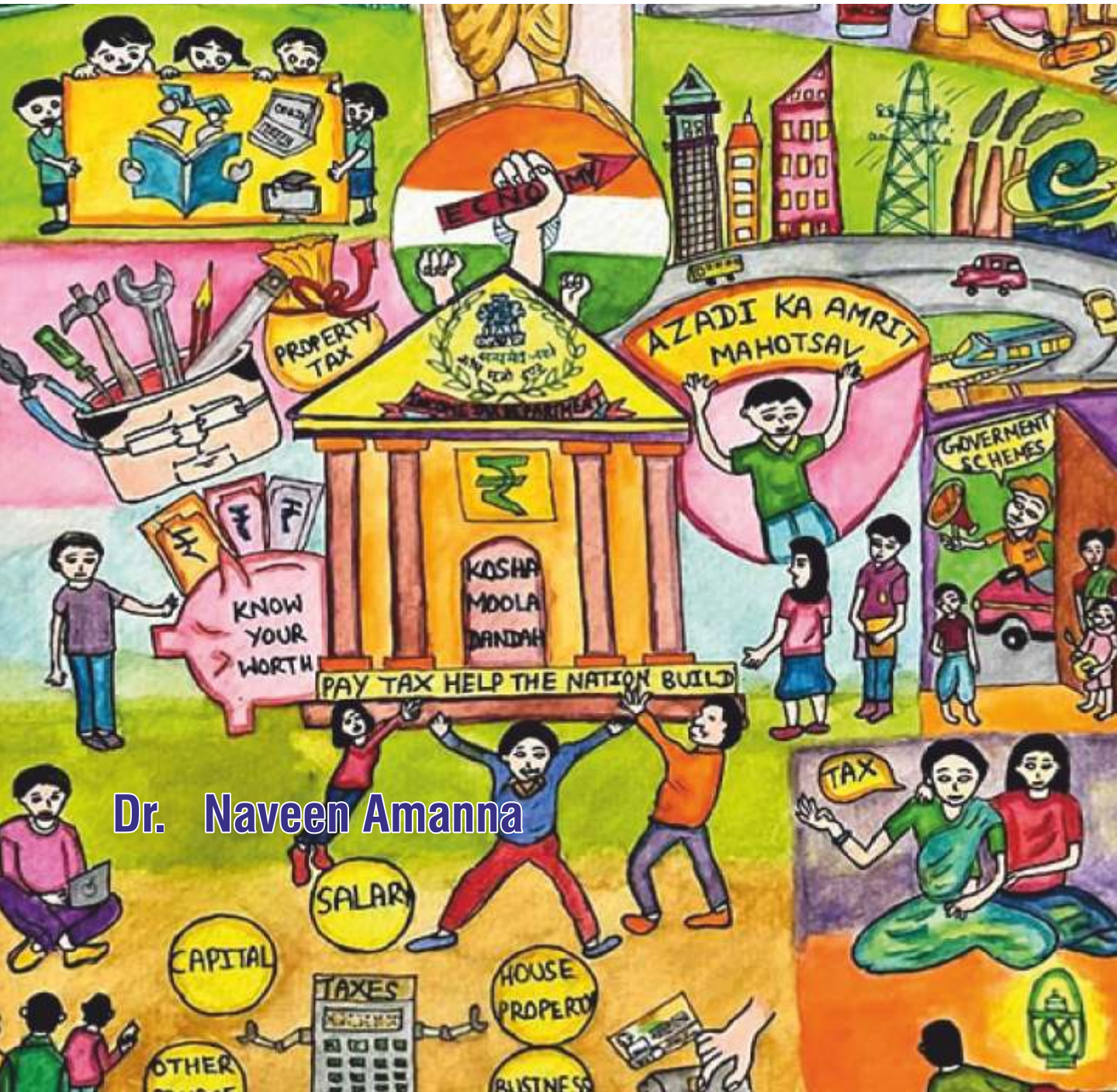
ROLE OF YOUTH IN NATION BUILDING



Dr. Naveen Amanna

Role of Youth in Nation Building

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Preface

Because they will be our future, the young people are important. They might be our partners today, but tomorrow they'll be leaders. The young people have a lot of energy and enthusiasm. They can learn and adjust to the climate. In a similar vein, they are eager to acquire knowledge and apply it to achieve their objectives. Youth has the power to bring about social change and advancement. Without a nation's youth, we cannot survive. In addition, their participation is necessary for the country to achieve its objectives and advance. Similarly, we can see that youth participation is essential to any nation's development. Youth is required in every field, regardless of whether we want to advance in sports or technology. How we assist the youth in effectively playing this role is up to us. We need to make all of the young people aware of their power and the part they can play in building the country. There are numerous ways in which we can assist our nation's youth in realizing their full potential. To accomplish this, the government must introduce programs to combat problems like unemployment, inadequate educational facilities, and others so that they can prosper without restriction. In a similar vein, citizens must ensure that they inspire our youth to excel in all areas. Youth will lose their spark if we constantly disbelieve in them and discourage them. We all have a responsibility to ensure that, rather than bringing them down by attaching chains to their wings, they are given the wind beneath their wings to fly high. Equal opportunities must also be offered to everyone, regardless of caste, creed, gender, race, religion, or any other factor. Nepotism and favoritism are destroying the country's actual talent in a variety of ways. As soon as possible, this must be eliminated. We must ensure that every young person has equal access to opportunities to demonstrate their worth. In a nutshell, we must provide our youth with the opportunity to build a nation. They are the future and have a different perspective than previous generations. To support a nation's growth and development, it is necessary to properly channel their enthusiasm and zeal.

CHAPTER 1

YOUTH AND HOMOGENIZATION

1.1 Introduction

How to provide opportunities for the continent's more than 200 million young people so that they can live decent lives and contribute to the economic development of their countries is one of the greatest challenges facing African governments and policymakers today. Africa's population was estimated at 1.05 billion in 2011 by the United Nations (2010), and it is anticipated to double by 2050. Africa is the world's youngest continent: About 70% of its inhabitants are under the age of 30. 21 percent of Africa's more than 1 billion people were young people in 2011, or those between the ages of 15 and 24. Another 42% were under the age of 15. Females make up slightly more than half of the youth population in Africa, and rural dwellers outnumber urban dwellers. According to Gyimah-Brempong and Kimenyi, the youth population in Africa is anticipated to rise in the coming decades due to its high proportion of people under the age of 15.

Employment, health, and political participation are just a few of the issues that youth face and are crucial to Africa's economic development. These issues differ across countries and regions as well as among groups within countries (based on gender, education level, ethnicity, and health status). On the other hand, youths' size, energy, enthusiasm, creativity, and dynamism are assets that can be utilized for Africa's development with the right policies that adequately address the issues they face.

Several African nations, including ours, do not appear to have developed comprehensive and effective policies to deal with the issues facing this large

and growing segment of the African population or to have established a means to assess the progress that has been made, despite the increased awareness of the difficulties that the youth of Nigeria and Africa face noted by previous studies. This study aims to advance the discussion of the issues that youth in Africa face by determining whether the youth policies that are currently in place in African countries can meet the challenges and how these policies can be improved to support Nigeria's equitable and efficient development in general.

Youth and children make up nearly half of the population in developing nations. One billion of the world's 1.2 billion people are between the ages of 15 and 24 and live in developing nations. Due to the fact that young people make up a high and peak proportion of many populations, this is frequently referred to as the "youths bulge." The youth bulge is both an obstacle and an opportunity for growth.

For instance, it is anticipated that Uganda will need to create over 600,000 new jobs annually for the next 12 years, which is equivalent to the size of the current formal employment sector. The Millennium Development Goals—particularly MDGs 1 (extreme poverty and hunger), 4 (child mortality), and 7 (environmental sustainability)—will not be met if this is not accomplished (World Bank, 2009). 75% of Kenyans are between the ages of 1 and 30, making them the country's largest source of human capital. However, their status has not received the due recognition because they have remained on the outside of the country's affairs. They have not been allowed to design, plan, or implement programs or policies that have an impact on them.

Many of the young people who are productive and enthusiastic do not find work, remain ill, or receive sufficient support. Some of them need special care because they have special needs. These include people who live on the streets,

people who have HIV/AIDS, girls, and people who have disabilities. Diverse stakeholders bear the burden of ensuring that young people's aspirations and hopes are realized. Every member of the community, young and old, must fulfill their responsibilities.

The National Youths Policy recognizes that young people are a valuable resource that can be utilized for the nation's overall benefit. As a result, the policy tries to address issues that young people face by including broad strategies that would give young people meaningful chances to reach their full potential. All stakeholders, including the private sector and civil society, will be able to contribute to youth development within the scope of the policy. The policy includes a mechanism for implementation.

Kenya's current sectoral policies, national development plans, international policies, and charters all play a role in the formulation of this policy; as essential to the youth's complete integration and participation in Kenya's development. The United Nations Charter, the Commonwealth Youths Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and the United Nations World Programme for the Youth up to and including the year 2000 are all taken into consideration.

Youth, Development, and Profile in Context: The Youth of Africa and Nigeria There is no one-size-fits-all definition of the youth population. The term "youths" typically refers to the transitional period between childhood and adulthood. The term "youths" is used in the African Youths Report 2009 to refer to individuals between the ages of 15 and 39.

However, distinct definitions of the youth population exist in a number of African nations. Ghana, Tanzania, and South Africa, for instance, define the youth population as those aged 15 to 35; Nigeria and Swaziland define it as

individuals aged 12 to 30; Botswana and Mauritius define it as individuals aged 14 to 25. It is challenging to effectively discuss issues affecting youth in Africa as a whole and to compare information between nations due to these divergent definitions of the youth population. The AYR's age range is too broad because most people agree that people in their 30s are adults and do not belong to the young people who are transitioning to adulthood. The United Nations defines youths as individuals between the ages of 15 and 24 for statistical purposes.

This age group has been internationally recognized as "Youths," albeit arbitrary. Despite being generally preferred and acceptable, this definition's implementation frequently causes issues due to the lack of country-specific data. For instance, population data are frequently presented in five-year age bands or for adults and children under the age of 15. Similarly, data on the labor market are typically presented for adults aged 16 to 64.

The United Nations defines youths as individuals between the ages of 15 and 24 for statistical purposes. Youth is not a homogenous population; Their demographic, socioeconomic, and geographical circumstances vary greatly within and between regions. Regional-level analysis provides a general understanding of their development profile in spite of these differences. According to UNO (2007), limited access to resources, education, training, employment, and other opportunities for economic development pose challenges for 87% of people who live in developing nations. The term "young people" refers to Kenyans between the ages of 15 and 30. The physical, psychological, cultural, social, biological, and political definitions of the term are all taken into consideration in this.

All young people between the ages of 18 and 35 are included in the youth policy. In 2006, there were almost 100 million young people in the world.

This indicates that they make up more than two thirds of the 140 million people who live in the country. They are the foundation of the nation's growth. In point of fact, in order for Nigeria to continue functioning as a viable entity, a well-thought-out strategy is required to fast-track economic development by harnessing the youthful population's energy and inventiveness.

The definition of youth used by the United Nations is used in this study. However, given the preceding discussion, we occasionally deviate from the 15–24 age range due to data availability. Finding the appropriate data on Africa's youth population is one of the challenges of developing youth policy. Government agencies do not typically collect such data. Limited data from the United Nations, the International Labor Organization (ILO), the United Nations Economic, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), and whenever possible, national sources are used in this study.

The youth population is large and growing, according to the available data, but there aren't many details about gender or how many people live in rural or urban areas. Africa's youth population is substantial and expanding rapidly. The UNO data show that young people make up about 20% of Africa's population. As a result, the continent's youth population is slightly more than 200 million people overall (Africa's total population was estimated to be around 1.05 billion in 2011). Africa is the region with the highest youth population in relation to its total population, despite the fact that Asia has the largest youth population in the world due to its large total population. The youth population in Africa is projected to grow very quickly and is likely to remain high for a long time due to the population's relatively young age (42% of Africa's population in 2010 was estimated to be under 15 years old) and high fertility rate. Between 1990 and 2010, the proportion of youth in the

population increased only in Africa. Africa's development is impacted by this youth bulge.

1.2 Basic Model Setup

We think about a nation-building model with two periods. A country is ruled by a ruler in the first era—the terms "dictator" and "elite" are used interchangeably. That nation could become democratic or continue to be ruled by the ruler during the second period. The probability of democratization is assumed to be exogenous in the first section of the study; subsequent sections endogenize it.

Homogenization and distance

The population is made up of a continuum of people with mass and different ideal points that are evenly distributed on the segment [0, 1]. An individual, i, resides in a nation with a single, serving the nation's citizens, j, at any time t. The simplest way to think about homogenization is building roads, railroads, or airports to lower the costs of being far from the capital. Individual i's per-period utility function at time t is given by. This reduces economic isolation by making it easier to access capital resources and government services. The second interpretation concerns language-based communication. Imagine that a person's language will be more diverse the further away they are from the government. In this instance, "reducing distance" can be understood as "teaching a common language," or "reducing the distance between languages," so that people can better communicate with the government and use public services. Neither of these two interpretations of "homogenization" implies that people's preferences have changed. especially if the use of other languages and dialects is not enforced. A third interpretation suggests that individual preferences can be altered through indoctrination (through more or

less "kind" methods). That is, persuading people who are far from the chosen form of government that they don't really dislike it. A benevolent interpretation of this "indoctrination" is one that views the latter as a help for individuals to better fit in with accepted social norms. For instance, one could argue that in schools, such as those in France or Scandinavia, the advantages of regulation and social welfare are emphasized more than in the United States and the United Kingdom. However, there are undoubtedly forms of indoctrination that are far eviller. In communist countries, Marxist-Leninist ideas were commonly taught in schools, and other ideologies were forbidden. The same is true for fascist regimes or theocracies. Groups with particular preferences may also be severely repressed or eliminated when preferences are changed.

The preferred meaning of homogenization can be chosen. One must assume that preferences, language, and geographical location are perfectly correlated in order to maintain all three together. To accommodate a population split (described below), we should also assume that language or preferences are perfectly correlated with location. With the term "homogenization," a reduction in such distance, we will now summarize either one of the three interpretations above (or a combination of the three).

It is important to keep in mind that, as an alternative to homogenizing in order to reduce the costs of diversity, diverse nations could transfer resources to citizens whose preferences and location are further from the government. We don't go into detail about this here, but keep in mind that homogenization can last forever (like having a common language), and transfers may need to be paid every month, making them questionable or, in the long run, costing more money for the center (those who are closer to the central government).

Country Formation

In period 1 the populace is managed by a tyrant situated at 1/2. In period 2 either the tyrant keeps on administering the populace or a majority rules system wins, in which case the populace either frames a solitary nation or parts into two equivalent estimated nations, An and B, including the timespans focuses [0, 1/2] and (1/2, 1] individually. We take on the limitation of having all things considered two equivalent measured nations to save the investigation basic while as yet taking into consideration endogenous nation size (secession). A solitary government is situated at some j inside each country.

Borders and the area of the public authority can be changed by a vote-based system at the start of period 2 at no cost. Note that main a majority rule government in period 2 would have an motivating force to isolate, subsequently the outcomes wouldn't change were we to give the ruler the choice to part the country in one or the other period.

The expense of "government" (public products and strategies) in period t in a given nation is k. Since the costs k can be partitioned among all residents in the country this catches the advantages of shaping a solitary country as opposed to breaking into two. Nonetheless, when a populace parts into two nations, the different nations are more homogeneous thus the public authority given in those nations is nearer (in language, belief system or geology) to the middle individual in that country. This set-up catches the inspiration for the separation of the populace: a few people in the populace might like to separate into two nations and face higher costs, as opposed to be essential for a solitary country with an administration that ineffectively addresses their inclinations.

1.3 Decision-Making and Timing

Period 1:

The population is ruled by a single ruler who is at the center of the population and has the government at his ideal point. In the first period, the ruler makes decisions to maximize his expected utility. He must decide how much money he will put into homogenization.

