

Chapter 5

Human Resources

5.1 All forms of development are—or should be—aimed at satisfying human needs and wants. But human beings are not only the recipients of development; they are of course the creators of it as well. Only people can identify economic and social opportunities and organise activities in such a way as to satisfy human needs and desires.

5.2 Human resource development is therefore fundamental to economic and social progress. Certain basic levels of health, nutrition, shelter, education and training are prerequisites for starting development, and a certain degree of improvement in each of them is necessary for sustaining it. The relationship between the four elements and development is however a symbiotic one, as it is between each of them and population growth.

5.3 This has always been the case. What is new, and the reason for having a chapter on human resources in this Report, are three major developments. The first is the accelerating pace of technological change and, accompanying it, the increasing importance of knowledge-based activities in the development process, thereby putting a premium on education and training. The second is the growing pressure of population on resources, which draws attention to the importance of population policies, not only in relation to health, nutrition and shelter but to the whole concept of sustainable development. And the third is the changing nature of international migration. Here the main features are the diminishing opportunities, especially among the unskilled of developing countries, for movement from the South to the North, and the increasing amount of transborder migration, especially of economic, political and environmental refugees in Africa. Both draw attention to the

need for balanced development in all countries. What governments have to recognise is that societies which use their human resources effectively can establish a virtuous circle, retaining people with vital skills, permitting sustainable development and enabling the satisfaction of human needs.

Population

5.4 There was some optimism in the mid-1980s that the rate of growth of the world's population was slowing, as birth rates continued to fall faster than death rates in every region except Africa and South Asia (see Annex 5 on pp.167-171). However the demographic position now looks less optimistic, as progress in reducing birth rates has been slower than expected. Revised projections by the United Nations now indicate a world population of 6,251 million by the year 2000, compared with its 1986 projections of 6,122 million (see Box 5.1 below). Only well into the next century will there be any significant drop in the size of annual increases unless there is some cataclysmic event such as an AIDS pandemic (see para. 5.7).

5.5 These global figures obscure significant and growing divergences at a more disaggregated level. During 1985-90, for example, the population

Box 5.1

Demographic Indicators

World population, which rose from 2,515 million in 1950 to 4,854 million in 1985, is projected to reach 6,251 million in the year 2000 and 8,467 million in 2025. Its average annual growth accelerated from 1.8 per cent in 1950-55 to 2.1 per cent in 1965-70, due largely to a fall in the death rate from 20 per 1,000 people in 1950-55 to 13 per 1,000 in 1965-70. A sharp decline in fertility in the 1970s led to a marked decrease in the birth rate, and population growth slackened to one and three-quarters per cent. In the 1980s population growth is estimated to have fluctuated around this same rate as a result of a slow-down in the decline of both the birth and the death rates (see Annex Table 5.1 on p.168).

While population growth rates were static or declining in other regions, the rate in Africa continued to increase during the 1980s, to an estimated 3 per cent per annum in 1985-90. But it should trend downward soon, as fertility and birth rates, though still high, have declined for some 20 years.

growth rate of developed countries was under a quarter of that of developing countries, a much greater differential than thirty years earlier. But whereas in the 1950s and 1960s the population growth rate among developing country regions diverged only narrowly, it now does so much more widely. These disparities may increase still further in the 1990s. Birth and fertility rates have fallen markedly in Asia and Latin America, whereas in Africa they have declined only marginally. With mortality rates falling significantly, population growth in Africa accelerated almost throughout the 1980s, in contrast to that in Asia and Latin America.

5.6 These demographic divergences result from many factors, health, nutrition and education among them. The net result, however, is that population pressures on resources are still impairing economic growth and the prospects for development in most developing countries. These pressures may be apparent even where populations are not in themselves large; for if a country's area is very small, as in micro states, the people:land ratio can still be high. Similar pressures occur in countries where much of the land is unsuitable for human habitation or where the hinterland is very inaccessible. All these situations make the attainment of development more difficult. They are a major cause of poverty, especially among large families whose children are particularly vulnerable. They are also of increasing environmental concern, challenging as they do hopes of sustainable development. And they can increase social and ethnic tensions.

