

Comprehensive Human Development: Realities and Aspirations

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Abstract

The main objectives of this paper are twofold. First, to describe the existing paradigm of comprehensive human development, trace its origin, conceptual underpinning and its policy implications in comparison with its seemingly competing development models. Second, to devise guidelines for national policymakers and their development partners deployed in the implementation of development strategies which gives utmost priority to human development in IDB member countries.

The distinctive feature of this paper's approach is not only to address human development as a means and end of development, but also to draw some lessons from countries' experiences and to depict some success stories from their respective human development strategies. This will help us in understanding the prioritisation of access facilitation to quality education along with its soft aspects, relevance and efficiency improvement. A similar analysis is also applied to the health sector. Further, the role of IDB Group in helping its member countries meet their critical needs in health sector through Awqāf and Zakāh is highlighted.

The organisation of the paper is as follows; Section 1 commences with an overview of history, evolution, definition, measurement and policy implications of human development paradigm. Section 2 addresses the status of human capital in IDB member countries in light of the IDB 1440H Vision and the internationally agreed Millennium Development Goals in education (EMDGs). In addition, it also analyses the challenges of stalled progress in achieving EMDGs into opportunities from an Islamic perspective.

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Section 3 discusses a manifestation of the opportunities highlighted in section two into sets of feasible unique policies to aspire achievement of comprehensive development at country level. Section 4 sheds light upon the role of development partners in attaining human development goals. Finally, section 5 is conclusion.

Keywords: human development, policy formulation.

1. Introduction

1.1. Evolution of the Comprehensive Human Development Paradigm

The concept of human development dates back at least to Aristotle (384-322 BC), who argued that "... social arrangements must be judged by the extent to which they promote human good" and that "wealth is evidently not the good we are seeking; for it is merely useful for the sake of something else". That "something else" is interpreted as the opportunities of people to realize their potential as human beings (Sen 1998 and UNDP 2006). Real opportunity is about having real choices and choices are made possible primarily by sufficient income, education, good health and living in a country that is not governed by tyranny (UNDP 2007).

Since then, many notable scholars, including Adam Smith, have emphasized the importance of how income is used to improve human development, even though growth came to dominate the development literature (UNDP 2007 and Fukuda-Parr et al. 2004). The prevailing belief in the "trickle down" power of market forces to spread economic benefits and end poverty reiterated the emphasis on growth. Accordingly, the focus of development was on industrialization and investments as the major strategy of achieving growth, while the role of the people in change was undervalued.

This development strategy led many countries to achieve economic growth, although empirical evidence suggested that the well-being of a majority of people in several countries did not improve (Chenery et. al. 1974, Dasgupta & Weale 1992, Hicks & Streeten 1979, Hilhorst & Klatter 1985, Pomfret 1992, Pyatt 1991, Rao 1991, Sen 1987, Singer 1989, Streeten 1984 and UNDP 1990 & 2007).

In fact, development thinkers started questioning the legitimacy of economic growth as the only measure of nation's level of development, based on the

overwhelming country evidence of the 1980s and 1990s.² These facts are corroborated by the escalation of unemployment levels and the deterioration of access to social services in some industrialized countries in the 1980s, the increasing human costs of structural adjustment programs in developing countries, the spread of the social ills (crimes, HIV/AIDS, etc.) even in cases of strong and consistent growth and the wave of democratization in the early 1990s.

The development discourse has since shifted from the basic needs approach (which focused mainly on incomes, public services and participation) to the recognition of the human capabilities.³ The capability approach, developed by the Nobel Laureate in economics Professor Amartya Sen, emphasized human achievements and freedoms as a conceptual foundation for an alternative and broader human development approach.⁴ This strategic approach evaluates the various “functioning” in human life as well as their capabilities to achieve these functions.⁵ I.e., human development is about the realization of what people can do and become: freedom they have to exercise real choices in their lives.

Indeed, the concept and approach of human development emerged, in part, as a result of growing criticism and an alternative to traditional development approaches of the last two decades, which presumed a close link between national economic growth and the expansion of individual human choices. This new development concept has evolved around the work of Professor Sen and many other researchers drawing on the development experience in different parts of the world, notably the late Dr. Mahbub ul Haq. Mahbub ul Haq is a visionary Pakistani economist who played a key role in formulating the human development paradigm. The concept, therefore, considers people to be the real wealth of a nation. In this approach, human development is considered a process of enlarging people’s choices and the level of their achieved well-being. Both the concept and its related

2 The economic growth paradigm neglected important aspects of development, such as income inequalities, unemployment, and disparities in access to public goods and services (e.g., education and health).

3 The basic needs approach is shaped around commodity evaluation and fails short of other important elements of life such as the position of the poor and marginalized people and their ability to voice their views, gender power relations, the freedom to choose, etc.

4 The capability approach challenges the common views that poverty is purely a deprivation of income, and underscores that human beings are both agents and beneficiaries of development, without downplaying their role as primary means of economic productivity.

5 These include, but not limited to, the ability to be well nourished, escape avoidable death, be knowledgeable, and be equipped to participate in the life of one’s community.

approaches (analytical methodologies and procedures) represent a comprehensive and composite model of development.

The model combines a forward-looking strategic objective of achieving comprehensive human development, echoed in the IDB 1440H Vision, with practical plans and programs that address problems and needs in the context of an integrated poverty reduction strategy. The latter is similar to the key strategic thrusts of the IDB Group Vision, from a long-term perspective.⁶ Hence, comprehensive human development is concerned with both means and ends of development. Thus, human development is comprehensive to the extent that it stems from people's choices.

1.2. Definition

Comprehensive human development is defined as a process of advancing the richness of human life capabilities and enlarging people's choices (Anand and Sen 1994, UNDP 1990).⁷ Although people's choices can be indefinite and change over time, the enormous body of literature provides three essential ones. That is, at all levels of development, people aspire to lead long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge, and to have access to resources needed for a decent standard of living (Sen 1998 and UNDP 1990 & 2007).⁸ However, in the absence of these essential choices, many other opportunities remain inaccessible.

This approach views people as both means and ends of development. These two objectives of development distinguish, among others, the conventional from the new alternative model of development. The conventional model of development is predicated on a philosophy of progressive growth in production, in which human capital or people are considered a factor (resource use) of production and a "means" to achieve the desired level of growth.⁹ While this approach has the

6 The key strategic thrusts include alleviating poverty, universalizing education, promoting health, prospering the people, empowering women, expanding Islamic financial industry, facilitating integration of IDB member country economies among themselves and with the world, and improving the image of the Muslim World (IDB 2006).

7 Capabilities refer to several values and goals including the capability to live a long and healthy life; the ability to acquire education, culture, technology and share benefits of social progress; and the ability to live a life free of poverty with adequate living standards.

8 Additional choices, highly valued by many people, range from political, economic and social freedom to opportunities for being creative and productive, and enjoying personal self-respect and guaranteed human rights (UNDP 1990).

9 The conventional development model has led countries and societies to embark on a race to achieve

advantage of being straightforward and easy to use, convincing empirical evidence indicate failure of economic growth to improve the well-being of a significant portion of the population. This brings up the need for a more encompassing concept and its associated measure that capture human development. The two aspects of human development include the formation of human capabilities (such as improved health, knowledge and skills) and the use people make of their acquired capabilities (for leisure, productive purposes or being active in culture, social and political affairs).

