This second issue of "Education for All: Status and Trends" focuses on the interactions between basic education and certain demographic and socioeconomic phenomena. It examines significant correlations between selected indicators and the trends in those indicators over a decade or more. It also presents projections of certain indicators to the year 2000. The introduction examines the impact of population dynamics on basic education, the impact of basic education on population, and the impact of basic education on development. The first section examines the impact of population dynamics on basic education, specifically, school-age population, school dependency ratios, population structure by age group, teacher requirements, the adult illiterate population, and educational finance. Section 2 presents data that illustrate the impact of basic education on population dynamics, including age at first marriage, fertility, child mortality, life expectancy, and rural-urban migration. The third section describes the interaction among basic education, population, and development, specifically, per capita income, employment, agricultural productivity, and reduction of gender inequities. Twenty-one figures and 3 tables present selected educational demographics and socioeconomic indicators for 96 developing countries. Annexes contain a list of countries by geographic region, a glossary, and notes on data. (LMI)
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This second issue of Education for All: Status & Trends focuses on the interactions between basic education and certain demographic and socio-economic phenomena. It examines significant correlations between selected indicators and the trends in those indicators over a decade or more.

It also presents projections of certain indicators to the year 2000, based on the assumption that current trends will continue.
Of course correlations do not in themselves establish causality. Do countries develop more quickly as the level of education of the population rises, or does educational provision increase as countries develop? Probably each effect is also a cause of the other, but within a complex set of still other interrelating factors.

For the sake of brevity and clarity, most indicators used are aggregate figures for entire groups of countries (see Annex 1 for the composition of regions), which unfortunately hide the considerable variation among and also within countries. Similarly, several statements in the text, while valid generalizations, would need to be carefully qualified in a scholarly publication.

Why this particular focus now? The international community is constantly setting development goals, examining policy options to achieve them, and then reviewing progress. These goals often affect how development is pursued and influence the allocation of national resources and external aid. The World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, March 1990) was one such occasion and put the spotlight, for a brief moment, on the importance of meeting the basic learning needs of all children, youth and adults. The World Declaration on Education for All adopted by the Conference makes clear that basic education for all is necessary first as a human right, but also for the full development of society, as well as of the individual.

Three major conferences devoted to other important development issues are being organized in 1994-1995: the International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 5-13 September 1994); the World Summit on Social Development (Copenhagen, 6-12 March 1995); and the 4th World Conference on Women: Action for Equality, Development and Peace (Beijing, 4-15 September 1995). The themes of these conferences are interlinked, and many of the concerns they address are also concerns of educators. Basic education, while certainly no panacea, obviously must be part of any viable human development policy, so the modest aim of this report is to highlight several ways through which basic education contributes to human development.

MICHAEI LAKIN

Executive Secretary
International Consultative Forum on Education for All
Introduction

Population is a general factor that impinges on the development of a society and on its education system in particular.

However, this is not a one-way process. Development and education in turn impact on a population and on population dynamics.
The poverty found in countries with a high population growth rate is liable to mask the fact that population is both a source of development as well as a curb on it. Indeed, there is a tendency to highlight the negative aspect. Of course, when the population is too large in relation to available resources, or when it increases too rapidly, per capita income declines, employment opportunities decrease, urban problems are exacerbated, the environment deteriorates and the costs of schooling rise. However, the population is also the source of manpower, creativity and production. It is essential therefore to consider the impact of both population on education and education on population. These points are covered in detail in the study which follows; only the key aspects are mentioned here.

**IMPACT OF POPULATION DYNAMICS ON BASIC EDUCATION**

The total size of the population, its composition by age and by sex, its growth rate and migratory movements are the main factors that determine the demand for schooling and how that demand evolves. However, they do not operate alone: political factors (a government may give higher priority to the army than to education), economic factors (growth improves the possibilities of funding), social factors (the demand for education varies with social class) and international factors (receipt or lack of foreign aid) also play a part. In addition, the duration of compulsory schooling affects the number of pupils enrolled.

An initial distinction must be drawn between developed countries and developing
countries. The former are, in demographic terms, "mature", meaning that their fertility and death rates are low, as is their population growth rate, while the proportion of elderly people is high. The reverse is to be seen in the developing countries. Nevertheless, some developing countries have entered the third stage of demographic transition, that is, their fertility and growth rates have fallen to a level scarcely higher than that of the industrialized countries.

Among the remaining developing countries, the growth rate is very high, which means that young people represent a large proportion of the population. As a result, all other conditions being equal, these countries require proportionately high expenditure in terms of school buildings and teachers. Consequently, the poorer countries bear a heavier financial burden than do the rich countries (Fig. I).

The impact of high population growth rates is exacerbated by low per capita income levels. It has been estimated that the differences in schooling costs between countries due to their different age structure may vary by a factor of 2:1, whereas cost differences that are due to disparities in income levels may vary 20:1. In this respect as in others, the poor countries are at a disadvantage compared to the well-to-do countries.

**Figure 1: World Population: 1950-2020 (in billions)**

Source: B*
In addition to a population's growth rate, it is essential to take account of its geographical distribution and of the factors influencing that distribution. The most notable phenomenon is urbanization, partly caused (to a greater or lesser extent, depending on the country) by the exodus from rural areas.

