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Gender, Social Equity and Regional Economic Processes: Latin America and the Pacific perspectives

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ABSTRACT *Alma Espino and Yvonne Underhill-Sem discuss the issue of regionalism and regionalization in Latin America and in the Pacific. Although there are important differences between these realities, they highlight advantages, dangers and challenges of economic integration for gender and social equity focusing on the power relations operating at various levels. They emphasize the need to improve knowledge about the gender dimension of these processes. Understanding the gendered implications of the geographic expansion of global capitalism will allow feminists to build proposals of economic integration schemes that are more comprehensive, gender-aware and oriented to human development.*

KEYWORDS *integration; labour; rights; gender; trade agreements; inequalities*

Introduction

The current economic and financial global crisis that differently affects countries in the South renews the challenge of advancing regional economic integration processes both for its role as a buffer against new crises, as well as to promote a sustainable and social inclusive development, which contribute to eliminate social inequalities.

The processes of regional economic integration can have significant effects on social and human development because they have the potential to provide processes considerably broader than simply eliminating barriers to trade in goods and services between countries. Integration can be an appropriate tool to enhance long-term development, providing expanded markets, economies of scale, incorporation of technology, among others, but their own objectives depend on the needs of the development process. The regional economic integration can also encompass harmonizing standards and regulatory frameworks, reducing restrictions on financial capital and labour mobility, adopting common approaches to fiscal and monetary policy, promoting peace and conflict prevention, and pooling investment in cross-border infrastructure for transport, power and communications (UNDP, 2011).

Transformative regional development processes can also promote human rights, especially for women. Depending on the modality adopted by the regionalism process,

economic integration and trade have the potential to increase employment and contribute to empowering people, which can be especially relevant for attaining gender justice. Expanded economic opportunities for women can empower them and contribute intrinsically to human development, and have multiplier effects across other aspects of human development, including nutrition and access to health and education. However, this will only happen with a careful analysis of the gendered nature of both formal and informal work in different productive sectors as well as the recognition of the nature of the care economy in different countries.

Regionalism and regionalization

Regional integration can be seen as a multidimensional process including not only economic cooperation, but also the harmonization of foreign policy and security issues, as well as consideration of social and cultural issues. Nevertheless, trade and the economy remain central aspects of most ongoing integration schemes and the number of regional economic integration agreements is steadily increasing and markets are the main actors. But, regional markets can be integrated in different ways. We need first to distinguish between the notions of 'regionalization' and 'regionalism'.

Regionalization describes the market-led, empirically measurable process of cross-border economic activities that can occur without much interference from the state. Regionalism describes a politically state-led driven process, which often entails economic integration and is based on formal agreements and an accompanying institution-building process, such as the integration process of the European Union or the Southern African Development Community in Southern Africa.

In terms of coverage and depth, regional economic integration follows markedly different patterns across the world and between different sub-regional and regional integration processes. The variety of regional economic practices and interconnections with different regions in the global economy shows, for example, regional

production processes in East Asia, outsourcing business processes in India and East Africa, agribusiness exports from Brazil, resource-seeking Chinese investments in Africa, and European Union fishery partnership agreements with Pacific states. The outcomes of these processes are different for each country and depend on the economic, demographic and geographic size among other factors such as political and military power. These differences can contribute to maintaining or to widening development gaps among countries and societies.

In addition, within relatively large national economies in the Global South, internal economic differentiation is becoming increasingly stark with many countries having both fast-growing dynamic regions and impoverished sluggish regions. The political challenges of negotiating equitable development outcomes when both internal regional economies and external regional and bilateral trade agreements have very different characteristics are enormous. Governments must deal simultaneously with contemporary manifestations of rapid urbanization, extreme environmental degradation, civil unrest and sometimes outright warfare. In addition, enduring processes that produced structural heterogeneity and social inequality are still present. Regional trade agreements that are promoted by advocates of neo-liberal economic development as an imperative for increased trade and economic growth are therefore often met with scepticism and resistance.

