Exploring social entrepreneurship as a youth peacebuilding tool to mitigate structural violence: Action research using mixed methods in Zimbabwe

A dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy: Public Administration-Peace Studies in the Faculty of Public Management at Durban University of Technology

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Abstract

Youth around the world bear the brunt of many conflicts, as these impact their progression in life. Zimbabwean youth are not an exception in this regard, and like many other citizens across the country, they have experienced different forms of violence since independence in 1980. Structural violence (SV) is related to the uneven distribution of resources which then leads to the social exclusion and marginalisation of people. Structural violence equates to social inequality and leads to impaired human growth and development. The main purpose of this study was to evaluate the potential of social entrepreneurship as a tool for promoting sustainable peace in Zimbabwe. Given the fact that youth are energetic and willing to act, they have the potential to be notable change-makers and to exhibit the characteristics of social entrepreneurs. Providing youth with civic or peace education alone cannot be effective in addressing social inequality and structural violence. Therefore, social entrepreneurship support becomes the final ingredient that completes the empowerment of youth, giving them the capacity to be independent decision-makers who will not be easily swayed into violence. The study was based on an action research strategy within a mixed methods research framework. A sequencing approach was applied in collecting data for this study. The researcher used primary data sources that included a survey as well as direct interactions with youth and some policy-makers through Focus Groups and In-depth Interviews. This thesis contributed to theory in three ways, namely: (i) validating other research and (ii) contributing to knowledge by depicting the effectiveness of grassroots-initiated solutions and (iii) showing the effectiveness of social entrepreneurship in addressing structural violence. This thesis also discloses how bringing about change is overwhelming and that it varies across the micro or macro levels. There are many challenges in transforming SV. In the absence of local ownership and interest, an effort by an outsider to bring about change can only have short-term results with the momentum ending once the outsider leaves.

Declaration

This is to certify that the work is entirely my own and not of any other person, unless explicitly acknowledged (including citation of published and unpublished sources). The work has not previously been submitted in any form to the Durban University of Technology or to any other institution for assessment or for any other purpose.

Signed: 

Date: _____

Dedication

I dedicate this work to the memory of my late younger brother,

Duncan McMullan Sande,

a victim of structural violence, who took away his life at a budding age of 23. Rest in peace Dumac, I surely had to finish this work in your honour and memory.

Acknowledgements

I want to thank God Almighty for the gift of life and the ability to push myself to the limit and complete this thesis. I acknowledge the sterling guidance of Dr Sylvia B. Kaye, who supervised me throughout this project. I also appreciate Prof Geoff Harris, who assisted in grounding me into peacebuilding and non-violence action. The push I got from the two ladies that are key in my life cannot go unmentioned: my daughter, Takakundiswa Zoe Musarurwa, for pressing me on towards the finishing line, and my soul mate, Quondile Zunidza, for not losing your head even though you probably felt that I had lost mine. To the men of the house, Munenyasha Ezekiel Musarurwa and Boithumelo Atipaishe, thank you for tolerating an absent father and for not being fussy when I couldn't be around for the birthdays. A big shout out and thank you to all those who believed I could do this and watched me do it.

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Glossary of Terms

AR	Action Research
AT	Action Team
CBO	Community Based Organisation
CSO	Civic Society Organisation
FGD	Focus Group Discussions
GBP	Great British Pound
II	Informant Interviews
MDC-T	Movement for Democratic Change-Tsvangirai
MM	Mixed Methods
MMR	Mixed Methods Research
MP	Member of Parliament
NORDA	Norton Development Association
NTC	Norton Town Council
NVA	Non-Violent Action
NYI	Norton Youth Indaba
PENYA	Practical Empowerment & Networking Youth Association
PPI	Positive Peace Index
PYD	Positive Youth Development
SE	Social Entrepreneurialism
SV	Structural Violence
UNSC	United Nations Security Council
T4G	Teens for Good
VTC	Vocational Training Centre
YARD	Youth Advocacy for Reform and Democracy
ZANU-PF	Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front
ZAR	South African Rand

CHAPTER 1: THE RESEARCH PROBLEM, OBJECTIVES AND STUDY OVERVIEW

1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 Understanding Zimbabwe's Conflict

Youth around the world bear the brunt of many conflicts, as these impact their progression in life. Chief among these are conflicts exacerbated by social injustices, inequality and poverty. Zimbabwean youth are not an exception in this regard, and like many other citizens across the country, they have experienced different forms of violence since independence in 1980 (Brett 2005; Mlambo and Raftopoulos 2010). Zimbabwe's conflict is unique in the sense that it does not involve direct or armed confrontations. In an analysis on Zimbabwe's conflicts, Figure 1.1 provides a causal loop diagram that helps layout the conflict as it presents itself.

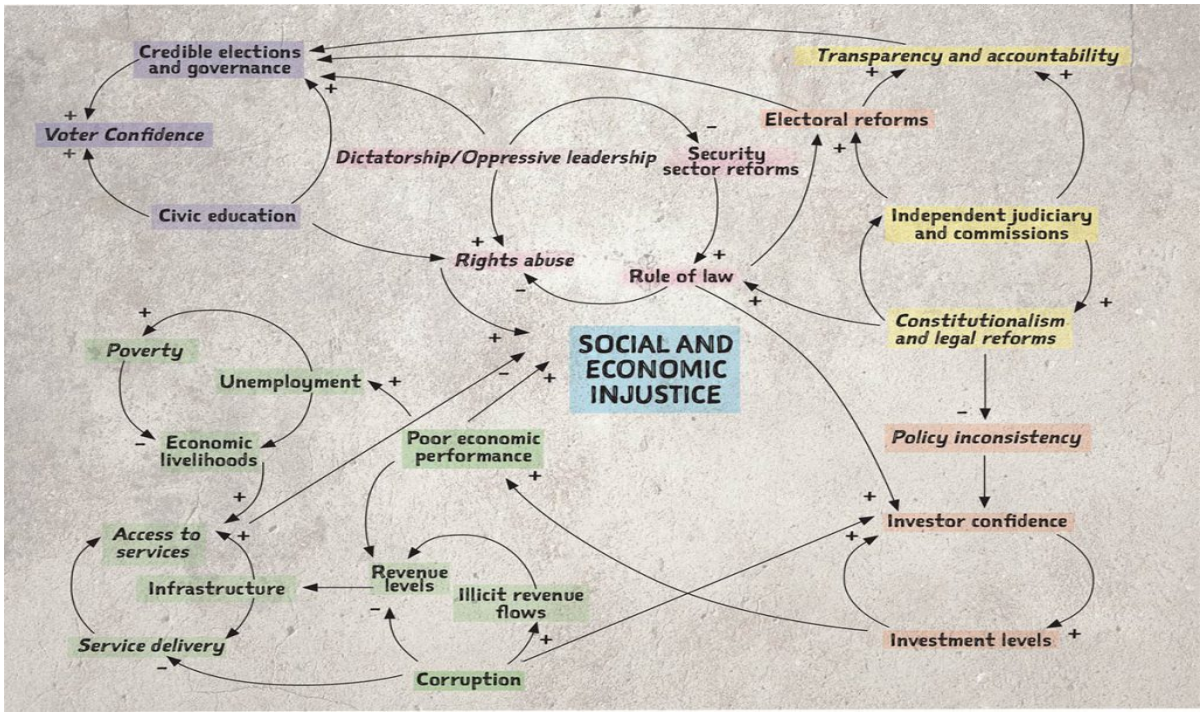


Figure 1.1: Causal Loop Diagram of Zimbabwe's Conflict (Source: Musarurwa 2016: 50).

As Musarurwa (2016: 50) states, “Zimbabwe’s conflict is a complex web of socio-political and economic challenges.” These range from poor service delivery, high levels of corruption, extreme poverty, unemployment, an informalised economy, poor economic performance, government policy inconsistency, lack of independence of the judiciary, lack of rule of law, human rights abuses, dictatorship, lack of civic education, reduced voter confidence and issues on the credibility of elections held over several years (Davies 2004; Ranger 2004; Potts 2006; Kairiza 2009; Barry, Honohan and McIndoe-Calder 2014). The people of Zimbabwe have internalised the acceptance of these manifestations of conflict, accepting them to be a normal way of life. They choose instead to focus on earning a living and upholding the ‘peace’ prevailing in the country (Moyo 2008a). However, this state of negative peace is accompanied by hushed and unexpressed anger.

Negative peace is defined by The Institute for Economics and Peace (2016) as “the absence of violence or the fear of violence”. It exists in a community that is not under siege or under direct violence but where its citizens are not at peace with the status quo (Galtung 1990a; Grewal 2003). The Zimbabwean citizens’ discontent with any situation, public or private, is rarely expressed publicly but is rather expressed through murmurings behind closed doors and in corridors. They live in fear of violent reprisals by the government or the abductions of activists who protest or enlighten fellow citizens on their rights. Freedom of expression through demonstrations, marches or even community discussions are hampered by draconian laws such as the Public Order and Security Act (POSA) of 2002 and the Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act (AIPPA) of 2002. Authorised public meetings are monitored and have resulted in several arrests when the discussions or events skirted on matters deemed to be political. Civic activities are carried out in an atmosphere of intimidation and fear. The aforementioned are an attestation to the different forms of violence, structural and cultural, which many will not see as being violent since they take place during times of ‘peace’.

1.1.2 Defining Structural and Cultural Violence, Negative Peace

Before proceeding further in explaining the nature of Zimbabwe's violence, it is prudent to define some key terms in this study, namely, *negative peace*, *structural violence* and *cultural violence*. Johan Galtung, one of the founders of peace studies, introduced the extended concepts of violence in 1969. These relational concepts of peace and violence are depicted in Figure 1.2 below.

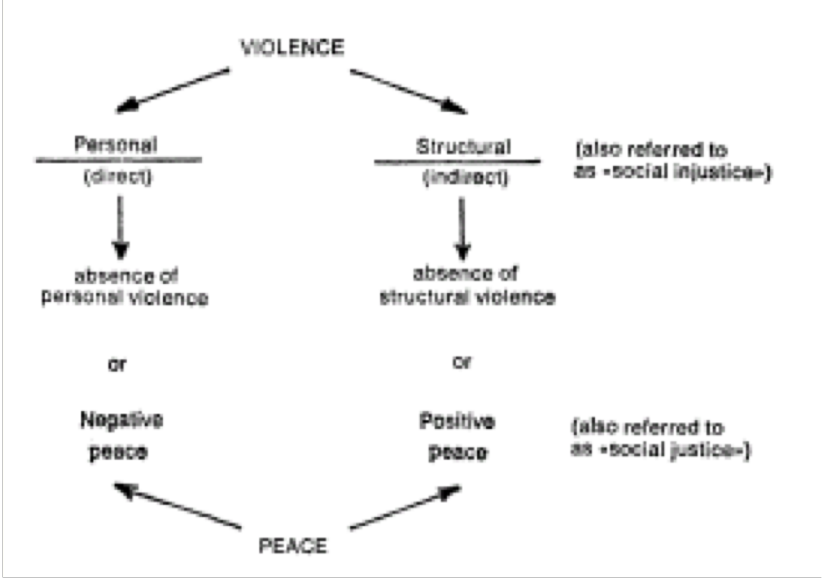


Figure 1.2: The extended concepts of violence and peace (Source: Galtung 1969).

There have been varied definitions of the word *peace*. Peace, while difficult to define, is associated with harmony, well-being and bliss. Peace exists when individuals can work freely towards personal happiness without infringing on other people's liberties. Galtung's mini theory of peace indicates that peace is relational and happens between two or more parties (Galtung 2007). An outsider, looking at the fact that most peacebuilding efforts have focused on post-war situations, can conclude that peace is the absence of war. However, peace is more than just the absence of direct violence or war; it goes beyond this. Webel (2007) states that while peace might be difficult to define, it can be easily recognised by its absence. He depicts peace as the linchpin of social harmony, economic equity and political justice. It is a state of affairs where people dwell together in harmony and show tolerance, and where people have equal access

to the economic resources of their country and are treated fairly and justly by politicians and those in authority.

Distinctions have been made between negative and positive peace. Negative peace is simply defined as the "absence of violence" (Galtung 1990b: 190). Galtung further states that negative peace is a constant, while positive peace is constantly changing since it is depicted by the presence of different variables that equate to social justice. Hence, access to basic social services can be an indicator of positive peace. In their annual Global Peace Index for 2016, The Institute for Economics and Peace (2016: 52) define negative peace as "the absence of direct violence or fear of violence." The report further defines positive peace as:

> the attitudes, institutions and structures which create and sustain peaceful societies. These same factors also lead to many other positive outcomes which society feels are important. Therefore, Positive Peace is described as creating the optimum environment for human potential to flourish.

Positive peace is verifiable by the presence of the following Positive Peace Indicators (The Institute for Economics and Peace 2016: 57), as depicted in Figure 1.3.

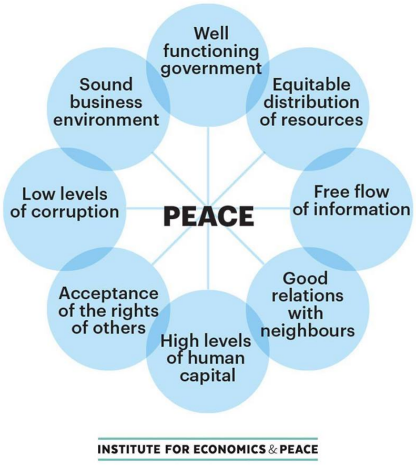


Figure 1.3: The Positive Peace Pillars (Source: Institute of Economics & Peace 2016: 57).

According to Grewal (2003: 26), the distinct characteristics of negative peace and positive peace can be summarised as follows:

> Negative peace – absence of violence, pessimistic, curative, peace not always by peaceful means.
> Positive peace – structural integration, optimistic, preventive, peace by peaceful means.

Grewal (2003: 26) proceeds to conclude that "positive peace is emancipatory in nature". This statement is significant in this study as the researcher explores how marginalised people can liberate themselves from social injustice and attain their full potential.

Violence is identified when human beings are being influenced such that their actual somatic and mental realisations are below their potential realisations (Galtung 1969: 168). Galtung explains that personal or direct violence involves actors who then cause direct harm through maiming or killing someone such that they fail to reach their potential. The absence of direct or personal violence leads to negative peace. While there is no indication of attacks on people in this instance, there may be a presence of structural or indirect violence. Structural violence is defined as "social structures – economic, political, legal, religious, and cultural – that stop individuals, groups, and societies from reaching their full potential" (Farmer *et al.* 2006: 1686). According to Farmer *et al.* (2006a), the arrangements are *structural* because they are embedded in the political and economic organisation of our social world; they are *violent* because they cause injury to people. Farmer *et al.* (2006) observed that "the impact of structural violence is even more obvious in the world's poorest countries." Structural violence is related to the uneven distribution of resources which then leads to the social exclusion and marginalisation of people. Galtung also refers to it as social injustice and that it is characterised by unequal access to education, health, water, food, shelter and other basic services. Structural violence equates to social

inequality and leads to impaired human growth and development. It delays self-actualisation and, in most cases, people fall short and fail to reach their optimum potential realisation. The narratives of people exposed to structural violence are underpinned by struggles, deaths, frustrations, hopelessness and despondency.

Another aspect that is worth considering is that of cultural violence, which Galtung introduced in 1990. This he defined as:

> those aspects of culture, the symbolic sphere of our existence – exemplified by religion and ideology, language and art, empirical science and formal science (logic, mathematics) – that can be used to justify or legitimize direct or structural violence (Galtung 1990a: 291).

Cultural violence can also be seen as the rhetoric and excuses that policy-makers and politicians give to justify the continued existence of social injustices within their society. The most common excuse given is the government's lack of resources whilst its leaders spend lavishly. In Zimbabwe, the most popular excuse is how badly sanctions are affecting the country. Most countries that at one stage lived under an oppressive regime such as colonialisation or apartheid, usually link the lack of change to their historic pasts. Cultural violence thus sanitises structural violence and makes it seem normal and to be an acceptable practice.

As Grewal (2003) states in his summary of Galtung's expanded theory of peace and violence, there is a connection between peace, conflict and development studies (Grewal 2003). This is rightfully so, since from the definitions given by Galtung (1969), there is a clear link between structural violence, social injustice, social inequality and negative peace. It can therefore be concluded that structural violence equates to social inequality and leads to impaired human growth and development. On the other hand, cultural violence makes direct or structural violence feel right (Galtung 1990: 291).

For the purposes of this study, structural violence has been taken to imply the policies and statutes that are put in place in a country whose intentions were to do good but instead bring harm to the citizens (Webel and Galtung 2009). It also refers to the actions related to the enforcement of such policies to the extent of infringing on the human rights of citizens. The study also accepts the definition of cultural violence as the rhetorical excuses that usually follow a government's failure to act or deliver on promises to ensure that its citizens live better lives in all spheres.

1.1.3 How Structural Violence presents itself in Zimbabwe

Structural violence manifests itself through different forms of exclusion supported through both public and private institutions, as depicted in Figure 1.4 below.

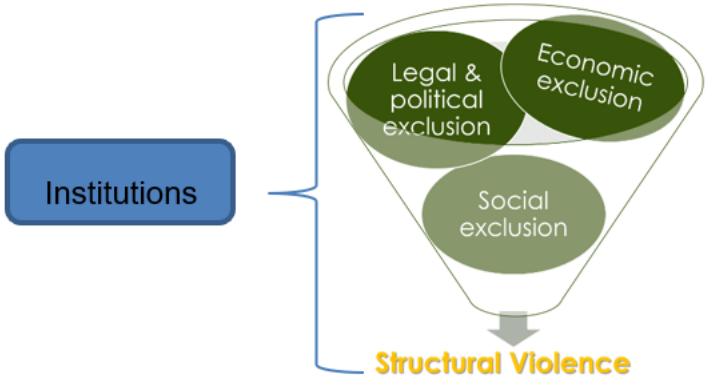


Figure 1.4: How structural violence manifests in society (Source: the author).