Period 2:

The ruler remains in power in period 2 with probability 1p. As before, the ruler continues to make decisions. In period 2, democracy prevails with probability p. In a democracy, the people make decisions by majority vote, with the following timelines:

(1) whether to unite the nation or divide it into two;

(2) where each nation's government is located;

(3) the uniformity policy of each nation.

The population of each nation votes to make decisions (2) and (3) by a margin of a majority. In order to break any ties, we assume with no loss of generality that regardless of whether a nation is divided into two, a single nation will always emerge. Since borders cannot be set before a "government" can be chosen, and only an established government can choose homogenization-related public policies, the order of decision-making is realistic. Nevertheless, the qualitative outcomes persist despite a different decision order.

1.4 Homogenization Decisions

We solve the model backwards. We determine homogenization choices by a ruler and a democracy and compare the two.

A Democracy

If democracy prevails in the second period, the populace decides whether to unite or separate, where to locate the government, and how much homogenization to pursue. Appendix A provides a comprehensive solution to this issue. Here, we discuss the options available to a democracy, beginning with homogenization, which is determined by individual i's distance from the government and costs of homogenization technology. For the time being, we assume a technology whose cost is shared equally among the population while benefiting the most marginalized groups. In the following, we expand on this premise. People who live the furthest from the capital, for instance, gain the most from roads to the capital that are built at a cost that is shared equally. Because preferences over homogenization have a single peak for a given country and government, the level of homogenization chosen by majority rule will be the median preferred homogenization within that country. As a result, individuals who are further from the government favor more homogenization.

As a result, a democracy homogenizes until the individual's marginal benefit at median distance from the government equals the marginal cost of homogenization. A democracy will not undertake any additional homogenization in period 2 if the ruler's homogenization in period 1 exceeds this amount.

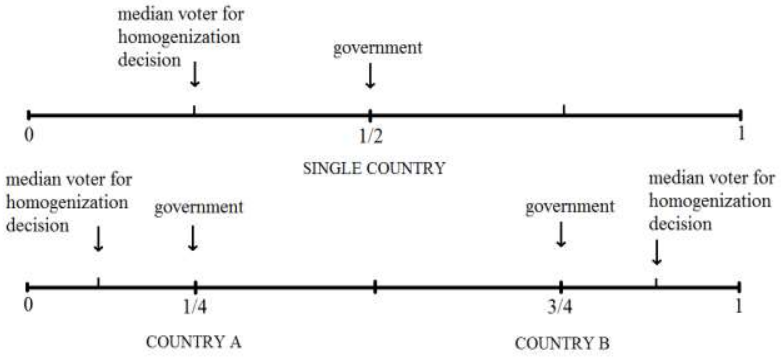

Fig.1.1 Homogenization and government location under a democracy

If we think of homogenization in terms of roads, infrastructure, or public schools teaching a common language, we immediately get the sense that homogenization occurs in a democracy. The literal meaning of the "preference" interpretation of homogenization is that a person "chooses" a policy that changes his preferences because he or she is aware that he or she will be happier in the country in which he or she lives as a result. If we consider a dynamic extension of this argument, in which parents teach their children values and educate them in a way that helps them fit in better with the country in which they live by modeling certain social norms and behaviors, the argument becomes more plausible. Homogenization's extremely high costs can indicate a strong cultural attachment. the concept of "building a nation." A particular type of transfer from the center of the population to the periphery is known as nation-building. This is done to avoid separation and lower the costs of being in the periphery.

A dictatorship

Because period 2 is the final period, a ruler in period 2 will not be threatened by democracy. In period 2, he will not perform any additional homogenization. Since the government perfectly matches his preferences and he has no incentive to improve the welfare of the population he governs, he does not need to homogenize.

Because period 1 depicts the behavior of a forward-looking ruler, we are interested in the policy choices made by the ruler in that period. In the first period, the ruler does not gain anything directly from a more uniform population; However, homogenization by the ruler in period 1 can ensure that the ruler's ideal government continues and prevent the country from breaking

up in period 2, if democracy prevails. In period 1, we are prepared to announce the ruler's decisions.

A democracy puts money into homogenization up to the point where the median voter will be happy. In contrast to the median preferences of people in a democracy for any given government, a ruler has stronger preferences for his ideal government. As a result, when compared to a democracy, an unstable non-democratic regime with a high likelihood of democratization may overinvest in homogenization to ensure that the ideal government is maintained even under democracy.

In contrast, a ruler in a stable non-democratic regime invests less in homogenization than in a democracy because he expects to be in power next time and thus maintain his ideal government.

Corollary 1 implies that two populations initially identical to one another may eventually become democracies, but a population under the control of a risky non-democratic regime may be homogenized by more than one non-democratic regime. It's possible that it's so much that the democracy that was previously run by a dangerous regime is homogeneous enough to form a single nation, whereas the other country is not. The implication is that today's democracies, which followed a smooth path to democracy and where elites foresaw the advent of democracy, may be more homogenous and larger than they would otherwise be as a result of nation-building by elites. In the following section, we examine in greater depth how the long-term heterogeneity of a population is affected by how incentives to homogenize differ among various "types" of non-democratic regimes.

Take note that the preceding outcomes hold true for the dictatorial situation at 1/2. The two incentives of maintaining his preferred government and a large

nation are aligned by positioning the ruler at its center. The case of a ruler positioned anywhere on [0, 1] is the focus of our in-depth investigation in the working paper version of this study; In the Appendix, we also provide a brief discussion.

Changing the location of the ruler will alter his motivations to homogenize due to the degree to which the democratic government differs from his ideal (both when a democracy splits or merges into a single nation). But the gut feeling stays the same. A greater likelihood of democracy will encourage the ruler to homogenize more if homogenization has the potential to improve the outcome for the ruler when democracy prevails. He may homogenize by more than would ever be chosen in a democracy with a very high probability of democracy. The costs of homogenization and the location of the ruler play a role in determining how much or how little any ruler homogenizes compared to a democracy.

1.5 Endogenous Democratization

In addition to having an impact on the outcome if democracy prevails, homogenization may also have an impact on the likelihood of democratic transition. A ruler can improve conditions and lessen the isolation of minority groups at the borders by building infrastructure, thereby reducing opposition to the current regime. Non-democratic governments can indoctrinate the next generation with their own ideology through education. At the extreme end of homogenization, governments can suppress or eliminate specific individuals and groups to suppress dissent. Here, we demonstrate how homogenization might lessen opposition to a ruler's regime. Keep in mind that the promise of redistribution in the future would not be believable. Acemoglu and Robinson's (2000) democratic transition model and Alesina and Spolaore's (1997) border stability model both make this point.

In Section 3, a revolution opportunity always leads to a democratic transition, as previously stated if it occurs at the beginning of period 2 with probability p. We now let the people who are ruled by the ruler decide whether or not to overthrow him and establish a democratic regime in the event that a chance for a revolution presents itself. In the event that the populace decides oust, then, at that point, a vote based system wins in period 2; If not, the ruler retains authority. Overthrowing the ruler is known to cost L.

Divide and Rule

When a population is homogeneous, revolutions can sometimes happen more frequently. A population that is more similar to itself is better able to communicate, which may facilitate collective action. By similar contention, strategies that increment variety and its expenses could ruin aggregate activity. After all, the "divide and rule" principle is intended to precisely capture this effect. Our model can also be used to analyze this case.

Otherwise, the framework maintains its current level of detail. Together, the three potential effects of homogenization are captured by the model: the direct effect of lowering the cost of traveling to the ruler's ideal government, lowering the likelihood of overthrow, and increasing the capacity of the populace to work together. The homogenization choices made by the ruler in this richer model are described in Proposition 4. Under the sufficient condition that the marginal effect of p on the revolution opportunity is not too sensitive to homogenization, a presumption that is discussed in greater detail in the proof.

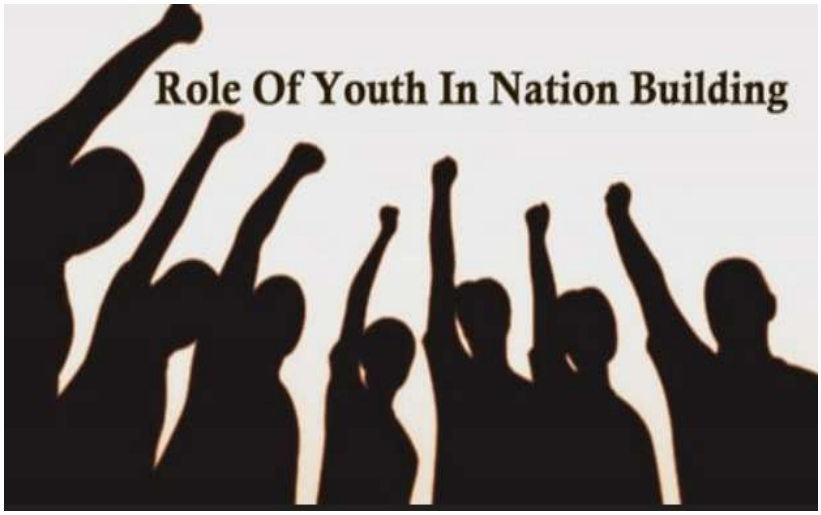

Fig.1.2 Role of youth in nation building

Negative homogenization is never a democratic option. Because period 2 is the last, a ruler always chooses zero additional homogenization. A period 1 ruler, on the other hand, can now choose to "divide and rule." He might homogenize only in a negative way. The proof can be found in the appendix. In addition, we demonstrate in the Online Appendix that allowing for negative homogenization does not alter the previous results. The ruler has no incentive to raise diversity's costs unless homogenization increases the likelihood of collective action.

The ruler is confronted with two opposing forces rather than two forces working in the same direction. On the one hand, if he follows the divide and conquer strategy, he will make it harder for people to take collective action and make it less likely that a revolution opportunity will arise. However, if democracy prevails, the country may be unstable and divided with low (or even negative) homogenization the least desirable outcome for the rulers.

Comment 1: State capacity

The significance of state capacity is an important factor to take into account when deciding whether to implement divide and rule or nation-building policies. The introduction of compulsory education for all children, for instance, necessitates state infrastructure, and homogenization may necessitate high levels of state capacity. It's possible that a ruler with limited state capacity won't be able to unite everyone.

Divide and rule policies, on the other hand, might be easier to implement and cost less to implement because they might require different resources and less capacity from the state. Consider two places in period 1 with different levels of state capacity but otherwise identical populations. Assume democracy reigns in both places in period 2.49. A ruler with low state capacity will choose to divide and rule up to a higher threshold on p than a ruler with high state capacity. That is, in contrast to the nation that began with a higher state capacity and may have been homogenized by the ruler, the nation that started with lower state capacity may have experienced negative homogenization and may end up being more heterogeneous or even breaking up. For a comprehensive model of state capacity, we recommend Besley and Persson (2010), noting that nation-building may also be related to state capacity in the sense that higher state capacity leads to more nation-building, making state capacity building even simpler.

Comment 2: Colonizers

The colonizers are distinct from the domestic elite or dictatorship that have been studied thus far. After a colonizer's regime is overthrown, they leave the country. Consider then the three reasons for homogenization that the model has identified. If democracy prevails, the colonizer would not bear the costs of homogenizing the population to maintain the status quo because he does not care what happens to the country after he leaves. Therefore,

homogenization to lessen opposition to the colonizer's regime and negative homogenization to lessen the population's capacity to work together to overthrow the colonizer are the only possible motivations for the colonizer.

Given the preceding discussion of state capacity, homogenization to significantly reduce the population's willingness to overthrow the colonizer may be very costly. The divide and rule policy may be particularly appealing in colonized territories with scattered populations because it may be relatively inexpensive and reduce the likelihood of a transition away from colonization. After decolonization, ethnic strife and nationalism may become even more pronounced.

1.6 Historical Examples

We discuss historical examples of nation-building in this section. In light of our findings, we focus on several of our model's predictions and investigate suggestive empirical evidence. One particular and significant nation-building policy is the focus of our discussion: primary schooling We begin with the prediction that the threat to democracy is growing from nation-building.

Eighteenth and Nineteenth Century Europe

During the 19th and early 20th centuries, nation-building policies were widely adopted in the West. This involved a large-scale intrusion into the lives of citizens, including the forced introduction of national languages, mandatory military service for all young men, and compulsory primary education for all children. An interesting illustration is the introduction of mass education. During the 19th century, European nations transitioned from centralized full-time primary education that was required for all children within the nation to little or no government intervention in education (and generally low participation rates). We document that such education reforms followed

periods of unrest and were implemented by governments with the stated aim of mitigating the effects of democratization. This was a huge shift in government policy over a short period of time, which made it all the more fascinating because, in many instances, it occurred decades before similar welfare interventions and was generally unpopular with the masses. After presenting three in-depth case studies from England, France, and Italy, we move on to a more systematic examination of education reforms in 11 European nations during the 19th century.

France

In the history of Europe, the French Revolution of 1792 marked a turning point. Even though most countries in Western Europe had not even come close to democracy in almost a century, the 19th century marked the time when democracy became a major threat, “it became increasingly manifest that the democratization, or at least the increasingly unlimited electoralization of politics were unavoidable,” writes Hobsbawm (1990) of this time period. Observing that it became "obvious, at least from the 1880s, that wherever the common man was given even the most nominal participation in politics as a citizen...he could no longer be relied on to give automatic loyalty and support to his betters or to the state," Hobsbawm summarizes the elites' dilemma as a result. "The question of the 'nation', and the citizen's feelings towards whatever he regarded as his 'nation', 'nationality,' or other center of loyalty, at the top of the political agenda," as the effect was, was the outcome. Building a nation comes into play here.

Before the French Revolution, our model predicts very little or no nation-building in Europe. However, as democracy became more widely accepted in the 19th century, nation-building intensified. Hobsbawm (1990) estimates that only 12-13% of the population spoke French at the time of the French

Revolution, despite the fact that the Ancien Regime is well-known for having implemented a highly centralized state. However, there was little homogenization of the general population prior to the French Revolution. The French Crown "showed little concern with the linguistic conquest of the regions under its administration," despite the fact that the Ancien Regime aimed to centralize administration and imposed French at the highest administrative level. In point of fact, the ruling elites used language as a barrier to differentiate themselves from the masses.

In addition, there was little enthusiasm in France for expanding geographic communications. Roads were merely used for tax collection and troop transportation, and areas outside of major cities were frequently isolated. Primary education was not a public service and was mostly provided by the church.

“Diversity had not bothered earlier centuries very much...But the Revolution had brought with it the concept of national unity as an integral and integrating ideal at all levels,” writes historian Eugen Weber (1979). One way to homogenize was through education, and after the Revolution, elites made education a top priority. The Constitution of 1791 mandated free public education for all immediately following the French Revolution. One major function of education was to enforce a national language. The Show (the administrative gathering from September 1792 to October 1795) proclaimed that in the Republic youngsters ought to figure out how to "talk, read and write in the French language" and that "guidance ought to take place just in French. "The unity of the Republic demands the unity of speech," the Jacobins insisted. “Linguistic diversity had been irrelevant to administrative unity,” according to Weber (1979). However, when it was perceived as a threat to political, or ideological, unity, it gained significance.

After a significant rebellion known as the "July Revolution," which occurred in 183032, the first serious attempt to implement widespread education was made in 1833. The emergence of state intervention in education in France, as elsewhere in Europe, was in no way a concession to a population that was more demanding; According to Katznelson and Weir (1985) and Weber (1979), state-provided education was largely unpopular at least until the last quarter of the 19th century. After the Third Republic was established in 1870, what was perhaps the most intense period of education reform followed.

Weber (1979) describes the gap between the way of life and culture of the urban elite and that of the rural masses throughout much of the 19th century. Hobsbawm (1990) describes this period as one in which the inevitability of a shift of power to the wider population became clear. "The unassimilated rural masses had to be integrated into the dominant culture as they had been integrated into an administrative entity," he writes of the perceived need to integrate this segment of the population and make it "French." "The village school, compulsory and free, has been credited with the ultimate acculturation process that made the French people French - finally civilized them, as many nineteenthcentury educators liked to say," Weber writes and very unlike north France, yet it finally became thoroughly French."

