



*Challenges Beyond Borders...*

# Parliaments of the Americas: Present!



Plan of the President

Parliamentary Confederation of the Americas  
2010-2012



### Message from the President

It is with great pride that I present this document to you. You will find in it the main avenues I would like us to explore in our work as COPA parliamentarians during my mandate.

My active participation in the work of our organization in the last few years and the constructive discussions I have had with a number of parliamentarians from the various regions of the Americas have led me to reflect on the major challenges that confront our peoples, our States and our continent. And I have concluded that, despite the great diversity in our societies, our areas of interest coincide, and sharing the solutions we envisage can only benefit everyone.

Of the many challenges facing the Americas, I propose that we concentrate on four fundamental social issues that require special attention, issues that demand a response from any parliamentarian who cares about the well-being of the people he or she represents, issues that are both regional and universal and that require that we co-operate and collaborate within our region. For when we face cross-border challenges, parliamentary America pulls together and gets involved.

There are, of course, many other matters of interest to the parliamentarians of the Americas. Those I present in the following pages are meant as a rallying point from which to begin dealing with various problems our societies must tackle.

As we are anxious that COPA remain a forum where all the parliamentarians of the Americas can meet to discuss ideas, debate the major challenges facing the continent and act in a concerted fashion, we have spared no effort in preparing a document aimed at providing information and references for our future work.

I hope that on reading this work plan you will be persuaded to help carry it out so that, together, we may prepare a brighter future for the people of our respective States.

JACQUES CHAGNON  
Deputy Speaker of the National Assembly of Québec



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## INTRODUCTION

The parliamentarians of the Americas defend the interests of the people they represent in their respective legislatures. For nearly fifteen years now, the Parliamentary Confederation of the Americas (COPA) has offered them an arena where they can exchange information, share ideas and experiences, reach consensus and take a stand on various themes related to the social, economic and cultural development of the continent. COPA gives parliamentarians from different regions, cultures and political affiliations a forum where, as a group, they can better grasp, and meet, the challenges of the present and the future .

The scale of these challenges and their consequences transcend borders. Four broad themes encompassing some of the challenges are proposed here to guide the work of COPA for the 2010–2012 period:

- reducing child mortality;
- increasing the secondary school graduation rate among persons aged 25 or older;
- reducing the gender wage gap; and
- protection of water resources.

For each of the four themes, objectives are set, major issues are targeted and avenues of action proposed. Parliamentarians are invited to contribute to the analysis and the suggested avenues of action through their knowledge and experience of the various themes. The themes are also linked in the sense that achieving one objective is very likely to have a positive effect on the outcome of the remaining ones. The contribution of all can only enrich the discussion and enable COPA to more clearly identify the actions it will take in the coming years.

In this document, parliamentarians will find information and tools related to the proposed themes, which they can use to support their actions in their communities. As a result, as key actors in people-oriented development, they will be able to play a more effective role in enhancing the well-being of their fellow citizens.

The following is a brief outline of the themes:

**Reducing child mortality** touches on society's greatest treasure, its children. Even in this day and age, all too many children never reach their fifth birthday. COPA member parliamentarians will be called upon to join the fight against child mortality by examining the main issues involved—education, poverty and prenatal and neonatal care—and developing appropriate courses of action. This theme is a consensus-maker that must lead to an in-depth follow-up by parliamentarians who feel strongly about the well-being of the children of this continent.

The second theme, **increasing the secondary school graduation rate among persons aged 25 or older**, will also have a major impact not only on young people, but also on the economy, culture and the development of society. The level of education is a major issue throughout the Americas. A large number of students drop out before graduating from secondary school. COPA member parliamentarians will be invited to examine systemic and institutional realities as well as social and economic factors that have an impact on the secondary school graduation rate. It is hoped that following this analysis parliamentarians will lead the way in proposing innovative solutions to these problems and contributing to an increase in the number of secondary school graduates in the Americas.

The third theme, reducing the gender wage gap, concerns a reality faced by women around the world. Working women are concentrated in traditionally female occupations which are lower paying and precarious. They are caught in a vicious circle preventing them from acquiring the financial autonomy they desperately need to be free to make their own choices and improve their situation. While living and working conditions must be improved across the board, the wage gap between men and women must be given special consideration. In addition to ensuring that laws on pay equality and minimum wages are passed, the parliamentarians will be invited to explore certain avenues of action to fight age-old prejudices concerning the role of women on the labour market and in the home. They will also be called upon to explore ways of balancing work and family life, and to question both the underground economy and job distribution between men and women.

Finally, the fourth theme, the protection of water resources includes both an environmental and a social dimension. Because of population growth, pollution and climate change, our water resources are increasingly vulnerable. The challenges posed by the issue of access to water are huge, and parliamentarians must play a proactive role in safeguarding this resource and ensuring that everyone has equitable and sustainable access to it. Among the issues that will be discussed over the coming years are transboundary basins; the sustainable distribution of water resources to meet agricultural, industrial and domestic needs; water treatment, distribution and purification infrastructures; collaborative management; the impact of climate change on the resource; and pollution. The parliamentarians of the Americas must fully understand the complexity of the issues involved in order to deal with this vital question.

It is proposed that the thematic working committees concerned and the Network of Women Parliamentarians address these themes and carry out an in-depth study of them with a view to suggesting courses of action and solutions that COPA could commit to or adopt as its official position, specifically through resolutions. While continuing to study other questions they are interested in, the committees will be encouraged to follow up on these themes beyond their 2010–2012 mandate and assess the progress made. Thus, COPA will strengthen its role and its ability to act throughout the continent.

The objectives described for each of the four themes are set, first and foremost, to guide the work of the parliamentarians, both as individuals and as members of COPA. By working together and investing their time and energy, parliamentarians will contribute, within their sphere of influence and expertise, to reaching those objectives, which symbolize the very reason parliamentarians solicit their fellow citizens' trust, that is, to be given an opportunity to help them improve their quality of life.



REDUCING CHILD  
MORTALITY

## 1. REDUCING CHILD MORTALITY

### 1.1 Objectives

- That the parliamentarians of the Americas take concerted action to achieve the Millennium Development Goal of reducing child mortality. The regional objective for Latin America and the Caribbean is to reduce under-five child mortality to 18 per 1,000 live births by 2015.
- That the parliamentarians of the Americas pledge their continued support for reducing the under-five child mortality rate to a regional average of fewer than 15 per 1,000 live births by 2020.

### 1.2 The Problem

The mortality rate is a fundamental indicator of the health and development of the population of a State.<sup>1</sup> Child mortality affects families in developing countries in particular, which is why the reduction of child mortality ranks fourth among the eight Millennium Development Goals adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on September 8, 2000. Under Resolution 55/2, heads of State and government committed to reducing under-five child mortality by two thirds of the 1990 rate.

In 1990, there were 93 deaths per 1,000 live births worldwide. The target is therefore to reduce that rate to 31 by 2015. According to the Millennium Development Goals Report 2009,<sup>2</sup> a child mortality rate of 67 out of 1,000 was reached in 2007, which means that the first third of the reduction goal had yet to be attained.

Yet, statistics on the number of deaths per 1,000 live births show that progress has been made in recent years. In the Americas, according to 2007 data, Canada (6 for every 1,000), Cuba (7 for every 1,000), the United States (8 for every 1,000) and Chile (9 for every 1,000) have the lowest number of child deaths.<sup>3</sup> The 2009 UN report states that Latin America, where 93% of children 12 to 23 months old received at least one dose of measles vaccine, has one of the highest measles vaccination rates in the developing world.<sup>4</sup> Since 2001, thanks to the vaccination of over 500 million children, the number of measles-related deaths has dropped by 68% worldwide.

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1 UNICEF, *Canadian Supplement to The State of the World's Children 2009. Aboriginal children's health: Leaving no child behind*, 2009, <http://www.nccahccnsa.ca/myfiles/SOWC%20Canada%20Report%20English.pdf> (accessed May 18, 2010).

2 UNITED NATIONS, *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2009*, p. 24, 2009, [http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Resources/Static/Products/Progress2009/MDG\\_Report\\_2009\\_En.pdf](http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Resources/Static/Products/Progress2009/MDG_Report_2009_En.pdf) (accessed January 15, 2010).

3 *Id.*, United Nations Statistics Division, *Millennium Development Goals Indicators*, 2009, <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx> (accessed January 18, 2010).

4 UN, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

From 1990 to 2007, Latin America and the Caribbean saw their cases drop from 54 to 24 per 1,000 births.<sup>5</sup> The UN objective for that region is to reach an average of 18 under-five deaths for every 1,000 live births. If the trend in recent years continues, the UN objective will probably be met by 2015.<sup>6</sup>

According to statistics compiled by the UN, certain Latin American countries made remarkable progress in the prevention of under-five deaths. Appendix 1 shows the evolution in child mortality rates from 1990 to 2007. Table 1 below provides a brief overview.

**Table 1: Best results in Latin American countries with regard to under-five child deaths<sup>7</sup>**

<u>Country</u>	<u>Mortality rate for every 1,000 live births in 1990</u>	<u>Mortality rate for every 1,000 live births in 2007</u>	<u>2015 goal</u>
Bolivia	125	57	41.7
Brasil	58	22	19.3
Ecuador	57	22	19
El Salvador	60	24	20
Guatemala	82	39	27.3
Honduras	58	24	19.4
Perú	78	20	26 (goal attained) <sup>8</sup>

Despite the headway recorded, there is still a long road ahead. In order to fight child mortality and reach the Millennium Development Goal, the UN and UNICEF are addressing the issues of access to health services and community health programs. In this respect, it is essential to note that indicators related to maternal health (MDG 5) have an effect on child mortality. In Latin America, skilled birth attendance in health establishments increased from 70% to 87% from the early 1990s to 2007.<sup>9</sup> Also, a clear increase in the proportion of women who received at least one visit from a trained health worker during pregnancy was noted, rising from 79% to 95% between 1990 and 2006. Between 2003 and 2008, 83% of women received at least four visits from a trained health worker.<sup>10</sup>

5 *Ibid.*

6 Denzhen YOU, Tessa WARDLAW, Peter SALAMA and Gareth JONES, "Levels and trends in under-5 mortality, 1990–2008", *The Lancet*, Vol. 375, Issue 9709, p. 100, 2010, <http://download.thelancet.com/pdfs/journals/lancet/PIIS0140673609616019.pdf?id=40bade4753939e7f:6237f028:1264300f3c3:-5a851263845438573> (accessed January 18, 2010).

7 UNITED NATIONS, *op. cit.*

8 Peru is the only country in Latin America and the Caribbean to have reached the Millennium Development Goal for child mortality.

9 UNITED NATIONS, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

10 *Loc. cit.*

The data illustrates the importance of health care services in the fight against child mortality. However, since malnutrition constitutes the underlying cause of over one third of deaths among children under five, and the mortality rate is higher in children born in underprivileged rural families whose mothers have not received a basic education, it may be concluded that the problem of child mortality goes beyond access to health care services. For instance, in Canadian Aboriginal communities, the child mortality rates are 3 to 7 times higher than the Canadian average. This can be explained largely by the conditions in which Canadian Aboriginal communities live and the socioeconomic disparities with the rest of Canada.<sup>11</sup> Moreover, a study on child mortality in developing countries reveals that factors such as the number of physicians per 100,000 people or health expenditure have less effect on child mortality than such indicators as access to drinking water, education, family planning and the fight against HIV/AIDS.<sup>12</sup>

Although there is some hope of achieving the Millennium Development Goal of reducing child mortality, the global economic situation and the ensuing recession might slow or even threaten the progress made so far. Higher food prices will present a major challenge in reaching that goal,<sup>13</sup> while the January 12, 2010 earthquake in Haiti will probably affect the next statistics on child mortality. These factors must also be taken into consideration.

### 1.3 Main Issues

COPA member parliamentarians will be called upon to examine the main issues affecting child mortality, particularly socioeconomic factors such as education and poverty, and access to perinatal and postnatal care.

#### 1.3.1 Systemic and Institutional Issues

##### 1.3.1.1 Access to Health Services

UNICEF reports that 70% of the deaths that occur in children under five “are attributable to six causes: diarrhoea, malaria, neonatal infection, pneumonia, preterm delivery, or lack of oxygen at birth”.<sup>14</sup> It is estimated that 99% of child and maternal deaths occur in developing countries where mothers and children lack access to basic health-care services.<sup>15</sup> In these regions, maternal and neonatal tetanus kill tens of thousands of newborn children each year. Clear statistics on tetanus-related deaths are difficult to establish since many young victims die at home, in very isolated communities where the number of births and deaths are not necessarily recorded. These are deaths that could be avoided if more accessible and higher quality basic health-care services were available. Access to basic health-care services are vital to the fight against child mortality.

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11 UNICEF, *op. cit.*

12 J.A. OLOO, “Child Mortality in Developing Countries: Challenges and Policy Options”, *Eastern Africa Social Science Research Review*, Vol. 21, No. 2, June 2005, pp. 1–17.

13 UN DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INFORMATION, *Progress on development goals in Latin America and the Caribbean faces risk of reversal as impact of global economic turmoil hits*, July 2009, [http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/PR\\_LatinAmerica\\_MDG09\\_EN.pdf](http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/PR_LatinAmerica_MDG09_EN.pdf) (accessed January 19, 2010).

