only to discretionary salaries, accentuating gender gaps, but moreover does not give access, in some cases, to the same benefits provided by formal public employment. Although the survey was unable to capture this level of detail, the issue emerged in interviews as a concern by women in more precarious employment.

2.4 Leadership attributes of men and women

The so-called leadership attributes refer to values as perceived by survey respondents and interviewees. More than a conceptual definition, this perception arises from personal experience, from the person's own career path and from how other persons' leadership and their own is observed and evaluated. Leadership, in this case, is associated with occupying a leadership position at their workplace.

To identify the leadership attributes most valued by negotiators, this issue was included prominently both in the survey and in the interviews.

A total of nine attributes were identified in the survey and respondents were asked to grade them ranging from 1 (less important) to 5 (more important). For comparative purposes, the question was repeated to those holding leadership positions, who were asked for a self-assessment. The attributes to be graded in the survey were: technical and professional experience, analytical and problem-solving skills, stimulate innovation, obtain results, take the initiative, possess com-

munication skills, collaboration and teamwork, a strategic perspective, and understanding and empathy.

Above all, the respondents valued soft skills such as collaboration and teamwork, understanding and empathy, and communication skills. Among those in leadership positions, technical and professional experience, and having a strategic perspective occupied a central place (both in the survey and in the interviews), although soft skills were also highly valued.

Among the total number of respondents, the attributes corresponding to soft skills (collaboration, teamwork, communication skills, understanding and empathy) were considered the most important by both men and women (grade 5). Other attributes, such as technical and professional experience, stimulating innovation, obtaining results, and taking the initiative, were less valued. Figure 2.5 clearly shows those attributes which are most important for women (Figure 2.5 A) and for men (2.5 B). The green line shows those aspects with grade 5 (considered most important), and the yellow line those with grade 4 (considered of secondary importance).



Figure 2.5
Importance of leadership attributes, by sex (in percentages)



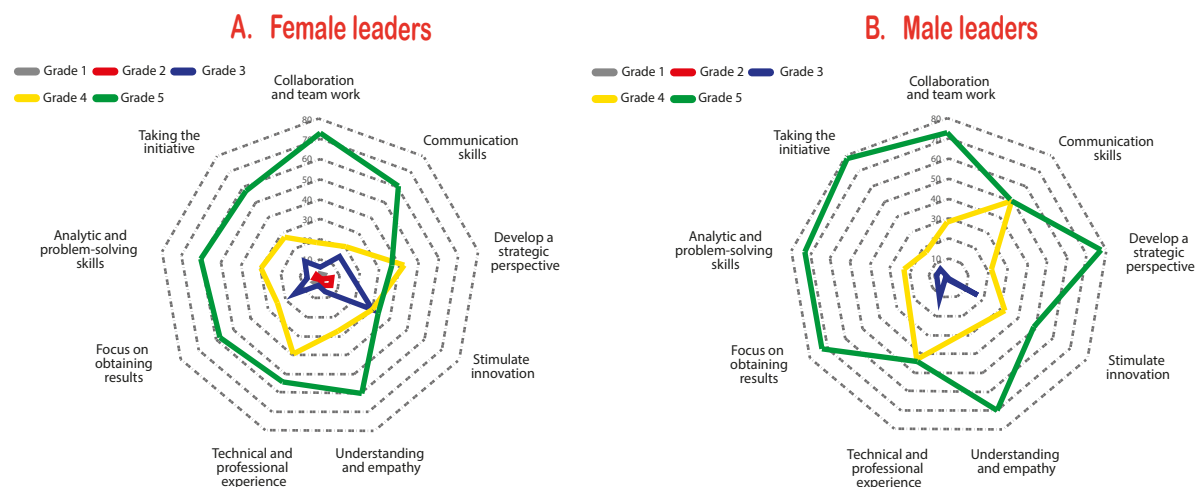
Source: Data based on survey results

The biggest difference in the perception of men and women regards the attribute “understanding and empathy”, which is more highly valued by men (86.7%) than by women (68.6%), while highly valued by both.

The value given to attributes differs among men and women who occupy

leadership positions. While 90.9% of male leaders consider the attribute “develop a strategic perspective” to be more important, only 31.8% of women share this assessment. A higher proportion of male leaders (63.6%) value the attribute “technical and professional skills” as very important (grade 5); only 27.3% of female leads valued it so highly (Figure 2.6).

Figure 2.6
Valuation of leadership attributes by female and male leaders (in percentages)



Source: Data based on survey results.

None of the leadership attributes included in the survey were rated at the least important levels (marked at grade 1 and 2) by men, although some women gave lower grades to attributes such as “showing understanding and empathy” and “developing a strategic perspective”.

Among the interviewees who hold or have held top leadership positions in international negotiations, there is a greater perception of the importance of technical and professional skills to reach leadership positions. According to a woman interviewee, leaders must “be good economists, lawyers, engineers.” Technical knowledge is considered equally important for men and women, perhaps even more so for the women. According to one of the women negotiators, “it is the starting point for building good leadership. Technical knowledge and discipline are required.”

However, the women interviewed also revealed a very positive evaluation of soft skills, of the “ability to listen, to be able to identify interests and sensitivities, understand domestic actors, have a multisector perspective and understand counterparts.” To be “a good listener” is more frequent and easier for women since they know how to adapt, not just to impose, but to use empathy. For constructive leadership, it is necessary to seek solutions rather than confrontation. Men are more rigid and confrontational. Women also value proactivity, the ability to innovate, ideas and a vocation for service.

In some interviews, two profiles of female leadership were suggested. A traditional one, in which the woman seeks to be equal to men (the example is Margaret Thatcher) and is thus associated with male

characteristics (tough and direct). In a different type of leadership, more of the present day, leadership is built more horizontally, contributing empathy and communication skills. In the opinion of some, the “male leadership” style of some women has been necessary in spaces that are especially hostile to women. At present, greater awareness of gender issues has allowed the introduction of more cooperative and horizontal leadership styles.

It is noted that the trend towards teamwork and less need for self-affirmation are found more frequently in women. They tend to have a more horizontal and collegiate approach than men, although women leaders can be very strict. One attribute of women’s leadership that was highlighted is their ability to organize. Women are known for their ability for “multitasking” and they can simultaneously engage in different matters. What they have learned to do in their private sphere, which involves dealing with many issues at the same time, is replicated at work.

Women’s network of contacts, which is so important in their personal lives, is not however developed with the same intensity for professional purposes. It is necessary to be able to consult and seek help, to overcome insecurities. Men tend to be better at developing professional networks.

One of the interviewees highlighted that leadership today requires that decision-making consider all contingencies, thinking not only about the objectives, but also about how to achieve them. In teams and in decision-making, diversity is important, both of gender and age, as well as the inclusion of both humanist and scientific perspectives. The decisions made by groups which are diverse are also the most complex.



For this reason, it is important to generate trust, share different opinions and know how to handle disagreements to make decisions, even if they are not by consensus. To achieve this, inclusive leadership is expected, one that questions unconscious biases, can listen, empathizes, and makes the team take responsibility. This is valid for the public and private sectors and for civil society.

All the interviewees indicated that training for leadership is required in preparation to become a leader. To progress towards higher levels of decision-making, it is necessary to develop and/or strengthen certain skills and also to recognize personal biases and limitations. In general, institutions do not provide these programs. None of the women leaders interviewed had undergone these trainings at their workplace.

2.5 Obstacles to women's access to leadership positions

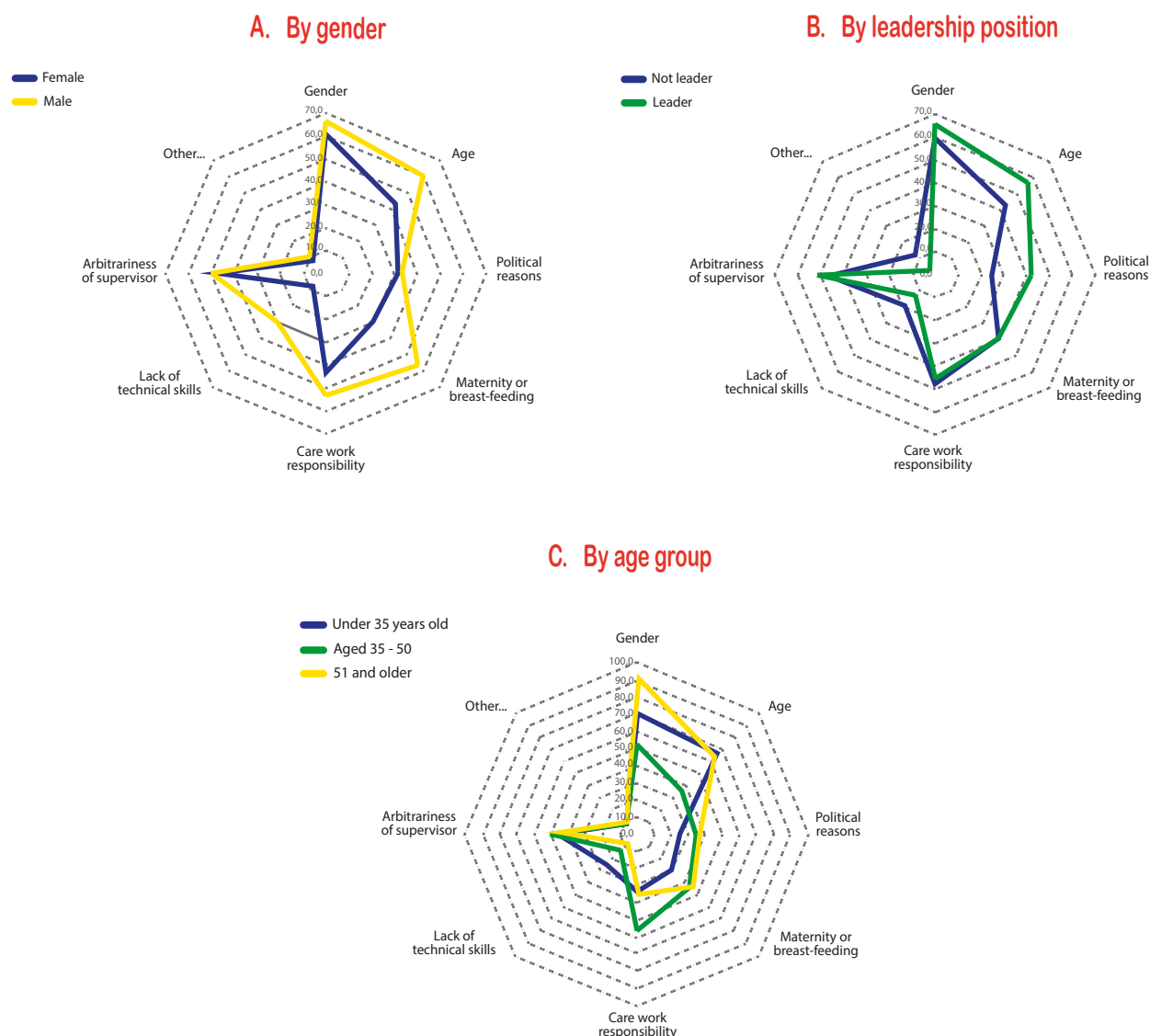
When women reflect on the factors that influence women's access to leadership positions, they highlight various kinds of obstacles.

To review perceptions about these obstacles, seven discriminatory factors were identified in the survey and respondents were asked to mark all those they considered relevant. These factors were: gender, age, political reasons, care work responsibilities,[8]maternity or breast-feeding, lack of technical skills and arbitrariness of a supervisor.

Women and men identified gender, the arbitrariness of a supervisor, and care work responsibilities as the most important discriminatory factors. Male respondents assigned a somewhat greater importance than women to these discriminatory factors and identified maternity or breast-feeding, and age as factors that limit women's access to leadership. Discrimination for political reasons or for lack of technical skills weighed much less.

Respondents in leadership positions, by comparison, gave greater weight to discrimination based on age and for political reasons. In terms of age groups, those aged above 51 years highlighted gender discrimination as an obstacle most frequently (90%), followed by persons under 35 years (70%), while only 50% of 35-50 year-olds considered this factor to be relevant (graph 2.7).

Figure 2.7
Main obstacles faced by women in accessing leadership positions
by gender, age and leadership (in percentages)



Source: Data, based on survey results.

The interviews allowed for a more detailed view of the perception of the obstacles women face in their professional careers. In many, respondents insisted that work and corporate harbour conscious and unconscious biases that discriminate against women and express male chauvinist attitudes. Some considered

that physical appearance still influences women's careers. Women suffer more prejudice and are considered more "expendable" in an organization. In some cases, women endure a traditional discourse of "defense of the family", accompanied by the belief that women's role is in the home.