In this alternative approach, the concept of human development combines the following four components:

- **Productivity:** People must be enabled to increase their productivity and to participate fully in the process of income generation and remunerative employment. I.e., economic growth is a subject of human development model;
- **Equality:** People must have equal access to equal opportunities. All barriers to economic and political opportunities must be eliminated so that people can participate in, and benefit from, these opportunities;
- **Sustainability:** Access to opportunities must be ensured not only for the present generations but for future generations as well; and
- **Empowerment:** Development must be by the people, not only for them. I.e., people must participate fully in the decisions and processes that shape their lives.

1.3 Policy Implications

The main implications in adopting the alternative human development approach include:

First, the policy significance of income expansion and, as a corollary, growth in per capita incomes, but these factors cannot be the dominant criteria for judging how societies are faring i.e., an expansion of income is important but only as a

higher and ever increasing level of material and economic growth; often coupled with neglect of other important attributes. The latter includes income distribution effects, equitable sharing of benefits (social bill), sustainable utilization and renewal of natural resources (environmental bill).

means to valuable ends. The human development approach, therefore, generates a new set of evaluative questions to assess the impact of development policies.

Second, focusing on human lives as the goal of development results in the articulation of every different policy concerns that are rooted in the advancement of people's well-being.¹⁰ That is, the exercise of overall policy formulation becomes one ensuring not merely growth as such, but growth that promotes human development.

Third, it enables the linkages between various types of investment in people to be fully exploited, to the extent that components of public expenditure programs should not be viewed in isolation, recognizing complementarities between investing in human and physical assets, and investment decision should be guided by highest return on portfolio of national asset(s). Fourth, human development is motivated by a concern for freedom, well-being and dignity of individuals in society, issues that are not conventionally regarded as central to policy formulation.¹¹

The preceding paragraph emphasized the numerous advantage of the comprehensive human capital approach and implicitly advocates a leading role of the state in guiding the development process. In this setting, it is essential to devise a strategy and/or human development policies for the state to intervene where necessary to ensure that the full benefits of human development are reaped.¹²

On the other side of the fence, critics raised theoretical and practical concerns about the human development concept. First, it is not clear whether the conceptual issues raised by the alternative human development model and their policy implications are confined to the global level or the national level, and whether its design fits all. Second, in practice, the proponents of the comprehensive human

10 In the human development framework, discussion on globalization, as an example, go beyond examining the impact on trade, capital flows and economic growth, to consider the changing opportunities and new insecurities in people's lives. A people-centered approach would, then, stresses human security and not military or territorial security (UNDP 2009).

11 Human development is concerned with the full range of capabilities, including social freedoms that cannot be exercised without political and civil guarantees. Indeed, the human development approach emphasizes political and social freedoms through enhanced participations and inclusive democracy as fundamental to the realizations and sustainability of social and economic goals.

12 That does not imply that the state must be large, nor does this imply the state should be relatively small in human capital formation. That is, the size of the state is of secondary importance, and what matters for human development is the functions the state performs and how well it performs.

development concept quite often shun from translating their ideas into growth options and alternative macro-economic policies.¹³ Third, the cultural dimension of comprehensive human development is still not adequately developed, particularly at the measurement level.

1.4. Measurement

Construction of the human development indicator (HDI), in 1990, heralded the first attempt to measure achievements in development through a numerical composite index that permits inter-country comparison, concomitant with the major dimensions of human development. This composite measure combines the three components of human development: living a long and healthy life (measured by life expectancy), being educated (measured by adult literacy and enrolment at the primary, secondary and tertiary level) and having a decent standard of living (measured by purchasing power parity, PPP, income).¹⁴ In bringing together income with education and health, the HDI compares, among others, human development across countries and over time (Table 1).¹⁵ It is also useful to compare a country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita with its HDI ranking (Table 2).

Like any composite index, the HDI has its limitations. For example, the index focuses only on three dimensions of capabilities, thus, limiting its scope as the epitome of a composite measure of comprehensive human development.¹⁶ Second, the HDI is not designed to assess progress in human development over a short-term period, because two of its component indicators (adult literacy and life expectancy at birth) are not responsive to short-term policy changes. Third, the indicators are restricted to global, regional and national average. Like any average

13 This contradicts the essence of the concept, which recognizes the importance of the two levels and their inter-connection. Failure to translate the notions and approaches embodied in the concept into practical steps would justify the claim, among others, that the concept of comprehensive human development confines itself to the human and social aspects of development.

14 PPP is a rate of exchange that accounts for price differences across countries, allowing international comparisons of real output and incomes. That is, at the PPP US\$ rate (used in the HDR), PPP US\$1 has the same purchasing power in the domestic economy as US\$1 has in the United States (UNDP 2008).

15 The formation of HDI as a measure of human development was based on many objectives. One of the important objectives is the creation of a measure that covers both economic and social choices.

16 Other aspects of human development that could be captured with available data include the degree of people's self-respect and political freedom, and environmental concerns, among others (UNDP 2007).

measure, it does not account for variations in human development within the country.¹⁷ The remedy lies in preparation of more detailed regional and national reports, incorporating various indicators to reflect the state of human development between different regions and groups within a country, as documented in several sub-national, national and regional Human Development Reports (HDRs). The annual Human Development Report, though not the first to take up the subject of human development, made significant contribution by enriching the concept, raising awareness and disseminating it worldwide.¹⁸

In spite of these limitations, HDI has been thoroughly researched to ensure a flexible measure subject to refinement over time. When it was first introduced in 1990, the HDI was constructed from a deprivation perspective (UNDP 1990). For example, the educational attainment component had adult literacy as the only variable, while income was logged at all levels.¹⁹ With improved understanding and improved data quality, the index has undergone major refinements such as an extended HDI that included infant mortality rates; unemployment and education quality for Argentina in 2002; and the 2003 HDI for Arab region in measuring knowledge. As is the case in the global HDRs, regional and national HDRs analyze varying aspects of human development by focusing on development themes that are locally relevant and supported by reliable statistics and solid evidence. These global, regional and national HDRs often contain data that have not been previously published. They can help meet the demand for collection, analysis and dissemination of statistics needed to monitor the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and other human development objectives.²⁰ Progress towards achieving

17 Measuring development, and expressing it numerically, is a difficult and complex task. That is, figures alone will not be adequate to diagnose the situation and propose remedies. Therefore, comprehensive and well-integrated analysis (deep and consistent) is needed to give a better picture of the state of development.

18 These reports, published annually by the UNDP since 1990, include a constant feature of detailed statistical tabulations covering various aspects of human development. There are more than 200 different types of data extending from the state of education and health to economics, environment, the social fabrics, etc., classified in illustrative tables and covering more than 170 countries, including all IDB member countries except Afghanistan, Iraq and Somalia. Other specialized organizations and international institutions also publish and disseminate statistical data, detailed information and analysis of social indicators and social development, such as UNESCO, UNICEF, The Millennium Development Goals Reports by the UN, World Bank Development Reports and UN Regional Economic and Social Commissions.

19 An observed maximum and minimum for each variable were then used as goalposts, but changes in the goalposts made comparisons across time impossible (UNDP 2007).