14 UNICEF, *Goal: Reduce child mortality*, 2009, <http://www.unicef.org/mdg/childmortality.html> (accessed January 18, 2010).

15 SAVE THE CHILDREN, *Women on the Front Lines of Health Care: State of the World’s Mothers 2010*, May 2010, <http://www.savethechildren.ca> (accessed May 17, 2010).

About 80% of health care in developing countries is given in the home and the majority of children who die do so at home, without having been examined by a health worker. As many as 40% of child deaths could be prevented with improved family and community care—not high-tech health equipment, but access to solid knowledge, support and basic supplies.<sup>16</sup>

In addition to the problem of access to maternal and child health services, there is a great need to train health workers. According to a recent report by Save the Children, entitled *Women on the Front Lines of Health Care: State of the World's Mothers 2010*, there is a major shortage of health-care workers in developing countries.<sup>17</sup> The report specifically points to the central role of midwives in the care of mothers and children. These women have a greater capacity to reach the most marginalized mothers and have a more direct effect on health because they help where help is needed most, in the communities and especially in the homes. It is becoming increasingly urgent to invest in the training of these health-care workers in order to help in the fight against child mortality.

### *1.3.2 Socioeconomic Issues*

#### 1.3.2.1 Social Determinants of Health

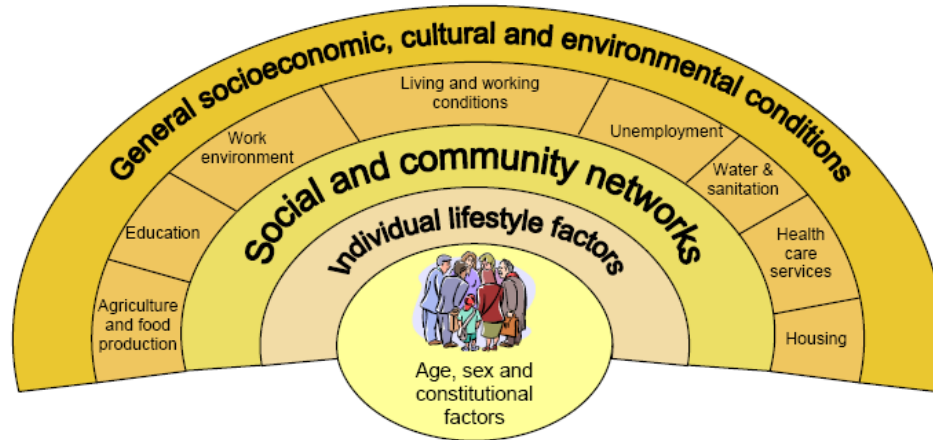
The social determinants of health are the conditions in which people are born, grow and work in. Health care is one of the many factors that shape a population's health and well-being, as are housing, work environment and education.

Table 2 illustrates the various dimensions of the social determinants of health.

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<sup>16</sup> UNICEF, *op. cit.*

<sup>17</sup> SAVE THE CHILDREN, *op. cit.*

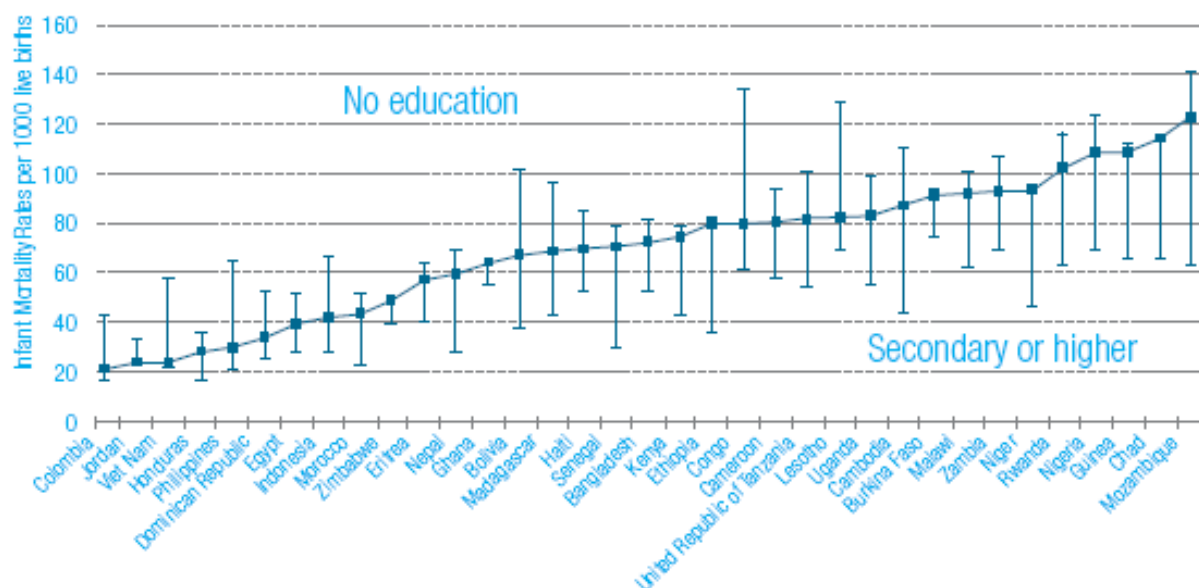
**Table 2: Social determinants of health**<sup>18</sup>

Source: Dahlgren and Whitehead, 1991

The social determinants of health are one of the main causes of health inequities,<sup>19</sup> which in turn are a factor in the high rates of child mortality. Education is a perfect example. In its report, Save the Children stresses the impact of education on the health of children: educated girls, in particular, tend to marry later and have fewer, healthier and better-nourished children.<sup>20</sup>

Table 3 shows the impact of the level of education of mothers on child mortality rates within each country and between countries. The solid blue line represents the average infant mortality rate in a country. The endpoints of the bars correspond to the average infant mortality rate for mothers with no education and for mothers with secondary or higher education. For instance, the average infant mortality rate in Colombia is a little higher than 20 deaths per 1,000 live births, the rate for women with no education is 40 per 1,000 live births and the rate for women with secondary or higher education is 18 per 1,000 live births.

18 Göran DAHLGREN and Margaret WHITEHEAD, 1991, *Policies and strategies to promote social equity in health. Background document to WHO-Strategy paper for Europe*, Institute for Futures Studies, 69 pp., [http://www.framtidsstudier.se/filebank/files/20080109\\$110739\\$fil\\$SmZ8UVQv2wQFShMRF6cuT.pdf](http://www.framtidsstudier.se/filebank/files/20080109$110739$fil$SmZ8UVQv2wQFShMRF6cuT.pdf) (accessed June 14, 2010).  
 19 WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO), [http://www.who.int/social\\_determinants/en/index.html](http://www.who.int/social_determinants/en/index.html) (accessed May 11, 2010).  
 20 SAVE THE CHILDREN, *op. cit.*

**Table 3: Infant mortality rates according to mothers' education**<sup>21</sup>

The impact of the mothers' level of education on child mortality is an example of the importance of considering factors external or indirectly related to health in the analysis of health problems and the search for solutions. The same could apply to other health determinants such as the distribution of income, a stable and safe job, access to safe water or to clean and affordable lodging. All of these elements contribute to a life that is both prosperous and healthy, and inevitably have an effect on the health of the children.

In its final report, the Commission on Social Determinants of Health of the World Health Organization insists on the fact that

*this unequal distribution of health-damaging experiences is not in any sense a "natural" phenomenon but is the result of a toxic combination of poor social policies and programmes, unfair economic arrangements, and bad politics.*<sup>22</sup>

However, although efforts must be made to improve access to and the quality of health-care services, parliamentarians must take a closer look at the causes of child mortality, as recommended by the Commission on Social Determinants of Health of the World Health Organization. By tackling the indirect causes of health problems and working to solve them upstream, the parliamentarians of the Americas will address broader dynamics, while taking into account the complex issue of child mortality. As a result, the parliamentarians will be in a position to adopt sustainable and efficient strategies.<sup>23</sup>

21 WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO), Commission on Social Determinants of Health (2008). *Closing the gap in a generation. Health equity through action on the social determinants of health. Final Report of the Commission on Social Determinants of Health*, Geneva, p. 29.

22 *Ibid.*, p. 1.

23 K.S. MOHINDRA, "Healthy public policy in poor countries: tackling macro-economic policies", *Health Promotion International*, Vol. 22, No. 2, 2007, pp. 163-169.

## 1.4 Approaches and Avenues of Action for Parliamentarians

According to the UN<sup>24</sup> and UNICEF,<sup>25</sup> a series of measures could be adopted and implemented to significantly reduce child mortality rates, particularly measures pertaining to health services, which represent one of the main avenues of action supported by UNICEF and the UN. These agencies favour approaches along the lines of targeting “the underlying socioeconomic causes of child mortality such as mothers’ access to reproductive health, education and employment”.<sup>26</sup> For parliamentarians, acting on policies external to health and health care, such as transportation, housing, poverty and education policies is clearly an approach to be considered.

The region of Latin America and the Caribbean is the most likely to reduce its under-five child mortality rate by two-thirds by 2015. With this in mind, the parliamentarians of the Americas may seize the opportunity to join forces to continue their efforts beyond the UN’s deadline. The following are a few examples of the approaches and avenues of action that may be adopted by parliamentarians to meet the objectives outlined in this section. This list will certainly be improved on and expanded by member parliamentarians of the Parliamentary Confederation of the Americas (COPA).

### 1.4.1 Legislative Action

COPA parliamentarians could

- Ensure that States adopt a legislative framework within which the potential effect of policies other than health policies (economic, transportation, housing, etc.) on the health of the population is systematically measured.
- See that women’s issues (health, education, etc.) are taken into consideration by the States in their legislation, actions and programs.
- Ascertain that when budgets are adopted, health-care programs for mothers and children are funded in an adequate and recurrent manner.

### 1.4.2 Monitoring the Government

COPA parliamentarians could

- Appeal to governments to set up a policy for the comprehensive and universal coverage of primary health-care systems and ensure the sustainable delivery of health services and education programs for women.
- Encourage governments to respect their international commitment to the Millennium Development Goals.
- Urge governments to adopt policies and programs that contribute to reducing child mortality rates by improving the living conditions of the population.
- Call on governments to invest in midwife training.

24 UNITED NATIONS, *Committing to action: Achieving the Millennium Development Goals, Background note by the Secretary-General for the High-level Event on the Millennium Development Goals*, September 25, 2008, <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/2008highlevel/pdf/newsroom/Goal%204%20FINAL.pdf> (accessed January 18, 2010).

25 UNICEF, *op. cit.*

26 *Ibid.*

- Ensure that health workers have access to quality training in support, prenatal and neonatal care, and paediatrics.
- Implement follow-up mechanisms to evaluate policies and programs and measure their impact.
- Question governments on the production cost of vaccines and vitamin supplements and encourage the adoption of economies of scale.
- Encourage governments to negotiate bilateral or multilateral agreements to obtain the best production cost for vaccines.
- Make governments aware of the social determinants of health.
- Make sure governments guarantee a full vaccination coverage against measles, meningitis and tetanus and a wider distribution of vitamin A supplements.
- Make governments aware of the importance of programs that promote exclusive breastfeeding for children under 6 months of age and breastfeeding plus appropriate complementary feeding for children aged 6 months to two years.
- Ensure that governments provide adequate nourishment for children of poor families, despite the rise in food prices.

#### *1.4.3 Public Representation and Public Issues*

COPA parliamentarians could

- Report locally and publicly on the progress and delays noted with respect to child mortality.
- Participate in various awareness campaigns on child mortality.
- Inform parliamentarians from other States of the best programs and practices implemented locally.
- Encourage data collection and research on the issue both locally and nationally in an effort to improve the effectiveness of the initiatives implemented.
- Inquire into the existence and quality of health services in rural regions.
- Participate in consolidating local health systems and networks.
- Ensure the effective treatment of infectious diseases such as pneumonia, diarrhoea and malaria, and the prevention of those diseases, particularly through the distribution of insecticide-treated bed nets, drugs and rehydrating salts.
- Participate in education and prevention campaigns, particularly campaigns on hand washing, improved water availability and access to water treatment equipment.



INCREASING THE  
SECONDARY SCHOOL  
GRADUATION RATE  
AMONG PERSONS  
AGED 25 OR OLDER

## 2. INCREASING THE SECONDARY SCHOOL GRADUATION RATE IN THE 25-PLUS AGE GROUP

### 2.1 Objective

- That the parliamentarians of the Americas take action to help increase, by 2020, the secondary school graduation rate in the 25-plus age group in their respective countries by 15% over the 2005 figures.

### 2.2 The Problem

Over the past 20 years, the international community has become more and more interested in secondary education. According to the World Bank, secondary education is the highway between primary schooling, tertiary education and the labour market.<sup>27</sup> In addition to providing young people with a general education that will help improve their quality of life through greater knowledge, secondary education provides training, enabling workers and citizens to contribute effectively to life in their community. A society that can count on a high number of graduates will progressively break the cycle of poverty and see its economy improve substantially as new cohorts cross the threshold of educational institutions. Moreover, it goes without saying that as more young people graduate from secondary school, more will attend university, thereby stimulating research and innovation, which in turn will lead to an increase in a country's competitiveness on the world stage.

