

SKILLS DEVELOPMENT: A NEGLECTED COMPONENT OF NATIONAL SECURITY IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Ms. Hilda Bukozo, *ndc*

1. Introduction

The primary development problem of our time is regarded to be the economic hardships in developing countries, and in particular Sub-Saharan Africa. Without South Africa, the average per capita income in 2005 was \$477, which was lower than the global average of \$583 for developing nations. Sierra Leone and Zambia have poverty rates as high as almost 70%, and the other nine nations with the relevant survey data for 2000-2005 had rates no lower than about 35%. Underlying the low per capita level and high poverty rate are high rates of unemployment or under-employment and low rates of productivity. Across the continent, policy makers feel under pressure to provide productive job opportunities, particularly to the youth. To do this, the economies have to grow faster. Faster economic growth would require a number pre-conditions which are now familiar—a stable macroeconomic environment, good governance, an environment supportive of the private sector, higher capital investment. However, a critical ingredient that does not usually get the attention it deserves is skills development; skills development to increase productivity, make economies competitive, and to provide increased incentives for investors to provide the capital and to engage in the economic activities that will propel growth. Unfortunately, skills development is expensive, and to be able to afford it on a sustained basis, countries have to grow in order to generate the resources and government revenues required. So, in a sense countries, at least in the short term, face a ‘chicken-and-egg’ problem—they need increased skills to help accelerate growth and employment; but they also need growth in order to finance skills development. Furthermore, although African countries are, relative to other parts of the world, deficient in skilled manpower, they are also confronted with the irony that significant numbers of their trained people end up unemployed, working in areas unrelated to their training or emigrating out of their countries—a misallocation and waste of resources that these countries can ill afford. Skills development is considered as key for productive employment. Hence it is an important means for increased productivity, private-sector development, inclusive economic growth and poverty reduction. Economic diversification and structural change towards high productivity sectors is necessary for combating poverty in a sustainable way. This requires a better skilled and more adaptable labor force which can spur domestic and foreign investment. Linking skills development to broader education and employment, growth and development strategies and systems is essential to ensure relevance, policy coherence, coordination and alignment. Studies show that effective, sustainable approaches to workforce development and employment must improve a combination of skills for employability of individuals, and at the same time build a sustainable system for improved private-sector competitiveness. Especially, youth unemployment resulting from mismatch between the supply of the education system and labor market needs could in part be addressed through adequate skills development within a future-oriented, flexible and holistic education system for lifelong learning. Global mega trends such as the rising role of technology, climate change, demographic shifts, urbanization, and the globalization of value chains are changing the nature of work and skills demands. The development of skills can contribute to structural transformation and economic growth by enhancing employability and labor productivity and

helping countries to become more competitive. Investment in a high-quality workforce can create a virtuous cycle, where relevant and quality skills enable productivity growth and foreign direct investment, which result in more and better jobs for the current workforce and more public and private investment in the education and training system. This, in turn, increases the employability and productivity for both the current and future workforce. Yet, most countries continue to struggle in delivering on the promise of skills development. There are huge gaps in basic literacy and numeracy of working-age populations, as 750 million people aged 15+ (or 18 percent of the global population) report being unable to read and write, with estimates being nearly twice as large if literacy is measured through direct assessments. Large-scale international assessments of adult skills generally point to skills mismatches as well as large variation in the returns to education across fields of study, institutions, and population groups. Employers in many developing countries report that a lack of skilled workers is a major and increasing bottleneck for their operations, affecting their capacity to innovate. The COVID-19 pandemic has brought the pre-crisis vision of equitable, relevant, and quality skills development into sharper relief, adding unforeseen urgency to the calls for reform and highlighting the huge costs of inaction. Despite the fact that several studies have been conducted to examine the importance of youth skills development in developing countries; there are a few if any which have analyzed its implications on national security. This article argues for youth skills development as an integral part of national security in the context of changing security environment. In particular, it explains how a neglect of skills development in developing countries can disturb national security. The article is organized in seven parts. Part one presents an introduction. Part two will cover conceptual clarification. Part three briefly discusses about methods and materials used in the study. Part four describes and states the problem to be examined. Part five covers literature review. Part six discusses and interprets the findings based on document evidence. Part seven, covers two covers some concluding remarks and three core policy recommendations.