20 While the MDGs do not reflect all dimensions of human development, they represent the most comprehensive set of human development goals and targets ever adopted by UN member states.

the MDGs is considered progress towards human development (UNDP 2005). These targets and indicators provide a framework for analyzing and assessing progress.

Representatives of 191 nations attended the Millennium Summit in 2000 and adopted the Millennium Declaration, which called on the world community to achieve certain fundamental goals related to global peace, security and sustainable human development. The eight MDGs include eradicating extreme levels of poverty and hunger, ensuring gender equality and women's empowerment, combating HIV/AIDS, ensuring environmental sustainability and improving global partnerships for development.

Table 1: Human Development Index Trends in IDB Member Countries (1980-2006)

HDI rank		1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2003	2004	2005	2006
HIGH HUMAN DEVELOPMENT										
1	Brunei Darussalam	0.827	0.843	0.876	0.889	0.905	0.910	0.912	0.917	0.919
2	Kuwait	0.812	0.828	..	0.852	0.876	0.914	0.912	0.915	0.912
3	UAE	0.743	0.806	0.834	0.845	0.852	0.897	0.898	0.901	0.903
4	Bahrain	0.769	0.793	0.838	0.858	0.873	0.886	0.889	0.896	0.902
5	Qatar	0.889	0.890	0.895	0.899
6	Libya	0.622	0.653	0.806	0.828	0.831	0.836	0.840
7	Oman	0.822	0.830	0.834	0.839
8	Saudi Arabia	0.742	0.764	0.828	0.832	0.835
9	Malaysia	0.665	0.688	0.736	0.766	0.797	0.807	0.812	0.819	0.823
10	Albania	0.777	0.793	0.800	0.804	0.807
11	Kazakhstan	0.776	0.728	0.746	0.779	0.789	0.799	0.807
MEDIUM HUMAN DEVELOPMENT										
12	Turkey	0.623	0.669	0.700	0.725	0.754	0.781	0.785	0.791	0.798
13	Lebanon	0.795	0.796
14	Iran (Islamic Republic of)	0.559	0.618	0.671	0.711	0.735	0.746	0.754	0.770	0.777
15	Suriname	0.755	0.759	0.764	0.770
16	Jordan	0.630	0.753	0.760	0.763	0.769
17	Tunisia	..	0.603	0.625	0.653	0.677	0.743	0.749	0.756	0.762
18	Azerbaijan	0.705	0.725	0.730	0.742	0.758
19	Maldives	0.681	0.719	0.733	0.738	0.737	0.749
20	Algeria	..	0.626	0.645	0.652	0.712	0.727	0.732	0.745	0.748
21	Syria	0.601	0.623	0.625	0.648	0.714	0.724	0.724	0.731	0.736
22	Palestine	0.728	0.731
23	Gabon	0.741	0.709	0.727	0.725	0.727	0.729
24	Turkmenistan	0.727	0.728
25	Indonesia	0.520	0.560	0.623	0.657	0.671	0.709	0.714	0.719	0.726
26	Egypt	0.483	0.539	0.572	0.628	0.665	0.704	0.709	0.712	0.716
27	Uzbekistan	0.682	0.691	0.695	0.698	0.701
28	Kyrgyzstan	0.679	0.689	0.692	0.692	0.694
29	Tajikistan	0.709	0.642	0.648	0.669	0.676	0.680	0.684
30	Morocco	0.471	0.497	0.516	0.560	0.582	0.626	0.631	0.638	0.646
31	Comoros	0.445	0.460	0.463	0.509	0.525	0.561	0.563	0.568	0.572
32	Yemen	0.478	0.497	0.549	0.553	0.561	0.567
33	Pakistan	0.386	0.411	0.443	0.463	..	0.518	0.526	0.548	0.562
34	Mauritania	0.520	0.529	0.536	0.547	0.557
35	Sudan	0.489	0.504	0.510	0.514	0.526
36	Bangladesh	0.331	0.352	0.390	0.414	0.489	0.500	0.504	0.517	0.524
37	Cameroon	0.508	0.513	0.514	0.514	0.514
38	Djibouti	0.508	0.513
39	Senegal	0.417	0.431	0.473	0.483	0.489	0.499	0.502
LOW HUMAN DEVELOPMENT										
40	Nigeria	0.452	0.456	0.450	0.486	0.490	0.494	0.499
41	Uganda	0.404	0.391	0.453	0.474	0.476	0.486	0.493
42	Togo	0.477	0.476	0.476	0.476	0.479
43	Gambia	0.469	0.471
44	Benin	0.347	0.361	0.378	0.399	0.424	0.436	0.440	0.452	0.459
45	Côte d'Ivoire	0.442	0.416	0.433	0.430	0.431	0.432	0.431
46	Guinea	0.405	0.410	0.417	0.423
47	Mali	0.343	0.376	0.377	0.384	0.391
48	Chad	0.329	0.358	0.373	0.389	0.390	0.389
49	Guinea-Bissau	0.244	0.264	0.276	0.341	0.343	0.373	0.373	0.378	0.383
50	Burkina Faso	0.259	0.278	0.298	0.305	0.317	0.347	0.352	0.362	0.372
51	Niger	0.293	0.310	0.314	0.363	0.370
52	Mozambique	0.281	0.259	0.274	0.307	0.333	0.344	0.356	0.361	0.366
53	Sierra Leone	0.314	0.317	0.323	0.329

Note: Data for Afghanistan, Iraq and Somalia were not reported in HDRs.

Source: UNDP (2008) Human Development Report, United Nations Development Program, New York. PP 25-28.

Table 2: Main Components of the Human Development Index for IDB Member Countries.