For the past few decades, access to learning and success at the secondary school level have been major areas of interest for the international community. In 1990, delegates from 155 States around the world, as well as representatives from governmental and non-governmental organizations, met at a conference in Jomtien, Thailand, to adopt the *World Declaration on Education for All*. The goals set for the year 2000 included universal access to learning, a focus on equity, emphasis on learning outcomes, broadening the means and the scope of basic education, enhancing the learning environment and strengthening partnerships. However, UNESCO has admitted that the Jomtien EFA targets had not been achieved by the year 2000.<sup>28</sup>

Ten years later, in 2000, 1,100 delegates met in Dakar at the World Education Forum for All to once again discuss education. The 1990 commitments were renewed and a framework for action that includes a global component and regional components was adopted.

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27 THE WORLD BANK, *Expanding Opportunities and Building Competencies for Young People, A New Agenda for Secondary Education*, 2005, The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank, Washington, p. xii.

28 UNESCO, *World Conference on EFA, Jomtien, 1990*, 2010, <http://www.unesco.org/en/education-for-all-international-coordination/themes/the-efa-movement/world-conference-on-efa-jomtien-1990> (accessed January 27, 2010).

It was within the context of the regional components of the World Education Forum that the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean met in Santo Domingo and agreed upon objectives based on “the recognition of the universal right of everyone to high-quality basic education from birth”.<sup>29</sup> Major breakthroughs have been made since 1990, in particular with respect to enrolment in primary school. Progress has also been made in the number of compulsory enrolment years and the rate of enrolment at the primary level, as well as in gender equity at the secondary level. In fact, the vast majority of the region’s States show a net enrolment rate<sup>30</sup> of over 90% at the primary level.<sup>31</sup> In addition, with respect to girls’ access to secondary school, it seems that equity is not a problem, as revealed in a working paper prepared for a meeting of the Ministers of Education of Ibero-American States held in El Salvador in May 2008.

At the conference, the Ministers agreed that by 2021, all young people would be given the opportunity to attend school for at least 12 years, which is considered the best strategy to guarantee regional progress, social cohesion and success in addressing inequities.<sup>32</sup> The goal is to make secondary education universal and, until then, ensure that 60% to 90% of students complete their secondary education.<sup>33</sup>

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) regularly updates its statistics on the 25–64 year-old population that has attained at least the upper secondary level of education. The data make it possible to obtain a clearer picture of the adult education rate, taking into account those who took a break during their training or who simply took an atypical route. It is thus possible to foresee the trends of the coming years. The OECD compiles statistics only on its member and partner countries. For the region that concerns us, the following table presents the 1997 and 2007 results for Canada, the United States, Mexico, Brazil and Chile.

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29 WORLD EDUCATION FORUM, *Dakar Framework for Action. Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments*, 2000, p. 36, <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001211/121147e.pdf> (accessed January 27, 2010).

30 The **net enrolment rate** is defined as the enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population. The **gross enrolment ratio** is defined as the total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education in a given school year. UNESCO INSTITUTE FOR STATISTICS, *Education Indicators, Technical Guidelines*, UNESCO, 50 pp., 2009, [http://www.uis.unesco.org/template/pdf/EducGeneral/Indicator\\_Technical\\_guidelines\\_EN.pdf](http://www.uis.unesco.org/template/pdf/EducGeneral/Indicator_Technical_guidelines_EN.pdf) (accessed January 28, 2010).

31 UNITED NATIONS, United Nations Statistics Division, *Millennium Development Goals Indicators*, 2009, <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx> (accessed January 27, 2010).

32 ORGANIZACIÓN DE ESTADOS IBEROAMERICANOS, *Metas educativas 2021, La educación que queremos para la generación de los Bicentenarios*, Discussion paper, first draft, XVIII Conferencia Iberoamericana de Educación, El Salvador, pp. 107–108, May 19, 2008, <http://www.oei.es/metas2021/todo.pdf> (accessed January 27, 2010).

33 *Ibid.*, p. 99.

**Table 4: Level of education in OECD and partner countries**

Country	25-64 year-old population that has attained at least upper secondary education (%) <sup>34</sup>	
	1997 <sup>35</sup>	2007 <sup>36</sup>
Brasil	n/a	37
Canada	77	87
Chile	n/a	50 <sup>37</sup>
México	28	33
United States	86	88

The *Sistema de información de tendencias educativas en América latina* (SITEAL)<sup>38</sup> compiles data on all the 25-and-over population. Thus, the figures presented in Appendix 2 also include the 65-and-over population. Dividing the data into two age groups gives a better idea of the increase in graduation rates across the generations. In its 2006 report, the SITEAL evaluated that 28% of the population aged 25 or older in the countries surveyed<sup>39</sup> had at least a secondary school diploma.<sup>40</sup>

In ending, the gross enrolment ratio for Latin America and the Caribbean increased from 62% in 1999 to 73% in 2007.<sup>41</sup>

34 Internationally, the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is used to measure various education programs and make certain international comparisons. In this document, a completed secondary level is equivalent to an ISCED 3 level, or UNESCO's upper secondary level.

35 OECD, *Education at a Glance 2009: OECD Indicators*, pp. 42–43, 2009, <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/41/25/43636332.pdf> (accessed January 27, 2010).

36 *Ibid.*, p. 40.

37 Year of reference: 2004.

38 The SITEAL is a joint program of UNESCO's International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) (Buenos Aires regional office) and the Organization of Ibero-American States for Education, Science and Culture. Its objective is to monitor the educational landscape in Latin America in light of the economic and social transformations occurring in the region.

39 Namely, Uruguay, Argentina, Cuba, Costa Rica, Chile, Colombia, Venezuela, Panama, Paraguay, Ecuador, Mexico, Brazil, Peru, the Dominican Republic, Bolivia, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Guatemala and Haiti.

40 SITEAL, *Informe sobre tendencias sociales y educativas en América Latina 2006*, p. 45, 2006, <http://www.siteal.iiep-oei.org/informetendencias/downloads/CAPITULO%20II.pdf> (accessed January 28, 2010).

41 UNESCO INSTITUTE FOR STATISTICS, *Table 20D: Regional average of enrolment ratios for pre-primary to tertiary education (ISCED 0-6)*, UNESCO, 2010, <http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/TableViewer/tableView.aspx?ReportId=194> (accessed January 28, 2010).

## 2.3 Main Issues

### 2.3.1 Systemic and Institutional Issues

#### 2.3.1.1 School Persistence

Before all else, we must ensure that young people stay in school. This challenge must be met throughout the Americas. As several States have already started to fight school dropout, it would be interesting to examine the various paths they have taken. COPA has already examined the issue: in 2009, at its 9th General Assembly in Salta, Argentina, it adopted a recommendation on the fight against school dropout. The recommendation,<sup>42</sup> following on that of the Committee on Education, Culture, Science and Technology, exhorts the parliamentarians of the Americas to see that the necessary funds are allocated in order to

- provide better access to quality education;
- fight school dropout more effectively;
- set up programs aimed at the groups most at risk of dropping out;
- ensure adequate teacher training; and
- ensure the development of new technologies.

#### 2.3.1.2 Teacher Training

Teacher training is another factor to take into consideration when examining the state of secondary education in various countries. As a rule, well-trained professionals are able to adapt their teaching to the group they have before them and detect the particular needs and difficulties of those students more likely to drop out of school. The table below presents the rate of trained teachers at the secondary level in the countries surveyed by UNESCO.

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42 PARLIAMENTARY CONFEDERATION OF THE AMERICAS, *Recommendation on the fight against school dropout*, 2009, <http://www.copa.qc.ca/eng/assembly/2009/Index.html> (accessed January 28, 2010).

**Table 5: Rate of trained teachers at the secondary level (%)<sup>43</sup>**

Country	Trained teachers (%)
Bahamas	86
Barbados	57
Belize	37
Canada	n/a
Costa Rica	85
Cuba	100
Dominica	41
Ecuador	71
El Salvador	88
Grenada	35
Guyana	55
Nicaragua	60
Panamá	91
República Dominicana	85
Saint Lucia	57
Saint Kitts and Nevis	40
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	55
United States of America	n/a
Venezuela	83

Teachers are the cornerstone of young people's success in secondary school. All too often, teachers are left to fend for themselves and find themselves bereft of the tools they need to do a good job. Many countries must make do with a staff of teachers most of whom are not adequately prepared to teach at the secondary level. Collectively, we must recognize the social and professional value of the teachers of the Americas to better prepare them for their work, and improve their working conditions, remuneration and incentives for continuing improvement of their professional skills.<sup>44</sup>

#### 2.3.1.3 Government Investment in Education

In the year 2000, the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean committed to progressively increase their investment in education to a minimum of 6% of their gross domestic product.<sup>45</sup>

In the following table, the figures show that in recent years, certain countries have reached and even exceeded that objective.

43 UNESCO INSTITUTE FOR STATISTICS, *Global Education Digest 2009, Comparing Education Statistics Across the World*, UNESCO, pp. 117–119, 2009, [online], [http://www.uis.unesco.org/template/pdf/ged/2009/GED\\_2009\\_EN.pdf](http://www.uis.unesco.org/template/pdf/ged/2009/GED_2009_EN.pdf) (accessed January 27, 2010).

44 WORLD EDUCATION FORUM, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

45 *Ibid.*, p. 40.

**Table 6: Government investment in education (% of GDP)**

Country	Government Investment in education (% of GDP)	Year (latest year available)
Barbados	6.7	2008
Bolivia	6.3	2006
Cuba	13.3	2007
Guyana	6.1	2007
Saint Kitts and Nevis	9.9	2005
Saint Lucia	6.3	2008
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	7	2007

However, several countries had not reached that objective in 2008.<sup>46</sup> Appendix 3 shows the investment in education as a percentage of the countries' gross domestic product.

### 2.3.2 Socioeconomic Issues

#### 2.3.2.1 Young People in Disadvantaged Areas

Sadly, the young people who are most unlikely to ever graduate from secondary school are those from the most disadvantaged areas, and this is the case in all the States of the Americas. In Latin America, the proportion of students who finish secondary school is five times higher among students in the quintile representing the most affluent families. While 23% of the students in this quintile obtain a graduate degree, only 1% in the quintile representing the most disadvantaged families do so.<sup>47</sup> In Québec, 35% of students in schools in disadvantaged areas drop out before obtaining a diploma or other qualification, compared with 20% in other areas.<sup>48</sup>

Students from immigrant families are also at risk. A series of factors, including economic factors, force certain populations to seek work or a better life in another country. Influxes of immigrants have been a constant in the Americas, creating new dynamics in the host country. Immigrants are sometimes marginalized and more disadvantaged than the rest of the population. Young people in these families thus remain vulnerable and are more at risk of never graduating from secondary school.

46 UNESCO INSTITUTE FOR STATISTICS, *Table 19: Finance Indicators by ISCED level*, UNESCO, 2010, <http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/TableViewer/tableView.aspx?ReportId=172> (accessed March 30, 2010).

47 ORGANIZACIÓN DE ESTADOS IBEROAMERICANOS, *Metas educativas 2021, La educación que queremos para la generación de los Bicentenarios*, Discussion paper, first draft, XVIII Conferencia Iberoamericana de Educación, El Salvador, p. 71, May 19, 2008. <http://www.oei.es/metas2021/todo.pdf> (accessed January 27, 2010, translation).

48 MINISTÈRE DE L'ÉDUCATION, DU LOISIR ET DU SPORT, *I care about school! - All together for student success*, p. 6, 2009, <http://www.mels.gouv.qc.ca/sections/publications/index.asp?page=fiche&id=1184> (accessed February 19, 2010).

### 2.3.2.2 Rural Areas

Statistics show that enrolment rates in Latin America and the Caribbean are lower in rural areas than in urban areas. In some places, there are up to 25% fewer educated adolescents in rural areas than in urban areas.<sup>49</sup> In the Americas, only the United States are an exception to the rule, with a dropout rate of 11% in rural areas and 13 % in metropolitan areas for 2004–2005.<sup>50</sup>

The following table shows the net enrolment rates at the secondary level for the countries surveyed by SITEAL, by urban and rural areas. Equity in approaching and attaining equivalent enrolment rates in cities and in rural areas constitutes a major challenge if there is to be an increase in secondary school graduation rates.

**Table 7: Net enrolment rates at the secondary level in urban and rural areas (data collected in 2008)<sup>51</sup>**

Country	Urban areas (%)	Rural areas (%)
Brasil	79.9	67.8
Costa Rica	70.0	56.1
Ecuador	79.7	57.3
El Salvador	65.2	42.7
México	75.1	60.1
Panamá	83.1	61.0
Paraguay	71.8	48.4
República Dominicana	57.0	46.8
Uruguay	72.1	58.9

### 2.3.2.3 Afro-Descendant and Aboriginal Populations

In the Americas, the Aboriginal and Afro-descendant populations still bear the weight of history, as seen in their social and economic status, for instance. Thus, in the context of equity in access to education, a rural lifestyle is not the only factor. Adolescents of Afro-American or Aboriginal descent are particularly vulnerable and more at risk of not completing their secondary studies.

Moreover, SITEAL has found that in certain regions, the dropout rate among adolescents belonging to the Afro-descendant or Aboriginal minority is almost 25% higher than among adolescents in the general population.