Structural violence usually occurs when public institutions such as the legal system, education, health services and other public empowerment initiatives undertaken by the government, misuse their power. Some examples include denying citizens treatment until they pay a deposit for their hospital bill or chasing pupils from school for unpaid fees. It must be noted that 2016 saw the unfolding of several events that exacerbated the structural violation of citizens in Zimbabwe. These events were in the form of public statements or legal provisions enacted by the government. Some of these events, and the reaction that they received from citizens, are listed in Table 1.1. The general trend in passing some of these laws was the lack of transparency and consultation by the government.

The subsequent imposition of these measures angered citizens, many of whom viewed them as pushing the poor towards an increased state of poverty. The events were also met with different reactions that included violent protests, petitions, court challenges and in some instances, civic disobedience, as citizens voiced out their discontent. In most cases, citizens had called out for the resignation of the country's leader, President Robert Gabriel Mugabe. The government's responses to the citizens' demands has been the usual hard-handedness with which all other protests have been met (Dodo, Nsenduluka and Kasanda 2014a; Mungure 2014; Zimbabwe Human Rights NGO Forum 2014). Citizens were met with police brutality instead of solutions to their demands. Reports of abductions and beatings of activists by state agents were on the rise as more people took to the streets (Kandemiri 2016). Table 1.1 describes the events leading up to protests.

Table 1.1: Events perpetuating structural violence in 2016 and the citizens' responses.

Period	Occurrence/Trigger event	Reaction by citizens
January 2016	Statutory Instrument 148 of 2015. [CAP. 23:02.] Customs and Excise (General Amendment) Regulations, 2015. (No. 80), which reduces the duty rebate for travellers to US$200 from US$300 while at the same time completely scrapping it for travellers using small cross border transport, buses or trucks, is operationalised.	Protests demanding a repeal of this Statutory Instrument.
January 2016	Chitungwiza Town Council introduces a US$100 annual operating fee for public transport operators.	Violent protests by touts and operators demanding the reversal of this provision.
March 2016	It was reported that President Robert Mugabe revealed, during his 91st birthday interview, that Zimbabwe was robbed of more than US$15 billion in revenue from diamond mining in Chiadzwa by the	Protests on the streets and social media demanding a report on what happened to the missing revenue.

	companies that were running mining business in the area.	
March 2016	Escalating cash crisis that continued for the greater part of 2016.	Protests on the streets and social media demanding for government to address the crisis.
April 2016	The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education introduced the Schools National Pledge.	Protests and petitions demanding a revoking of the Schools National Pledge.
May 2016	The Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe's Governor announced the plan to introduce bond notes as a measure to address the cash crisis facing the country.	Protests on the streets and social media rejecting the introduction of the bond notes amid mistrusts that the government wants to reintroduce the demonetised local currency.
June 2016	Statutory Instrument 64 of 2016, which bans the import of goods without a license, as introduced.	Violent protests at Beitbridge Border Post as well as across the country demanding a repeal of this Statutory Instrument.
September 2016	Statutory Instrument 101A of 2016, which bans protests in Harare's Central Business District for 14 days.	Court challenge which led to the Statutory Instrument being declared unconstitutional.
November 2016	Presidential Powers (Temporary Measures) Act used to issue Statutory Instrument 133 of 2016 which amends the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe Act to pave way for the legal introduction of bond notes.	Court challenge on the unconstitutionality of the Presidential Powers Act.

(Adapted from Musarurwa 2016)

There is a perpetuation of an entitlement mentality amongst different groups within ZANU (PF)[1], which involves seemingly having the right to a final say in everything. They can freely express their views in public, attack opposition

[1] Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) is the political party that has been ruling Zimbabwe since its independence in 1980.

members directly – verbally and physically, and report and disrupt processes and activities carried out outside their structures. They have a right to access several resources such as land, loans, farming equipment or food hand-outs, since the ruling party distributes them, hence only members should benefit (Moyo 2000; Moss and Patrick 2005; Mamdani 2009; Odum 2015). This promotes a retributive stance by those who have been victimised. The victims harbour an attitude of vengeance, patiently awaiting their day to exact revenge. Failure to address the underlying causes of the existing challenges that Zimbabwean citizens face can easily lead to mobocracy.

1.1.4 Youth as victims or willing perpetrators of violence

Without the support to address economic and educational opportunities, Zimbabwean youth continue to experience structural violence and high levels of social inequality (Chimucheka 2012). This leads them to accept the continued justification made by policy-makers and politicians for the government's lack of action, a form of cultural violence in its own right. This, in turn, leads to resignation by the citizens and the acceptance of their fate, thus creating negative peace. At the slightest opportunity, people can become violent in expressing their feelings and pressing for structural change and their emancipation (Ward, Dawes and Matzopoulos 2012; Izzi 2013a). Youth have been portrayed as key players in violence (Danesh 2008; Dodo, Nsenduluka and Kasanda 2014b). They were then seen as energetic and potentially dangerous elements that should be kept away from key decision-making processes. As reported by McEvoy-Levy (2012a), adult idealism envisions youth as lacking knowledge and experience, thus leading adults to become unwilling to give youth any political space. Sometimes violence is employed to thwart youth participation. Sadly, most, if not all, political parties in Zimbabwe are guilty of closing political space for youth. The modus operandi is to socio-economically deprive the youth. This renders them susceptible to exploitation and control by the 'empowered' few in the political hierarchy who have the political and financial muscle to 'buy' the energy of the youth. It therefore follows that being able to address the social inequality challenges of youth

discounts this and closes out the market place for sponsoring youth to be political cannon fodder.

1.1.5 The Rise of Youth Activism in Zimbabwe

2016 also saw an unprecedented rise of youth activists demanding a change of the status quo (Musarurwa 2016). The activists increased their mobilisation activities and started to use social media platforms to voice their displeasure with the government. As (Musarurwa 2016) narrates, these included groups such as Occupy Africa Unity Square, #ThisFlag, Tajamuka/Ses'jikile and Zimbabwe Yadzoka, to name a few. While there may be many different movements sprouting up in Zimbabwe, their demands are all the same. Chief amongst them have been the change in government with Robert Mugabe stepping down as President, a reversal of policies that are further hurting the poor, arresting corrupt government ministers, an end to human rights abuses, an end to police brutality and abductions, electoral reforms, creation of employment opportunities and improved service delivery (Magaya, Asner-Self and Schreiber 2005; Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada 2006; Makina 2010; Magure 2015; Musarurwa 2016; Musarurwa, Akande and Rukuni 2016). This development is very welcome as it promotes civic engagement which could lead to the transformation of the Zimbabwean conflict. However, the lack of unity and siloed approach, of acting through the rising social movements can be the driver towards a fruitless and futile campaign. Unless and until the youth activists find each other and speak with one voice, they may end up like the Zimbabwean opposition political parties that have struggled to dislodge Robert Mugabe and ZANU PF from power since independence in 1980 (Asuelime and Simura 2014; Magure 2015).

1.2 Motivation for Research

This section explains the motivation behind the study which mainly involves (i) a lived experience, (ii) knowledge gaps and (iii) identified knowledge gaps.

1.2.1 Lived Experience

The researcher had an opportunity to witness first-hand attempts by the political elite to continue to disempower youth during one of the projects the researcher undertook whilst he was working for a youth-focused organisation called the Practical Empowerment & Networking Youth Association (PENYA) which he set up in 2008. Having observed that youth were being used as political road runners, being the pawns for the battles being fought by adults, the researcher sought a change in thinking. The researcher set out to advocate for support for having youth as agents for their own emancipation and socio-economic empowerment. The thinking behind these actions was that youth need to be given the opportunity to become economically active and have something within their community to defend, thereby becoming likely to resolve any conflict peacefully. They should be seen as developers, teachers and leaders of participatory peacebuilding pedagogies and mechanisms (McEvoy-Levy 2012b). The organisation thought it relevant to carry out youth entrepreneurship and skills support projects to reduce their predisposition to being used as political pawns. Therefore, in 2009, PENYA set out to train youth in three rural villages, Chinengundu, Chipashu and Chirimuuta, of Mhondoro in entrepreneurship skills, setting up community gardens for them. The setting up of this project was met with fierce resistance from the 'community gatekeepers'[2], even though the researcher originates from one of the villages and that this project was initiated on seeing the gap in the support for the economic livelihoods of youth. One of the fears was that the researcher was positioning himself to mobilise youth to vote for him as an opposition candidate in local elections. It took PENYA more than a year, as well as several trips to the District and Provincial Administrators' office, before being able to get the green light to start the project. The organisation's intentions were questioned and viewed as political positioning. This was compounded by the fact that PENYA was not in any of the ZANU (PF) structures. Therefore, without any

[2] District and Provincial Administrators together with Provincial Governors (Resident Ministers) are political appointees who are the community gatekeepers. They are responsible for approving and monitoring development projects carried out by NGOs and non-state actors in a bid to curb infiltration by regime change agenda seekers into communities.

evidence of support, PENYA was alleged to be aligned with the opposition Movement for Democratic Change – Tsvangirai (MDC-T[3]) – and trying to use youth empowerment projects to garner votes and position the researcher to campaign for election in the 2013 Harmonised Elections. The Provincial Administrator clearly specified that from his experience, authentic youth organisations only distributed balls and carried out sporting events with youth. He insinuated that it was politically incorrect to approve a youth economic empowerment project. It was only after engagements with the Provincial Governor that PENYA was granted the authority to carry out the project. The Provincial Governor accepted the approach of going beyond just giving youth sporting equipment and then having them return to a home that has no food. This would exacerbate their marginalisation.

It was such an experience that led me to question the deep-rooted entrenchment of structural violence and the continued social exclusion of marginalised groups that goes unchallenged. How many young people put up with this daily and accepted it as a way of life in Zimbabwe? How many good-intentioned projects have been stopped because of policies that seem to be safeguarding national security on the surface and yet perpetuate poverty? The researcher wanted to understand how this can be undone without resorting to unorthodox or violent means. How can the gatekeepers, policy-makers and politicians be engaged to co-create with regards to addressing social inequality while defusing the prejudice and tension that exists in the communities from the grassroots levels?

1.2.2 Knowledge Gap

Most researchers and practitioners in Zimbabwe have focused on the direct forms of violence associated with state-sponsored violence, expressed through political violence and abductions (Mungure 2014; Zimbabwe Human Rights NGO Forum 2014). Structural violence, on the other hand, has been given less attention,

[3] The Movement for Democratic Change-Tsvangirai (MDC-T) is one of the leading opposition political parties in Zimbabwe that was formed in 1999.

although it is quite prevalent and affects a greater majority of Zimbabwe's citizens. An analysis and search of existing literature reveals that most peacebuilding efforts and mechanisms have focused on addressing the effects of direct violence witnessed mainly in armed conflicts or physical confrontations (Brück and Milante 2014). A preliminary search did not reveal many studies – literature, empirical data or otherwise – on the measures that are appropriate for dealing with structural violence and negative peace. In the arena where 'adult' narratives are given preference, the voice of the youth is stifled and their peacebuilding efforts are rarely documented or shared (Agbiboa 2015). There is also a need to study and produce more knowledge on the mechanisms these youth are applying in their peacebuilding initiatives (United Nations 2011). It thus was one of the intentions of this study to also contribute to the knowledge on mechanisms relevant to addressing structural violence and transition from negative peace to true peace. This study was intended to provide knowledge on a few youth peacebuilding initiatives in Zimbabwe and how they are contributing to the possession of governance space by youth.

1.2.3 Solution Gap

A gap exists on the solutions side of the problem, to which the action research component of this study is committed. There is a need to carry out peacebuilding initiatives that go beyond addressing the issues of the direct violence that has been experienced in post-independence Zimbabwe. Setting up transformative mechanisms could help address the prolonged exclusion and suffering of marginalised youth. The selected mechanisms should be preventive and structured to support early recovery and build resilience. This can entail support through skills development, economic livelihoods support and, in some instances, allocation of resources such as land to those who have previously been left out. These mechanisms should help Zimbabwe to transition from the current state of negative peace to one of real peace, with every citizen enjoying their socio-economic rights and self-determination (Webel and Galtung 2009).

1.3 Aim and Objectives

1.3.1 Research Objectives

This study aimed at producing knowledge on how to address structural violence, as well as further knowledge on the mechanisms youth are applying in their peacebuilding initiatives (Del Felice and Wisler 2007). It also focused on producing knowledge on how social entrepreneurial innovations can support youth peacebuilding activities. It was anticipated that the action team could contribute towards a peaceful run up to the 2018 Harmonised Elections to be held in Zimbabwe. The overall aim of this study therefore, was to evaluate the potential of youth peacebuilding interventions as tools to promote sustainable peace in Zimbabwe. The specific objectives of the research were to:

1. Explore the nexus between social inequality, negative peace and polarisation in Zimbabwe and how they constitute a vector of conflict, and determine their impact on the lives of youth
2. Identify the training needs and social entrepreneurship opportunities within the community for youth focused peace infrastructure(s) in the community's context of negative peace
3. Pilot, through action research, and then evaluate the output of different solutions proposed by youth to promote their participation in political and socio-economic processes in their community and thus contribute towards sustainable positive peace in Zimbabwe

1.3.2 Research Questions

In order to meet the research aims and objectives, the following research questions needed to be answered:

1. What is the level of social inequality in Zimbabwe and what are its major contributors?
2. How does poverty and social inequality impact the livelihoods of youth in Zimbabwe?

3. What type of peace exists in Zimbabwe?
4. What are the levels of polarisation in Zimbabwe?
5. How is structural violence presented in Zimbabwe and how does it impact on the lives of youth?
6. What is the nexus between social inequality, negative peace and polarisation in Zimbabwe?
7. How do social inequality, negative peace and polarisation constitute a vector of conflict?
8. What solutions can youth proffer to address the prevalence of structural violence?
9. What are the training and resource needs that will make youth exploit opportunities for sustainable peace within their communities?
10. How can social entrepreneurship be used to bring about conflict transformation in Zimbabwe?

1.4 Overview of the Thesis

Chapter 1 provides a background of the study. It outlines the concepts of violence and peace. It also provides the overall aim and specific objectives of the research. The section after this is the literature review, which includes Chapters 2 and 3. Chapter 2 evaluates the peace theories of conflict transformation, peace education and non-violence, which are the theories relevant for this study. Chapter 3 discusses the aspects of social entrepreneurship, social cohesion and the creation of social values. The next section covers the research methodology employed in this study. It is comprised of Chapter 4 which discusses the research design and also focuses on the research methodology and data collection methods used in this study, clarifying that the study inclines more towards the mixed methods framework. The chapter also explains how action research is conducted in the community to explore tangible conflict transformation solutions. The chapter also explains the processes of data collection and analysis and further highlights the validity and reliability actions implemented. Chapter 5 and 6 present the results and findings from the fieldwork carried out in this study. Chapter 7 discusses the research findings. The final part of the thesis consists of

Chapter 8, which presents the conclusion and implications of the study. It also provides recommendations in relation to the study.

1.5 Conclusion

This chapter has laid the foundation for the study, giving the background into Zimbabwe's unstable failing state and how it presents itself. The chapter also defined conflict in relation to Galtung's expanded concepts of peace and violence. The study's objectives were also presented. The next chapter involves an in-depth analysis of literature on peace studies and the possible ways of transforming conflict to move towards sustainable positive peace.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

2.1 Introduction

A literature review is defined as:

> The selection of available documents (both published and unpublished) on the topic, which contain information, ideas, data and evidence written from a particular standpoint to fulfil certain aims or express certain views on the nature of the topic and how it is to be investigated, and the effective evaluation of these documents in relation to the research being proposed (Hart 1998: 13).

A literature review is undertaken to enable a better understanding of the topic, what has already been done, how it has been done, what the findings have been and what the major issues are. As (Hart 1998) highlights, the literature review in a PhD thesis is expected to be:

- An analytical synthesis of all known literature in the area
- A high-level conceptual linking within and across theories
- A summative and formative evaluation of previous work on the problem
- An indication of the depth and breadth of the discussion on relevant philosophical traditions and how they relate to the problems

Figure 2.1 indicates some of the questions that a literature review can answer.