As in early versions, regionalization as a process of economic development is a clumsy beast if it fails to take account of all of the economic practices that link regions and countries within regions. For instance, there are lucrative flows of drugs, guns and other commodities that contribute to illegal economies (such as valuable metals but also endangered animals). There is also a flow of illegal services and an important part of them are highly gendered sexual services and other forms of care work as well as security services. A feminist analysis of regionalism that is framed around the recognition of these diverse economic practices that cross sovereign boundaries as well as internal regional boundaries, provides

critical insights into the mainstream analysis of contemporary regionalization processes (Slatter and Underhill-Sem, 2009).

Regionalism in Latin America

Inequalities in Latin America

Latin American societies – more than other regions in the world – are characterized by prevailing inequalities, including gender inequalities. These gender inequalities intersect and combine with other systematic processes such as ethnic and racial inequality and are played out structurally in the gendered functioning of economies and labour markets.

While social and gender inequalities are not explained solely by economic structures, the functioning of economies and labour markets, these structures and processes are intimately connected to the perpetuation of these inequalities. The high degree of heterogeneity between firms of different sizes and between workers with different skill levels builds inequalities into the structure of production and the operation of the markets. As stated by the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC, 2011), this heterogeneity is 'a first structural link in the chain of inequalities to the labour market'. In turn, gender inequalities are exploited to stabilize the economic system maintaining and exacerbating the gap between productivity and wages (Vásconez, 2011). The segmentation of labour markets is closely related to structural heterogeneity along with gender segregation by occupations and sectors.

Latin America is characterized by two main historical traits. There is a technology gap in the region and large productive differences among sectors, within sectors and among companies within a given country. ECLAC calls the latter 'structural heterogeneity', which refers to marked asymmetries among segments of enterprises and workers and the concentration of employment in strata characterized by very low relative productivity (ECLAC, 2010). A considerable degree of social inequality in the region reflects the strong

concentration of ownership among a few and a clearly demarked productive heterogeneity.¹

Income inequalities arising from differences in pay for work are not only explained by differences in productivity. These inequalities are also influenced by discrimination and segregation (Amarante and Espino, 2002; Atal *et al.*, 2009). One of the most important determinants of gender inequality is related to the sexual division of non-remunerated and remunerated work, especially in the reproductive/care economy. Reproductive economies have their own economic dynamics and contribute to the possibilities for women to take advantage of a range of diverse economic opportunities. Indeed, labour market inequality is conditioned by pre-entry to the labour market due, in part, to the prevailing organizational forms of social reproduction. The sectorial distribution of the labour force is partially due to the demand side: the gender segregation of activities, occupations considered female and unequal demand for women's market labour relative to men's labour. But it also depends on supply side: women's expectations for their own competence in the situation relative to men, years of schooling and kind of education. Both sides interact with gender inequalities as a result of formal norms (e.g. parental leaves policies, part-time regulations), customs and discriminatory practices based on gender stereotypes and power differences (e.g. women often have lower participation in political institutions or entrepreneurs associations), in addition to the prevailing sex/gender system that organizes reproduction and production.

The context and the challenges

In the long term, in order to reduce inequalities, one of the main challenges is to redesign international integration models. The region needs to stop relying on the specialization on primary production and commodities. This would have the effect of diminishing economic vulnerability to external shocks and reducing the volatility in internal aggregated macroeconomics, factors that negatively affect the capacity of economies to grow, to generate productive employments, quality jobs and inequality.

Concerning trade policy openness in some countries, there is a more cautious attitude in relation with unilateral liberalization, and there are new regional integration initiatives. In particular, in South America, after the succession of crises in the emerging economies at the end of the 1990s, the preoccupation with the creation of endogenous capabilities and the nationalism gradually started to get force, in some countries more than others (Bouzas, 2009).

The current state of integration: the Mercosur

The integration process of Mercosur (Mercado Común del Sur, created in 1991) – between Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay – assumed the form of a customs union. Although this process is clearly advanced in the constitution of a free trade area, as evidenced by the fast growth of intra-regional commercial flows observed during the 1990s², its full objectives have not been achieved. In fact, the implementation of the Mercosur customs union has been extremely defective and negotiations with third parties have been ineffective (except in a defensive way) and a source of internal dissension (Bouzas, 2009).