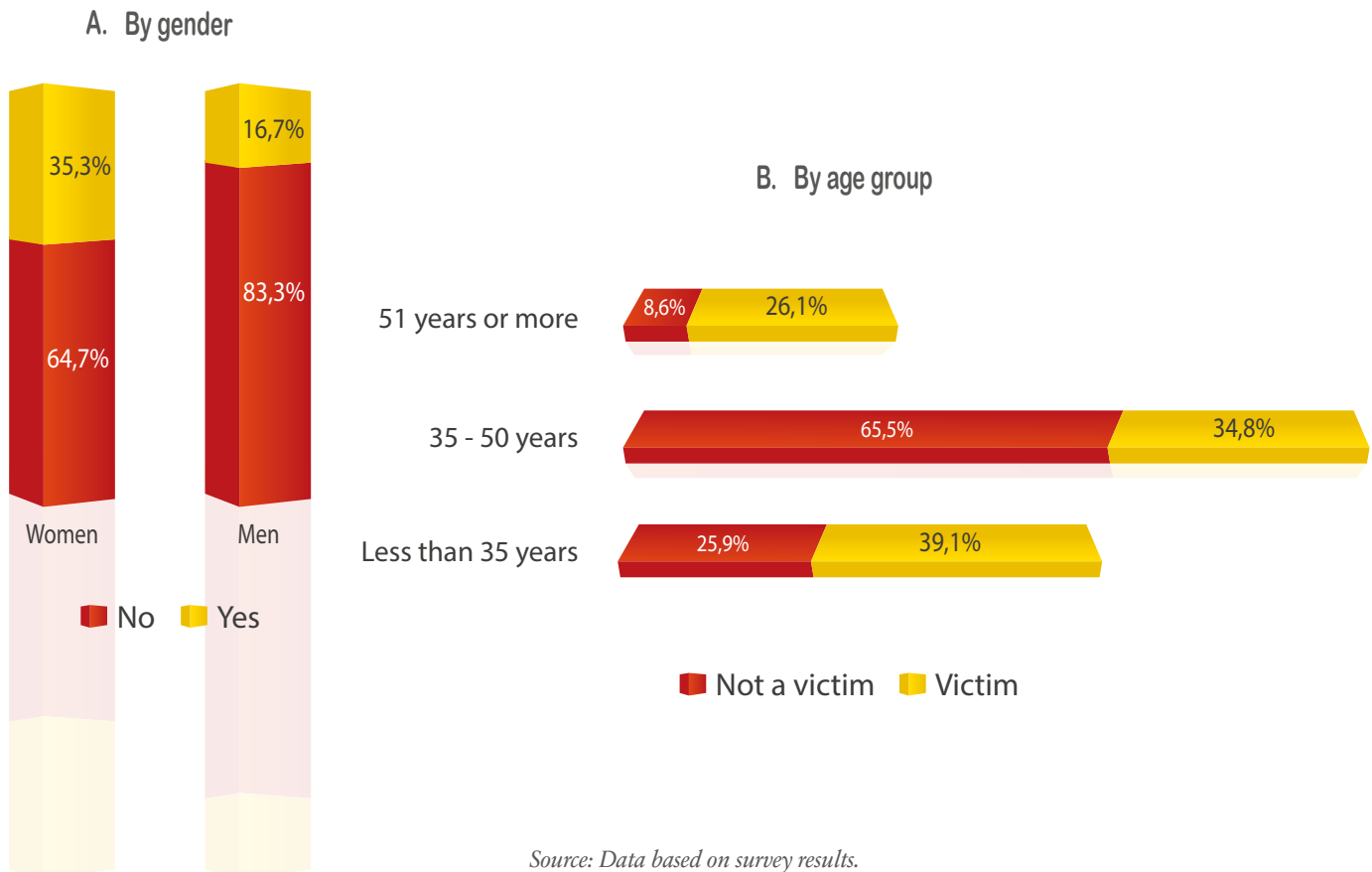
Unconscious biases are also present in recruitment processes and particularly in evaluations to achieve promotion. Although the tests are standardized and supposedly do not discriminate by gender, leadership evaluation is still done in a traditional manner, where the characteristics of male leadership are the most salient. Some of the women explained that discrimination is invisible to the people in charge of these processes and it is very difficult to make them recognize these biases.

Stereotypes force women to have to validate themselves professionally over and over again. The interviews establi-

shed that it is usual that when men are appointed as supervisors, it is women who will do the work. It was also alleged that sometimes there are abusive attitudes towards women, with psychological and verbal harassment.

The survey included questions about sexual harassment or bullying at the workplace which was noted to be frequent. Among respondents, 35.3% of women and 16.7% of men indicated that they had suffered harassment at work. 39.1% of the victims were under-35 years, 34.8% between 35 and 50 years and 26.1% older than 50 (Figure 2.8).

Figure 2.8
Victims of sexual harassment or bullying (in percentages)



Source: Data based on survey results.

Asked about gender policies or programs in their respective institutions, the majority of interviewees responded affirmatively. More men than women indicated that their institutions conduct these policies (90% and 59%, respectively). A higher percentage of women than men acknowledge not knowing whether there are gender programs (16% and 3%, respectively). A quarter of the women and 7% of men affirm that there are no gender activities (18.5% of respondents).-

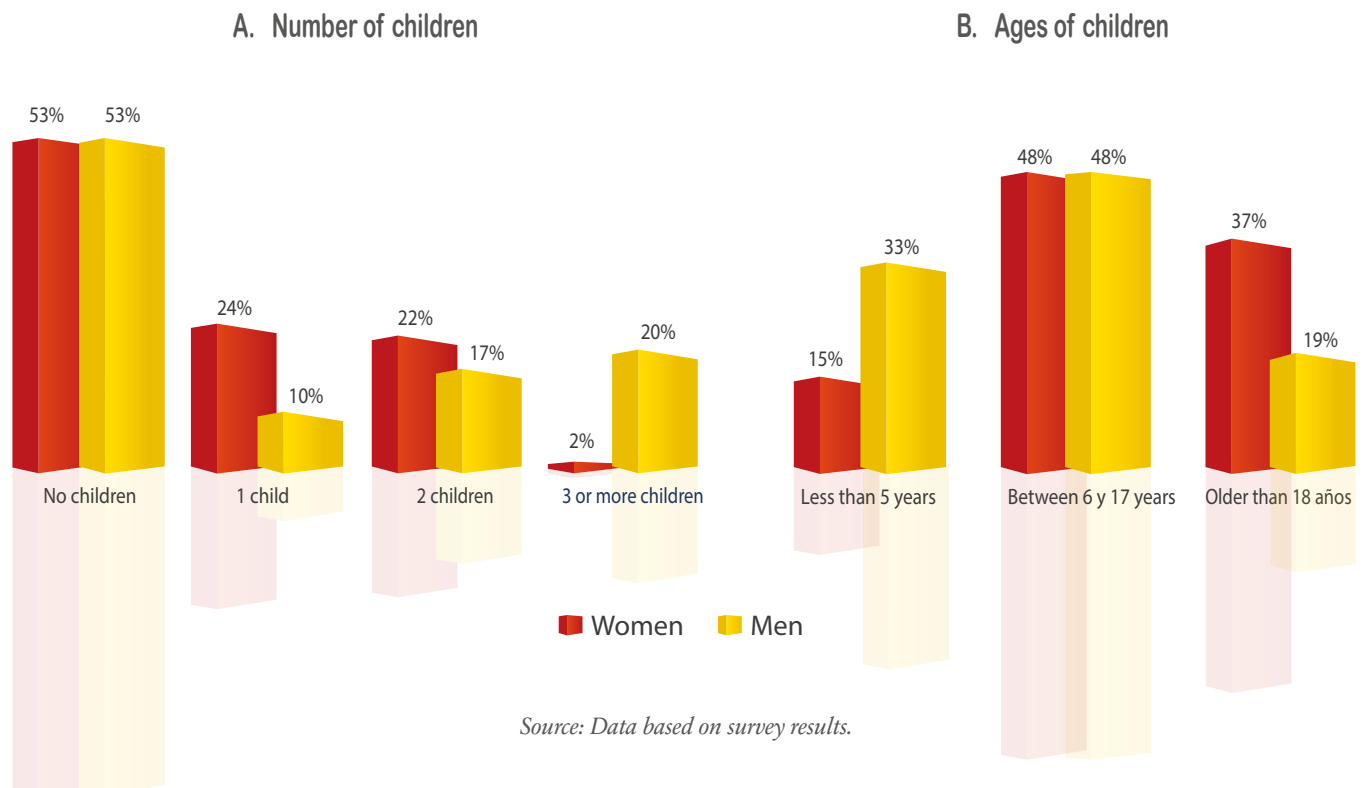
2.6 Care Work Responsibilities

The social allocation of care work responsibilities -towards children, the elderly, sick and disabled, as well as daily work in the

home- has a gender bias and falls predominantly on women. This has been and continues to be an important factor hindering women's professional development and access to leadership positions, even more so when they are heads of household.

Among respondents, a salient result is that 68.6% of women and 60% of men are heads of household, but more than half of respondents have no children. Among those who have children, the majority have one or two, with the highest percentage of school age, in the 6 to 17-year-old age group (graphs 2.9). This applies both overall and to those in leadership positions.

Figure 2.9
Number and ages of children of respondents (in percentages)



Professional women tend to limit the number of children, trying to avoid a work overload and conciliate the different dimensions of their daily activities. The respondents' average number of children is 1.5 for women and 2.4 for men. Among the men who do have children, several have 3 or more.

Only 17 respondents indicated that they

were performing care work: 7 women and 10 men. Most devote between 14 and 28 hours per week or up to 14 hours per week to these tasks. Three men indicated that they spend more than 28 hours a week on care work (Table 2.3). In terms of age, 15 of those who state that they provide care are between 35 and 50 years of age, one is under 35 and another is over 50.

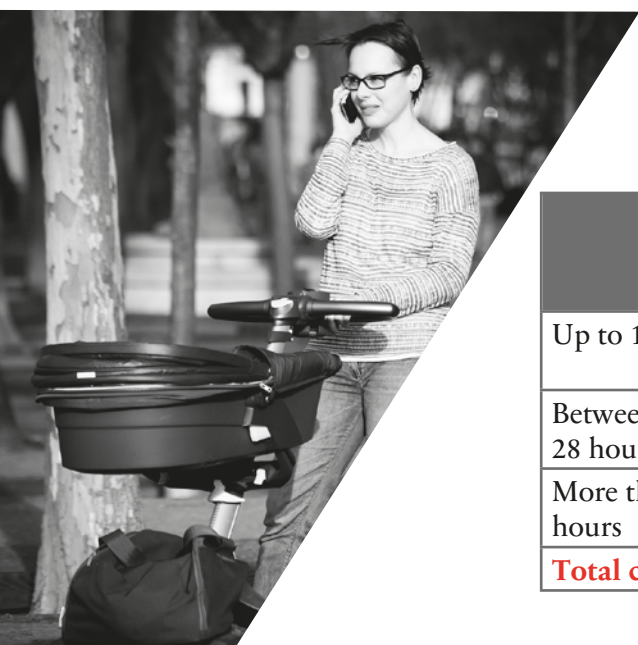


Table 2.3
Weekly hours dedicated to care work, by gender
and leadership position (number)

	Women	Men	Without leadership position	With leadership position	Total
Up to 14 hours	5	1	4	2	6
Between 14 and 28 hours	2	6	4	4	8
More than 28 hours	0	3	3	0	3
Total carers	7	10	11	6	17

Source: Data based on survey results.

It is striking that only a small number of respondents indicated that they perform care work. One of the reasons may be because care work is considered “normal” and is not identified as work, or because the full meaning of the concept of “care” is not understood. The characteristics of the target group may also influence this result, in that more than half have no children, and that other care work such as that of the elderly, sick and disabled, as well as daily chores at home, are not specifically indicated in the question. According to all the interviewed top

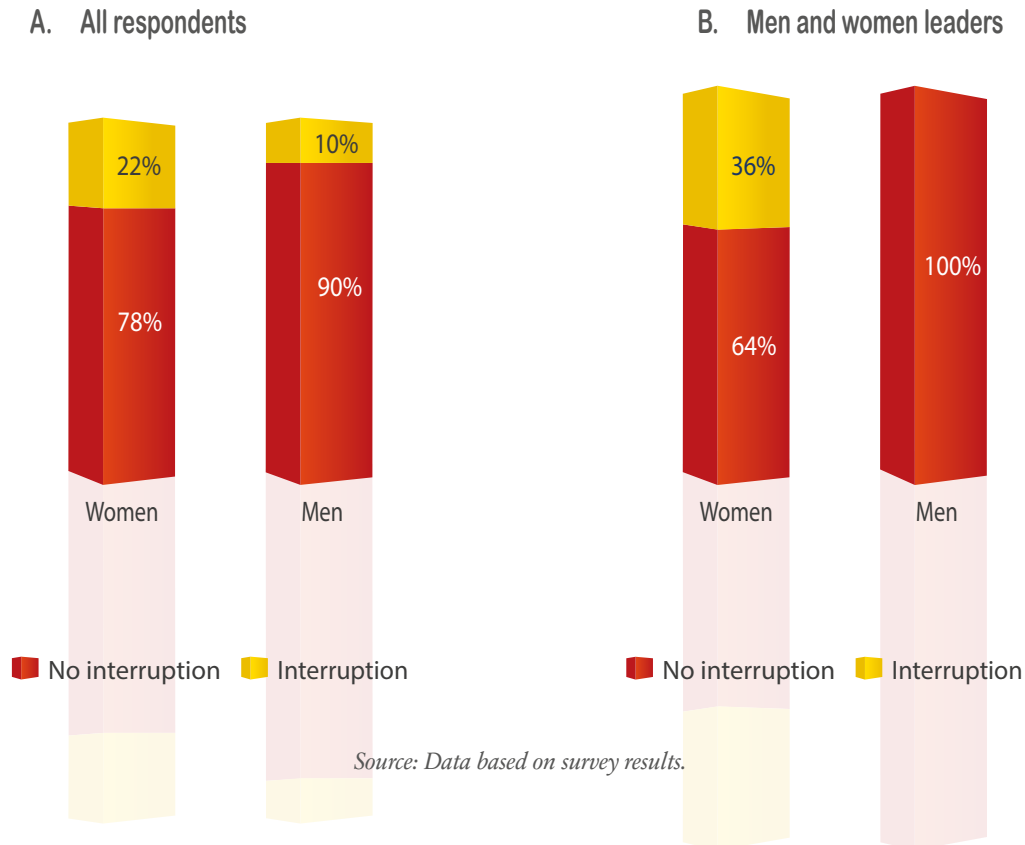
negotiators, care work responsibilities rank highly among the factors that hold back women's careers and access to leadership positions.

Frequently, women (and some men) need to interrupt their professional career for a variable period to take on care work (for example, looking after young children or the sick), which makes it difficult to resume their professional career. They fall behind the career path of their cohort peers and access to leadership positions becomes more difficult.

Among survey respondents, 21.6% of the women and 10% of the men had interrupted their career to attend to care work. In the case of those in leadership

positions, 36.4% of the women and no man had interrupted their career for this reason (Figure 2.10).

Figure 2.10
Interruption of professional career to attend to care work



According to the interviewed lead negotiators, the workload of women is excessive when trying to conciliate professional work with care work in the family. This affects their autonomy and development potential.