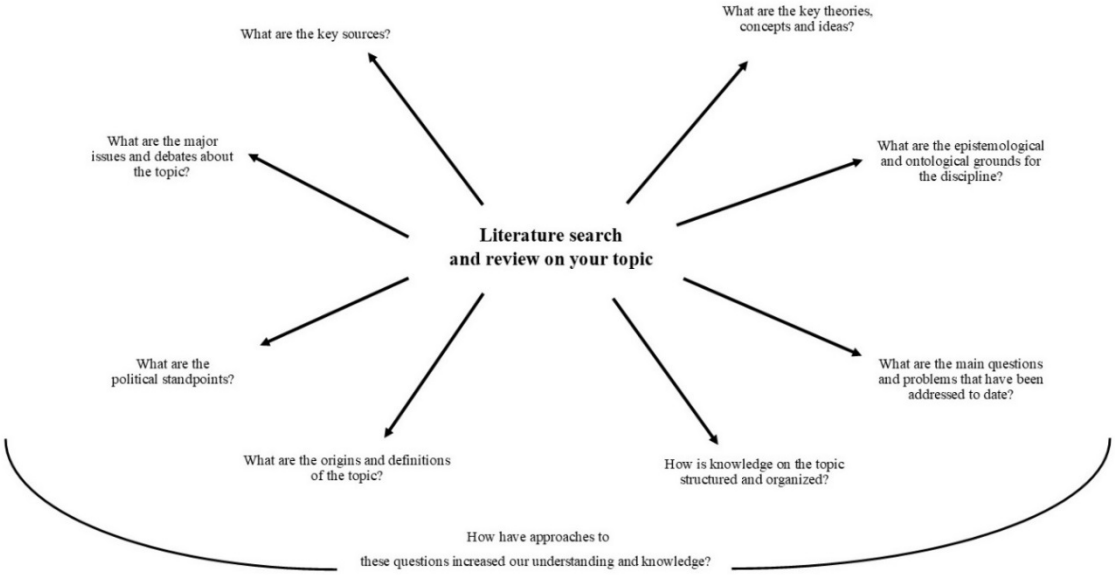


Figure 2.1: Some of the questions the review of literature can answer (Source: Hart 1998: 14).

Therefore, the purpose of this literature review is two-fold: (i) to understand and contribute to the discourse on developments around youth-focused peacebuilding mechanisms and (ii) to identify the appropriate methodology to apply in undertaking this study. The literature review is divided into three parts, namely: (i) an explanation of the peace theory on which this study is premised, (ii) an analysis of how social inequality and structural violence are impacting the lives of youth and how they can contribute to direct violence and (iii) a narrative of youth-focused peacebuilding mechanisms that can be applied. To put matters into context, the research aims and objectives will be laid down before providing the literature review.

2.2 Research Aim and Objectives

The main purpose of this study was to evaluate the potential of youth peacebuilding interventions as tools for promoting sustainable peace in Zimbabwe. As indicated in Chapter 1, the study also focused on producing knowledge on how social entrepreneurial innovations can support youth participation. This was an action research study which was premised on the

overall research aim of evaluating the potential of youth peacebuilding interventions as tools for promoting sustainable peace in Zimbabwe. An action research approach was necessary to achieve the following specific research aims:

1. Explore the nexus between social inequality, negative peace and polarisation in Zimbabwe and how they constitute a vector of conflict and determine their impact on the lives of youth;
2. Identify the training needs and social entrepreneurship opportunities within the community for youth-focused peace infrastructure(s) in the community's context of negative peace;
3. Pilot, through action research, and then evaluate the output of different solutions proposed by youth to promote their participation in political and socio-economic processes in their community and thus contribute towards sustainable positive peace in Zimbabwe.

2.3 Key Concepts of Peace, Violence and Social Inequality

2.3.1 Defining Peace, Violence and Social Inequality

There have been varying definitions of the word *peace*. An outsider looking at the fact that most peacebuilding efforts have focused on post-war situations can conclude that peace is the absence of war. However, peace is more than just the absence of direct violence or war. Webel (2007) states that while peace might be difficult to define, it can be easily recognised by its absence. He depicts peace as the linchpin of social harmony, economic equity and political justice. It is a state of affairs where people dwell together in harmony and tolerance, and where people have equal access to the economic resources of their country and are treated fairly and justly by politicians and those in authority. Peace exists when individuals can freely work towards personal happiness without infringing on other people's liberties.

Galtung (1969) laid the foundation for peace studies. Galtung approached the definition of peace differently. He started by first defining violence and then

proceeded to narrate the interrelationships that are significant for the absence or presence of sustainable peace.

Violence, as Galtung (1969: 168) narrates, occurs when human beings are being influenced such that their actual somatic and mental realisations are below their potential realisations. This violence is mostly experienced through direct violence in many communities. Galtung explains that personal or direct violence involves actors who then cause direct harm through maiming or killing someone such that they fail to reach their potential. The absence of direct personal violence leads to negative peace which may in turn be indicative of a structurally-violent state. Negative peace is characterised by the presence of injustices, inequality and disharmony as well as a glaring absence of violent human conflict. It can be argued that it is only in the absence of structural or indirect violence that a community can experience positive and sustainable peace. While there might be no indication of attacks on people in this instance, there may be a presence of structural or indirect violence.

2.3.2 Structural Violence

Structural violence (SV) is related to the uneven distribution of resources which then leads to the social exclusion and marginalisation of people. Galtung also refers to SV as social injustice characterised by unequal access to education, health, water, food, shelter and other basic services. SV equates to social inequality and leads to impaired human growth and development. SV is the violence of injustice and inequity that is embedded in ubiquitous social structures and normalised by stable institutions and regular experience (Brady, Blome and Kleider 2017; Wahid *et al.* 2017).

Farmer *et al.* (2006: 1686) define structural violence as:

> social arrangements that put individuals and populations in harm's way… The arrangements are structural because they are embedded in the political and economic organization of our social world; they are

violent because they cause injury to people (typically, not those responsible for perpetuating such inequalities).

From these definitions, one can see a clear link between structural violence, social injustice, social inequality, negative peace as well as political and economic systems that do not favour the poor. Structural violence is the invisible harm that people have become accustomed to, finding ways to exist within it (Dilts *et al.* 2012; Winter 2012; De Antoni and Munhós 2017). The narratives of people exposed to structural violence are underpinned by struggles, deaths, frustrations, and feelings of hopelessness and despondency (Angel 2017; Rylko-Bauer and Farmer 2017). In this study, the term *structural violence* refers to legal, economic and social inequality as experienced by Zimbabwean citizens through their daily interactions with various government institutions and public officials.

2.3.3 Cultural Violence

Direct or structural violence is made right by cultural violence. This is the symbolic aspect of ideologies and language used to legitimise structural violence. Cultural violence refers to the rhetoric and excuses that policy-makers and politicians give to justify the continued existence of social injustices within their society (Galtung 1990: 291). The most common excuse given is the government's lack of resources. Most countries that at one stage operated under an oppressive regime such as colonialisation, sanctions or apartheid, usually link their lack of change and equitable inclusion to their historic pasts.

2.3.4 Debate on Galtung's Theory of Violence

Galtung's work has not gone uncriticised. Several scholars have debated on the extended theory of violence. Table 2.1 below summarises Vorobej's (2008) response to Coady's (2007) critique of Galtung's (1969) work. The researcher of this study also adds to it his own views on how the extended theory of structural violence can be used in the present-day setting.

Table 2.1: A critique of Galtung's theory of violence.

Coady's Critique	Vorojeb's Response	This study's contribution
Some unease about this definition… "may lead to more problems than it solves," but this avowal seems to have no more than ritual significance, since no such problems are raised in the course of the article.	Violence is whatever causes people to be less well off than they otherwise could be… peace research… is "an effort to promote the realization of value.	Researching on peace and violence does not follow into a simplistic definition as violence presents differently in each context.
Galtung's definition of violence is subject to a number of absurd counter-examples.	Galtung's definition appeals to how individuals fare overall… is of course appealing to long term consequences… Counter-examples to a definition do not work unless they respect the parameters within which that definition is framed.	The researcher should clearly set their own parameters of what constitutes the violence that they are focusing on and provide a broader definition of that violence.
Galtung's definition allows for structural violence as well as personal violence.	Structural violence occurs when, for example, different individuals within a society enjoy unequal life chances… Furthermore, with respect to the twin evils of personal violence and structural violence… rather than privileging either one of these evils over the other, Galtung elects to regard them as two inextricably linked aspects of a single larger phenomenon – two sides of a single coin.	The lesser visible evil of structural violence should not be ignored. It actually causes more harm to many people than physical/direct violence.

Galtung's work constitutes an exercise in propaganda.	Galtung has a political agenda… language can be used as a weapon to manipulate or injure others. Responsible scholars need to be sensitive to semantics.	Scholars should actively promote the elimination of social harm and be careful not to perpetuate the harm by their usage of wrong words.
There is a more charitable interpretation of Galtung's project and aim, which is to "call attention to genuine similarities between personal and structural violence in the hope that once they are seen, people who are concerned to oppose the violence of, for example, war will also work to oppose… structural violence"… The similarities between personal violence and structural violence seem to be far too few and too general to offset the striking differences between them.	There are, of course, differences between the causes and the consequences of personal and structural violence… both personal and structural violence may result in individuals being treated in exactly the same manner… None of this, of course, implies that there are no differences between personal and structural violence… since structural violence so easily escapes our attention, it stands to reason that, without special effort, the causal relations between personal and structural violence will also likely remain hidden.	The causal relationship between structural violence and personal violence cannot be ignored. Not addressing structural violence can lead to the onset of personal violence.
The morality of personal violence "seems to be different" from the morality of structural violence.	Morally-relevant differences count for more since violence, on any account, is so heavily imbued with moral significance… the morality of personal violence differs markedly from the morality of structural violence. Personal violence is often committed with the intention to harm others whereas, by definition,	The morality of structural violence should not be downplayed because physical violence is committed to harm others. Equally so structural violence harms others and to an even greater extent than physical violence. Hence the two forms of violence are not morally different.

	structural violence is not the direct or immediate product of intentional action.	
Galtung, and like-minded theorists, would not tolerate the idea of a morally-acceptable social injustice, given that social injustice is "usually their primary social evil".	The best overall strategy for combating violence is one that operates on a variety of fronts and employs a variety of tactics while aiming, systematically and relentlessly, at the production of both positive peace and negative peace.	There is no one-size-fits-all in addressing violence. Efforts should be made to tackle violence from all possible angles.

2.3.5 How Structural Violence presents itself

Having laid out the definitions of violence and having determined how it was framed for this thesis, the question that remained was: how does structural violence present itself in our everyday lives? Adam Burtle (2010) highlights that the best way to understand how structural violence presents itself is by thinking of the structural barriers or structural inequality and then extending them to the harm that structural violence causes. Therefore, citizens face structural barriers if they cannot access government services because of the lack of information or their inability to read the language on forms that the services are written on (Zhao *et al.* 2004). Citizens could face structural inequality when the government runs a program whose beneficiaries are only supported when they indicate that they support a ruling political party (Gupta 2013). This has been the ploy used by ZANU-PF in Zimbabwe, where most of the programs, ranging from residential stands allocation to land redistribution to agricultural input support, have been carried out on a partisan basis (Moyo 2000; Raftopoulos and Phimister 2004). Structural violence could mean less health and a shorter life (Amit 2010). This is corroborated in several empirical studies that have been carried out globally (Farmer 1996; Adato, Carter and May 2004; Farmer *et al.* 2006; *ZEPARU 2013; Hodgetts *et al.* 2014; Lichter and Schafft 2016; Shannon *et al.* 2017). As Lee (2016) points out, structural violence is envisioned on five fronts: (i) health

disparities, (ii) increasing poverty, (iii) gender disparities, (iv) racial disparities and (v) contemporary slavery. In many instances, structural violence is exhibited through poverty, high levels of unemployment and social exclusion (*KRANTZ 1960; Zhao *et al.* 2004; Alcock 2012; Gaynor 2015; Hirschfeld 2017; Muderedzi *et al.* 2017). Households become dependent on informal economic activities such as hairstyling, being part-time housemaids or gardeners, vending and working as 'gypsy cab drivers', because they do not report their income to the state (Bonnet and Venkatesh 2016). As Brady, Blome and Kleider (2016) indicate, politics and institutions within the community shape poverty and inequality. Conditions of structural violence also persist through the lack of political or community structures that enhance citizen participation (Gaynor 2015).

2.3.6 The Effects of not addressing Structural Violence

Why should one become so fixated in addressing structural and cultural violence if there is no direct threat to human life when a state is not at war? The fact that these forms of violence are normally covert acts makes it easy for a state to get away with violations. Given the tripartite classification of violence by Johan Galtung, such a country may seem to be peaceful but its citizens are disgruntled and the country sits on a ticking time bomb. While the maintenance of the status quo seems to be good, it has several unfavourable repercussions. It helps to fuel corruption as citizens try to get access to even the most basic of services. The social inequality gap widens and poverty levels increase. The negative peace can be easily transformed into direct violence (Vorobej 2008). Sporadic incidences of violence can spring up, and these subsequently can turn into a civil war or an international crisis. Addressing structural and cultural violence is a critical conflict transformation approach in countries that are not at war and that are experiencing negative peace. At the slightest provocation, people can become violent in an attempt to express their feelings and press for structural change and their emancipation (Ward, Dawes and Matzopoulos 2012).

The failure to adequately address social inequality in countries such as South Africa has made it high-ranking in terms of violent protest (Beall, Crankshaw and

Parnell 2002; Nleya 2011; Mkhabela 2014). Disgruntled citizens have often resorted to spontaneous violent service delivery protests (Allan and Heese 2011). Since mid-2015, university students have carried out protests against their exclusion and the continued existence of apartheid-linked policies, attitudes and memorials in institutions of higher learning (Disemelo 2015; Pather 2016). These protests, at times, become violent and people have been injured while property worth millions has been destroyed during these protests. While the students' demands might have been genuine, the protests have been hijacked by politicians driving their own agendas. This is another weakness of not adequately eliminating structural violence, that is, the political exploitation of marginalised youth. In Zimbabwe, violent protests flared up in the dormitory town of Chitungwiza in January 2016 (Herald Reporters 2016; Matenga 2016). Public transport operators took to the streets in protest against new permit fee charges which they deemed to be too high. The protesters fought running battles with police in violent scenes that lasted for two days.

On the other hand, in response to citizens' protests, dictators can take advantage of a situation and escalate a conflict as in the case of the Syrian Crisis. The Syrian Crisis has developed from a civil war into an international war over the past few years (Musarurwa and Kaye 2016).

2.3.7 Conflict Transformation

a. Theoretical Discourse

Before delving into how conflict can be transformed, it is befitting to explain what conflict is and how it impacts people. Lederach (2003) maintains that conflict is normal in human relations and it actually enables us to identify opportunities. Thus, conflict is a healthy and normal occurrence that needs to be adequately managed. Paffenholz (2009) argues that while it is possible to have solid reflections on the peacebuilding concepts, they have been under-theorised. An analysis and search of existing literature reveals that most peacebuilding efforts and studies have focused on addressing the effects of direct violence witnessed mainly by armed conflicts or physical confrontations (Brück and Milante 2014).

Peacebuilding studies and work have branched out in several areas that seek to address different tenets of peace (Paffenholz 2009). These include conflict management, conflict resolution, conflict transformation and conflict prevention. Lederach (2003) summarises the differences between resolution and transformation when addressing conflict (Table 2.2). This study focuses on conflict transformation and this section will be used to explain its principles and how it relates to addressing negative peace.

Table 2.2: Resolution and Transformation: A Brief Comparison of Perspective.

	Conflict Resolution Perspective	**Conflict Transformation Perspective**
The key question	How do we end something not desired?	How to end something destructive and build something desired?
The focus	It is content-centred.	It is relationship-centred.
The purpose	To achieve an agreement and solution to the presenting problem creating the crisis.	To promote constructive change processes inclusive of – but not limited to – immediate solutions.
The development of the process	It is embedded and built around the immediacy of the relationship where the presenting problems appear.	It envisions the presenting problem as an opportunity for responses to symptoms **and** engagement of systems within which relationships are embedded.
Time frame	The horizon is short-term relief of pain, anxiety and difficulties.	The horizon for change is mid- to long-range and is intentionally crisis-responsive rather than crisis-driven.
View of conflict	It envisions the need to de-escalate conflict processes.	It envisions conflict as an ecology that is a relational dynamic of ebb (conflict de-escalation to pursue constructive change) and flow (conflict escalation to pursue constructive change).

(Source: (Lederach 2003: 33)

b. The Goals of Conflict Transformation

Conflict transformation is aimed at bringing change across the four areas where conflict affects people, namely, at the personal, relational, structural and cultural levels. The goals of such conflict transformation which Lederach (2003: 27) presents, are indicated in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Change goals in conflict transformation.

Level of conflict	Change goals in conflict transformation
Personal	• Minimise destructive effects of social conflict and maximise the potential for growth and well-being in the person as an individual human being at the physical, emotional, intellectual and spiritual levels.
Relational	• Minimise poorly-functioning communication and maximise understanding. • Bring out and work with fears and hopes related to emotions and interdependence in the relationship.
Structural	• Understand and address root causes and social conditions that give rise to violent and other harmful expressions of conflict. • Promote nonviolent mechanisms that reduce adversarial confrontation and that minimise and ultimately eliminate violence. • Foster the development of structures to meet basic human needs (substantive justice) and to maximise participation of people in decisions that affect their lives (procedural justice).
Cultural	• Identify and understand the cultural patterns that contribute to the rise of violent expressions of conflict. • Identify and build upon resources and mechanisms within a cultural setting for constructively responding to and handling conflict.

(Source: Lederach 2003: 27)

c. Conflict Transformation and Conflict Mapping

Addressing conflict is not a linear process but rather a process where one moves from the immediate issue to the better future in both circular and linear fashion. As Lederach (2003: 34) reveals, conflict transformation can be visualised in a conflict map that depicts its three main components, which represent a point of inquiry in the development of the strategy and responses to conflict (Figure 2.2). These three points of inquiry are: (i) the presenting situation, (ii) the horizon of future and (iii) the development of change processes.