The asymmetries between partners, as well as those structural ones and those due to differences in public policies, may have become obstacles to advance Mercosur. The latest ones have become very important in the integration process because they generate spillover effects across borders by altering macroeconomic conditions or the allocation of resources of its partners (Terra and Durán Lima, 2010).

Finally, there has been a large deficit related to the low capacity and effectiveness of 'leadership'. The sustainability of the regional integration process requires the exercise of leadership based on trust and commitment to the project. This means that one or more members have to take on certain roles in the provision of regional public goods and assume the costs incurred by it (e.g. loss of flexibility). This is necessary for long-term gains, even at the cost of an investment of resources in the immediate term (e.g. stable rules). A commitment to leadership requires therefore

the existence (and identification) of a matrix of net benefits to justify these costs and resources able to make it effective. A clear example is that of discipline and macroeconomic stability to consolidate policy credibility (Bouzas, 2009).

The progress

Results in terms of policies designed to offset, limit or harmonize the sources of asymmetries have not been achieved as planned even with political will.

One of the main deficiencies in Latin America and the Caribbean's integration process was the tendency to ignore problems affecting the economic and social conditions of people's lives. Transborder displacements intensify when trade expands, and the attendant creation and disappearance of activities affect the labour market and labour skills in these border zones in particular. In some cases, such effects are exacerbated by glaring asymmetries in terms of the relative size and strength of the participating countries.

Social dimensions have not been adequately addressed in integration agreements and the implementation of social agendas has been slow or explicitly postponed. While the Mercosur agreement recognized the importance of that agenda and in a broad sense, the translation into policy and implementation is very limited (Di Filippo and Franco, 2000).

Specific problems are related not only to the conceptualization of the social dimensions of integration, but also to practical issues such as financing. If the current arrangements have not yet worked out specific instruments, one wonders what specific sources and levels of fiscal funding will be needed to address the costs of compensatory policies (e.g. the supplementary funds).

Potentialities: productive diversification and competitiveness

American intraregional trade consists largely of industrial products (representing almost 80 percent) but shows greater diversification on the international market; exports from the region to the European Union, China And the rest of 361

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Asia consist mainly of raw materials (55 percent) and natural resource-based manufactures (25 percent) (RMIE, 2010).

The exchange of industrial products, which generate more jobs than primary goods, has the greatest impact on regional trade, while those based on natural resources are basically extra-regionally exported. The first ones can provide a buffer against falling demand from trading partners outside the region, as in the recent crisis. In addition, industrial products contain higher added value, provide more stability and in the long term have higher growth rates.

With respect to the relationship between trade and women's employment, the pattern of foreign trade has been influenced by gender biases of the labour market, as well as by the degree of specialization or diversification of its productive structures, and the promised implantation of trade policies. Trade politics can enhance particular sectors of the traditional export patterns of each economy, or can lead to changes in specialization and productive diversification that stimulates job creation, particularly in better quality jobs. Trade policies can condition both industrial innovation and access to technical change, the development and transfer of knowledge, as well as the kind of qualifications required for the labour force.

In general terms, and as integration deepens, it is necessary to design social policies that move towards universalization of social protection systems, reducing disparities that arise in access to training and employment, in particular among women who are largely employed in lower quality jobs.

Clearly, universal social policies have a cost but can be executed by a supranational authority under principles agreed to by participating countries. Another alternative is for countries to address these social needs from their own budgets. In either situation, there are financial constraints that would require a review of territorial expenditure priorities and the design of public programmes for education, infrastructure and health development, bearing integration needs in mind. In the regional context, broader integration and cooperation in complementary sectors would not only support the economic

potential of the region, but also reinforce broad human development goals, if greater labour mobility is managed in a way that protects migrants and respects human rights – particularly of women workers.

The analysis proposed by feminist economics accentuates the importance of a political economy of trade and economic agreement through a detailed analysis of the gender impacts and implications of trade policy. It also provides an approach that stresses the crucial need to link trade policy and fiscal, monetary, industrial and social policies with an analysis of global inequalities, in order to ensure that trade policies support the achievement of gender equality and sustainable human development (Randriamaro, 2006).