Italy

In the 1860s, Northern elites completed Italian unification without much involvement from the local populace. Italy had a diverse population that spoke a variety of very different languages and dialects when it was unified. Italian was only spoken by about 10% of the population. There was a growing push for more democracy at this time. The ruling elite regarded homogenization as essential for maintaining the internal stability of a truly diverse collection of states. According to Duggan (2007), "the government had embarked on

extensive discussions about what form of Italian should be adopted as the national language" in the 1860s. Official circles had a strong belief that linguistic centralization was necessary to complement political unity. The choice was Tuscan. “The official line remained that Italian should as far as possible be enforced, with ‘Italian’ texts being used in schools and dialect literature (of which there was a distinguished tradition in many regions) being discouraged,” despite the fact that “the official line remained that Italian should as far as possible be enforced.” Linguistic homogenization was to be achieved primarily through education.

The statements made by politicians at the time in Italy indicate a direct connection between the threat of democratization and the introduction of compulsory education. "I do not know if we should feel regret at having broadened the popular suffrage before having educated the masses," wrote Francesco Crispi, the Italian prime minister from 1887 to 1891 and 1893 to 1896. Nicola Marselli, a politician, claimed that Italy had instituted freedom before educating the general population, ignoring lessons from nations like Britain that had instituted education first. The author of the 1877 Italian compulsory education reform, Michele Coppino, stated that primary education should aim to "create a population...devoted to the fatherland and the king" and that the masses should be "content to remain in the condition that nature had assigned to them." sufficient education to homogenize, but not too much to produce masses of rebels.

England

According to historian Linda Colley, "dividing and ruling seemed a more attractive strategy than state-sponsored nationalism" in England, and "only after the 1870s did Britain's governing elite commit itself to a patriotic, blatantly nationalist appeal." This coincided, not by accident, with the

widespread expansion of suffrage and the introduction of public education as a requirement. In Britain, nation-building policies were only implemented when the threat to democracy was extremely high due to the fear that nationalism might raise public demands.

After three years of widespread rioting in rural England and the Great Reform Act of 1832, public education began in its simplest form in 1833. According to Green (1990), the "Education Act of 1870, which established a quasi-national system, was a result, as much as anything, of the desire to control the political effects of the extension of the franchise in 1867 to the skilled working class." With further political reform in the 1860s, "full democratization of the political realm was seen as inevitable."

Again, the English political debate of the time provides a direct reading of the driving force of democratization. It is made clear that the goal is to maintain the status quo. In an 1867 speech, British politician Robert Lowe, who would later serve as Home Secretary and Chancellor of the Exchequer, emphasized the need for education reform in light of the 1867 Reform Act: When W.E. Forster presented the bill for his education act in Parliament in 1870, his speech included the following: "We cannot allow any large number of our citizens, now that they have obtained the right to influence the destinies of the country, to remain uneducated [...] it is a question of self preservation - it is a question of existence, even of the existence of our Constitution."

“The efficient and secure operation of our constitutional system is also dependent, I fully believe, on this rapid provision of elementary education. In its honor, Parliament has recently decided that England will be governed by popular vote in the future. Now that the people have political power, we must provide them with education immediately.

1.7 Education and Nation Building in Nineteenth Century Europe

We now examine education reforms in eleven European nations from 1800 to 1875 in a more systematic manner. Flora (1983) provides data on reforms, which include major events and laws, such as the introduction and expansion of compulsory education, major changes in the types of schools and curricula, and the bringing of education under state control. If there is a significant educational reform in that nation and year, the binary variable education reform takes the value. The total number of education reforms implemented in a given year across all nations is represented by our discrete variable.

We need a measure of the perceived threat to democracy in order to examine Prediction. Despite the fact that this is undoubtedly challenging, there is an obvious possibility. In two ways, the French Revolution and subsequent major uprisings in France had a significant impact not only on France but also on other European nations. First, these uprisings scared the ruling elites because they showed that people could and would overthrow the system. Second, it's possible that they sparked revolts elsewhere. If a major uprising occurred in France or the year before, our variable, riot(t, t1), has a value of 1. Tilly et al. compiled years of major uprisings to create the variable (1980), from 1830 to 1875. The dates listed are years of significant instances of collective violence involving a large number of individuals "in seizing and damaging persons or property" in a variety of locations. For instance, the year 1831 features a silk workers' insurrection in Lyon, multiple violent demonstrations in a number of large cities, including Paris, and the continuation of smaller disturbances from the July Revolution of 1830.

Figure below demonstrates that periods of insurrection in France a proxy for democratic threats in Europe at the time were the primary focus of education reform efforts across Europe. We argue that threatened elites imposed mass

education on their populations to serve their own interests, which explains the positive correlation between riots and education reform. Naturally, a different explanation is that the rioters demanded public education, which the rulers agreed to under duress. However, the rioters did not ask for education.

As previously mentioned, the peasantry in France opposed compulsory state education for much of the 19th century. According to Ramirez and Boli (1987), "bourgeois liberals led a movement to develop mass schooling to provide national unity and purpose" in Sweden around 1810, but the peasantry's primary resistance slowed the adoption of state-controlled education until 1842. In the early 1830s, both violent and nonviolent protests spread throughout England. The following question was posed by the Royal Commission into the Poor Laws in 1834, which was established in part in response to this unrest: Can you provide the commissioners with any information regarding the circumstances surrounding the 1830 and 1831 agricultural riots and fires? 526 parishes in England responded. Concerns about labor (unemployment, wages, and mechanization of jobs that previously provided employment), subsidies for the poor (poor law), and beer shops (where it is believed that many of the protests were organized) were the only causes cited by more than 30 parishes. According to Holland (2005), none of the responses considered the unrest to be caused by demand for education or anything related to education.

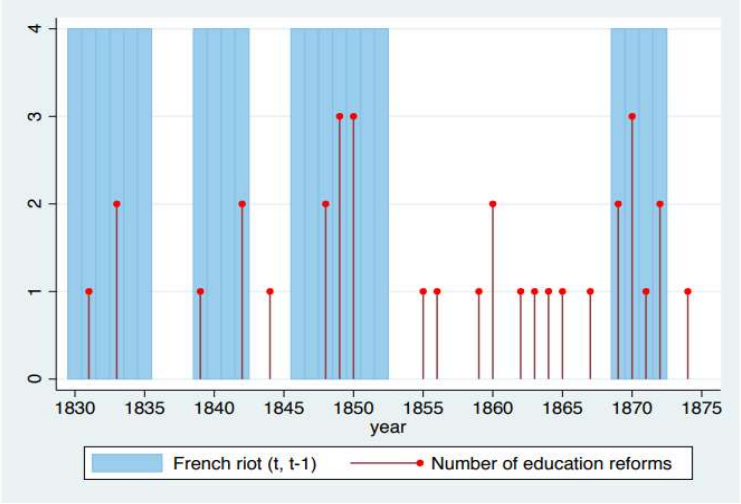

Fig.1.3 Years of major rioting in France and number of education reforms across Europe

In a similar vein, education is absent from Charles Tilly's comprehensive investigation of collective disturbances that occurred in France between the years 1830 and 1860. This is consistent with contemporary evidence from Brazil: Bursztyn (2012) demonstrates that the poor prefer cash transfers to education subsidies and that when they perceive that government funding for public education has increased but cash transfers have decreased, their evaluation of the government is negatively impacted.

A second way to look at this argument is to look at how different education policies from clearly redistributive policies like social security or health care were put into effect in the 19th century if education was intended to build a nation. Especially since concerns about redistribution were closer to the needs of the population. Indeed, the timing of education reform and redistributive policies differ significantly. The earliest European non-deliberate government protection framework was presented in 1883 and the principal deliberate

framework in 1871; On the other hand, by the time welfare reforms were implemented, most nations already had compulsory universal education, and in some, like France, it was highly developed.

1.8 "Odious" Nation Building by Twentieth Century Dictators

Strong nation-building was not limited to Europe in the 19th century. Germany under the Nazis, the Soviet Union under Stalin, and Spain under Franco are all well-known examples from the 20th century. It is well documented that the Soviet Union attempted to "russify" and cultivate a large population of loyalists. The connection between territorial stability and nation-building is highlighted by one particularly extreme homogenization policy. In the 1940s, the Soviet Union deported eight distinct ethnic groups, including the Crimean Tatars, Volga Germans, and Chechens, according to Conquest (1970). They were exiled to Siberia and Central Asia, their names were taken off the Soviet list of people, the names of their original habitats were changed, and these original habitats were populated by people who were more "loyal" to the Soviet regime. These groups were viewed as a threat to unity in some instances because they had attempted autonomy. Other cases were somewhat preventative, but they had the same purpose. The population of a block of land over which Turkey and Russia had fought for more than a century was deported, possibly as a precaution to avoid future conflicts with Turkey in this region. This population may have been thought to have Turkish sympathies.

The Soviet Union's efforts to homogenize, particularly by imposing a Marxist-Leninist doctrine, relied heavily on public education. According to a 1999 study by Lott, the Soviet Union had an "over-supply" of education: Public spending on health care increased by 70% while education spending decreased as a percentage of GDP in former communist nations following

democratization. As part of Franco's effort to establish a nation "with a single language, Castilian, and a single personality, the Spanish one," education was also an important tool in Spain. Education measures included "purifying committees" that sacked teachers involved in Catalanism, the expulsion of teachers thought to be associated with Catalan nationalist parties to posts in distant parts of Spain, and the replacement of teachers in Catalonia with 700 teachers brought in from other parts of Spain and hired primarily for their lack of knowledge of Catalan.80 Catalonia was seen as a threat to Castilian political rule as well as to the unity of the country.

Cross Country Evidence

In particular, we find that nation-building may be higher in a threatened non-democratic regime compared to a democracy, as our model implies non-linear comparisons between certain public goods in democracies and non-democracies. We present a summary of the most recent empirical evidence and compare education policies in democratic and non-democratic regimes. Using annual data on 137 countries from 1830 to 2001, Aghion, Persson, and Rouzet (2014) discover that autocracies have higher primary education enrollment rates than democracies. In accordance with this, cross-country data from 1960 to 1990 examined by Mulligan, Gil, and Sala i Martin (2004) reveal that there is no evidence that democracies spend more on public education than non-democratic regimes do. Burstyn (2012) finds that democracies spend less on public education in countries with below-median incomes than non-democracies do. This is supported by a 1999 study by Lott that looks at data on education expenditures from 99 countries from 1985 to 1992. It finds that totalitarianism increases education spending, with the strongest effects occurring in lower-income nations. Lott (1999) also looks at health care

spending in two different data sets to compare it to other public policies. He finds that totalitarianism either has no effect or a negative effect.

It would undoubtedly be fascinating to compare the curriculum of democratic and dictatorial educational systems. Under the latter scenario, we would anticipate a significantly higher level of indoctrination in education, such as teaching minority languages or the history of ethnic or religious minorities instead of Marxist economics in communist dictatorships.

Divide and Rule

Indeed, following decolonization in Africa and Asia, numerous leaders of newly independent nations attempted homogenization policies to more or less successfully unite their populations. Zambia followed this pattern from its time as a British colony in the 19th century until it gained its independence in 1964. Education was mostly provided by missionaries during colonization, which was "a take-the-money-and-run affair."83 Colonization made the Zambian population more diverse (Marten and Kula, 2008, on language; Phiri, 2006, on divisions by regions) Numerous languages were spoken upon independence, with English serving as the primary language of commerce and administration. The first president of Zambia, Kenneth Kuanda, claimed that despite the fact that nationalism had led to independence, there was no national identity in Zambia.

"Zambia's experience in the first eight years of independence is a typical example of how most newly independent African countries... grappled with the need to create a sense of national identity," writes Phiri (2006). English was made the official language of Zambia during this time, and the motto "One Zambia, One Nation" was adopted.

India is another example. Even through specific policies of divide and rule, the British had done little to homogenize a diverse population (Christopher, 1988). India established democracy upon its independence. In contrast to non-democratic regimes, democratic India was unable to impose homogenization. Hobsbawm (1990) asserts that because many people in India were unwilling to accept the disadvantage of having a national language that was not their mother tongue, it was impossible to establish a single national language. The Indian National Congress was also "committed to a single united subcontinent," but it had to accept the country's division into separate states because Hindi was Ghandi's choice for a national language. Despite the fact that Hindi was the most widely spoken language in India, those who supported Hindi as a national language were unable to impose it on the population as a whole.

Alternative Theories of Nation Building

There is no conflict between our theory and other theories of nation-building. War is one non-exclusive variable. State-building is thought to be heavily influenced by international conflicts. However, this argument may be more applicable to the development of "state capacity," which entails raising taxes to fund armies and maintain order. Policies of nation-building were not simultaneously influenced by wars that encouraged ruling elites to invest in state-building. In Europe, the period of state-building, or the ability of the state to raise taxes, begins around the year 1500. European nations made investments in state-building over the next three centuries (see Gennaioli and Voth, forthcoming). On the other hand, nation-building policies like education, language, infrastructure for domestic communication, and (more or less generously) including minorities only started after the French Revolution, when old aristocracies across Europe faced a significant threat.

Aghion and others shed additional light on the role that war plays in nation-building. They demonstrate that, for a panel of nations from 1830 to 2001, the threat of war is associated with an increase in enrollment in primary education which is regarded as a metric of nation-building but that the threat of war may only be relevant in nations that are sufficiently democratic. In their baseline regressions, the effect of a war threat on education enrollment is either negative or very small and positive for the mean value of democracy in their sample. This indicates that the effect of a war threat on education enrollment is, at best, insignificant for significantly non-democratic nations.

In democratic nations, war is relevant to nation-building, but it fails to adequately explain nation-building in non-democratic regimes. This outcome makes complete sense. In a more democratic regime, it may be more difficult to "force" armies to fight out of fear; teaching nationalism may be more compelling and necessary.

However significant country building happened, and happens, in non-majority rule systems, when threatened by dread of uprisings. States have invested in nation-building since the beginning of the 19th century; In fact, this is the period of nation-building in history with the most records. However, according to the Aghion et al. index, European nations have had very poor democracy scores for the majority of this century. Democracies seem to be particularly affected by the threat of war, as we discussed earlier. This suggests that intense episodes of nation-building under other non-democratic regimes and this significant period of nation-building in 19th-century Europe cannot be fully explained by the threat of war. In conclusion, we believe that building a nation out of fear of democratization and nation-splitting and building a state out of fear of aggression are very complementary rather than competing arguments.

A second popular theory contends that governments engaged in significant nation-building as a result of industrialization. According to Gellner (1983), agrarian societies do not require a "nation" in the modern sense. In contrast, better means of communication are required in an industrial society based on markets, as opposed to a stratified agrarian society with local markets. General tutoring fills a financial need also, important for the improvement of a modern society.88 all in all, efficiency would increment in an modern culture with more homogenization comparative with an agrarian one.

This theory's timing is questionable. According to Smith (2003) and Green (1990), education reforms were not implemented country by country in a manner that is consistent with industrialization being a major driving force behind the changes. When nationalism and the beginnings of mass education first emerged in many continental European nations, there was no industrial development. In England, education reforms arrived long after the industrial revolution. Green (1990) contends that, when implemented, state education did not provide children with the appropriate technical skills, which is also inconsistent with the argument that education was provided as a result of industrialization. Industrialization may provide a better explanation for bottom-up homogenization (such as the increased homogenization of language as a direct result of working with people from various regions and the need to communicate with them), but this is a topic that we will leave for future research.

CHAPTER 2

YOUTH IN NATIONAL INTEGRATION

2.1 Introduction

There is a contradiction when examining the political participation behaviors of young adults in contemporary Europe. Their argument is supported by empirical findings from the literature, which include the fact that young adults are the least likely to vote in national elections, the decline in youth membership in political parties, and generally low levels of political interest. In contrast, the findings in the context of new forms of political participation that are more appealing to and are utilized more frequently by young adults support the literature on an engagement paradigm of youth participation, which presents a more upbeat perspective.