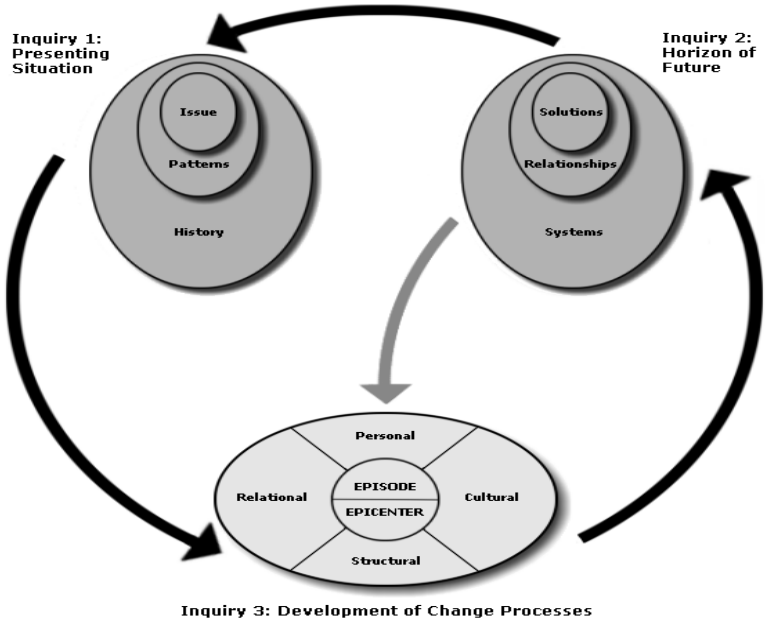


Figure 2.2: The big picture of conflict transformation (Source: Lederach 2003: 35)

Inquiry 1: The presenting situation:

As Lederach (2003: 34) indicates, this inquiry consists of three embedded spheres. The sphere of immediate issues is embedded in the sphere of patterns, which in turn is embedded in the sphere of history. This serves to remind one that immediate issues occur in a context or pattern of relationships and structures that have a history. People have the ability to understand what happened, how human interactions shaped current events and how they can be changed to help in designing the change.

Inquiry 2: The horizon of the future:
This is a set of spheres that suggest an open and dynamically evolving future. As Lederach (2003: 36) explains, this space of engagement and exploration has smaller spheres, namely, the immediate solutions and relationship structures. They look at the possible way of addressing the immediate presenting issues as well as the process affecting relational and structural patterns.

Inquiry 3: The development of change processes:
This is the sphere where one thinks of the responses to conflict as a development of processes of change that attend to the web of connected needs, relationships and patterns at the personal, relational and structural levels. Transformation requires the carrying out of multiple interdependent initiatives which are different but not incompatible (Lederach 2003: 38).

d. How Conflict Transformation addresses Structural Violence

Conflict transformation can help to address structural violence conflicts because it provides processes and ways to build something desired, thus altering the manifestation of the conflict (Waldman 2009). Conflict transformation involves action between parties that leads to both social change and justice (Evans 2016). This process involves co-creation and collaboration as the different stakeholders act to transform their community from negative peace to sustainable positive peace. Dijk (2009) explains that conflict transformation brings different actors together to work towards an identified common goal that addresses the root causes of the conflict. Galtung (2007) further explains that conflict transformation focuses on the relationships between parties and how these can be improved through peaceful transformation or change. It looks at a paradigm shift in dealing with conflict and involves a large amount of negotiations and transcendence beyond the goals of the parties. As narrated by Paffenholz (2009), conflict transformation adopts a bottom-up approach that works through grassroots empowerment. Reducing violence requires that justice issues be addressed by tackling the presenting issues and the content of an episode of the conflict as well as its underlying patterns and causes (Lederach 2003: 21). Conflict

transformation therefore becomes the relevant lens through which structural violence and negative peace can be viewed.

2.3.8 Non-Violent Action as a Response to Structural Violence

As stated in section 2.1, there have been violent reactions to social injustice and SV in South Africa and Zimbabwe. While violence might come naturally as the best way to capture the attention of the authorities, there is always a non-violent alternative to express dissent (Musarurwa, Akande and Rukuni 2016). Non-violent action (NVA) was popularised by Mahatma Gandhi and Martin Luther King Jr in their marches across India and the United States of America, respectively (King 1999). The many specific methods of NVA are classified into three groups: (i) protest and persuasion, (ii) non-cooperation and (iii) non-violent intervention (Sharp 2013: 23). Examples of these include formal statements, petitions, social boycotts, stay-away, sit-ins, guerrilla theatre and non-violent land seizures. Gandhi is famed for the defiant Salt March of 1930 held in protest to the Salt Laws imposed on the natives by British colonialists (King 1999: 61), while King Jr. led the non-violent sit-ins and freedom rides against racial segregation in America (King 1999: 134).

As indicated by Sharp (2003), NVA has the potential of bringing better results and success than the violent option. The key source of power of NVA is the local people and the cooperation of different stakeholders (Ackerman and Duvall 2005). Therefore, NVA ties in with the social entrepreneurship drive that this thesis sought to test. NVA thrives on and helps promote social cohesion since it is a collaborative effort of different actors.

In the chronicles of the work done by Bernard LaFayette Jr., Lafayette Jr and Johnson (2013: 165-168) give insights into Martin Luther King Jr.'s Six Principles of Non-violence. These six principles are key in addressing any form of conflict, and in particular SV.

Principle 1: Non-violence is a way of life for courageous people:

This principle requires there to be a focus on the heart of the conflict, and ways of dealing with issues and problems in a positive and constructive way are sought.

Principle 2: The beloved community is the framework for the future:
The thrust would be to create a community where people live together in harmony with no oppressor and no oppressed. This calls for inclusivity, sharing, trusting and loving one another. People can be brought together in trusting, respectful relationships in order to reduce any fear or mistrust that might prevail in the community.

Principle 3: Attack forces of evil, not persons doing evil:
This calls for the need to understand the root of the problem that produces the oppressive conditions and then how to change the contingencies that feed that condition. Thus, attacking individuals will be counter-productive in addressing the conflict.

Principle 4: Accept suffering for the sake of the cause without retaliation to achieve the goal:
This does not mean accepting abuse and punishment with no response. However, it requires a response that must be consistent with the goals that are sought such that the suffering is not in a vacuum but is in the context of the campaign for change.

Principle 5: Avoid internal violence of the spirit as well as external physical violence:
When hurtful words are used, they do internal harm to a person's spirit. These words also unconsciously do damage to one's own spirit when one allows oneself to become hateful towards others.

Principle 6: The arc of the moral universe is long and bends toward justice:
We must maintain faith that no matter how dim the hour, how dark the night or how cloudy the moment, the end goal is reachable.

Sharp (2005) reveals the following about NVA:

1. NVA has nothing to do with passivity, submissiveness or cowardice. It's simply choosing an alternative to the natural reaction of being violent.
2. NVA is a powerful means of conducting conflict and is an extremely different phenomenon from all types of violence.
3. NVA is a technique that involves the use of psychological, social, economic and political power. It is not verbal persuasion.
4. In order for NVA to be successful, people do not have to be pacifists or saints. They simply need to be determined to achieve their cause through peaceful means.

Given the repressive way the government has responded to protestors in past years, NVA becomes an appropriate route to take in advocating and demanding for structural transformation in Zimbabwe. However, non-violent action does not take place spontaneously but rather follows periods of strategic planning and good leadership. Successful non-violent actions that have been documented in history have been accompanied with strong strategic thinking and communication skills. NVA requires a lot of community mobilisation and training. Ordinary citizens need to be skilled on how to act non-violently when faced with a violent reaction to their demands. Great leaders in NVA such as Mahatma Gandhi and Martin Luther King Jr. provided leadership and also proved to be strategic thinkers as they led citizen resistance. Therefore, providing youth with civic or peace education needs to be carried out together with planning sessions in the bid to address social inequality and SV. It is probably for this reason that attempts by a civil resistance movements such as Tajamuka/Ses'jikile, This Flag and Occupy Africa Unity Square in Zimbabwe, between 2016 and 2018, failed to be sustained and yielded few if any results.

Since the SV in Zimbabwe is usually portrayed by high levels of corruption, inefficient service delivery, and restricted access to basic services such as health,

water and education, youth can adopt a number of solutions from the 198 prescribed by Sharp (2015). The main aim of such NVA would be to push the local government to act and actively curtail the impact of SV amongst residents. The following strategies could be appropriate to augment any efforts to address SV on the ground:

1. Community mobilisation and anti-corruption awareness campaigns
2. Non-payment of taxes or tariffs
3. Naming and shaming of corrupt officials and ministers
4. Messages sensitising people on the public services where any generated revenue could have been used

2.4 Youth Participation

2.4.1 Youth Participation defined

Before defining youth participation, it is exigent to contextualise the youth in Africa. It is no mistake that the African Union (2006) identifies those aged between 15 and 35 as youth. This is indeed a reflection of the slow pace in which self-dependency and empowerment takes place on the African continent. It is very common to find young adults in their early thirties still struggling to attain a social status that youth in their mid-twenties will have already surpassed in the West.

Youth participation enables youth to show their expertise and contribute to a democratic society while exercising their rights (Evans and Prillelrensky 2007. It is also an opportunity for self-development as well as knowledge and skills transfer amongst youth (Checkoway and Aldana 2013). Youth participation also helps young people to transition into adulthood and take on societal development issues at an early age (Flanagan and Levine 2010; Arnot and Swartz 2013). Checkoway (2011) postulates that youth participation:

- is a right,
- assumes youth as competent citizens,

- is facilitated by young leaders and adult allies,
- aims to address the limitless issues faced by youth,
- has several strategies and is not a one-size-fits-all process, and
- involves active engagement rather than passive presence or token roles.

Being able to understand these elements can help in identifying ways of improving youth participation.

2.4.2 How young people participate

Several studies reveal that youth participation is multi-pronged and happens at both the meso- and maso-levels. It occurs whenever young citizens take part in junior councils, debate and dialogue sessions, self-employment, religious functions, and community service and sports activities (Checkoway 2009; Flanagan and Levine 2010; Berents and McEvoy-Levy 2015). Berents and McEvoy-Levy (2015) aver that in whichever way that youth participate, they will be trying to address their vulnerability and prolonged structural exclusion. The report by Mutisi, Olonisakin and Ismail (2017) indicates that the youth's activities go beyond earning a living and transcend societal boundaries. The report argues that:

> The coping strategies are also linked to solidarity and social networking, which provide platforms for exercising voice and citizenship in non-violent ways. In short, youth coping activities transcend mere wages and livelihoods to connect with social processes, including societal transformation in terms of progressive change in societal mind-sets, values and norms, structures, processes and outlooks (Mutisi, Olonisakin and Ismail 2017: 46).

2.4.3 Barriers to Youth Participation

While youth are energetic, willing to act and can be great change-makers, there are some hindrances that they face with regards to participation. Chief amongst them is what is termed 'mild ephebiphobia' or 'adultism'. This is manifested when adults believe that they are the ones to prescribe solutions for youth because they know better than the young people. McEvoy-Levy (2012) supports this view when

she argues that adult idealism sees youth as lacking knowledge and experience. This results in adults being unwilling to give youth any political or economic space. Resultantly, most, if not all, political parties across Africa are guilty of closing political space to youth. This exclusion is achieved by depriving the youth socio-economically and making them dependent on adults. This renders them susceptible to exploitation and control by the 'empowered' few in the political hierarchy who have the political and financial muscle to 'buy' the energy of the youth. When it happens that the youth do participate in these processes, it is more a gesture of tokenism. Their views are never taken seriously and are overridden by adults. This diminishes the desire by young people to take part in any discussions or events when they feel that they are just adding to the numbers.

Aside from adultism, the youth themselves are to blame for the low participation levels due to the lack of interest and their need to earn an income (Mercy Corps 2013). Other barriers include: the lack of capacity; the lack of financial resources; the lack of information and the absence of a culture of positive engagement (Lührmann 2013; Qasem 2013; Agbiboa 2015).

2.4.4 Ways to improve Youth Participation

As a way to promote youth participation, (Checkoway 2011) proposes that youth should be viewed as a vital source of information since they are 'experts in being young'. This justifies the need for adults to give youth space and opportunities to engage meaningfully in activities since the youth have first-hand experience in the current challenges that they face. Policy-makers and development agencies agree on the need to enhance youth participation (Argenti 2002; Lührmann 2013). To this very end, the international community has developed several resolutions and conventions for ratification and adoption at the national level. For example, the UNDP (2014) Youth Strategy suggested a four-pronged approach toward youth empowerment and enhanced youth participation. This approach includes:

1. Supporting capacity development of young people and youth organisations

2. Engaging through the outreach, advocacy and mainstreaming of youth issues in all spheres of development planning
3. Having an influence through thought leadership, global policy debates and networks
4. Sustaining progress by supporting national youth policy development and implementation

Waldman (2009) makes recommendations on how to rehabilitate youth that have been involved in direct violence through armed conflicts – these are also deemed appropriate by the researcher of this study in supporting youth affected by structural violence. The following eight are some of the programs that Waldman recommends:

1. Education and skills development
2. Vocational training and education
3. Employment and income generation
4. Reproductive health programming
5. Basic skills training
6. Peace Education – conflict resolution/transformation training
7. Youth empowerment, voice and inclusion
8. Psycho-social programming

The aforementioned solutions are in sync with the International Labour Organisations' 2012 advocated multi-pronged approach that is hinged on five pillars, as cited in O'Higgins (2017). These pillars are:

- Employment and economic policies for youth employment
- Employability – education, training and skills, and the school-to-work transition
- Labour market policies
- Youth entrepreneurship and self-employment
- Rights for young people

Mercy Corps (2013) and Waldman (2009) state that youth-focused interventions must be based on five key principles which are:

- A multi-sectoral approach to reduce youth participation in direct violence
- Economic engagement and meaningful work
- Amplification of the youth's voice in political participation
- Strengthening connections between the youth and the community as well as with other youth
- Valuing youth narratives and therefore creating platforms for their stories to be heard.

Vorobej (2008) interprets Galtung's beliefs to be that the best strategy to combat violence is one which operates from different fronts and uses different tactics while aiming, systematically and relentlessly, at the production of both positive and negative peace. Therefore, interventions that give youth entrepreneurial skills and gainful employment can lead to their improved participation in socio-economic and political processes, thereby tackling structural violence and promoting sustainable positive peace.

2.5 Peacebuilding Mechanisms

It becomes clear that mechanisms that address structural violence and social inequality stop countries from sliding into direct violence. An analysis and search of existing literature reveals that most peacebuilding efforts and mechanisms have focused on addressing the effects of direct violence stemming mainly from armed conflicts or physical confrontations (Brück and Milante 2014). This section argues how youth-focused initiatives coupled with social entrepreneurship (SE) can be the appropriate peacebuilding mechanism in non-violent countries that are living under conditions of structural violence and socio-economic inequalities.

With regards to youth-focused peacebuilding initiatives, without the support to address economic and educational opportunities, the youth continue to

experience structural violence and high levels of social inequality (Cardozo *et al.* 2015). This leads them to accept the continued justification made by policy-makers and politicians for the government's lack of action, a form of cultural violence in its own right. Many times, youth-focused peacebuilding efforts have applied interventions involving sports, music and arts. While these approaches have their merits in keeping youth occupied and away from harmful practices, they fail to solve one pertinent challenge that drives youth towards violence; they do not provide youth with a means to become economically independent and in the process, reduce their vulnerability to being exploited or being driven into violent behaviour. The researcher of this study contends that while youth might become preoccupied with sporting or artistic activities when they return to a household that is economically challenged and where there is no support for sustainable livelihoods, the drive to attain an income through violent means remains.

The role of youth as peacebuilders is too often underplayed and it was only as recent as December 2015 when the United Nations Security Council (UNSC), made this recognition. The UNSC adopted a resolution that all member states should recognise and support the important role of youth in building everlasting global peace (UNSC 2015). McEvoy-Levy (2013) goes on to stress that youth are innovative, possessing and utilising different forms of power and expressing themselves through different means of peacebuilding activities. There are growing calls to support the efforts of innovative young peacebuilders by providing data and knowledge on the effectiveness of their efforts.

Mercy Corps (2013) carry out their peacebuilding interventions on the basis that youth are a force to be reckoned with in positive change and sustainable community transformation. Their programs are hinged on the following principles, amongst others, and these can be replicated in the design and development of youth peacebuilding mechanisms:

- A multi-sectoral approach to reduce youth participation in violence

- Economic engagement and meaningful work
- Amplification of the youth's voice in political participation
- Strengthening connections between the youth and the community as well as with other youth

According to the Mercy Corps (2013) report, youth participation in peacebuilding programs is hampered by the youth's lack of interest and their need to earn an income. Therefore, interventions which ensure that youth acquire entrepreneurial skills and are gainfully employed can be successful in peacebuilding. Enabling the youth to earn an income allows them to tackle poverty thus reducing, if not completely removing, their vulnerability (Atashi 2009). However, Izzi (2013b) challenges this focus on youth employment creation as a tool which increases social cohesion and reduces the risk of violence. Using examples from post-war interventions carried out in Western Africa, she argues that employment creation may be successful if it correctly targets the youth at 'risk' who are likely to resort to violence. This is premised on the fact that youth are not homogenous and only a few young people engage in violence while the majority show resilience under adverse circumstances. Given this position, the researcher of this study proposes a shift from using traditional business entrepreneurship programs and adopting SE as a tool that can bring about sustainable change. This proposition will be explained in the next section. (Krige 2015) supports this in her discussion on how SE offers an opportunity to advance socio-economic development in the South African context.