It is usual in international negotiations, that there are neither fixed holidays nor working hours. Travel, which is an intrinsic part of trade negotiation work, is a problem because it may be incompatible with care work responsibilities. One

interviewee suggested that if women want to pursue a career it is practically impossible to devote the necessary time to raise a family. Teleworking helps make family roles compatible with work, but it does not solve the problem. It is necessary to look for contractual arrangements for men and women that may conciliate work with family chores, as well as personal life.

In the opinion of the interviewees, there is a generational difference concerning

the weight that family responsibilities entail. Currently, many women no longer opt for motherhood and "are freer to follow their own path." Gender roles have been changing and there is greater awareness among partners that family responsibilities must be shared, although this does not necessarily occur in practice.

One interviewee described the impact on her own life of postponing her profes-

sional career to move abroad to care for her family. She suspended her professional career for 10 years and her professional development fell behind that of her peers. When she returned to work, she found it hard to find employment, and a negative view prevailed in the private sector regarding the interruption of her career. Finally, she secured a job in the public sector through personal connections, but it took her many years to reach a leadership position.

3.- TOOLS TO PROMOTE THE LEADERSHIP OF WOMEN

In this chapter we identify the different types of tools used in the PA member countries to promote gender, particularly within government agencies responsible for international and trade negotiations. There is a first section about how the Alliance, as such, promotes the mainstreaming of gender and then a review of different policies and programs implemented by the PA members.

3.1 Promotion of a gender focus in the Pacific Alliance

Gender mainstreaming has been on the Alliance's agenda since its beginnings and was established throughout the work groups and issues addressed by this integration mechanism. In 2015, in the Declaration of Paracas, the Heads of State agreed to "include the gender perspective as a cross-cutting element in the work of the Pacific Alliance and, to this end, establish a Working Group in charge of developing a strategy to incorporate gender into all programs" (Pacific Alliance, 2015). The gender perspective was thus incorporated into the internal and external activities of the Alliance, with the aim of promoting the economic

empowerment of women and promoting growth and sustainable development.

The 2020 Pacific Alliance's Presidential Declaration on Gender Equality marks a new milestone, with a deepening of the presidential commitment to gender equality and also with new language. It defines gender equality as a fundamental part of human rights and a precondition for the achievement of more prosperous, inclusive and sustainable societies. It emphasizes the need to forge a link between the international human rights framework, the multilateral trading system and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. It recognizes the diversity and multidimensional nature of women, according to ethnicity, socio-economic vulnerability, territory and type of activity, including unpaid work and care.

Together with the 2020 Declaration, the "Roadmap for the autonomy and economic empowerment of women in the Pacific Alliance" (HRAEM) was launched. The HRAEM defines the public policies necessary to achieve greater equality and identifies the goals to be reached. The actions and projects that make it possible



to achieve the defined objectives are included in the Implementation Plan, which also includes reporting and monitoring mechanisms.

The 2020 Declaration on Gender Equality also highlights the promotion of inclusive international trade with a view to sustainable development, in which women can benefit from the opportunities generated by trade integration. Even though the PA Trade Protocol does not include a gender chapter, the Alliance has developed initiatives in this direction. The trade agreement with Singapore, signed in January 2022, includes a gender chapter and the four PA countries are part of the Global Trade and Gender Arrangement (GTAGA), along with Canada and New Zealand. For its part, Chile has incorporated gender chapters into its trade agreements with Argentina, Brazil, Canada, Ecuador, Paraguay, the European Union and Uruguay. These chapters emphasize shared commitments on women's rights and cooperation on trade-related gender issues. Mexico has signed gender provisions in the labor chapter of the Treaty between Mexico, the United States and Canada (T-MEC).

The Gender Technical Group (GTG) has among its mandates to promote the incorporation of the gender perspective in the programs and activities of the Pacific Alliance; implement and develop positive actions such as programs that seek to incorporate women leaders in the export process; and develop virtual platforms that foster a dialogue on gender and trade among member countries.

The GTG has been effective in its task of mainstreaming gender in the technical groups of the Alliance. It has conducted studies, surveys, training and seminars, and is responsible for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the 2020 HRAEM commitments.

To implement initiatives to mainstream gender within institutions is usually a difficult task and frequently faces resistance. The GTG has managed to conduct several initiatives to support other technical groups and position gender equality within in the Alliance (Box 3.1). It must periodically inform the authorities about progress in fulfilling its gender commitments.

Box 3.1

Initiatives to mainstream a gender focus in the PA

Self-assessment survey [9]: Between 2019 and 2020, a self-assessment survey was conducted within the Technical Groups and Committees, with the purpose of evaluating the status of mainstreaming gender in the groups and to identify measures to strengthen its application. The survey showed that most of the groups considered themselves to be at a low level of gender mainstreaming in their work, in response to the PA mandate and identification the differential impact of gender by thematic area, as well as in the design, implementation and evaluation of gender projects and activities.

Tool for self-assessment and diagnosis of gender mainstreaming in the technical groups of the Pacific Alliance, to be reported annually to the Alliance's High Level Group in order to identify mechanisms for improvement.

Guide for the use of Inclusive Language [10] in the technical groups and in Pacific Alliance communications. It was prepared to share the importance of adopting an inclusive language in the communications and products of the GTG and other technical groups. Its purpose is to bring attention to sexist communication that contributes to the reproduction of gender stereotypes and inequality, and to provide recommendations on how to adopt inclusive language.

Training for technical groups (June 2021) that addressed: i) gender mainstreaming in the working groups and use of inclusive language; ii) development of projects with a gender focus and iii) data collection and measurement disaggregated by sex.

Training on the link between gender and trade; as well as trade policy tools to promote gender equality have been actively implemented with the support of the IDB, ECLAC, the OECD and other international cooperation agencies.

Implementation of gender Roadmap. This plan serves as a guide for the preparation of activities and projects by the Technical Groups, Committees and Subcommittees, with a view to fulfill the goals and priority actions established in the Roadmap. It is a practical document, with tools to support the working groups in the development of gender activities and projects. The GTG provides advice to technical groups that require technical support (Pacific Alliance, 2021)

Recommendations for the inclusion of gender in project applications. This GTG document provides methodological guidelines on how to prepare a gender project and serves as support for technical groups and other stakeholders who want to present a gender project (Pacific Alliance, 2021).

Pacific Alliance Women's Month 2022 "Women's development and creativity in

the Pacific Alliance? Recommendations from experts, women entrepreneurs and the private sector on i) good practices to reduce the digital gender gap and women's participation in STEM areas; ii) the role of women in creative industries, challenges and opportunities; iii) opportunities offered by the PA to women entrepreneurs to participate in trade and iv) gender mainstreaming in the trade integration of the PA (Pacific Alliance, 2022).

Online Coffee Chat of women entrepreneurs from Pacific Alliance member countries from the food and agro-export industries to connect with women from the region, share and exchange best business and trade practices. This event was aimed at strengthening the PA Community of Women in Business (Pacific Alliance, 2022).

Women and Fintech: challenges and opportunities in the Pacific Alliance, in conjunction with the Council of Finance Ministers of the AP member countries and the Inter-American Development Bank (IADB). This meeting addressed the relationship between Fintech and women, the evolution of the Fintech sector in the PA and the participation of women in the sector, both as founders and as workers and investors (Pacific Alliance 2022).

First Ministerial Meeting on Women's Autonomy and Economic Empowerment. Its objective was to exchange successful experiences of public policies and programs for the economic empowerment of women in AP member countries, which promote or could promote production chains, as well as incorporate rural women's enterprises in these chains and in international trade.

Design of a new version of the gender mainstreaming survey, to be applied in all technical groups, committees and subcommittees of the PA. The main objective is to measure advances and progress of gender mainstreaming in these groups. Also, to measure the impact of 3 training webinars conducted by the GTG, to mainstream the gender focus in the bloc. Additionally, questions about the gender composition of the groups are included to generate sex-disaggregated data.

Activities of the working groups to advance the HRAEM. According to PA records, 13 groups (technical groups, committees, and subcommittees) developed a variety of activities to meet commitments within the PA Roadmap for Women's Autonomy and Economic Empowerment. (Pacific Alliance, 2022).

In relation with the business community, various initiatives by women entrepreneurs have been developed within the framework of the PA. The Forum of Leading Pacific Alliance Businesswomen is organized annually through the trade

promotion agencies ProChile, ProColombia, PROMÉXICO (currently the Ministry of Economy) and PROMPERÚ. The forum's objective is to strengthen capacities and promote women's empowerment and economic autonomy.

Women entrepreneurs from the four countries have met to encourage and promote businesses, to strengthen empowerment and competitiveness, innovation, new business opportunities and international trade. The forum has included seminars and a business conference for sellers and buyers.

In 2022, the 9th Pacific Alliance Entrepreneurship and Innovation Forum (LAB4+) was held, with an active representation of businesswomen. With the aim of contributing to intraregional economic reactivation and generating business opportunities for PA traders and exporters; as well as position the bloc as a regional leader in the promotion of entrepreneurship, innovation and the use of Fourth Industrial Revolution technologies. A total of 87 companies participated in the trade sessions and 52% of these (46 companies) participated in the training program among exporters and startups (Pacific Alliance 2022).

Another initiative, the Community of

Businesswomen of the Pacific Alliance, was created in 2017 with support from the IADB, with the aim of promoting the economic empowerment of women in the Alliance countries. This online platform allows businesswomen to connect directly and explore business opportunities, exchange relevant information to strengthen their business and leadership skills, as well as obtain first-hand information about events and online courses within the framework of the Alliance.[11]

Women of the Pacific, a private organization, supports women entrepreneurs and businesses with an interdisciplinary team. Its purpose is to give visibility, strengthen capacities and connectivity; collaborate in the economic development of women entrepreneurs; and foster links between public and private organizations; as well as promoting best gender business practices, which can benefit women entrepreneurs. Women of the Pacific focuses on businesses in the four PA member countries and conducts studies, training events and organizes



business conferences for women from different sectors.

3.2 Public policies for gender equality in the countries of the PA

In all four countries there are public institutions, laws, equality plans and other public policy tools that promote gender equality and parity, based on international

standards. Through implementations of these policies, each country has made progress in gender equality, women's empowerment and leadership. Table 3.1 summarily presents the different categories of policy instruments. Since the nature of these instruments is very diverse (political, management, economic, national, sectoral), there is no ranking in the categories presented.

Table 3.1
Categories of instruments for gender equality in the PA member countries

Category	Description
Institutional	Public entities that guide and coordinate the gender equality policies of each country. Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women (MAM).
Equality plans	Instruments that guide the gender policies of the different government agencies. They serve to plan and facilitate the combined work of different agencies.
Equality laws	Framework legislation on legal equality and equal opportunities between men and women that serves as a basis for subsequent legal initiatives.
Gender quotas	Affirmative action aimed at overcoming the obstacles that prevent women from participating in politics and decision-making in the same way as their male peers.
Public administration programs	Initiatives that foster greater presence and participation of women in civil service and decision-making, implemented by government agencies.
Certification of gender equality	Gender standards and certifications applicable to public and private organizations that include and mainstream a gender perspective in their work.
Gender policies in international relations	Specific policies that seek to mainstream a gender approach to the different aspects of a country's international relations.

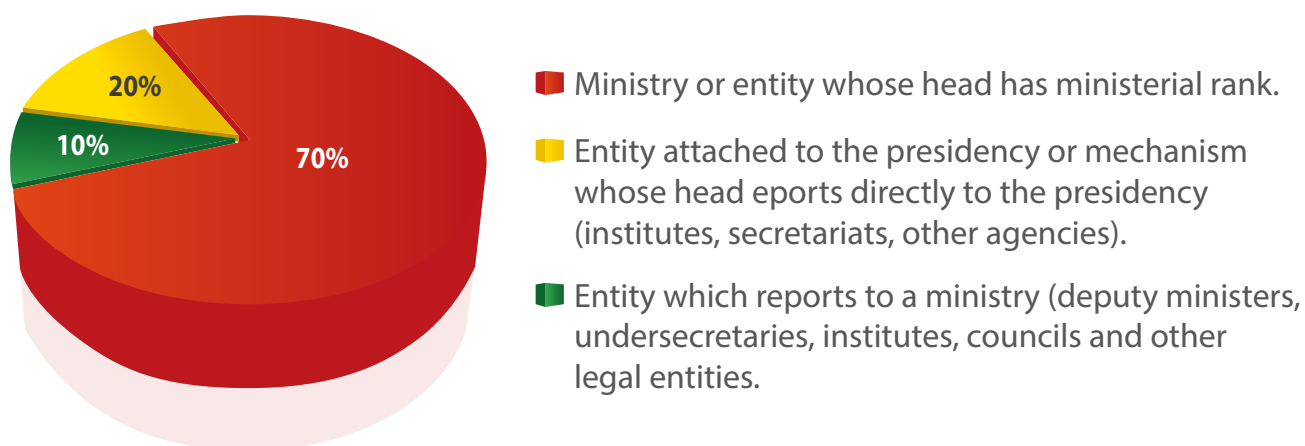
Source: prepared by the authors.

3.3 Institutional and legal framework for gender equality

The Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women (MAM, in its Spanish acronym) of the respective countries are those state entities responsible for guiding and coordinating gender equality policies. In order to secure and mainstream the implementation of these policies, such entities need to be located at a high level within the structure of government and to have a budget in line with these functions.

The names and hierarchical level of these entities differ from one country to another (Figure 3.1). In Chile there is the Ministry of Women and Gender Equity; in Colombia, the Presidential Council for Women's Equity (CEPM, in its Spanish acronym)[12]; in Mexico, the National Institute for Women; and in Peru, the Ministry of Women and Vulnerable Populations. The subsidiary body that coordinates the initiatives of the MAMs through the Regional Conference on Women is the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).[13]

Figure 3.1
Hierarchical level of MAMs in Latin America (20 countries)



Source: ECLAC, Gender Equality Observatory for Latin America and the Caribbean.

Colombia and Mexico are among the few countries in the region that have recognized in their constitutions the principles of equality and parity in the exercise of political rights (taskFORCE, undated). All four PA member countries have equality laws (Box 3.2).