The significance of young adults in European democracies is questioned from both perspectives. The two mentioned positions are the respective apex of a much more nuanced body of research on this subject. Although research in this area may appear to be ambiguous, it is evident that neither the extent nor the modes of youth political participation are fully understood.

In an effort to begin addressing this issue, this study attempts to do so. The objective is to provide the reader with a map of the various terminologies and logics used to discuss youth political participation. A structured inventory is the first step. This, on the one hand, will be helpful to people who are new to this area of research because it gives an overview of previous research on youth political participation in Europe. On the other hand, it gives knowledgeable researchers a chance to think about the state of research in this area right now.

In light of this, present three main arguments in this study. First, despite the fact that the definitions of political participation that are currently in use are

sufficient to account for the participation of young people, the existing body of research is inconsistent in its inclusion of new forms of participation that are becoming increasingly prevalent among young adults. Second, the varying conceptions of politics held by young adults and their differing awareness of what constitutes political participation in comparison to adults create both methodological and substantive issues in the existing literature.

Thirdly, if we are to agree that young people hold the key to the future functioning of our political systems, then larger cross-national studies that take into account an adequate conception of how youth define political participation and conduct comparative research on youth political participation behavior are essential.

It is common knowledge that young people who are active and productive do not find work, remain ill, or receive sufficient support. Some of them need special care because they have special needs. These include people who live on the streets, people who have HIV/AIDS, girls, and people who have disabilities. It is perplexing to assert that no nation will experience development if the majority of the population, or the largest percentage, is idly and ineffective. As a result, young people have a greater impact on national development. If Nigeria invests in human development now, it could reap the benefits of what some have referred to as a "demographic dividend" by 2030. When a demographic window of opportunity opens and fertility and high youth dependency fall, Nigeria's current demographic structures could be advantageous in the future. Diverse stakeholders bear the burden of ensuring that young people's aspirations and hopes are realized. Every member of the community, young and old, must fulfill their responsibilities. As a result, their perspectives and roles are crucial to the growth of any society. In fact, the youth of Nigeria, not oil, is Nigeria's 21st-century future.

Youth is without a doubt a nation's foundation and its future. Any nation's progress and future development are heavily dependent on its youth. For this reason most countries have substantial advancement programs for their childhood. Youth development is the ongoing process of growth in which all young people try to meet their fundamental personal and social needs to be safe, feel cared for, valued, useful, and spiritually grounded in order to develop skills and competencies that help them function and make a difference in their everyday lives. Youth development is a process that requires family, community, and government support. It requires strategic, emotional, and motivational support; opportunities and services (such as employment, health care, education, and information) are created.

2.2 The Development of Political Participation Repertoires

Over the past few decades, research on political participation has undergone significant advancements. Our understanding of the field has grown as a result of contributions from a variety of fields; however, it is now less clear what the fundamental assumptions and definitions that make up the term "Political Participation" (PP) are.

As a result, the fundamental question of what constitutes political participation is addressed and a brief history of the term is provided in this section. The most commonly accepted ways to be considered PP are to sign a petition, join a party, or vote. However, that is about the extent of agreements. One must go back a few decades in order to find an answer to the question of how to define PP. Robert Dahl provided the first hint of what it might mean in 1973.

"Poliarchy: " In "Participation and Opposition," he declares that participatory politics (PP) is a necessary component of contemporary democracies because it enables citizens to hold their governments accountable (Dahl, 1973). However, Dahl did not provide a clear definition of participation. His definition only implied that actions within a nation's institutional framework, such as consumerism (Stolle et al.,) were included or simply clicking the "like" button would not be considered participation, despite the fact that they might be interpreted as holding governments accountable.

His works by and by contain a few central components of our present day origination of PP specifically responsibility as well as the polarity of private residents and expert lawmakers, which can likewise be tracked down in the very much recognized works of Verba and Nie (1972). According to Verba and Nie, political participation is defined as "those activities by private citizens that are more or less directly aimed at influencing the selection of governmental personnel and/or the actions they take." Verba and Nie assert that private citizens can participate in politics in a variety of ways, not just by voting or joining political parties. Voting, campaigning, contacting public officials, and cooperative or communal activities are all included in their suggested typology.

Youth is a good indicator of a nation's capacity for self-sufficiency and reproduction. The growth of their nation is positively correlated with the extent of their vitality, responsible behavior, and roles in society.

The Youth possess a few distinct characteristics, including:

1. They act as a link between the present and future generations and are the nation's future.
2. They make up any nation's most active and productive segment.

3. They make up the majority of people in most nations, particularly developing nations.
4. Despite their lack of experience and impatience, their impulsivity, adventurous spirit, and daring disposition can be put to good use.
5. They are very active and can be social change agents, especially in societies that are losing their moral compass.

Different institutions and nations have different definitions of who is considered to be young. The United Nations defines youth as individuals between the ages of 15 and 24. The NYSC puts its age section as from 18-30 years. However, the youth policy refers to all young people between the ages of 18 and 35. It identified the following issues that Nigeria's youth face:

a) Inadequate parental care

b) Non-availability of suitable sports and recreational facilities

c) Moral decadence in the society

d) Lack of appropriate role models

e) Religious fanaticism

f) Cult activities

g) Political manipulation of youth organizations

h) Unemployment and underemployment

i) Poor education

j) Breakdown of family values; and

k) Indiscipline

Unfortunately, youth development has been neglected for the past three decades, resulting in an increase in youth violence and agitation. Irresponsible politicians and religious bigots use the unemployed youth as a reserve army to maintain thuggery and violence. Many young people have lost faith in the older generations and government institutions. In order for Nigeria to advance, youth must undergo change in order to develop their own leadership and entrepreneurial skills and become social change agents.

The National Youths Policy recognizes that young people are a valuable resource that can be utilized for the nation's overall good. As a result, the policy tries to address issues that young people face by including broad strategies that would give young people meaningful chances to reach their full potential. All stakeholders, including the private sector and civil society, will be able to contribute to youth development within the scope of the policy. The policy includes a mechanism for implementation. This arrangement is ready inside the setting of existing sectoral strategies, public improvement plans, worldwide arrangements and contracts to which Kenya is a signatory; as essential to the youth's complete integration and participation in Kenya's development.

According to UNESCO, the United Nations World Programme for the Youth, Commonwealth Youths Charter, and Universal Declaration of Human Rights are all taken into consideration. Youth have a direct stake in the growth of our great nation and are recognized not only as future leaders but also as actors and the foundation of our society. The New Nigerian, 2001, by Aishat Ismail The objective conditions and realities that are present on the ground, particularly historical and contemporary socioeconomic and political issues that need to be addressed, are related to the way a nation defines its youth. The majority of national youth policies attempt to identify the primary

beneficiaries of policy interventions by defining "young people." However, defining "youth" is difficult due to the lack of international agreement on its meaning or a precise indicator such as age intervals. Who is considered a "youth" in each nation will be determined by a variety of cultural and political factors. In order to overcome the challenges of defining age, interpretability is essential. Equally important is the recognition that young people should not be thought of as a single demographic group but rather as a broad category that includes many distinct subgroups that may necessitate specific policies.

It is possible to conceptualize and define youth as a distinct group that contributes in a variety of socioeconomic areas. However, some of these recent texts have portrayed young people as criminals, deviants, or simply ignorant. They are depicted as "irresponsible and prone to caprice" by one of them. According to Mudaly (1999), the idea that young people are a homogeneous group is flawed because it implies that there are more similarities than differences among them. The diversity of youth's experiences, maturity levels, gender, sexual orientation, abilities, and cultural and linguistic backgrounds is overlooked by the idea of youth homogeneity. In addition, the idea fails to take into account the significance of relationships among groups of young people, geographical location, institutions, economics, and politics in the formation of identity. According to Wyn and White (1997), the more accurate definition of youth is a relational stage during which young people become distinct individuals. "Youth is ‘a slippery concept,'... When does it start and finish?...," according to Kenway (1993), advances the conceptual discourse. There may be a fluidity that transcends boundaries, according to some. In addition, Kenway argues that young people can exhibit remarkably adult actions or perceptions, and that adult behavior or attitudes can be interpreted as "childish" at any time.

In the past, successful participation in rites of passage and indicators such as marriage, starting a job, leaving one's home, and becoming a parent marked the transition from youth to adulthood. However, according to Sercombe et al. (2002), many young people may no longer care about how they are perceived as adults. By engaging in adult behaviors, they may now seek to define their transition into adulthood. When examining the concept of youth in the context of the 21st century, some authors have come to the conclusion that social and economic shifts have eliminated many of the pathways into adulthood that were once available to young people. The duration of their dependence is extended as a result. As a result, as young people's capacity to attain adult status by completing particular tasks or achieving goals decreases, the age at which they transition from youth to adulthood will rise.

During a time of discontent in the democratic system, it has become commonplace to anticipate increased and improved participation in all decision-making processes. However, the meaning of participation and the various practices that are defined as such are rarely understood. "The process of citizens taking part in policy decisions" was the term used by Bishop and Davies (2003) to describe participation. They assert that the sharing of power between the governed and the government is always necessary for participation. They go on to argue that participation falls somewhere in between direct democracy and policymaking through administrative fiat. "The process of sharing decisions which affect one's life and the life of the community in which one lives" is what Hart (1992) defines participation as. A fundamental part of cooperation is that individuals are allowed to include themselves in friendly what's more, formative cycles and that the singular's contribution is dynamic, intentional and informed.

More specifically, according to Checkoway (1992), "the process of involving young people in the decisions that affect their lives" is the definition of youth participation. From forming committees and holding meetings to lobbying policymakers and decision-makers, these activities are numerous and varied. Checkoway (1992), citing the American National Commission on Resources for Youth of 1975, defined youth participation as enabling youth to meet genuine needs by responsibly challenging those in power. Youth should have the opportunity to participate in the planning or decision-making of activities that have an impact beyond the youth who take part in them. The Commission identifies additional aspects of youth participation that should be incorporated, such as the capacity for critical reflection on the participatory activity and the opportunity for the group to work toward a common objective.

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More specifically, according to Checkoway (1992), "the process of involving young people in the decisions that affect their lives" is the definition of youth participation. From forming committees and holding meetings to lobbying policymakers and decision-makers, these activities are numerous and varied. Checkoway (1992), citing the American National Commission on Resources for Youth of 1975, defined youth participation as enabling youth to meet genuine needs by responsibly challenging those in power. Youth should have the opportunity to participate in the planning or decision-making of activities that have an impact beyond the youth who take part in them. The Commission identifies additional aspects of youth participation that should be incorporated, such as the capacity for critical reflection on the participatory activity and the opportunity for the group to work toward a common objective.

Youth participation can therefore be defined as the process of guiding and designing micro- and macro-society by and with young people. This is in light of the preceding. It is a democratic process in which young people put society

to the test to make changes that will lead to sustainable development. The goal of youth participation is to create an environment where children and adults collaborate with respect and understanding. Real youth participation involves providing real opportunities for youth to become involved in decisions that affect them both on an individual level and within the systems that they are a part of and recognizing and nurturing the strengths, interests, and abilities of young people. A process in which young people are meaningfully involved in decisions that affect them and society as a whole for sustainable development moves beyond tokenism. According to these points of view, meaningful youth participation occurs when youth are actively involved in program design, implementation, and decision-making. Young people need tools and conditions that allow them to design their own world and future in order to participate actively. However, for young people to be able to participate in a meaningful way, they need to be guided, supported, and advised by trustworthy adults, as well as treated with respect in an environment that is non-judgmental and inclusive. As a result, it involves working together with adults who can act as mentors and sharing decision-making responsibilities.

The UN General Assembly (UNDESA, 2004) defined youth participation in terms of four spheres of participation in national development: economic participation in relation to development and work; political participation in relation to the making of decisions on a local, national, regional, and international scale; participation in social activities, including participation in community events; and cultural participation in relation to the arts, cultural expression, and cultural values.

Fig.2.1 Role of youth in promoting national integration

The PAN-African Youth Charter, African Union, 2006 (World Family Organization, envisions youth participation as the ability for young people to actively participate in all aspects of society.

It requires a number of steps to be taken by Charter State Parties to ensure youth participation. These are some:

i) Establishing a quota system to guarantee youth participation in legislative and other decision-making processes;

ii) Establishing youth focal points in government structures to ensure that issues affecting youth are taken into account;

iii) Prioritizing policies and programs that provide marginalized youth, such as out-of-school and unemployed youth, with the opportunity and motivation

to reintegrate into mainstream society, such as youth advocacy and peer-to-peer programs;

iv) Providing young people with access to information, education, and training so they can learn about their rights and responsibilities, as well as democratic processes, citizenship, decision-making, governance, and leadership so they can participate in these processes with technical skills and confidence; and

v) Providing financial and technical assistance to youth organizations in order to enhance their institutional capacity.

Through cross-border web sites, tele- and video-conferencing, chat boards, and webcams, information and communication technologies (ICT) are creating a new form of youth involvement known as "cyber participation." This mode of participation provides young people with creative, open, and non-hierarchical channels of participation (World Youth Report, 2005). According to Kyriakou (2004), as it increases participation in democratic deliberation and decision-making processes, cyber participation is also promoting e-democracy. However, there are political and economic obstacles associated with it, such as access, which includes the "educational" aspect as well as access to the internet in terms of equipment and affordable connections. To prepare more active cyber-citizens, this would necessitate new and improved "civics" courses that incorporate Internet-era communication skills in addition to basic informatics knowledge. "There is a strong argument that if the problem of access is not addressed, the digital gap will percolate to political cyber-participation, and we will end up with de facto disenfranchisement of cyber-citizens," he added. The gap between those who have it all and those who don't will likely widen as a result of this gap.

Although this new mode of participation is not a replacement for traditional and conventional avenues for youth participation, it can offer more young people opportunities to become involved in decision-making and meaningfully shape their societies for effective national development.

Youth play an important role in the growth of nations. In Nigeria, youngsters have been consigned to the foundation. Young people had a big say in how Nigeria was run during the first republic and the first military rule. In their twenties, Alhaji Shehu Shagari and Alhaji Ibrahim Waziri became Federal Ministers. In his early twenties, Matthew Mbu became an ambassador. At the age of 28, Col Yakubu Gowon became the head of state. General Olusegun Obasanjo assumed office as president in 1976. I was in sixth grade. He became the President of Nigeria in 1999. I had been out of school for thirteen years. The cliche that young people in Nigeria will be tomorrow's leaders must be rejected. that there may never be a tomorrow. When IBB argued that youth are not ready for leadership, he made the point. By acquiring the knowledge and abilities necessary for leadership, Nigerian youth must prepare themselves for leadership. More importantly, they must organize and mobilize for change in order to become social change agents.

Students who supported the National Association of Nigerian Students and youth who supported the Patriotic Youth Movement of Nigeria were the nation's conscience in the 1960s and 1970s. They opposed the Anglo-Nigeria defense pact, which would have mortgaged Nigeria's independence. They opposed populist, anti-people policies like raising school fees , structural adjustment program and rising petroleum product prices. However, in recent years, student bodies have specialized in awarding thieving Governors with prizes. The National Youths Service was established in 1973 and has received ongoing support from the Nigerian government. The majority of other youth

programs focus on socializing and having fun. Additionally, they are based in the city. In its efforts to promote national integration, the current administration has shown a strong interest in youth issues. The issue of unemployment has remained a significant obstacle. While the various National Development Plans from 1962 to 2014 acknowledged the efforts made to address youth unemployment, they warned that the issue would continue to be significant in the future.

Other subsequent policy documents, including SURE-P, the promotion of Small-Scale Enterprises, and the National Poverty Eradication Plan 1999-2015, have attempted to initiate youth development programs. However, despite these efforts and an increase in the number of organizations focusing on youth, issues affecting young people have persisted. The absence of a comprehensive policy that provides a blueprint for youths has been blamed for this situation. Innovative programs have been developed by youth organizations to address the financial needs of young people, as well as health interventions, particularly those aimed at reducing the spread of HIV/AIDS among young people and improving reproductive health, character development, environmental education, vocational training, sports and recreation, and sociocultural programs.

