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CROSS-BORDER: JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND CRIME A PARADOXICAL NEXUS FOR SOCIAL TRANSFORMATION

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ABSTRACT: Talented youths such as students, professionals, information technology experts, entrepreneurs, cultural workers, and others are now more internationally mobile in the world economy as a delinquent response to new opportunities (and risks) that are offered by globalization. This trend has been reinforced by the greater information flow on economic opportunities and life-styles in different cities and countries across the globe and by lower transportation costs. The burden of this paper is a critical examination of the various dimensions of delinquent international mobility of human capital and its developmental implications on source nations (often developing countries), recipient nations (often rich countries), and on international crime and development. The work is also interested in empirical solution to risk factors against youthful talents and possibilities as imperatives for social mobilization and transformation in a globalized world. The theoretical model for this work shall connect neo-Marxist critical perspective and comparative advantage theory viewed in the light of parsonian social order model. Finally, the paper will critique social transformation problematic associated with youthful talents not developed and mobilized. Through resourceful literature and empirical models as stated earlier, the possible solutions will emerge. My expectation is to highlight the need for an adequate and cooperative policy response that balances the human resource needs of the source countries and of the receiving countries considering the fact that ethical standards for recruitment and compensation schemes are possible tools to deal with this phenomenon.

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INTRODUCTION

Global talent has never been more mobile. Today, youth migratory flows are fed more by skilled persons who migrate temporarily as refugees, students and even tourists who decide later to settle abroad in order to market their skills (Kuptsch *et al*, 2006). While some countries are trying to attract foreign talent, migrants' countries of origin are doing what they can to stem brain drain.

Brain drain, especially in developing world has lead to widespread poverty and the consequences of imbalanced migration flows between source and receiving country can be substantial for both country. Many industrialized countries face inflow of relatively low-skilled immigrants (Boeri *et al* 2002) and emigration may lead to the out flow of native talent.

Although, according to Feentra and Hanson (2003) globalization has led to the growing importance of trade in intermediate goods, the so called outsourcing or global production sharing. The skills needed to foster social transformation are lost to talent migration. They argued that the rapid expansion in global production sharing over the past two decades can explain part of the observed increase in demand for skilled workers in both developed and developing countries not without economic challenges and mutual benefits for both countries. However, if globalization of creativity leads to an increase in capital inflows into developing countries through remittance and technological exchange (ILO, 2006), for instance, and if the utilization of capital requires the use of a higher share of skilled labour, then the increase in capital flows will mean minus to receiving country and plus to source country, inequality created. Also, this trend can be associated with higher demand for skilled workers by developed countries (Cragg and Eelbaum 1996).

In this context, the extension of social protection scheme only possible given economic growth well-articulated is difficult because of inequality. The needed infrastructure for social transformation is not there. Agreed that social protection and particularly social cash transfers is powerful instrument to fight poverty and social exclusion-especially when they create stronger positive linkages with the labour market and involve

measures to promote ‘social inclusion’(UN,1999), but it must be in a productive economy.

From the foregoing, the migration of creative youths is strongly related to economic growth. Economic growth, however, precedes social transformation which involves social security, leisure and creativity making a complete developmental circle.

Central to this work is the impact of globalization on the role of Youthful creativity in social transformation process, the dimensions and impacts of these roles on socioeconomic development of both receiving and source countries. Development in this context will be viewed holistically.

LITERATURE REVIEW

DIMENSIONS OF INTERNATIONAL MOBILITY OF HUMAN CAPITAL

The various dimensions characterising international mobility of human capital underpin its development impacts on source and recipient countries and on international socioeconomic development as well as proffering solution risks associated with globalization. Three broad group of talent mobility in terms of their motivation and development impact exist, namely, the mobility of (1) entrepreneurs, technical talent, technology innovators, and business creators; (2) scientific and academic talent and international students and; (3) health professionals and cultural workers (MacDonald et al, 1993).