HDI rank		Human development index value	Life expectancy at birth (years)	Adult literacy rate (% aged 15 and over)	Combined gross enrolment ratio in education (%)	GDP per capita (PPP US\$)	Life expectancy index	Education index	GDP index	GDP per capita rank minus HDI rank
		2006	2006	1999–2006	2006	2006	2006	2006	2006	2006
HIGH HUMAN DEVELOPMENT										
1	Brunei Darussalam	0.919	76.9	94.6	78.5	49,898	0.865	0.892	1.000	-23
2	Kuwait	0.912	77.4	93.3	72.6	46,638	0.873	0.864	1.000	-22
3	UAE	0.903	78.5	89.8	65.8	49,116	0.891	0.818	1.000	-26
4	Bahrain	0.902	75.4	88.3	90.4	34,516	0.840	0.890	0.975	-15
5	Qatar	0.899	75.3	89.8	77.6	72,969	0.838	0.857	1.000	-32
6	Libya	0.840	73.6	86.2	95.8	13,362	0.810	0.894	0.817	2
7	Oman	0.839	75.3	83.7	68.7	20,999	0.838	0.787	0.892	-14
8	Saudi Arabia	0.835	72.4	84.3	76.0	22,053	0.791	0.815	0.901	-20
9	Malaysia	0.823	73.9	91.5	71.5	12,536	0.815	0.848	0.806	-5
10	Albania	0.807	76.3	99.0	67.8	5,884	0.856	0.886	0.680	27
11	Kazakhstan	0.807	66.4	99.6	91.8	9,832	0.689	0.966	0.766	-1
MEDIUM HUMAN DEVELOPMENT										
12	Turkey	0.798	71.6	88.1	71.1	11,535	0.776	0.824	0.792	-15
13	Lebanon	0.796	71.7	..	76.8	9,757	0.778	0.845	0.765	-7
14	Iran (Islamic Republic of)	0.777	70.5	84.0	73.2	10,031	0.759	0.804	0.769	-16
15	Suriname	0.770	69.8	90.1	74.3	7,268	0.747	0.848	0.715	-7
16	Jordan	0.769	72.2	92.7	78.7	4,654	0.786	0.880	0.641	15
17	Tunisia	0.762	73.7	76.9	76.2	6,958	0.811	0.766	0.708	-8
18	Azerbaijan	0.758	67.3	99.3	66.2	6,172	0.704	0.881	0.688	-3
19	Maldives	0.749	67.6	97.0	71.3	5,008	0.710	0.884	0.653	-1
20	Algeria	0.748	72.0	74.6	73.6	7,426	0.783	0.743	0.719	-19
21	Syria	0.736	73.9	82.5	65.7	4,225	0.814	0.769	0.625	4
22	Palestine	0.731	73.1	92.4	80.6	..	0.802	0.884	0.506	27
23	Gabon	0.729	56.3	85.4	80.7	14,208	0.522	0.838	0.827	-55
24	Turkmenistan	0.728	62.8	99.5	74.1	4,826	0.630	0.907	0.647	-7
25	Indonesia	0.726	70.1	91.0	68.2	3,455	0.752	0.834	0.591	12
26	Egypt	0.716	71.0	71.4	76.4	4,953	0.766	0.731	0.651	-17
27	Uzbekistan	0.701	66.9	96.9	73.2	2,189	0.698	0.890	0.515	13
28	Kyrgyzstan	0.694	65.7	99.3	77.7	1,813	0.678	0.919	0.484	19
29	Tajikistan	0.684	66.5	99.6	70.9	1,609	0.691	0.896	0.464	20
30	Morocco	0.646	70.7	54.7	59.6	3,915	0.762	0.563	0.612	-13
31	Comoros	0.572	64.5	74.2	46.4	1,152	0.659	0.649	0.408	18
32	Yemen	0.567	62.0	57.3	54.4	2,262	0.616	0.563	0.521	-7
33	Pakistan	0.562	64.9	54.2	39.3	2,361	0.665	0.492	0.528	-9
34	Mauritania	0.557	63.6	55.2	50.6	1,890	0.643	0.537	0.491	-2
35	Sudan	0.526	57.8	60.9	39.9	1,887	0.547	0.539	0.490	-7
36	Bangladesh	0.524	63.5	52.5	52.1	1,155	0.641	0.524	0.408	7
37	Cameroon	0.514	50.0	67.9	50.8	2,043	0.416	0.622	0.504	-16
38	Djibouti	0.513	54.2	..	25.5	1,965	0.487	0.554	0.497	-15
39	Senegal	0.502	62.6	42.0	41.2	1,592	0.627	0.417	0.462	-8
LOW HUMAN DEVELOPMENT										
40	Nigeria	0.499	46.6	71.0	52.5	1,852	0.360	0.648	0.487	-14
41	Uganda	0.493	50.5	72.6	62.3	888	0.424	0.692	0.365	7
42	Togo	0.479	58.0	53.2	56.6	792	0.550	0.543	0.345	8
43	Gambia	0.471	59.0	..	46.8	1,152	0.567	0.439	0.408	-4
44	Benin	0.459	55.8	39.7	52.4	1,259	0.514	0.440	0.423	-9
45	Côte d'Ivoire	0.431	47.7	48.7	37.5	1,632	0.378	0.450	0.466	-24
46	Guinea	0.423	55.3	29.5	49.3	1,118	0.505	0.361	0.403	-9
47	Mali	0.391	53.7	22.9	44.3	1,058	0.478	0.300	0.394	-7
48	Chad	0.389	50.4	25.7	36.5	1,470	0.424	0.293	0.449	-22
49	Guinea-Bissau	0.383	46.0	62.8	36.6	467	0.351	0.541	0.257	5
50	Burkina Faso	0.372	51.7	26.0	30.2	1,084	0.445	0.274	0.398	-13
51	Niger	0.370	56.2	29.8	26.2	612	0.521	0.286	0.302	0
52	Mozambique	0.366	42.4	43.8	54.8	739	0.291	0.474	0.334	-7
53	Sierra Leone	0.329	42.1	37.1	44.6	630	0.285	0.396	0.307	-6
OTHER UN MEMBER STATES										
	Afghanistan	..	43.2	28.0	50.1	..	0.304	0.354
	Iraq	..	58.3	74.1	60.5	..	0.556	0.695
	Somalia	..	47.5	0.375
	Developing countries	0.688	66.3	78.8	63.5	4,572	0.689	0.737	0.638	..
	High human development	0.901	76.2	..	87.6	25,100	0.854	0.926	0.922	..
	Medium human development	0.690	67.8	80.3	64.1	3,829	0.713	0.749	0.608	..
	Low human development	0.444	48.4	55.9	46.5	1,199	0.391	0.527	0.415	..
	World	0.747	68.3	81.0	67.0	9,316	0.722	0.763	0.757	..

SOURCE: UNDP (2008) Human Development Report, United Nations Development Program, New York, PP 29–32.

2. Realities and Challenges of Human Development in IDB Member Countries

2.1. Realities

The challenges facing the 1.5 billion Muslims in IDB member countries and Muslim minorities residing in other countries often differ widely in terms of nature and gravity. However, taken collectively, the Muslim world is faced with some major challenges. Achieving comprehensive human development in the 21st century will be at the core of restoring its dignity. To respond to the 21st century challenges of achieving comprehensive human development, at least five of the key eight strategic thrusts identified in the “IDB 1440H Vision: Vision for Human Dignity” addressed the overarching goal of comprehensive development (IDB 2006).²¹ The reason is obvious. Despite the tremendous collective wealth of the Muslim world, poverty is widespread and HDIs are worse in the Muslim World than elsewhere. In fact more than 40% of the world’s poor are Muslims, and they account for about 20% of the world’s population. One out of three people in Muslim countries are illiterate. Although adult illiteracy rate of IDB member countries has declined from 44% in 1990 to 32% in 2000-2006, it is still relatively high, compared with the averages for both the world at 18% and the developing countries at 21%. This picture is also shared in the area of health, which poses yet another challenge to improving the state of human development.²²

Seventeen out of the 56 IDB member countries, or more than one-third, are ranked in the low human development category (ranging between 154 and 179) of the UNDP index in 2006 (Tables 1 & 2). Indeed, two-thirds of the least developed and more than half of the world’s low human development category are Muslim. However, 28 member countries, or half membership, are ranked in the medium human development category (with ranks ranging from 76 to 153) and 11 are

21 See footnote 5.

22 Available statistics suggests that more than two-thirds of member countries from Africa lack qualified staff to perform vital services and interventions such as routine immunization, antenatal care, deliveries, obstetrical care and other family planning services. Moreover, less than half the population has access to a health facility within 5 km radius and more serious is that out-of-pocket spending accounts for nearly 50% of total health spending in Africa. Furthermore, more than 90% of the deaths from communicable disease are attributable to Malaria, Tuberculosis, Pneumonia and measles. According to the 2006 World Report on Malaria, malaria kills a child every 30 seconds, thus placing the disease as the leading cause of morbidity and mortality in IDB member countries from Africa. Most of the deaths reported in Africa are water and sanitation related diseases, about 2.2 million persons, mainly children, die every year.

