

CHAPTER VII

THE EFFECT OF POPULATION GROWTH ON ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

It is generally accepted today that population increase is a curse to the developing world. Rapid population growth tends to retard economic development. In this chapter, the core of our discussion, shall concentrate on the effects of population growth on per capita incomes. We shall study the three principal problems prevalent in the overpopulated countries. These problems have been created by rapid population increase. It should be pointed out here that our stress is on the problems of overpopulated areas because these areas comprise the largest number of individuals in the whole of the underdeveloped countries. The population problems can be summarized as follows:-

- (1) High birth rates result in non-dependent children per adult, which reduces savings and capital formation, and aggravates difficulties of controlling the population.
- (2) The decline in death rates and high birth rates lead to rapid population increase, which, in turn, aggravates the shortage of capital.
- (3) Excessive density of agricultural population in relation to area of cultivated land retards economic development.

We shall now analyse each problem separately in the above manner.

The age distribution of any population depends to a large extent on the course of fertility. Persistent high levels of fertility give a broad-based distribution that tapers rapidly with age. This sort of distribution is often termed as a 'heavy bottom' age structure. Persistent low levels of fertility, on the other hand, give a narrow-based distribution. If fertility is low enough, the age distribution may be broader in the shoulder than at the base.

As a result of the high levels of fertility in the underdeveloped countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America, we have the so-called broadly-based and sharply tapering age structure. In other words, because of high fertility, there are relatively more young people and fewer adults.

Deeper examinations into the age distribution reveal that the proportions of children under 15 years are approximately 50 per cent or more of the total population. This ratio is typical of most underdeveloped areas. Table 8.1A indicates that the percentage of those under 15 years in 1947 was about 40 per cent for Africa, Latin America, Near

ESTIMATED AND PROJECTED AGE PYRAMID OF WORLD POPULATION BY REGIONS 1947

Region	Per Cent of total Population			
	Under 15 Years	15-59 Years	60 Years and over	Total
World	35	57	7	100
Africa	40	55	5	100
Americas:				
Northern America	35	54	11	100
Latin America	40	58	5	100
Asia:				
Near East	40	54	6	100
South Central Asia	40	54	4	100
Japan	37	56	5	100
Remaining Far East (except Andaman Isles)	40	55	5	100
Europe				
North West Europe	24	62	14	100
Southern Europe	30	59	11	100
Eastern Europe (including USSR)	34	53	7	100
Oceania	38	62	10	100

SOURCE - U.S. The World's Future and Consequences of Population Trends,
 1948, p. 144

Iraq, British Central Africa, and most of the New South. This percentage has increased the most considerably in recent years. In 1936, the estimated average was 25 per cent for Africa and Asia, and 34 per cent for Latin America. (Table 2, p.) The more developed regions, however, had an average proportion of 20 to 25 per cent since their birth rates are relatively lower. In 1936, the proportion was 17 per cent for Northern America, 24 for Northern Europe, 14 for Australia, 11 for Southern Europe and 10 per cent for Canada.