2. Conceptual Clarification

2.1 Skills

The notion of skills is ideologically and theoretically contested, as it is often used to mean a variety of things, from technical manual work, to high-level expert knowledge, to scientific and other applied mathematical fields. The term ‘skill’ has also come to denote a set of training activities both before and in employment. Winch¹ argues the concept of skill, as it is used in the labour market, expresses the view that to possess a skill is to have mastered a technique for carrying out a type of task within a work situation, traditionally within a context of a trade but in technically orientated occupations as well. In relation to youth employment, the term ‘skills’ has tended to refer more to programs such as vocational training, learnerships, internships, graduate placement programs and other such processes, which are aimed at facilitating the transition from school (and higher education) to employment. From a more conceptual and theoretical point of view, the notion of skills has been seen to result in the instrumentalisation of education to meet the demands of the labour market, whereas education’s primary objective is to retain its intrinsic value of providing knowledge for knowledge’s sake. Skills have also been presented as a

¹ Winch, C. ‘Skill- a Concept Manufactured in England?’ in Brockmann, M., Clarke, L. and Winch, E. (Eds), *Knowledge, Skills and Competence in the European Labour Market. What’s in a vocational qualification?* Abingdon and New York: Routledge, pp.85-101.1 (2011)

‘solution’ i.e. what Motala et al.;² define as a ‘social and economic panacea’ to developmental problems confronting society. In a paper entitled ‘What are skills?’ Allais³ criticizes the notion of ‘skills as tasks’ as a narrow way of defining skills which tends to be decontextualised from power, social policy and the structuring of the labour market. In Argentina, a similar debate is present between the narrow perspective related to the interventions of the Labour Ministry and the larger academic perspective of the Ministry of Education. It is argued that skills refer to different types of knowledge about work, related not only to the concrete task that needs to be performed, but also to the ‘know how’ that is used in that performing and to the capacity to face conflict situations. This last type of knowledge was called knowledge about situation.⁴ McGrath⁵ contends that the notion of skill has shifted from an input orientated concept of ‘Education and Training’ to an outcomes-orientated perspective, due to the rise of globalization and the increasing dominance of market-led ideologies in society. The differing perspectives on what constitute skill and the search for a common language has implications for statisticians, researchers and labour market research in general. The notion of skills is central to the various distinctions between members of the labour force and subsequently the bargaining levels for purposes of remuneration. There is a more critical view within the South African literature,⁶ which contends that the mainstream explanations of a ‘skills shortage’ are not only insufficient but also paralyzing: ‘The nation, and regrettably it seems even organizations of the working class, is hostage to a particular way of thinking and are largely paralyzed by it. In this thinking the main proposition is the idea that there is a great shortage of skills in our society and that in particular areas of skills these are so critical as to make any possibilities for economic advancement in particular sectors of the economy unimaginable; that the education and training system is hopelessly in concurrent with the demands of the economy, that the lack of skills is one of the (if not the) greatest obstacles to achieving high levels of economic growth, that the lack of skills is the primary cause for low levels of productivity, and the country cannot compete internationally given this poverty of skills and will therefore fall further behind relative to the developed and other developing economies of the world.’⁷ To succeed in the 21st century labor market, one needs a comprehensive skill set composed of:

- (i) **Cognitive skills:** which encompass the ability to understand complex ideas, adapt effectively to the environment, learn from experience, and reason. Foundational literacy and numeracy as well as creativity, critical thinking, and problem-solving are cognitive skills.
- (ii) **Socio-emotional skills:** which describe the ability to navigate interpersonal and social situations effectively, and include leadership, teamwork, self-control, and grit.

² Motala, E., Vally, S. and Spreen, C.A. ‘Transforming Education and Training, or Reconstituting Power and Privilege?’ In Desai, A., Maharaj, B. and Bond, P. (Eds.), *Zuma’s Own Goal*. Trenton: Africa World Press, pp. 241-259 (2010).

³ See Allais on definition of skill (2011)

⁴ Spinosa, M. ‘Los saberes y el trabajo. Ensayo sobre una articulación posible.’ in *Anales de la educación Común* 2(4) (2010)

⁵ McGrath, S. ‘Vocational Education and Training for Development: A Policy in Need of a Theory?’ *International Journal of Educational Development* 32(5): 623–631 (2012)

⁶ Motala, E., Vally, S. and Spreen, C.A. ‘Transforming Education and Training, or Reconstituting Power and Privilege?’ In Desai, A., Maharaj, B. and Bond, P. (Eds.), *Zuma’s Own Goal*. Trenton: Africa World Press, pp. 241-259 (2010)

⁷ *Ibid* (2010)