2.6 Social Entrepreneurship (SE) as a Peacebuilding Mechanism

2.6.1 Defining Social Entrepreneurship

While there has been increasing interest in SE (Santos 2012; Choi and Majumdar 2014), scholars and practitioners have not reached a consensus on how to define it (Certo and Miller 2008; Zahra *et al.* 2009). Defining SE has, however, been approached by looking at it from different perspectives (Martin and Osberg 2007,

2015). Neck, Brush and Allen (2009: 14) state that “there are process based definitions including the creation of non-profits, new structures to solve social problems, innovative behaviour for social objectives and social value creating activities; and then there are entrepreneur-centric definitions.” SE was initially seen as an activity undertaken by non-profit organisations wanting to raise funds to finance charitable works (GIBS 2018). Later, social entrepreneurship was positioned as a type of entrepreneurship (Neck, Brush and Allen 2009), with the distinction that the motivating focus was social impact. The tension between pursuing financial gain versus pursuing social benefits further compounds the challenge of defining SE (Zahra *et al.* 2009). The social enterprises that SE create are multidisciplinary and also vary in size and scope (GIBS 2018). In this regard, any definition must embrace simple local initiatives, such as supplying books to an isolated school in Nepal (Dempsey and Sanders 2010), to the more complex initiatives, such as the Fairtrade initiative (Nicholls 2010). Another major aspect that has been noted by some scholars is the importance of context in the emergence of social enterprises, particularly in Africa (Rivera-Santos *et al.* 2015). With that in mind, definitions from literature have been put together in Table 2.4 and grouped according to the dimensions that they depict SE.

Table 2.4: Defining social entrepreneurship. **Error! No sequence specified.**

Dimension	Definition	Source
Identifies disequilibrium	… a process of creating value by combining resources in new ways … intended primarily to explore and exploit opportunities to create social value by stimulating social change or meeting social needs. Social entrepreneurship is the: 1) identification of a stable yet unjust equilibrium which the excludes, marginalises or causes suffering to a group which lacks the means to transform the equilibrium; 2) identification of an opportunity and developing a new social value proposition to challenge the equilibrium, and 3) forging a new, stable	(Mair and Marti 2006) (Martin and Osberg 2007)

	equilibrium to alleviate the suffering of the targeted group through imitation and creation of a stable ecosystem around the new equilibrium to ensure a better future for the group and society.	
Has a social mission	A major change agent, one whose core values centre on identifying, addressing and solving societal problems. The work of community, voluntary and public organisations as well as private firms working for social rather than only profit objectives.	(Drayton 2002) (Shaw 2004) (Lepoutre *et al.* 2013)
Promotes social value	Social Entrepreneurship is the creation of viable socio-economic structures, relations, institutions, organisations and practices that yield and sustain social benefits. A multidimensional construct involving the expression of entrepreneurially virtuous behaviour to achieve the social mission…the ability to recognise social value creating opportunities and key decision-making characteristics of innovation, proactiveness and risk-taking.	(Fowler 2000) (Sullivan Mort, Weerawardena and Carnegie 2002)
Applies innovation	Creates innovative solutions to immediate social problems and mobilises the ideas, capacities, resources and social arrangements required for social transformations Entrepreneurs motivated by social objectives to instigate some form of new activity or venture. Applying practical, innovative and sustainable approaches to benefit society in general, with an emphasis on those who are marginalised and poor.	(Alvord, Brown and Letts 2004) (Schwab Foundation. 2005) (Villeneuve-Smith and Temple 2015)
Location of the SE	Social enterprises can be found in rural or poorer areas, serving customers and beneficiaries in otherwise underserved markets and are often highly localised in focus.	(Rivera-Santos *et al.* 2015) (Dacin, Dacin and Matear 2010)

2.6.2 Types of Social Entrepreneurs

According to Zahra *et al.* (2009), social entrepreneurs vary in how they discover social opportunities, determine their impact on the broader social system, and assemble the resources needed to pursue these opportunities – thus there are three types of social entrepreneurs, namely: the social bricoleur, the social constructionist, and the social engineer. The social bricoleurs usually focus on discovering and addressing small-scale local social needs while the social constructionists typically exploit opportunities and market failures by filling gaps to underserved clients in order to introduce reforms and innovations to the broader social system, and the social engineers recognise systemic problems within existing social structures and address them by introducing revolutionary change (Zahra *et al.* 2009). Table 2.5 below highlights the main characteristics of each social entrepreneur typology.

Table 2.5: A typology of social entrepreneurship.

Type	Social Bricoleur	Social Constructionist	Social Engineer
Theoretical inspiration	Hayek	Kirzner	Schumpeter
What they do?	Perceive and act upon opportunities to address local social needs, they are motivated and have the expertise and resources to address.	Build and operate alternative structures to provide goods and services addressing social needs that governments, agencies, and businesses cannot.	Creation of newer, more effective social systems designed to replace existing ones when they are ill-suited to address significant social needs.
Scale, scope and timing	Small-scale, local in scope – often episodic in nature.	Small- to large-scale, local to international in scope, designed to be institutionalised to address an ongoing social need.	Very large-scale that is national to international in scope and which seeks to build lasting structures that will challenge existing order.

Why they are necessary?	Knowledge about social needs and the abilities to address them are widely scattered. Many social needs are non-discernible or easily misunderstood from afar, requiring local agents to detect and address them.	Laws, regulation, political acceptability, inefficiencies and/or lack of will prevent existing governmental and business organisations from addressing many important social needs effectively.	Some social needs are not amenable to amelioration within existing social structures. Entrenched incumbents can thwart actions to address social needs that undermine their own interests and source of power.
Social Significance	Collectively, their actions help maintain social harmony in the face of social problems.	They mend the social fabric where it is torn, address acute social needs within existing broader social structures, and help maintain social harmony.	They seek to rip apart existing social structures and replace them with new ones. They represent an important force for social change in the face of entrenched incumbents.
Effect on Social Equilibrium	Atomistic actions by local social entrepreneurs move us closer to a theoretical "social equilibrium."	Addressing gaps in the provision of socially significant goods and service creates new "social equilibriums."	Fractures existing social equilibrium and seeks to replace it with a more socially efficient one.
Source of Discretion	Being on the spot with the skills to address local problems not on others' "radars." Local scope means they have limited resource requirements and are fairly autonomous. Small-scale and local scope	They address needs left un-addressed and have limited/no competition. They may even be welcomed and be seen as a "release valve" preventing negative publicity/social problems that may adversely affect existing	Popular support to the extent that existing social structures and incumbents are incapable of addressing important social needs.

	allows for quick response times.	governmental and business organizations.	
Limits to Discretion	Not much aside from local laws and regulations. However, the limited resources and expertise they possess limit their ability to address other needs or expand geographically.	Need to acquire financial and human resources necessary to fulfil mission and institutionalise as a going concern. Funder demands oversight. Professional volunteers and employees are needed to operate organisation.	Seen as fundamentally illegitimate by established parties that see them as a threat, which brings scrutiny and attempts to undermine the ability of the social engineers to bring about change. The perceived illegitimacy will inhibit the ability to raise financial and human resources from traditional sources. As a consequence, they may become captive of the parties that supply it with needed resources.

(Source: Zahra *et al.* 2009)

2.6.3 Key Aspects of Social Entrepreneurship

Baporikar (2016) states that SE has three main components: (i) identification of an unjust equilibrium that perpetuates exclusion, marginalisation and the suffering of people, (ii) opportunity identification and innovatively challenging the status quo to add social value and (iii) provision of a better future for the marginalised through creating a new and stable alternative equilibrium. Social entrepreneurs thus focus on the social return of investment rather than the economic profit of the enterprise that they are running (Musarurwa 2014; Baporikar 2016). They are able to channel their energy to amplifying the operations that are multiplying the social value that they are creating. Social value

in this regard has nothing to do with profits that social enterprises make but "instead involves the fulfilment of basic and longstanding needs such as providing food, water, shelter, education and medical services for those members of the society who are in need" (Certo and Miller 2008: 267). In the end, the main beneficiaries are the community members as opposed to an individual or external shareholder. SE can thus get community input and support once the social entrepreneurs prove how they will help address inequalities, close the access gap and create social values. However, communities should overcome the challenge, coalescing and building consensus on the best way and means to enact the positive social change (Lumpkin, Bacq and Pidduck 2018). This, according to Lumpkin, Bacq and Pidduck (2018), is tackled by SE providing communities with various types of capacity-building for effective social interactions. The scholars further assert that such efforts therefore address both bridging (external) and bonding (internal) forms of social capital.

2.6.4 How Social Entrepreneurship fits into Conflict Transformation

Given the fact that youth are energetic and willing to act, they have the potential to be notable change-makers and to exhibit the characteristics of social entrepreneurs. Their role in the community is extensive and most of their actions reveal their energetic nature. Interestingly, the Soweto Uprising of 1976, which shook the echelons of apartheid and started the process of transforming structural violence in South Africa, was started by youth who were demanding a change in the oppressive and segregated education system. On the other hand, young people can display their energy through aggressive acts of violence, as seen in the case of the child rebel soldiers of the Lord's Resistance Army of Uganda.

The researcher of this study therefore proposes the adoption of SE as a tool to bring about sustainable change. Providing youth with civic or peace education alone cannot be effective in addressing social inequality and structural violence. SE support becomes the final ingredient that completes the empowerment of youth, giving them the capacity to be independent decision-makers who will not

be easily swayed into violence. This study therefore focused on the relationship between SE and the provision of social change, focussing in particular on the social bricoleurs, since they usually have local knowledge and understand the problem as they are living with it. They are more likely to be able to move the community closer to the intended social equilibrium. In this regard, the study set to build the capacity of a team of social bricoleurs who could help explore if SE could be more effective in conflict transformation efforts that put the youth's needs in the forefront.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter has laid down the theoretical foundations of the study based on the review of existing literature. It has provided definitions of the key theories of peace, structural violence, conflict transformation, youth participation and social entrepreneurship. The chapter has also linked up these theories to structural violence transformation and how youth peacebuilding mechanisms can be used in the process. The next chapter will build on the literature review by citing some empirical studies that support the theoretical framework of the study. The chapter will also endeavour to identify existing knowledge gaps and propose ways in which this study will endeavour to contribute to the existing knowledge.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW EMPIRICAL STUDIES

3.1 Introduction

The overall aim of the literature review undertaken in this study was to provide: (i) an explanation of the peace theory on which this study is premised, (ii) an analysis of how social inequality and structural violence are impacting the lives of youth and how they can contribute to direct violence and (iii) a narrative of youth-focused peacebuilding mechanisms that can be applied. To this end, the previous chapter has laid the thesis' theoretical foundations. This chapter will not venture into theoretical or academic debate but will rather provide findings from empirical studies that have been done in the key areas of this thesis. This is done with the aim to share knowledge that is already in the public domain, so that comparisons can also be made with this study's findings. This study will also landscape the methodologies and research designs applied in previous studies. The focus of this study will be in the following precise aspects: (i) structural violence indicators, (ii) conflict transformation approaches, (iii) youth participation and (iv) social entrepreneurship application in addressing social injustices.

3.2 Structural Violence Indicators and Effects

3.2.1 Structural Violence Indicators

From the literature summarised in Table 3.1, it can be concluded that the major indicators of the existence of SV in any society include: (i) health disparities and shorter life expectancy, (ii) increasing poverty, (iii) gender disparities, (iv) racial disparities, (v) contemporary slavery and (vi) corruption.

Table 3.1: Structural violence indicators.

Authors	Aim of The Article	Key Findings	Method	Focal Populations
Farmer 2009	To illustrate the effects of SV using examples of women from poor communities	• Life choices are structured by racism, sexism, political violence, and grinding poverty. • The poor are not only more likely to suffer; they are also more likely to have their suffering silenced.	Qualitative	Individuals from Haiti
Adato, Carter and May 2004	To explore poverty traps and persistent poverty	• A dynamic poverty threshold and a low-level poverty trap equilibrium. • Social networks and relations at best seem to stabilise incomes but provide little in the way of longer-term accumulation or economic advance. • The broader problem of poverty alleviation seems unlikely to be resolved until deeper structural changes make time and markets work more effectively for the broader community of all South Africans.	Mixed methods	Individuals in South Africa.
Farmer *et al.* 2006	To discuss examples of the impact of structural violence upon people	• It is possible to decrease the extent to which social inequalities become embodied as health disparities.	Case study	Multi-site study in rural Rwanda, rural Haiti and Baltimore

	living with HIV	• It is possible to address structural violence through structural interventions. • Proximal interventions, while being remote from the practice of clinical medicine, can also lessen premature morbidity and mortality.		
Hodgetts *et al.* 2014	To analyse the impacts of increased social stratification and structural violence on the marginalised families as they interacted with a government welfare agency.	• Reveal the dysfunction of relations of bondage between a state institution and families in need. • Specific interpersonal interactions constitute moments in the reproduction of violent systemically patterned relations of power. • Families in need are treated unfairly by a state institution tasked with their care.	Qualitative	Draws on the accounts of 100 families in Auckland
Shannon *et al.* 2017	To explore the intersection of gender inequities with other social inequalities in the production of health and disease using a structural violence approach.	• Inequity was driven most overtly by economic status. • Individual value and the quality of treatment received from staff were perceived to be influenced by how much money you had. • Poverty, ethnicity, geography and gender served as significant barriers to healthcare in both rural and urban settings.	Qualitative	Families in Peru's Amazon

3.2.2 Health Disparities and Shorter Life

SV is often a major determinant of the distribution and outcome of disease and remains a high-ranking cause of premature death and disability, with diseases such as AIDS becoming the diseases of the poor (Farmer *et al.* 2006b; Mathieson *et al.* 2008; Jackson, Deborah and Saltman 2011). As Farmer *et al.* (2006: 1689) argue, health disparities can be seen through the "enormous flaw in the dominant model of medical care where medical services are sold as commodities". This means that access to healthcare will remain available only to those who can purchase them (Buzuzi *et al.* 2016; Green 2018). The level of care for the poor is very low, whereas a person with money or good medical aid is treated very differently. Therefore, the countries with high levels of poverty will have many people failing to have access to basic medical services. Despite first-line consultation being provided in some cases, some people will die due to failure to purchase prescription drugs. Most countries that prominently exhibit SV indicators, such as poverty and inequality, often experience disease outbreaks. This was the case in the Ebola outbreak in Sierra Leone and the Democratic Republic of Congo (Hewlett and Hewlett 2005; Wilkinson and Leach 2015), the prolonged cholera epidemic of Haiti (Lemay-Hébert 2014; Koski-Karell *et al.* 2016), and the intermittent cholera and typhoid outbreaks in Zimbabwe (Mason 2009; Makwara 2012).

With more and more people being predisposed to HIV infection due to the prevalence of transactional sex (Brodish 2015) amongst the poor, poverty reduction can lead to pro-poor growth that should help narrow health inequalities (Fox 2010). Farmer *et al.* (2006) also propose that health disparities can be addressed through proximal interventions that are not directly linked to clinical medicine. These interventions would include issues such as legislation to promote generic medications, improved distribution networks for Anti-retroviral Therapy (ART) and infant formula, clean-water campaigns, the development of alternative fuels, enhancing agricultural production, creating new jobs outside of the agricultural

sector, and addressing gender inequality through legislation on land tenure and political representation. This shows that SV needs to be tackled through a multi-pronged approach for it to be addressed and in order for inequality to be reduced. A useful example of how health disparities were addressed is the case of the Treatment Action Campaign (TAC), which tackled the problem of denying ARTs to patients with AIDS. The TAC applied a united approach that brought in a wide range of stakeholders to advocate for improved access to ARTs by the marginalised. The activists remained resolute and applied different community mobilisation and engagement methods which pressured the policy-makers to overhaul the health system and led to accessible ARTs for everyone in South Africa. The South African ART program is touted as one of the best practices of healthcare support in the developing world.

3.2.3 Increasing Poverty, Extreme Wealth and Inequality

SV is also exhibited through poverty, high levels of unemployment and social exclusion (Alcock 2012; Gaynor 2015; Hirschfeld 2017; Muderedzi *et al.* 2017). As Brady, Blome and Kleider (2016) indicate, politics and institutions within the community shape poverty and inequality. Poverty alleviation programs are not turning the situation around since they fail to address the structural disparities that underlie most poor communities (Adato, Carter and May 2004). Instead of economic emancipation being provided for the poor, they are forced to continue to find ways of surviving in times of increasing poverty. These households become dependent on informal economic activity (Venkatesh 2008; Fox *et al.* 2013; Bonnet and Venkatesh 2016). On the other hand, unfavourable socio-economic conditions lead to tensions, a proliferation of street kids and high crime rates (Moyo 2008b; van der Merwe, Dawes and Ward 2012; Kanjanda and Chiparange 2015). Youth participation is a key catalyst for poverty eradication (Nejati, Pourezzat and Gholipour 2013).

While those in the lower echelons of society continue to be trapped in a state of poverty, countries with SV are also presented with high levels of inequality. An

example is South Africa which has an extremely high Gini co-efficient of 0.65 regardless of the fact that it is a middle-income country (Bhorat, Naidoo and Pillay 2016). Such levels of inequality expose people to the risks of mental health deterioration (Burns, Tomita and Lund 2017). In such circumstances, another form of structural violence is seen as laws very often favour the wealthy. The wealthy can 'buy' politicians who in turn are elected and control laws governing the use of capital and provisions for the poor. Zimbabwe and South Africa have had their fair share of scandals that link politicians to cartels (Bhorat *et al.* 2017). The State Capture saga in South Africa is a classic example of how business people have used wealth to usurp power and control the government through ministerial appointments and the awarding of business tenders.