However, their ability to achieve their goals has been hindered by the following constraints:

i. Pressure from the rapid growth of the population: As the number of young people continues to rise, the high rate of population growth, which stands at 2.5% (2006), puts pressure on the resources that are available.
ii. Lack of the necessary skills: The educational system and tertiary education establishments continue to produce thousands of graduates who are neither

adequately prepared for entry into the labor market nor possess the necessary life skills.

iii. Youth programs and policies that are unclear and uncoordinated: Despite the fact that a number of government ministries and youth organizations have their own programs as well as sectoral youth policies, the absence of a national youth policy and efficient coordination mechanisms limits their effectiveness.

iv. Limitations on Resources: The majority of youth programs, which are run by both the government and non-governmental organizations, lack sufficient funding and equipment, limiting their success.

v. Youth's low social status: Youth participation in decision-making, planning, and implementation processes is hindered by existing structures and prevalent attitudes.

In addition, youth corruption in the name of empowerment is one of the greatest challenges that our young people have faced over the past ten years, particularly in the Niger Delta. In the name of empowerment, politicians and oil barons give money to young people. The young people aren't working in a formal job, and they aren't taught how to build a career or be an entrepreneur so they can start their own businesses and hire workers. The youth are now permanently reliant on their "masters," and as a result, they are unable to fulfill their historic role as agents of social change and action. Therefore, it is imperative that young people acquire entrepreneurial skills in order to provide them with adequate means of subsistence. In Nigeria as a whole and in the Niger Delta in particular, there are a lot of opportunities. Numerous possibilities have emerged as a result of the local content bill.

Youth must be taught to take advantage of opportunities for the good of society as well as for their own benefit. Politicians and oil tycoons routinely hand out aid to young people under the guise of empowerment. This training

is really sabotaging in light of the fact that the people included are not upheld to get significant work or to participate in enterprising exercises. The young people involved become permanently dependent on their "masters" as a result.

A nation's sustainable growth and development to a more desirable state is referred to as national development. People are the focus of national development, and its success is measured by how much it has improved the lives of the masses. The following is from the 1980 Third National Development Plan's definition of the concept:

The development of man, the realization of his creative potentials, and the ability for him to use the resources at his disposal to improve his material circumstances are essential components of true development. It is a process by which a man's personality is improved, and that improved personality is the driving force behind any society's socioeconomic transformation. It is creative, organized, and disciplined (FGN, 1980). Onabajo and M'Bayo (2009) assert that "national development should be man oriented and not institution oriented, that is, individually in collectiveness rather than individual." "National development refers, among other things, to the growth of the nation in terms of unity, education, economic well-being, and widespread participation in government," according to Elugbe (1994). In a nutshell, development is the provision of all the materials and tools necessary to ensure that every human being can survive and thrive in society. Citing Todaro and Smith (2003), Anaeto and Anaeto (2010) identified three development goals:

1. Food, shelter, health, and safety are just a few of the essential life-sustaining items that should be made more readily available and distributed.

2. More jobs, better education, and a greater focus on cultural and human values are all ways to raise living standards in addition to incomes. They will also help raise individual and national self-esteem as well as improve material well-being.

3. to liberate individuals and nations from servitude and dependence, not only in relation to other people and nation states but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery, in order to broaden the range of economic and social choices available to them.

A society's socio-cultural, political, economic, and spiritual well-being are all aspects of development. There is assurance of a good quality of life, the exercise of all human rights, and the freedom to participate in the democratic process in a truly developed state. Since it takes into account the well-being, growth, and advancement of individuals within the society, development implies improved quality of life, equity, and justice. Youth's Contribution to National Development.

2.3 The youth in human capital development

It is impossible to overstate the potential significance of youth in both the development of Africa and the world. In a region of the world where capital formation is limited, youths could be a source of human capital and labor inputs in production, which would raise total factor productivity. Youths' activities of consumption could be a dependable source of economic demand when employed. In addition, the youth of Africa may play a crucial role in the formation of a new class of entrepreneurs, which is necessary for the success of African nations. Additionally, Africa has a chance to capitalize on a "demographic dividend": Since most African nations are expected to have more adults of working age per child in 2030 than in 2006, fewer children and

the elderly will require the assistance of a large workforce. Reduced dependence would free up resources for development as a result of this trend; Ashford, for instance, is a good example.

Under-25s make up nearly half of the world's population. Youths between the ages of 15 and 24 have the greatest need for sexual and reproductive health services, but younger people will soon be adults and will also have these needs. The number of people between the ages of 15 and 24 is currently 1.2 billion, and it is anticipated that it will continue to rise for at least another 20 years. Access to reproductive health information and services is essential as the number of young people grows so that they can choose how many children they want and get the information and services they need to avoid unintended pregnancy, HIV, and sexually transmitted infections (STIs). Youths are better able to make decisions that support the achievement of educational objectives and the acquisition of life skills necessary for national and local leadership positions with this knowledge. According to UNO (2011), ignoring the reproductive and sexual health of young people today will have devastating global consequences for decades.

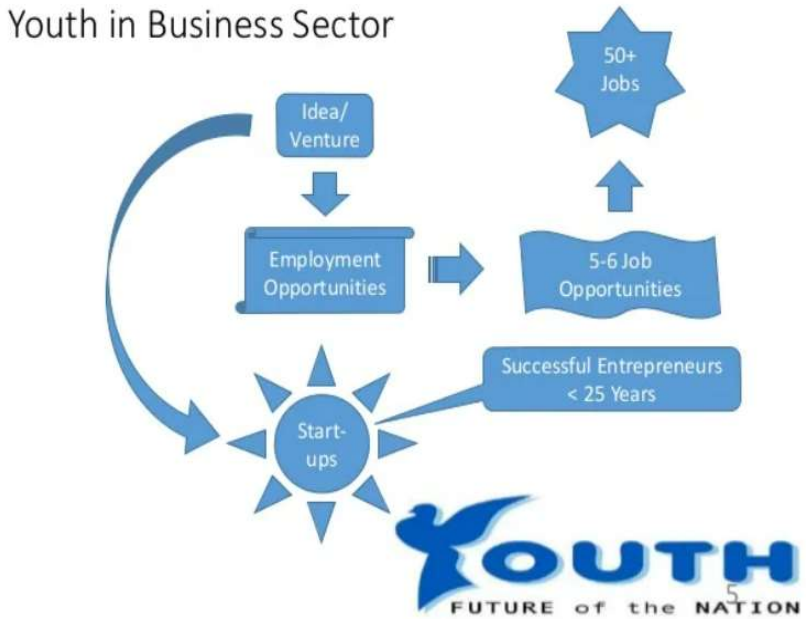

Fig.2.2 Youth in building the nation

Every day, approximately 6,000 young people in developing nations are infected with HIV, the majority of whom are young women. Additionally, more than 100 million new sexually transmitted infections occur annually among youth, raising their HIV risk. As many as 40% of adolescent pregnancies in Latin America and the Caribbean are unintended, and between 11% and 77% of adolescent pregnancies in sub-Saharan Africa are unintended. Young women have high rates of unintended pregnancy. Pregnancy complications are the leading cause of death for young women between the ages of 15 and 19 in low- and middle-income nations, and their maternal mortality rates are twice as high as those of older women. Youth will be empowered to make healthy decisions if they have access to reproductive health education, services where they are welcomed, and accurate and comprehensive information.

Youths in Peace Building

The 2017 United Nations International Youth Day is currently centered on this. Youth play a significant role in every society. They outnumber the elderly and middle-aged, and they are the owners and leaders of the future. Youth possess not only numerical superiority but also the vitality and ideas that are society's greatest potentials. The following is stated in the National Youth Development Policy:

A society's foundation is its youth. A nation's pace of development and security are determined by their energies, inventiveness, character, and orientation. A nation makes significant progress in its sociopolitical and economic development thanks to its creative abilities and labor force. A nation discovers her motivation in their goals and aspirations; She builds her vitality and purpose on their energies. A nation's future is secure because of their hopes and dreams. The aforementioned statement acknowledges the significance of youth to a nation's peace and security.

According to Ozohu-Sulaiman (2006), youth, the most active segment of any society, are the primary factor in a nation's peace and stability. In contrast, youths also play a role in determining the degree of social disorder and instability. Peace is a prerequisite for growth. The shortfall of harmony implies that no significant improvement can happen. “Responsible conduct and roles in society is positively correlated with the development of their country” is stated in the National Youths Policy. Young people in national youth service organizations, according to Eberly and Gal1 (2007), can play a crucial role in post-conflict community reconstruction, maintaining peace in tense situations, and possibly preventing squealing.

Nigeria is a great illustration of how young people's involvement can help bring people together after a conflict. In the late 1960s Nigeria was dove into nationwide conflict when one district - called Biafra - attempted to split away

from the remainder of the country. The fact that Nigeria is not a natural nation that developed organically from within is directly responsible for the attempted breakaway. Instead, the European powers that met in Berlin at the end of the 19th century decided its borders. People with the same language and culture were divided, and people with different cultures were joined. Nigeria made the decision that it must make an effort to foster national unity after Biafra's attempt to secede failed. A national youth scheme was proposed by university students and other youth organizations, with the initial project of providing assistance to war-torn regions. Following the completion of each university student's first year, the Committee of Vice-Chancellors called for one year of service. In 1973, Head of State General Yakubu Gowon issued a decree establishing the National Youths Service Corps (NYSC) to foster "common ties among the youth of Nigerian and to promote national unity," which was met with much debate and controversy.

The NYSC requires all college graduates to serve for one year in a piece of the country unique in relation to where they grew up. Members of the Corps are assigned to their places of assignment following a quasi-military orientation period. There, they are expected to start community development projects and work in a regular job for eleven months in the areas they serve. Members of the Corps serve in their fields of expertise. English majors teach high school English, while agricultural graduates advise farmers on crops and pesticides. They receive compensation from the government. After their time in the Corps, they get together once more to talk about their experiences, take part in a parade, and get Certificates of National Service that allow them to work in Nigeria. Albeit neither entering their relatives like postings to far off pieces of Nigeria, an investigation of ex-Corps individuals posted away from home showed that in hindsight, just a single in ten saw the experience as

negative, with the rest passing judgment on it sure. Service by young people appears to be a common component in the various patterns of building post-conflict civil societies, even though the Nigerian case is perhaps the most direct example of using youth participation to foster reconciliation.

The Role of Youths in Community Based and Faith Based Organisations

There are many different kinds of community-based organizations in the majority of Nigeria's rural areas. However, the youth-led organizations that are currently flourishing Youth-focused community organizations have long existed in Nigeria's southern region. It has also emerged in Northern Nigeria, particularly among communities with a Christian foundation. The Youths Muslim Ummah is being encouraged to participate in the formation of youth-based community organizations. However, the primary objective of the Youths community based organization's formation was to complement the efforts of the government in community development projects. Because these organizations were founded by community members themselves, they are the closest to the people at the grassroots level. Like some other local area based associations, youth's communitybased associations upgrade local area advancement through:

• The creation, promotion, and implementation of sustainable development projects that benefit their communities.

• Getting people in the community to work for the good of the country.

• Improving the management of community resources.

• Enhancing youths' general abilities to be productive

• Encouraging marginalized communities to participate in the promotion of rural development that affects them • Promoting a sustainable human development

• To guarantee that community resources are properly accountable (Ayuba, 2012). Self-Help Organizations for Young People in Nigeria.

Youth participation in self-help projects in various local governments in Nigeria, particularly those involving trade, commerce, home economics, small and medium-term enterprises, and agriculture, underscores the need to accelerate rural development. There are two types of self-help initiatives: Non-Government Aided Projects (NGAP) and Projects Aided by the Government (GAP). Non-government aid projects are those that are carried out entirely through the collective efforts of community members, whereas government aid projects are those that are carried out with the assistance of the government in either financial or material resources.

Youths have recently realized how important self-help projects are to raising community standards and standard of living. A community's collective efforts to ensure that their efforts are based on their initiatives to achieve maximum benefit with or without the assistance of the government constitute this type of self-help.

Youths' contributions to community development projects include the following:

1. Educating the rural community on the use of improved seeds or farming techniques through the Young Farmers Club.

2. Clearing and draining of drainages/culverts

3. Sinking of ordinary dug-out wells

4. Renovation of clinics, health centres/dispensaries in the rural areas

5. Construction of rural feeder roads

6. Assistance to the less privileged in the society and

7. Other community programmes include; Youth clubs enlighten fellow youths and women on HIV/AIDS, Women and Children trafficking, child labour and VVS.

2.4 Youths and Political Development

There are a few basic assumptions that need to be made when talking about the role that young people play in today's political participation and development. First of all, we are assuming a political system with a large proportion of young people who are well-informed and conscientious. Furthermore, we are likewise accepting a coordinated youth with plainly characterized targets and different authentic strategies to make input in the political cycle.

Thirdly, we are going to assume a political system with enough public space for citizens to freely participate in the process of governance. While the degree of these variables in the Nigerian political system is at best measured and sometimes highly debated, it has generally been observed that over the past twelve years of democratic experiment, actors in civil society, or what social entrepreneurial scholars now call the "citizens sector," have been given the opportunity to take on their role in the process of political participation.

A recent study on government-civilian partnership in Nigeria found the following: According to Chukwuma , "civil society organizations are reaching out to various government agencies and parastatals in an effort to build their capacity for service delivery and be accountable to citizens." The youth of

Nigeria is currently faced with the challenge of redefining its role in the democratization process in light of this opportunity. This section uses the National Youth Policy's mission statement as a starting point to explain Nigerian youth's expected role in political participation. In the document, it was stated:

According to the National Youths Political Reform Conference (National Youths Political Reform Conference, the current administration has determined that it is most desirable, necessary, and urgent to initiate this National Youths Development Policy so that there will be a purposeful, focused, well-articulated, and well-directed effort aimed at tapping the energy and resourcefulness of the youths and harnessing them for the country's vitality, growth, and development well into the 21st century.

In light of the preceding, the crucial issue of creating an environment that encourages young people to use their creative and productive potential to influence the political and developmental processes ought to receive top priority. Given the right environment thusly, the

following are considered as the job assumption for Nigerian young people in the political and formative interaction. First, the youth should present themselves as socialization agents in politics. We refer to political socialization as the process by which political values are established and political culture is dissipated in society. In the end, this process of socialization determines how individuals develop political attitudes and, consequently, how citizens develop political culture as a whole. The level of political culture in Nigeria today is not sufficient to support our democracy. None of this is due to the military dictatorship that lasted for more than two decades, during which time civil society was significantly militarized and civic engagement was distorted.

Experience in Nigeria has demonstrated that the youthful population frequently provides the necessary workforce for general elections. Youths should act with good conscience and insist on fair play and due process rather than giving in to the unsavory tactics of egotistical and bankrupt politicians to rig elections and sabotage the process. Nigeria also has a wide range of youth organizations with a wide range of interests. To have an impact on the decision-making process, they can begin to investigate the political landscape. Recent research has demonstrated:

Youth-relevant or accurately (sic) factor in the contribution of youth to the national political and sustainable development process will not necessarily be the case unless young people are consulted and involved in the design of developmental strategies. More than just incorporating young people's issues into the existing policy paradigm, participation of young people in decision-making is important.

Another process is active participation in governance at all levels, including local government. which youths can utilize to influence the political and developmental processes. The fundamental learning process for political maturity must begin at the grassroots. The youth will have the chance to connect with the masses, comprehend their issues, and master the terrain through grassroots politics. According to Suleiman (2006), the best training ground for youth in a nascent democracy like Nigeria is grassroot apprenticeship rather than glorified "messenger" under the tutelage of bankrupt and avaricious political godfathers. Lastly, youth bear the greatest responsibility for promoting peace, security, stability, and national unity due to their vulnerability. They can build bridges of understanding across ethnic groups, political affiliations, and religious divides through their political education and public enlightenment campaign, their advocacy for policies,

and their active participation in the electoral process. Peace, security, and stability are the only things that can sustain democracy and good governance. Where these are lacking, social progress and the youth's future are seriously compromised, as well as democracy and good governance.