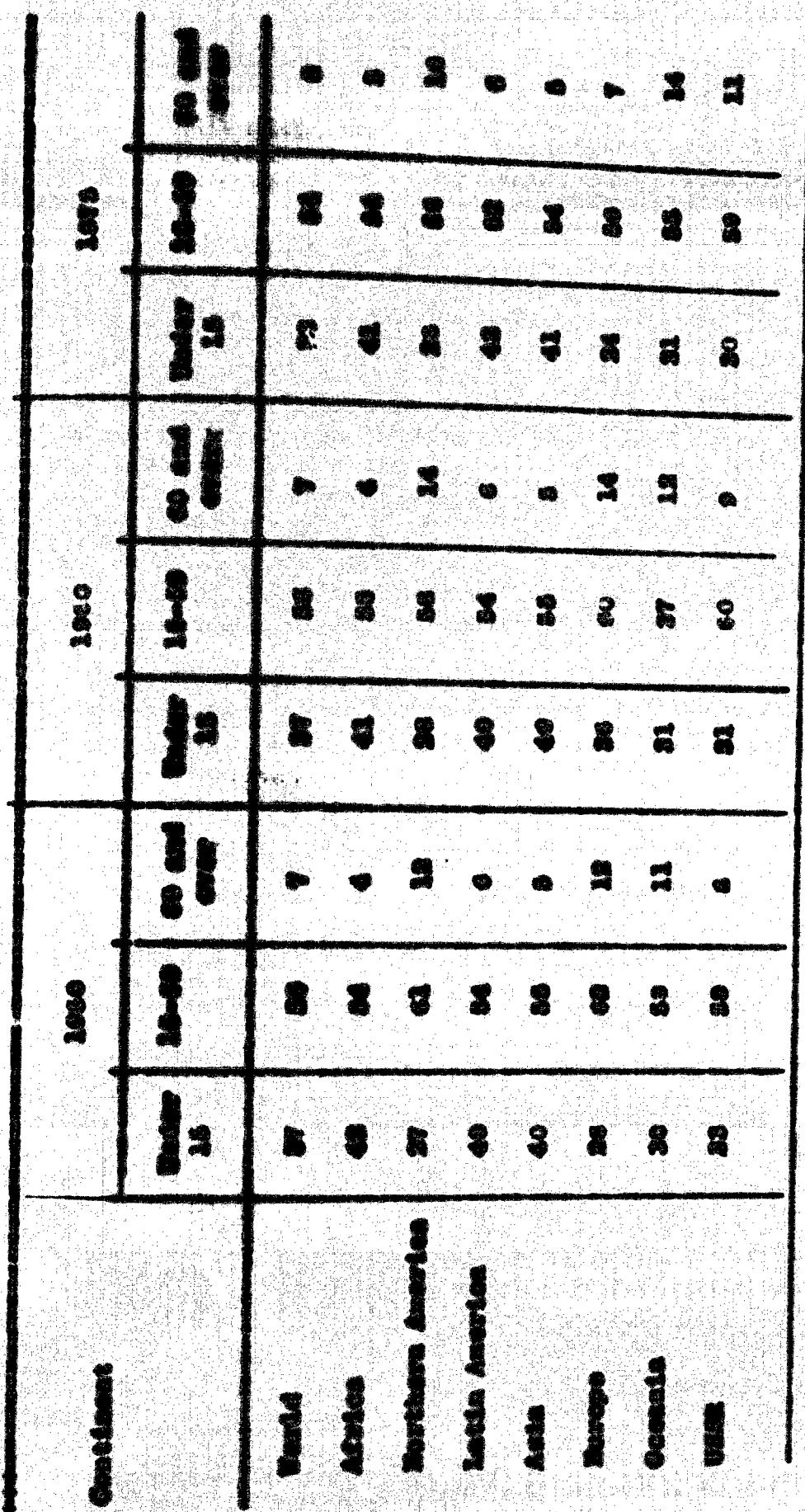
However, the proportion of persons 15 years and over who remain 5 per cent in the underdeveloped countries while the rate rises to over 70 in all but one in the more advanced countries. Indeed, at birth 15 to 20 years, persons between 15-25 years of age, the supply of milk of importance for economically active men up to 30 per cent of men in developed countries but less than 20 per cent in underdeveloped nations. Thus, the age structures in developed areas are extremely different from those in the underdeveloped areas.

Having examined the age structure of different categories, we shall now discuss the impact on economic development. Notwithstanding, there is a shortage of manpower in the countries of Asia, Africa, and Latin America as a consequence of their "either heavy age" structures. The shortage of younger persons is a hindrance to economic development.

If the economically productive age bracket is taken as 15 to 45 years, then the proportion in this category, is considerably smaller in the underdeveloped areas. This small proportion, then, reflects the low level of economic development without the productive power of the labour force. With this productive power of the labour force, it cannot expect to increase productively rapidly, implying that economic development goes hand in hand.

Again, the very backward agricultural economies, will have to wait to wait for an early age to make up in the deficiency which, however, can be lighter the heavier the backward dependency. Children are often confined to a considerable extent, if not full time, before the tenth year. In India, the 1945 census showed that 43 per cent boys between 10-14 years old were still in primary education. The employment of children of this age is in, however, innumerable high standard of education, and when the parent is regarded as a subsidiary addition of the economic welfare. Moreover, the utilization of an infant child to the benefit of the family is much more than that of an adult person. The high proportion of children population thus results a further tendency to lower per unit a infant ratio. The employment of children, the people eventually wanting to be the full effect of their physical capacity in order to work with

ESTIMATE OF PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION AT VARIOUS AGES:



SOURCE:- III. THE Future Growth of World Population, New York, 1919, p. 25.

The lack of adult manpower. In the more advanced societies, however, voluntary or formal retirement generally precedes the loss of capacity since the proportions of adult manpower are greater. The ratio of men engaged in economic activities is low in many underdeveloped countries, especially where the position of women is still regarded much important at home than in economic activities. This would further contribute to the shortage of adult manpower.