- (iii) **Technical skills:** which refer to the acquired knowledge, expertise, and interactions needed to perform a specific task, including the mastery of required materials, tools, or technologies.
- (iv) **Digital skills:** which are cross-cutting and draw on all of the above skills, and describe the ability to access, manage, understand, integrate, communicate, evaluate, and create information safely and appropriately

2.2 Skills Development

Skills development is generally used to refer to the productive capabilities acquired through all levels of learning and training, occurring in formal, non-formal, informal and on-the-job settings. It enables individuals to become fully and productively engaged in livelihoods, and to have the opportunity to adapt these capabilities to meet the changing demands and opportunities of economy and labor market. The acquisition of such capabilities depends on many factors, including a quality lifelong learning system and a supportive learning environment. The types of skills required for employment can be divided into: (i) Basic and foundation skills, which are acquired through the primary and secondary formal school system or through non-formal and/or informal learning processes (e.g. active learning, oral expression, reading comprehension, written expression, and ICT literacy, active listening). These are pre-requisites for acquiring further skills enhancing the prospect of sustainable employment (ii) Transferable skills, which include the abilities to learn and adapt, solve problems, communicate ideas effectively, think critically and creatively and the ability to manage self and others. These skills enable people to adapt to different work environments as well as improving their opportunities to career-building. (iii) Technical and vocational skills, which are specialized skills, knowledge or know-how to perform specific duties or tasks, mainly in a professional environment. These include, but are not limited to, the traditional forms of technical and vocational education and training (TVET), skills acquired through the secondary level of the formal school system or through non-formal and/or informal learning processes. (iv) Professional and personal skills, including individual attributes relevant to work such as honesty, integrity, reliability, work ethic, and judgment.

2.3 National Security

For the purpose of this study, the broadest sense of national security is adopted to include military and the non-military dimensions to cover a wide spectrum of issues of economic, social, cultural, human, health, ecological and energy aspects of what national security entails. If one of these elements is threatened, then we can conclude that a particular society is under threat and thus insecure. This broad definition is not substantially exhaustive but for the sake of simplicity and to avoid confusion this definition will be used. The definition includes defending, preserving and safeguarding territorial integrity, national values and national interests for survival and prosperity. Also the word 'security' as used in this study means freedom from fear or any threats.

3. Method and Materials

This study is basically a qualitative desk research based on detailed document analysis. Being a scholarly review, it did not use data collection procedures or statistical methodologies employed by the positivist researchers. Instead, the study examines how lack of integration between youth skills development programs and national security education impairs effective implementation of

the current skills development programs in developing countries by using the readily accessible and available public domain documents. To do that, information and data, both academic and non-academic documents such as written unpublished papers, journal articles, reports, and case studies were scientifically reviewed. The contents were located on several websites of reputable publishers and organizations using search engines. Using the keywords ‘Youth Skills Development and National Security; a Google Chrome internet search was done. The researcher was able to collect, evaluate, and interpret relevant data by synthesizing rich data drawn from different sources to derive the intended meanings. However, despite being theoretical review, its key findings, recommendations and conclusions were drawn from reliable empirical data

4. Statement of Problem

Lack of integration between skills development programs and national security education among youths is the main concern examined in this paper. It is argued that lack of skills among youth is not necessarily a cause of political unrest but a powerful enabler which is neglected and incoherent to national security. The central thesis is that the current youth skills development programs cannot deliver sustained results, if they are planned and implemented in isolation with national security strategies. This is because highly skilled people create jobs and skilled people can be absorbed into employment when jobs are created. Also entrepreneurs can create jobs, particularly when the entrepreneurs themselves are skilled. In addition, skilled people can become self-employed and create income generating entities that sustain their livelihoods. As opposed to lowly skilled people, highly skilled people are more likely to adapt to the changing needs of the economy and thereby remain in employment. Unfortunately, the current Africa’s labour market is characterized by low levels of education and skills. Many of those leaving formal education do so without the requisite basic life skills. In effect, graduates are viewed by employers as not being adequately prepared to work in the corporate world and as a consequence, a sizeable number of youth [although educated] end up being unemployed. This increases the possibility of youth to engage in criminal activities. They are likely to develop hatred against the government due to either grievance or feelings of being relatively deprived of their rights at the expense of few elites who are enjoying the national cake. Worst of all, youth skills development programs are chaotically implemented, seriously underfunded and understaffed, let alone the incapacity of the skills training providers to deliver quality training.