49 SITEAL, *La escuela y los adolescentes, Informe sobre tendencias sociales y educativas en América Latine*, 2008, pp. 66–69, 2008, <http://www.siteal.iipe-oei.org/informetendencias/downloads/2008/AnexoEstadistico.pdf> (accessed January 27, 2010).

50 COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, CULTURE, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, *Preliminary Report on School Dropout in the Americas*, Parliamentary Confederation of the Americas, p. 5, 2009.

51 SITEAL, *Data base*, 2010, <http://www.siteal.iipe-oei.org/basededatos/basededatos1.asp> (accessed January 28, 2010).

According to information available for certain States of the Americas, it is very difficult for the education system to keep these young people in school. The probability that these adolescents will distance themselves from the school network is vastly higher than in the rest of the adolescent population, and the gap widens with age.<sup>52</sup> In Canada, the graduation rate among Aboriginal youth is 10% lower than in the rest of the population.<sup>53</sup> In the United States, in 2007, 21% of Afro-descendants between 16 and 24 had not graduated from secondary school and were not working towards that goal. In the white population, that proportion fell to 12.2%. Young people of Latin-American origin in the United States must also be given more attention, as 27.5% of them had dropped out of school in 2007.<sup>54</sup>

#### 2.3.2.4 The Educational Climate in the Home

The educational climate in the home can have a major impact on young people. In families where parents have a higher education (12 years or more), children are more likely to complete their schooling. In most countries, secondary school graduation rates in these populations exceed 90%. At the other end of the spectrum, only 8.7% of children whose parents have fewer than six years of education graduate from secondary school.<sup>55</sup>

## **2.4 Approaches and Avenues of Action for Parliamentarians**

As is the case for the issues at stake, there are many approaches and avenues of action to improve enrolment rates. It has become clear, in recent years, that secondary education plays an important role in a country's development. For instance, at the San Domingo and El Salvador meetings, the governments of Latin America confirmed a marked interest in building a secondary education system that would be both accessible and productive.

Parliamentarians were called upon to help attain this goal, as they have an important role to play in identifying the challenges in secondary education that must be faced in their respective regions, and in verifying whether the findings put forward in this document are supported in the field. The following are a few examples of the approaches and avenues of action that may be adopted by parliamentarians. This list will certainly be improved on and expanded by COPA member parliamentarians.

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52 SITEAL, *La escuela y los adolescentes, Informe sobre tendencias sociales y educativas en America Latine*, 2008, pp. 66–69, 2008, <http://www.siteal.iipe-oei.org/informetendencias/downloads/2008/AnexoEstadistico.pdf> (accessed January 27, 2010).

53 INDIAN AND NORTHERN AFFAIRS CANADA, *Aboriginal Education*, Government of Canada, October 2006, <http://www.ainc-inac.gc.ca/ai/mr/is/aedu-eng.asp> (accessed February 19, 2010).

54 CENTER FOR LABOR MARKET STUDIES, *Left Behind: The Nation's Dropout Crisis*, 2009, p. 8, [http://www.clms.neu.edu/publication/documents/CLMS\\_2009\\_Dropout\\_Report.pdf](http://www.clms.neu.edu/publication/documents/CLMS_2009_Dropout_Report.pdf) (accessed April 16, 2010).

55 Camilla CROSO, *Universalizar el acceso y completar la educación secundaria. Entre la meta social y la realidad latinoamericana*, SITEAL, p. 3, 2010, [http://www.siteal.iipe-oei.org/modulos/DebatesV1/upload//deb\\_123/art\\_89/SITEAL090302b.pdf](http://www.siteal.iipe-oei.org/modulos/DebatesV1/upload//deb_123/art_89/SITEAL090302b.pdf) (accessed January 29, 2010).

#### *2.4.1 Legislative Action*

COPA parliamentarians could

- Enact legislation obliging young people to attend school until a certain age, and see that the legislation is enforced.
- Pass legislation to limit the number of hours students who have not yet reached the school leaving age may work.
- Introduce legislation that encourages educational success and ensure that it is adequately enforced.
- Make sure, in all of these measures, that the more vulnerable young people are taken into consideration and that families where the parents have a low level of education are given particular attention.

#### *2.4.2 Monitoring the Government*

COPA parliamentarians could

- Ensure that young people with learning disabilities have access to more specialized vocational or technical training programs.
- Make sure the State has a dropout prevention plan, school reintegration programs and/or an action plan to increase school enrolment rates.
- Make sure their State respects its international commitments regarding education.
- Verify whether there are mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the programs implemented and for improving the governance of education networks.
- See that the schools on their territory have adequate teaching, computer and technological material.
- Ascertain that their State allocates sufficient funding to education.
- Ensure that teachers have access to quality training.
- See that more teachers are hired, that they are well remunerated and are given good conditions of employment.

#### *2.4.3 Public Representation and Public Issues*

COPA parliamentarians could

- Inquire into secondary level enrolment and success rates in their State.
- Promote the importance of implementing a process for evaluating secondary education networks.
- Become familiar with the situation of teachers in their State and with the manner in which the Government deals with improving their training, remuneration and conditions of employment.
- Ensure that young dropouts have the possibility of reintegrating the education network.





TOWARD  
THE ELIMINATION  
OF GENDER WAGE  
DISPARITY

### 3. REDUCING THE GENDER WAGE GAP

#### 3.1 Objective

- That the parliamentarians of the Americas take action to reduce the gender wage gap in their respective States by:
  - a) adopting and implementing wage equity legislation; and
  - b) setting and enforcing a minimum wage.

#### 3.2 The Problem

Community development begins with the active participation of all members of society in a country's economic activities, in a non-discriminatory fashion. Women play a growing and essential role in labour market dynamics, contributing to the economic growth of the State. Their incomes have increased steadily since they integrated the labour market, yet women continue to be the victims of discrimination and to receive lower wages than men.

The place of women on the labour market and women's wages are not recent issues. As early as the 1950s, various international conventions dealt with wage parity between men and women. The Equal Remuneration Convention (C100), adopted in 1951 by the General Conference of the International Labour Organization (OIT), was followed by a series of meetings and international agreements to fight gender-based discrimination in the world of work, including the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (C111), adopted in 1958. Then, in 1979, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) was adopted by the UN General Assembly, once again emphasizing "the right to equal remuneration, including benefits, and to equal treatment in respect of work of equal value, as well as equality of treatment in the evaluation of the quality of work".<sup>56</sup>

Almost 20 years later, a number of nations reaffirmed their commitment to gender parity with the unanimous adoption, in September 1995, of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. Article 165 of the Declaration, signed by 189 States, urges the States to "enact and enforce legislation to guarantee the rights of women and men to equal pay for equal work or work of equal value".<sup>57</sup> Various international organizations regularly report on the progress made under the Declaration. In anticipation of the Declaration's 15th anniversary, the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean created a snapshot of the region. Its main conclusions are as follows:<sup>58</sup>

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56 UNITED NATIONS, *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women*, New York, 1979, <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/text/econvention.htm> (accessed February 15, 2010).

57 FOURTH WORLD CONFERENCE ON WOMEN, *Beijing Declaration*, September 1995, Beijing, p. 68, <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/pdf/BDPfA%20E.pdf> (accessed February 16, 2010).

58 ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN, DIVISION FOR GENDER AFFAIRS, *Review of the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and platform for action and the outcome of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly in Latin American and Caribbean countries*, 2009, p. 12–13,

- More women living in urban zones now have their own income.
- The pay differential between women and men—which exceeds 30% in many countries—means that women earn less even when they perform the same tasks and have the same training.<sup>59</sup>

The pay differential or wage gap is defined as “the difference between the average wages earned by men and the average wages earned by women”.<sup>60</sup> Two principles underlie a decrease in the pay differential: the principle of pay equality and the principle of pay equity. **Pay equality** means that a man and a woman with equal skills and experience receive the same pay for the same work, while **pay equity** means that equal pay is received for work of equal value. While most international agreements cover **pay equity**, some States are still struggling to achieve **pay equality**. As an indicator, the wage gap has the virtue of providing an overall portrait of the situation of women on the labour market. It also takes into account a variety of socioeconomic factors, in addition to pay equity and pay equality measures, that affect the status of women.

Worldwide, the gender-based wage gap is estimated at 17%.<sup>61</sup> The following table gives an idea of the pay divide in the Americas.

**Table 8: The gender wage gap**<sup>62</sup>

Country	Year	Wage gap in favour of men (%)
Brasil	2004	17.7
Canada	2006	27.5
Colombia	2006	21.5
Costa Rica <sup>63</sup>	2006	-2.2
El Salvador	2004	19.0
México	2006	15.5
Panamá	2006	3.8
Paraguay	2003	31.3
United States	2007	22.4

<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing15/docs/ECLACBeijing15.pdf?OpenAgent&DS=ECE/AC.28/2009/3&Lang=E> (accessed February 16, 2010).

59 The ECLAC points out, however, that some countries, such as Chile and Cuba, have passed legislation to eliminate this kind of discrimination.

60 EXECUTIVE COUNCIL OFFICE, *The Wage Gap Reduction Initiative*, Government of New Brunswick, <http://www.gnb.ca/0012/Womens-Issues/wg-es/faq-e.asp#faq1> (accessed February 18, 2010). Some States and agencies use the median wage rather than the average wage to calculate wage gaps.

61 INTERNATIONAL TRADE UNION CONFEDERATION, “The Global Gender Pay Gap”, *ITUC Report*, February 2008, Brussels, p. 7 <http://www.ituc-csi.org/IMG/pdf/gap-1.pdf> (accessed February 16, 2010).

62 *Ibid.*, p. 21.

63 According to the Confederation, the negative wage gap in Costa Rica is due to the country’s informal economy. The income women earn in that economy is not included in official statistics.

The World Trade Organization (WTO) warns against the temptation to draw comparisons between States even if the salary lag for women is obvious, noting that

*it is difficult to make inter-country comparisons on wage differentials; very often detailed statistics are inadequate, or simply country-specific. There is no definitive general conclusion as to the extent of differences in pay between men and women. However, there is strong national evidence that wage gaps persist.*<sup>64</sup>

The Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean has published data on the gender wage gap, focusing on urban women between the ages of 20 and 49 who earn wages working at least 35 hours a week. Their income is compared with that of men with a similar profile. Appendix 4 gives the results of this research, showing that certain countries are regressing while others are progressing or stagnating. All of which proves that, where pay equality between men and women is concerned, nothing may be taken for granted.

In North America, the Canadian Labour Congress (CLC) revealed that in 2005 Canadian women working full-time throughout the year earned an average of \$39,200, as against \$55,700 for men, a difference of 29.5%. This points to a certain slippage since the mid-1990s when women were earning 72% of the salary men received, for a difference of 28%. Similarly, in 2005, women with a university education earned 68% of the salary their male counterparts earned, compared with 75% ten years earlier. The CLC also notes that the Canadian wage gap is the fifth highest among OECD countries.<sup>65</sup>

In the United States, the Institute for Women's Policy Research based the annual wage disparity between men and women on the median salary of full-time workers. The resulting statistics reveal that, on average, women earn 77.1% of what men earn, although the gap shrinks if calculated on a weekly basis, with women's salaries amounting to 79.9% of men's.<sup>66</sup>

It may therefore be concluded that occupational segregation exists and that women continue to hold the most precarious jobs.<sup>67</sup> Added to this economic burden is the fact that women are obliged to reconcile remunerated work with the unremunerated tasks required by the family and the community. Reducing the wage gap is a prerequisite for women's gaining the financial independence they need to break the cycle of economic dependence and escape the clutches of poverty, exploitation and violence. Improving their living conditions can only help them become citizens in their own right, able to participate fully in the economic development of their country. Adopting and carrying out pay equality and minimum wage legislation is the first step towards achieving this objective.

64 INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION, *Global Employment Trends for Women, March 2009*, Geneva, p. 19, [http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/P/09275/09275\(2009\).pdf](http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/P/09275/09275(2009).pdf) (accessed February 17, 2010).

65 CANADIAN LABOUR CONGRESS, *Women in the Workforce: Still a Long Way from Equality, Introduction and Summary*, 2008, <http://www.canadianlabour.ca/news-room/editorial/women-workforce-still-long-way-equality> (accessed February 17, 2010).

66 INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN'S POLICY RESEARCH, *The Gender Wage Gap: 2008*, September 2009, <http://www.iwpr.org/pdf/C350.pdf> (accessed February 17, 2010).

67 Mary CORNISH, "Ending Labour Market Gender Discrimination: Bringing Gender Mainstreaming to Parliamentary Laws and Institutions", *Women and Work. Seminar for Members of Parliamentary Bodies Dealing with Gender Equality and Committees Addressing Labour Issues*, Geneva, International Labour Organization and Inter-Parliamentary Union, December 6–8, 2007, pp. 44, [http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/womenwork\\_en.pdf](http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/womenwork_en.pdf) (accessed February 15, 2010).

### 3.3 Main Issues

The issues affecting women and their place in the labour market are numerous and the specific issue of pay is a cultural as well as a contextual one. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO),

*gender wage differentials may be best explained by a variety of factors, such as occupation, age, education, work experience and seniority in job, job tenure, training, occupational segregation, etc. Other factors such as the regulations and practices concerning work-and-family life, child care facilities and other social rights play a significant role in the participation of women in the labour force, in their occupational choices, and in the employment patterns that affect the gender wage gap.*<sup>68</sup>

The following are a few of the issues our parliamentarians might want to bear in mind.