5.7 Future trends in fertility, birth and death rates, and therefore in population growth, will be affected by many factors which are not easy to predict. But in a scenario where most rates are slowing down, one—mortality - may rise in at least some countries for a while. In a recent study the WHO estimated that during the next 10 years some 8 to 10 million people globally will contract HIV, which causes AIDS. The study also showed the alarming spread of HIV among women and children in sub-Saharan Africa and Asia, predicting that life expectancy in many sub-Saharan cities might fall by about six years. Infant and child mortality could be as much as 30 per cent greater than would otherwise have been expected. Adult mortality rates are also expected to rise. Developing countries will continue to need assistance in dealing with the problem, particularly as regards education and the taking of preventive measures.

5.8 In broad terms, even at reduced rates of growth the global population is likely to double before the middle of the next century. More than three-quarters of the world's people live in developing countries; the proportion will be still higher by 2050 as some 95 per cent of the increase in population now occurs in the Third World. If

the needs and aspirations of the peoples of the developing world are to be met, economic activity overall will have to grow very much faster than at present. And if the global environment is to be protected this massive increase must be achieved by sustainable rather than exploitative development.

5.9 Another aspect of the population issue which is presenting a variety of problems and pressures on resources is the changing age structure. This is affecting the balance between the proportion of the population of working age (15-64 years) and that which is dependent (viz. children and the elderly). It has profound implications for mobilising savings and for resource allocation: for example the provisions necessary to meet the needs of each group, and how best to develop and utilise the human capital potential of the working population. In developed countries, the continuing low fertility and birth rates have meant that the proportion of younger people is declining while that of the elderly (aged 60 or over) has risen. It has also risen in developing countries, but far less markedly and from a much lower base. In these countries it is the increase in size of the youth population which is expected to continue to put pressure on jobs, housing, education and training establishments, health facilities etc., as well as intensifying the trend towards urbanisation.

5.10 The world's resources are not infinite and eventually an almost stationary population may be essential even to sustain life, let alone achieve and maintain a tolerable standard of living. Population policies and programmes are required. We know these face cultural, religious and social inhibitions. But they are necessary if humanity is to have any chance of lifting the poor of the developing world out of their present deprivation. The need to control fertility is clear. The desire to do so is also apparent, at least among some of those most involved. In 23 out of 38 developing countries covered by the UN's World Fertility Survey, more than a quarter of the women had larger families than they desired and up to half of those aged 40 to 49 years had not wanted their last birth. The proportion of unwanted births was 10 to 20 per cent overall. Recognising the close link between population issues and socio-economic matters including education, health, the environment and perceptions about the role and status of women, we believe more action must be taken in this area.

5.11 We recommend that access to family planning services is increased and that information on them is made available to everyone who wants effective contraception. Allied to this is the need for improvements in other decisions which affect family size: education, health, and women's position in society. We deal with some of these below. Here we merely note that there is a strong correlation between the level of a mother's education and health and the degree of her political, economic and social

emancipation on the one hand, and the size of her family on the other. Finally, we should stress that effective population policies need to be fully integrated into economic development strategies.

Health and Nutrition

5.12 During the three decades to 1980 the average levels of health and nutrition in most developing countries improved markedly (see Box 5.2 on p.58). In developing countries as a whole, life expectancy at birth increased by two-fifths while the infant mortality rate was more than halved. As a result, and in contrast to the widening income gap, the North-South gap in life expectancy narrowed substantially. But once again, regional divergences widened. Improvements registered in much of Asia were not replicated in Africa. This growing differentiation is a development of the past 30 years. In the early 1950s, there was little difference in life expectancy rates between babies in South Asian and African countries. But African countries found improving the health of their people more difficult to achieve than did those in low income South Asia or in Latin America.

5.13 The 1980s saw some slackening of progress in health and nutrition indicators in an increasing number of developing countries, especially in Africa. In a few there was even retrogression. Between 1980 and 1988, life expectancy at birth declined in several countries while maternal mortality rates increased, sometimes sharply. In developed countries these indicators, already much better than in developing countries, improved still further. As regards nutrition, per capita dietary energy supplies in Africa fell during the first half of the decade, by which time over a quarter of the population was suffering from malnutrition despite increased food aid and commercial imports. And the situation has deteriorated further since. It is much less bleak in most of Asia and Latin America, although there has been some deterioration in one or two of the most debt-distressed countries. A new development is the increasing incidence of the HIV virus which causes AIDS. As has been noted, this is already having a dramatic impact on several developing countries. Besides the human suffering, it is placing a heavier burden on already weak health services. Drug dependence is having similar effects (see Annex 3 on pp.157-160).