Finally, the number of pupils enrolled is affected by various institutional factors, particularly the duration of compulsory schooling (where enforced). As the school-leaving age is raised, so higher age-groups swell the ranks of those attending school. Even where schooling is free of charge, this does not make good the loss of earnings foregone by parents who are helped by their children in the fields, at home, or in the shop. If schooling is not free, school fees make the burden even heavier for poor families.

**IMPACT OF BASIC EDUCATION ON THE POPULATION**

The effects of education on the population are of several kinds. Raising a population's level of education leads to a decline in fertility and infant mortality rates. Education helps spread knowledge about health care and nutrition, thereby enabling mothers to keep their families in better health and to care better for their children. As child mortality declines, parents no longer need, as they previously did, to have many children in order to be sure that at least a few will survive. Moreover, raising the level of education brings about a change in attitude towards certain traditions and the desired number of children. Family planning is ineffectual where women are illiterate, but it works well if they can read and write.

Adult education produces another major effect: it encourages children's education. Children who live in an illiterate environment tend very rapidly to forget what they have learned at school and to relapse into illiteracy. By contrast, dropping out is less frequent and knowledge is retained longer by those who, thanks to their families, have the opportunity to read and to maintain their acquired store of knowledge. Hence the new concept of *family literacy*", for the family is the child's first "school", from childhood through adolescence.
Through the universal spread of basic education, each new generation is born of better-educated parents, thereby producing a significant improvement from one generation to the next. In particular, the basic education of women generates considerable progress in the pre-school abilities of their children, as well as improving the efficacy of schooling by reducing absenteeism and drop-out.

**IMPACT OF BASIC EDUCATION ON DEVELOPMENT**

Basic education is not only a means of preserving culture and passing on social values; it is also one of the most important factors of social and economic development. Such development, in turn, must seek to satisfy the real needs and aspirations of the population and ensure the all-round self-fulfilment of its members.

Men and women are at the core of economic life, at once producers and consumers. Economic growth is governed directly by the two factors [labour and capital] and indirectly by the capacity for change in socio-economic structures.

"It is impossible to transform society if the great majority of adults, in their various roles as citizen, soldier, producer and parent, do not turn a critical eye upon social reality, upon phenomena of domination; no transformation is possible unless they become aware of themselves as subjects of their history; unless they strongly desire to build a better future and to assume responsibility for their own destiny. This awareness is arrived at through a process of information, explanation and education. [...] Literacy makes it possible to broaden [the] scope of action and to maintain a permanent dialogue between people and leaders, from top to bottom and from bottom upwards, as well as among people themselves." Development will be brought about through, and only through, the mobilization of all available forces, and in particular of educated and skilled human resources.

Raising the level of education serves to enhance productivity, as well as knowledge and powers of reasoning, learning and adapting to development requirements, a process which has direct repercussions on economic activity. The acquisition of literacy enables workers to cross a threshold into the world of modern technology.

Besides the effects outlined above, basic education exerts many others, less visible in temporal terms and more difficult to quantify, but no less important. Improving basic education services and raising the population's level of education helps
to broaden the exercise of civil rights and responsibilities, strengthen culture and the national heritage, build up a sense of national identity, create a better environment for international understanding, develop social communication networks and give stability to the institutions of democracy.

Thus it may be concluded that, thanks to its wide-ranging impact on the social, cultural, economic and political life of a given society, and through its direct effect on the individual's outlook, knowledge and skills, basic education serves to improve the quality of life.
It is self-evident that there is a systemic relationship between population and basic education: population is the factor that most directly affects the numbers of those for whom literacy training and schooling must be provided. In most cases, whether the drop in fertility continues at its present rate or accelerates, its effects will be felt in the medium - rather than in the short-term. In any case, the school-age population will continue to grow between now and the year 2000.
THE SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION

The population in the 6-11 age-group will increase by 100 million worldwide (from 652 to 753 million) as a result of rapid population growth in the developing regions during the 1990s. However, the number of enrolments has not been increasing at such a rapid pace for some years. The probable consequence of this will be an increase in the number of out-of-school children from 129 million in 1993 to 130 million in 1998. This age group corresponds approximately to the official school age for primary education prescribed in most countries.

Source: L.
Note: Data for 1993 and 2000 are estimated.

144 million by the year 2000, unless a major effort is made to increase the number of school places (Figure 2).

Figure 3 shows the out-of-school population by sex for each region and the projected growth between 1980 and 2000. The majority of out-of-school children are girls, and in certain regions such as South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, the proportion of girls among unenrolled children will continue to increase between now and the year 2000.

South Asia has the largest proportion of the world's population of out-of-school children in the 6-11 age-group. The situation is no less alarming for sub-Saharan Africa, where the number of out-of-school children continues to increase very rapidly. By contrast, East Asia made the greatest effort to bring down the number of out-of-school children during the 1980s.

Countries in the OECD/European group enrol virtually all school-age children. The problem facing these countries is rather the declining birth rate in some instances and occasionally the decrease in the number of school-age children in rural areas, which has meant that schools have been closed in some small villages for lack of pupils.

**School Dependency Ratios**

The school dependency ratio is the proportion of the population aged 6 to 14 in respect to the working-age population aged 15 to 64. The higher the ratio, the heavier the financial burden placed by education on the working population. Between 1980 and 2000, this ratio will decline slightly in the Arab States, South Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean and the OECD/European countries. Sub-Saharan Africa, the only region in which the dependency ratio will increase between now and the year 2000 (Fig. 4), presents the most disquieting prospect in this respect, both because the region's economy is not growing and because it has the highest rate of population growth (3.2 per cent).