Additionally, national legal norms usually cover various gender aspects related to

autonomy in decision-making (quota and parity laws); economic autonomy (laws regulating care work and pensions), physical autonomy (laws about violence against women, abortion, sexual and reproductive health and child marriage) and the intersection between the different dimensions of autonomies (equality plans and regulations on international migration). [14]

The four countries have also established plans to further equal opportunities between men and women, coordinated by the MAMs, to guide the gender policies of the different government agencies (Table 3.3). The plans promote the strengthening of women's autonomy, equal opportunities, access to work, the eradi-

cation of gender violence, and reproductive health rights. They express the State's commitment to mainstreaming gender in public policies. These plans are potentially a powerful instrument to promote women's leadership, even though the level of implementation of the commitments is uneven.

Box 3.2 Equality laws

Between 1999 and 2007, the four PA member countries passed framework legislation for legal equality and equality of opportunities between men and women which is the basis for all subsequent initiatives promoting gender equality (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2
Legislation on equality between men and women,
Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru

Country	Name of law	Year
Chile	Law N° 19.611, Establishes Legal Equality between Women and Men	1999
Colombia	Law 823 on Equal Opportunity for Women	2003
Mexico	General Law for Equality between Women and Men	2006
Peru	Law 28983 of Equal Opportunities between Women and Men	2007

Source: Prepared by the authors with online data

Table 3.3
Current equality plans between men and women:
Chile, Colombia, Mexico y Peru

Chile	Fourth equality plan between men and women 2018-2030
Colombia	“Change is with Women”, National Development Plan 2022-2026
Mexico	National Program for Equality between Men and Women (PROIGUALDAD) 2020-2024
Peru	National Gender Equality Policy 2019

Source: Prepared by the authors with online data (02-06-2023)

The three most common objectives of these plans are to promote equal opportunities, access to employment and strengthen the autonomy of women. Whatever the political weight or precedence these policy tools may have, their establishment is a token of the government’s commitment to gender equality and a guide for the gender programs of other public institutions. Equality plans are established for a specific period and their compliance by

state entities is evaluated.

Mexico has developed four equality programs over the past two decades (Table 3.4). The National Institute for Women used a participatory methodology to guide the objectives of the 2020-2024 program (Box 3.3), taking into account the proposals of more than five thousand women from different contexts.

Table 3.4
Mexico: equality programs

National Program for Equal Opportunities and Non-discrimination against Women (PROEQUIDAD)	2000-2006
National Program for Equality between Women and Men 2009-2012	2009-2012
National Program for Equal Opportunities and Non-discrimination against Women (PROIGUALDAD)	2013-2018
National Program for Equality between Women and Men (PROIGUALDAD)	2020-2024

Source: Prepared by the authors.

Box 3.3
Mexico: priority objectives of the National Program for Equality between Women and Men 2020-2024

- Strengthen the economic autonomy of women in order to close historical inequality gaps.
- Generate conditions for the recognition, reduction and redistribution of work in the home and care work, among families, the state, the community and the private sector.
- Improve conditions for women, children and adolescents to access welfare and health without discrimination, from a human rights perspective.
- Combat types and modalities of violence against women, children and adolescents, safeguarding their dignity and integrity.
- Position equal participation of women in decision-making roles in the political, social, community and private spheres.
- Establish safe and peaceful surroundings for women, children and adolescents.

Source: INMUJERES (2020) National Program for Equality between Women and Men 2020-2024



Objective 5 of the current PROIGUALDAD program (equal participation of women in decision-making) includes 5 priority strategies::

1. Strengthen the institutional and public policy framework to favor the substantive and equal participation of women.
2. Promote cultural change in Mexican society in favor of the recognition of women's political capacities and decision-making autonomy.
3. Promote the transformation of the community, labor and educational spheres to favor the incorporation of women in decision-making.
4. Improve the conditions for women's

participation in order to transition to parity in different social spheres.

5. Generate conditions for electoral political participation that guarantees the full incorporation of women in decision-making.

Chile also has developed four equality plans (Table 3.5). The establishment and monitoring of these plans are part of the functions of the Ministry for Women, whose responsibility it is to "formulate, coordinate and evaluate National Plans for Equality between Men and Women" (Art. 3a), in order to facilitate a coordinated action of government agencies. (Ministry of Women and Gender Equity, 2018).

Table 3.5
Chile: equality plans

Equal opportunity plan for women	1994 – 1999
Equal opportunity plan between women and men	2000 – 2010
Equal opportunity plan between men and women	2011 - 2020
Fourth National equality Plan between women and men	2018- 2030

Source: prepared by the authors.

The Chilean Equality Plan is a “planning and management instrument that ensures compliance with the gender commitments signed by the State and the approved legal and legislative frameworks that guarantee the rights of women. It also allows monitoring compliance and alignment with the purposes of substantive equality and autonomy of women, to the gender goals and objectives included in the policies, plans and strategies of the different ministries, as framed in the Sustainable Development Goals and the 2030 Agenda, whose observance by the State is a global commitment and challenge” (Ministry of Women and Gender Equity, 2018).

Between 2000 and 2017 Peru had three equality plans. In 2019, the National Gender Equality Policy (PNIG, in its Spanish acronym) was approved, which seeks to improve the efficiency and quality of the actions of public administration entities, at all levels of government, to guarantee the human rights of women in conditions of equality and without discrimination.[15] The Multisectoral Strategic Plan for Gender Equality (PEMIG, in its Spanish acronym), approved in 2020, provides the management tools to facilitate and govern its execution.

In Colombia, national development plans are the basis for government policies. The National Development Plan 2018-2022 included the Pact for the Equality of Women. The National Development Plan 2022-2026, "Colombia World Power of Life" identifies women as fundamental actors. The chapter on “Change is with Women” proposes strategies to promote

women's leadership as the engine of sustainable economic development and as protectors of life and the environment. It also establishes actions to strengthen the role of women in the politics of life and peace and their agency under conditions of parity in the different decision-making spaces.[16]

3.4 Gender quotas in the public sector

Women are underrepresented in decision-making in government and political institutions. To achieve greater parity in the public participation and representation of men and women, the PA member countries (as well as some others) have progressively implemented gender quotas of different kinds in their legal system (Dazarola, 2018).

All the PA countries have established gender quotas for lists of candidates for parliamentary office, but with the exception of Mexico,[17] parity in parliamentary representation has not yet been achieved (Table 3.6). Since the Constitutional Reform on Parity, Mexico increased the political participation of women; in the 2021 elections parity was achieved in the legislatures of 28 federal entities. As a result of the electoral processes, Mexico has the largest number of women in government in its history; there is gender parity in the Chamber of Deputies; in the 21 indigenous districts, 13 women and eight men were elected by the principle of relative majority; and in over 25% municipal governments women were elected as council presidents or mayors. (National Institute for Women, 2022 b).

Table 3.6
Gender quotas: parliamentary representation in Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru

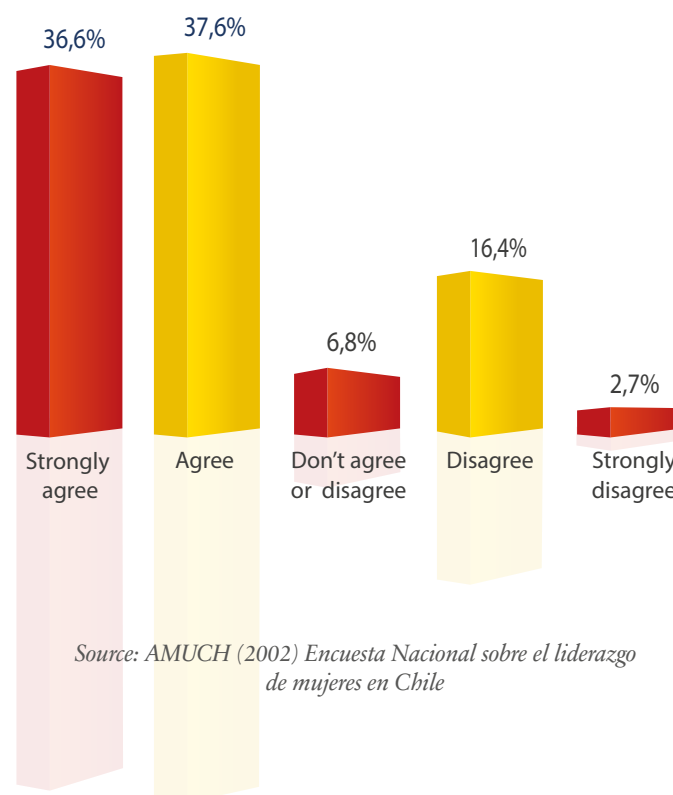
	Gender quotas for parliamentary candidates and year of approval	Parliamentary representation of women in 2021	Representatives January 2023	Senators January 2023
Chile	40% (2015)	29,7%	35,5%	24%
Colombia	30% (2011)	19,9%	28,9%	30,2%
Mexico	50% (2017)	49,6%	50%	50,4%
Peru	50% (2020)	40 %	38,8%	

Source: Prepared by the authors, based on i. data from 2021 in Sandra Naranjo Bautista, Mariana Chudnovsky, Luciano Strazza, Edgardo Mosqueira, Carmen Castañeda “Mujeres líderes en el sector público de América Latina y el Caribe: brechas y oportunidades”, BID 2022; and ii. data of January 2023 in UN Women (2023), *Women in Politics*.

Quotas are a form of affirmative action whose objective is to overcome the obstacles that prevent the participation of women, on a par with their male counterparts, in politics and decision-making. They are compensatory and redistributive measures to reverse situations of inequality. (Larserud and Taphorn, 2007; Tula, 2015). Although initially controversial, quotas have gradually gained acceptance as a necessary strategy for the inclusion of women.

Asked about the barriers to become a candidate for elected office, a sample of Chilean women considered that the main difficulties are to obtain a slot on party lists of candidates,[18] make homemaking and family compatible with politics, and campaign finance. More than 70% agreed with the establishment of gender quotas. (Figure 3.2) (Association of Municipalities of Chile, 2020).

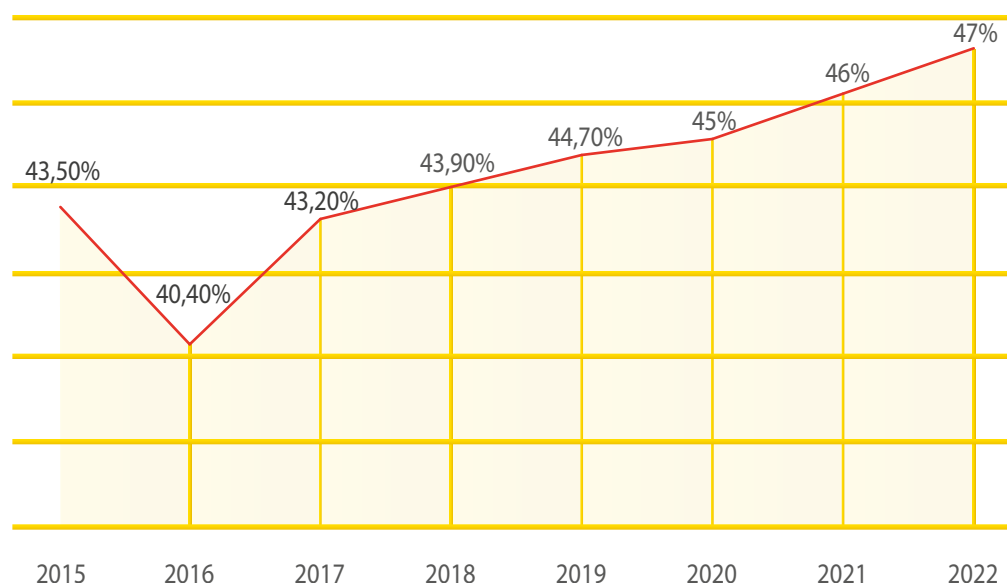
Figure 3.2
Response by women in Chile to question
“How much do you agree with a gender quota in
municipal and regional elections?” (answers in percentages)



Gender quotas in the executive branch or public administration are less frequent. Colombia has gender quotas to guarantee the presence of women in high-level positions. Law 581 of 2000, or the Quotas Law, is an affirmative action adopted by the Colombian State for the full and effective participation of women at all decision-making levels of the different branches and other organs of the public sector, in accordance with the provisions

of the Political Constitution of Colombia. Under this system, Colombia has advanced towards parity in managerial positions in the administration (Figure 3.3). By 2023, the country has managed to elect a woman vice president, the capital is governed by a woman, and half the ministries are headed by women. In all decision-making positions in public administration, the proportion of women is close to half.

Figure 3.3
Colombia: evolution of the percentage of women's participation
in managerial positions in government 2015-2022



Source: Función Pública (2022) Informe sobre la participación efectiva de la mujer en los cargos de niveles decisorios del Estado colombiano.

The Administrative Department of the Public Function of Colombia annually monitors and publishes compliance with the quotas in each public institution. Human talent management strategies are defined in each institution and non-compliance with the quota involves sanctions. Documents have been issued that provide guidance on the administrative actions that can be used and specific training is offered, which is still voluntary

but is expected to become mandatory.

Recent data has revealed that a significant proportion of women in the public sector are over 50 years of age, and it is necessary to incorporate young talent. Professional internships offer a series of benefits and 62% of vacancies for first jobs were occupied by women in 2022. The goals associated with the current National Development Plan seek that by

2026, 50% of management positions be covered by women, 10% by young people and 5% by other underrepresented groups.