The first group of talent has a more directly productive impact through business creation and application of new technologies on host and source countries particularly in this era of information technology. The second group is related to the production of science and knowledge in general, although their productive applications for industry, the service sector, and government are more indirect. The third group is related to the provision of a critical social service; such as health services, with some complex impacts on the source countries; the mobility of cultural talent, in turn, reflects both an aesthetic value as well as the manifestation of creativity that can be highly valued by individuals and market (Solimano, 2008).

From the foregoing, it becomes expedient to ask who gets what and who moves where? The developmental implication of this migration ordinarily should lead to higher income with more mobile human capital, as marginal productivity of human capital in the world economy increases when talent moves from countries with lower marginal productivity to countries with higher marginal productivity so as to gain global efficiency that will be associated with international mobility of talent. But the case of most developing countries often the sources of most ground breaking creativities is poverty and chaos.

ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF CREATIVITY MIGRATION IN RECEIVING COUNTRIES

The relationship between economic growth and international migration of talented youths in the countries that receive the migrants can reflect a mutual causality. The capacity for unskilled and skilled migrants is generated due to rapid growth, expanding opportunities, and technological discoveries of the host countries. The immigration of youth with entrepreneurial abilities contributes to business creation, resource mobilization, innovation, social transformation and colonialization all of which support economic growth in host countries (Nzotta.2007).

For instance, in the 1990s, entrepreneurial immigrants from India, Taiwan, and China to Silicon Valley in the United States of America have provided valuable human resources in the creation of high technology industries, both in hardware and software in the receiving country. They have engaged in business creation with social transformation implication and output growth in the high-tech sector contributing to economy- wide growth. And their return migration has helped to desire the acceleration in growth in recent years in some of these countries (Solimano, 2008).

ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF CREATIVITY MIGRATION IN SOURCE COUNTRIES

Innovation, economic growth, and social transformation are depressed due to outflow of talents from the source countries. Likewise an outflow of youth with high educational levels also reduces the stock of human capital with a potentially negative effect on domestic social transformation and growth of native talents.

Only through brain gain drive achieved through more investment in education or sensitization aimed at bringing emigrants home with fresh capital, contacts and knowledge can counter-balance the effect of brain drain for the source country (Solimano, 2008). Further, he insisted that Taiwan, in the 1980s and 1990s, the formation and development of the Fsinchu Science-based Industrial Park (FSIP) benefited greatly from return immigrant Taiwanese entrepreneurs and engineers from Silicon Valley. In fact, several successful Indians and Taiwan's in the high-tech Industry in the USA set up hardware and software companies in their home countries contributing to economic growth and social transformation in the source countries.

Wealth transfers from abroad serve as a vital source of revenue for developing countries. Remittances, in particular, form an important component of economic projections for macroeconomic stability and household poverty reduction. Remittances are not only vital to rural poverty reduction when sourced from abroad, but monetary flows from internal labour migrants to family members frequently in rural areas are noted as a key factor in income security and rural social transformation (Beck, 1999). Further, he observed that one strategy to harness the contribution of remittances to overall national development is to turn remittances at the household level into a platform for broader-based investment and development.

REMITTANCE AND RETURNS FOR SOCIOECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Labour migration can be analyzed as an exchange of labour force for remittances. Although migration can have other benefits and costs, a country loses a certain amount of population, while it (through migrants' families) receives remittances in exchange. According to Escobar and Martínez (1991) the impact of remittances on poverty and inequality can be summarized thus:

- Remittances make a significant contribution to GDP.
- Remittances, however, do not compensate the labour force lost to migration.
- Remittances reduce income inequality, but poverty and inequality are lower in a no-migration counterfactual scenario.
- A preliminary approximation to the impact of remittances on poverty is provided by census evidence of low migration rates in poor areas, and among poor households, but this analysis could underestimate the emigration rates of poor households in particular.
- The proportion of households receiving remittances is higher among low income strata (which qualifies the evidence from 3).
- Non-poor households receive larger absolute remittances than poor households, but poor households receive a larger share of their total income from remittances.