In relation to the question of manpower, we must not neglect the primitive aspect of labour. Labour in the underdeveloped countries is illiterate and apathetic. This lack of skills, caused by absence of educational facilities, explains partly the low productivity and slow progress in economic development. Many farmers are still practising primitive techniques of production. To quote an observation by United Nations experts, "in some parts of India just agricultural lives are no better today than they were in the time of Haroos."¹ Lack of skilled labour thus forms an obstacle to economic growth.

It is therefore not possible for underdeveloped countries to industrialise for modern technology requires a skilled and literate labour force. In other words, the lack of skilled manpower impedes industrial development. The workers therefore have to be trained and educated or to facilitate industrial growth and economic development. To secure a supply of skilled workers, the developing countries must build schools and recruit more qualified teachers. Many of them, realising importance of education as a basis for development have already invested large sums in the provision of more education facilities. Their efforts, however, are somewhat offset by a larger increase in the number of children reaching school age each year. The recent investment in education in most of these countries, in other words, cannot simply cope with the increase in children population. In India, even if the optimism of the third Five Year Plan, in which large sums have been allocated for education purposes, is fulfilled, it is estimated that, during the school year 1965-66, there would still be about 40 million children between 6 - 15 years who would not be in school. Other developing countries are also facing similar problem. High birth rates that have it more difficult on the part of the governments concerned to provide adequate number of schools and teachers. Without sufficient education facilities, the underdeveloped countries can never enjoy the fruits of economic development. Hence a greater investment in education is vital to the economy.

¹ United Nations, Review for the Economic Development of Underdeveloped Countries, New York, 1951 P. 28

Moreover, high fertility has the effect of creating a pressure on consumption, which in turn, would lessen savings. In an developed area, where large families and low income levels are characteristic features of the economy, an individual worker must large proportion of his income on food and other necessities to in his family. Having a large family, he therefore finds little or no opportunity at all to save his earnings. Even if he happens to, he seldom puts all his savings into productive investment, normally investing in heating. Hence, a high level of dependency for the low level of savings in the underdeveloped economies. Birth rates thus promote consumption at the expense of investment.

In short, high fertility causes a shortage of capital, however, a burden on consumption will finally a low level of investment in countries.

The low level of investment often reflects the scarcity of capital brings us to the second population problem. Since higher rates of population growth, the underdeveloped nations find it difficult to provide sufficient supply of capital for the increasing number of workers. As the governments concerned are unable to cope with the increasing populations, available capital, already limited in supply, would have to be divided among a larger number, thereby reducing the share of each individual worker. Since each worker is now getting a smaller amount of capital, per capita income would tend to decrease further. Rapid population increase therefore aggravates the capital shortage which in turn, would check economic growth.

It has been calculated that a country, having a population growth of 2 per cent annually, must save about 2 to 5 per cent of its national income. Hence, if a population increases by 2.5 per cent a year, typical of most backward economies, 5 to 12.5 per cent of national income must be saved. In contrast the present levels of saving in most underdeveloped countries are far below the required level. Table 9 gives some indications of savings in these countries. It is, thus, dubious whether they can save 12.5 per cent of their national income. And, even if we assume that they are able to do so, their per capita income would still remain unchanged. This is because of the fact that the required levels mentioned are aimed at not to raise, the existing standards of living, from falling.

In view of the population threat and existing low living standards, a country must save a greater portion of its national income before it can raise its per capita income. United Nations experts have estimated that with an annual population of 1 per cent, required savings would be 13 per cent for underdeveloped countries.² Since the average annual rate of

² UNO, The Investment and Consequences of Population Trends, New York, 1955 P.270

NET DOMESTIC SAVING AS PERCENTAGE OF NATIONAL INCOME, 1949

REGION	PERCENTAGE
Latin America	8
Middle East, including Egypt	6
Africa, excluding Egypt	5
South Central Asia	5
Far East, excluding Japan	3

Source:- Meter and Baldwin; Economic Development, P. 305

population increase is 2.5 per cent, more than 20 per cent of national income would have to be invested for the purpose of attaining a higher level of income per capita. "Japanese savings from 1900 - 1940 - one tenth of national income, according to Clark, and Tailey estimated that investment from 1900 - 1940 varied between 10-17 per cent of national income transformed in the course of approximately seventy years from a backward, till country to the industrial leader of the Far East. Similarly, apparently Japan was able to develop industrially... because it sold and invested and spent wisely."³

We shall next come to the first population problem, that is the excessive density of agricultural population in relation to the area of cultivated land. Excessive density implies that each worker would have a smaller acreage of land as more new workers are added to the force. With additional workers, the law of diminishing return then begins to operate. This explains the low productivity of land on a low acreage per head. Excessive density therefore retards economic development.

In the following discussion, we shall elaborate the effects of excessive population density in the underdeveloped countries.