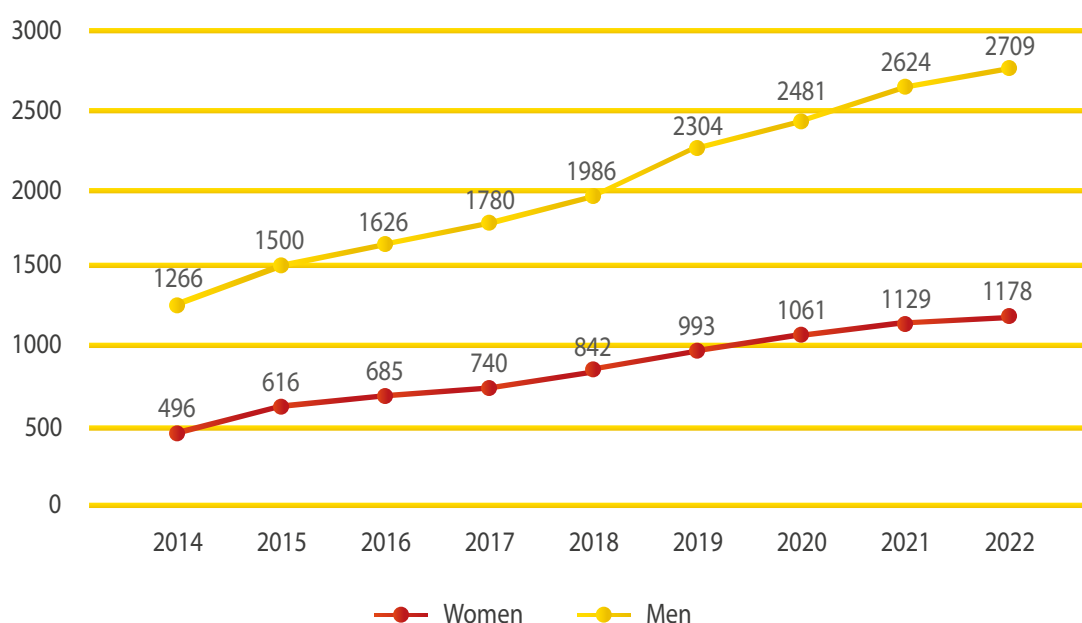
3.5 More women in senior management positions

Apart from quotas, civil service agencies have been taking initiatives to increase the number of women in senior management positions. In the past, recruitment, application, evaluation and selection systems have shown a gender bias against women to access senior positions. In order to advance towards parity, this bias needs to be addressed and dismissed.

In Chile, the High Public Office System

(SADP, in its Spanish acronym), created in 2003, has been crucial in fostering greater participation of women in senior positions in public administration. It has been improving the selection process of senior public managers, "promoting merit and values such as non-discrimination, impartiality and the full transparency of processes to provide government institutions with senior officials with proven management and leadership skills, to execute effectively and efficiently public policies defined by the authorities" (Centro de Sistemas Públicos, 2021). Within this institutional framework, there has been a special concern to eliminate gender biases and discrimination and this has increased the participation of women in the system [19] (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4
Chile: (accumulated) number of appointments
of women and men in SDAP positions



Source: Prepared by the authors with data from Servicio Civil <https://lookerstudio.google.com/u/0/reporting/1959c320-722c-44e9-9704-1b0ef0a719db/page/gb7pB> (consulted 06.05.2023).

Women's applications to the SADP have had favorable results. Even though they represent only 21.38% of the applications for the top positions (levels I and II), they represent 30.84% of the appointments. This means that 45.75% of the applications by women led to an appointment.[20] These figures are a result of

proactive initiatives at every stage of the recruitment process; which include the search for candidates with adequate profiles, training sessions during recruitment, as well as the publication of the names of the women appointed to senior positions.

Box 3.4

Chile: improvement of public service with a gender focus

Another tool to promote gender equality in the state has been the Management Improvement Program (PMG in its Spanish acronym), a budget formulation instrument that includes gender indicators that originated in 1998 and has been effective in positioning gender in public policies. These indicators measure and evaluate the impact of gender projects, programs and actions. There is a monetary incentive associated to performance which is externally evaluated.

Commitments regarding gender aim to reduce gender inequities, gaps and/or barriers by implementing strategic actions aimed at enhancing women's rights in the workplace, the levels of gender equality in the provision of public goods and services, and to strengthen the agencies' capacity to develop public gender policies.

Source: World Bank (2008), Chile: Estudio de evaluación en profundidad del Programa de Mejoramiento de la Gestión (PMG); Dipres (2022) Sistematización de indicadores de desempeño transversal 2022.

In Mexico, the National Program for Equality between Women and Men (PROIGUALDAD), is a federal program that includes 19 State secretariats (ministries) and over 250 federal administration institutions. It is a special, cross-cutting program, which aims to achieve change through six priority objectives, 37 priority strategies and 267 specific actions.[21]

To promote the principle of parity in the designation of appointments in managerial positions, PROIGUALDAD has gene-

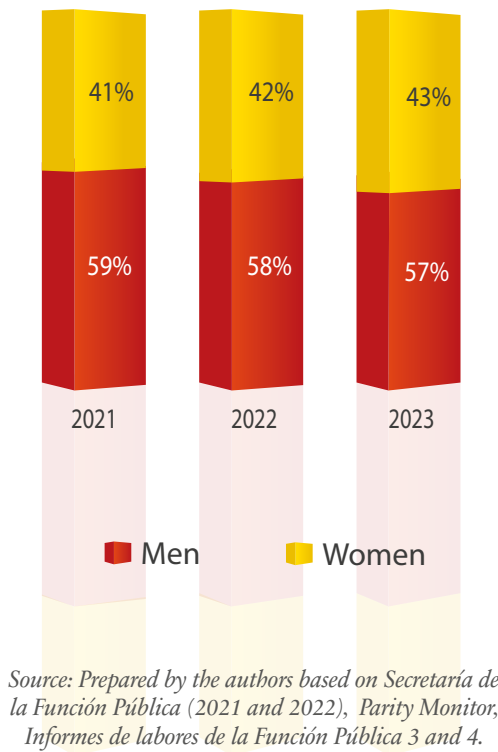
rated actions enabling the institutions of the Federal Public Administration (APF, in its Spanish acronym) to promote the leadership of women. One of the most successful initiatives has been to establish recruitment processes aimed exclusively at women.

By 2023, 2,819 women-only job-openings have been published, with special emphasis on management positions, and through this process 2,648 women were hired by various APF dependencies. This

has resulted not only in a recruitment of more women, but also in more access of women to leadership positions (from 28% in 2019 to 43% in January 2023; see Figure 3.5).

These women-only recruitment contests

Figure 3.5
Mexico: Evolution of leadership positions in public administration, by sex (in percentages)



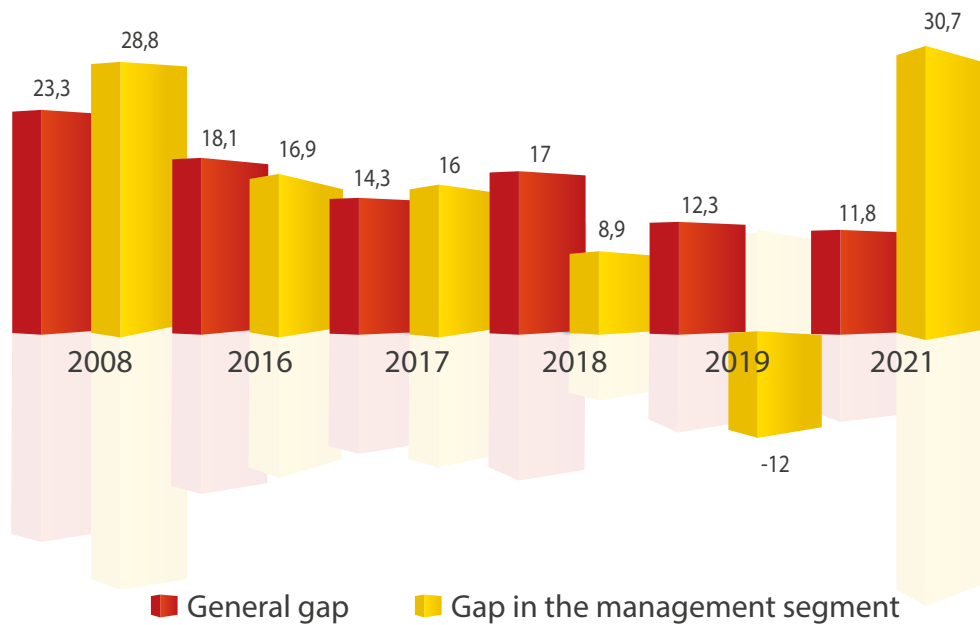
involved significant prior work with public bodies, particularly with the human resources staff. PROIGUALDAD's work focuses on the entrance, stability, and career development of women in public administration. Once the policy decision to recruit more women for leadership positions had been made, the biases affecting admissions and promotion, which had gone unperceived

due to cultural reasons, became clear. Changes were made in the required job profiles and years of experience, and the number of years that women remained in lower-level leadership positions were brought to attention. Among the biggest obstacles for women's career advancement are care work responsibilities. Mentoring is a good tool to support women early in their careers, but there is considerable resistance to this since the benefit for the woman who acts as a mentor is not clearly perceived.

In Peru, the modification of the law creating the National Civil Service Authority (SERVIR)[22] provided for the incorporation of the following consideration: "the civil service is governed by the focus on interculturality, gender and human rights, developed in instruments jointly produced with the competent sectors." Within this framework, SERVIR generates detailed information on people who work in public office and on gender aspects and has extensive training programs.

Information about the Peruvian public sector annually addresses different aspects of the work of women public servants: gender wage gaps, workplace sexual harassment, women managers and maternity rights. In recent years, women have earned on average 15% less than men, although the gap varies by type of occupation. In management, the gender wage gap varies depending on women's access to management positions. In 2021, 34% of management positions were held by women, who earned an average of 30% less than men. In 2019, women represented 40% of managerial positions with an average salary 12% higher than that of men (Figure 3.6).

Figure 3.6
Peru: Gap between the average income of men and women
in the public sector in general, and in the management segment



Source: Autoridad Nacional del Servicio Civil-SERVIR (2023) *La mujer en el servicio civil peruano 2023*

There are structural and institutional barriers that prevent women from accessing and maintaining management positions. Most of these posts are assigned based on political criteria at the highest level, which limits future prospects. In general, women do not have a sufficient network of contacts to gain access or advance in their careers. The expectations of women managers are to continue to grow professionally, to be promoted or to remain at similar levels of authority. They require greater stability in the face of high levels of turnover in leadership positions. At a technical level, women have expertise in management and show a special interest in complementing and strengthening the development of soft skills, such as emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, empathy, assertive communication, conflict resolu-

tion, among others. These skills facilitate their performance in spaces formerly considered masculine (SERVIR, 2023).

The National School of Public Administration – ENAP (in its Spanish acronym) which is dependent on SERVIR – has given training to over four thousand male and female civil servants about gender policies. It also offers a “Skills and competencies program for women managers in the public sector.” Its purpose is to facilitate the access and permanence of women in senior managerial positions and to encourage gender equality; to contribute to a greater participation, and ultimately parity, of women in leadership positions; to strengthen leadership and personal growth from a gender perspective; to improve women’s personal and management skills; to promote better time-use to

help conciliate work and family; and to confront assertively the stereotypes that

negatively affect women who occupy leadership positions (SERVIR, 2023).

Box 3.5

More women on the board of large public and private companies

The meagre participation of women on the boards of large companies, especially those that trade on the stock market, has led to the proposal of voluntary and mandatory measures for minimum percentages of women in high-level decision-making.

In Chile, the 29 State enterprises comply with gender parity on their boards. In 2022 women represented 56% of board directors. That year, the government presented the "More women on boards" bill, which seeks to gradually increase the participation of women in high-level decisions of listed companies, with an initially suggested and later mandatory quota of 40%.

In Colombia, the quota system applies to State companies (with a goal of parity by 2026), and there is a recommendation that private companies have at least 30% women on their boards. In Colombia, Mexico and Peru, the private sector promotes that women's participation on boards should be 30% by 2030.

The greater visibility and demand for more women in high decision-making positions has generated networks that support and train women who are in the top public and private echelons. One of these networks is REDMAD, in Chile, which gives training to women who are in senior management, on technical issues and leadership. REDMAD highlights companies or organizations that have good gender practices and is beginning to network with similar organizations.[23]

Source: Banco Mundial (2008), Chile: Estudio de evaluación en profundidad del Programa de Mejoramiento de la Gestión (PMG); Dipres (2022) Sistematización de indicadores de desempeño transversal 2022.

3.6 Gender standards and certifications

Some public entities and private companies in PA countries are adopting rigorous gender equality standards that are approved through a third-party certification process. The process begins with a baseline that considers the relevant indicators for assessing gender equality and

non-discrimination in institutions. As in other certification processes (technical, environmental, and sanitary standards, among others), once incompatibilities with the standard to be adopted are detected, a process of various stages begins, accompanied by consultants, to correct the problems and achieve the required standard. The final step, verification and

certification, must be repeated periodically.

Chile has the Chilean Standard 3262 (NCh3262) on Gender Equality and conciliation of work, family and personal life, which must be certified by an external certifying company, and compliance is noted with the Iguala ("equals") seal granted by the Ministry of Women and Gender Equity.

The NCh3262 standard is voluntary and establishes the requirements that a management system must meet for gender equality and conciliation of work, family and personal life. It is an opportunity for organizations to identify and make visible the gaps, barriers and gender inequities and generate actions to address them. Once installed, the standard allows continuous improvement. It seeks cultural change within the organization, a factor of social innovation and optimization of people-based management. To obtain certification, institutions must successfully pass several stages: i. Management commitment and establishment of a Gender Committee, ii. organizational diagnosis with a gender perspective, iii. design and implementation of a Gender Work Plan, iv. evaluation and certification. So far, 59 public and private entities have been certified with this standard.[24]

The Colombian government, together with the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), developed the *Equipares Seal*, which is a certification program that allows implementation of actions that are effective in closing gender gaps in private companies, SMEs, and public entities. The *Equipares Público* seal is granted by the Presidential Council for Women's

Equity (CPEM), the UNDP, the Civil Service and the Ministry of Labor. The recognition is based on fulfillment of requirements based on international and national commitments regarding gender equality and women's empowerment. Public entities that meet these standards are eligible to receive recognition of their commitment at three levels: Bronze (60% compliance), Silver (70% compliance), and Gold (80% compliance).[25]

In the case of Mexico, the Mexican Standard NMX R 025 SCFI 2015 on Labor Equality and Non-Discrimination, administered by the National Institute for Women (INMUJERES), the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare (STPS) and the National Council for the Prevention of Discrimination (CONAPRED), has existed since 2015. As of January 2023, the standard had been adopted by 548 public and private companies. It is a voluntary mechanism to award institutions that have labor equality and non-discrimination practices to promote the full development of workers.