**Figure 4: School Dependency Ratios: (1980-2000)**

![Bar chart showing school dependency ratios for different regions between 1980 and 2000.](chart.png)

**Population Structure by Age-Group**

Recent statistics show that in the developing countries with a rapid annual population growth rate (2.5 to 3.0 per cent) and an average life expectancy of 50 to 55 years, 1,000 working adults bear the cost of educating 480 children. Some 16 of the

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*Source: C.*
1,000 would need to be teachers in order to obtain a pupil/teacher ratio of 30:1. By contrast, in the industrialized countries, where the annual population growth rate is only 1 per cent and the average life expectancy is 75 years, the burden is far lighter: 220 pupils to 1,000 working adults, of whom only 8 are teachers.

Figure 5 shows seven selected countries having virtually the same total population (between 56 and 61 million inhabitants) in 1993, three of which are technologically advanced (France, Italy and the United Kingdom) and four are developing (Egypt, Ethiopia, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Thailand). The population in the 15-64 age-group is more or less the same in all countries. By contrast, significant differences are evident in the younger population (6-14 years), which is two to three times larger in the developing countries. A slight fall in the population of working age is also reported in the industrialized countries, resulting from the ageing of the population.

**Figure 5: Population and dependency ratios in selected countries: 1993**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total (millions)</th>
<th>Children (6-14)</th>
<th>Adults (15-64)</th>
<th>Required number of teachers per 1,000 adults</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Italy</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

A comparison of country data (not shown) suggests that the growth rate of the population aged 6 to 14 seems to be linked to the level of economic development. In three developing countries (Egypt, Ethiopia and the Islamic Republic of Iran) this rate is high (ranging from 2.58 per cent for the first to 3.85 per cent for the last); however, the one industrialized developing country (Thailand) has a negative rate (-0.68 per cent). A still more negative rate is observed in the case of the technologically developed countries, ranging from -0.73 per cent for France to -2.61 per cent for Italy.

Among the seven countries in Figure 5, the dependency ratio falls as the level of economic development rises. Thus, for every school-age child, there are two adults in one of the least developed countries (Thailand), as compared with five adults in one of the industrialized countries (Italy). As a result, the "necessary" number of teachers per 1,000 working adults is two to three times higher in the developing countries.
The number of primary school teachers in 1990 and the estimated requirements for the year 2000 for each region are shown in Figure 6. In 1990, East Asia accounted for over half the teachers in the developing world. Although that region’s share will decrease by the year 2000, the absolute number will increase. Both the proportion and the absolute number of teachers in Latin America have been declining substantially and will continue to do so between 1990 and the year 2000.

By contrast, the rapid growth of the school-age population in South Asia, sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States calls for a considerable increase in the human and financial resources allocated to primary education.
Figure 7 shows the literate and illiterate adult populations (aged 15-64) in the major regions of the world according to the situation in 1990 and forecasts for the year 2000. Worldwide, the absolute number of illiterates is expected to decline slightly, from 905.4 to 869.4 million, but the day when adult illiteracy will have totally disappeared remains distant. According to UNESCO estimates, the number of illiterates is increasing in South Asia, sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States. By the year 2000, South Asia accounts for over half (437.1 million) of the world's illiterate population. The improved economic situation in East Asia is reflected in the decline in the number of illiterates. However, such is the size of its population that this region is a long way from eradicating illiteracy, with an estimated 165.6 million illiterates in the year 2000.

The countries of OECD/Europe, and Latin America and the Caribbean are making headway, with an estimated decrease in the number of illiterate adults of 15.8 and 1.6 million respectively. It would seem, therefore, that a drop in illiteracy rates is linked to economic development and the age structure of the population.

The financing of education

A rapidly increasing school-age population necessarily entails a very high level of educational expenditure merely to maintain enrolment ratios, since classrooms must be built, teachers recruited and textbooks supplied just to keep pace with the additional pupils. When the aim is to raise the level of schooling in terms of both quantity and quality, if the required funding is not generated by a growing economy, the aim can be attained only at the expense of other sectors.

Prior to 1980, enrolment ratios at all levels (primary, secondary and higher) increased in virtually all the developing countries. Figure 8 shows that since 1980, public expenditure on education as a percentage of gross national product (GNP) remained
virtually stable in OECD/Europe, in Latin America and the Caribbean, and in South Asia, while it has increased in the Arab States and East Asia. However, it has decreased in sub-Saharan Africa, with a resulting decline in quality as measured by such indicators as the pupil/teacher ratio (which in some cases exceeds 100:1) and expenditure on equipment and supplies (textbooks, maps, chalk, etc.). Figure 9 shows that an OECD country spends on average forty times more (in dollars) per pupil than a country in sub-Saharan Africa.

The differences in quality are reflected also in learning achievement. Since throughout the world, it is primarily the poor who attend low-standard schools and leave them earlier, efforts to provide schooling for rapidly growing populations frequently contribute to widening the quality gap between rich and poor countries, as well as between regions within the latter countries.