5. Related Literature

5.1 Youth Unemployment and Political instability

Across the globe, the recent financial and economic crisis has led to soaring youth unemployment. However, before the crisis, the job situation, including youth unemployment, was already a major concern in most of the countries. In Africa for instance, youth unemployment is exacerbated by the additional challenges of a youth population which is considerably higher than other regions, weak national labour markets and persistently high levels of poverty. 70 percent of the region’s population is under the age of 30, and slightly more than 20 percent are young people between the ages of 15 to 24.2 More recently, the North Africa region, which has the world’s highest youth unemployment rates and where one in four young

people is reported as jobless, experienced violent social uprisings in which young people played a critical role. Numerous studies argue that youth unemployment and underemployment are threat to the social, economic and political stability of nations.⁸ This statement follows the increasing body of literature on the causes of political instability and conflicts.⁹ Cross country evidences suggest two main lines of theorizing. One set of theories stresses the role that political repression plays in driving conflict. In this view, ethnic groups that experience discrimination should be the most likely to organize armed insurrections against the state, and conflicts should be most likely to erupt in undemocratic states and those with pronounced social divisions.¹⁰ This is also likely to happen in less divided society, but where people feel marginalized because of lack of job or extreme poverty. A second set of theories focuses on economic conditions as paramount, rather than political factors. In other words, in this view, poverty and falling income is the key to sparking civil conflicts. This may either be because poverty breeds armed violence aimed at looting assets and natural resources or because poor states simply have limited institutional capacity to repress armed uprisings . Thus, Urdal¹¹ shows that large youth populations– youth bulge—are sometimes linked to outbreaks of violence. According to him, demographic trends and pressures are creating tensions that lead to the outbreak of low-intensity conflict such as protests or riots, or more organized political upheaval and internal armed conflict. This means that the demographic transition is a big challenge for developing countries with large youth populations Similarly, Collier¹² has suggested that large youth cohorts may be a factor that reduces recruitment costs through the abundant supply of rebel labor with low opportunity cost and so increases the risk of armed conflict. If young people are left with no alternative but unemployment and poverty, they are more likely to join a rebellion as an alternative way of generating an income. According to this point of view, rebellion is feasible only when the potential gain from joining is so high and the expected costs so low that rebel recruits will favor joining over alternative income-earning opportunities. The role of the labor market in the explanation of civil violence outbreak has also been emphasized in the literature. If the labor market cannot absorb a sudden surplus of young job-seekers, a large pool of unemployed youths will generate strong frustration. The socioeconomic problems associated with youth bulges may provide fertile ground for recruitment to terrorist organizations. Other authors emphasize on the role of the expansion of higher education as a strategy to reduce the risk of political violence. Higher levels of education among men may act to reduce the risk of political violence. Other authors emphasize on the role of the expansion of higher education as a strategy to reduce the risk of political violence. Higher levels of education among men may act to reduce the risk of political violence. These findings suggest that political instability occurs particularly in countries where youth unemployment, as well as social inequalities and corruption are high. Our results are conclusive and add to the literature that asserts that economic conditions are the most critical determinants triggering political instability in developing countries. In order to avoid instability and violence, focus should be on monitoring economic opportunities for

⁸ Urdal, H. The devil in the demographics: The effect of youth bulges on domestic armed conflict, 1950–2000. *Social Development Papers*, 14, 1–25 (2004)

⁹ Collier, P. et al., *Economic causes of civil conflict and their implications for policy* (2000)

¹⁰ Mihyo et al., *Urban Youth Unemployment in Eastern and Southern Africa Features, Challenges, Consequences and Cutback Strategies*, Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA) (2015)

¹¹ Urdal, H. The devil in the demographics: The effect of youth bulges on domestic armed conflict, 1950–2000. *Social Development Papers*, 14, 1–25 (2004)

¹² Urdal, H. The devil in the demographics: The effect of youth bulges on domestic armed conflict, 1950–2000. *Social Development Papers*, 14, 1–25 (2004)