Its main objectives are to incorporate a gender and non-discrimination perspective in recruitment, selection, mobility and training processes; to guarantee equal pay; to implement actions to prevent and address workplace violence; and establish actions of co-responsibility between the work, family and personal life of its workers, with equal treatment and opportunities.[26]

In Peru, the Gender Equality certification began to be implemented in public institutions in 2020, with the support of the UNDP. This mechanism addresses five issues: planning, architecture and capaci-

ties, work environment, participation and alliances with accountability and impact on public policies. The Municipality of Lima was the first Peruvian organization to obtain this certification.[27]

At the sub-national level, in Colombia, in March 2023 the Bogotá Women's Secretariat awarded for the second year the district gender equality certification *En Igualdad* (In Equality) to public and private entities that effectively implement programs and actions to eliminate gender gaps. The certification mechanism measures transformation of the management model, prevention of violence against women, non-sexist communication, the increase in the number of women in decision-making positions, investment aimed at closing gender gaps, among other aspects. It is supported by UN Women.[28]

3.7 Gender policies in the institutional framework of international relations

Even though diplomacy and international relations have traditionally been a masculine domain, in recent years gender issues, the participation and leadership of women have been gaining increasing importance in the foreign ministries of the Alliance countries.

In Chile, programs to mainstream a gender approach in public policies, such as the Management Modernization Program (PMG in its Spanish acronym) and the Plan for Equality between Men and Women, began to be applied in 2002 in the Foreign Ministry, under the part-time responsibility of an employee "responsible for gender" under the Undersecretary of Foreign Relations (Escobar and Cook, 2022). The participation of women

in decision-making positions continued to be scarce and was not institutionalized in the political area of the Ministry, despite sporadic efforts made in later years. Gender initiatives were better received in the economic area, with a greater presence of women in senior positions and the incorporation of a gender focus in international economic negotiations. Starting in 2022, initiatives to place women in leadership positions intensified under a woman foreign minister, and a feminist foreign policy action plan was presented in 2023. For several years already, the Undersecretariat for International Economic Relations has engaged in work on gender, through the department dedicated to gender issues and incorporating gender chapters and provisions in a range of initiatives and trade instruments.

In Colombia, the participation of women in senior foreign policy positions is high in comparison with other Latin American countries. In 2020, 33% of embassies were run by women (Prada, 2021). Between 1991 and 2023, seven women have been foreign ministers, which surely encouraged a greater presence of women in diplomatic posts. Even though there is a quota law in the Colombian public administration, the regulations governing the Diplomatic and Consular Career do not specifically mention women or gender equality, nor do they include measures to guarantee equal representation. Currently, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs promotes and defends national interests on gender matters in different scenarios through its participation in the ECLAC Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean, in which Colombia holds the vice-presidency of the Governing Body and is on the Board of Directors of the

Regional Fund to Support Feminist Organizations and Movements. In the Commission on the Legal and Social Status of Women (CSW), Colombia has played a leading role on digital issues, as well as by co-sponsoring the eighth Assembly of the International Day of Women and Girls in Science.[29]

At the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Mexico, a Gender Equality Policy Unit was created in 2016 with the objective of “achieving the implementation and institutionalization of a mainstreamed gender perspective in the Foreign Ministry; as well as acting as a consultative and advisory body for the agency in matters of gender equality.”[30] Within the framework of the PROIGUALDAD program (2020-2024), the Ministry has developed gender equality initiative to reaffirm Mexico's presence and leadership in international forums, organizations and mechanisms linked to the promotion of human rights, as well as by promoting the exchange of international best practices to strengthen public policies on gender equality and women's empowerment.[31] In 2020, 56% of the Mexican foreign service personnel were women (Piscopo and Hinojosa, 2020) and in January of that year, the Foreign Minister announced the adoption of a feminist

foreign policy.

In the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Peru, a Working Group for Gender Equality was created in 2017 and through its Action Plan it seeks to coordinate the initiatives of the Foreign Ministry to reduce gender gaps, as established by the international commitments of the Peruvian State, as well as in the policies and plans prioritized by the government (Ministry of Foreign Relations, 2018).

In recent years, several countries have developed or announced the implementation of a feminist foreign policy (Box 3.6), which not only aims to correct gender biases in diplomacy, but also to transform foreign policy.

In the field of international trade, in the four countries of the Alliance there are public programs that promote leadership and aim for the internationalization of companies led by women (Frohmann and Olmos, 2023). In Chile, the ProChile program *Mujer Exporta* (Women Export), created in 2016, is aimed at incorporating women entrepreneurs with export potential to international trade. In Colombia, a wide range of programs was established to promote internationalization of women entrepreneurs, notably



the Fondo Mujer Emprende Rural (Women Entrepreneur Rural Fund), which in 2023 finances women in agriculture, forestry and fishing.[32] In Mexico, the *Mujer Exporta Mx* (Women export Mx) program of the Secretariat of Economy was developed within the framework of the Free Trade Agreement between

Mexico, the United States and Canada (T-MEC). In Peru, the Promperú *Ella Exporta* (She exports) program, established in 2017, seeks to enhance the leadership and skills of women entrepreneurs with a focus on internationalization and exports.




Box 3.6 Feminist Foreign Policy




The first country to adopt a feminist foreign policy was Sweden in 2014, including all the areas of international affairs and trade policy. [33] In Canada the emphasis of feminist foreign policy is in the area of international development cooperation. Mexico was the first Latin American country to adopt a feminist foreign policy in 2020, and the governments of Chile and Colombia announced in 2022 the decision to move in that direction.

Mexico conceives feminist foreign policy as a policy with a gender perspective to advance towards substantive equality. This policy seeks to transform the organizational culture and practices of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, by turning it into an institution with gender parity, free of violence, that makes women's contributions visible and promotes intersectionality, transversality, and complementarity with other issues such as climate change and vulnerable populations (Mesa, 2021). Coordination is the responsibility of the Undersecretariat for Multilateral Affairs and Human Rights, through the General Directorate for Human Rights and Democracy.



Sources: Mesa, 2021; Fuentes-Julio et al, 2022; and Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores, 2020.



4.- PROPOSALS AND RECOMMENDATIONS TO STRENGTHEN WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP

This chapter presents some proposals and recommendations to promote substantive equality and strengthen the leadership of women. It is based on the diagnosis resulting from i) a survey of members of the PA groups, ii) interviews with trade negotiators and officials in charge of gender programs in the four countries, and iii) the identifica-

tion of policies and programs in the Alliance countries.

In all four member countries there are mechanisms to move towards substantive equality, but they are not always implemented effectively. Strengthening women's leadership will only be possible if gender



equality governance is consolidated and the equality gaps in the countries are reduced. Within the Alliance itself, leadership and the mainstreaming of a gender perspective face similar challenges.

4.1 Strengthen governance for gender equality

In all four countries there are substantial advances in the institutional and legal frameworks for gender equality. Although the new governance for equality has similar features in all four countries, there are also distinctive elements.

For example, Colombia and Mexico have recognized in their **constitutional texts** the principles of equality and parity in the exercise of political rights. This does not necessarily mean achievement of parity at all levels immediately, but it is an important basis for future public policies aimed at equality.

Equal opportunity plans and policies have been good tools for mainstreaming gender in public policies. Gender does not have with equal priority in all government agencies and it is necessary to review priorities, monitor the implementation of gender policies and strengthen the institutions that supervise compliance.

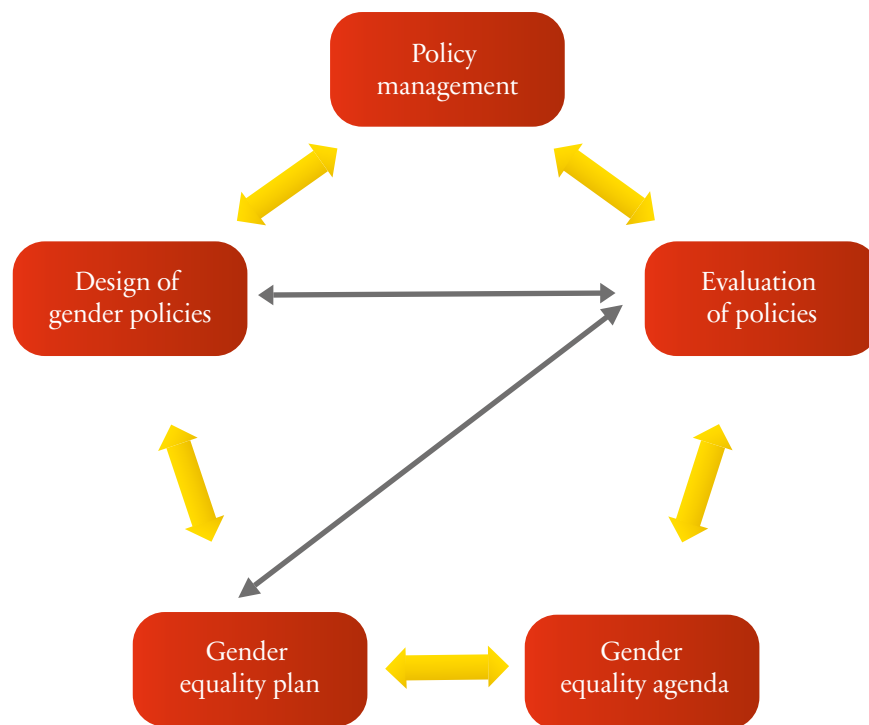
It is also necessary to **strengthen coordination** between the national gender

programs (and also within the Alliance) to achieve policies with greater scope, financing and dissemination. The institutions that supervise and coordinate gender policies (the MAMs) should have higher rank in the administration and more resources. On this point, the Chilean government has taken an interesting initiative, by which the Minister for Women and Gender Equity has joined the Presidency's political committee where the main government decisions are made.

The governance of gender equality and the institutional capacities for legal and public policy reforms need to be strengthened, and the participation of women in decision-making accelerated. This includes the participation of women as voters and candidates, increasing the civic engagement of young women, promoting participation in transitional and constitution-building entities, and strengthening legislative capacities to establish laws that address gender (UNDP, 2018).

The objectives and commitments of the **gender equality agenda must be incorporated into the whole cycle of public policies**. This includes a national gender equality agenda, a medium-term plan, policy design, management, and evaluation. To achieve real impact, the institutional and regulatory framework of gender equality needs to be made more accountable, through careful design and management, monitoring, audits, and evaluations.

Diagram 4.1
Cycle of gender equality public policies



Source: Prepared by the authors based on Lahera, E. (2008). *Introducción a las políticas públicas*. Santiago, Fondo de Cultura Económica

4.2 Reduce gender gaps to strengthen leadership

Even though gender quotas in the political-electoral system have become increasingly commonplace, this is not true of **the gender quotas or parity in the public administration**, that already exist in Colombia and Mexico. But even in cases where they are already part of the public institutional order and there is a trend towards parity in ministerial cabinets, they are not always applied at second or third level of decision-making. The implementation of quotas must be concrete and measurable, and some progress has been made in this direction (Naranjo et al., 2022).

The debate continues in several countries

about whether it is necessary to institute a parity system or whether it should be based on quotas. Whether quotas should be permanent or transitory is also a matter of debate. All the chief negotiators interviewed as part of this project favored a quota system. It seems difficult to overcome the “glass ceiling” or “sticky floor” that limit women's leadership without establishing and monitoring the impact of a quota system.

Affirmative action does not end with quota systems. It is also necessary to equalize the situation of men and women in different government programs. Affirmative action refers to the differential treatment given to women and men, which aspires to achieve a legitimate purpose of

equalizing opportunities through the adoption of temporary special measures aimed at accelerating de facto equality between men and women. In this context, affirmative action is not considered discriminatory (WTO, 2021). This definition applies in all areas, including trade policy. Some examples, related to the Alliance's activities, are affirmative action programs, such as that for SMEs that prioritizes companies led by women, through training programs for public procurement providers, as well as training programs in STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) for women and girls, among others.

Civil service agencies have a key role in achieving at least formal equality between men and women in the public sector and increasing the presence of women in senior management positions.

Despite the efforts by these agencies, there are still structural and institutional barriers that hinder women's access and permanence in management positions. On the one hand, despite the changes in recruitment systems, the frequently invisible gender biases that limit women's access to hierarchical positions, continue. Many of these positions are assigned directly by the authorities and are confidence-based or follow decisions at the highest level, which limits future prospects. In general, women have insufficient networks to advance in their careers.

The promotion system in the public administration must also become more transparent. Tools such as women-only recruitment contests, neutral job profiles and blind selection processes help to avoid gender biases. Civil service agencies need to guide human resources management to continue to promote women's

professional career path, so that, once they have attained leadership positions, they are not trapped in the "glass labyrinth" that limits their development possibilities. For this, specific training is needed.

In order to advance in the substantive equality of women and facilitate their participation in leadership positions, it is essential to address **family care responsibilities** (for children, older people or those with limited abilities) where a great burden of unpaid work hours falls on women due to the traditional assignment of gender roles. There are specific initiatives in workplaces such as the establishment of lactation rooms, nurseries, parental leave, and greater job flexibility that allow work, family and personal life to be more easily conciliated.

An important advance in this area will be the national care systems (SNCs, in their Spanish acronym) that are beginning to be implemented in the four Alliance countries. It is a set of policies that help to redistribute domestic and care work among the members of society. The inclusion of care responsibilities in the public agenda is a great progress.

In Chile, one of the country's objectives is to enhance the role of caregivers in society by fostering their training and formal employment and consolidating a Registry of Caregivers.^[34] In Colombia, there is active participation of civil society, through the Intersectoral Care Economy Panel, a team of civil society organizations, academic and political institutions committed to development of an SNC, which maintains a permanent dialogue with government agencies, (Intersectoral Panel on the Care Economy, undated). Inter-institutional work is also required, such as that implemented in Mexico,

where the law establishes that the SNC will be established including of officials from the Ministries of Finance, Labor, Education, Culture and Health, the Mexican Institute of Social Security, the National System for the Comprehensive Development of Families, and the Welfare Secretariats in the federal entities.[35] In

Peru, the SNC "will put comprehensive and quality care policies and services into practice, guaranteeing the right of people to receive care, care for themselves and give care, and prioritizing attention for caregivers, children, adolescents, people with disabilities, the elderly and people in a situation of dependency"[36]

Box 4.1

Mexico: survey of care needs in the pandemic

In 2021, the National Women's Institute conducted the Survey on Care Needs in the Pandemic in the Federal Public Administration (ENCAP-2021). The survey showed an imbalance in care responsibilities for children and adolescents. 57.4% of men indicated that their spouse was responsible for this job and 33.1% of women admitted to their own responsibility. The greatest workload at home was for women: from 1 to 1.8 hours a day more than the men who engaged in care activities.