2.5 Issues Impinging On The Youths On National Development

The financial and world of politics in Nigeria represents an extraordinary test to the young people. Social and economic statistics paint a gloomy picture that is far from ideal. The primary industries of agriculture, oil, and minerals continue to dominate the economy nearly 50 years after flag independence. This is in part due to the country's inability to foster economic activities with high value added. With the exception of the oil and gas industries, there is a decline in direct foreign investment and a low level of domestic capital formation. There is also a lot of debt, high unemployment, and an informal economy in which the majority of people live in poverty. In terms of economic competitiveness on a global scale, Nigeria performs very poorly. The country does not have adequate physical and social infrastructure. As a result, the majority of people in the country lack access to essential services like clean water, electricity, roads, and healthcare. In addition, there is a high illiteracy rate, particularly among women. In the midst of devastating diseases, there is a lack of access to basic medical care; a circumstance that has become even worse since the HIV/AIDS pandemic began.

Fig.2.3 Role of youth in politics

In the past ten years, authoritarianism, political instability, and ethnic and religious conflicts have contributed to the underdevelopment of the nation. Exclusion of the people from governance, non-accountability of public officials, a lack of transparency in decision-making, electoral fraud, and the political elite's colonialization and personalization of state and national resources are just some of the tangible signs of poor governance nearly a decade after democratic rule was restored. The Nigerian youth face particular difficulties as a result of this circumstance. Youths have the potential to play a significant role in the economic expansion and development of Africa for a number of different reasons. First, they typically have higher levels of education than their older peers. As a result, they are better able to take in new concepts and technologies and adapt them to the African context. Second, compared to their older counterparts, they typically take on more risks.

Last but not least, they are more likely to question social and political conventions that they believe are impeding economic growth. How to harness the young people's desire for change that has the potential to lead to positive

outcomes is the challenge facing African policymakers. As the Arab Spring demonstrated recently, the consequences of not fully developing and utilizing youth's potential could be dire, including significant economic losses, armed conflict, and political and social upheaval and instability. Youths are more likely to become dissatisfied when they have valid complaints, such as a lack of employment opportunities, a low level of education, a lack of participation in decision-making, and a low level of social mobility. According to Collier and Hoeffler in this volatile environment, greedy and opportunistic politicians could even take advantage of these complaints by involving these dissatisfied youths in the violent overthrow of legitimate governments, resulting in massive instabilities that could impede the economic growth of African nations. In particular, the following difficulties are discussed:

2.6 Unemployment and underemployment

Youth unemployment is high. Around 70 million young people worldwide are unemployed. The rate of economic growth has not been fast enough to provide enough jobs for the roughly 500,000 people who are joining the workforce each year. Approximately 25% of young people are absorbed, leaving 75% to deal with unemployment. In addition, the jobs that some people find on the job market do not match their skills or aspirations for personal growth.

Health related problems

Young people are prone to illness. HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases have the highest incidence rates among young people between the ages of 15 and 24. Malaria, widespread malnutrition, HIV/AIDS and sexually

transmitted infections (STIs), drug and substance abuse, and limited access to health services are among the youth's health issues.

The HIV/AIDS pandemic affects younger people under the age of 30 more frequently. According to available data, 33% of Kenyans infected with Aids are youth. Teen pregnancy and female genital mutilation are exclusively among female adolescents. Dropping out of school and the risk of unsafe abortions are two of these consequences.

Increasing school and college drop-out rates

Youths lack education, according to the United Nations. Nearly one third of young people worldwide are illiterate. Only 13% of girls and 22% of boys enroll in secondary education in the least developed nations. Due, among other things, to the high cost of education, the rise in overall poverty, low returns on investment in education, and the absence of a re-admission policy for teenage mothers, many young people drop out of school and college.

Crime and deviant behaviour

Young people are annoyed. There is evidence to suggest that young people who have limited political power and poor economic prospects are more likely to be radical, fundamentalist, revolutionary, use drugs, or take their own lives. Youths become restless and try anything when idle, especially after formal education. Some engage in criminal activity or deviant behavior.

Limited sports and recreation facilities

Youth have the opportunity to socialize and spend their time productively at sports and recreation facilities, thereby enhancing their character and abilities. However, these facilities are in short supply, and when they do exist, they may not always be accessible to young people.

Abuse and exploitation

Under the guise of employment and support, the youths are subjected to sexual abuse, child labor, and other forms of economic exploitation due to their vulnerability. There is currently limited government protection.

Limited participation and lack of opportunities

Young people have children. Every year, 17 million women between the ages of 15 and 19 give birth, more than any other age group. Girls between the ages of 15 and 19 face a risk that is twice as high for complications during birth as it is for those over the age of 15. Youths are the least represented in the political and economic spheres, despite their numerical advantage, due to societal attitudes, socio-cultural and economic barriers, and a lack of proper organization.

Limited and poor housing

Many young people, particularly those in urban areas, lack access to decent housing in healthy environments. Lack of access to information and communication technology (ICT): Youth cannot take advantage of career, business, and educational opportunities because ICT is unavailable and expensive, especially in rural areas. Suggestions Numerous worldwide issues emphatically affect young people. These issues can have far-reaching effects in some cases, such as the spread of HIV/AIDS or frustration caused by political exclusion. Nigeria's and other nations' efforts to:

1. Stop the spread of HIV/AIDS and other infectious diseases and alleviate suffering.

2. Establish a stable global economic system that benefits everyone, rich and poor, equally.

3. bolster participation and human rights-based political stability.

4. Reduce the number of refugees and internally displaced people caused by war or economic hardship.

5. Stop fundamentalism, terrorism, and hatred from spreading.

6. moderate growth in the population

7. Support women's equal rights.

CHAPTER 3

THE RELATION AND ROLE OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

3.1 Introduction

Building a nation cannot be done solely from the top down; ordinary citizens must actively participate in shaping a common political will. The citizens of the new state must provide the necessary legitimacy. Effective collective decision-making frequently requires imposing on various participants sacrifices for the common good (such as protecting the environment for future generations), so commitment to the common good and a shared community are essential. These sacrifices will not be considered legitimate if they are not accompanied by shared values and bonds, the essential components of community. As a result, they will either need to be brought about by force or will not be effectively accomplished.

As a result of the preceding, it is essential to involve all citizens, including children and youth, in the nation-building process. In recent times, the role of children and young people in the process of building a nation has sparked serious discussions and a definite policy agenda, both of which are necessary for any nation's development, plan, and policy implementation. Uhunmwuangho and Oghator say that the majority of our young people appear to be on the edge of being rational and moral. It is extremely disappointing that the majority of our youths know more about how to display

anti-social behaviour rather than investigating the opportunities for securing better lives, confronting the challenges of a world that is rapidly changing, and considering the future of their nation. It is shocking to learn that Nigerian youth's positive outlook has vanished from traditional society. Interestingly, governments at all levels of government, parents, guardians, and all stakeholders in our youth development processes are finally realizing that the surprising negative attitudes of our youths can be traced back to the fact that tens of millions of Nigerian youths are unemployed and millions more live in abject poverty, even though they have seen universities.

As a result of the circumstances described above, significant efforts have been made worldwide to meet the ever-increasing requirements of the child and youth population. This includes calling for appropriate programs, services, and advocacy efforts to harness and enhance the capacities and capabilities of children and youth for nation building, such as proper upbringing and empowerment. As a result, this demonstrates the significance of youth and children's participation in nation building, which is the primary focus of this research. Given that children and young people make up the vast majority of the world's population, their involvement in nation building is crucial. Udensi, Daasi, Emeh, and Zukbee demonstrated succinctly that the youth population's size is a limitless source of socioeconomic development4.

Therefore, experts have argued that it will be impossible to achieve the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) targets, particularly those related to extreme poverty and hunger (MDG 1), child mortality (MDG 4), material health (MDG 5) and environmental sustainability (MDG 7), if children and youths are excluded from the formulation of any nation-building program.

With this knowledge, children and adolescents are better able to make decisions that help them achieve educational objectives and acquire the life

skills necessary for national and local leadership positions. It will have devastating global repercussions for decades to ignore the maximum commitment and engagement of children and youth in national development today. This study examines the rationale for expanding the youth frontier from active participation in nation building in order to better comprehend how to move the children and youths forward toward nation building. The remaining portion of the study is broken up into the following five sections: conceptual clarification (children, youth, and nation building), the situation of Nigerian children and youth, their significance for national development, a possible strategy for Nigerian youth empowerment and development, a recommendation, a conclusion, and a reference.

3.2 Children

The plural form of a child is "children." Who is a child then? A child is a human being from birth to puberty, biologically. The fetus is considered to be an unborn child in some biological definitions of the term "child." Child can also mean a relationship with a parent or, metaphorically, an authority figure, or group membership in a clan, tribe, or religion; it can also mean being strongly affected by a specific time, place, or circumstance, as in "a child of nature" or "a child of the sixties." The legal definition of child typically refers to a minor, also known as a person younger than the age of maturity.

A person aged 6 to 12 is considered a child by the U.S. National Library of Medicine. A child, also known as preschool, is a person aged two to five. In order to investigate the meaning of the word "child," we will use the age range of 0 to 17 for the purposes of this work. Nevertheless, it is pertinent to note that children play a crucial role in nation building and human resource development. As a result, the government should provide for the needs of children and work to make them useful citizens.

Youth

Youth is the period of one's life when one is young, and it frequently refers to the period of time between childhood and adulthood (maturity). Additionally, it is described as "the appearance, freshness, vigor, spirit, etc., characteristic of a young person" The development of one's self-concept begins in youth. Peers, lifestyle, gender, and culture all have an impact on how young people view themselves. A person's choice will most likely have an impact on their future at this time.

According to the National Youth Policy, "the way in which a nation defines it youth is related to the abject conditions and realities that exist on the ground, especially historical and contemporary socioeconomic and political issues that need to be addressed," in its position on the meaning of youth. In order to investigate the meaning of youth for the purposes of this study, we will focus on the age range of 18 to 35, emphasizing that "this category represents the most active, most volatile, and yet most vulnerable segment of the population, socio-economically and in other respects." It is also helpful to mention that one of the characteristics that sets youth apart is their progressive outlook. As a result, it is generally accepted that people over the age of 36 who adhere to the ideals of a progressive society are also considered to be young. Youths are men and women who are regarded as vivacious, powerful, and energetic at any age. They frequently work in social enterprises that call for mental and physical stamina.

In a lot of the policy documentation, the term "nation building" remains vague and contested despite its widespread use; its meaning is assumed rather than defined. Additionally, the terms "nation building" and "state building" are frequently used in conjunction with one another. Despite this, it is important to note that "state building" and "nation building" are distinct processes,

despite their close relationship. The process of creating a functioning state that is capable of achieving the fundamental characteristics of modern statehood is referred to as "state building." On the other hand, "nation building" refers to a more abstract process of creating a common sense of identity or community among the various groups that make up a state's population. Nwabughuogu says that building a nation is looking for a nation. In order to cultivate a sense of love for a particular nation and to accept their commitment to a nation state, it is a process of developing national consciousness among individuals and groups. It also entails creating a favorable environment that will sustain the love that individuals and groups have developed for the nation state. This distinguishes state building from nation building, which is more concerned with the nature of relations between citizens and their state. State building focuses on the practical task of building or strengthening state institutions.

3.3 The Situation of Children and Youths in Nigeria

Nation building is a dynamic process that involves all parts of the community, including the children and young people who are frequently overlooked and undervalued.

For both short-term and long-term community development efforts, children and adolescents represent a vast and frequently underutilized resource pool. Additionally, they serve as an invaluable resource for any society's development and advancement. Youth can participate actively and contribute to decision-making at all levels as they are brought into and connected with national issues and programs; however, they frequently have been ignored and excluded. In 2010, 44.0% of people were under the age of 15, 53.2% were between the ages of 15 and 65, and 2.7% were 65 or older16. In addition to the issue of numerical strength, the global trend is toward emphasizing the

importance of children and young people in the development process. Governments around the world are making deliberate efforts to create conditions that will encourage children and young people to use their energy and resourcefulness for their countries' growth and sustainable development.

However, the conditions that are in place in a lot of developing countries, particularly Nigeria, have seriously limited the potential of children and young people to be agents of social change. The cultural, social, and economic aspects of these difficulties are included. The perilous triangle of poverty, illiteracy, and unemployment in which the majority of Nigerian youths are ensnared right now has severely tested their sensibility and eventually led to what sociologists call attitudes of fatalism, resignation, and acceptance of the situation. Youth are now easily manipulated by self-seeking politicians as a result of the persistence of these social issues. A state of deprivation is one in which people are deprived because poverty, illiteracy, and unemployment are all interconnected conditions that produce human needs.

There are unresolved feelings and untapped energies as the children and adolescents continue to remain in this state. They supply cheap labor for the creation of ethnic champions and political gladiators.

3.4 The Important of Involving Children and Youths in National Development

As previously stated, every citizen must participate in the nation's construction or development. As a result, youth participation in national development is essential. In fact, youth and children play a significant role in nation building. They are a vital portion of a country's turn of events. The world is incomplete without children; it will snowball into an unanticipated end, and the children of today are the leaders of tomorrow. By mentoring them

to become good citizens for the purpose of nation building, we are supposed to assist these children in adopting national patriotism. Children should not think that they are too young to play a role in the development of Nigeria as a great nation.

Fig.3.1 Role of children in national development

In an era marked by the intense movement of the social forces of democratization and globalization, the youth, an important part of civil society, is rediscovering themselves. Youth express their interests and needs through interactions with other actors in the social system. They also connect with relevant political institutions and political processes to express their views and promote shared interests18. The role that education plays in putting young people in a position where they can effectively participate in national development. This is a way to include them in the process of making decisions about the governance of the country and in activities that build the country, where they are welcomed, and gives them accurate and complete information that will help them make good decisions.

Suggestive Approach for Youth Empowerment and Involvement in Nation Building in Nigeria

An inclusive participatory and synergy approach is a promising dimension for involving youth in nation-building because there is no way to harness the youth's untapped potential. The term "children and youths participation" refers to the participation of children and youth in responsible, challenging, and genuine needs-met actions that provide opportunities for planning and decision-making that affect others in an activity whose effects extend beyond the youth participants themselves. According to Rajani, participation is the only way for young people to acquire valuable resources, aspirations, skills, and competencies. This demonstrates that youth participation is a product and strategy of sustainable human development. Given that children and young people make up the majority of the country's population, these large numbers of young people represent an opportunity and an investment in their nation.

As a result, the purpose of youth and children's participation in nation-building programs and activities is to:

a. Make it easier for young people to meet their own basic needs;

b. Reduce or prevent exposure to unstable economic, political, and social environments:

c. Encourages ownership of change interventions and their long-term viability;

d. Facilitate entry into target communities and the development of social capital and trust.

3.5 Differences Between Youth and Adult Political Participation

The preceding section demonstrated that a distinct definition of youth political participation is unnecessary; instead, the many different ways that young adults participate in politics are crucial. Following this, the question of whether young adults' PP behavior differs from that of other groups arises. A perceived divide exists between young adults and adults, as evidenced by previous research. Young adults consistently score lowest in almost all areas of political participation, leading to the perception that young people are not sufficiently involved in politics. This perception is based on patterns like voting rates, which are lowest among young adults and continue to fall in tandem with declining youth membership in political parties. According to Quintelier (2007), "young people are less concerned with politics, less politically knowledgeable, do not participate in social or political activities, are more apathetic, and have low levels of political interest" can be used to describe the disengagement of young people from politics. The disengagement of young adults from politics remains a contentious issue in the literature, despite the fact that this representation appears to be clear. Three fundamental questions must be answered at this point. First, is there a real difference between how young adults and adults participate in politics? Second, what causes young and old people to behave differently? Thirdly, does this really imply that young adults are unengaged from politics?