3.2.4 Gender Disparities

Gender disparities are exhibited by the fact that women across the world are confronted with sexism and power differentials because men dominate political, legal and economic institutions to varying degrees (Farmer 2009). Women are therefore at a risk of suffering different forms of rights violations (Cross Riddle 2017; Shannon *et al.* 2017). Some women have been exposed to fatal domestic violence in relationships where the men have equally used their anger from being unemployed or the fact that they are the ones controlling the financial resources as reasons to abuse their partners (Anderson 2005; Sokoloff and Dupont 2005; Makaudze and Gudhlanga 2012).

Gender disparities are also fueled by cultural and religious beliefs or practices. With most poor people being very religious, this presents a problem of transforming attitudes embedded in communities and religious institutions that perpetuate gender disparities. Without a change of attitude, there is no reason to advocate for policies that would lead to a reduction in the disparities, as the attitudes drive the behavior and the laws.

3.2.5 Racial Disparities

Racial classifications have been used to deprive certain groups of basic rights and to determine their choices in life (Farmer 2009). Racial disparities lead to embedded inequality and poverty, as shown by the polarised economic legacy of apartheid in South Africa (Adato, Carter and May 2004; Gradín 2012; Lund and Cois 2018). In their analysis of the depth of inequality and poverty in post-apartheid South Africa, Adato, Carter and May (2004) further assert that racial disparities resulted in socio-economic polarisation in which conventional avenues of upward mobility were cut short. Racism leads to massive poverty, unemployment, poorly-built houses and a lack of access to health care (Moyo 2008b). This is evidenced by the distributional reality which most succinctly shows two economic worlds in one country, as reported in the Poverty and Inequality Report prepared by (May, Woolard and Klasen 2000). The report reveals that black South Africans have a Human Development Index (HDI) equivalent to the HDI of Zimbabwe or Swaziland, while white South Africa has an HDI resting comfortably between that of Israel and Italy. This means that most blacks in such situations have access to a highly segmented, and ultimately ineffective, social capital network. Their social network is under-resourced to the extent that it exacerbates their constrained mobility. These people will remain in poverty traps until some structural transformation takes place. There are reports of mortality and morbidity differentials between blacks and whites in the United States and South Africa due to the lack of access to resources by black people (Farmer 2009).

3.2.6 Contemporary Slavery

SV is linked to contemporary slavery through the economic exploitation of people from marginalised backgrounds (Shammika and Jayasinghe 2014). As Shammika and Jayasinghe (2014) indicate, those people engaged in entrepreneurial activities are trapped in a vicious system of unfair resource allocation and production exploitation operating through intermediaries. Such people will sell their labour or

produce for very low prices just to earn some income. In instances where there are high levels of unemployment, there is actually a competition to reduce the prices for labour and goods amongst the poor.

3.2.7 Corruption

SV is accompanied by high levels of corruption as the marginalised are forced to pay for their emancipation (Gupta 2012; Hirschfeld 2017). It is not uncommon that migrants escaping the jaws of inequality and poverty have to bribe their way into countries of their economic refuge (Vogt 2013). Undocumented migrants usually fall prey to corrupt law enforcement agents who force them to pay to avoid deportation or arrest (Minnaar 1999; Vigneswaran *et al.* 2010). As indicated earlier, corruption is widely seen within the corridors of power in the Zimbabwean and South African governments as the wealthy direct how governments are run (Uneke 2010; Ellis and Shaw 2015; Mlambo *et al.* 2019).

One of the major drivers of corruption in these countries is African neo-patrimonialism, which is said to involve a lack of transparency surrounding public finance, poorly-defined or politicised property rights, authoritarian/personalistic political systems, pervasive rent-seeking, and cronyist or clientelistic relations between businesses and the State (Dawson and Kelsall 2012). Greed is another driver of corruption and it is the dominating factor leading to policies and practices that foster and create poverty (Mlambo *et al.* 2019). Political leaders who occupy positions of authority in the party or public service act as gatekeepers by regulating access to the resources and opportunities that they control (Beresford 2015). Since corruption is a major contributing factor to poverty and SV, there is an urgent need for a change in attitude leading to a change in practice. As Uneke (2010) recommends, African states must develop proactive agenda designed to discourage corruption and entrench ethical standards and accountability in public service.

3.2.8 The Psychological Effects of Structural Violence

SV has a psychological effect on people such that they might lose their self-worth and become prone to unfair and dehumanizing treatment from government agencies that are meant to be caring for them (Hodgetts *et al.* 2014). This can fester resentment to government intervention or programs (Ikubolajeh Logan 2007). Those who are usually sidelined by the politicisation of such programs end up not seeing the value that the government interventions are meant to bring other than patronage (Bird and Busse 2007; Mbohwa 2010). Individuals become very accustomed to SV such that they internalise the prejudice, normalise different forms of violence, suffer in silence and resign to powerlessness by assuming that solutions to inequities are located outside the individual or community (Moyo 2008b; Farmer 2009; Kairiza 2009). People can therefore become less productive while they wait for the savior to come and rescue them. Psychologically, exposure to SV can lead to people celebrating different forms of violence meted out against those alleged to be benefiting from the structural inequalities (Scheper-Hughes 2004).

3.2.9 Level of Structural Violence in Zimbabwe and South Africa

Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) has been plagued by conflict and high levels of poverty for decades and therefore its citizens have not been spared from SV (Clempson 2012). Zimbabwe and South Africa are replete with examples of SV, given their segregated history under colonial rule and apartheid (Moyo 2008b; Jauch and Muchena 2011). UNICEF (2010 cited in Mpofu (2011: 1) states that an estimated 78% of Zimbabweans are “absolutely poor”. The effect of SV in these countries is higher and more pronounced than in other countries, given the systematic way in which unequal laws were applied over a long period of time.

Both countries have high levels of inequality while black people, who constitute the majority, have little, if any, access to the economic means of production such as land (Cavendish and Campbell 2008; Muderedzi *et al.* 2017). The people are confined to

poor housing, which further aggravates racial tension on the issue of land ownership. Zimbabwe tried to address this anomaly through its land reform program in the early 2000s (Davies 2004). South Africa is working on its own program and will try to avoid the mistakes committed by Zimbabwe. The issue of land is now a serious challenge in South Africa, with land invasions dominating the discussion (Cousins 2016; Kepe and Hall 2018). The practice currently underway is for a group to simply take the land they want, the argument being that the government has failed them. This is leading to serious violence, forcing security services to divert attention and resources from crime to containing protests and removing land invaders. The issue of land is now being taken over by political and criminal players as well. It shows how social issues can be hijacked by politicians, how resources become misused, how the problem is not only unsolved but is made worse as the issue becomes clouded with opportunistic players overshadowing the real need for the problem to be solved.

3.3 The Impact of Structural Violence on the Livelihoods and Participation of Youth

Several studies highlight the plight of youth under SV (Grant 2003; Chimucheka 2012; Chisadza 2014). Mutisi, Olonisakin and Ismail (2017) postulate that youth become socio-politically excluded and economically vulnerable due to SV. The United Nations (2011) highlights that youth, especially girls and young women, in Africa struggle to access secondary education and health care. Besides exposure to poverty, the other major challenge faced by youth is unemployment. This is more prominent in SSA, which has a very young population that is not being absorbed by the job market (Filmer and Fox 2014; Ismail 2016). Closer to home, both South Africa and Zimbabwe have high levels of unemployment for those aged between 15 and 34, at 50% and 85%, respectively (De Lannoy *et al.* 2018). The Zimbabwean statistics are difficult to verify and thus give a true picture, as the government tries to systematically under-report its level of unemployment. This is a form of SV, as information is withheld from citizens. The failure to address the unemployment

challenge is aggravated by the fact that the gerontocracy governing Africa is slow in engaging with youth on their terms, thereby failing to support youth in fully using their education and skills to secure a future better than their parents (Fox, Senbet and Simbanegavi 2016). On a positive note, South Africa has been implementing works programs that are successfully providing young people with employment (Graham and Mlatsheni 2015; Ranchhod and Finn 2016).

The absence of formal jobs and the weak structural transformation in most African economies means that youth have to rely on their innovation skills as they earn a living in the informal sector (Fox, Senbet and Simbanegavi 2016). However, these enterprising youth face barriers when it comes to accession support for their entrepreneurial journey. For instance, youth in the informal sector are structurally excluded from most interventions run by the African Union and governments because of their elitist and formal biases (Ismail 2016). As Ismail (2016) further asserts, the biases in these interventions span from minimum education requirements, computer literacy and highly-formalised application and registration purposes. Those that start their own businesses independently have to navigate the other barriers that include legal provisions which do not support start-ups, bureaucratic rules governing the forming of an enterprise, the lack of financial support and the lack of understanding of the possibilities inherent in starting one's own business (Chimucheka 2012; Ncube 2014). The researcher of this study can attest to this as he has struggled to register a fintech start-up in Zimbabwe, being required to show proof of one million American Dollars as capital and paying 50,000 American Dollars for a license. Surprisingly, the same venture needs proof of ZAR150,000 or GBP50,000 as capital in South Africa and the United Kingdom before one can start operating.

Another major barrier to youth participation are the cultural attitudes exhibited by adults towards youth (Jones and Perkins 2006). There is a perpetual negative perception of youth by other segments of the society (Linkow *et al.* 2014). Young

people are viewed as ‘children’, incapable of doing anything constructive or positive on their own. This notion is also sustained by a cultural belief that adults are always correct, must always be respected and should never be argued with or corrected. In the absence of an intergenerational consensus, adults may well sabotage efforts to empower youth if they believe that youth are ‘children’ and therefore not being worthy of being given a chance to become economically and politically independent (Dwyer 2015). The daily norm for youth is to negotiate with adults for everything, ranging from food to participation in community programs (Berents and McEvoy-Levy 2015). This calls for changes in the attitudes of adults towards intergenerational collaboration that sees youth as equal partners by adults (Evans and Prillelrensky 2007; Iwasaki 2016; McKeown and Taylor 2017). There is also a need for socially-inclusive policies for transformation to occur. However, as the United Nations (2011) reports, as long as interventions do not target specific groups of people due to age, sex, ethnicity, location of residence or disability status, the specific challenges faced by vulnerable and socially-excluded groups will persist. It is undeniable that youth are social agencies and primary enablers of social change, whose contribution must not be ignored when trying to bring about structural transformation in communities (Danesh 2008; Ismail 2016). The next section highlights some interventions that have been used to promote the socio-economic and political participation of youth.

3.4 Conflict Transformation Approaches

Conflict transformation methods have been applied globally to address armed and peace-time conflicts (Evans-Kent 2001; Francis 2002; Miall 2004; Rogerson 2011; Ungerleider 2012). However, it must be noted that there are many challenges of conflict transformation on a local level when the root cause is from a national or regional level (Davies 2004; Anderson 2012; Dawson and Kelsall 2012; Hamauswa and Manyeruke 2012; Dodo, Nsenduluka and Kasanda 2014b; Gate 2016). These include the bureaucratic compliancy needs put down by government gatekeepers. (Cardozo *et al.* 2015) emphasise the need for conflict-sensitive, contextually-coherent approaches to enhance the transformation, otherwise interventions

become irrelevant and fail. In their research on youth employment interventions in the Philippines, Canlas and Maria Cristina (2009: iii) affirm that for “these initiatives and reforms [to] impact on young people and their lives in a positive and tangible manner, there is [a] need for a greater understanding of the nature of the environment that such initiatives are designed to address”. Successful conflict transformation must be multidimensional and carried out as a collaboration between different stakeholders (Miall 2004; Agbiboa 2015; Evans 2016). Youth-centred conflict transformation can, for example, be applied through (i) employment and empowerment programs and (ii) civic engagement and dialogue that specifically target the age group.

3.4.1 Employment and Empowerment

a. How youth employment addresses conflict

According to the Mercy Corps’ empirical evidence on their interventions in Colombia West Bank/Gaza, Kosovo and Kenya, youth employment catalyses the youth’s desire for change into positive outlets by helping them to create economic opportunities and increase their livelihoods. Such interventions leverage economic opportunities through matching qualified youth with entry-level positions and by subsidising business trainings for youth. Mercy Corps (2013) further reveal that youth who received the grants reported an increase in income, a reduction of poverty, a reduced interest in combat, a reduced participation in violence and fewer incidences of known violence.

b. Designing Youth Employment Programs

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (2013) carried out an intervention in Colombia and Benin which provides guidance on designing programmes that improve young rural people’s livelihoods. Findings from this work for such interventions to successfully support marginalised youth to tackle SV indicate that they must:

1. Offer incentives to include young people in employment-related training and also target young women
2. Foster the formation of youth groups and identify channels to enable them to participate in decision-making processes
3. Provide courses on financial literacy for young rural people and link these with the provision of microcredit
4. Facilitate mentorship programmes to link prospective youth entrepreneurs with successful adult entrepreneurs
5. Develop communication channels to help young entrepreneurs receive and transmit information and facilitate youth-to-youth exchanges

c. Evaluating Youth Employment Interventions

A recent study by Izzi (2013a) on the analysis of employment interventions in post-conflict zones in Liberia, Sierra Leone and Guinea-Bissau provides insights on how youth employment for peacebuilding projects should be assessed. The findings show that such projects should be evaluated on whether (i) they create jobs for young people and (ii) they reduce the risk of violence.

d. Example of a Successful Intervention

One other successful study is the one carried out in the United States of America to determine the impact of Teens for Good (T4G) on teen participants specific to nutrition knowledge and healthy eating behaviours, and the development of work-readiness, leadership and life skills (Hurley *et al.* 2014). T4G succeeded in contributing to positive youth development (PYD) in teen participants through its business and farming/gardening aspects. The PYD interns built their confidence and learnt communication, leadership and professional development skills through business training, hands-on farming and team-based experiences.

3.4.2 Civic Engagement and Dialogue

a. Forms of Civic Engagement

There are four forms of youth civic engagement for a socially-just diverse democracy (Checkoway and Aldana 2013). Civic engagement happens through:

1. *Citizen participation*, where people can participate through formal political and government institutions
2. *Grassroots organising*, where people organise a group for social and political action
3. *Intergroup dialogue*, where people facilitate critical discussion that enables people to communicate, promote understanding, explore issues, and create changes.
4. *Socio-political development*, where people promote critical consciousness for societal involvement, especially individual and structural factors that affect involvement

b. How Civic Engagement and Dialogue address Conflict

The effecting of civic engagement is discussed in the study by Ungerleider (2012) which analysed Youth Peacebuilding and Leadership Programs held with high school and college students in Cyprus, Iraq, Serbia, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Denmark, the U.K. and the United States. This study reveals that:

1. Well-facilitated peer dialogue promotes self-awareness, compassion, diverse perspectives on current issues, and capacities for social action.
2. Participants practice communication skills essential for shared leadership: listening and speaking effectively, recognising cross-cultural differences, analysing issues cooperatively, and making decisions collaboratively.

Another study by McKeown and Taylor (2017) with youth in Northern Ireland reveals that youth who are living with the legacy of protracted intergroup conflict can support

peacebuilding and engage in constructive behaviours such as civic engagement. Findings indicated that intergroup contact can reduce prejudice and promote more positive intergroup relations.

c. Example of a Successful Intervention

Iwasaki (2016) narrates the reflective experiences documented by youth leaders and community agency partners who were involved in a multi-year community-based research project. The major findings of this project are that:

1. Meaningful youth engagement facilitated by youth leadership was highlighted as a key mechanism for positive youth development (PYD) and social justice youth development (SJYD).
2. Key PYD-related concepts identified include the following: (i) strengths-based empowering approach to youth engagement, (ii) capacity-building and positive outcomes for youth and youth-serving agencies and (iii) youth-oriented, collaborative research processes that enable the promotion of these positive outcomes.
3. Key SJYD-related concepts identified were as follows: (i) activating the voice of youth for social/system change and (ii) advancing research into action – knowledge translation and practical application.

3.5 Social Entrepreneurship's Application in addressing Social Injustices and Inequality

SE has been used in a number of programs to attain social good (Sullivan Mort, Weerawardena and Carnegie 2002; Delgado 2004; Mair and Seelos 2009; Dempsey and Sanders 2010; Elkington and Hartigan 2013; Krige 2015; Rivera-Santos *et al.* 2015; Haugh and Talwar 2016; Lumpkin, Bacq and Pidduck 2018). The following sections provide a summary of where SE has been instrumental in addressing structural violence thereby transforming communities and individuals alike.

3.5.1 Social Entrepreneurship and Social Change

Beckmann (2012) discusses social entrepreneurship as an alternative instrument for solving social problems and addressing social needs. This discussion suggests that:

1. Specific organisational approach of social entrepreneurship is therefore not an end in itself, but an alternative means… to solve social problems.
2. It is the problem itself that determines which of these instruments will most effectively solve it.
3. Social entrepreneurs are in a special position to innovate solutions for a variety of otherwise neglected problems.
4. Once these innovations have been proven successful, they can be adopted by other actors, with the eventual result that the innovation has an even higher static impact.

On the other hand, a study by Haugh and Talwar (2016) carried out in Northern India examines the relationships between social entrepreneurship, empowerment and social change. This project discloses that:

1. Innovative business processes that facilitated women's economic activity and at the same time complied with local social and cultural norms that constrained their agency, contributed to changing the social order itself.
2. Emancipatory social entrepreneurship involves processes that (i) empower women and (ii) contribute to changing the social order in which women are embedded.