Source: INMUJERES (2021), Desigualdad en cifras, Boletín No.7, September 2021

For the SNCs to be implemented, play an effective role, transform the allocation of care work and change people's daily lives, much effort and commitment on the part of the political authorities, a great capacity for management, and considerable financial resources, will be necessary.

The Alliance can play a significant role in strengthening SNCs if it builds this issue into its gender-mainstreaming agenda, jointly analyzes the countries' best practices and fosters cooperation activities. These initiatives will contribute to remove the social and cultural barriers that limit the access and stability of women in decision-making positions in the public and private sectors.

4.3 Promotion of a gender focus in the Pacific Alliance

As the Alliance progresses to new challenges, it becomes necessary to **strengthen gender mainstreaming in all areas of work**. "Mainstreaming the gender perspective is the process of evaluating the implications for men and women of any action that is planned, be it legislation, policies or programs, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy to ensure that the concerns and experiences of women, like those of men, are an integral part of the development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs in all political, economic, and



social spheres, so that women and men can benefit from them equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal of integration is to achieve gender equality" (United Nations Economic and Social Council, 1997).

The development of the Alliance's gender mainstreaming agenda is necessarily related to advances in the regulations and policies of its member countries. If not all members have instituted quota or parity systems in the public sector in their own country, they are unlikely to agree to establish them in the Alliance. It is important to explore other ways to advance equality and benefit from the high presence of women in the Alliance.

The mandate to mainstream gender should not be solely generic but allow for specific affirmative action. For example, the gender composition and leadership of groups in particular could be analysed to identify any structural or conjunctural hurdles in them that make it difficult to achieve gender balance, and to support the group in addressing and surmounting these hurdles.

To mainstream gender, it is necessary to **raise awareness**. The GTG has made progress in this area but given the high

turnover of those who participate in the different groups, it is necessary to maintain consciousness-raising activities on a permanent basis to infuse those who join the Alliance groups with a gender perspective. This is a priority issue and those who participate should receive an introduction when they join the national groups. This could be called an initial horizontal perspective-sharing. Experience has already been gained in this area, both at group level and in each of the countries. Virtual introductory tools could be developed to increase impact.

Moreover, it is necessary to explore further a vertical perspective on how to apply a gender focus in each of the PA work areas. It is not easy to go beyond understanding the gender focus to proposing concrete actions in committees, subcommittees and technical groups. Several of the persons interviewed explained that it is already understood that "the gender approach is not exclusively to develop activities for women."

However, a more specific guidance is demanded, for example, to mainstream gender in trade disciplines and other matters that are perceived as "neutral" by those who negotiate. There is willingness now among PA negotiators to incorpora-

te a gender perspective into trade negotiations. In a survey of negotiators conducted at a workshop organized by the GTG in 2022, 85% were in favor of incorporating a gender chapter in the PA Trade Protocol; and 70% indicated their support for including gender provisions in the disciplines of the Protocol chapters (Frohmann and Olmos, 2022).

In these cases, it is precisely the experts in trade negotiation who can identify how to mainstream the gender approach, with an ad hoc support and methodology (Table 4.1). The interviewees were very supportive of such a strategy. Pilot cases could be developed with some groups. It is clearly an objective that requires a series of specific activities around a strategy.

Table 4.1
Modalities to mainstream gender in trade disciplines

Hard commitments		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative measures that prohibit gender discrimination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive commitments to balance opportunities • Specific measures for gender equality • Transitory measures that promote women 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reserves to safeguard national laws regarding gender equality and public policies that benefit women
Soft commitments		
Training	Cooperation	

Source: Frohmann (2019), Herramientas de política comercial para contribuir a la igualdad de género, Serie Comercio Internacional, No. 153, Santiago: CEPAL.

Gender mainstreaming is also a challenge for the **private sector**. Several initiatives are being developed by governments and by the Alliance to promote the leadership of women in business, both in large companies and in export SMEs led by women. The Alliance's private counterpart - the Business Council - is headed for the first time (2023) by a woman. Coordinating activities with the national business chapters to address gender mainstreaming in technical issues can be a way of advancing in both "horizontal" work to raise awareness and "vertical" work to deepen specific issues.

Follow-up of the achievements of the

HRAEM Roadmap can aid both with the identification of successful tools/activities and the areas that might require priority when planning mainstreaming actions. The GTG should look for ways to socialize the HRAEM initiatives that involve other Alliance actors, particularly the technical groups. Through the activities of the HRAEM, negotiators can gain insights to mainstream gender in their specific areas.

As already highlighted, leadership training is important for greater and better participation of women in decision-making. All civil servants should be able to access these programs. Participa-

tion in the Alliance should involve leadership training for women who join the groups. These programs are already being developed for those who apply to senior public management, but actions of this type are necessary at all levels. The implementation of these training programs is not regulated and tends to depend on the gender awareness of the authorities of each institution. Although members of the technical groups acknowledge the existence of gender policies and programs, leadership training programs to which the women (or men) have access were not identified.

These trainings could include a "double agenda", associating gender issues and the so-called "hard" issues of the Alliance's trade protocol. An exchange of experiences around mentoring and leadership programs for women in the private sector could be useful to set in motion a course of actions in this regard.

The topics to be included in the training should include international commitments on gender and women's rights, to align the trade agenda with these commitments. Only a small group of people handle this information (generally in the international areas of the MAMs), and there is little awareness about these commitments among most male or female negotiators.

Networks of professional women are gaining visibility in different sectors.

They are spaces that welcome and accompany women leaders in their work performance and allow them to share experiences of balancing their public and private roles. Establishment of these networks among negotiators and learn about the existing networks, can help consolidate leadership.

The GTG is responsible for gender mainstreaming in the PA, but its capacities and resources are too limited to take on an agenda like the one described above. It is necessary to innovate and establish a way of working that transfers part of the responsibility for certain gender actions to technical groups or other institutions. As shown in this diagnosis, political will at the highest level is necessary but not sufficient for fully mainstreaming gender and promote women's leadership.

The Alliance's work on gender needs to combine with the national agendas where good progress is being made in the governance of equality policies and the reduction of gender gaps. Governments are building networks of gender supervisors who support the agenda in public institutions and coordinate among each other. The Alliance can be a clearing house of information and available resources shared by the four countries on the implementation of equality agendas, enabling them to learn about experiences and identify mechanisms to enhance results.

TEXT NOTES

- [1] Ref: Resolution Nº 29, January 25, 2023, of the AGCID register, authorizing the contract between AGCID and the Institute of International Relations of the University of Chile.
- [2] This term refers to how maternity creates a different track for professional women, with specific work arrangements that at the same time provide fewer opportunities for professional advancement.
- [3] The first position in the ranking is smallest gap and No. 146 is the largest.
- [4] Details in <https://www.unwomen.org/es/what-we-do/leadership-and-political-participation/facts-and-figures>.
- [5] See <https://www.economia.gob.cl/2023/03/13/ministerios-de-hacienda-economia-y-fundacion-chile-mujeres-lanzan-cuarto-reporte-de-indicadores-de-genero-en-las-empresas-en-chile-2022.htm>
- [6] See <https://stats.oecd.org/index.aspx?queryid=54753>
- [7] List of people participating in the PA in 2022, according to the register of the pro tempore Presidency, sent to the consultants by the GTG.
- [8] The impact of the role of women as caregivers on their professional career and access to leadership positions will be analyzed in detail in section 2.6.
- [9] Pacific Alliance (2020), Incorporación del enfoque de género en los Grupos Técnicos de la Alianza del Pacífico (AP). Recomendaciones y directrices para avanzar hacia la transversalización de género https://alianza-pacifico.net/wp-content/uploads/Encuesta_Enfoque_Genero.pdf
- [10] Alianza del Pacífico (s.f.) Guía para el uso de Lenguaje Inclusivo en los grupos técnicos de la Alianza del Pacífico https://alianzapacifico.net/wp-content/uploads/Guia_LenguajeInclusivo_vf.pdf
- [11] <https://connectamericas.com/es/community/comunidad-mujeres-empresarias-ap#> The Community is part of the ConnectAmericas platform of the Inter-American Development Bank. Its purpose is to help small and medium-sized companies in Latin America and the Caribbean position themselves in international markets.
- [12] In Colombia, the President approved the law that creates the Ministry of Equality and Equity that will seek to dialogue with all sectors of Colombian society in order to build social equality (<https://petro.presidencia.gov.co/prensa/Pages/The-Ministry-of-Equality-will-have-to-learn-to-make-Colombia-a-space-230104.aspx>)
- [13] <https://www.cepal.org/es/organos-subsidiarios/conferencia-regional-la-mujer-america-latina-caribe>
- [14] See details at <https://oig.cepal.org/es/leyes>
- [15] See <https://www.mimp.gob.pe/PNIG/index.php>
- [16] See <https://www.senado.gov.co/index.php/documentos/senado-prensa/6892-proyecto-de-ley-pnd-2022-2026-articulado/filee>
- [17] See <https://observatorio.inmujeres.gob.mx/mvc/view/public/index.html?ms=Mzk=>
- [18] Historically, most political parties have favored male candidates.
- [19] The website serviciocivil.cl/mujeres-en-el-estado provides information on the application and appointment processes for women in the SADP to encourage their participation in the public sector and promote access to leadership positions.
- [20] Based on data from serviciocivil.cl/mujeres-en-el-estado/estadisticas (accessed 02.20.2023).
- [21] In <https://www.gob.mx/inmujeres/acciones-y-programas/programa-nacional-para-la-igualdad-entre-mujeres-y-hombres> (accessed 02.21.2023).
- [22] Legislative Decree No. 1450 that modifies Legislative Decree No. 1023, which creates the National Civil Service Authority, and Law No. 30057, Civil Service Law.

- [23] Ver <https://redmad.cl/>
- [24] See https://www.sernameg.gob.cl/?page_id=32792 (accessed 02.15.2023).
- [25] See: <https://www.equipares.org/equipares-publico/>
- [26] See <https://www.gob.mx/inmujeres/acciones-y-programas/norma-mexicana-nmx-r-025-scfi-2015-en-igualdad-laboral-y-no-discriminacion> (accessed 01.09.2023)
- [27] See <https://www.undp.org/es/peru/noticias/un-reconocimiento-la-igualdad-de-genero-en-el-sector-publico>
- [28] See <https://www.sdmujer.gov.co/noticias/sello-de-igualdad-de-genero-premio-a-las-entidades-publicas-y-privadas>
- [29] See <https://www.cancilleria.gov.co/newsroom/news/metadatos-hitos-genero-ministerio-relaciones-exteriores-primer-semester-2023>
- [30] See <https://www.gob.mx/sre/documentos/unidad-de-politica-de-igualdad-de-genero-de-la-secretaria-de-relaciones-exteriores?idiom=es>
- [31] See https://www.dof.gob.mx/nota_detalle.php?codigo=5608467&fecha=22/12/2020#gsc.tab=0
- [32] See <https://www.innpuolombia.com/innformate/nucleo-e-fondo-mujer-emprende-rural-abre-convocatoria-para-apoyar-65-negocios-de-mujeres>
- [33] Sweden's feminist foreign policy was suspended in 2022 when a coalition of conservative parties took office. This shows the fragility and the need to institutionalize these policies so that they do not depend on the political will of the government in power.
- [34] See <https://www.gob.cl/noticias/asi-funcionara-el-sistema-nacional-de-cuidados-anunciado-por-el-presidente-boric/>
- [35] See <https://politica.expansion.mx/mexico/2023/04/09/que-es-sistema-nacional-de-cuidados#:~:text=El%20Sistema%20Nacional%20de%20Cuidados%20estar%C3%A1%20integrado%20por%20las%20Secretar%C3%ADas,hom%C3%B3logas%20en%20las%20entidades%20federativas>
- [36] See <https://www.mimp.gob.pe/DGIGND/sistema-nacional-cuidados.php>

REFERENCES

Alianza del Pacífico (2022). Hoja de Ruta para la Autonomía y el Empoderamiento de las Mujeres en la Alianza del Pacífico. Informe de Implementación Anual, diciembre 2022. <https://alianzapacifico.net/wp-content/uploads/2023/05/INFORME-ANUAL-HRAEM-2022-vFinal.pdf>

____ (2021). Plan de implementación de la Hoja de Ruta para la autonomía y el empoderamiento económico de las mujeres en la Alianza del Pacífico https://alianzapacifico.net/wp-content/uploads/2021/12/Plan-de-Implementacion-HRAEM-AP_.pdf

____ (2020). Incorporación del enfoque de género en los Grupos Técnicos de la Alianza del Pacífico (AP). Recomendaciones y directrices para avanzar hacia la transversalización de género. https://alianzapacifico.net/wp-content/uploads/Encuesta_Enfoque_Genero.pdf

____ (2015). Declaración de Paracas. <https://alianzapacifico.net/download/declaracion-de-paracas-julio-20-de-2015/>

Asociación de Municipalidades de Chile, AMUCH (2020). Encuesta nacional sobre el liderazgo de mujeres en Chile. <https://amuch.cl/wp-content/uploads/2022/05/Resultados-Encuesta-nacional-sobre-el-liderazgo-de-mujeres-en-Chile.pdf>

Banco Mundial (2008). Chile: Estudio de evaluación en profundidad del Programa de Mejoramiento de la Gestión (PMG). http://www.dipres.cl/598/articles-163109_doc_pdf.pdf

Centro de Sistemas Públicos (2021). Servi-

cio Civil. Estudio participación de las mujeres en el Sistema de Alta Dirección Pública (SADP), Ingeniería Industrial, Universidad de Chile. https://www.serviciocivil.cl/wp-content/uploads/2022/01/estudio_participacion_mujeres_sadp_cspuchile.pdf

CENTRUM PUCP (2018). Primer estudio sobre mujeres miembros de directorios de las empresas en el mercado de valores peruano 2018. <https://centrumthink.pucp.edu.pe/publicaciones/mujeres-miembros-de-directorios-de-las-empresas-en-el-mercado-de-valores-peruano/>

Dazarola, Gabriela (2018) Leyes de cuotas de género. Experiencia Extranjera y resultados de su aplicación en Chile, Biblioteca del Congreso Nacional de Chile. https://obtienearchivo.bcn.cl/obtienearchivo?id=repositorio/10221/26780/1/Ley_de_cuotas_experiencia_comparada_Comision_def.pdf

Dirección de Presupuestos (2022). Sistematización de indicadores de desempeño transversal 2022. https://www.dipres.gob.cl/598/articles-44361_doc_pdf2.pdf

____ (2021). Características generales del trabajo de la mujer en el empleo público 2019. Apartado estadístico. <https://www.serviciocivil.cl/mujeres-en-el-estado/estudios/>

Eagly y Carli (2007). Women and the labyrinth of leadership. Harvard Business Review. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/5957753_Women_and_the_labyrinth_of_leadership

Escobar, Natalia y Olivia Cook (2022). “Género y política exterior en Chile: Entendiendo las barreras institucionales”, en Fuentes-Julio, Claudia (2022), M. J. Henríquez Uzal, N. Escobar Ramírez, P. Lombardo Estay (editoras), *Mujeres y política exterior en América Latina. Un mundo de desigualdades*, Fondo de Cultura Económica, Santiago de Chile 2022.