There will be always winners and losers because not all people and places will benefit from economic integration (Lawson, 2012: 255). The distribution of potential gains cannot depend exclusively on market forces, which, as proven, tend to reinforce inequities rather than eliminate them. The combined action of different interests is required: States, social dialogue, the establishment of mechanisms for negotiation and consensus – building, and political actions designed to improve opportunities in order to compensate and modify previous imbalances.

To embark on a project that increases the interconnection between countries requires integration to be on public policy agendas and decisions to be taken by local agents. That is, it requires the formulation of an economic strategy, jointly debated and taken up by all the actors involved. The closer the environment, the more shared the common problems and interests, the greater the possibility that integration can take up corrective social policies and incentive policies (job retraining funds, loans, competitiveness force) in which gender is undoubtedly an extremely important variable.

The different phases of integration processes need to consider the impact on social and gender equity, adapting national regulations and proposing complementary policies. This is indispensable for maintaining coherent objectives, and thus preserving the capacity to pursue social and development goals.

Gender strategies and Mercosur

Social organizations and women's groups have looked at the specific characteristics of the Mercosur agreement in terms of its explicit objectives and the economic and political strategies used. The agreement was an alternative to international integration, bringing together partners with relatively similar backgrounds and interests. Achievements of the agreement, in terms of enabling social participation through tripartite working groups (state, workers and employers) and other agencies are interesting. This tripartite aspect allowed for the participation of civil society representatives in the Economic and Social Forum of Mercosur.

Women-based NGOs and female unionists and scholars promoted the discussion and preparation of proposals around gender and regional integration issues since the early stages of Mercosur.

On 22 July 1998, the Common Market Group (GMC) ruled that the *Specialized Meeting of Women (REM)* be created in order to contribute to the social, economic and cultural development of the local communities in member States.³ The REM is composed of government delegations that, at first, could be advised by regional organizations. The creation of the REM was a clear achievement of the women's movement.

The main issues covered by the REM are gender-based violence,⁴ labour and employment⁵ and political participation. Recently, a proposal incorporating goals, actions and indicators in the Strategic Plan for Social Action (PEAS) – MERCOSUR⁶ for gender mainstreaming – was approved.

The formal consolidation of a forum such as the REM did not *per se* secure the mainstreaming of a gender perspective or the consideration of the interests and demands of the social and women movements in the whole of Mercosur institutions. While such changes indeed depend on formal structures, they are also determined by other factors. The experience of establishing the REM evidenced the relative weakness of women's organizations in different countries regarding their actual effect on political agendas and in terms of human and financial resources. The

REM faced the limited stature of social issues in the process and the scarcity of women or gender issues in both the union and the political spheres.

The actual operations of the REM in the context of Mercosur can be seen in the institutional mainstreaming of a gender agenda in the member States and the legitimacy in society such an agenda achieves. The previous years have demonstrated that there is room for understanding and collaboration. Partnerships amongst government representatives, unionist women and feminists are possible at the regional and state levels.

The REM, however, both in its organization and the way in which it operates, has mirrored the political and economic misadventures of the Mercosur integration process itself as well as the strengths and weaknesses of the women's movement in the region and of the governments' administrative mechanisms for gender equity. This is because the mechanisms for women to influence policy are weak, and because the Mercosur's difficulty to consolidate and operate also had implications for women's organizations to work at the regional level.

Regionalism in the Pacific

In the 21st century, there is much talk of regional economic integration, regional trade blocks, free trade agreements and regional cooperation in the Pacific region. Yet, the main debates are political because the economic reality is that there are very few tradable commodities or services in the Pacific. In the western Pacific, rich mineral and timber resources form the bulk of the GDP but very little of this finds its way through government institutions to improve the overall well-being, let alone to rebalance trade deficits. Even with an interim trade agreement with the EU, Papua New Guinea (PNG) has not been able to take advantage of preferential rules of origin agreement set in place in 2008. Only one country, Fiji, has a more diversified industrial base thanks to preferential trade agreements in the 1980s and 1990s. But after a coup in 2006, an unconstitutional government has had to contend with political non-engagement from

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neighbouring countries, especially Australia and New Zealand (NZ), where most of its exports were headed. The stark fact is that there is very little trade between Pacific countries because most productive activity revolves around the production of non-trade food crops, and women are central to this both through their own economic labour but also through their reproductive labour.