The lifecycle is the first and, according to some authors, most significant factor in the differences between adult and youth political participation. There is a curvilinear effect of age here, which indicates that participation rises from childhood through middle age and then declines with age. Scholars have been studying this trend for decades and lifecycle effects and generational effects must be distinguished clearly. What matters in the context of lifecycle effects is the degree of political participation at various stages of life.

In this sense, no one prioritizes political participation because it competes with more pressing personal issues, particularly for young people (Highton and Wolfinger, Engagement in politics is more costly for those who have not yet sorted out their lives because people only have so much time. Some specific steps of adulthood have been shown to have an effect on political participation behavior. This is in addition to the fact that young adults gain more experience with the electoral and political process as they age. These include, among other things, getting married, settling down, graduating, and finding work. According to Quintelier (2007), some authors assert that these findings only pertain to the influence on voter turnout and that the influence of lifecycle effects on other forms of political participation can only account for minor variations. However, this view is not shared by all researchers. Lifecycle effects, which have been studied in the context of non-institutionalized participation, are also relevant here.

"The absence of personal constraints that may increase the costs and risks of movement participation, such as full-time employment, marriage, and family responsibilities" is specifically referred to as personal availability. According to Beyerlein and Hipp (2006), relevant influences on young adults can be found in social movement research, which demonstrates that their participation is facilitated when these constraints are removed.

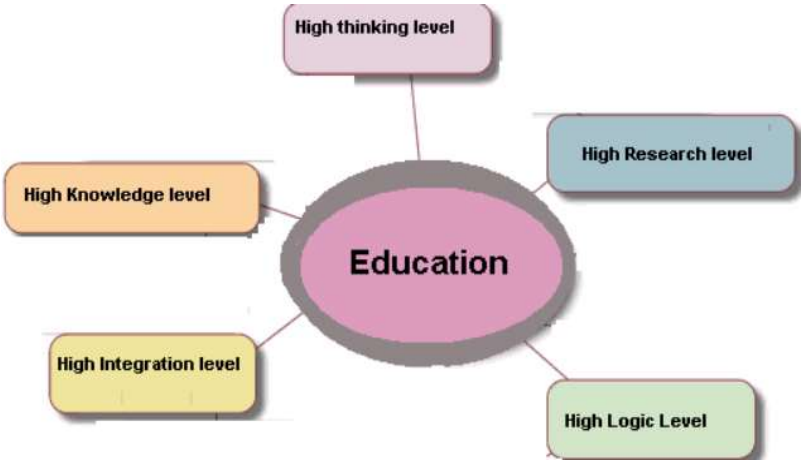

Fig.3.2 Importance of nation building

The premise of generation effects theory is that political socialization is influenced by pre-adult socialization over time. In this way, each person's adolescence is important for the development of political thinking. Based on this argument, some authors assume that today's young adults will never attain the level of political participation of the elderly because they are less active. This could be because today's young adults are having a harder time reaching adulthood's milestones and that the delay in political participation is irreversible as a result. According to Quintelier (2007), studies show that young adults keep the traits that set them apart from previous generations. As a result, the current electorate will be replaced by a generation of political participants who are more passive.

The differing definitions of political or political behavior are another factor contributing to the perception that different age groups engage in different behaviors. A concise definition is essential for any researcher's research. In addition, the population participating in the survey needs to use and accept this definition of political participation. This is precisely the point at which differences between adolescents and adults emerge. Do adults and young

people consider the same activities to be political? The definitions of survey respondents and researchers vary widely across studies.

Parry et al., for instance found that only 18% of respondents to their survey considered a list of activities, which the researchers also defined as political, to be political. As a result, some researchers advocate for a more expansive definition, which would result in higher levels of political engagement. When considering non-institutionalized forms of political participation, the definition question is also pertinent. Youthful grown-ups probably won't characterize their activities as political, despite the fact that they are really political.

As a result, it involves not only the individual's awareness of their desire to engage in political activity but also their conception of politics and the political. Only a few studies look at how young adults define the political, but these studies show that young adults use a narrower definition than adults and researchers. Because young adults do not see politics as relevant to their lives in their narrow definition, they are less interested in politics than adults. According to Quintelier (2007), "the low political participation rate among youth is a by-product of their narrow conception of politics and their impression that politicians do not truly care about their needs."

Therefore, rather than the youth's own lack of interest, the organization of politics is the cause of youth disengagement. As a result, more and more research is being done on how young adults define and perceive political participation. They demonstrate that prior research utilized an overly narrow definition of participation and that, for instance, the issue of nonparticipation as an act of political action has not been adequately addressed.

Lastly, Quintelier (2007) conducted a study that specifically looked at the differences between the age groups. It found that young adults and adults appear to have similar political attitudes, with the exception that young people have fewer opportunities to participate politically. As a result, "it seems as if the problem of youth political participation is less a matter of whether they participate, and more a matter of where they participate" is drawn.

3.6 Political Attitudes of The Youth

Contributions to the field of political attitudes, like studies on political participation, have expanded our understanding of how political attitudes develop and how young adults' political attitudes differ from those of adults. In order to answer the question of how young adults develop political attitudes, this section examines the various approaches to socialization and debated inputs from other fields and focuses on development, maturation, and attitude stability.

Political socialization was defined by Hyman as a person's " learning of social patterns corresponding to his societal positions as mediated through various agencies of society." Given that it is one of the most widely used definitions of political socialization, it is surprising that researchers focused primarily on family influence and ignored other social institutions. In addition, according to Sapiro (2004), dedicated research on political socialization. The majority of the research focused on shared party affiliations, voluntary organization participation, or the genuine political interest of children and the potential influence of their parents. Nonetheless, researchers have over and again confronted the same strategic test, since small kids don't have many issue convictions by any means. As a result, it is challenging to identify political science-relevant inferences.

In contrast, Hess and Torney-Purta (1967) assert that children can express political opinions and partisanship. Researchers were affected by this uncertainty to shift their focus away from children and toward adolescents and young adults because the more varied data collection methods made it easier to access their issue beliefs. A biologically sound fundamental assumption has been the driving force behind socialization research up until this point:

According to Kagan, the neurological structure, senso-motoric skills, temperament, reactivity, semantic networks, and behavior of infants and adolescents differ from those of adults. According to Dollard and Miller's (1950) argument that "human behavior is learned," this distinction gradually deteriorates through learning. According to Niemi and Hepburn (2010), of political socialization research at Columbia University Michigan School and Butler and Stokes dominated conversation. According to the findings of both schools, parents' interests were strongly correlated with political affiliation and attitudes toward institutions and the authorities, and these interests remained constant throughout a person's life.

Preference or opinion inheritance research was comparable to socialization research; Since the majority of the participants in the research were white middle-class Americans, selection bias was also a problem because almost all of the studies only looked at the United States. According to Niemi and Sobieszek (1977), Abramson (1977) and Garca (1973), who attempted to answer the question of why people of color feel less politically effective across multiple generations, largely made up for this bias. The researchers asked interesting questions, but they were unable to determine any causal mechanisms. Clarke (1978) and Percheron and Jennings (1981) examined the differences that exist between American and French families and came to the

conclusion that "(...) the object of partisan socialization within the family is country specific". This is still the case today.

3.7 Differences In Youth Political Participation Across Europe

The next step is to examine how young adults and their participation differ across Europe after discussing the possible differences between young adults and adults and the role that political socialization plays. This section aims to demonstrate the variety of young adult participation, which has been the subject of previous research. Naturally, this is not an exhaustive review of all studies. Instead, it provides the foundation for identifying the research gaps in this area by providing a nuanced view of various European regions and the subsequent section on methods. In general, there are different institutionalized ways to participate in the polities of the EU-member states. In 26 of the 27 member states, citizens can only vote if they are at least 18 years old; Austria is the exception, with a 16-year-old voting age. Despite these structural differences, this overview will examine both institutionalized and non-institutionalized participation among young adults in various European regions.

Questions regarding association membership and its effects on political participation have benefited greatly from research on countries in Northern Europe. According to Torpe (2003), the likelihood of Danish youth participating in politics is not necessarily influenced by their association membership, which is looser. Coe and others took a different approach and directly surveyed ten political activists in Northern Sweden who were between the ages of 17 and 19. Coe et al., on the basis of this study, considered the idea of "Youth Governmental issues as Different Cycles" which

demonstrates that age restrictions, adults' lack of interest in youth demands, and state-centered political definitions are distinct barriers to youth political participation. Nygard and co. (2016) found higher rates for alternative forms of political participation among this age group, given the right socioeconomic resources, based on variables derived from "resource models" to explain various forms of political participation among Finnish ninth graders. This is emphasized by Wass (2007), who points out that family socialization concepts alone lack explanatory power. Up until now, most research on youth political participation in Eastern European nations has been comparative and focused on the anticipated effects of previous communist regimes. Slomczynski and Shabad (1998) argued that democratic principles can be successfully taught in schools to avoid extreme leftist or rightist tendencies that could arise from a lack of democratic experience.

This was in support of the Polish case. These findings are partially refuted by Roberts (2003), who argues that, among other things, young adults' political participation is deeply linked to the social environment and structural effects. Letki (2004) conducted research on ten countries in eastern Europe and found that, in many cases, political participation in post-communist countries in eastern Europe is comparable to that of established western democracies. In countries that have come out of communism, membership in associations and well-established institutions also increase the likelihood of political participation. In addition, dnanes (2004) discovered that young Bulgarians with a high level of formal education are considering moving because they are dissatisfied with their political system and believe their participation options are limited, highlighting the significance of a well-established institutional framework. According to Burean and Badescu (2014), the core of the protest movements against the Romanian government in 2012, when

thousands of students took to the streets to protest against their government, resembles similar triggers of participation.

After talking about the possible differences between young adults and adults and the role that political socialization plays, the next step is to look at how young adults and their participation differ across Europe. The variety of young adult participation that has been the subject of previous research is the goal of this section. Obviously, this is not a comprehensive analysis of all studies. Instead, it provides a nuanced perspective on various European regions and the subsequent section on methods, which serve as the foundation for determining the research gaps in this area. In general, participating in the polities of EU-member states can be done in a variety of institutionalized ways. Citizens can only vote in 26 of the 27 member states if they are at least 18 years old; The only exception is Austria, where the voting age is 16 years old. This overview will examine both institutionalized and non-institutionalized participation among young adults in various European regions, despite these structural differences.

Research on nations in Northern Europe has greatly benefited questions regarding association membership and its effects on political participation. According to Torpe (2003), looser association membership does not necessarily affect the likelihood of Danish youth participating in politics. Coe and others (2016) took a different approach and directly surveyed ten 17- to 19-year-old political activists in Northern Sweden. Coe et al. based on this review, considered the possibility of "Youth Legislative issues as Various Cycles" which demonstrates that age restrictions, adults' lack of interest in young people's demands, and state-centered political definitions are distinct barriers to young people participating in politics. Based on variables derived from "resource models" to explain various forms of political participation

among Finnish ninth graders, Nygard and co. (2016) found higher rates for alternative forms of political participation among this age group, given the appropriate socioeconomic resources. Wass (2007) emphasizes this by pointing out that family socialization concepts on their own lack explanatory power a point that was previously discussed.

As of not long ago, most examination on youth political support in Eastern European countries has been relative and centered around the expected impacts of past socialist systems. Slomczynski and Shabad (1998) contended that majority rule standards can be effectively trained in schools to stay away from outrageous liberal or conservative propensities that could emerge from an absence of vote based insight. This served to back up the Polish case. Roberts (2003) argues, among other things, that young adults' political participation is profoundly linked to the social environment and structural effects, which partially refutes these findings.

Letki (2004) looked at ten countries in eastern Europe and found that political participation in many of them is the same as that in established western democracies. Membership in well-established organizations and associations also increases the likelihood of political participation in communist-era nations. In addition, dnanes (2004) discovered that young Bulgarians with a high level of formal education are considering moving due to dissatisfaction with their political system and a belief that their participation options are limited, highlighting the significance of a well-established institutional framework. Burean and Badescu (2014) say that the core of the protest movements against the Romanian government in 2012, when thousands of students protested against their government, is similar to similar factors that encourage participation.

Previously Used Methods To Study Youth Political Participation The focus of this final step is on the research methods and methods used to investigate youth political participation. In the past, some authors developed instruments for evaluating youth definitions of politics and addressed one of the central questions, which was how young adults perceive and define politics and political participation. These included, for instance, a qualitative longitudinal study that lasted three years a quantitative survey of young adults regarding their perceptions of citizenship (Vromen, 2003), or qualitative focus group studies examining young adults' understanding of political engagement. In addition, researchers attempted to learn more about young adults' political participation "vocabulary".

Furthermore, youth political participation has been the subject of numerous recent research projects. To emphasize various focal points, they mostly employed a cross-national comparative design and a mixed methods approach. In the YOUNEX (Youth unemployment and exclusion in Europe, Lorenzini and Giugni, project, for instance, in-depth interviews and original survey data were used by researchers to shed light on the effects of long-term unemployment on youth political participation. The EURYKA, which means "Reinventing Democracy in Europe:" The "Youth doing politics in a time of growing inequality" Kousis and Giugni, project, on the other hand, carried out both a biographical and a panel survey analysis to find out how young adults perceive inequality and how these conditions can encourage youth political participation.

EUYOUPART, which stands for "Political Participation of Young People in Europe," Spannring et al. which specifically focused on the creation of indicators that could be easily used to study youth political participation. The comparative usability of indicators may be limited by three key points here.

According to Ogris and Westphal (2005), these limitations may be caused by "failed or inaccurate translations of central terms used in a question, different opportunity structures in the countries that facilitate or hamper a form of activity, or different political cultures that embed an activity in a different institutional context." Later studies that made use of survey datasets that were already in use demonstrated the significance of this approach as well. For instance, Garca-Albacete (2014) used data from the European Social Survey to demonstrate that indicators must be tested for their usability across age groups and countries.

The first thing that stands out when looking at the progression of research on young adults' political participation is a clearly positive trend. The majority of older research focused on descriptively establishing how adolescents differ from adults. Therefore, almost all of these designs described youth participation behavior negatively. This raises the question of whether adolescents are just adolescent non-adults. This has been demonstrated by more recent studies, which no longer employ this exclusive method of comparing young and old. However, this section and the one before it raise three issues that have not received sufficient attention thus far. First, the "vocabulary" of young adults that we already know about is not always taken into account in recent studies. Since the possible fields of participation are constantly evolving, it would also be worthwhile to discuss whether the existing knowledge is even sufficient or whether newer and more up-to-date studies are required at this point. Second, there aren't many large cross-national studies that look at how young adults' participation behaviors are similar or different from one another in different contexts. Thirdly, the suitability of the items utilized or developed for the study of participation behavior among young adults has not been adequately addressed in the use of

existing survey data sets that are not intended for young adults, with a few notable exceptions.

CHAPTER 4

IMPACT OF YOUTH ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN NATION BUILDING

4.1 Introduction

How to provide opportunities for the continent's more than 200 million young people so that they can live decent lives and contribute to the economic development of their countries is one of the greatest challenges facing African governments and policymakers today. Africa's population was estimated at 1.05 billion in 2011 by the United Nations (2010), and it is anticipated to double by 2050. Africa is the world's youngest continent: About 70% of its inhabitants are under the age of 30. 21 percent of Africa's more than 1 billion people were young people in 2011, or those between the ages of 15 and 24. Another 42% were under the age of 15. Females make up slightly more than half of the youth population in Africa, and rural dwellers outnumber urban dwellers. According to Gyimah Brempong and Kimenyi, the youth population in Africa is anticipated to rise in the coming decades due to its high proportion of people under the age of 15.

Employment, health, and political participation are just a few of the issues that youth face that are crucial to Africa's economic development. These issues differ across countries and regions as well as among groups within countries

based on gender, education level, ethnicity, and health status. On the other hand, youths' size, energy, enthusiasm, creativity, and dynamism are assets that can be utilized for Africa's development with the right policies that adequately address the issues they face.