Closer to home, in Africa, Dr Iain Barton started the Unjani Container Clinics after realising the role that nurses can play to relieve pressure on the system, by providing primary healthcare (Sutherland and Krige 2017). The Unjani Clinics are providing affordable, quality access to people who struggle to access South Africa's crumbling public health system. Another example of social innovation supporting local communities include Thandazile Mary Raletooane's Itekeng Disabled Centre which

creates jobs for women and provides a place of hope and care for orphaned and vulnerable children in Meqheleng, South Africa (Krige and Silber 2016: 42). Award winning social entrepreneur, Anne Githuku-Shongwe, uses mobile game-based learning platforms in South Africa and Kenya to help youth reimagine a better future through gamifying the big issues they face. Anne aims to “emancipate young people from the mental blocks that thwart their potential and stunts their self-esteem” (Krige and Silber 2016: 88). Neil Campher is using waste recycling to turn despair into hope for people from a town called Helenvale which lies north of Port Elizabeth, South Africa (Krige and Sutherland 2016). Recycling is a metaphor for “the act of cleansing binds a community through hard, honest toil that produces tangible, visible results” (Krige and Silber 2016: 112).

These findings help one to understand the effectiveness of SE in addressing SV and provide an avenue for the empowerment of marginalised groups. The case study on three SEs in Bangladesh and Egypt by Mair and Seelos (2009) gives insights into how social entrepreneurs are transforming social dilemmas in developing countries into manageable problems, which they solve in innovative and entrepreneurial ways. They also report that economic development can be made possible by first investing in human needs in order to free people from a mere fight for survival.

3.5.2 Assessing how Social Entrepreneurs are responding to the Tension between enterprising and addressing Social Inequality

It cannot be denied that there can be tension between pursing an entrepreneurial goal (generating profits) and focusing on the social change goal of a social enterprise, which then closes the social inclusion gaps that the venture aims to address. Perrini and Vurro (2006) conducted a multiple country assessment of how Social Entrepreneurship Ventures (SEVs) are actually responding to this tension. Their study findings reveal that:

1. A first area of SE contribution is employment creation.

2. SEVs' social outcomes extend to the field of access to information by community members.
3. SEVs can actually contribute to changing patterns of interaction in order to enhance social cohesion through personalisation and participative approaches.
4. SEVs tend to voluntarily and involuntarily pursue simultaneous, different social outcomes. In order to be effective, a social innovation needs a fitting business model.

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter has built on the literature review by citing some empirical studies that support the theoretical framework of the study. The chapter expanded on structural violence, conflict transformation, youth participation and social entrepreneurship by indicating how these concepts were studied or applied in previous scholarly work. The next chapter will provide insights into the research methods and data collection processes applied in this study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to evaluate the potential of youth peacebuilding interventions as tools to promote sustainable peace in Zimbabwe. As indicated in Chapter 1, this study also focused on producing knowledge on how social entrepreneurial innovations can support youth participation. This was an action research study which was premised on the overall research aim of evaluating the potential of youth peacebuilding interventions as tools to promote sustainable peace in Zimbabwe. An action research approach was necessary to achieve the following specific research aims:

1. Explore the nexus between social inequality, negative peace and polarisation in Zimbabwe and how they constitute a vector of conflict, as well as determine their impact on the lives of youth.
2. Identify the training needs and social entrepreneurship opportunities within the community for youth-focused peace infrastructure(s) in the community's context of negative peace.
3. Pilot, through action research, and then evaluate the output of different solutions proposed by youth to promote their participation in political and socio-economic processes in their community and thus contribute towards sustainable positive peace in Zimbabwe.

In order to meet the research aims and objectives, the following research questions needed to be answered:

1. What is the level of social inequality in Zimbabwe and what are its major contributors?
2. How does poverty and social inequality impact the livelihoods of youth in Zimbabwe?
3. What type of peace exists in Zimbabwe?

4. What are the levels of polarisation in Zimbabwe?
5. How is structural violence presented in Zimbabwe and how does it impact the lives of youth?
6. What is the nexus between social inequality, negative peace and polarisation in Zimbabwe?
7. How do social inequality, negative peace and polarisation constitute a vector of conflict?
8. What solutions can youth proffer to address the prevalence of structural violence?
9. What are the training and resource needs that will make youth exploit opportunities for sustainable peace within their communities?
10. How can social entrepreneurship be used to bring about conflict transformation in Zimbabwe?

Therefore, separate instruments were employed to meet the research aims. This chapter discusses the methodology applied in this study. It explains the process undertaken in designing the research instruments, determining the sample size, selecting the respondents, collecting the data and then analysing it. It also discusses the limitations, validity and reliability of this research.

4.2 Research Design

The success of any study is not only dependent on whether the researcher chooses between quantitative, qualitative or mixed method choices but it depends on the research design process. Creswell (2014: 41) defines research designs as procedures of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design, while it is also seen as:

> the general plan of how you will go about answering your research question(s) (the importance of clearly defining the research question cannot be over-emphasised). It will contain clear objectives, derived from your research question(s), specify the sources from which you intend to collect data, and

consider the constraints that you will inevitably have (e.g. access to data, time, location and money) as well as discussing ethical issues. Crucially, it should reflect the fact that you have thought carefully about why you are employing your particular research design (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2009: 167-169).

Crotty (1998 cited in Creswell *et al.* 2011: 39) points out that designing a study involves four stages, namely: (i) a paradigm worldview, (ii) a theoretical lens, (iii) a methodological approach and (iv) methods of data collection (Figure 4.1).

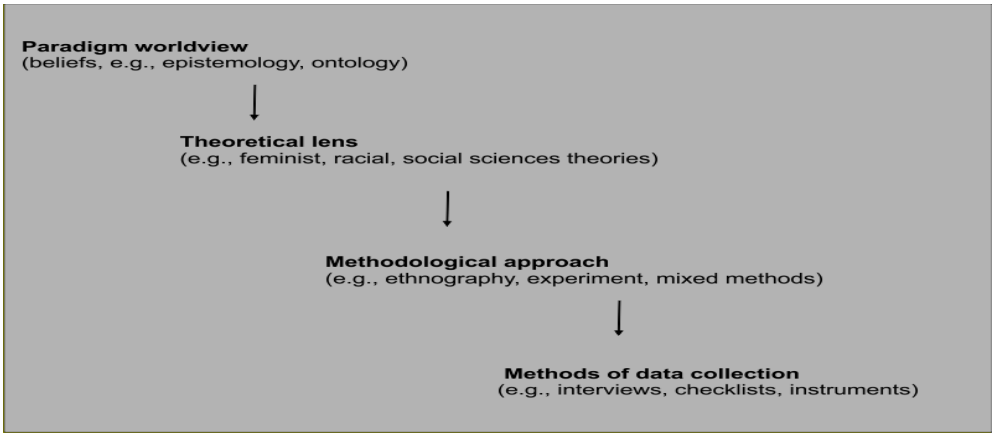


Figure 4.1: Four levels for developing a research study (Source: Creswell *et al.* 2011: 39).

The research onion depicted in Figure 4.2 summarises the research design of this entire study. As depicted in the diagram, the key components of a study are (i) a research philosophy or worldview, (ii) a research approach, (iii) a research strategy, (iv) research choices, (v) time horizons and (vi) research techniques and procedures. In this study's adoption of the research onion, the study's components can be pronounced as follows:

- The research philosophy or worldview as being participatory and transformative
- The research approach being an inductive one

- The research strategy being underpinned in action research
- The research choices emanating from Mixed Methods Research (MMR)
- The time horizon being a longitudinal one
- The research techniques and procedures comprising a survey, focus group discussions (FGDs), informant interviews (IIs) and observations

In the sections that follow, the researcher endeavours to explain these components as they relate to this study.

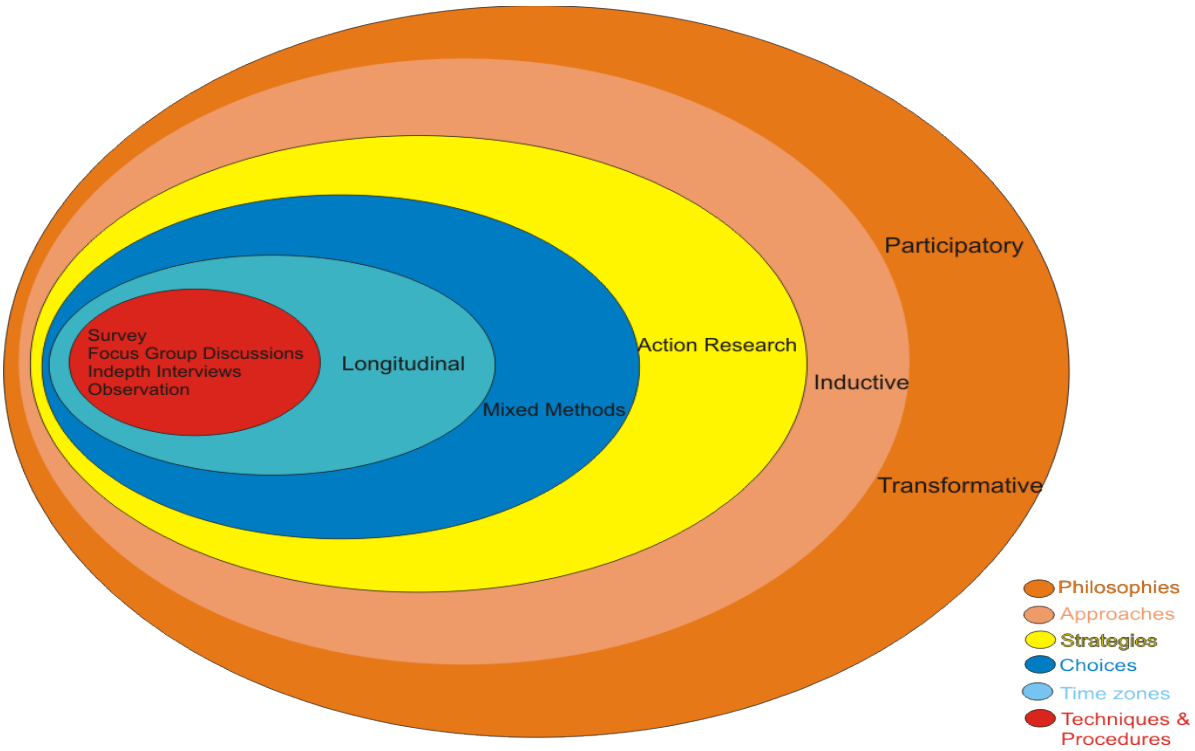


Figure 4.2: Research onion for this study (Adapted from Saunders *et al.* 2009).

4.3 Research Philosophy

Before embarking on a study, it is important that a researcher understands their own viewpoint (Hesse-Biber 2010: 29). Often referred to as a research philosophy or worldview, this is composed of generalisations, beliefs, and assumptions about knowledge that informs their study (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 4; Creswell *et al.* 2011:

39). The research question, which is important in guiding the type of methods, analysis and interpretation undertaken, is underpinned by the researcher's worldview (Mark, Philip and Adrian 2009: 139; Hesse-Biber 2010: 29). As Mertens (2007: 212) alludes, every researcher should be aware of their philosophical assumptions that guide their work. On the other hand, research avoids bias to fit a particular philosophy and how such an individual philosophy guides the choice of a topic and then the design. Therefore, the personal values and worldviews of the researcher of this study could not be divorced from the study itself. Knowing and understanding one's own attitudes as a researcher were important to ensure that the researcher did not fall into the trap of merely following a dominant paradigm in the study. In developing the research design, the researcher was also guided by the fact that this was a peacebuilding study focusing on how creating more equitable societies decreases violence which originates from injustice.

Guba and Lincoln (2005 cited in Mertens 2012: 804) defined a paradigm as being inclusive of four sets of assumptions:

- Axiology refers to beliefs about the meaning of ethics and moral behavior
- Ontology refers to beliefs about the nature of reality
- Epistemology refers to the nature of knowledge and the relationship between the knower and that which would be known
- Methodology refers to beliefs about the process of systematic inquiry

Creswell *et al.* (2011: 38) encourage graduate students to articulate their assumptions in their mixed methods project report. This is also supported by Mertens' (2010: 16) article on teaching mixed methods research. In this regard, the researcher needed to practice reflexivity and answer the reflective questions prescribed by Hesse-Biber (2010: 32). The following are the viewpoints that were brought into this study:

- Since the researcher has been a youth empowerment activist for more than a decade, he consciously observes whether processes and activities are youth-inclusive.
- The researcher's bias towards 'genuine' empowerment of young people is a large-value proposition that he also brought into the study. This is premised on the lived experience within Zimbabwe where the researcher has witnessed tokenism towards youth being portrayed by the government and ruling party.
- The researcher has seen several programs that were purported to be empowering youth being rolled out on partisan grounds. Such a move neglects those who are marginalised and most deserving of support, thereby perpetuating structural violence towards youth.
- The researcher's work in a youth-focused non-governmental organisation (NGO), which he formed in 2008, brought him closer to reality and enabled him to develop in-depth knowledge on the phenomenon being studied.
- The researcher also understood the hegemony and socio-politics of Zimbabwe, as well as how citizens cannot freely vocalise their frustrations while feeling oppressed, and that the country is laden with intimidation. The people would rather 'normalise' a situation that structurally violates them so long as they can live safely.
- The researcher therefore had a lived experience of the negative peace prevalent in Zimbabwe, and has also witnessed the polarisation that exists in the country.
- The researcher has also observed the mistrust given towards researchers by the Zimbabwean government, as exhibited by the gatekeepers during the period that this researcher sought clearance from the local authority to conduct his research.

The aforementioned reflections were key factors in determining the research questions that were developed in this study as well as how the resultant findings were interpreted and presented. Given the assumptions, values and beliefs that have been explained above, it was seen fit to underpin this study's research on the transformative and participatory paradigms. These paradigms have also been seen to be relevant in scholarly writings on mixed methods research projects by Mertens (2007, 2010) and Sweetman,

Badiee and Creswell (2010). Creswell *et al.* (2011: 46) support the adoption of two worldviews for mixed methods research. They further argue that they may be separately tied to different phases in the project. In the next section, the selected paradigms will be explained in a bid to lay out their link to this study.

4.3.1 Transformative Paradigm

The transformative paradigm is a framework of belief systems that directly engages members of culturally-diverse groups with a focus on increased social justice (Creswell 2014: 38-39; Mertens 2007, 2010: 87). Mertens (2010: 87) reveals that the transformative paradigm is firmly rooted in a human rights agenda. Mertens (2003 cited in Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 87) stresses how the transformative paradigm centralises the importance of the lives and experiences of marginalised groups, with the researcher seeking fairness and inclusion for them. Thus the research is often action-oriented with the end goal being to transform the lives of the participants, their communities, as well as the life of the researcher (Creswell 2014: 38). The researcher's point of departure is a focus on the inequities at play, with solutions being identified co-creatively by the direct involvement of participants. It is further emphasised that:

> The role of the researcher in this context is reframed as one who recognizes inequalities and injustices in society and strives to challenge the status quo, who is a bit of a provocateur with overtones of humility, and who possesses a shared sense of responsibility (Mertens 2007: 212).

In relation to this study, transformation meant transforming youth from passive to active participants in addressing the social injustices in their communities. The injustice that the respondents pointed out included unemployment and the lack of access to community resources (vocational skills training, land, recreational facilities and residential stands). They also lamented the muted participation of young people in civic processes such as elections and community meetings. The youth indicated that they were not being afforded a platform to be heard on and that their concerns were not taken seriously or acted upon. There was also an indication of risky coping measures, such as drug abuse and

prostitution, which had been adopted by the youth as they tried to come to terms with the daily pressures of social inequality.

In the view of the researcher of this study, transformation meant bringing young people together and acting on addressing the challenges that they faced regardless of their religious or political persuasions. With that in mind and in trying to link theory with practice, the researcher undertook this study as a catalyst or enabler. The researcher's task was to select youth to work with co-creatively in identifying and testing out strategies that would address the mentioned injustices. Part of the researcher's enabling role included determining the skills gaps amongst the action team and then facilitating training workshops on these skills. The researcher provided the team with training on social entrepreneurship management, non-violent community engagement, as well as participation in civil processes.

Since poverty and the need to earn a living were some of the indicated barriers to youth participation, it became imperative to use social entrepreneurship as a plausible solution to enhance youth participation. The tenets of social capital and social value creation would then be the drivers of this social entrepreneurial approach. The youth were therefore expected to set up a social enterprise (SE) and were supported in doing so. This SE would provide the youth with a vehicle through which they could generate an income and build social value amongst youth by addressing some of the challenges that they faced. Supported by the social capital and local government structures, the youth would then use the SE as a rallying point for community mobilisation and civic education. Details of how this unfolded during the tenure of the study are given out in the data collection section of this thesis. The researcher of this study therefore sought to test the success of the social enterprise's ability to (i) generate an income for the action team, (ii) utilise social capital to reach out to the youth in Norton and (iii) increase social value through catalysing conflict transformation by addressing the social injustices bedevilling youth in the community.

4.3.2 Participatory Paradigm

The participatory paradigm is defined as assumptions influenced by political concerns (Creswell *et al.* 2011: 41). Creswell *et al.* (2011: 41) further assert that "issues such as empowerment, marginalisation, hegemony, patriarchy and other issues affecting marginalised groups need to be addressed, and researchers collaborate with individuals experiencing these injustices." The participatory paradigm therefore has assumptions on how the research can be undertaken in a manner that affords the participants the opportunity to contribute towards improving their experiences.

The two paradigms apply inductive logic, where arguments evolve from particular (e.g. data) to the general (e.g. theory), as indicated by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009: 25). These key beliefs for the two paradigms in this context are summarised in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Beliefs of the transformative and participatory paradigms.