The context and the challenges: aid and trade but where are the women?

The Pacific has the highest aid per capita of all developing regions (over US\$200 compared to US\$24 for all developing countries).⁷ In the fully independent countries of Samoa and Tonga, remittances from Australia and NZ comprise 25–30 percent of GDP. In the NZ dollar economies,⁸ foreign aid is akin to a regional development grant. Similarly, in the US dollar economies,⁹ lucrative trust agreements with the USA provide a unique but not entirely solid platform for economic development. And in the French franc economies,¹⁰ local economies are distorted by favourable tax regimes and enormous subsidization from Paris. Other independent countries like Tuvalu and Kiribati experimented with the Trust Funds, with the latter country doing poorly and the former managing well until the global economic crisis.

Pacific countries also have access to eight major regional trade or economic agreements (Table 1.) Of the 23 Pacific countries, most are signed up to the soon to be phased out preferential non-reciprocal trade agreement South Pacific Trade and Economic Trade Agreement (SPARTECA), which gives duty and quota-free access to Australia and NZ markets. To take its place are other regional integration agreements, Pacific Island Countries Trade Agreement (PICTA, which excludes Australia and NZ), Pacific Agreement on Closer Economic Relations (PACER, a broader development agreement including Australia and NZ), and the European Economic Partnership Agreements (EPA). All of these agreements have as their goal tariff reduction and regional economic integration compatible with World Trade Organization (WTO) rules. Given the enormous

trade imbalance between Pacific countries and NZ, where, in some cases, exports are negligible, the best hope is to loosen the trade in services, especially around tourism, education and labour. This is the focus of PACER Plus – one of the current trade agreements under discussion.

Although early formulations of the benefits of regional trade blocks have some theoretical resonance in the economic literature (Asafu-Adjaye and Mahadevan, 2009), in the Pacific region, political, cultural and geographic heterogeneity means trade integration and political regionalism are intimately connected. The latter was more important even as each country, and as a member of various different groupings, contemplates life beyond preferential trade agreements. Concern has rightfully been raised that these discussions are taking place under the watchful eyes of ‘Big Brothers’ Australia and NZ – who from many accounts ‘behave badly’ (Kelsey, 2004). While Australia and NZ have taken a valid interest in the economic development of Pacific countries, no amount of talking up the economy is going to see the trade imbalance shift in the next 25 years, if ever. Being food secure and having access to labour markets in Australia and NZ are achievable given the available of fertile land and the abundance of near-shore marine resources. It is also critical given the youth boom in the region (Bedford). However, improving agricultural production for local consumption, good management of water resources and efficient and safe local marketing of fresh food and produce are yet to be priority areas for aid. Women are key actors in these activities, and therefore a focus on these sectors would mean a focus on women.

The goals of regionalism in the Pacific are, however, primarily political. Not only is there a marked gender imbalance in political processes in the Pacific, but also women’s diverse economic activities are overlooked. Although one analysis shows how a policy of trade liberalization is beneficial in terms of macroeconomic indicators such as real output, national welfare and exports, adverse effects are also recognized (Asafu-Adjaye and Mahadevan, 2009). However, this analysis is based on an assumption of ‘perfect competition’ and given the imperfect competition in global

Table 1. *Membership of regional or trade agreements, 2010*

Country/Territory	Trade or Economic Agreement							
	ANZCER	COFA	EPA	MSGTA	PACER	PICTA	SPARTECA	WTO
Fiji			X	X	X	X	X	X
New Caledonia				X				
Papua New Guinea			X	X	X	X	X	X
Solomon Islands				X	X	X	X	X
Vanuatu				X		X	X	
FSM		X				X	X	
Guam								
Kiribati					X	X	X	
Marshall Islands		X					X	
Nauru					X	X	X	
Nthn Mariana		X						
Palau		X					X	
American Samoa								
Cook Islands					X	X	X	
French Poly								
Niue					X	X	X	
Samoa					X	X	X	
Tokelau								
Tonga					X	X	X	X
Tuvalu						X	X	
Wallis and Futuna								
Australia	X				X		X	X
New Zealand	X				X		X	X