#### 3.3.1 Systemic and Institutional Issues

##### 3.3.1.1 Constraints on Trade Unions

The United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) notes in its report that “constraints on independent trade union organising are bad news for women”.<sup>69</sup> According to the report, less than 40% of employed people around the world are unionized and women account for only 19% of union membership.<sup>70</sup> It goes on to cite the cases of Australia, Uganda, Honduras and Spain to demonstrate that awareness campaigns run by trade unions often focus on gender gaps in pay, protection for mothers and child care.

The International Trade Union Confederation also states that union membership has positive effects on gender gaps in pay since in most countries, the wage gap is smaller among unionized than non-unionized employees.<sup>71</sup> Unionized women, with the strength of a specialized labour organization behind them, obtain higher salaries than non-unionized women, who must act and negotiate independently.

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68 INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION, *Global Employment Trends for Women, March 2009*, 2009, Geneva, p. 17, [http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/P/09275/09275\(2009\).pdf](http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/P/09275/09275(2009).pdf) (accessed February 17, 2010).

69 UNIFEM, *Progress of the World's Women 2008/2009. Who Answers to Women? Gender and Accountability*, pp. 60–61, [http://www.unifem.org/progress/2008/media/POWW08\\_Report\\_Full\\_Text.pdf](http://www.unifem.org/progress/2008/media/POWW08_Report_Full_Text.pdf) (accessed February 17, 2010).

70 *Loc. cit.*

71 INTERNATIONAL TRADE UNION CONFEDERATION, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

### 3.3.1.2 Women's Participation in the Informal Economy and Job Distribution

Between 1990 and 2001, 69% of all new jobs created in Latin America were in the informal economy, where women are disproportionately represented.<sup>72</sup> The informal economy comprises economic activities by workers “that are—in law or in practice—not covered or insufficiently covered by formal arrangements”.<sup>73</sup> Thus, “women remain concentrated in ‘invisible’ areas of informal work, such as domestic labour (...) which offer precarious employment status [and] low, irregular or no remuneration...”<sup>74</sup>

States with a large informal economy generally show the lowest gender wage gap, but these statistics fail to reflect the reality of the situation. Moreover, in addition to being poorly paid, women working in the informal sector “typically have very poor working conditions and no social protection at all”.<sup>75</sup>

Various ILO studies show that the introduction of a minimum wage has a positive impact on women with jobs in the informal economy, since the minimum wage tends to become a point of reference for employers and employees alike, including those (both men and women) working in the informal sector.<sup>76</sup>

Not only are occupations in which women predominate affected by the informal economy; they also help perpetuate the wage gap. In the Latin American and Caribbean region, occupational segregation, which clusters women in traditionally “female” jobs such as office work and domestic service, is recognized as an obstacle to labour market equality.<sup>77</sup> In fact, “within both the formal and informal economy, men dominate higher-paying ‘production’ jobs”.<sup>78</sup> This situation invariably influences wage differential calculations.

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72 INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION, *Women, gender and the informal economy: An assessment of ILO research and suggested ways forward*, 2008, [http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/documents/publication/wcms\\_091228.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/documents/publication/wcms_091228.pdf) (accessed April 30, 2010).

73 *Id.*, *Resource guide on the informal economy*, 2008, <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/support/lib/resource/subject/informal.htm> (accessed February 17, 2010).

74 INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

75 Jon C. MESSENGER, “Changing Patterns in the World of Work: Women, Men and Working Conditions”, *Women and Work. Seminar for Members of Parliamentary Bodies Dealing with Gender Equality and Committees Addressing Labour Issues*, Geneva, International Labour Organization and Inter-Parliamentary Union, December 6–8, 2007, p. 30, [http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/womenwork\\_en.pdf](http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/womenwork_en.pdf) (accessed February 17, 2010).

76 *Ibid.*, p. 30.

77 Claudia PIRAS, *Women at work, Challenges for Latin America*, Washington, Inter-American Development Bank, 2004, p. 13, <http://idbdocs.iadb.org/wsdocs/getdocument.aspx?docnum=802030> (accessed February 7, 2010).

78 Mary CORNISH, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

### 3.3.1.3 The World Economic System

A number of studies point to the world economic system as a factor that could contribute to an increase in the wage gap. In a 2009 report, the ILO forecast a difficult year for women because of the economic crisis,<sup>79</sup> while UNIFEM stated that

*governments argue that their ability to protect workers' rights and perform a market oversight role is shrinking as corporations become larger and more powerful. They also point to the fact that they are restricted by the terms of bilateral, regional and international free-trade arrangements they have signed.*<sup>80</sup>

UNIFEM also noted, however, that countries' efforts to "attract investment do not have to conflict with managing the market for social ends".<sup>81</sup> It went on to say that

*the costs of labour rights protection, the high state capacity it requires, and the empowered labour force that results, are sometimes seen as a constraint on capital. These concerns are advanced by supporters of economic globalization and are used to justify measures such as cuts in public services and a weakening of workers' claims to minimum labour standards.*<sup>82</sup>

It has been some years now since the agencies interested in the status of women sounded the alarm lest globalization whittle away at the advances women had made. A weakening of the State in favour of market forces and international trade would have a variety of consequences for women, including the loss of good jobs and the relegation of women to a poorly paid, subordinate sector of the economy, the reshouldering of responsibility for the sick and the elderly at home and a falling-off of universal policies,<sup>83</sup> all phenomena likely to bring about pay discrepancies and thus an increase in the gender wage gap.

All these legitimate concerns were important in the discussions leading up to the creation of COPA. The parliaments involved, key institutions in representative democracy, felt they were directly affected by the introduction of regional processes of economic integration that, in the long run, would change both the regional and the continental context. Globalization can be carried out in a manner respectful of rights; the continental integration resulting from such globalization allows for economic and social development that respects the gender-specific features built into programs and economic policies. This is why it is important that parliamentarians, playing as they do a key role in bettering the lives and protecting the rights of the people they represent, pay particular attention to the manner in which globalization unfolds.

79 INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION, *Global Employment Trends for Women, March 2009*, 2009, Geneva, p. 32, [http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/P/09275/09275\(2009\).pdf](http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/P/09275/09275(2009).pdf) (accessed February 17, 2010).

80 UNIFEM, *Progress of the World's Women 2008/2009. Who Answers to Women? Gender and Accountability*, pp. 60–61, [http://www.unifem.org/progress/2008/media/POWW08\\_Report\\_Full\\_Text.pdf](http://www.unifem.org/progress/2008/media/POWW08_Report_Full_Text.pdf) (accessed February 17, 2010).

81 *Ibid.*, p. 59.

82 *Ibid.*, p. 59–60.

83 Diane LAVALLÉE, *Speech by the President of the Conseil du statut de la femme, Diane Lavallée, « Mondialisation : menace ou opportunité pour les femmes? »*, 3e Colloque international des recherches féministes francophones, Université Toulouse II-Le Miral, 2002, p. 12.

### 3.3.2 Socioeconomic Issues

#### 3.3.2.1 Prejudice

The problems women on the labour market have to face globally probably stem from age-old paradigms ingrained in the world's collective consciousness. Even today, women suffer from prejudice: at times, they are seen first and foremost as mothers, which is often another way of saying that they are less productive or even less competent.<sup>84</sup> Furthermore, because employers, political leaders and trade unions choose to see men as the main breadwinners, despite what really goes on in the field, the tendency is for women to be assigned to less well-paid jobs and men to be paid higher salaries.<sup>85</sup> Attitudes and preconceived ideas must change if the wage gap is to diminish over the next few years.

#### 3.3.2.2 Balancing Work and Family

In addition to having to enter the labour market, women today still have more family responsibilities than men. Balancing work and family thus becomes a key issue in facilitating women's entry on the labour market and improving their employment conditions. Indeed, "women may not be able to compete equally with their male colleagues because they cannot invest an equal amount of time in work when they remain responsible for the greatest share of household and childrearing tasks".<sup>86</sup> As a consequence, women have no choice but to work fewer paid hours, on the average, than men do.<sup>87</sup>

Working women must have access to measures, such as flex time and daycare services, that will help them integrate the labour market. A number of experts hold that men should also be made aware of their household and family responsibilities, which would lead to sharing the family workload. Employers also have a role to play and must be made aware of the situation so that they can contribute to a more equitable integration of women into the workforce and to their economic autonomy.

## 3.4. Approaches and Avenues of Action for Parliamentarians

Legislation in all States of the Americas includes provisions that prohibit gender-based wage discrimination. Most laws, however, are vague. In 2006, the Women Parliamentarians of the Americas examined the progress made in the application of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). They found that several States had passed legislation to protect women against discrimination or to foster greater wage justice. In Panama, the principle of equal pay without gender distinction is entrenched in the Constitution. Canada has also adopted a series of legislative measures of that nature, such as the *Canadian Human Rights Act* and the *Equal Wages Guidelines, 1986*. In Argentina, women workers have the right to equal pay for work of equal value. In Ecuador, this principle is entrenched in the country's Constitution.<sup>88</sup> In Québec, a series of legislative

84 Naila KABEER, "Gender, Labour Markets and Poverty: an overview", *Poverty in Focus, Gender Equality*, No. 13, January 2008, pp. 3–4, <http://www.undp-povertycentre.org/pub/IPCPovertyInFocus13.pdf> (accessed February 17, 2010).

85 *Loc. cit.*

86 UNIFEM, *op. cit.*, p. 55.

87 Mary CORNISH, *op. cit.*, pp. 44.

88 Lucero SALDAÑA PÉREZ, *Report on the Application of the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)*, Network of Women Parliamentarians of the Americas, Quito, 2006, <http://www.feminamericas.net/EN/activities/2006/DOC-VI-Reunionannuelle-a.html> (accessed February 18, 2010).

measures, including the 1996 *Pay Equity Act*, were adopted to attain pay equity between men and women in both the public and the private sectors.<sup>89</sup>

For several decades now, a number of countries in the Americas have had legislation setting minimum wages. However, enforcement is uneven and the minimum wage may vary with changes in economic and political currents. A study carried out in 2003 by the International Labour Organization reveals that in certain Latin-American countries, such as Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Mexico, evidence of compliance with the legislation shows only moderate to moderate-high success.<sup>90</sup> Yet a minimum wage, once set and enforced, plays a role in reducing the gender wage gap. It is commonly used as a benchmark in collective bargaining and as a floor for wage parity.<sup>91</sup>

In addition to these two types of major initiatives, a host of actions can serve to improve the status of working women and significantly reduce wage disparities. A guiding principle that has gained international recognition is that “governments should apply a gender perspective in the creation and implementation of labour laws.” In addition, “governments should ensure and guarantee equality outcomes”.<sup>92</sup> State officials must therefore adopt a multidimensional tack and involve a good many actors and stakeholders if they are to help narrow substantially the gender wage gap. Moreover,

*parliamentarians must engage in a gender-sensitive analysis both at the time of considering new budgets and laws or policies and in reviewing existing ones to identify whether they are impeding or supporting women’s economic empowerment and equality.*<sup>93</sup>

The following are a few examples of the approaches and avenues of action that may be adopted by parliamentarians to achieve the goals outlined in this section. This list will certainly be improved on and expanded by COPA member parliamentarians.

### 3.4.1 Legislative Action

COPA parliamentarians could

- Introduce pay equity legislation, legislation establishing a realistic minimum wage and legislation that protects pregnant women in the work force.
- See that these laws are implemented.
- Adopt legislation that prohibits gender discrimination and impose the obligation to attain pay equity in the private and public sectors.

89 Legislation may be consulted at <http://www.ces.gouv.qc.ca/english.asp>.

90 Damian GRIMSHAW and Marcelo MIOZZO, *Minimum wages and pay equity in Latin America*, Geneva, International Labour Office, 2003, p. 6.

91 *Ibid.*, p. 8.

92 Mary CORNISH, *op. cit.*, p. 46.

93 *Ibid.*, pp. 49–50.

- Systematically analyze the effects of proposed legislation, particularly the budget bill, on men and women.
- Promote the creation of parliamentary committees on the status of women to stimulate reflection and action on the various issues that surround the question.
- Implement initiatives to improve the living and working conditions of women with jobs in the informal economy.

#### *3.4.2 Monitoring the Government*

COPA parliamentarians could

- Ensure that governments develop and use gender-specific analysis tools.
- Promote the creation of government bodies to supervise the implementation of pay equity legislation (for instance, pay equity commissions).
- Question governments on the impact of regional, bilateral and international commercial agreements on the female labour force.
- Ensure the implementation of international agreements and commitments related to the status of women.
- Encourage the participation of women parliamentarians in the negotiation of international commercial agreements.
- Ensure the introduction of measures and programs that help balance work and family (for example, the creation of day care centres and the introduction of parental leave and work-time arrangements).
- Encourage the implementation of measures to help women access education or make a career change.
- Ensure women have access to a system of justice and repair should their rights be infringed.