ranked in the high development category (ranging between 27 and 71). IDB member countries with lowest HDI ranking in 2006 are from Africa (Table 1).²³

2.2. Challenges of Education

Despite the fact that the Muslim world is blessed with the quest for knowledge as a pillar of Islamic faith, the IDB member countries are faced with constraints and challenges on education. Many of these countries still lag behind, both in terms of achieving the education goals set by these countries in the core Education Millennium Development Goals (EMDGs), and in comparison to their other comparators.²⁴ The status of IDB member countries in achieving the goals of completing primary enrolment by 2015 is summarized in Table 3. Nineteen out of the 51 countries or about a third, for which data are available, are early achievers of the MGD target on primary enrolment.²⁵ Eight countries are on-track in achieving the MDG target of primary enrolment completion by 2015.²⁶ The remaining 24 countries, or nearly half of the IDB member countries, are off-track, including 5 that are regressing. The latter are Bangladesh, Djibouti, Guinea-Bissau, Suriname and Uganda (IDB 2009b).

The educational attainments in many IDB member countries are also characterized by regional, income, gender and urban-rural disparities. There are still major urban-rural and male-female disparities in most member countries. For example, rural children are less likely to attend school because of the high rates of poverty, the demand for children labor, the low level of parental education and lack of supply of education. More alarming is the fact that, many of the poor children who have a chance to enroll in school dropout before completing grade five. It is estimated that 40% of the out-of-school population lived in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), another 40% resided in South Asia, and more than 15% lived in the Middle East and North Africa (IDB 2009b).

23 The 2008 HDI ranking represents values for the year 2006 (UNDP 2008).

24 The EMDGs ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling; eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005 and to all levels of education no later than 2015.

25 These are Albania, Algeria, Bahrain, Brunei, Egypt, Indonesia, Iran, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Kyrgyz, Maldives, Palestine, Qatar, Syria, Tajikistan, Tunisia, UAE and Uzbekistan (IDB 2009b).

26 These are Azerbaijan, Lebanon, Malaysia, Morocco, Nigeria, Oman, Saudi Arabia and Turkey (IDB 2009b).

Moreover, most of the world's out-of-school children live in IDB member countries. Gender adult illiteracy rate was more pronounced among female than male population (41% versus 24%) during 2000-2005. Girls represent 60% of the out-of-school children. In SSA, the Arab States and South and West Asia, gender disparities are widespread and girls continue to face sharp inequity in access to schooling. Accordingly, girls are disadvantaged in some countries, compared to boys in the same age group.

More serious challenge is that the education system of member countries lacks quality and relevance. The traditional methods of teaching and learning are not adapting to the needs and characteristics of children from poorest socioeconomic background. Finally, successful non-traditional approaches to education remain scarce and have marginal impacts on the education process (IDB 2009b). Other in-school factors, frequently cited, in many IDB member countries include major shortages of classrooms and teachers, which resulted in overcrowded classes of pupils (UNESCO 2003 and Bashir 2004). In these countries, curriculum is out-of-date, taught by underpaid and poorly trained teachers, and teachers often rely on outdated textbooks.²⁷ Empirical evidence suggests, among others, that out-of-school factors have also limited any progress towards access to education, especially in achieving the EMDGs.²⁸

27 In some of the countries, education is considered the employer of last resort, and at times education system is sought to provide employment of the unemployed (Bashir 2004).

28 Out-of-school factors refer mostly to direct and indirect (opportunity) cost of education.

Table 3
Scorecard of IDB Member Countries on Education MDG Indicators

No.	MDG Indicator	Earliest Available Year	Latest Available Year	Status
1	Primary Enrolment Rate	73.1	82.2	▼
2	Percentage of pupils starting grade reaching grade 5, both sexes	83.9	81.1	◀
3	Primary Completion Rate - Total (%)	70.3	79.8	▼
4	Literacy rates of 15 - 24 years old, both sexes, percentage	74.3	85.8	▼
5	Gender parity index for gross enrolment ratio: Primary	0.9	0.9	▼
6	Gender parity index for gross enrolment ratio: Secondary	0.7	0.9	▶
7	Gender parity index for gross enrolment ratio: Tertiary	0.7	0.8	▼
8	Women to men parity index, as ratio of literacy rates, 15 - 24 years old	0.8	..	⊗

Notes:

▲ Represents Early Achiever

▶ Represents On-track (i.e., expected to meet the target by 2015)

▼ Refers to Off-track-slow, (i.e., expected to meet the target, but after 2015)

◀ Represents Off-track-regressing

⊗ Means Missing data

Source: IDB (2008), Based on a simulation by the Economic Policy and Statistics Department of the IDB.

2.3. Role of Government

For many IDB member countries, the government is the predominant provider of education: basic, secondary or tertiary. Governments who committed themselves to achieving the EMDGs and education for all (EFA) goals are under pressure to provide educational opportunities to their citizens, particularly youth and young adults who did not have a chance to go to school. For these reasons and because of the huge externalities associated with education, many would argue for continued public finance in education, particularly at the basic education level. Available data show that, average public spending on education, as percentage of GDP and total government expenditure, are 3% and 15%, respectively. These averages hide wide discrepancies between countries and, in the most part, figures were based on estimates or were arbitrary quoted at differing dates.²⁹ These figures

²⁹ Public expenditure on education as a percentage of total expenditure ranged from 8.3 to 31.5 during last half of the current decade. As a percentage of total government expenditure, public spending on education fluctuated between 1.7 and 5.1, for countries with available data, compared

suggest that business as usual will not lead to universal access, achieving EMDGs by 2015 and/or quality improvement. More alarming is the fact that the 56 member countries have less than 1% of scientists who generate barely 0.1% of the world's original research discoveries each year. It is, therefore, not surprising that the Muslim world lags behind in scientific research, which is a key indicator of future progress.

2.4. Islamic Perspective

This negative picture on failure to attain educational goals in member countries and contributing to knowledge is inconsistent with the primacy of learning and knowledge in Islam. In fact, the first revealed verse of the Quran starts with “*Read in the name of thy Lord... who taught man (the use) of the pen*” (46:18). The Prophet (PBUH) exhorts Muslims to learn and seek knowledge: “*Seek knowledge from cradle to the grave*” also points to the primacy of learning and knowledge.³⁰ In Islamic perspective, knowledge is not only religious for the hereafter, but also knowledge of the sciences of the world. This knowledge is to be pursued and applied in accordance with the highest commitments and ethical principles for the development of the human person. However, failure to correctly observe these teachings and to abide by ethical standards has been a major reason for underdevelopment in parts of the Muslim world (ADB 2006).³¹ If these countries would succeed in transforming their education systems to achieve the EMDGs, more like the group of countries already achieved the goal, the picture of human development in the Muslim world would be significantly better, for empowering the Muslim citizenry for the 21st Century. Indeed, quality-enhancing reforms, within a comprehensive human development strategy, drawn from experiences of high-performing countries, are among “good practices” that could be emulated (Box 1).

with OECD's averages ranging between 4.5 and 6.5 (Bruns et al 2003 and Bashir 2003).