A lower population growth rate resulting from a decline in fertility can reduce the pressure on the education system as the demand for school places lessens, thereby releasing some of the resources earmarked for education to be used to improve quality.
In the so-called developing countries, the early age of marriage and certain beliefs and customs favouring large families, coupled with increasing life expectancy, contribute to rapid population growth.
By and large, authority remains concentrated in the hands of men. As a result, the female half of the population is not free to act, even when women’s abilities and skills are sorely needed in order to end social inequalities and ensure society’s development. It cannot be expected that women in these countries will themselves take the first step, since the majority of them are illiterate or virtually uneducated.

**basic education**

**population dynamics**

The number of women who have a secondary or university education is insignificant. Furthermore, if education is understood to mean not only knowing how to read and write but also being knowledgeable about social and political matters, the number of truly educated women in many countries is infinitesimally small.

**AGE AT FIRST MARRIAGE**

In developing countries, as literacy rates for women increase, so their age at first marriage rises (Figure 10).
Literacy training for girls heavily influences their age at first marriage in sub-Saharan Africa, but has much less effect in Latin America. This difference is doubtless due to cultural and economic factors.

**Fertility**

Raising the level of female literacy facilitates women's access to information concerning contraception and planned parenthood and leads to a significant drop in fertility rates (Fig. 11).

Literacy and fertility rates are significantly related, especially in Latin America and the...
EDUCATIONAL, DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS FOR 96 DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

This section presents data on certain educational, demographic and socio-economic indicators for 96 developing countries with populations exceeding one million. The countries are grouped by major regions and are ranked within each region according to the Net Enrollment Ratio for boys in the 6-11 year age-group (column 1). See the glossary in Annex 2 for the terms used in the column headings.

The figures shown are from official sources, except the figures in light blue, which are estimates. See the notes on data in Annex 3.

Data in the first three columns give a crude snapshot of a country's basic education situation, including gender disparities, at the beginning of the 1990s. Column 4 focuses on the "illiteracy gap" between men and women, which is generally growing over time to the disadvantage of women, reflecting the slower progress made in reducing female illiteracy rates. See also Table 1 (page 34) and the accompanying discussion.

Columns 5 through 9 contain data on certain demographic and social variables that generally correlate statistically with adult literacy rates and/or mean years of schooling. Improvement in these variables is often considered a medium- or long-term outcome of education, although they are certainly influenced by other factors as well.

The final column (10) shows the GNP per capita, a very rough indication of a country's economic situation and capacity to finance education. This column reveals that some relatively poor countries nevertheless have better-than-average educational and social profiles as shown by other indicators; conversely, some countries with more economic means available have relatively poor educational and social profiles.

The final row of each regional group shows the unweighted average value for each column, except for GNP per capita (column 10) where the median value is given. For easy comparison between regions, a summary of the average values for the regions is given in the final table, which includes also those values for the "developed countries" of the OECD/Europe region.

### ARAB STATES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country by region</th>
<th>Net enrollment ratio (6-11)</th>
<th>Mean years of schooling (6-11)</th>
<th>Adult literacy (men)</th>
<th>Number of illiterate women per 1000</th>
<th>Urban illiteracy rate</th>
<th>Rural illiteracy rate</th>
<th>Life expectancy at birth (men)</th>
<th>Average age at first marriage (men)</th>
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<td>Number of illiterate people (% of population)</td>
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2.7 2.3 1.2 41.2 63.2 158.0 164.0 175.0 159.4 6.3 52.2 23.8 21.3 38 260
### SOUTH ASIA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country by region</th>
<th>Neonates (%)</th>
<th>Mean body weight at birth (kg)</th>
<th>Adult literacy rate (%)</th>
<th>Under 5 mortality rate (per 1000)</th>
<th>Life expectancy at birth (years)</th>
<th>Average rate of net population growth (per cent)</th>
<th>Women in labour force (%)</th>
<th>GNP per capita (US$)</th>
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</thead>
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<td>Sri Lanka</td>
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<td>3.1</td>
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<td>3.2</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>81.6</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>14</td>
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<tr>
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<td>SOUTH ASIA</td>
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### EAST ASIA/OCEANIA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Neonates (%)</th>
<th>Mean body weight at birth (kg)</th>
<th>Adult literacy rate (%)</th>
<th>Under 5 mortality rate (per 1000)</th>
<th>Life expectancy at birth (years)</th>
<th>Average rate of net population growth (per cent)</th>
<th>Women in labour force (%)</th>
<th>GNP per capita (US$)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Korean dem.</td>
<td>80.7</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>82.3</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>Republic</td>
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<td>92.9</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>255.3</td>
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<td>Singapore</td>
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<td>91.4</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>195.2</td>
<td>24.7</td>
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<td>110.0</td>
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<td>Indonesia</td>
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<td>92.4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Viet Nam</td>
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<td>91.4</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>6.5</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>93.1</td>
<td>3.6</td>
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<td>80.7</td>
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<td>24.7</td>
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<td>82.6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
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<td>193.2</td>
<td>24.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
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<td>24.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lao People's</td>
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<td>64.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
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<td>145.2</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>110.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Democratic</td>
<td>Republic</td>
<td>65.8</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>170.9</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>110.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Papua-New Guinea</td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td>64.1</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>110.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mongolia</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>142.1</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>110.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAST ASIA/OCEANIA</td>
<td>87.0</td>
<td>84.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>259.0</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>110.0</td>
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</table>
Caribbean, as well as in Asia and the Pacific; however, the association between the two is less significant in Africa.