Source: Pacific Institute of Public Policy (2010)

Abbreviations: ANZCER – Australia New Zealand Closer Economic Relationship; COFA – Compact of Free Association; MSGTA – MSG Trade Agreement

trade this is a major qualification to the argument. In the agricultural sector, Pacific countries have a natural growing advantage, but to export, they must contend with unnatural trade barriers. Elevating food security above the export of agro-industrial products like oil palm would be a major policy shift for many countries who have committed themselves regionally to pursue WTO-compatible reciprocal trade agreements. However, the tensions are growing and the possibilities of alternatives to mainstream regional economic integration models are possible.

Where to from 2012?

The negotiation of major trade agreements in the Pacific has stalled as regional political debates

continue especially over Fiji, where democratic elections are scheduled for 2014. More importantly, over the last couple of years sub-regional groups have become more evident as longstanding cultural differences emerged especially in relation to how Fiji was negotiating its democratic future. The appearance of sub-regional groups throws into stark relief the failure of regional organizations, especially the Pacific Island Forum Secretariat, to sustain earlier imperatives for regional co-operation. Currently, three sub-regional grouping have emerged: the Melanesian Spearhead Group (MSG)¹¹ established in 2008 in the western Pacific, the Council of Micronesian Chief Executives Summit¹² established in 2003 in the northern Pacific, and the newly formed Polynesian Leaders Group, which will be formally

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established in 2012. NZ and Australia are omitted from these groups, although NZ has been included in a subregional group called Te Vaka Moana¹³ in 2012, which covers the fishing nations of the southern Pacific.

Meanwhile, large trade deals such as the Trans Pacific Partnership¹⁴ are sending worrying signs that regional trade agreements are being fought between uneven powers across the Pacific. This does not bode well for Pacific countries negotiating among themselves or with Australia, NZ and the EU. In 2007, an interim WTO-compliant reciprocal Economic Partnership Agreement was signed between PNG and Fiji. As part of this, a special derogation to the rule of origin for processed fish was negotiated. A recent review of the impacts of this derogation concludes that, 'the development effects on the PNG economy have been negligible since 2008' (Hamilton, *et al.*, 2011: 1). The report argues that there is potential in the medium term future for there to be some impacts since five new processing plants are scheduled to be built. The main impacts are expected to come from the employment of young women, some '50,000 in direct and indirect jobs' (Hamilton, Lewis and Campling, 2011: 2) because of the worldwide experience in the tuna canning sector that 'female workers are the preferred employed gender because of their comparative higher efficiency'.¹⁵ This is worrying given the clear evidence of exploitative work conditions for women in the fisheries sector in the Pacific.¹⁶

Meanwhile, bilateral economic trade practices continue. In addition to the continued sale of minerals and timber from PNG and the Solomon Islands, smaller economies continue to sell fishing licenses, which for some countries has been lucrative (in Federated States Micronesia, an estimated \$12 million to \$22 million since 1985 (Hetzl, 2012)), engage in off-shore banking and rely increasingly on tourism. Fishing and oil palm from PNG are the main items of interest for the EU.

The key issue in regional trade negotiations, however, concerns labour mobility and, closely related, the continued flow of remittances. Those countries in the region that have preferential access to NZ and Australian labour markets have

higher per capita incomes, rely less on remittances as part of their GDP and rely less on donor aid. Pacific countries are gaining confidence in negotiating access to labour markets and this is a major achievement. However, the gender components of labour mobility have yet to be understood. The flow of nurses and care givers to other Pacific countries as well as Australia and NZ has implications for families left behind as has been well-documented elsewhere. The flow of seasonal workers, soldiers and security guards for shorter periods of time also requires adjustments in family, village and community life.