5.14 There were many causes of these setbacks in the 1980s: political instability and civil strife, misguided and weak administrations, population growth, adverse weather conditions and environmental degradation were among the more important. But in addition the harsh necessities of economic adjustment programmes, which were often inadequately supported by external programmes. There were as a result swingeing cuts in already weak healthcare and nutritional programmes.

Box 5.2

Human Resource Indicators

Health and Nutrition

Between 1950-55 and 1975-80, proxy indicators for health in developing countries all showed marked improvements: life expectancy at birth increased by more than a third; infant mortality rates were nearly halved; and death rates were more than halved (see Annex Tables 5.1-5.3 on pp.168-169). In the 1980s, however, the improvement in health indicators slowed down, particularly in Africa. Comparing the first and second halves of the decade, for example, maternal mortality rates rose sharply in some countries, including Mauritius, Senegal, Zambia and Zimbabwe in Africa, and Haiti in the Caribbean.

Average levels of nutrition in developing countries had increased markedly in the 1960s and 1970s, more so in Asia and Africa than in Latin America (see Annex Table 5.4 on p.169). But again the improvement slowed down in the 1980s and in Africa there was retrogression. Towards the end of the decade it was estimated that 35 per cent of pre-school children in sub-Saharan Africa suffered from acute protein energy deficiency compared with 16 per cent in south Asia and 4 per cent in Latin America.

The lack of strong administrative structures made targeting the poor less effective. In some of the countries the effects on low income consumers were intensified by price decontrol and devaluation. But it must be recognised that in many cases the deterioration in health and nutrition indicators not only predated the adjustment programmes but could have been much worse under conditions where budgetary expenditures on social provisions were cut without any external support.

5.15 Moreover the generally discouraging picture of stagnation or even retrogression in health and nutrition during the 1980s has to be set against the continued progress achieved in some developing countries. Several of the most populous in Asia have made considerable progress towards overcoming population pressures and achieved significant improvements in health and nutrition. So have a few countries in Africa and Latin America. Their achievements show what can be done if lessons are learned and appropriate measures adopted.

Education and Training

For developing countries as a whole, enrolment rates at the primary school level rose from 75.9 per cent in 1960 to 94.9 per cent in 1980 (see Annex Table 5.5 on p.170). In Africa the rate increased from 42.3 to 79.5 per cent, in Asia from 84.9 to 96.7 per cent and in Latin America from 72.7 to 104.8 per cent. Enrolment rates at secondary and tertiary levels also rose in all regions but remained lowest in Africa.

In the 1980s, the increases in enrolment slowed down at all levels. Enrolment at primary schools declined for some years in Africa and between 1980 and 1987, it dropped by 7 per cent for males and 1 per cent for females. In certain countries, including Nigeria, Somalia and Tanzania, the fall was over 20 per cent. In Africa as a whole, the growth in secondary enrolment merely levelled off. But in over a dozen countries in Africa it fell in at least one year during the decade. A similar position was apparent, albeit at a much lower level of enrolment, in tertiary education; and in one African country enrolment at that level in 1987 was only a third of that in 1980. In several others, including Rwanda, Somalia, Sudan and Tanzania, adult literacy levels also fell.

Moreover, enrolment figures alone understate the deterioration. In recent years the falling quality of teaching staff, and poor equipment and teaching materials have resulted in lower standards of education among the enrolled.

5.16 This requires changed priorities, internal reorganisation, and greater external support. The first essential is to try to make sufficient food and medical supplies available. As far as food is concerned, the change in orientation of economic policies in many developing countries, especially in Africa, is now helping to increase the incentives to produce food; but actual output remains dependent also on the availability of associated inputs such as land, water and fertilizers, which in many cases is inadequate. It also depends on climatic factors and on an absence of civil strife. These two factors are in large measure the cause of the appalling nutritional situation in a few countries—notably Liberia, Ethiopia and Sudan. We believe the position there to be so desperate that renewed attention should urgently be given to enhancing the procedures under which emergency food relief is distributed, so that when stability is restored, adequate action can be taken immediately. This may also mean enlarging the capacity of the International Emergency Food Reserve and improving food stocking arrangements in developing countries.

5.17 As regards medical supplies, the stock of many developing countries' preventive facilities and of the basic medicines themselves badly needs replenishing. With seemingly ever rising populations and with the spectres of AIDS and drug use hanging over a growing number of countries, both will be needed in increasing amounts in the 1990s.