**CHILD MORTALITY**

The inverse correlation between adult literacy rates and child mortality rates is highly significant (Fig. 12). These factors are indeed so closely correlated that one tends to assume a causal relationship between them and to assert that adult literacy

---

**Figure 12: Adult literacy rates (15 years and more) and under 5 mortality rates (developing countries: 1990)**

![Graph showing the inverse correlation between adult literacy rates and under 5 mortality rates.](image)

Sources: C.M.O.

---

**Figure 13: Mean years of schooling of women (25 years and more) and under 5 mortality rates (developing countries: 1990)**

![Graph showing the correlation between mean years of schooling of women and under 5 mortality rates.](image)

Sources: E.O.
is one of the major causes of the drop in child mortality, particularly among children under five. However, this correlation is slightly less significant in Africa than in other regions.

While the other factors impinging on children's health – nutrition, access to dispensaries, the family's financial circumstances, as well as the social environment, etc. – cannot be overlooked, the provision of literacy training for the parents is a sine qua non.

Figure 13 shows that even four years of schooling for women bring about a considerable decline in the mortality rate of their children. The first year of schooling is relatively more important in this respect than the years that follow.

**LIFE EXPECTANCY**

Statistics reveal that there is also a direct correlation between the average life expectancy at birth and the adult literacy rate, as well as the mean years of schooling, of a population (Figs 14 and 15).

People who have learned to read and write are more attentive to matters of hygiene and health care; they are less fatalistic and, in the event of illness, more likely to turn to a doctor. Of course, literacy is not the only factor that affects life expectancy, which is why the correlation is less marked in sub-Saharan Africa than in the Arab States and in Latin America and the Caribbean.
In the developing countries, the urban population is expanding almost twice as fast as the total population. Over half of this increase is due to natural population growth, less than half to the rural exodus to the towns and cities. Nevertheless, in the low-income Asian and African countries, the rural population continues to grow at an average annual rate of two per cent or more.
Figure 16 shows the correlation between adult literacy rates and urbanization in the developing countries. It appears that as the literacy rate increases, rural inhabitants leave their villages, migrating to the towns and city suburbs.

**Figure 16: Adult literacy rates (15 years and more) and urbanization (developing countries: 1990)**

![Graph showing the correlation between adult literacy rates and urbanization in developing countries.](image)

- $N = 88$
- $R = 0.5400$
- $R^2 = 0.2916$
- $Y_c = 9.221 + 0.5066X$

Sources: B, E, M.

Over-urbanization has a number of unwelcome effects. Those who migrate from the countryside to the towns and cities are generally the better educated young people, whose level of education makes village life - with its constraints of tradition - appear unbearable to them. As a result, the rural areas are deprived of a source of young, educated labour, a trend that exacerbates their development problems.

Moreover, the urban poor are crowded together in shantytowns and slums, where material, physical and spiritual destitution prevails and children's lives are blighted by a total lack of prospects. Investment by the state in public services (water, electricity, transport, health care and education) benefits the poor less than it does the middle and high-income classes. Over-urbanization therefore tends to accentuate the inequalities between rich and poor, and frequently leads to a decline in the quality of life of the population as a whole.

The effects of such migration on basic education are many: over-crowded schools, high repetition and drop-out rates, together with a deterioration in the quality of teaching in urban areas, and at the same time, declining enrolments and the closing down of schools in rural areas.
However, urbanization sometimes works in education's favour. In the Muslim countries, for example, the manner in which society interprets the teaching of Islam is by and large more favourable to the schooling of girls in the towns than in the countryside. In many towns and cities, girls' schooling is almost on a par with that of boys, whereas in the remote rural areas it falls well behind.

Education also affects international migratory flows. Between 1970 and 1980, immigration contributed approximately three per cent to population growth in Europe and Latin America, and less than one per cent in Asia and Africa. More serious is the emigration, for economic or political reasons, of highly educated members of society, a phenomenon commonly known as the "brain drain". The countries of origin are thereby deprived of skilled manpower (when, indeed, they do not deprive themselves of it by failing to provide suitable employment) that could have had a multiplier effect on jobs and on intellectual and material production. The recipient countries benefit from an influx of skilled workers, the cost of whose training they have not borne, and they screen would-be immigrants in accordance with their own needs, adapting their quotas to suit variations in those needs.
Illiteracy, population growth exceeding economic growth, poverty, and interaction population socio-economic inequalities are among the major obstacles to a country's development.
Improvement in the level of basic education is directly linked to that of per capita income (Fig. 17). Does an increase in per capita income cause the level of education to rise, or is it, on the contrary, education that enables the economic situation to improve? No doubt it is a two-way process. Those who have received some form of education perform more efficiently and produce work of higher quality, while economic progress makes it possible to invest more heavily in education. Underdevelopment is the consequence of the population growth rate outstripping the rate of economic development. Each year, the national income must be shared among an

**Figure 17:**
**GNP per capita and adult literacy rates (15 years and more).**
**Developing countries**
**With GNP less than US$2,000: 1990**

![Graph showing relationship between GNP per capita and adult literacy rates.](image)
ever larger population. National income is, of course, governed by the rate of produc-
tion but it is also contingent upon such other factors as natural resources. In any
case, the increase in per capita income in the developing countries is very slow and
is governed primarily by the population growth rate. This explains the ever-widening
gap between the developed and the developing countries. Table I shows the evolution of the "illiteracy index" between developed countries and developing countries from 1970 to the year 2000.