#### *3.4.3 Public Representation and Public Issues*

COPA parliamentarians could

- Urge the public scrutiny of international agreements in light of their possible consequences on the situation of women in the work force.
- Encourage the sharing of good practices in reducing wage gaps.
- Encourage reflection and mobilization on the subject by business leaders, trade unions, parliamentarians and civil society.
- Contribute to the various campaigns promoting the sharing of family responsibilities between men and women.
- Promote pay equality initiatives in the public service and private enterprise and stimulate reflection on the principle of pay equity.

- Take an interest in the problems related to precarious jobs and women's place in the informal economy and contribute to finding solutions to their situation.
- Take part in celebrating the success of women in order to create models for young girls.
- Encourage the creation of a climate that would contribute to removing barriers to unionization and collective negotiations in predominantly female job categories.



PROTECTION OF WATER  
RESOURCES

## 4. PROTECTION OF WATER RESOURCES

### 4.1 Objectives

That parliamentarians of the Americas take action

- to ensure that all peoples of the Americas have sustainable and equitable access to safe water; and
- to enact water protection legislation in their respective States.

### 4.2 The Problem

Throughout the world, access to safe drinking water is a major subject of discussion. Water is a key prerequisite for human and economic development and for maintaining ecosystems; its scarcity has thus become a major concern in today's world.<sup>94</sup>

Since the 1970s, international organizations have become seriously involved in water policy issues. In 1972, during the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment held in Stockholm, two key principles of water policy were recognized:

1. *"managing the resource so that it is available for human and ecosystem uses for current and future generations"; and*
2. *"providing adequate, sustainable and affordable water services to all, in particular water supply and sanitation".<sup>95</sup>*

A few decades later, in 2002, the UN's Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights took up the question of water, recognizing it as a fundamental right, essential for a life of dignity and health. Thus, the human right to water "entitles everyone to sufficient, safe, acceptable, physically accessible and affordable water for personal and domestic uses".<sup>96</sup>

Acknowledging the growing preoccupation with water of the nations of the world, the UN has incorporated access to clean drinking water into its Millennium Development Goals.<sup>97</sup> Goal 7, to ensure environmental sustainability, includes halving the percentage of the population "without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation".<sup>98</sup>

94 OECD, *Managing Water for All: OECD Perspective on Pricing and Financing*, OECD Publications, 2009, p. 13, <http://oberon.sourceocde.org/vl=1376072/cl=25/nw=1/rpsv/cw/vhosts/ocedthemes/99980266/v2009n2/contp1-1.htm> (accessed March 3, 2010).

95 *Ibid.*, p. 38.

96 *Ibid.*, p. 35.

97 United Nations Millennium Development Goals Report – 2009, p. 45, <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/MDG%20Report%202009%20ENG.pdf> (accessed March 4, 2010).

98 *Loc. cit.*

In July 2010, the UN recognized access to safe water and basic sanitation as a human right. After more than 15 years' debate on the question, 122 countries voted in favour of a compromise resolution drafted by Bolivia, against 41 abstentions.<sup>99</sup>

The Americas have vast reserves of fresh water. In fact, Latin America and the Caribbean, as a region, possess among the most abundant water resources in the world (more than 30% of the world's total for 10% of its population).<sup>100</sup> Canada and the United States combined have approximately 12% of the world's water reserves.<sup>101</sup>

According to the most recent UN report on progress towards the Millennium Development Goals in Latin America, access to drinking water has improved enormously in that region, but while the report notes that access objectives have been achieved in urban areas, important management problems remain. In addition, if the Americas are fortunate in having water in abundance compared with the rest of the world, the water is distributed very unevenly throughout the continent, and the many uses to which it is put exert considerable pressure on the resource.<sup>102</sup> Access also varies greatly between rural and urban areas, and between cities, provinces, States, regions and municipalities. But the largest disparity is that between low- and high-income individuals.<sup>103</sup>

Appendix 5 gives a breakdown by country of the progress made between 1990 and 2004 in providing access to safe water. The table below gives the figures for Latin America and the Caribbean between 1990 and 2002.

**Table 9: Growth in population with sustainable access to an improved water source in Latin America and the Caribbean<sup>104</sup>**

	Rural pop. (%)	Urban pop. (%)	Total (%)
1990	58	93	83
2002	69	95	89

Despite this progress, in the Americas no less than in the rest of the world, issues involving access to clean water arouse deep concern. Pollution, overexploitation of the water table, demographic growth, society's increasing interference with the water cycle, pressure to increase food production, rapid urbanization—all have resulted in an ever-increasing stress on water management.<sup>105</sup> In 2005, 2.8 billion people were living in areas “under severe water stress”.<sup>106</sup> By 2030 this figure could increase by 1 billion and affect 47% of the world's population. Nor does this estimate take into account the effects of climate change on global water resources.<sup>107</sup>

99 Le Devoir, “En bref - L'ONU consacre le droit à l'eau”, July 29, 2010.

100 WORLD RESOURCES INSTITUTE, *Freshwater Resources 2005, 2007*, <http://earthtrends.wri.org/datatables/index.php?theme=2> (accessed April 9, 2010).

101 *Loc. cit.*

102 UN, *Objetivos de desarrollo del milenio, Avances en la sostenibilidad ambiental del desarrollo en América Latina y el Caribe*, 2010, p. 130, <http://www.eclac.cl/publicaciones/xml/6/38496/2009-696-ODM-7-completo.pdf> (accessed March 4, 2010).

103 *Loc. cit.*

104 UN DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS STATISTIC DIVISION, *Progress towards the Millennium Development Goals, 1990-2005, Goal 7 – Ensure Environmental Sustainability*, UN, 2005, p. 12, [http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Resources/Attach/Products/Progress2005/goal\\_7.pdf](http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Resources/Attach/Products/Progress2005/goal_7.pdf) (accessed March 4, 2010).

105 OECD, *op. cit.*, p. 13.  
UN, *op. cit.*, p. 200.

106 The OECD considers that a region is under severe water stress when the water supply drops below 1,700 cubic metres per person; the figure for water scarcity is 1,000 cubic metres per person.

107 OECD, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

Accordingly, some nations must manage their water withdrawals carefully. Between 1950 and 2009, the global population increased by a factor of 2.7, and water use by a factor of 3.2.<sup>108</sup> Hence,

*the quantity of renewable water available per capita is decreasing everywhere. Decreased precipitation may explain this to some extent. However, the chief cause is not climate-related: the population is increasing, while renewable resources change hardly at all.*<sup>109</sup> [Translation]

It should be noted that “withdrawals” include any water taken from its natural environment to meet the population’s needs for domestic, agricultural, industrial and other uses. Once it has been used, some of this water, treated or untreated, may be released into the environment. Appendix 6 gives the annual water resources available to each country of the Americas without compromising renewal. It also shows the quantity of water actually withdrawn for the most recent year for which data is available.

Water is at the heart of a growing number of lawsuits between nations. Consequently, in 1997, the UN passed the *Convention on the Law of the Non-Navigational Uses of International Watercourses*, which requires

*nations to take the measures needed to prevent damage that may otherwise be inflicted on others by their use of water resources. The principle followed by the framers of the Convention is called the “principle of reduced local sovereignty”: a State is free to develop water-use projects for the watercourses on its territory, but it must exert itself not to infringe on the interests of other countries in which the same watercourse or its affluents flow.*<sup>110</sup> [Translation]

There is no consensus as to the possibility of water becoming the cause of conflicts between nations. Still, even the most optimistic concede that water can be a source of political instability and internal conflicts.<sup>111</sup>

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108 Frédéric LASSERRE, *Écologie, irrigation, diplomatie, comment éviter les guerres de l’eau. L’eau au cœur des conflits du XXI<sup>e</sup> siècle*, Éditions Delavilla, 2009, p. 28.

109 *Ibid.*, p. 45.

110 *Ibid.*, pp. 239–240.

111 Aaron T. WOLF, “Conflict and cooperation along international waterways”, *Water Policy*, Vol. 1, No. 2, 1998, pp. 251–265, [http://www.cawater-info.net/bk/water\\_law/pdf/wolf\\_e.pdf](http://www.cawater-info.net/bk/water_law/pdf/wolf_e.pdf) (accessed April 13, 2010).

### 4.3 Main Issues

#### 4.3.1 Systemic and Institutional Issues

##### 4.3.1.1 Transboundary Water Basins

In the Americas as elsewhere, different States must share the use of the same watercourses, lakes or groundwater basins. In North America alone there are some 40 transboundary water basins;<sup>112</sup> in Latin America there are 38. Some of these adequately supply the surrounding populations, while others have become a source of tension.

Over the years a number of countries have entered into management agreements concerning common water reserves, while other States have engaged in litigation.<sup>113</sup> The lack of precision of international law in matters of water management, particularly as regards the rights and obligations of each State, is largely responsible for these conflicts. Indeed, a number of contradictory doctrines of international law have been invoked in court by different countries over the years. To take but one example, the principle of absolute territorial sovereignty, which stipulates that a State may use the water on its territory however it sees fit, is potentially in contradiction with the principle of responsibility towards States downstream which have the right to a predetermined level of flow.<sup>114</sup> The rights and obligations of each State are sometimes imprecise and contradictory, and the problem is made even more serious by divergent national interests which change with the context.

##### 4.3.1.2 Agricultural, Industrial and Domestic Needs

Agricultural, industrial and domestic needs make up the three main sectors of freshwater use in the Americas. Appendix 7 gives the breakdown of water use in the three sectors. Internationally, 70% of the water consumed by people is used in agriculture. Accordingly, “agricultural water use needs to be part of an integrated approach [and it is important to provide] the agricultural sector with the right signals to increase efficiency in water use or to modify production patterns”.<sup>115</sup> Among the ways sustainable water management may be achieved are improving irrigation techniques and growing crops that are better adapted to the climate.

Irrigation and agricultural pollution may thus be a cause of tension between all users of a water basin. Similarly, industrial water use can cause a gradual drying-up of reserves in certain regions, making access to drinking water for domestic purposes more difficult and more costly.

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112 A river or lake basin is the area bounded by the watersheds of a system of streams and rivers that flow towards the same outlet. In the case of rivers, this is generally the sea, but may be an inland water body, such as a lake or swamp. A groundwater basin or aquifer is a discrete body of underground water. GLOBAL WATER PARTNERSHIP, *A Handbook for Integrated Water Resources Management in Basins*, 2009, p. 9, <http://www.iowater.org/IMG/pdf/GWP-INBOHandbookForIWRMinBasins-3.pdf> (accessed March 15, 2010).

113 Catherine DROUIN, *Ressources d'eau transfrontalière d'Amérique du Nord : Succès et limites de la gestion commune*, Centre d'études interaméricaines, May 2007, p. 2, [http://www.cei.ulaval.ca/fileadmin/cei/documents/Actualite\\_des\\_relations\\_interamericaines/Articles\\_et\\_thematiques/Chroniques/CEI\\_CD\\_Eau\\_avr2007.pdf](http://www.cei.ulaval.ca/fileadmin/cei/documents/Actualite_des_relations_interamericaines/Articles_et_thematiques/Chroniques/CEI_CD_Eau_avr2007.pdf) (accessed March 4, 2010).

114 Frédéric LASSERRE, *op.cit.*, pp. 227–230.

115 OECD, *op. cit.*, p. 18.

#### 4.3.1.3 Infrastructures

In many regions of the world, drinking water purification and distribution infrastructures are in a fairly advanced state of decay. Infrastructure deterioration or obsolescence can result in significant waste. It is estimated that in industrialized countries water leakage from infrastructure networks accounts for 40% of the water entering those systems; for developing countries, the estimate is 50%.<sup>116</sup> Given that some of the water lost has likely undergone purification, the costs of such waste are not exclusively environmental. Reducing such leakage implies, to be sure, that significant investments be made in infrastructures and in the development of more efficient technologies.

Over the years, some States have depended more on the private sector to invest in the collecting, purification and distribution of drinking water. While this solution has certain advantages, it also has pitfalls both financial and political. However, the purpose of this document is not to promote one approach over another. What must be recognized is that the need for further investment exists in both industrialized and developing countries.

For example, it is estimated that to achieve the Millennium Goal with regard to clean drinking water, it will be necessary to invest, on a global scale, US\$18 billion per year. This is double the amount currently spent per year worldwide.<sup>117</sup>

#### 4.3.1.4 Collaborative Management

The growing scarcity of fresh water has given rise to litigation and crises of various kinds, both locally and internationally. Most often this happens when a user decides unilaterally to make use of a water reserve in a certain way. Such is the case, for example, when an industry upstream decides to harness or pollute a waterway already being used for domestic purposes by a population downstream. Over the years a fair number of internal confrontations have been provoked by this type of situation, and no continent has been spared.

In the past 40 years, some States, looking for ways of ensuring perpetuity of the resource and of avoiding disputes and litigation between users, have opted for an integrated approach to water management. The Global Water Partnership defines this type of management as “a process that promotes the co-ordinated development and management of water, land and related resources, in order to maximise the resultant economic and social welfare in an equitable manner without compromising the sustainability of vital ecosystems”.<sup>118</sup> For its part, the OECD notes that “integrated water resources management is a holistic approach that aims to reconcile competing requirements through a negotiated process that will inevitably require trade-offs between economic sector users, and between these users and social and environmental concerns”.<sup>119</sup>

The objectives of these organizations are to “mitigate the impacts of natural hazards, supply water for productive purposes (agriculture, industry, energy, transport, tourism, fishing, etc.), supply water for social purposes (health and domestic services) and protect the environment. They must, therefore, manage conflicts on water resource issues between many different users”.<sup>120</sup>

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116 Frédéric LASSERRE, *op. cit.*, pp. 15–16.