5.18 The second condition is that food and medicines should be affordable by the poor, either through their own earnings or through government programmes. We believe there is still a case for food and primary healthcare subsidy schemes provided they are targeted to the most needy groups—to households with pregnant women and children, for example, or to the poorest families. Alternatively, more food-for-work schemes can be introduced, with payments made in money or in kind to people employed in, say, building physical infrastructure for transport, irrigation, drainage, flood control, soil conservation and slum clearance. We also consider it important to enlarge the provision of food storage facilities and transport networks, so as to increase the capacity to carry stocks and distribute food efficiently.

Education and Training

5.19 In broad terms much was achieved in education and training within the developing world during the two or three decades up to 1980 (see Box 5.2 on p.58). Education enrolment rates and literacy levels rose markedly. Africa performed particularly well and by 1980 its overall enrolment rate at primary school level was approaching that of Asia, indicative that literacy is not merely a by-product of economic development but also a result of government policies. At secondary school level, too, most developing countries made considerable progress and between 1960 and 1980 the overall enrolment rate more than doubled, although that of girls remained generally low. At tertiary level, enrolment rates also rose, almost doubling during the 1970s; but, again, that of girls lagged far behind boys.

5.20 As in other social sectors, the education situation deteriorated in the 1980s, particularly as regards primary school enrolment in Africa. By contrast the South Asian countries were able to continue to increase their primary school enrolment rate, which by 1987 exceeded that of sub-Saharan Africa. East Asia was the only region to raise its secondary school enrolment rate during the 1980s. At tertiary level, too, there was a little further progress in Asia although in some countries retrogression occurred. In Latin America and the Caribbean primary school enrolment rates rose for both males and females in the 1980s and gains were also made at the secondary and tertiary levels despite retrogression in some countries. This region had the distinction of being the only one in the

developing world where female enrolment rates at secondary levels were higher than those for males.

5.21 The setbacks in education and training in the 1980s were due to domestic as well as external factors. Rapid population growth in developing countries created a need for greater investment in the sector at a time when export earnings were stagnant or falling and other economic problems were intensifying. Government policies on education and training often did not take full account of the priority the sector deserved, and inadequately supported adjustment programmes exacerbated the situation.

5.22 School building was often stopped altogether and maintenance reduced drastically; purchases of teaching materials were cut back to such an extent that, by the mid-1980s, according to the World Bank, annual expenditure on text books per student in low income countries as a whole amounted to only \$1.80 and in sub-Saharan Africa much less—\$0.60, compared with a minimum of \$5.00 it considered necessary. There was in addition a deterioration in the student teacher ratio as teachers were either made redundant or, more frequently, left of their own volition as a result of poor pay and conditions. In many countries the quality of teachers and teaching equipment also deteriorated. It was hardly surprising that academic standards fell. According to a recent UN report, in some developing countries only one in five students entering primary school emerged literate.

5.23 Governments need to change their priorities to ensure maximum benefits from limited resources. Much greater investment in education and training will be needed if the above trends are to be reversed and previous levels restored, let alone improved upon. For example, the World Bank has estimated that the achievement of universal primary schooling in Africa would require an increase of expenditure on education from 1.4 to 2.5 per cent of GDP, an investment of over \$2 billion per annum. A few African countries might be able to finance such an increase, even in a period of budgetary stringency, if they felt able to reduce defence expenditure. But for most the scale of the problem is too great and their capacity too weak.

5.24 The benefits of educational development are clear. The World Bank has calculated that in developing countries the rates of return on investment in education are among the highest of any sector: around 25 per cent for primary education, 15 per cent for secondary education and 12 per cent for tertiary education. If young people are to have the skills and thus the productivity which are prerequisites to earning decent livelihoods, they will have to be educated and trained. Such persons are essential for strengthening national economies and providing a base from

which development can lift society out of the poverty trap. In some countries, technical and vocational skills are in particularly short supply and are causing immediate bottlenecks to economic growth.

5.25 The requirement for increased investment in education and training is particularly great in those developing countries seeking to exploit technological change as a stimulus to development. As we discuss in Chapter 8, the rate of advance in these fields is such that any weakness in training will directly affect economic competitiveness. The international flows of investment needed to boost development are becoming increasingly oriented towards more complex technologies whose absorption needs labour skilled in these techniques of production. Almost all Third World countries, irrespective of their stage of development, need more scientists and technologists, both to develop their own technologies and to adapt those which are imported. The need is particularly great in Africa where increased investment in science and technology teachers and equipment is urgently required.