### Table 1: Number of Illiterate Adults in the Developing Countries per 100 Illiterate Adults in the Industrialized Countries

<table>
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<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate Rates (per 100)</td>
<td>882</td>
<td>954</td>
<td>1,058</td>
<td>1,873</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, in 1970, for every 100 illiterates in the industrialized countries, there were 882 in the developing countries. By the year 2000, there may be 1,873 in 1970, there were nine times as many illiterates in the developing countries as in the industrialized.
countries. By the year 2000, there may be eighteen times as many. If we compare the industrialized countries with the forty-seven Least Developed Countries (LDCs), the ratio between their respective illiteracy rates in 1970 was 1:12; by the year 2000, that ratio will be 1:34. The illiteracy gap between industrialized and developing countries (in particular the LDCs) is truly enormous and growing.

The per capita GNP of the rich countries was 11 times higher than that of the poor countries in 1970. Today, taking one example, the ratio between the mean per capita GNP of the OECD/European countries and that of South Asia is 27:1. This comparison of the mean per capita GNP of major regions conceals even greater disparities between individual countries: the ratio between the per capita GNP of a rich country such as Switzerland (US$28,000 per capita) and that of a poor country like Mozambique (US$60 per capita) rises to a staggering 467:1. A large number of countries are becoming poorer and lagging even farther behind the industrialized countries. One of the reasons for this is the former’s high rate of population growth, coupled with low or even negative economic growth.

**EMPLOYMENT**

A further consequence of rapid population growth is its impact on the labour force. High fertility rates lead to a substantial increase in the labour force 15 to 20 years later. If material and intellectual capital formation does not increase in tandem, output per worker will diminish: each will produce less, since each will use less land and less capital. Lower output will then lead to lower wages.

However, if the level of education rises rapidly, this can offset a decrease in per capita resources, provided that the older workers are replaced by young, better educated and more productive workers. Conversely, if these young workers are inexperienced and poorly educated, their productivity and consequently their wages will be lower, thereby increasing income disparities.
Furthermore, a rapid expansion of the labour force often leads to a rise in unemployment and underemployment in different forms, both overt and covert. "Invisible unemployment" is estimated to affect some 20 per cent of the labour force in Latin America and some 40 per cent in Africa, notably those working in the small trades and businesses of the so-called "informal" sector.

The growing difficulty encountered by school-leavers in finding their place in the economic and social fabric is a phenomenon that may well be related to the quality of education. The impossibility of finding a paid job that corresponds to the aspirations nurtured throughout the educational process and the inability to create a remunerative activity by and for oneself, despite all the training received, are indicators of a lack of relevance in the content and standards of education. This is reflected in Figure 18, which shows a weak correlation between mean years of schooling and activity rates.

**Figure 18: Mean Years of Schooling and Activity Rates (Male and Female) (Developing Countries: 1990)**

Sources: A, E.

\[ N = 57; \]
\[ R = -0.2218 \]
\[ R^2 = 0.0518 \]
\[ Yc = 64.6285 - 1.0848 X \]

---

**Agricultural Productivity**

As the literacy rate rises in the developing countries, agriculture's share in GNP decreases (Fig. 19). The increase in the literacy rate is an indicator of overall development, entailing a drop in the percentage share of agriculture in GNP and a rise in that of the industry and service sectors, both of which require workers with a higher level of education.

Food self-sufficiency is a priority in development plans, but it can be achieved only if the developing countries succeed, on the one hand, in limiting the growth of their population and, on the other, in improving agricultural productivity. This productivity is governed not only by climatic conditions and by the fertility of the land, but also by the availability of trained agricultural personnel.
For many developing countries, a major government objective is the "ruralization of the population", since agriculture is essential to their development. Although it is often the women who traditionally farm the land in these countries, girls are generally excluded from the agricultural training centres. Literacy training for women, accompanied by practical extension courses in farming techniques, is one key to putting this situation right.

**REDUCING GENDER INEQUITIES**

Estimates of the adult literacy rates by sex for the period 1980-2000 show that, even by the year 2000, equality between the sexes is unlikely to have been achieved in any of the five developing regions (Fig. 20). In Latin America and the Caribbean,
however, where literacy rates are already high and should exceed 90 per cent by the year 2000, the male and female literacy rates are moving steadily closer together. The gender gap still remains wide in the case of the Arab States and South Asia. When considering gender disparities, it is often instructive to examine indices, since percentages may be deceptive.

**Table 2: Evaluation of the Disparities Between Male and Female Illiteracy Rates by Region and by Year.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Gender Disparity (female minus male illiteracy rate (%))</th>
<th>Index: Number of illiterate women per 100 illiterate men (6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab States</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America/Caribbean</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia/Oceania</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asia</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2 Notes

1. The figures given here are averages of countries in each region. They differ from the regional averages shown in the chart below, which uses data for 90 countries only.

Although the disparity between male and female illiteracy rates appears to be diminishing in percentage points in most developing regions, in terms of indices it is on the increase everywhere, with the exception of Latin America/Caribbean. In three regions – East Asia/Oceania, the Arab States and South Asia – illiteracy will have become an increasingly female phenomenon by the year 2000. This is a consequence of the fact, analysed above, that the out-of-school population aged 6-11 is increasingly made up of girls.