30 I.e., engage in life-long learning. Moreover, “*Seek knowledge even in (as far away as) China*” and “*Wisdom is the lost property of the believer: he gets it wherever he can*”. I.e., borrow from others.

31 Poor development in parts of the Muslim world is also due to other factors, such as colonization and exploitation of the Muslim world by Western powers, disadvantaged geographical location, ethnicity and political fragmentation, poor initial economic conditions, and cultural traditions.

Box 1: Improving Quality of Education & Achieving EMDGs

Two experiences from IDB members, among others, in implementing reforms to improve quality of basic education and make it accessible to all children in Malaysia and Tunisia are intended to provide good practices that could be emulated and adapted by other member countries towards achieving the EMDGs.

Malaysian Experience

The Constitution guarantees the right to education to all Malaysian children as one of the fundamental liberties. Primary and secondary education are provided free of charge, mostly by government or government-aided schools. Moreover, primary education (6-year cycle) is made compulsory to all school-age children. The formal school system has a 6-3-2-2 pattern. All primary pupils follow a national curriculum with no specialization into streams. Like most systems in Asia, curriculum specializations are offered in the middle secondary education at grade 10, where students are allowed to choose between, humanities, science and technical/vocational studies. The importance given to education is clearly reflected in the country's budget allocation over the years. The allocation for education increased in 1985 to almost 400 times the 1955 level and continued its increasing trend throughout the 2000s. I.e., total education expenditure varied between the lowest 4.6 to the highest 7.4% of GNP. Similarly, as a percentage of total public expenditure, spending in education has ranged between 13.0 to 23.9%. Growth of recurrent expenditure over time by level of education reflects priorities accorded by the government to educational expansion, especially in technical secondary education and higher education. The trend in allocations to education revealed the commitment to educational investment and strategies in the various Five-Year Malaysia Development Plans. While the emphasis during the periods encompassing the fourth and fifth Malaysia Plans and the preceding years was on planning of large physical programs and curriculum development, the emphasis in the sixth, seventh and eighth Malaysia Plans has been on maintaining and increasing the quality, equity and efficiency dimensions of education. The focus has been impacted by the requirements of the futuristic Vision 2020 of transforming Malaysia into a newly industrialized country and achieving a developed nation status.

Tunisian Experience

The Tunisian system of education has accomplished significant results, both quantitatively and qualitatively, during the four previous decades. Education for All (EFA) has become a reality in all Tunisian 24-governates. In addition to attaining full schooling of children, a voluntary policy to promote adult education and in-service training has served to increase literacy and to pave the way for "lifelong education". Among the numerous assets of the Tunisian education system, three characteristics emerged. First, gradual transformation of the Tunisian society into a "knowledge society". The universal coverage goal is being achieved for the whole period of basic education, in line with the compulsory education rule for 6-16 year-old. Parallel to this,

other complementary measures have been taken to push the schooling of students to the maximum age possible. As a result, the schooling rate at both secondary and university level has developed remarkably, including KICT. Second, is the implementation of absolute gender equality among all Tunisian to whom schooling has become a crucial means to achieve social status. Third, the training of highly qualified personnel in all fields, to the extent of achieving self-sufficiency in national human resources replacing foreign “*cooperants*”. At present, many Tunisians are working abroad as “*cooperants*” in many countries. Early and on-going reforms have aimed at modernizing the education system, increasing its efficiency and improving its performance and creativity. The concept of the on-going reform of the “tomorrow’s school project” is based on the principle of free, equitable and compulsory basic education and offers the educational institution a new profile advanced by the nationals “a school for all with opportunities to each”. To fulfill its needs in qualified human resources, Tunisia has accorded priority and demonstrated due commitments by allocating, among others, 7% of its GDP and about a third of the State budget to education and training. This emphasis places Tunisia among countries, which heavily invested in education in the world.

Sources: Bashir 2004, Mingat (1995) and Tunisia’s Ministry of Education and Training (2002).

3. Towards A Comprehensive Human Development Strategy: Aspirations

In significantly transforming the landscape of the overarching objective of development, namely “comprehensive human development”, in the Muslim world, IDB member countries may focus on three thrusts.

First, to develop integrated development strategies based on stages of development, initial conditions, strategic challenges confronting the country, its endowments and priorities.

Second, in the short to medium term, each country will help create economic opportunities to generate productive and decent employment to its citizens, driven by the adopted development model.

Third, each country will facilitate equal access to opportunities through support to education and basic health, modeled on a long-term comprehensive human development strategy. In this setting expenditures on education and health should be considered as capital (investment) spending in their budgets.

The overriding lesson from success stories in sustaining inclusive growth strategy and good practices in comprehensive human development strategies is the imperative for enhancing human capabilities, particularly through people-centered

approach. That is, in designing education sector strategy, priority should be given to the access, as well as the quality, efficiency and relevance of education. These are the essential ingredients to increase the future participation of the population in the work force and the society. In this context, greater consideration should be accorded to education resource management as well as monitoring and evaluation dimensions. More importantly, the curriculum development at all levels of education should be competency-based, with the aim of balancing quality scientific knowledge, ethical (moral) and spiritual (religious) growth of knowledge. Indeed, knowledge and ethical conduct are the key factors in human development strategy and the fulfillment of God's Mission for human beings on Earth (IDB 2006).³²

The educational needs of countries are different and accordingly, the education sector strategy should be guided, among others, by these needs and aspire higher standards for the children to become responsible citizens in the future. For example, needs assessment for regional groupings of the IDB member countries suggest that: The main objective for countries that are currently off-track on achieving the EMDGs and the ambitious targets set in the "IDB 1440H Vision" could be to reach universal access by to first grade by 2014; universal primary education completion by 2020; and to increase the transition rate between primary and lower secondary education to 70% by 2020;

The overarching objective of the conflict-affected and fragile states that are off-track on achieving the EMDGs, could be to reach universal access to first grade by 2016, universal primary education completion by 2020, and a primary to lower secondary transition rate of at least 60% by 2020;³³

The main objective of countries with potential to achieving the EMDGs but at risk could be to reach universal access to first grade by 2011, universal primary education completion by 2017, and enrolment ratio at lower secondary of at least 85% in 2016³⁴; and

32 This mission has been conferred on them by being made the *Khalifahs* or vicegerents of God on Earth "*I will create A vicegerent on earth...*" al-Qur'an, 2:30).

33 Education development of these countries has been limited by past conflicts, which have led to destruction of schools, displacement of population, and fragile capacity.

34 These countries have a net primary education enrolment over 60% and a gross enrolment ratio over 80%. This means, theoretically, that with enhanced efficiency gains and quality improvements, they can increase the net enrolment ratio to about 80% (IDB 2009b).

The ultimate objective of countries at low risk in achieving the EMDGs and the goals of the 1440H Vision, could be to sustain efficiency gains and quality improvements in net enrolments at all levels of education.³⁵

Lessons from good practice also suggest, among others, that in all these groups of countries, there is a need to strengthen education sector management and institutional capacity at school level, furthering decentralization where appropriate and promoting community and family involvement. Such measures may be taken as part of the education reform and its frequent reviews, with the view to facilitating access, reducing inequalities and improving the outcome of the education system. Although the major responsibility for ensuring that the population in member countries is educated rests mainly with those countries, IDB can make critical contribution in this strategic sectors, as discussed in the section to follow.