young people, and particularly on providing employment or invest in life skills development programs. Creating viable jobs for young people is a precondition for sustainable development and peace in all countries; and particularly in countries which have already experienced violent conflict. Without a doubt, unemployment is a threat to political stability in Africa. The theory of deprivation also explains the relationship between insecurity and unemployment. This does not mean that all unemployed young people are potential terrorists but rather suggests considering youth unemployment as an additional push factor in violence. Following Ted Robert Gurr's theory on relative deprivation,¹³ violence does not take root in absolute deprivation but rather in relative deprivation. Thus, specific attention should be paid to the particular patterns of youth unemployment where highly qualified, educated young people suffer more from unemployment than any other group. This widens the gap between individuals' expectations (job, salary, and lifestyle) and reality within broader segments of the population than merely unemployed lower-class people. Added to the mismatch between education skills and the labour market, the lack of economic opportunities for educated people contributes to exacerbating the gap between expectations and reality and thereby feeds the feeling of relative deprivation. In a broader perspective, recent research on Arab youth confirmed Gurr's theory: the drivers of political violence are rooted in the sense of injustice, discrimination, corruption, and abuse by security forces. In this respect, one of the most counterproductive risks of the security approach is to make room for practices that could further push vulnerable individuals into violent extremism.¹⁴ According to the paper by¹⁵ large rate of youth unemployment makes countries more unstable at all. The research tried to show the effect of youth unemployment on political instability using a sample covering 24 developing countries over the period 1980–2010, a 30 years panel data. The paper finds that youth unemployment is significantly associated with an increase in the risk of political instability. Finally, the research recommended that large youth unemployment rate associated with socioeconomic inequalities and corruption makes countries more vulnerable to political instability and national insecurity especially in poor countries. The study by¹⁶ examines the microeconomic determinants of youth unemployment in the MENA region using a unique and novel data on young people aged 15–29 from the year 2016. The results show that being a male and graduated from a public school increase the probability of being unemployed. Moreover, job concerns, corruption, and unequal rights in the society are also found to have a positive incidence on unemployment. However, it was found that gender equality in the labor market, education, family codes, and political participation decreases the probability of employment. Similarly, the results indicate that improving economic inclusion in the post-Arab spring decreases the probability of unemployment. Apolte and Gerling¹⁷ investigated the link between armed insurrection and large youth cohorts using cross-country panel data from 169 countries. They develop a model of insurrection markets and integrate the youth bulge as

¹³ Gurr, G. E., Montgomery, P. W., Knutson, C. D., & Gorres, B. T. The crystal structure of trigonal diboron trioxide. *Acta Crystallographica Section B: Structural Crystallography and Crystal Chemistry*, 26(7) (2010)

¹⁴ Haider, A., Ud Din, M., & Ghani, E. Consequences of Political Instability, Governance and Bureaucratic Corruption on Inflation and Growth: The Case of Pakistan. *The Pakistan Development Review*, 50(4II), 773–807 (2010)

¹⁵ Azeng, et al., Youth unemployment and political instability in selected developing countries. African Development Bank (2013)

¹⁶ Fakhri, A., Haimoun, N., & Kassem, M. Youth unemployment, gender and institutions during transition: Evidence from the Arab Spring. *Social Indicators Research*, 150(1), 311–336 (2020)

¹⁷ Apolte, T., & Gerling, L. Youth bulges, insurrections, and politico-economic institutions: Theory and empirical evidence (No. 3/2015). Discussion Paper, Center for Interdisciplinary Economics (2015).

measured by the relative youth cohort size. They find that it is not the demographic structure or the relative size of the youth cohort as such but rather the reality of large youth populations facing significant unemployment that coincides with insurrection. By testing their implications in an empirical model based on cross country panel data and find that the effect of the relative youth cohort size on insurrection outbreaks is moderated by changes in the underlying institutional setting, and more precise changes in the labour-market conditions as approximated by unemployment rates. While statistical analysis may be useful in establishing broad trends, a great deal of criticism has been leveled against how these studies have causally linked violence with unemployment in African countries.¹⁸ The study by Collier¹⁹ shows that large youth cohorts may be a factor that reduces recruitment costs through the abundant supply of labour with low opportunity cost and it increases the risk of armed conflict. If young people are left with unemployment and poverty, they are more likely to join a rebellion as an alternative way of generating an income. The author also recommended that the expansion of higher education as a strategy to reduce the risk of political violence. Since educated men have better income earning opportunities than the uneducated, they would have more to lose and hence be less likely to join a rebellion. Paul Collier, former Director of the Research Development Department of the World Bank, has suggested that relatively large youth cohorts may be a factor that reduces recruitment costs through the abundant supply of rebel labour with low opportunity cost, increasing the risk of armed conflict. According to the opportunity perspective, rebellion is feasible only when the potential gain from joining a rebel or terrorist organization is so high and the expected costs so low that certain individuals will favor joining over alternative income-earning opportunities. Urdal²⁰ examined the effect of youth bulges on domestic armed conflict. The research hypotheses are tested in an event history statistical model covering a high number of countries and politically dependent areas over the period 1950–2000. The study finds robust support for the hypothesis that youth bulges increase the risk of domestic armed conflict, and especially so under conditions of economic stagnation. He notes that while youth bulges are strongly associated with increased levels of domestic armed conflict, the reasons for this are not easily generalized, cannot be assumed, and must be empirically investigated. However, the combination of youth bulges and widespread unemployment increases the likelihood of violence, particularly when young people cannot easily migrate away from their societies in search of a better life as they did in 19th century Europe. Amirali²¹ investigates the relationship between the youth bulge and political unrest to understand when and why young Iraqis resort to violence or disruption. In Iraq, widespread youth unemployment combines with high levels of political exclusion, sectarian politics, militarization, perceptions of injustice, frustrated aspirations, war-related trauma, and the rapid breakdown and transformation of traditional institutions such as family and tribe. Together, these factors (and others not covered in this review) produce violence in specific moments. A systematic study of how Iraq's youth 'bulge' affects the country's political dynamics is warranted. Similarly, Sambanis,²² the empirical analysis does indeed suggest young male bulges are more likely to increase the risk of conflict in societies where male