117 OECD, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

118 GLOBAL WATER PARTNERSHIP AND INTERNATIONAL NETWORK OF BASIN ORGANIZATIONS, *A Handbook for Integrated Water Resources Management in Basins*, 2009, p. 18, <http://www.iowater.org/IMG/pdf/GWP-INBOHandbookForIWRMinBasins-3.pdf> (accessed March 5, 2010).

119 OECD, *op. cit.*, p. 18.

120 GLOBAL WATER PARTNERSHIP AND INTERNATIONAL NETWORK OF BASIN ORGANIZATIONS, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

In the Americas, dispute-resolution bodies have been set up. Canada and the United States created the International Joint Commission, and the U.S. and Mexico settle their differences through the International Boundary and Water Commission. Lastly, the Council of Great Lakes Governors brings together representatives from Ontario, Québec and eight American States in the Great Lakes region. The mission of this body is to address the challenges of sustainable development through co-operative action.

#### 4.3.2 Environmental Issues

##### 4.3.2.1 Climate Change

In the course of the Talks on the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, held in November 2009, UN-Water pointed out that water is the primary medium through which climate change influences the Earth's ecosystems and thus people's livelihoods and well-being. Water-related climate change impacts are already being felt. Climate change, whether manifesting itself as a significant lowering of water reserves, changes in the geographical distribution of water, or changes in rainfall and drought patterns, has an enormous impact on the way we live. And the poor are likely to be the most affected.<sup>121</sup>

In Latin America and the Caribbean, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) projects that between 12 and 81 million people in 2025, and between 79 and 178 million in 2055, will suffer the adverse effects of water shortages caused by climate change.<sup>122</sup>

The IPCC is further projecting that climate change will cause significant reductions in North American water reserves in the future. Changes in the geographical distribution of water and in precipitation can also be expected. Consequently, extensive flooding and drought will oblige stakeholders to re-evaluate their agricultural and hydro power-production models.<sup>123</sup> In South America, some communities depend on glaciers for their water. If these glaciers melt faster than predicted before disappearing altogether, the future of the people who depend on them is likely to be precarious. These are but a few examples of the effects of climate change.

Given these prospects, long-term planning is needed with regard to the effects of climate change on the availability of drinking water. A number of initiatives can be implemented to help reduce the effects of climate change. These include rethinking agricultural crop choices, providing infrastructures for the retention and storage of water, and reducing water consumption.

##### 4.3.2.2 Pollution

Scarce as it already is in some regions, water is also threatened by pollution. Many countries have passed legislation aimed at protecting lakes, rivers and ground water from industrial, agricultural and human waste. The Convention on the Protection and Use of Transboundary Watercourses and International Lakes in Europe (Helsinki, 1992) is an example of an agreement that protects water from pollution. The agreement underlies such ideas as the "polluter pays" principle and the principle whereby "water resources must be managed so that the needs of the present generation are met without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs".<sup>124</sup>

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121 UN-WATER, *Climate change adaptation is mainly about water...*, 2009, p. 1, [http://www.unwater.org/downloads/UNWclimatechange\\_EN.pdf](http://www.unwater.org/downloads/UNWclimatechange_EN.pdf) (accessed March 5, 2010).

122 UN, *op. cit.*, p. 75.

123 Catherine DROUIN, *op. cit.*, pp. 8–9.

124 GLOBAL WATER PARTNERSHIP AND INTERNATIONAL NETWORK OF BASIN ORGANIZATIONS, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

In Argentina, for example, Act 2797 prohibits the discharge of untreated liquids and the dumping or discharge of waste water and toxic industrial waste into streams and rivers without first submitting them to an effective purification procedure. In Costa Rica, the Regulation instituting the “Canon ambiental por vertidos” is based on the “polluter pays” principle. The fine is determined on the basis of the per-kilogram cost of removing the contaminant, or on the basis of the damage caused by pollution of the water. In Québec, the *Act to affirm the collective nature of water resources and provide for increased water resource protection* aims, among other things, at preventing damage to water resources, and allows the Attorney General to require a polluter to repair ecological damage or to pay compensation. In addition, the Act declares water in Québec a common good and recognizes every person’s right to safe water.<sup>125</sup> These are just a few of the initiatives taken by States in the Americas.

Such conventions or agreements will be increasingly necessary if we are to effectively protect the environment and its water resources.

#### 4.4 Approaches and Avenues of Action for Parliamentarians

A number of measures can be taken to preserve the quality of water and make sure it is accessible to present and future generations. The following are a few examples of the approaches and avenues of action that may be adopted by parliamentarians to achieve the objectives outlined in this section. This list will certainly be improved on and expanded by COPA member parliamentarians.

##### 4.4.1 Legislative Action

COPA parliamentarians could

- Support the implementation of legislation and policies that grant a status to water, protect water resources and comply with the broad principles of sustainable development with regard to aquatic environments, reparations, management by groundwater basin, and governance.<sup>126</sup>
- Adopt legislative frameworks to combat climate change, protect water resources, and restore riverbanks, shorelines and wetlands.
- Prohibit or regulate the use of water for commercial purposes.
- Pass laws that recognize every person’s right to safe drinking water, protect all ecosystems and acknowledge their dependency on water.

##### 4.4.2 Monitoring the Government

COPA parliamentarians could

- Question governments as to the state of water purification and distribution infrastructures.
- Call upon governments to comply with water legislation and international conventions on water.
- Ensure that governments provide the population with an adequate supply of drinking water.

125 THE PARLIAMENTARIAN, “Third reading: Quebec”, *The Parliamentarian*, Issue 3, 2009, p. 283.

126 Alexandre BRUN, “Les objectifs, principes et éléments de débat” in Alexandre BRUN and Frédéric LASSERRE (editors), *Politiques de l’eau, grands principes et réalités sociales*, Presses de l’Université du Québec, 2006, p. 5.

- Call upon governments to upgrade or build infrastructures for the purification, distribution and storage of drinking water.
- Call upon governments to create and fund management bodies or commissions composed of the main water users.
- Work towards establishing an institutionalized communications system with other States which withdraw water from the same transboundary basin.
- Ensure that governments set up programs to inventory and correct pollution-causing agricultural and industrial practices, and to enable farmers to improve their irrigation systems in order to use less water.

#### *4.4.3 Public Representation and Public Issues*

COPA parliamentarians could

- Promote integrated, collaborative management of the resource by groundwater basin.
- Make sure the public is systematically consulted on water issues.
- Encourage public participation in water management bodies.
- Foster discussion and collaboration with the agricultural and industrial sectors.
- Raise public awareness about water issues and the importance of reducing water consumption.
- Encourage research and data collection on the state of water resources.
- Make a list of potentially problematic situations related to climate change.

## CONCLUSION

Now that the four themes, the proposed objectives and the related avenues of actions have been set out, parliamentarians are being called upon to continue their reflection and work together to meet these major challenges, which all the peoples of the Americas must face.

In the coming years, the themes chosen will be at the heart of COPA's efforts. By working together to improve the health of children, further the education of young people, defend the rights of women and preserve our resources, we can only enhance the well-being and living conditions of our fellow citizens and, by the same token, bring the people and their elected officials closer together.

Since the four themes know no frontiers and are common to all the States of the Americas, collaboration is the surest road to success. Parliamentarians can help each other solve the problems they have in common, find inspiration in successful experiences that would prove innovative in their own ridings, propose insightful resolutions, or simply learn more about a social issue that is vital to future development.

Their commitment must be made in light of an objective common to all COPA parliamentarians, namely, to place citizens at the center of their actions, and help all the people of the Americas make a better life for themselves and reach their full potential. This mission will be successful only if all the parliamentarians of the Americas work tirelessly and cooperatively to meet these challenges, which reach beyond their respective borders.



**APPENDIX 1**  
**Under-five children mortality rate per 1,000 live births<sup>127</sup>**

<b>Children under five mortality rate per 1,000 live births</b>					
<b>Last updated: 14 Jul. 2009</b>					
<b>Country</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>1995</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2005</b>	<b>2007</b>
Antigua and Barbuda		21	15	12	11
Argentina	29	25	21	18	16
Bahamas	29	24	19	15	13
Barbados	17	15	13	12	12
Belize	43	32	29	26	25
Bolivia	125	105	84	65	57
Brasil	58	42	32	24	22
Canada	8	7	6	6	6
Chile	21	14	11	10	9
Colombia	35	31	26	22	20
Costa Rica	18	16	14	12	11
Cuba	13	10	8	7	7
Dominica	18	17	16	13	11
Ecuador	57	43	32	25	22
El Salvador	60	46	35	27	24
Grenada	37	33	26	21	19
Guatemala	82	64	53	43	39
Guyana	88	79	70	63	60
Haïti	152	141	109	84	76
Honduras	58	49	39	28	24
Jamaica	33	33	32	31	31
México	46	37	29	23	21
Nicaragua	68	53	43	37	35
Panamá	34	30	26	24	23
Paraguay	41	37	33	30	29
Perú	78	65	40	24	20
República Dominicana	66	45	37	37	38
Saint Lucia	21	22	16	18	18
Saint Kitts and Nevis	36	30	25	20	18
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	22	22	24	19	19
Suriname	51	47	38	31	29
Trinidad and Tobago	34	34	34	35	35
United States of America	11	10	8	8	8
Uruguay	25	20	17	15	14
Venezuela	32	28	24	21	19

127 UNITED NATIONS, United Nations Statistics Division, *Millennium Development Goals Indicators*, 2009, <http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx> (accessed January 18, 2010).

**APPENDIX 2**  
**Growth in population aged 25 and over with secondary school diplomas in certain Latin America countries<sup>128</sup>**

Country	Year	Proportion of population aged 25 to 49 who completed secondary school or higher (%)	Proportion of population aged 50 or over who completed secondary school or higher (%)	Proportion of population aged 25 or over who completed secondary school or higher (%)
Argentina (urban areas only)	2000	48.3	27.5	39.7
	2006	52.5	30.0	45.5
Bolivia	2000	34.8	19.0	30.0
	2005	40.5	19.1	33.2
Brasil	2001	37.7	19.4	31.9
	2006	38.7	27.9	34.5
Colombia	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
	2006	45.1	21.8	36.9
Costa Rica	2000	29.8	14.6	25.2
	2005	35.8	20.7	30.9
Chile	2000	53.8	24.7	43.6
	2006	60.0	32.1	48.8
Ecuador	2001	38.8	17.4	31.8
	2006	41.5	19.7	33.2
El Salvador	2000	27.2	9.5	20.6
	2006	31.8	11.0	24.4

128 SITEAL, *La escuela y los adolescentes, Informe sobre tendencias sociales y educativas en América Latina, 2008*, p. 166, 2008, <http://www.siteal.iipe-oei.org/informetendencias/downloads/2008/AnexoEstadistico.pdf> (accessed January 27, 2010).

Country	Year	Proportion of population aged 25 to 49 who completed secondary school or higher (%)	Proportion of population aged 50 or over who completed secondary school or higher (%)	Proportion of population aged 25 or over who completed secondary school or higher (%)
Guatemala	2001	13.7	5.2	11.0
	2006	15.7	8.3	13.3
Honduras	2001	17.2	8.7	14.3
	2006	18.4	8.9	15.4
México	2000	23.3	10.1	19.1
	2006	33.3	17.2	28.0
Nicaragua	2001	20.9	6.2	16.5
	2005	24.1	8.5	18.9
Panamá	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
	2006	47.4	27.2	40.1
Paraguay	2000	28.3	10.7	22.6
	2006	29.3	14.4	24.0
Perú	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
	2006	47.4	21.7	37.6
Uruguay	2001 (urban areas only)	34.0	17.0	26.0
	2006	32.6	19.6	26.2

### APPENDIX 3

#### Public investment in education <sup>129</sup>

Country	Public investment in education (% of GDP) (most recent year available)	Proportion of government expenditure in education (% (most recent year available)
Antigua and Barbuda	3.9 (2002)	n/a
Argentina	4.5 (2006)	14.0 (2006)
Bahamas	3.6 (2000)	16.0 (2000)
Barbados	6.7 (2008)	15.7 (2008)
Belize	5.1 (2007)	18.1 (2003)
Bolivia	6.3 (2006)	18.1 (2003)
Brasil	5.0 (2006)	16.2 (2006)
Canada	4.9 (2005)	12.5 (2001)
Chile	3.4 (2007)	18.2 (2007)
Colombia	3.9 (2008)	14.9 (2008)
Costa Rica	5.0 (2008)	22.8 (2008)
Cuba	13.3 (2007)	18.5 (2008)
Dominica	4.8 (2008)	11.3 (2008)
Ecuador	1.0 (2001)	n/a
El Salvador	3.6 (2008)	13.1 (2007)
Grenada	5.2 (2003)	12.9 (2003)
Guatemala	3.0 (2007)	n/a
Guayana	6.1 (2007)	12.5 (2007)
Haiti	n/a	n/a
Honduras	n/a	n/a
Jamaica	5.5 (2007)	8.8 (2005)
México	4.8 (2006)	25.6 (2004)
Nicaragua	3.1 (2003)	15.2 (2002)
Panamá	3.8 (2008)	18.0 (2008)
Paraguay	4.0 (2004)	10.0 (2004)
Perú	2.5 (2007)	16.4 (2007)
República Dominicana	2.2 (2007)	11.0 (2007)
Saint Kitts and Nevis	9.9 (2005)	12.7 (2003)
Saint Lucia	6.3 (2008)	12.9 (2008)
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	7.0 (2007)	16.1 (2005)
Suriname	n/a	n/a
Trinidad and Tobago	4.2 (2002)	13.4 (2001)
United States of America	5.7 (2006)	14.8 (2006)
Uruguay	2.8 (2006)	11.6 (2006)
Venezuela	3.7 (2007)	11.8 (2000)

129 UNESCO INSTITUTE FOR STATISTICS, Table 19: Finance Indicators by ISCED level, UNESCO, 2010, <http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/TableViewer/tableView.aspx> (accessed March 30, 2010).