Conclusions

Feminist analysis on gender and macroeconomics and empirical work reveals different gender impacts from trade or foreign investments in diverse areas, both to non-remunerated and remunerated work and with relation to other dimensions of human life. In particular, trade openness, the expansion of export industries, maquila, free zone trade and other forms of connection between countries, regions and enterprises have negative impacts for female employment in terms of quality. Furthermore, differences in wages earned by men and women persist in all countries. Women also have less access to productive resources, time and, particularly in many developing countries, education. Professional women continue to encounter discrimination in hiring and promotion. Nevertheless, new jobs could bring more household resources under the control of women and lead to greater investments in the health and education of future generations. They face constraints that make them less able to benefit from economic initiatives.

In order to improve our understanding and knowledge about gender dimension of processes of regional economic integration and to increase the capacity for political incidence, we need a dynamic, inclusive and multiscale conceptual framework. This framework needs to focus on the power relations operating at various scales and the diverse agencies of different actors who facilitate or prevent integration into world markets and transactional production networks. On the

one hand, this focus would allow for a better explanation of why market (dis)integration can lead to highly uneven development outcomes at the global and local scale for countries, regions and individuals. On the other, it would allow

us to examine the gendered implications of the geographic expansion of global capitalisms but also to build proposals of economic integration schemes more comprehensive, gender-aware and oriented to human development.

Notes

- 1 A greater structural heterogeneity thus extending the inequalities, which can be seen from the value recorded by the Gini index. This index records the lowest value (49.7) in the group of countries of moderate structural heterogeneity increases for intermediate structural heterogeneity (52.2) and in countries with severe structural heterogeneity reaches 53.3. This classification-moderate, intermediate and severe structural heterogeneity – was made based on various indicators of economic performance, employment and structural heterogeneity: GDP per capita, GDP per worker, employment rate/population, composition of GDP and employment by strata productive productivity productive stratum (ECLAC, 2011).
- 2 The total exports in Mercosur were just over 20 percent in the peak intensity of the regional bond (1997 and 1998).
- 3 In the XXVI meeting that congregates gender authorities at the international level in Mercosur, was adopted a new name, from the Special Meeting to 'Meeting of Ministers and High Authorities of Women', as recorded in the Council Resolution Common Market – CMC – No. 24/02/11, allowing visible place gender authorities in the host countries.
- 4 In December 2010, the REM began to develop a regional survey for the conformation of comparable indicators on gender-based violence. These indicators should come from public services in the field of women's mechanisms, the system of justice, the police or the health system of each country.
- 5 It was established a Technical Committee on Gender, Labour and Economic Integration, and they are working on a plan to advance in this area.
- 6 The Plan contains lines, guidelines and priorities for the coordinated action of the States' parties in the matter of social policy. It is considered an instrument able to articulate and develop specific actions to strengthen the social dimension of Mercosur. The most important issues are universal health, education, guarantees of access to decent work and welfare rights and it also emphasizes the need to promote distributive policies and ensuring the effective implementation of human rights in the region and appreciation of cultural diversity.
- 7 <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/59/5/42139479.pdf>.
- 8 Cook Islands, Nuie and Tokelau.
- 9 Palau, FSM, Marshall Islands, Guam, Northern Marianas and American Samoa.
- 10 French Polynesia, New Caledonia and Wallis and Futuna.
- 11 <http://www.msgsec.info/>.
- 12 <http://www.wia.gov.mp/mces.php>.
- 13 <http://www.tevakamoana.org/>.
- 14 <http://tppdigest.org/>.
- 15 <http://cape.cffa.org/IMG/pdf/Oceanic.Devt.2010.EU.Preferential.RoO.for.Fish.%28PACP.RoO.section%29.pdf>: 119.
- 16 Tuara Demke (2006, <http://www.ffa.int/system/files/%252Fhome/ffaadmin/%252Ffiles/ffa/Gender%20issues%20in%20P.%20I.%20Tuna%20Industries%20I.pdf>). Also Slatter, Amberson-Bain, etc.

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