Yet, the proportion of girls among primary school pupils world-wide rose from 44 per cent in 1980 to 47 per cent in 1990. Only two regions have failed to make progress in this regard: the Arab States, where the proportion of girls has decreased from close to 50 per cent in 1980 to only 42 per cent in...
1990, and South Asia, where no significant progress has been made. These two regions have also the lowest economic activity rates for women, 17 per cent and 25 per cent respectively, as compared with the world average of 33 per cent.

By and large, the participation rate of women in political life is not on a par with their collective level of education. Even in the industrialized countries, women occupy only nine per cent of the seats in parliament, as compared with a world average of eleven per cent. The gap between men and women in several other fields bears no relation to total female enrolment in all levels of education in a region nor to its level of economic development. Rather, such gender gaps are a cultural phenomenon.

To improve the status of women is to enhance the quality of life of everyone. The schooling of girls and women has a favourable impact upon children’s survival rate and on the health and well-being of families, since women acquire knowledge about health care and home economics that they are able to put to use in their own homes. Also, a substantial proportion of educated girls and women have jobs and play a significant role in socio-economic development.

Many developing countries are finding it difficult to maintain access to basic education, or to sustain the quality of instruction, which is already mediocre. Such countries, hard hit by the economic crisis, must contend with the compounded effects of rapid population growth and inadequate financial resources. The mediocrity of existing education systems could jeopardize efforts aiming at structural adjustment and hamper economic growth. The lack of investment in education produces shortages in well-educated human resources needed for economic development.

Conclusion
A phenomenon of "deschooling" is evident in several countries, even in some that had reached a high primary school enrolment ratio, as well as in others that, despite all their efforts, have enrolment ratios well below the 50 per cent mark. This trend is bound to worsen the disparities in access to education between urban and rural areas, between regions within countries, and between boys and girls.

The hardest-hit region is Africa, where the annual rate of increase in primary school enrolments averaged 8.4 per cent between 1970 and 1980, but fell to 1.9 per cent.
between 1980 and 1990. This modest growth rate was not sufficient to maintain enrolment ratios at a constant level, since the primary school-age population increased even faster, at an annual rate of 3.2 per cent during the decade (Fig. 21).

The burden of financing the formal education system, which may amount to 30 per cent of the state budget, is one obvious cause of the levelling off of quantitative growth. Indeed, such growth cannot be maintained in the context of the continuing crisis affecting Africa’s economies.

**Figure 21: Average annual growth rates: population and enrolment (6 to 11 years) (1980-1990 and 1990-2000)**

*Sources: 8, L.*

**Slow down population growth**

No improvement in living standards in general, and in the level of education of the population in particular, can be achieved in the developing countries unless and until a more moderate fertility rate has been secured, one that better matches their economic capacities. Thanks to its impact on the age at first marriage, the schooling of girls helps to slow down population growth and to spread better health care and nutritional practices. Teaching women to read and write helps to improve the well-being of the entire family, to reduce the fertility rate and to ensure that there is a greater demand for education for their sons and daughters.
THE PRIORITY OF BASIC EDUCATION

Basic education must be given priority because it is, above all, a human right. At the same time, it transmits the knowledge and skills needed for the community's economic and social development, as well as for the self-fulfilment of the individual. In addition to the three Rs (Reading, Writing and Arithmetic), the ability to reason, to criticize, and to seek out and use information needed for solving problems of everyday life, for improving health, productivity and living standards and for protecting the environment and the cultural heritage - these skills are all crucial to the development of the individual and of society today.

EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY

The school is a microcosm of community life. If education is to help strengthen democracy, then fairness and equity at school are essential. It is through schooling that children can be trained to lead societies along the path to pluralism, towards a more democratic way of community life, towards the recognition and exercise of the fundamental freedoms enshrined in constitutions and towards respect for human rights.
The LDCs need external assistance in order to achieve universal primary schooling and literacy training for adults. For the first time, many of these countries are reporting a decline in school enrolment ratios, a trend that once again demonstrates the importance of bringing the rate of population growth under control.

Education, as an integral part of any development process, is affected by and contributes to that process. Changes in the context and orientation of international co-operation in respect to economic and social development bring comparable changes in co-operation in education. That is why, in countries where enrolment rates are declining, it is essential that aid be channelled to support general development as well as education, which of course contributes to the future development of society in the medium- and long-term.
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Because of the time series used in this report, certain countries are listed under former names or regional groups:
- Mexico, now a member of OECD, is included here in the Latin American/Caribbean region.
- ** statistics for years after 1990 and projections concern the countries, now independent, that were formerly part of these federations.
- The Least Developed Countries.

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**Annex 2 - Glossary**

**Activity rate**: the proportion of the economically active population (15-64 years) actually involved in producing goods and services. See also labour force.

**Adult illiterate**: a person aged 15 years or over who cannot with understanding both read and write a short, simple statement about everyday life.

**Basic education**: education intended to meet basic learning needs: it includes instruction at the first or foundation level, on which subsequent learning can be based; it encompasses early childhood and primary (elementary) education for children, as well as education in literacy and numeracy, general knowledge and life skills for youth and adults; it may extend into lower secondary education in some countries.

**Birth rate**: the number of live births per 1000 population in a given year.

**Death rate** (mortality rate): the number of deaths per 1000 population in a given year.

**Demography**: the scientific study of human populations, including their size, composition, distribution, density, and growth, as well as the causes and consequences of changes in these characteristics.