¹⁸ Oosterom, M. A., Youth Employment and Citizenship: Problematising Theories of Change, K4D Emerging Issues Report, Institute of Development Studies (2018)

¹⁹ Collier, P. (2000). Economic causes of civil conflict and their implications for policy.

²⁰ Urdal, H., & Hoelscher, K. Explaining urban social disorder and violence: An empirical study of event data from Asian and sub-Saharan African cities. *International Interactions*, 38(4), 512–528 (2012).

²¹ See Amilari on youth unemployment and their effects on political instability (2005)

²² Sambanis, N. A review of recent advances and future directions in the quantitative literature on civil war. *Defence and Peace Economics*, 13(3), 215–243 (2002)

secondary education is low. This suggests that the availability of large cohorts of poorly educated youth can support armed conflict. Saylor²³ undertook a study on the unemployment and implications for social and political conflict in Zimbabwe. The study showed that for the last three decades, Zimbabwean youth have been involved as main factors behind the social unrest and violent activities in the country. This paper argues that dissatisfaction and frustration of youth especially graduate urban youth are regarded as one of the major threats to social and political instability. The paper also presents various challenges Zimbabwean youth face and their implications to social and political conflict. The paper discussed the major causes of youth unemployment such as: sluggish investment and growth, weak export performance, population growth rate, geography, poor macroeconomic policy, and the growth path. The paper suggests that there should be land reform, but land reform without the creation of youth employment is only leading to the alienation of youth groups that will fight against the establishment. Thomas²⁴ focuses on addressing youth unemployment in Morocco examines the challenges related to youth unemployment and how Morocco, as a country with high rates of youth unemployment, can benefit from international experiences. High youth unemployment has potentially severe implications on overall economic stability and social cohesion. The issue of youth unemployment must be addressed promptly when youth unemployment rates are high. Research points to a strong correlation between youth unemployment and socio-economic and political instability. If prolonged, youth unemployment can lead to negative consequences at both the individual and societal level. This paper suggests that to tackle its youth unemployment problem Morocco can use policies resulting from lessons learned internationally such as active labour market policies, more adequate minimum wage settings, more flexible contracts, initiatives to acquire new skills related to current technological changes; and finally, more public-private partnerships (PPP). The issue of youth unemployment must be addressed when youth unemployment rates are high because of the strong link between youth unemployment and socio-economic and political instability. If prolonged, youth unemployment can lead to negative consequences at both individual and social level. A study by²⁵ addresses the effect of youth unemployment on security in Kenya. The study used both qualitative and quantitative research approaches and the investigation utilized a descriptive research design. Qualitative research design was used and the target population was leaders drawn from the youth, police, Kwale County government officials, national government administration officers in Kwale County, and the religious sector. The study utilized both primary and secondary data. The researcher used questionnaires for the majority of leaders, interviews for key informants, and focused group discussion for the youth leaders. The study has argued that youth unemployment in Kwale County has been securitized with a majority of leaders terming unemployed youth as a threat to security. Therefore, the paper concluded that unemployed youth end up engaging in crime and another effect of unemployment is hopelessness leading to drug and alcohol abuse. The reviews conducted above indicate that previous studies have made an effort to examine the effects of youth unemployment on political instability. However, despite several efforts made to address the problem of poorly skilled youths, to the best of our knowledge, the available empirical evidence is still disjointed and inadequate to warrant significant policy reforms more so in

²³ Saylor, C. J. (2016). Unemployment and implications to social and political Conflict: perspectives from Zimbabwe. IOSR-JRME, (2016)

²⁴ Thomas, M. Frictional, Structural and Cyclical Unemployment Defined (2015)

²⁵ Riechi, B. Youth Unemployment and Security in Kenya: The Case of Kwale County (2010–2018) (Doctoral dissertation, United States International University-Africa) (2019)

developing countries and hence, maximum research efforts are still needed for deepening our understanding of the topic. Currently, there are few studies that have examined the nexus between youth skills development and national security. From the Relative Deprivation theory, this seeks to fill that knowledge gap with the aim of contributing to the understanding of subject.