In certain countries the population densities are considerably higher than reported for Europe at the beginning of its economic development. India, for example, had 118 persons per square kilometre in 1955, while France, 45 and England, 49 persons per square Kilometre at the end of eighteenth century. Moreover, Ceylon has about 136 persons and Burma, 237 persons per square kilometre (Table 10.1). With rapid rates of population growth the population densities in these developing areas are expected to increase further. From table 10.2, the population density for South East Asia is likely to increase from 58 persons in 1950, to 93-92 on 1975, and to 83-122 persons per square Kilometres in 2000. Similar tendency is assumed to happen elsewhere.

We have thus seen that an undeveloped economy generally has a very dense agricultural population. As a result, each farmer would hardly have the opportunity to cultivate a small piece of land. According to Table 10.3 each worker has about 0.3 of an acre of arable land in Mexico and Jamaica, where density are 652.6 and 545.0 persons per square mile, respectively. In Egypt, each worker possesses similar acreage of land. The small size of farm is not economical. It hinders application of those improved techniques which are of doubtful value.

³Ibid P.280

TABLE 10.1

POPULATION GROWTH AND DENSITY

Area	Annual Rate of Increase 1953-56	Population density 1956 (per square kilometer)
Africa:		
Egypt	2.3	24
Libya	1.2	1
Union of South Africa	1.8	11
Belgian Congo	1.8	5
Cape Verde Islands	3.3	44
Portuguese Guinea	3.4	15
Mauritius	3.3	305
Rhodesia	2.7	6
Nyasaland	3.1	14
Southland	-	-
North America		
Canada	2.7	2
United States	1.8	21
Central America		
Costa Rica	3.9	19
El Salvador	3.4	113
Guatemala	3.1	31
Honduras	2.9	16

TABLE 10.1

Area	Annual Rate of Increase 1950-55	Population density 1955 (per square kilometer)
South America:		
Argentina	1.9	7
Colombia	2.2	21
Chile	2.6	9
Paraguay	2.9	4
Venezuela	3.1	7
Brazil	2.4	7
Asia:		
Burma	1.4	29
Ceylon	2.5	125
China	2.2	64
Taiwan	3.8	257
India	1.3	110
Indonesia	1.8	36
Israel	3.5	38
Japan	1.3	242
Malaya	2.1	48
Philippines	1.9	74
Europe:		
Italy	0.6	100

TABLE 10.1

Area	Annual Rate of Increase 1951-55	Population density 1956 (per square kilometre)
Ireland	0.5	41
France	0.6	79
United Kingdom	0.4	211
Australia	2.3	1

Source:- UN, Demographic Yearbook, 1957, New York, 1958

TABLE 20.2
POPULATION DENSITY AND RATES OF POPULATION GROWTH

Region	Area (1000 km)	Density (persons per km)		
		1950	1975	2000
Australia and New Zealand	7970	1.3	2	2.3
Southern Africa	2340	4.9	8.9	12-18
Pacific Islands	585	5.0	9	15
Tropical South America	13700	6.2	11-12	18-277
Middle Africa	4160	6.5	10	12-24
Northern Africa	21600	6.6	9-11	13-21
Northern America	5820	7.3	12-13	19-28
USSR	22500	8.1	12	15-18
South West Asia	5550	11	19-21	28-41
Central America	2510	14	27-29	444-66
South East Asia	4490	38	58-62	83-122
East Asia (without Japan)	11500	52	77-83	110-163
Northern and eastern Europe	2250	59	66-68	70-83
Caribbean	236	69	106-115	153-223

TABLE 10.2
POPULATION DENSITY AND RATES OF POPULATION GROWTH

Region	Area (1000 km)	Density (persons per km)		
		1950	1975	2000
Southern Europe	1690	79	95-100	105-129
Central South Asia	5140	91	132-143	190-220
Central Europe	1010	130	149-154	158-188
Japan & Ryukyu Island	372	225	296-315	536-427

Source: UN, The Future Growth of World Population, New York, p. 25

TABLE 10.5

ARABLE LAND IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	State Density in Number of inhabitants per square mile	Arable Land in Acres per Capita
United States	54.8	5.0
Canada	5.2	6.6
Argentina	18.2	4.1
Uruguay	86.4	2.0
Mexico	39.0	1.7
Puerto Rico	652.6	0.3
Jamaica	345.8	0.3
Australia	2.8	5.5
New Zealand	20.8	0.6
United Kingdom	657.0	0.4
Denmark	287.8	1.6
Netherlands	852.8	0.2
France	202.8	1.2
Poland	221.0	1.7
Yugoslavia	176.8	1.2
Bulgaria	176.8	1.4
Spain	143.2	1.7
USSR	26.0	2.7
Egypt	57.2	0.3
Cold Coast	52.0	3.5