Another area of action for achieving the EMDGs and goals of the 1440H Vision is the promotion of access to, and use of, information communication technology (ICT) in education system at all levels to help schools and communities to share successful experiences and methods. Such a program can also support the development of center of excellence in modern sciences, mathematics and technology in order to create a critical mass of skills for the knowledge economy and advancing its culture.

Finally, member countries need to restore and then tap on the resources of the historical role of *Awqāf* and *Zakāh* institutions in the development of Islamic communities and nations, particularly in increasing access to education and health services³⁶. Proceeds from *Awqāf* were also used to finance living expenses of students and teachers in schools. Another important source for facilitating the expansion of education in member countries is *Zakāh*. There is consensus among many scholars that proceeds from *Zakāh* could be spent on advancing knowledge

35 In these countries, gross primary education is over 100%. I.e., they have the theoretical capacity to enroll all the primary school age children. There is also room for efficiency gains because the net enrolment ratios vary among these countries.

36 Historically, *Awqāf* have contributed generously to the socio-economic development of Islamic communities. Apart from providing financial help for the needy and the poor, the *Awqāf* institutions were accredited with the spread mosques, books and Islamic education. For example, many of Islamic higher education institutions like Al-Azhar university in Egypt, Qarwiyin university in Morocco, Zaytoona in Tunisia, and many other centers of higher learning were financed by *Awqāf*. *Awqāf* were also the principal financiers of mosques and Islamic centers in many countries today, and were principal financier of Madrassas, libraries and Qur'ānic schools (Bashir 2004).

and education, as an important instrument of reducing poverty³⁷. I.e., proceeds from *Awqāf* and *Zakāh* could be used, among others, to offset the direct and indirect costs of schooling, particularly for the poor, if governments raise their efficiencies through capacity building and training. In this regard, the IDB Group is undertaking an initiative to become the world's leading advisory and capacity building organization to facilitate the development of *Awqāf* and *Zakāt* sectors, building on previous and on-going initiatives in the sectors.

4. The Role of IDB Group

For over 30 years, IDB has emphasized the importance of investment in human development, in particular investments in education and health with the view to enhancing national capacity development efforts and to promoting greater access to better quality of education and basic health services. Indeed, the share of financing allocation to the social sectors relative to the overall financing activities have been increasing steadily over the past three decades: from an annual average of 11% during the late 1970s and early 1980s, to nearly 13% in the late 1980s, to 21% in the first half of the 1990s, to 24% in the late 1990s and exceeding 30% in the early 2000s (Salih 1999 and IDB Database 2009).

4.1. Strategic Response and Resurgence of Interest in Islamic Vision of Development

To further accelerate progress in this field, IDB Group recently launched its long term “1440 Vision” that guides its strategic development for the next decade and beyond. At least five of the key eight strategic thrusts identified in the Vision addressed the overarching goal of achieving comprehensive human development. As an Islamic Development Bank, IDB Vision is driven by a vision of development that is inspired by Islam. That is, the publication of the 1440H Vision and its translation into rolling strategic plans triggered, among others, renewed debate and resurgence of interest on the Islamic vision of development.

37 Others also justified the use of *Zakāh* for advancing education based on the category “*fī sabuil illah*” or in the cause of Allah. For example, In Egypt, the *Zakāh* committees have built many religious institutes under the directions of the *Zakāh* payers and put these institute under the management and directorship of Al-Azhar. In Sudan, the *Zakāh* Fund regularly pays for the living expenses, scholarships and institution fees of poor students at various levels of education. Interested readers may refer to (Salih 1999 and Ahmed 2004) in further details on the role of *Awqāf* and *Zakāh* on prompting education.

The Islamic vision of development has its roots in religion (*din*) and is governed by divine law (Sharīʿah), ethics and morality (*akhlaq*). It is predicated upon the premise that human beings are created by God to fulfill a specific mission. The mission to realize the role of human person as servant to God (*Abdul Lilah*) and His vicegerent (*Khalifa*) on Earth. Development in Islam is centered on the development the human person to fulfill these two divinely ordained functions. In turn, the development goals of Islam are anchored in the concepts of human well-being (*falāḥ* and *sa'adah*) and the good life (*hayatun tayyibah*) in this world and hereafter³⁸. Human well-being and the good life are to be attained through balanced satisfaction of both the material and spiritual needs of all human beings (Chapra 2007 and IDB 2006).

To make this balanced satisfaction possible for all humanity, Islam emphasizes a strong sense of human dignity, unity and socio-economic justice for all. The well-being of the people, which is the aim of religion and the objective of the Sharīʿah, will prevail when their faith, their life, their intellect, their posterity and their property are safeguarded, and when there is complete justice, mercy and wisdom pervading all areas of their public life. In fact, the objective of the Sharīʿah is to promote the well-being of the people, which lies in safeguarding *Maqasid al-Sharīʿah*, defined by Imam al-Ghazali (Chapra 2007). The five primary *maqasid* are the human self (*al-nafs*), the faith (*din*), intellect (*ʿaql*), posterity (*nasl*), and wealth (*māl*), upon which the Islamic vision of development evolves.

Moreover, development from the Islamic perspective is not for Muslims only, or for one race, or for one gender only. It is for all humanity. Similarly, justice in Islam is universal justice, and human dignity is for all. Concern for the poor, and assistance by the rich for the poor, is an important tenet of Islam. Hence, the importance of *Zakāh*, a system of divinely mandated alms that enjoins upon those who can afford to give a fixed portion of their wealth to the poor at least once a year.³⁹ That is, compassion and solidarity are valued religious virtues. Put together as outlined above, these principles are conceptually similar to the components and objectives of the human development model.

38 *Falāḥ* and *sa'adah* also mean success, happiness, prosperity, or felicity, depending on the context upon which it appears (IDB 2006). The ultimate end and central element of human development in Islam is the attainment of happiness (*falāḥ*). At the highest level of happiness is a spiritual intellectual and ethical state of the soul (*sa'adah*). Happiness in this world and in the Hereafter can be attained when right knowledge is accompanied by ethical action.

39 Hence, also the various charities (*ṣadaqah*) and pious endowments (*Awqāf*) enjoined by Islam.

A healthy foundation for development of the people on the Islamic concept of development will prevail when people enjoy a decent standard of living, and when opportunities to advance and prosper are sufficiently available. In Islam, the fulfillment of human potentials is an important aspect of the good life (*hayatun tayyibah*). The foundation will be more robust when the population is healthy and well educated, women enjoy equal opportunities in institutions of learning and the workplace, and people participate effectively in government. It is to be noted that optimal and balanced human development requires right knowledge (*ilm*) and ethical action (*amal salih*).⁴⁰ Therefore, pursuit of knowledge such as in the sciences for economic and human development is obligatory in Islam, and is considered a form of worship of God.

The IDB Group intends to focus and establish leadership position in its member countries in supporting inclusive growth and comprehensive human development, which is considered both a means and end of development. Filtered through the prism of its 1440H Vision, the IDB Group strategy for comprehensive human development will focus on two pillars. The first short to medium term pillar of inclusive growth will target programs and activities that enable creation of employment and income-earning opportunities, improving access to markets, in areas where the majority of the youthful population live or work, and further support inclusive growth strategy through people-centered approach. This is to be augmented by facilitating removal of barriers in respective countries that impede access to these opportunities and facilities. The second medium to long-term pillar of human development includes education, health, capacity building, social protection and social/gender equity as the central elements in sustained growth, poverty reduction and an end-objective of sustainable development.