5.2 Skills Development and National Security in Developing Countries

A myriad of empirical studies in developing countries have concluded that lowly skilled youth are likely to engage in criminal activities, if no appropriate state interventions are taken to address the problem. The main argument of this line of thinking is that lack of the requisite skills among youth ‘facilitates’ the occurrence of political instabilities but not the major cause. In other words, a dearth of skills creates a fertile ground for political violence to occur.²⁶ The main problem according to this line of argument is the widening and deepening mismatch between skills supply in developing countries including Tanzania is weakly prepared to respond to the changing demands in the labor markets. Research by McKinsey Global Institute²⁷ of skills variance globally relies on educational qualifications but suggests that mismatches tend to vary by levels of development. Generally, (i) Low-income countries tend to have employment concentrated in low-skill jobs overall but face a surplus of workers with low-level skills alongside a shortage of workers to fill critical (if fairly limited) jobs requiring mid-level skills; (ii) Mid-income countries tend to have roughly balanced supply and demand for workers with low-level and mid-level skills but face significant shortages of highly skilled workers to fill emerging occupations requiring advanced skills; and (iii) Advanced countries tend to face skills mismatch characterized by having a surplus of workers with mid-level skills alongside a shortage of workers with advanced skills. Overall, the study predicts that in future, there will be global shortages of high-skilled (advanced) and medium-skilled workers, and a surplus of low-skilled workers. This finding suggests the probability of political chaos to also increase in future.

5.3 Principles and Approaches to Effective Skills Development

Adopting demand-led models: An active involvement of local communities, employers, unions, and other social partners is crucial for planning, carrying out and following up of responsive skills development programs. It helps the training providers to better understand the variety of needs in the workplaces and respond appropriately. Such interaction will create win-win relationships between the world of learning and training and the world of work.

Ensuring quality training: Well qualified teachers are important for improving quality of training. Thus, investing in training of teachers, trainers and managers is decisive for quality. Interaction with the world of work is also crucial for improving the quality of learning and training activities. Improved quality in turn increases the attractiveness of skills training programs. Apprenticeship training is one way to make employers more actively involved in skills development and contributing to the improvement of quality.

²⁶ Urdal, H. The devil in the demographics: The effect of youth bulges on domestic armed conflict, 1950–2000. *Social Development Papers*, 14, 1–25 (2004)

²⁷ McKinsey Global Institute. *The World at Work: Jobs, Pay, and Skills for 3.5 Billion People* (2012)

Enhanced capacity of delivery: In many low-income countries skills development trainers are poorly equipped to meet the required needs for adequate and quality training. Investment in infrastructure, facilities, equipment and materials to meet the ever growing and changing demands of the world of work requires incentives and support mechanisms to stimulate and improve training capacity ensuring broad and continued access to quality training and skills development, including quality counseling: It is essential to foster opportunities and benefits of initial and lifelong learning for all, including disadvantaged young people who have dropped out of school or are working in the informal sector under precarious conditions. The participation of women in skills training should be ensured and gender stereotyping in occupational choice should be actively discouraged.

Effective labour market forecasting and information: Up-to-date labour market information and forecasting is important for matching current and future labour market needs for skills with the supply of skills. Such a system will provide necessary information for short-term and long-term planning as well as provide disaggregated data to track changes in labour market outcomes for different population groups (women, youth, the disabled and minority groups). Mechanisms for efficient recognition, validation and accreditation of skills: Such a system is necessary to allow for multiple paths for further learning and training (formal, non-formal and/or informal) and for the mobility of the workforce. Furthermore, such mechanisms for efficient recognition, validation and accreditation need to be developed with active participation of labour market actors.