5.26 Here, as elsewhere, the weaker developing countries need extra assistance if they are not to fall further behind in their efforts to keep pace with change. In view of the high costs of establishing and operating centres of excellence in imparting skills in science and technology, such countries could, however, help themselves by setting up these types of institutions on a regional basis. The same is true of universities, as small states have found, for example in the Caribbean.

5.27 A particular problem in most developing countries is that the education curriculum is not as technologically oriented as it should be to promote economic growth, with the result that skills relevant to immediate economic needs are often in short supply. Productive enterprises have a special role to play here, especially where the training required is job-specific, and they should be encouraged through incentives to do so. More generally, there is a need for countries to reorient their educational systems. It is crucial for all of them to provide adequate facilities for adult education and retraining, for only by taking advantage of such facilities will people be able to adapt to the dynamic world of change. Encouraging entrepreneurship is especially important.

5.28 Governments and multilateral agencies need to take a longer-term view of the benefits of education and training and not allow investment in the sector to be an early victim of budgetary stringencies, within structural adjustment programmes or in other circumstances.

5.29 The role of women is particularly important in human resource development. Emancipated and educated women are not only a vital productive resource constituting potentially up to half the population

of working age, but they can help build effective population policy programmes, and thus contribute to the achievement of good health and adequate nutrition. Their needs deserve special attention in the fields of education and training, where so often traditional social mores have depressed their position. Sexual equality before the law may be a necessary prerequisite. More generally their multiple roles have prevented them from taking full advantage of existing opportunities and have put especially severe demands on them in times of economic difficulty. In that respect we stress the necessity of providing women and girls with the supportive facilities needed to ease the pressures on their time and energies, thus enabling them to participate more fully in economic and social activities and to improve their skills in doing so.

Migration

5.30 The above outline shows that the human resource problems of the developing world are enormous, even in societies where people continue to live and work in the same place. For people on the move, for whatever reason, the difficulties are frequently much greater. And the problems of migration will present increasing challenges in the coming years. Political, economic and other changes—at all levels—will continue to affect the number of migrants and the direction in which they wish to move. We believe the underlying factors as well as the incidence of migration deserve a higher place in the hierarchy of concern of governments and international institutions.

5.31 Most of the historical reasons for migration persist; but the circumstances that encouraged and facilitated movement between countries in many instances no longer exist. In other words, the push of need continues in many parts of the world, as a result of political, ethnic or religious pressures, or economic difficulties caused by the inadequacies of resources and continued environmental degradation. But today the pull of opportunity is less apparent, particularly in Western Europe and especially for the largely unskilled populations of the poorer countries.

5.32 During the 1980s migration caused difficulties even within national boundaries, as the urban sprawls of the large conurbations demonstrate. Too high a level of population density is a cause of squalor and degradation, leading to poor health, crime and pressures to emigrate. Much urban drift has been intensified by agricultural failures, but even if these lessen, the pressures of urbanisation will continue, and certain recent developments may even increase them. In South Africa, for example, if all aspects of apartheid are abolished, several very large urban centres are likely to develop from the movement of Africans from the Bantustans looking for new economic opportunities in the cities. It

has been projected that South Africa might have the world's highest rate of urban growth in the 1990s.

5.33 Governments have tried a number of policies to reduce or reverse urban drift, ranging from the agricultural settlement schemes undertaken in parts of Africa, to public works programmes intended to provide the basic infrastructures which rural areas need to sustain productive activities. But useful as some of these have been, they are by themselves far from sufficient. What is needed in our view is not only higher rates of economic growth, but a more labour-intensive route to sustainable development and more open markets for the exports of developing countries. Major sectors for absorbing surplus population in rural areas include agriculture, informal activities, and infrastructure. But however many jobs are created at home, the rapid increases in population and the income and other disparities between developed and developing countries, and within the developing world itself, mean that the pressures for emigration will remain.

5.34 During the last decade there was a substantial, though unquantified, movement of workers from developing to developed countries, mainly in North America and Europe. Others went to other developing countries, particularly the oil producing countries of the Middle East. A large number of them attempted to bring their families and many have settled permanently. Migration to African destinations has been more temporary or in some cases seasonal, while in Latin America and South Asia patterns are mixed. In general, the migrants are young (aged 15 to 35 years), and many of them are better educated than those who stay behind.