Several African nations, including ours, do not appear to have developed comprehensive and effective policies to deal with the issues facing this large and growing segment of the African population or to have established a means to assess the progress that has been made, despite the increased awareness of the difficulties that the youth of Nigeria and Africa face noted by previous studies. This study aims to advance the discussion of the issues that youth in Africa face by determining whether the youth policies that are currently in place in African countries can meet the challenges and how these policies can be improved to support Nigeria's equitable and efficient development in general.

Youth and children make up nearly half of the population in developing nations. One billion of the world's 1.2 billion people are between the ages of 15 and 24 and live in developing nations. Due to the fact that young people make up a high and peak proportion of many populations, this is frequently referred to as the "youths bulge." The youth bulge is both an obstacle and an opportunity for growth. For instance, it is anticipated that Uganda will need to create over 600,000 new jobs annually for the next 12 years, which is equivalent to the size of the current formal employment sector. The Millennium Development Goals—particularly MDGs 1 (extreme poverty and hunger), 4 (child mortality), and 7 (environmental sustainability)—will not be met if this is not accomplished (World Bank, 2009). 75% of Kenyans are between the ages of 1 and 30, making them the country's largest source of human capital. However, their status has not received the due recognition

because they have remained on the outside of the country's affairs. They have been avoided from planning, arranging and executing projects and arrangements that influence them.

Many of the young people who are productive and enthusiastic do not find work, remain ill, or receive sufficient support. Some of them need special care because they have special needs. These include people who are homeless, have HIV/AIDS, are female, and have disabilities. Diverse stakeholders bear the burden of ensuring that young people's aspirations and hopes are realized. Every member of the community, young and old, must fulfill their responsibilities.

The National Youths Policy recognizes that young people are a valuable resource that can be utilized for the nation's overall benefit. As a result, the policy tries to address issues that young people face by including broad strategies that would give young people meaningful chances to reach their full potential. All stakeholders, including the private sector and civil society, will be able to contribute to youth development within the scope of the policy. The policy includes a mechanism for implementation. This arrangement is ready inside the setting of existing sectoral strategies, public improvement plans, global strategies and contracts to which Kenya is a signatory; as essential to the youth's complete integration and participation in Kenya's development. The United Nations Charter, the Commonwealth Youths Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and the United Nations World Programme for the Youth up to and including the year 2000 are all taken into consideration.

4.2 Development

The idea of development is up for debate. According to Okolie and Ajih (2008), the development of the concept has been quite challenging due to the fact that numerous attempts by academics to come up with a concise and generally acceptable definition have rarely been tainted by individual prejudice and ideological tendencies. There have been competing definitions of development, beginning with its earliest concept in the 1960s and ending with modernization. Development was viewed as the complete transformation of a traditional or pre-modern society into the kinds of technology and associated social organization that are characteristic of the "advanced" economically prosperous and politically stable nations of the western world when the modernization paradigm dominated.

In this way, the developing world's future could already be seen in the advanced western societies of Europe and the United States.

Many modernization theorists, including Rostow (1960), Coleman (1968), and Pye (1966), view development in terms of economic expansion and the transformation of existing infrastructure and structural facilities. According to Todaro and Smith (2004) in Nwanegbo (2006), this view was later challenged by several schools of thought not in terms of the goal of development but rather in terms of whether it was achievable as envisaged by the modernization school. This school of thought contends that development refers to the capacity of a nation's economy, which initially had been more or less static overtime, to begin to generate and sustain annual increases in Gross National Product (GNP) at a rate of 5%-7% or more and income Modernization made school development possible by planning and using rational management strategies.

However, scholars such as Seers, Mabognuje, Nnoli (1981), Ake (1972), Rodney (1982), and Okolie disassociated from the modernist perspective

previously mentioned. They argue that human factors were overlooked by modernists as crucial development issues. People are fundamentally viewed by these academics as an essential component of development. Others, on the other hand, see man as both the object of development and the subject of it.

In this regard, Okolie (2003) defines development as the self-directed and accelerated socioeconomic and political transformation of man and the entire structure of a given political system from a relatively low or current level to a significantly improved form that is both qualitatively and qualitatively superior. The improvement of the living conditions and material standing of the population is the primary goal of these transformations. In addition, a UNDP (2004) report indicates that individuals are the true wealth of nations. Indeed, expanding human freedoms is development's primary objective. The process of development can make people more capable by giving them more options for living full and creative lives. According to the UNDP's Human Development Report people are both the beneficiaries of this development and the agents of the change and progress that bring it about. As a result, the researchers' conceptualization of development in the context of Nigeria's youth and national development is captured by the above-mentioned centered perception of development by scholars. In light of the fact that man has a natural affinity for improvement and works hard to achieve improvement.

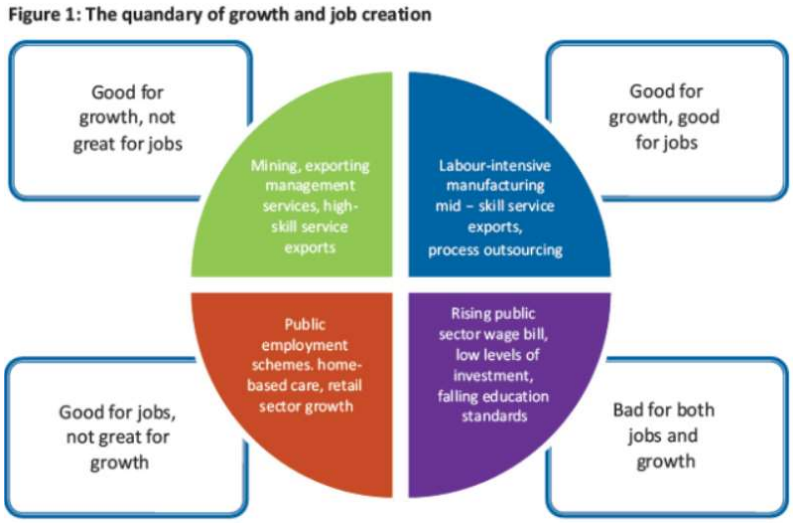

Fig.4.1 Youth growth and job creation

The dependency school argued vehemently that the global economic structures prevent periphery development. Additionally, over the course of the past two decades, there has been a shift away from the idea that the state is the primary driver of development to one that sees the market and the private sector as the primary drivers. The generation of prosperity, its distribution to the majority of a nation's population, the role of the state in the process, the cost of the resulting social and environmental transformation, and how the burden is distributed among different social classes are at the heart of this debate. In general, development refers to a person's capacity to raise their quality of life by changing the way they produce and engage in other human activities to reduce poverty, unemployment, and social inequality. Arnartya Sen (1999) places an emphasis on the concepts of capacities and entitlements (or social rights), while Dudley Seers (1972) defines economic development as the progressive elimination of poverty, unemployment, and inequality. According to Goulet 1992, development generally consists of six components.

A full-life paradigm, which talks about meaning systems, symbols, and beliefs about what life and history mean in the end; as well as a commitment to environmentally responsible and long-term development so that the current generation does not harm the position of future generations. Development, when conceived in this manner, is a comprehensive procedure whose objectives, procedure, and support are all guided by values. In point of fact, individual and social human agency are at the heart of development. The implicit assumption that the state system provides the necessary framework for the development of people in our contemporary world is also very important. As a result, efforts have been made to determine the essential components of the state system that foster growth.

The extensive discussion surrounding the concept of the developmental state can be teased in these ways. States that are able to clearly set development objectives and establish the institutional structures to achieve those objectives are the states that have succeeded in engendering the development of their societies from the advanced countries of the west to the new industrialized state of Asia, according to a cursory review of the literature. These states are capable of forming alliances with important social groups in society, which aids them in achieving their developmental objectives. Typically, this entails developing a programmatic connection between citizens and political parties. Programmatic politics is characterized by dense networks of civic associations and is based on collective discussion of public issues. Consensus and stability in the political system are aided by this. Clientelistic politics, on the other hand, is based on giving people favors; and occasionally coercion. Instead of alternative developmental programs, voters in this scenario make their decisions based on fundamental factors like religion, ethnicity, race, and personality.

4.3 The youth in human capital development

It is impossible to overstate the potential significance of youth in Africa's development. In a region of the world where capital formation is limited, youths could be a source of human capital and labor inputs in production, boosting total factor productivity. Youths' activities of consumption could be a dependable source of economic demand when employed. In addition, the youth of Africa may play a crucial role in the formation of a new class of entrepreneurs, which is necessary for the success of African nations. Additionally, Africa has a chance to capitalize on a "demographic dividend": Since most African nations are expected to have more adults of working age per child in 2030 than in 2006, fewer children and the elderly will require the assistance of a large workforce. Reduced dependence would free up resources for development as a result of this trend; it couldn't be any more obvious, for model, Ashford (2007).

Under-25s make up nearly half of the world's population. Youths between the ages of 15 and 24 have the greatest need for sexual and reproductive health services, but younger people will soon be adults and will also have these needs. The number of people between the ages of 15 and 24 is currently 1.2 billion, and it is anticipated that it will continue to rise for at least another 20 years. Access to reproductive health information and services is essential as the number of young people grows so that they can choose how many children they want and get the information and services they need to avoid unintended pregnancy, HIV, and sexually transmitted infections (STIs). Youths are better able to make decisions that support the achievement of educational objectives and the acquisition of life skills necessary for national and local leadership positions with this knowledge. According to UNO (2011), ignoring the

reproductive and sexual health of young people today will have devastating global consequences for decades.

Every day, approximately 6,000 young people in developing nations are infected with HIV, the majority of whom are young women. Additionally, more than 100 million new sexually transmitted infections occur annually among youth, raising their HIV risk. As many as 40% of adolescent pregnancies in Latin America and the Caribbean are unintended, and between 11% and 77% of adolescent pregnancies in sub-Saharan Africa are unintended. Young women have high rates of unintended pregnancy. Pregnancy complications are the leading cause of death for young women between the ages of 15 and 19 in low- and middle-income nations, and their maternal mortality rates are twice as high as those of older women. Youth will be empowered to make healthy decisions if they have access to reproductive health education, services where they are welcomed, and accurate and comprehensive information.

The Role of Youths in Peace Building

The aforementioned statement acknowledges the significance of youth to a nation's peace and security. According to Ozohu-Sulaiman (2006), youth, the most active segment of any society, are the primary factor in a nation's peace and stability. In contrast, youths also play a role in determining the degree of social disorder and instability. Peace is a prerequisite for growth.

There can be no significant progress when there is no peace. “Responsible conduct and roles in society is positively correlated with the development of their country” is stated in the National Youths Policy. Young people in national youth service organizations, according to Eberly and Gal1 (2007), can play a crucial role in post-conflict community reconstruction, maintaining

peace in tense situations, and possibly preventing squealing. Nigeria is a great illustration of how young people's involvement can help bring people together after a conflict. When one region, known as Biafra, attempted to separate from the rest of Nigeria, the country was plunged into civil war at the end of the 1960s. The fact that Nigeria is not a natural nation that developed organically from within is directly responsible for the attempted breakaway. Instead, the European powers that met in Berlin at the end of the 19th century decided its borders. People with the same language and culture were divided, and people with different cultures were joined.

Fig.4.2 role of youth in peace building

Nigeria made the decision that it must make an effort to foster national unity after Biafra's attempt to secede failed. A national youth scheme was proposed by university students and other youth organizations, with the initial project of providing assistance to war-torn regions. Following the completion of each university student's first year, the Committee of ViceChancellors called for

one year of service. In 1973, Head of State General Yakubu Gowon issued a decree establishing the National Youths Service Corps (NYSC) to foster "common ties among the youth of Nigerian and to promote national unity," which was met with much debate and controversy.

The Role of Youths in Community Based and Faith Based Organisations

There are many different kinds of community-based organizations in the majority of Nigeria's rural areas.

However, the youth-led organizations that are currently flourishing Youth-focused community organizations have long existed in Nigeria's southern region. It has also emerged in Northern Nigeria, particularly among communities with a Christian foundation. The Youths Muslim Ummah is being encouraged to participate in the formation of youth-based community organizations. However, the primary objective of the Youthss community-based organization's formation was to complement the efforts of the government in community development projects. Because these organizations were founded by community members themselves, they are the closest to the people at the grassroots level.

Youths' community based organizations, like all other types of community-based organizations, contribute to community development by:

- The creation, promotion, and implementation of sustainable development projects that benefit their communities.
- Getting people in the community to work together for the good of the nation.
- Improving the management of community resources.
- Improving youths' general productivity skills.

- Encouraging marginalized communities to participate in the promotion of rural development that affects them - Promoting a sustainable human development
- To guarantee proper resource accountability in the community

4.4 Issues Impinging on the Youths on National Development

The political and socioeconomic climate in Nigeria presents youths with a significant challenge. Social and economic statistics paint a gloomy picture that is far from ideal.

The primary industries of agriculture, oil, and minerals continue to dominate the economy nearly 50 years after flag independence. This is partially due to the country's inability to foster high-value added economic activities. With the exception of the oil and gas industries, there is a decline in direct foreign investment and a low level of domestic capital formation. There is also a lot of debt, high unemployment, and an informal economy in which the majority of people live in poverty. In terms of economic competitiveness on a global scale, Nigeria performs very poorly. The country does not have adequate physical and social infrastructure. As a result, the majority of people in the country lack access to essential services like clean water, electricity, roads, and healthcare. In addition, there is a high illiteracy rate, particularly among women. In the midst of deadly diseases, people lack access to basic medical care; a circumstance that has become even worse since the HIV/AIDS pandemic began.

In the past ten years, authoritarianism, political instability, and ethnic and religious conflicts have contributed to the underdevelopment of the nation. Exclusion of the people from governance, non-accountability of public officials, a lack of transparency in decision-making, electoral fraud, and the

political elite's colonialization and personalization of state and national resources are just some of the tangible signs of mismanagement even nearly a decade after democratic rule was restored. The Nigerian youth face particular difficulties as a result of this circumstance.

Youths have the potential to play a significant role in the economic development and growth of Africa for a number of different reasons. First, they typically have higher levels of education than their older peers. As a result, they are better able to take in new concepts and technologies and adapt them to the African context. Second, compared to their older counterparts, they typically take on more risks. Last but not least, they are more likely to question social and political conventions that they believe are impeding economic growth. How to harness the young people's desire for change that has the potential to lead to positive outcomes is the challenge facing African policymakers.

As the Arab Spring demonstrated recently, the consequences of not fully developing and utilizing youth's potential could be dire, including significant economic losses, armed conflict, and political and social upheaval and instability. Youths are more likely to become dissatisfied when they have valid complaints, such as a lack of employment opportunities, a low level of education, a lack of participation in decision-making, and a low level of social mobility. Greedy and opportunistic politicians could even take advantage of these dissatisfactions in this volatile environment by involving these disillusioned youths in the violent overthrow of legitimate governments, resulting in massive instabilities that could impede the economic expansion of African nations.

4.5 Limited access to information and communication technology (ICT)

Youths cannot take advantage of career, business, and educational opportunities because ICT is unavailable and expensive, especially in rural areas.

Recommendations

A lot of global issues particularly affect young people. These issues can have far-reaching effects in some instances, such as the spread of HIV/AIDS or frustration caused by political exclusion. Nigeria's and other nations' efforts to:

1. Stop the spread of HIV/AIDS and other infectious diseases and alleviate suffering;
2. Establish a stable global economic system that benefits everyone equally, rich and poor alike;
3. Promote participation-based political stability and respect for human rights;
4. Keep the number of refugees and internally displaced people to a minimum;
5. Put an end to fundamentalism, terrorism, and animosity;
6. A steady rise in the population;
7. Promote women's equal rights.

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Being a spiritual lyric writer with more than 800 lyrics and 55 drama scripts to his credit,he is a well known name throughout Karnataka, especially in the spiritual circle of the church of South India.
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