6. Analysis and Discussion

Based on the above examination, it is quite evident that there is a close relationship between skills development and national security. Education system which produces substantial number of young graduates who are not employed or which does not offer life skills to its graduates is more susceptible to political instability. Most of the time unemployment gives birth to political instability in a country because unemployed persons (youth) are easily lured and thus can participate in criminal activities. They consider that government is worthless, which fails to provide them work. In Africa, where the dependence ratio on government is very high, people tend to resort to any means to retaliate to get their issues addressed. This implies that countries that have succeeded to match educational skills and labor market demands are less likely to experience political violence. Empirical evidence abounds to prove that in most African countries akin to Tanzania the labor market is incapable of absorbing a huge number of educated youth. As a consequence, the tendency has always been to create a huge number of job-seekers rather than wealth creators. If this problem is not addressed, chances are that unemployed youth may resort to criminal activities. The socio-economic problems linked to youth bulges may provide fertile ground for recruitment to terrorist organizations, drug trafficking and armed robbery. However, this position does not claim that for a country to be secure, all educated youths must be formally employed but rather underlines the importance of government investments in youth skills development programs. Empirical evidence proves that most of the African countries do not invest in youth skills development programs for reason that they are extremely expensive and time consuming. Even if they do, such programs are implemented in a chaotic fashion, seriously underfunded and staffed and worst of all; skills development plans and national security they are not implemented in an integrated manner. The designing, adoption and

implementation of skills development programs always does not take into account the issues to do with national security. Although it is true that youth skills development programs are quite costly, their benefits far outweigh the costs of not investing in them. The reason being insecurity is more costly than security. Thus, neglecting youth skills development is simply compromising national peace and security in developing countries as high youth unemployment rate make these countries more susceptible to political instability and national insecurity. It is argued that skills development plans are an integral part of the national security as the former (skills development) feeds the latter (national security).

7. Concluding Remarks and Policy Recommendations

The aim of this article was to examine how lack of integration between skills development and national security education impairs the successful implementation of skills development programs in developing countries. It is argued that all attempts to implement skills development programs among youth which do not take into account issues of national security strategies/awareness is bound to fail. It has been established that unemployment is one of the key factors causing political violence in developing economies akin to Tanzania. Skills development programs can only produce their intended objectives; if youth understand clearly the value of preserving and cherishing national interests and thus national security. Or else, assuming that they know is simply deceiving ourselves. Governments should strive to address the problem of skills mismatch. This paper offers the following three types of policy recommendations:-

1. Integrating Skills Development programs to National Security Education

Over the last two decades the experience has shown that in many developing countries akin to Tanzania the development and implementation of youth skills development programs is not linked to national security strategies. Lack of integration between youth skills development plans and national security strategies has impaired successful implementation of skills development initiatives. As a consequence, majority of youth graduates whose skills are unwanted in the labor markets may cause grievances among frustrated youths. As a matter of fact, joblessness among educated and frustrated young people may lead into political instability. Lack of national security awareness coupled with frustrations; contrary to their expectations; increases vulnerability of the unemployed youth to engage in criminal businesses such as terrorism and drugs trafficking. Put differently, the combination of youth bulges and widespread unemployment increases the likelihood of violence, particularly when young people cannot easily migrate away from their societies in search of a better life and they do not see any other better coping options.

2. Skills Development as a Component in National Planning

International experience suggests that it is critical for countries to develop strong national strategy and planning for skills development that is coordinated and aligned with national economic, industrial, and sector growth strategies. Sound strategies and planning are prerequisites for ensuring that skills development effectively aligns skills supply with skills demand and promotes improvements in worker employability, industry productivity and competitiveness, and dynamism and inclusiveness of economic growth. Skills development should be prominently cast into a country's national planning as a top priority and central pillar

supporting long-term economic and social development goals, and must be backed up by increased government financing. A holistic plan at the national level with sufficient political and financial support is critical to guide line ministries and training providers to align efforts.

3. Refocusing and Rebalancing Education Policy to align with the Skill Needs

Education policies in developing countries explicitly or implicitly prioritize advanced and highly specialized education programs focused on developing a small number of elite experts (i.e., ‘experts’ with the intention to stimulate technological innovation and spur rapid growth. However, to achieve economic modernization and maximize the economic benefits from technology, the right proportion of ‘experts’ and workers with basic hard and soft skills is required. Economies need ‘experts’ to innovate and develop new technologies, and also require a workforce with at least basic skills to implement technology in production. Education systems need to thus strengthen both top-down and bottom-up approaches to generate the optimal mix of ‘experts’ and workers with basic hard and soft skills required in the current labor market and an emerging economy. This will reduce the problem of skills mismatch in developing countries.

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