5.35 Large numbers of immigrants present problems to most societies, as cultural, linguistic and ethnic differences can exacerbate difficulties in absorption, housing, employment, etc. But immigrants can and do bring new skills or entrepreneurial qualities, or add to the social product by being prepared to do the jobs the indigenous inhabitants shun. The remittances which they send back to their countries of origin are often a vital source of income for those who remain. The source of such remittances may not always be a lasting one, however, as the recent Gulf crisis graphically showed. Elsewhere, some countries in southern Africa which depend on income from migrant labour are likely to face problems in the 1990s if the elimination of restrictions on the movement of indigenous labour within South Africa eliminates the need to bring in mining labour from neighbouring states.

5.36 Conversely, the emigration of the most able and enterprising deprives many societies, particularly developing country ones, of some of their most valuable human resources (the 'brain drain') and thus constrains their development. The problem is likely to be exacerbated

in future by the decline in developed country labour forces and the shortage of skilled personnel, indicative of the link between demography, technology and migration. We believe every effort should be made to reduce the brain drain by increasing the attractiveness of remaining in one's own country. Among the items which are of importance in this respect are the adequacy of remuneration of scientists and other professional people in developing countries compared with developed countries (a less progressive tax regime would help here); the facilities available for scientific work and professional development (liberal import and foreign investment systems would be helpful, as would regionalism in promoting viable centres of academic excellence); and academic freedoms.

5.37 In the immediate future the human fall out of the Gulf War will be an important factor. Around two million migrant workers from Yemen, Egypt, India, Sudan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Jordan and other countries were working in Kuwait, Iraq and Saudi Arabia at the outbreak of the crisis in August 1990. Most of them had to return to their home countries where their prospects of productive employment are not good. And since the cessation of the war the internal situation in Iraq has added to the number of refugees.

5.38 The nature of migration is changing. Apart from the traditional types of flow sketched out above, transborder movements of refugees and others have increased considerably as a result of civil wars, ethnic and religious tensions, and environmental degradation. Between 1980 and 1987, for example, the number of refugees in Africa rose from 2.7 million to 3.3 million, in Asia from 1.2 million to 6.3 million, and in the Near East from 1.8 million to 2.2 million. Although we hope that sources of conflict and tension will diminish, we have to recognise that the outlook is mixed. Moreover if there are significant changes in the global climate (see para.9.6), the international movement of environmental refugees could become more substantial and add to these other movements.

5.39 Nor is the problem confined to the developing world. Any break up of the Soviet Union or seriously adverse developments in Eastern Europe could also increase the desire for migration. It is estimated that in the Soviet Union restructuring or a collapse in the economy could lead to unemployment of 30 million people or more, some 10 million of whom might be expected to try to emigrate, many to European Community countries. In the 1990s and beyond there seems little prospect of absorbing migrants on such a scale within Europe.

5.40 These are massive problems and there are no easy solutions. In the long run the achievement of environmentally sustainable economic development throughout the world will be a necessary prerequisite, but

will not of itself solve all the problems of migration. In countries with 'surplus' populations, labour-intensive strategies are required. But more specific solutions are also called for. In the current Uruguay Round of multilateral trade negotiations, for example, the developed countries could be more accommodating by allowing the freer movement of labour services from developing countries. This might enable the latter to accept a more general liberalisation of trade in services.

5.41 On a wider scale, reducing the incentive to emigrate will require examining the factors which lie behind it. More liberal economic policies may allow the incomes of skilled persons or others in great demand to rise nearer to international clearing levels, on a 'take-home' basis, too, if tax profiles are made less progressive. More provision for higher education—if necessary on a regional basis—would reduce the attraction for students to study abroad, never to return; while better intra-developing country educational exchange arrangements might also reduce the Third World's brain drain. We recommend consideration of them all: but in doing so, we recognise that other factors are important—including social and political factors. We also acknowledge that in the freer, more open societies to which all our countries aspire, people should not be prevented from leaving their countries.

Conclusions

5.42 Summarising our views on human resource development, we are pleased to note that developing country governments do now seem to be giving greater priority to this dimension. Many of them are now trying to implement sensitive but active population policies; are seeking to enhance the education of their countries' children and the skills of the labour force; and are attempting to ensure that their peoples are better fed and healthier than hitherto. All this is good for development. But it cannot be achieved entirely from within indigenous resources. The international community has a role, and a responsibility, too, in providing assistance and not constraining economic opportunities. We believe it is vital that developed country governments and the international institutions fully discharge their duties in this respect. It is particularly important that as aid donors they seek to encourage the enhancement of human resources and do nothing which would lead to a deterioration in the quality of what must lie at the heart of the development process.