4.2. IDB Focus on Education

In education, the long-term objective is to achieve the targets of the 1440H Vision (including universalizing primary and secondary education by 2020) and the EMDGs (universal access to basic education by 2015), in line with the country objectives discussed in the preceding paragraph 26. Priority should be given to the access, as well as the quality, efficiency and relevance of education, with an increasing movement towards knowledge-based economies. A knowledge-based

40 Right knowledge consists of both knowledge of the religion and knowledge for worldly advancement. It is a religious obligation for Muslims to fully immerse themselves in both forms of knowledge.

economy constitutes one of the main transformational objectives of the 1440H Vision. In addition, four leading initiatives and/or on-going programs are identified in the 1431H-1433H IDB Group strategy. These include bilingual education, vocational literacy, modernization of Qur'ānic schools and *Madrassas*, and ICT programs for education.

Bilingual education program will continue to be implemented in Sub-Saharan Africa and will cover the modernization of Qur'ānic schools and *Madrassas*, the primary and lower secondary as well as improvement of Arabic teaching at upper secondary and the universities in non-Arabic speaking countries in Africa. While the vocational literacy program is designed to help the poor by equipping them with the relevant functional literacy competencies and notional skills and by giving them access to microfinance schemes. Such a program will benefit out-of-school children, teenagers and young adults, and women working groups.⁴¹ IDB intervention in science, mathematics and ICT program will be at upper secondary and tertiary education levels. This program will focus on teaching, learning and mastering of sciences, mathematics and ICT in order to create and sustain critical mass of skills for knowledge economy. The program will also support the development of centers of excellence in this field in member countries. I.e., IDB Group will focus more on the soft aspect of education in supporting education sector and its reform in member countries.

4.3 *Potential Niches in Health*

Based on the situation analysis and taking into account the presence of many development partners in health, including “vertical funds” with large amounts of grant money, the IDB Group interventions in the sector is selective and much focused than before. In this regard, IDB will concentrate on special niches where it has a comparative advantage and this is seen as being in preventive health care. In terms of disease prevention, especially primary prevention, the IDB can use its access to *Madrassas*, mosques and other unique Islamic institutions to work with religion and community leaders, Qur'ānic teachers, youth and women associations

41 Focus and emphasis on IDB support of education may change, among others, the subsector distribution, in line with the targets set in the 1440H Vision. For example, primary/basic education is targeted to rise to 35% of total IDB group financing of education, compared with the current average of 24%; but 20% for upper secondary and tertiary education, compared with current average of 49%; high 25% for technical education and vocational training, compared with the current average of only 5%; 10% for science and technology and ICT; and the remaining 10% for others, including technical assistance, cooperation, Muslim communities, advisory services, etc. (IDB 2009b).

to promote health messages in local languages. These messages could use Islamic principles relating to public health such as “cleanliness as part of *Iman*” and the importance of breastfeeding, immunization, dental care, washing hands, as well as the dangers of smoking, and religious injunctions against habits that could damage both the body and soul.

In terms of alternative health financing, the IDB may play the Islamic solidarity chord to promote the development of such alternate schemes in order to facilitate access of underserved population to quality health services in member countries. For this purpose, non-conventional products could be promoted, in partnership with other stakeholders in this field. These include new health financing products, risk pooling for the poor, and improvements in health system, to be financed in part through *Awqāf*, *Zakāh* and *ṣadaqah*. Since the IDB Group cannot by itself meet all these needs, it can partner with those actively involved in the health sector, particularly Islamic philanthropists, private corporations, Islamic Relief Agencies, NGOs, other multilateral development banks and other specialized UN agencies (such as WHO, UNICEF, and Global Funds). That is, IDB initiatives with other partners in this sphere could include financing programs that help raise awareness as well as providing health education in needy high-risk communities, in line with the proposed tools.

5. Conclusion

Human development has become a popular phrase during the last three decades and continues to be used extensively by governments, non-governmental organizations, academicians, politicians and the media. However, the concept of human development is not new. It dates back to at least Aristotle and revolves around improving human development, i.e., the real wealth of nations. Behind the popularity of the concept and its measurement lies a wealth of intellectual contribution by development thinkers and eminent scholars, including at least one Nobel Prize winner in economics. The principal architect and advocate of the concept is the late Pakistani economist Mahbub ul Haq, particularly after the publication of the Human Development Report annually since 1990. These reports has created and developed four main composite human development indices to assess measurable dimensions of human development. These are the human development index (HDI), the human poverty index (HPI), the gender-related development index (GDI) and the gender empowerment measure (GEM).

The recent HDI suggests that more than a third of the IDB member countries are ranked in the low human development category and two-thirds of the least developed countries are IDB member countries. In fact, more than 40% of the

world's poor and one out three people are Muslims, while they account for only 20% of the world's population. To make the matter worse, the 56 member countries have less than 1% of scientists who generate barely 0.1% of the world's original research discoveries each year. It is, therefore, not surprising that the Muslim world lags behind in human development. Nevertheless, the Muslim world is endowed with tremendous collective wealth. These include human and non-human wealth, notably highest youthful population, abundant unutilized social, religious and cultural capital, lion's share of the natural resources (soil and subsoil), particularly the underground assets, plenty of untapped renewal energy sources, significant success stories in historical discoveries and some nascent development practices, and huge potential in human development arena.

The potential of transforming the tremendous collective wealth of the Muslim world into comprehensive human development has been decided by the Heads of States at the Third Extraordinary Session of the Islamic Summit Conference in Makkah Al-Mukarramah, on December 2005 and delineated in the OIC Ten-Year Action Program. The stakeholders were further encouraged by the adopted comprehensive human development approach by the IDB Group in its long term Vision. Accordingly, some member countries are embracing the idea in their development strategies and plans. This trend is further encouraged by the worldwide acceptance and use of the composite human development indicators to monitor progress in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The composite index is originally adopted to measure human development and rank countries accordingly. On a positive note, 20% of the IDB member countries were ranked among the high human development category in 2006. The experience of these countries coupled with the success stories in some member countries encouraged other member countries in developing their comprehensive human development programs.

Again, the growing worldwide influence of the alternative human development model on the current development debate has, among others, renewed interest on the concept of the Islamic vision of development, which is also centered on comprehensive human development as both means and end of development. Such interest, in turn, fosters confidence among the proponents of the Islamic vision of development, with the aim to enriching further the development debate. Despite the conceptual underpinning of the Islamic vision of development, this leaves a lot to be desired in operationalizing it. Nonetheless, there were attempts to develop education and health sector programs, from an Islamic perspective. These include modernizing Qur'ānic schools and *Madrassas*, curriculum development, using Islamic principles on public health such as "cleanliness as part of *Iman*", religious

injunctions against bad habits, and utilization of *Awqāf*, *Zakāh* and *ṣadaqah* to facilitate access by all to quality education and health services. However, these attempts remain fragmented and not necessarily drawn from a comprehensive human development strategy, thus reinforcing urgent needs to develop and operationalize all the components of human development strategy, from an Islamic vision of development perspective.

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