TABLE 10.3

~~MAN-LAND RATIOS IN INDUSTRIAL AND AGRICULTURAL COUNTRIES~~

Country	Crude Density in Number of inhabitants per Square mile	Arable Land in Acres per Capita
Kenya	23.0	0.7
India	239.0	0.9
Malaya	117.0	1.0
Philippines	187.2	0.5
China	156.0	0.5
Japan	618.8	0.2

Sources: UN, FAO, Yearbook 1954, vol. III, part I, 531, Greenwald
 The McGraw-Hill Dictionary of Modern Economics.

less they are used in operations on a larger scale. Moreover, the relative abundance of labour, encourages the use of labour intensive forms of cultivation. In some cases, the workers, even practising most laborious methods, are unable to keep themselves occupied on their little patches of land and spend a large part of each year in pure idleness. Excessive density of agricultural population causes low productivity and hinders economic development.

Population pressure, in addition, sometimes leads to overgrazing and soil exhaustion or to the utilisation of lands, which are suitable for the production of crops, and which deteriorate under cultivation. In Haiti, farmers are constantly clearing new fields to accommodate their growing numbers. They have even stripped hillsides of their protective forest cover, thereby giving an allowance for soil erosion. Soil erosion, in turn, would create a shrinkage of the capital resources on which population depends for its livelihood. And population increase is thus a threat to economic development.

Overcrowding of farm lands, we should remember, occurs not only where land is relatively scarce but also where land is still abundant in relation to population. In Latin America, although regions of interior remain uninhabited, the density of agricultural population in cultivated areas is generally high, about 200 per square mile. Africa, which ranks as one of the most sparsely settled continent has a higher density of agricultural population in certain places than in America. For instance, the narrow valley of the Nile, an important agricultural area of Egypt, has 1600 persons per square mile. However, the mere existence of unoccupied land does not mean that there is no problem in making room for more agricultural workers. The problems are:

(1) Much of the land are unsuitable for farming and are also inaccessible. Such types of land are thus of little importance for agricultural purposes.

(2) Large initial investments are needed to bring them under cultivation, if ever they are abundant in supply.

(3) Certain technical know-how is also required.

(4) The cost of maintaining the farm and family facilities, of establishing new homes for the, by the same amount.

(5) Migration from other regions may not be possible due to legal restrictions.

(6) Locations may not be attractive because of terrain, climate, health, or an unsavoury social and political environment.

In view of the number of problems, which farmers have to encounter in opening up new lands, they rather prefer to stay in the already crowded areas. Thus, agricultural population continues to grow in densely populated areas. As density increases, the average productivity per worker would fall, resulting therefore in low income per capita.

With regards to the study of population pressure, one must not ignore the concept of disguised unemployment or hidden employment, even though the concept is not so widely accepted as it used to be about 10 years ago.⁴

In brief, 'disguised unemployment' is a situation in which, even with unchanged techniques of agriculture, a large part of the population engaged in agriculture could be removed, without reducing agricultural output. The given output, in other words, could be obtained with a smaller labour force. And, if with better techniques, more labour could be taken out, without reducing output. This situation arises from the fact that the resources of the family, such land and capital, are too small to keep all working members of the family fully employed, throughout the year, and that there exists no opportunity for directing a part of the supply away into other occupations at appropriate times. It thus denotes a condition in which a number of people are working on farms or small plots, contributing virtually nothing to output, but subsisting on a share of their family's real income. In the case of disguised unemployment, there is no possibility of personal identification. We cannot point to any person and say he is unemployed in disguise. The people may all be occupied and one may consider himself idle. Yet, the fact remains that certain member of the labour force could be dispensed with, without making any change in the volume of output. In technical terms, marginal productivity of labour, over a wide range is zero or even negative (meaning that by removing some, farm output could actually be increased). Disguised employment cannot be easily measured. United Nations experts, however, are able to estimate the surplus agricultural labour for Egypt in 1957 as one-half of the total farm population. For India, Pakistan, parts of Philippines and Indonesia, it is assumed that the surplus cannot be less than 20 to 25 per cent.

Rapid population increase thus presents a two-sided effect. High fertility has created a shortage of manpower and prompted consumption at the expense of savings. The shortage of capital would also be aggravated by high rates of population growth, in addition, cause high densities of agricultural population. We can simply say that population increase has adverse effects on the various factors of production - labour, capital and land. All these effects, in turn, tends to retard economic development.