**Economically active population**: see labour force.

**Estimated net enrolment in the year 2000**: projected enrolment based on the net enrolment ratios in 1990 applied to UN population estimates (medium variant) for the year 2000 for the 6-11 age-group in all countries.

**Family literacy**: the provision of literacy and education to parents, not only as an end in itself, but also, and especially, as a means for improving the scholastic performance of their children: the aim of family literacy programmes is to promote learning within the family.

**Fecundity**: the capacity of a person, a couple or a population to produce children. See also fertility rate.

**Fertility rate**: number of live births in a given year per 1000 women in the age-group 15-49 years.

**Gross enrolment ratio (GER)**: the total enrolment in primary school regardless of age. expressed as a percentage (sometimes exceeding 100%) of the population in the officially defined primary school-age group (here, 6-11). See also net enrolment ratio.

**Gross national product (GNP)**: the value of all finished goods and services produced in an economy during one year.

**Illiteracy rate**: number of illiterate adults expressed as a percentage of the total adult population (15 years or older).

**Life expectancy at birth**: estimated average life span of a generation based on the observed mortality rates in the base year.

**Literacy rate**: number of literate adults expressed as a percentage of the total adult population (15 years or more).

**Labour force (manpower)**: the economically active population (15-64 years) comprising everyone who has a job or is actively seeking one, including persons in the armed forces but excluding homemakers and other unpaid workers.

**Mean years of schooling**: the average number of years that adults (25 years or older) in a given country have attended school.

**Migration**: movement of an individual (involving a change of residence) from one region to another within a country, or between countries. rural exodus refers to migration from rural areas to urban areas.

**Net enrolment ratio (NER)**: the number of pupils in the primary school-age group (here, 6-11 years) expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age-group.

**Out-of-school children**: those in the primary school-age group (here, 6-11 years) who are not enrolled in school.

**Pupil-teacher ratio**: average number of pupils per teacher in a given country.

**Repetition rate**: number of pupils still enrolled in (repeating) the same grade as during the previous year expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment in that grade the year before.

**School-age population**: number of children in the officially defined primary school-age group (here, 6-11 years) whether enrolled in school or not.

**School dependency ratio**: population in the age-group 6-14 years (corresponding to the duration of compulsory schooling in many countries) expressed as a percentage of the population in the age-group 15-64 years (which includes the economically active population).

**Teachers needed to achieve UPE by the year 2000**: the estimated number of teachers that would be needed by the year 2000 for universal primary education (see definition below) assuming that (i) the gross enrolment ratios observed in 1990 continue unchanged to the year 2000 (regardless of changes in the school-age population) and that (ii) countries with pupil/teacher ratios greater than 50:1 in 1990 would succeed in decreasing the ratio to 50:1 by 2000; for other countries, the 1990 pupil/teacher ratio is used to estimate the number of teachers. See Figure 21.

**Under-5 mortality rate (USMR)**: the number of deaths of children under 5 years of age per 1000 live births during a year; the infant mortality rate (IMR) refers to the number of deaths of infants (less than one-year) per 1000 live births.

**Universal primary education (UPE)**: full enrolment of all children in the primary school-age group (here, 6-11 years), i.e. 100% net enrolment ratio.
Data used in the graphics and tables refer to the year indicated or to the nearest year for which data are available. The data are drawn essentially from official statistics reported to the international agencies listed below. However, official data for some indicators are not available for all countries, so other sources have been used to fill data gaps where possible. In a few cases, data presented here differ from those used in the 1993 issue of Education for All: Status and Trends due to recent reporting or revised estimates. Unless indicated otherwise, projections are based on current trends; consequently, they do not take into account the possible impact of shifts in policy and programmes that may occur in various countries.

For the table in the centre section, data on net enrolment ratios (column 1), mean years of schooling (c. 2), and adult literacy rates (c. 3) refer to 1990. Data for under-5 mortality rates (column 5), total fertility rate (c. 6), life expectancy at birth (c. 7), per cent of women in the labour force (c. 9), and GNP per capita (c. 10) refer to 1992. Data on the average age at first marriage (column 8) are for the latest year available. Figures shown in light blue are either estimates based on past trends or are drawn from national sources. Data gaps are indicated by three dots (...). The final row of each regional group shows the average value for each column, except for GNP per capita (column 10) where the median value is given.

**DATA SOURCES**

**INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE (ILO)**

**UNITED NATIONS (UN)**
D. World Resources: A guide to Global Environment, People and the Environment, New York, 1994

**UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (UNDP)**

**UNITED NATIONS POPULATION FUND (UNFPA)**

**UNESCO**

**UNICEF**

**WORLD BANK**
“Everyone has a right to education” states the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Yet today, one out of four adults in the world is illiterate and some 130 million children have no place in school.

At the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, Thailand, March 1990) — the largest-ever international gathering of governments, international agencies, professional bodies and voluntary organizations to deliberate on education issues — the world community committed itself to provide basic education for all children and adults.

In adopting the World Declaration on Education for All, the Conference affirmed that “education can help ensure a safer, healthier, more prosperous and environmentally sound world, while simultaneously contributing to social, economic, and cultural progress, tolerance, and international cooperation.”

This second report in the series highlights, through a graphic presentation of the correlations between certain indicators, several ways by which basic education contributes to human development. Comparative tables present selected educational, demographic and socio-economic indicators for 96 developing countries.