Both remittance and returns imply the continuity of links between migrants and their country of origin. But while returns clearly imply physical repatriation, remittances imply that the migrant stays abroad and that a significant social link between the migrant and the sending society persists. There are other channels through which migration may foster development. The most salient has to do with the development of mostly small-scale transnational businesses, such as those analyzed by Portes and Guarnizo (1991) among Dominican immigrants in the United State. However, the situation is a complex one in terms of remittances, returns, and transnational enterprises. Some successful migrants return and bring their own and additional capital to invest; others remain abroad and partner with those returning, and both are combined with new technical

and entrepreneurial skills. But while the furthering of development through entrepreneurship, new jobs and economic activities is a core issue in development, so is the impact of remittances on poverty and inequality (Woodruff and Zenteno, 2001).

Lowering poverty and inequality is itself a component of development, but it can also be judged to have an impact on economic growth through the development of markets and jobs at the bottom of the economic and social structure. Remittances are usually analyzed as a positive financial inflow akin to those derived from exports. They differ from these for three reasons- however, most remittances are sent to families, not firms, are mostly used for subsistence, not production, and they imply the export of labour, as opposed to goods and services. Because remittances are mostly sent to families, they are usually analyzed as part of income, and of GDP, but from the point of view of household, not firm income (Unger, 2005).

The OECD (2008) has recently published a position paper that summarizes existing research on this issue. According to their review, a situation may exist today that may render the migration – development nexus particularly difficult. In their view, lowest –income countries export mostly high-skilled labour, while middle – income labour exporters tend to export mostly low – skill workers. High-skill workers tend to migrate legally, which entitles them to take their family along and significantly reduces remittances. Lower-skilled workers, on the contrary, tend to migrate illegally, leaving their families behind at least for a certain period, and this increases remittances. As a result, very low-income countries would seem to be investing large portions of their GDP in the training of high-skill individuals, and then to lose these workers with very modest remittances in exchange.

In any case, those remittances that do arrive would tend to do so in more affluent families, which increase income inequality. For them, emigration is a perverse process that may further distance them from development, through loss of skilled manpower, economic and social sectors, and sheer capital invested in migrants' skills. On the contrary, medium –income countries export persons in which the country has invested little in the way of private or public funds, and they tend to remit larger relative amounts, which would produce a significant net income for their (poor)

families, thus reducing poverty and possibly furthering development (Arroyo and Papail (2004).

GLOBALISATION CHALLENGES ON CREATIVITY AND SOCIOECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

The impact of globalisation on access to social services underpins increasing international coordination in the planning and financing of such services especially in developing countries. The United Nation Commission on Population and Social Development (UNCPSD) considered and highlighted how demographic challenges are affected by globalisation, particularly with respect to the international movement of people and the spread of illicit trade and infectious diseases such as HIV. It was resolved that to meet the challenges of globalisation especially on the youth, the United Nations system need to involve all stakeholders, private sector and civil society as well as with Governments through partnership (UN,1999). This partnership should involve reducing incentives to illegal international migration by assisting the vulnerable to get improved overall quality of life in rural communities; this in turn means that greater attention must be paid to providing youths with legal economic alternatives, including basic healthcare, education and social services.

Youths in African particularly, are much attracted to modern cultures and economies. Indeed youths constitute a large number of those who migrate to the cities (Fredland, 2001). Bored with farm work and with the lack of amenities for modern recreation in villages, millions run to the cities even if they have no job there. Youths can be developed or destroyed by cities and modern technologies. They can creatively use cities and technologies to acquire skills, education, jobs, and friends. However, because access to modern objects is competitive and the majority of persons do not have the means to buy them for their children, there are cases when youths take to crime primarily to get the resources to enjoy modern objects. As in many other countries, there are dangerous gangs, the use of drugs (notably marijuana), and increasing cases of prostitution, motivated by the desire to acquire independence, power and money (Falola, 2002).

Aslund, (2006) on the other hand, observed that the globalizing world looks helpless about the numerous kinds of illicit economic activities growing to frightening proportions for the past two decades when the wave of globalization became intense. He described five of these activities most ravaging to include- the arms trade, the drug trade, human trafficking, counterfeiting, and money laundering. The gains and risks of globalization exploded with the opening of borders, the elimination of currency regulations, and the rise of the internet, which offers discrete forms of communication and anonymous transactions that suit international criminals.