**APPENDIX 4**  
**Wage gap between urban men and women aged 20 to 49**  
**who work 35 hours a week or more<sup>130</sup>**

Country	Year	Wage gap (%)
Argentina	1999	11.3
	2006	15.3
Bolivia	1999	20.6
	2007	21.9
Brasil	2001	25.4
	2008	22.0
Chile	2000	23.3
	2006	17.0
Colombia	1999	13.1
	2005	11.1
Costa Rica	1999	15.1
	2008	11.2
El Salvador	2001	10.0
	2004	11.5
Ecuador	1999	7.7
	2008	6.7
Guatemala	2002	17.6
	2006	16.6
Honduras	1999	23.3
	2007	8.6
México	2000	28.3
	2008	18.5
Nicaragua	2001	17.0
	2005	11.7
Panamá	1999	11.6
	2007	9.5
Paraguay	2000	15.2
	2008	20.9
Perú	2001	18.1
	2008	28.8
Republica Dominicana	2002	13.4
	2008	23.9
Uruguay	1999	23.3
	2008	20.2
Venezuela	1999	8.0
	2008	5.2

130 DIVISIÓN DE ESTADÍSTICA Y PROYECCIONES ECONÓMICAS, *Anuario Estadístico de América Latina y el Caribe*, Table 1.7.1 *Relación de salarios entre los Géneros, según años de estudios aprobados*, 2009, [http://websie.eclac.cl/anuario\\_estadistico/anuario\\_2009/esp/default.asp](http://websie.eclac.cl/anuario_estadistico/anuario_2009/esp/default.asp) (accessed February 16, 2010).

**APPENDIX 5**  
**Growth of population with sustainable access to improved drinking water by country**  
**of the Americas (%)<sup>131</sup>**

Country	Urban		Rural		Total	
	1990	2004	1990	2004	1990	2004
Antigua and Barbuda	n/a	95	n/a	89	n/a	91
Argentina	n/a	98	n/a	80	n/a	96
Bahamas	98	98	75	86	90	97
Barbados	100	100	100	100	100	100
Belize	95	100	53	82	74	91
Bolivia	76	95	30	68	53	85
Brasil	95	96	61	57	87	90
Canada	n/a	100	n/a	99	n/a	100
Chile	n/a	100	n/a	58	n/a	95
Colombia	87	99	82	71	86	93
Costa Rica	n/a	100	n/a	92	n/a	97
Cuba	100	95	91	78	98	91
Dominica	n/a	100	n/a	90	n/a	97
Ecuador	63	97	44	89	55	94
El Salvador	87	94	15	70	47	84
Grenada	n/a	97	n/a	93	n/a	95
Guatemala	92	99	43	92	62	95
Guyana	100	83	71	83	81	83
Haiti	56	52	35	56	41	54
Honduras	85	95	48	81	64	87
Jamaica	n/a	98	n/a	88	n/a	93
México	94	100	n/a	87	69	97
Nicaragua	n/a	90	n/a	63	n/a	79
Panamá	n/a	99	n/a	79	n/a	90
Paraguay	61	99	9	68	34	86
Perú	68	89	24	65	55	83
República Dominicana	82	97	45	91	67	95
Saint Kitts and Nevis	n/a	99	n/a	99	n/a	100
Saint Lucia	n/a	98	n/a	98	n/a	98
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	n/a	n/a	n/a	93	n/a	n/a
Suriname	n/a	98	n/a	73	n/a	92
Trinidad and Tobago	100	92	88	88	96	91
United States of America	n/a	100	n/a	100	n/a	100
Uruguay	100	100	n/a	100	89	100
Venezuela	n/a	85	36	70	n/a	83

131 Peter GLEICK, *The World's Water 2008-2009, The Biennial Report on Freshwater Resources*, Island Press, Washington D.C., 2009, pp. 215–217, [http://books.google.ca/books?id=wd-s1FB7VEC&printsec=frontcover&dq=Peter+Gleick,+biennial+report&source=bl&ots=Ex3FhKlqVM&sig=dgdEuzRG3iUBNisFsAxN3Gd5wmo&hl=fr&ei=y-aPS7ywFcOUTgedwcm5Cw&sa=X&oi=book\\_result&ct=result&resnum=3&ved=0CBMQ6AEwAg#v=onepage&q=&f=false](http://books.google.ca/books?id=wd-s1FB7VEC&printsec=frontcover&dq=Peter+Gleick,+biennial+report&source=bl&ots=Ex3FhKlqVM&sig=dgdEuzRG3iUBNisFsAxN3Gd5wmo&hl=fr&ei=y-aPS7ywFcOUTgedwcm5Cw&sa=X&oi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=3&ved=0CBMQ6AEwAg#v=onepage&q=&f=false) (accessed March 4, 2010).

**APPENDIX 6**  
**Available water resources and freshwater**  
**withdrawal, by country**<sup>132</sup>

Country	Annual resources available		Withdrawals		
	Year	km <sup>3</sup> /year	Year	Total (km <sup>3</sup> /year)	Per capita (m <sup>3</sup> /year)
Antigua and Barbuda	2000	0.1	1990	0.0005	63
Argentina	2000	814	2000	29.19	753
Bahamas	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Barbados	2003	0.1	2000	0.09	333
Belize	2000	18.6	2000	0.15	556
Bolivia	2000	622.5	2000	1.44	157
Brasil	2000	8,233	2000	59.3	318
Canada	1985	3,300	1996	44.72	1,386
Chile	2000	922	2000	12.55	770
Colombia	2000	2,132	2000	10.71	235
Costa Rica	2000	112.4	2000	2.68	619
Cuba	2000	38.1	2000	8.2	728
Dominica	n/a	n/a	1996	0.02	213
Ecuador	2000	432	2000	16.98	1,283
El Salvador	2001	25.2	2000	1.28	186
Grenada	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Guatemala	2000	111.3	2000	2.01	160
Guyana	2000	241	2000	1.64	2,187
Haïti	2000	14.0	2000	0.99	116
Honduras	2000	95.9	2000	0.86	119
Jamaica	2000	9.4	2000	0.41	155
México	2000	457.2	2000	78.22	731
Nicaragua	2000	196.7	2000	1.3	237
Panamá	2000	148	2000	0.82	254
Paraguay	2000	336	2000	0.49	80
Perú	2000	1,913	2000	20.13	720
República Dominicana	2000	21.0	2000	3.39	381
Saint Kitts and Nevis	2000	0.2	n/a	n/a	n/a
Saint Lucia	n/a	n/a	1997	0.01	81
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	n/a	n/a	1995	0.01	83
Suriname	2003	122	2000	067	1,489
Trinidad and Tobago	2000	3.8	2000	0.31	237
United States of America	1985	3,069	2000	477	1,600
Uruguay	2000	139	2000	3.15	910
Venezuela	2000	1,233.2	2000	8.37	313

<sup>132</sup> Peter GLEICK, *op. cit.*, pp. 198 and 205–207.

**APPENDIX 7**  
**Use of freshwater in the Americas<sup>133</sup>**

Country	Year	Domestic (%)	Industrial (%)	Agricultural (%)
Antigua and Barbuda	2000	60	20	20
Argentina	2000	17	9	74
Bahamas	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Barbados	2000	60	20	20
Belize	2000	7	73	20
Bolivia	2000	13	7	81
Brasil	2000	20	18	62
Canada	196	20	69	12
Chile	2000	11	25	64
Colombia	2000	50	4	46
Costa Rica	2000	29	17	53
Cuba	2000	19	12	69
Dominica	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Ecuador	2000	12	5	82
El Salvador	2000	25	16	80
Grenada	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Guatemala	2000	6	13	2.01
Guyana	2000	2	1	98
Haiti	2000	5	1	94
Honduras	2000	8	12	80
Jamaica	2000	34	17	49
México	2000	17	5	77
Nicaragua	2000	15	2	83
Panamá	2000	67	5	28
Paraguay	2000	20	8	71
Perú	2000	8	10	82
República Dominicana	2000	32	2	66
Saint Kitts and Nevis	2000	0,2	n/a	n/a
Saint Lucia	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Suriname	2000	4	3	93
Trinidad and Tobago	2000	68	26	6
United States of America	1985	13	46	41
Uruguay	2000	2	1	96
Venezuela	2000	6	7	47

133 Peter GLEICK, *op. cit.*, pp. 205–207.

## A FEW REFERENCES...

### ...ON CHILD MORTALITY

#### UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Français: <http://www.undp.org/french/>  
Español: <http://www.undp.org/spanish/>  
English: <http://www.undp.org/>

#### THE WORLD BANK

Français: <http://www.banquemondiale.org/>  
Español: <http://www.bancomundial.org/>  
English: <http://www.worldbank.org/>

#### WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION

Français: <http://www.who.int/mdg/fr/index.html>  
Español: <http://www.who.int/mdg/es/index.html>  
English: <http://www.who.int/mdg/en/index.html>

#### PAN AMERICAN HEALTH ORGANIZATION

English & Español: <http://new.paho.org/>

#### UN MILLENNIUM PROJECT

English: <http://www.unmillenniumproject.org/index.htm>

#### UNICEF

Français: <http://www.unicef.org/french/mdg/>  
Español: <http://www.unicef.org/spanish/mdg/>  
English: <http://www.unicef.org/mdg/>

#### SAVE THE CHILDREN

English: <http://www.savethechildren.org/>

#### ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Français: <http://www.eclac.cl/default.asp?idioma=FR>  
Español: <http://www.eclac.cl/>  
English: <http://www.eclac.cl/default.asp?idioma=IN>

#### INTER-AMERICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK

Français: <http://www.iadb.org/index.cfm?lang=fr>  
Español: <http://www.iadb.org/index.cfm?lang=es>  
English: <http://www.iadb.org/index.cfm?lang=en>  
Português: <http://www.iadb.org/index.cfm?lang=pt>

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**...ON THE GENDER WAGE GAP****INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION****Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean**Français: <http://www.ilo.org/global/lang--fr/index.htm>Español: <http://www.ilo.org/global/lang--es/index.htm>English: <http://www.ilo.org/global/lang--en/index.htm>**ORGANIZACIÓN DE ESTADOS IBEROAMERICANOS PARA LA EDUCACIÓN, LA CIENCIA Y LA CULTURA**

Offices throughout the territory:

<http://www.oei.es/sedes.htm>Español: <http://www.oei.es/index.php>Português: <http://www.oeibrpt.org/>**INTER-PARLIAMENTARY UNION**Français: <http://www.ipu.org/french/home.htm>English: <http://www.ipu.org/english/home.htm>**ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (ECLAC)****Gender Equality Observatory for Latin America and the Caribbean**Français: <http://www.cepal.org/oig/default.asp?idioma=FR>Español: <http://www.cepal.org/oig/>English: <http://www.cepal.org/oig/default.asp?idioma=IN>Português: <http://www.cepal.org/oig/default.asp?idioma=PR>**TRADE UNION CONFEDERATION OF THE AMERICAS (TUCA)**Français, español & English: <http://www.ituc-csi.org/>**UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT FUND FOR WOMEN (UNIFEM)**English: <http://www.unifem.org/>**NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON PAY EQUITY**English: <http://www.pay-equity.org/index.html>**INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN'S POLICY RESEARCH**English: <http://www.iwpr.org/index.cfm>

**...ON THE PROTECTION OF WATER RESOURCES****UN-WATER**

unwater@un.org

English: <http://www.unwater.org/flashindex.html>

**FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS**

Français: [http://www.fao.org/index\\_fr.htm](http://www.fao.org/index_fr.htm)

Español: [http://www.fao.org/index\\_es.htm](http://www.fao.org/index_es.htm)

English: <http://www.fao.org/>

**WORLD RESOURCES INSTITUTE**

English: <http://www.wri.org/>

**INTERAMERICAN WATER RESOURCES NETWORK**

iwrn.secretariat@gmail.com

Español: <http://www.iwrn.net/es/principal.html?pg=sitemap>

English: <http://www.iwrn.net/en/principal.html?pg=sitemap>

**UNITED NATIONS ENVIRONMENT PROGRAMME**

Français: <http://www.unep.org/french/>

English: <http://www.unep.org/>

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