ESE Business School/ DCH (s/f). Barómetro liderazgo femenino 2021. Una mirada a los países latinoamericanos, iberoamericanos y del Caribe. https://www.esec.cl/esec/site/artic/20220110/asocifile/20220110161126/barometro_liderazgo_femenino_2021_final_ctf.pdf

FEM (2022). Global Gender Gap Report, 2022. <https://www.weforum.org/reports/global-gender-gap-report-2022/>

Frohmann, Alicia (2019). Herramientas de política comercial para contribuir a la igualdad de género, Serie Comercio Internacional, No. 153, Santiago: CEPAL.

Frohmann, Alicia y Ximena Olmos (2023). Sinergias para un comercio inclusivo y sostenible. El caso de la Alianza del Pacífico, Documento de Proyecto, Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (CEPAL).

____ (2022). Informe 3 de Asistencia técnica CEPAL a México para la PPT de la Alianza del Pacífico 2022, Taller para negociadoras y negociadores: Enfoque de género en los acuerdos comerciales (sin publicar).

Fuentes-Julio, Claudia (2022). M.J. Henríquez Uzal, N. Escobar Ramírez, P. Lombardo Estay (editoras), *Mujeres y política*

exterior en América Latina. Un mundo de desigualdades. Fondo de Cultura Económica, Santiago de Chile 2022.

Función Pública (2022). Informe sobre la participación efectiva de la mujer en los cargos de niveles decisorios en el Estado colombiano. Diciembre 2022. <https://www.funcionpublica.gov.co/informes-de-ley-de-cuotas>

Grant Thornton (2022). Women in business 2022. Opening the door to diverse talent. <https://www.grantthornton.global/en/insights/women-in-business-2022/>

Hessami y Lopes da Fonseca (2020). Female political representation and substantive effects on policies. A literature review. IZA Discussion papers. <https://www.iza.org/publications/dp/13125/female-political-representation-and-substantive-effects-on-policies-a-literature-review>

INEGI (2023). Censo Nacional de Gobierno Federal 2022. Presentación de resultados generales. <https://www.inegi.org.mx/programas/cn-gf/2022/>

INMUJERES (2022 a). Las mujeres rumbo a la paridad total. Desigualdad en cifras. Año 8, Boletín N°2, febrero de 2022. <http://cedoc.inmujeres.gob.mx/Boletines.php>

____ (2022 b). Programa Nacional para la Igualdad entre Mujeres y Hombres 2020-2024: Avances y Resultados 2021. https://www.gob.mx/cms/uploads/attachment_data/fi-le/728562/20220526_Avance_y_Resultados_2021_PROIGUALDAD.pdf

____ (2021). Desigualdad en cifras, Boletín No7, septiembre 2021. http://cedoc.inmujeres.gob.mx/documentos_download/BA7NEspecial_%20ENCAP.pdf

____ (2020). Programa Nacional para la Igualdad entre Mujeres y Hombres 2020-2024. http://cedoc.inmujeres.gob.mx/documentos_download/Proigualdad%202020-2024%20Web.pdf

Lahera, Eugenio (2008). Introducción a las políticas públicas. Santiago. Fondo de Cultura Económica.

Larserud, S. y Taphorn, R. (2007). Diseño para lograr la igualdad. Combinaciones más idóneas, medianamente idóneas y no favorables de los sistemas electorales y cuotas de género. IDEA Internacional, Estocolmo. <https://www.idea.int/sites/default/files/publications/dise-no-para-lograr-la-igualdad.pdf>

López y Henríquez (2022). Historia de las mujeres en política exterior. En Mujeres y política exterior en América Latina. Un mundo de desigualdades. Fondo de Cultura Económica.

Markham (2013). Women as agents of change: Having voice in society and influencing policy. Gender Equality & Development. <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/21031>

McKinsey (2022). Women in the workplace 2022. <https://www.mckinsey.com/featured-insights/diversity-and-inclusion/women-in-the-workplace>

Mesa Intersectorial de Economía del Cuidado (s/f). Cuando hablamos de economía del cuidado ¿de qué hablamos? <https://colombia.fes.de/filead->

[min/user_upload/ECONOMIA-DEL-CUIDADO-digital.pdf](https://colombia.fes.de/filead-min/user_upload/ECONOMIA-DEL-CUIDADO-digital.pdf)

Mesa, Manuela (2021). Política exterior feminista: la apuesta de los gobiernos por la igualdad, Anuario CEIPAZ 2020-2021. <https://ceipaz.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/6.-ManuelaMesa.pdf>

Ministerio de la Mujer y Equidad de Género (2018). Cuarto plan nacional de igualdad entre mujeres y hombres 2018-2030. <https://www.minmujeryeg.cl/wp-content/uploads/2018/03/Plan-Nacional-Igualdad-2018-2022.pdf>

Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores (2018). Reporte Anual de Actividades Realizadas por el Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores en Materia de Igualdad de Género. Lima, Perú. http://www.consulado.pe/Documents/Igualdad-Genero/REPORTES_MRE-NOV_2018.pdf

Naranjo Bautista, Sandra, M. Chudnovsky, L. Strazza, E. Mosqueira, C. Castañeda (2022). Mujeres líderes en el sector público de América Latina y el Caribe: brechas y oportunidades, BID. <https://publications.iadb.org/es/mujeres-lideres-en-el-sector-publico-de-america-latina-y-el-caribe-brechas-y-oportunidades>

OCDE-BID (2020), Panorama de las administraciones públicas América Latina y el Caribe. <https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/sites/3d816cf8es/index.html?itemId=/content/component/3d816cf8-es>

OECD (2014). "Women's leadership in public life", in Women, Government and Policy Making in OECD Countries: Fostering Diversity for Inclusive Growth, OECD Publishing, Paris. <https://doi.org/>

g/10.1787/9789264210745-4-en

ONU Mujeres (2023). Hechos y cifras: Liderazgo y participación política de las mujeres. https://www.unwomen.org/es/what-we-do/leadership-and-political-participation/facts-and-figures#_edn2

ONU Mujeres Colombia, Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE) y Consejería Presidencial para la Equidad de la Mujer (2022). Mujeres y hombres: brechas de género en Colombia. <https://colombia.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/2022-11/MyH%20BrechasColombia-NOV5-17Nov%20%284%29.pdf>

OIT (2019). Las mujeres en la gestión empresarial: argumentos para un cambio. https://www.ilo.org/global/publications/bookbooks/WCMS_700979/lang-es/index.htm

Organización Mundial del Comercio -OMC (2021). Joint Initiative on Services Domestic Regulation. Reference Paper On Services Domestic Regulation. INF/SDR/1, 27 September 2021. <https://docs.wto.org/dol2fe/Pages/SS/directdoc.aspx?filename=q:/INF/SDR/1.pdf&Open=True>

Parker, Horowitz e Igielnik (2018). Women and leadership 2018. <https://www.pewresearch.org/social-trends/2018/09/20/women-and-leadership-2018/>

Piscopo, Jennifer y Magda Hinojosa (2020). Más mujeres en la política exterior mexicana, Milenio, 07.03.2020, México. <https://www.milenio.com/opinion/jennifer-piscopo-magda-hinojosa/columna-jennifer-piscopo-magda-hinojosa/mas-mujeres-en-la-politica-exteri>

or-mexicana

PNUD (2020). Informe sobre igualdad de género en la administración pública de América Latina y el Caribe 2020. <https://www.undp.org/es/guatemala/publications/informe-sobre-igualdad-de-g%C3%A9nero-en-la-administraci%C3%B3n-p%C3%BAblica-de-am%C3%A9rica-latina-y-el-caribe-2020>

____ (2018). Gender Equality Strategy 2018-2021. <https://www.undp.org/publications/undp-gender-equality-strategy-2018-2021>

PNUD-Universidad de Pittsburgh (2021). Gender equality in public administration. <https://www.undp.org/publications/global-report-gender-equality-public-administration>

Prada, Lupita (2021). Servicio Exterior Feminista en España y Colombia: Realidad Comparativa y Oportunidades, CEI, Centro Adscrito a la Universitat de Barcelona, N° 6/2021, Colección Trabajos de investigación del MU. en diplomacia y organizaciones Internacionales. http://diposit.ub.edu/dspace/bitstream/2445/178903/1/TFM_Lupita%20Prada_CEI.pdf

Secretaría de la Función Pública (2022). 4 Informe de labores de la Función Pública 2021-2022, 1 de septiembre de 2022. <https://www.gob.mx/sfp/documentos/4-informe-de-labores-de-la-secretaria-de-la-funcion-publica>

____ (2021). 3 Informe de labores Función Pública 2020-2021. <https://www.gob.mx/sfp/documentos/3-informe-de-labores-de-la-secretaria-de-la-funcion-publica>

-2020-2021

Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores (2020). La política exterior feminista del Gobierno de México. https://www.gob.mx/cms/uploads/attachment/file/576095/Presentacio_n_PEF_baja.pdf

SERVIR (2023). La mujer en el servicio civil peruano 2023. <https://www.gob.pe/institucion/servir/informes-publicaciones/3979051-la-mujer-en-el-servicio-civil-peruano-2023>

____ (2022). La mujer en el servicio civil peruano 2022. <https://www.gob.pe/institucion/servir/informes-publicaciones/3979051-la-mujer-en-el-servicio-civil-peruano-2022>

nes/2798711-la-mujer-en-el-servicio-civil-peruano-2022

TaskFORCE Interamericano sobre liderazgo de las mujeres (s/f). Un llamado a la acción para impulsar el liderazgo de las mujeres y la democracia paritaria en las Américas. <https://oig.cepal.org/es/documentos/un-llamado-la-accion-impulsar-liderazgo-mujeres-la-democracia-paritaria-americas>

Tula, María Inés (2015). Mujeres y política. Un panorama sobre la adopción de las cuotas de género y sus efectos en América Latina y Colombia, Programa de Naciones Unidas para el Desarrollo (PNUD), Bogotá. <https://www.re-dalyc.org/pdf/675/67540057003.pdf>

METHODOLOGICAL NOTE

The diagnosis and recommendations contained in this report were based on three activities: i. an anonymous online survey of PA technical groups, committees and subcommittees, ii. confidential in-depth interviews, and iii. a literature review.

The objectives of the survey were: a. to characterize the people who participate in the technical groups, committees and subcommittees of the Pacific Alliance (based on the directory of 2022 participants) and their perspectives about team leadership, and b. to know the respondents views about the participation of women in leadership positions and decision-making in the field of international and commercial negotiations of the PA.

The survey included 24 questions, grouped into different categories that allowed for various indicators and areas of analysis. For the characterization (objective a) the

following categories were considered: general personal profile data (gender, age, country, race/ethnicity, level of education, among others); care work responsibilities; employment, wages and rank at their workplace and in the PA. In order to analyze the respondents views (objective b) the following categories were considered: barriers that women face in their professional work; assessment of leadership attributes; relevance of leadership attributes in international and commercial negotiations.

On April 11, 2023, the survey was sent to participants registered in the PA 2022 directory, according to the records of the pro tempore presidency of that year forwarded to the consultants by the GTG. The invitation to respond to the survey was sent to the emails listed in the directory, and the responses were collected, using a Google form, preceded by an

explanatory note from the GTG. Seeking to achieve the greatest possible participation, the survey was sent by the IEI three times during the second half of April 2023. In the first dispatch, 52 addresses bounced. After the second mailing, the cooperation of the GTG was requested in order to obtain more responses, and the survey was sent a third time. The reception of responses closed on April 28. A total of 82 responses were received. Table 2.2 shows the directory distribution and response rate by country.

With the information obtained through the survey, cross-matching of data was made to achieve the most complete analysis possible. All the responses were analyzed were matched with gender, leadership position, and head of household. In addition, the data was matched with age-range, level of education, number

of children, among others (see chapter 2). In the case of the interviews, two profiles were defined: persons who are part or have been part of the work of the PA, and experts or managers of gender equality and/or female leadership programs in the public sector. Within the first profile, members of technical groups were contacted, their selection depending on their participation in at least two groups. Persons who hold or have held leadership positions in the PA trade negotiations, with a high sensitivity to gender issues, were also interviewed. Within the second profile, persons were contacted to learn about some of the programs highlighted as good practices in Chapter 3, as well as experts in different aspects of women's leadership. Fifteen in-depth interviews were conducted, in a semi-structured format, including men and women from the four Alliance countries.