Where economies are underdeveloped to keep the youths in job and politics unstable, they join protest movements to demand changes. They participate in armed conflict and street conflicts, and antigovernment rebellions (khapoya, 1994). No doubt, many of the youths visions and ideas will survive and will surely become part of the development package of the twenty first century.

Unfortunately, while developed economies are battling with illegal migrants seeking for greener pasture in face of global recession and underdevelopment, the vast majority of developing and transition economies is experiencing slowdown and in some cases a reversal in economic growth, with its concomitant setbacks in social progress. In developing countries as a whole, 1.5billion people continue to live on less than \$1 per day (Anan, 2008) in spite of the commitment of the international community to the eradication of poverty.

Since 1990, the phenomenal spread of political reforms aimed at lowering barriers to social transformation through trade investment and the accelerated pace of technological exchange, have infused global commerce with unprecedented energy. Illicit trade received the same boost for the same simple reasons (Doubleday, Naim, 2005). The state cannot do very much to solve these problems. The dominance of talented youths in the booming illicit sector helps us to understand how limited state capacity really is to rising illicit gains (Ashurd, 2002). It is worth remarking here that just as there are negative effects of globalization that are anti youth as agents of social transformation so there are positive effects (Obaseki, 1999).

On the positive side of creativity migration, is global efficiency gains. However, world income should be higher with more mobile human capital, as the marginal productivity of human capital in the world economy increases when talents moves from countries with lower marginal productivity to countries with higher marginal productivity (Slavin, 1996).

Most important of the positive effect include; increased specialization and efficiency, economy of scale in production, better quality of product at reduced price above all global welfare through corporate responsibility and improved state welfare. Dicken, (1992) pointed out that while the growth of trade and financial flows is linking the nations of the world, one dominant forces of the global integration is the rapid increase in inflows of foreign direct investment (FDI) whose major channel is the transnational corporation (TNC) capital and people move rapidly and in large number because of new information technology. Innovations in transport and information technology are effective globalization vehicle driving large-scale social transformation and revolutionary change (ILO, 1994). Ohmae, (1990) further argued that via internet, the world is heading to a borderless economy, according to him, a distinctive feature of the new global economic system and it symbolizes the inter-penetration of transnational economic activity among national economies.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Comparative advantage is linked with the basic assumption of system theory. While Richardo (1963) was bordered with how a country should specialize in the production of goods and services in which she has comparative cost advantage over others nations of the world, Parson (1978) was concerned with how large number of people (individual) can be organized to function in a way analogous to cells in a biological system and how this organization can be smoothly perpetuated from one generation to another so that order is maintained. The twin concept of roles and socialization provide the key just as cost, production and exchange in comparative advantage implying that if countries of Nation World can specialize in the production of those goods and services that they produce

at cheaper rates and leave others they can produce at higher costs to other nations to produce and they exchange that production will increase and their costs reduce.

From these perspectives, the restoration of social order needed for effective social transformation must be anchored on how creativities are mobilised and combined to ensure increased production at least cost. If the structure of the economy is such that the economic base compliments the superstructure, economic growth is positively stimulated and social transformation is enhanced.

Rousseau J.I. (1990) argued that inequality breeds conflict and aggression between people because people were aggravated by inegalitarian and repressive social relations between the poor and the rich. Social harmony he said could best be achieved by giving children freedom to develop their natural talents and inclinations without frustration or restrictions.

Neo-Marxist strands of functionalism that properly blends with Parson`s and Richardo`s political economy perspective is the emphasis on purposive action as the foundation of systemic function. According to Stinchcombe, (1968), the existence of class and unequal power, vindicates Parson`s notion of society-wide normative consensus with the view that dominant ideas are those perpetuated by the actions of the members of the elite class. Members of this class protect their collective interest of dominating the other class members who`s also in a bund of relationship that projects their interest mostly through protest or rebellion. Quinney (1975) analysis of law shows that law function to protect the interests of the capitalist class. It is usually part of system function to protect the elite class and to control and suppress the opposite class that result to conflict that disrupts the system and throw up illegality which in most cases results to innovation.

Contemporary sociologists have added subtitle nuances to the concept of social class (Fantasia, 1995). Sharon Zukin (1991) opined that the structure of inequality finds concrete expression in the special layout of Cities Residents of different zones rarely interact with one another, and they experience different living conditions and develop distinct aesthetic values or tastes. This is a case of developed and underdeveloped countries.

Teeple, (2000) explained that social welfare by state in a capitalist society are social policies, programs, standard and regulations in order to

mitigate class conflict and provide for, answer, to accommodate certain social needs for which the capitalist mode of production in itself has no solution or makes no provision.

Creativity drift across its shore in most cases is a response to state failure to provide enabling environment for innovations and discoveries. In support to this position is Hauser et al, (1983) who concluded that parental status colours the adolescent's aspirations; aspirations contribute to the individual's educational attainment; educational attainment influences the person's first occupational placement which further affects youths occupational opportunities and mobility.

Global social transformation may have its nuance, enthusiasts of what came to be called modernization perspectives, argued that, in essence, all good things go together. That is, economic development, demographic transition, enlightenment of individual belief systems and empowerment of those individuals, improved social conditions, installation of stable democracies, and movement towards more egalitarian incomes would all ultimately flow from the process of development within and across countries (Hughes, 2001).

From the dependency theory, poverty stem from inappropriate cultural values and a lack of scientific knowledge in the third world. That the solution to such poverty can be found in education, the transfer of technology from the 1st to the 3rd world, and the promotion of leaders or role models to inspire more backward people to innovate (Chirot, 1977) conversely, theories that focus on the exploitation of the 3rd world by MNC, based in 1st world countries, see technology transfer and the promotion of capitalist modes of production as exacerbating poverty (Frank 1972) far from alleviating inequalities, such programs are seen as tightening the stranglehold of capitalism over the 3rd world economies so that they can be more severely exploited (Hoogvelt, 1976).

Finally, a number of factors make the youths especially in Africa vulnerable to the challenges of globalization in their creative effort to transform their socioeconomic experience indigenously, the globalisation of labour market forcing the youth to either enter the labour market too early (child labour) for survival or failing to enter the labour market (unemployment), and getting stuck in jobs that do not build human capital

(Nzota, 2007). The concept of Millennium Development Goals (MDG) was in response to solving critical problems of youth development in developing countries like Africa, characterised by poverty, low enrolment in primary schools, brain drain, high incidence of HIV/AIDS, and poor capacity utilization. Sustained growth and elimination of poverty will for a long time remain elusive in sub-Saharan Africa until the region succeeds in building, retaining and nurturing the required human capital and institutional capacity vital for grooming the youths who are successor generation and interfacing with other development partners and process (NESG, 2007).

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATION

From the previous discussion, of a policy and research agenda on talent mobility for global development can be identified. First we need better numbers on the size and direction of the mobility of qualified people and in timely fashion.

Secondly, as with financial capital, human capital emigrates when the incentives structure at home is distorted and the value of talent is not properly recognized. The general point is the need for developing countries to reassess their rewards structure for talent. Poor remuneration, lack of recognition, the absence of professional tracks in public administration, and obstacles for business creation, and innovation are all factors that lead to brain drain.

Thirdly, to enable talent circulation for global development may require action on several fronts. Increasing the connectivity among expatriate entrepreneurs, engineers, and scientists with their home country can increase the international circulation and mobility of capital, knowledge, technology, and managerial capacity. For scientists and researchers, increased connections among universities and research institutes at home and abroad is needed. This may involve cooperation in research project and organisation of joint conferences, institutional agreements, fellowship programmes and other measures.

Fourthly, the relation between education and talent and its effects on the international mobility of professionals needs further study. The integration of higher education would need some common framework that enables the compatibility of diverse national education systems.

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