Belief System	Transformative Paradigm	Participatory Paradigm
Axiology: assumptions about ethics	Ethical considerations include respect for cultural norms of interaction; beneficence is defined in terms of the promotion of human rights and increase in social justice.	Negotiated (e.g. researchers negotiate their biases with participants)
Ontology: assumptions about the nature of what exists; what is reality	Rejects cultural relativism and recognises influence of privilege in sensing what is real and consequences of accepting versions of reality. Multiple realities are shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, gender, disability and other values.	Political reality (e.g. findings are negotiated with participants)
Epistemology: assumptions about the nature of knowledge and the relationship between the	Interactive link between researcher/evaluator and participants/co-researchers/evaluators; knowledge is socially and historically situated; power and privilege are	Collaboration (e.g. researchers actively involve

researcher/evaluator and the stakeholders needed to achieve accurate knowledge	explicitly addressed; development of a trusting relationship is critical.	participants as collaborators)
Methodology: assumptions about appropriate methods of systematic inquiry	Inclusion of qualitative methods (dialogic) are critical; quantitative and mixed methods can be used; interactive link between the researcher/evaluator and participants in the definition of the focus and questions; methods would be adjusted to accommodate cultural complexity; power issues would be explicitly addressed; and contextual and historic factors are acknowledged, especially as they relate to discrimination and oppression.	Participatory (e.g. researchers involve participants in all stages of the research and engage in cyclical reviews of results)

(Adapted from Mertens 2010: 11 and Creswell *et al.* 2011: 42)

From the above explanations, it can be clearly concluded that this study rightfully located itself in the transformative and participatory paradigms, given its exploratory aim towards addressing structural violence and social injustice amongst youth. This is quite different from a number of scholars who have underpinned action research under the pragmatism philosophy (Greenwood 2007). The researcher's selection of the former paradigms is supported by his views and beliefs in applying research in a transformative and participatory manner that leads to the empowerment of participants. The researcher does not believe in merely ticking the boxes of research but rather in bringing out tangible solutions to the world's challenges.

4.4 Research Approach

A research approach looks at the theory that will be used in carrying out the study (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2009: 124). The selected theory thus determines the way the study will be designed and how data interpretations will be undertaken. There are two research approaches, namely, the deductive and inductive approaches (Saunders, Lewis

and Thornhill 2009: 124). As Creswell (2014: 62) avers, an inductive approach is relevant for an action research study such as this one, as theories are generalised from the data collected. This is primarily due to theory being generated and incrementally developed from the study's findings (Douglas 200: 53). This position is supported by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009: 26) who state that research occurs somewhere within the inductive-deductive research cycle displayed in Figure 4.3. This cycle, as Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009: 26) depict, involves moving from grounded results through inductive inference to general inferences, and then from those general inferences through deductive inferences to predictions to the particular.

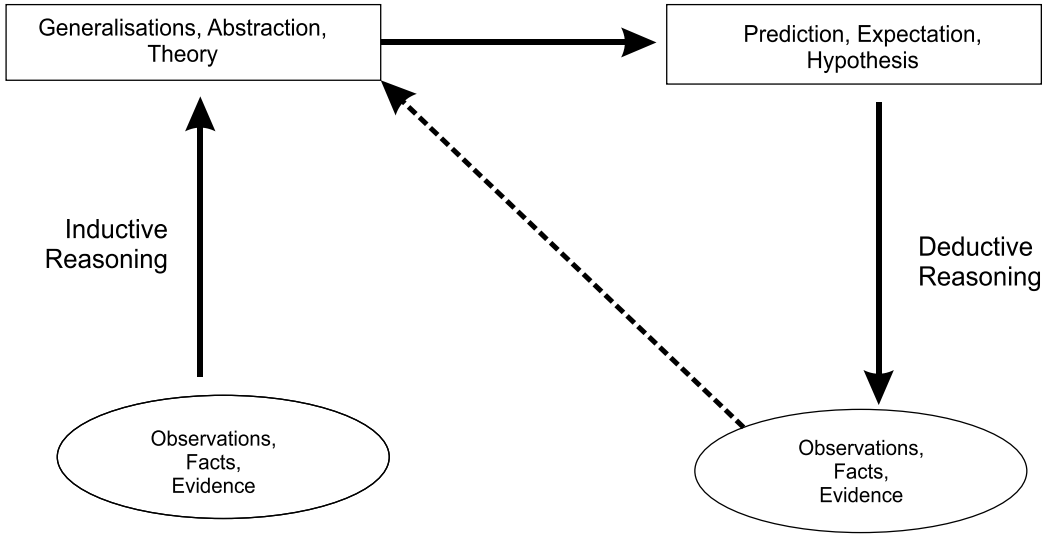


Figure 4.3: The Inductive-Deductive Research Cycle (Source: Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 27).

In an inductive approach, literature does not become the basis of the study; it is rather less significant and can be incorporated at the end of the study (Creswell 2014: 62). Induction involves the researcher's immersion in the study and obtaining a first understanding of the study context (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2009: 125-126). This also entails the usage of a small sample size during the study. This study therefore undertook an inductive approach which sought to develop theory through the interpretation of the data collected from the enquiry.

4.5 Research Strategy and Research Methods

The study was based on an action research (AR) strategy within a mixed methods research (MMR) framework. AR looks at the involvement of participants in an iterative process of data collection and theory development. It develops and tests interventions in small-scale projects (Kaye and Harris 2017: 3). The application of AR in this study viewed the coming together of the researcher, the youth and their subsequent actions as aiming towards carrying out something positive about the community's situation. In this regard, the study took an approach where a theory was developed from the lived experiences and data collected in the field. This strategy will be explained in more detail in the ensuing sections of this chapter.

4.5.1 Action Research defined

Action research (AR) is social research where a researcher works together with participants in a bid to improve the participants' situation (Greenwood and Levin 2007: 3; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 115; Willig 2013: 97). AR has been described as:

> a family of research methodologies which pursue action (or change) and research (or understanding) at the same time. In most of its forms it does this by using a cyclic or spiral process which alternates between action and critical reflection and in the later cycles, continuously refining methods, data and interpretation in the light of the understanding developed in the earlier cycles (Dick 1999: 44).

AR is the confluence of critical thinking and praxis which allows practitioners and academics to co-create and study a phenomenon together (Payne and Payne 2004; Greenwood and Levin 2007). AR has mainly been applied in the education sector in the quest to improve learner performance. In AR, knowledge is not generated for the sake of satisfying curiosity but is rather aimed at achieving social transformation during or after the study (Ferrance 2000: 3; Greenwood and Levin 2007: 97). AR therefore answers the 'so what' question of a study. Greenwood and Levin (2007: 5) aptly state that:

> AR aims to increase the ability of the involved community or organisation members to control their own destinies more effectively and to keep improving their capacity to do so within a more sustainable and just environment.

AR involves the application of different methodologies. Greenwood and Levin (2007: 98) aver that quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods techniques must be used as and when the study requires. AR is designed to balance depth and breadth with interactions in the live environment. It complements exploratory research by testing the possible solutions derived from the exploratory research (Kaye and Harris 2017: 5). In this regard, the community or environment within which the study occurs becomes the live laboratory where experiments are taking place. While the solutions derived from AR cannot be scaled due to the testing size, they can counter self-interest policies of politicians if they are incorporated into community development.

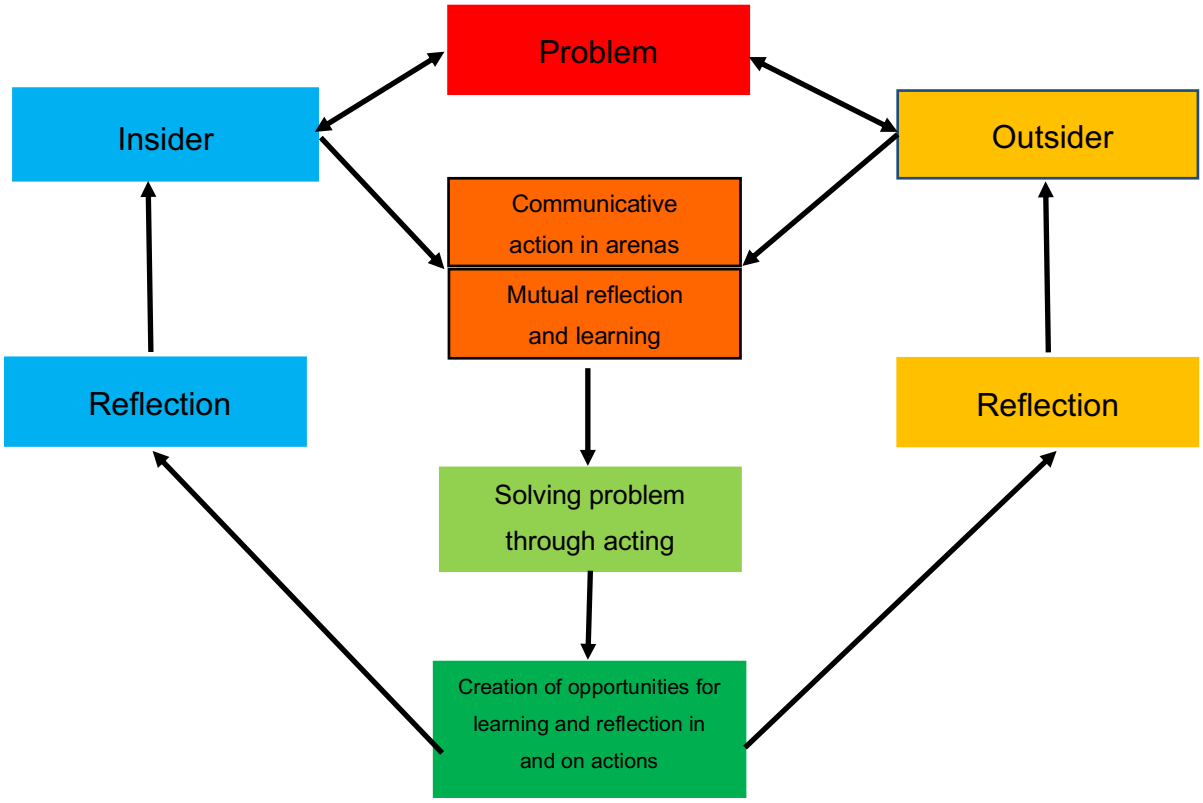
4.5.2 Key Elements of Action Research

Scholars have developed different models and designs to explain the key components of AR (Cherry and Bowden 1999; Dick 1999, 2004, 2005; McNiff and Whitehead 2002; Payne and Payne 2004). As will be further explained, this strategy will focus on the models put across by Valencia College (2016) and Greenwood and Levin (2007). Greenwood and Levin (2007: 5) state that AR consists of three elements, namely action, research and participation. Without these it ceases to be AR. Valencia College (2016) further depicts these components in the AR cycle, as illustrated in Figure 4.4. From this illustration, AR goes through the cyclical process of reflecting, planning, acting and observing. The reflective stage starts with the understanding of the problem at hand with all involved stakeholders.

Figure 4.4: Action Research cycle (Source: Valencia College 2016).

On the other hand, Greenwood and Levin (2007: 94) explain AR using a cogenerative model (see Figure 4.5). From this model, one can see that the model identifies two key actors in AR – insiders and outsiders. The insiders are the 'owners' of the problem who have a lived experience and knowledge of it. These insiders are neither homogenous, democratic nor an ideal group because they present challenges of cohesion due to their different persuasions. They are also the ones who are directly affected by the outcomes of any change emanating from the project/intervention and this makes them key to the AR. On the other hand, outsiders are the researchers who become the catalytic facilitators of co-learning processes that solve the problem while contributing to the academic knowledge in the area. They do not have to live with the change results and they can leave the community at any time. Greenwood and Levin (2007) further breakdown the model into four distinct components: (i) problem definition, (ii) communications arena, (iii) feedback and (iv) creating arena.

Figure 4.5: The Cogenerative Action Research Model



(Source: Greenwood and Levin 2007: 9).

Problem definition: This initial step of mutual learning allows insider local knowledge to be merged with outsider professional knowledge through open communication procedures. These procedures, which include democratic dialogue openness and mutual support, lead to an agreed-on problem focus. This is the key part of AR that distinguishes it from other social science strategies in which the problem question emerges from within disciplines.

Communications arena: These are locations where insiders and outsiders meet to carry out AR through cogenerative learnings and research. This can be through a workshop, team-building session, taskforce meeting, leadership group meeting or a public community meeting. The insiders bring to the arena their grounded and lived knowledge of the local conditions. They can look upon the outsider to influence and direct the change processes even if they do not hold any formal position in the local hierarchy. The outsiders

then bring in skills and knowledge on designing and running training sessions as well as directing development processes. They act as the facilitators who transfer knowledge while encouraging the insiders to take control of the development processes. There is a double-loop feedback process where new aspects about the problems and the contexts therein are learnt.

Feedback: Both groups have similar feedback loops but each is based on different interests. The insiders would want to improve their knowledge capabilities while outsiders produce meaning for the research community. Both reflection processes are fed back to the communicative arena to further develop discussions that redefine the problem and its perceived solutions. This is a cyclical process of action and reflection leading to new understandings and changes in the actors' perceptions.

Creating arenas: In this arena, actors come together to deliberate and act on the identified problem. Due to academic skills and expert knowledge, the outsider or researcher can dominate the debate. This creates a challenge in identifying and agreeing on the initial question or problem. This communicative domination must be avoided as it can distract attention from the local points. The researcher in AR needs to apply their skill-sets to articulate the local models and ensure that they are well-understood by the insiders as well for the co-creation to take place well.

Thus, AR is a cogenerative learning process that takes actors through problem examination, action strategy design based on research, and the implementation and evaluation of the actions. In carrying out this research, the researcher's role as an outsider and catalyst became evident due to the following:

- The researcher came from outside the community structures and was unknown to many people.
- The researcher was not an active member of any local political formation.

- It was easy for the researcher to interact with people from different political and social affiliations as the researcher connected with them easily.
- The researcher was presented as neutral and in some cases members of different groups mistakenly thought he was on their side or part of their discourse (the researcher maintained his neutral stance and kept his political or social persuasions concealed).

4.5.3 Action Research in Peace Studies

AR has mainly been applied in education and health research in a bid to improve the performance of learners and service delivery to patients, respectively (Stringer and Genat 2004; Mackenzie and Knipe 2006; Stringer 2008; Punch 2009; Pawluch and Neiterman 2010; Bryant and Charmaz 2011). In their report on the Centre for Peace Studies' interventions across Africa, Kayser and Djateng (2015: 8) stress that AR is an essential component of peace work. This is due to the fact that addressing peace is not a mechanical process but one that involves the contributions of all stakeholders (Kaye and Harris 2017: 7).

In the peacebuilding process, all parties to the conflict should be brought together to identify the proffered solutions and act to resolve the conflict. In this regard, AR becomes the appropriate strategy which allows for the testing of tried solutions before adjusting them to the context of the conflict and then scaling them up for greater impact. Clearly, such a process brings together investigators, practitioners and community leaders together to act, research and participate.

Kaye and Harris (2017) give a good report of postgraduate projects carried out in Africa where AR was applied to address different types of conflict. These studies covered areas such as corruption, non-violent parenting, reducing gender-based violence among youth, restorative justice, as well as promoting healing and reconciliation, amongst other areas. As Kaye and Harris (2017: 265-266) conclude, these studies and the successful impact of AR in peacebuilding depend on three factors:

1. *The number of direct participants and intervention duration*: Usually modest teams of 40 or less participants were ideal in carrying out interventions. The smaller the number of teams, the more effective the contact sessions and transfer of skills and knowledge. Interventions also varied from one-day training workshops to two-day dialogue sessions to year-long sessions with the 'action' team.
2. *The nature and degree of participation*: The role of the researcher as an 'expert' needs to be kept at a minimum and their participation should be seen merely as a source of information. The participants should be involved more intensely in decision-making throughout the AR process. They should steer the intervention and meet regularly to evaluate its outcomes.
3. *The time factor in evaluating outcomes*: Time is a key factor for successful AR. Therefore, the evaluation should not be done immediately after the intervention if the impact is to be well-assessed. Unfortunately, in most degree-related studies, evaluation occurs immediately after administration for the intervention. Evaluations should be long-term and carried out in a longitudinal nature simply because the intervention's effects are usually not immediate.

The researcher applied the first two factors by working with a small team of 15 youth from the community and allowing the participants to conduct the interventions on their own. As explained in factor three, evaluation had to be immediate since this was a degree-related study.

4.5.4 Challenges faced by Action Research Graduate Studies

Reflecting on the case studies presented by the post-graduate students from the Durban University of Technology, Kaye and Harris (2017: 268) indicate the following challenges:

- Difficulty in designing a clear proposal because the direction of the research is unknown at the onset.

- Time constraints limit the time of administering the intervention. This causes the AR project to become simply academic without bringing about any change.
- Action researchers face more unusual problems than other field researchers as they commit to the principles of participation, collaboration and democracy.
- Action researchers must balance between doing the action research and collecting data simultaneously. This can be countered by working closely with an advisory group, which could be the action team.

The researcher of this study will add a fifth challenge to these, based on his own experience during this study, which is that of not being able to access adequate research funding which is released or accessed timeously. Since AR involves a practical intervention, the funding aspect is key to its success. The researcher faced a challenge in securing the timeous release of funds. The researcher's research funding was released eight months into the field work and this affected the intervention agreed upon with the participants. On the other hand, the researcher failed to obtain additional funding to allow him to help the action team capitalise their social enterprise. This affected the testing of the ability to use social entrepreneurship as a peacebuilding tool. The researcher had to work within the limitations of the availed funding. The researcher also needed to tweak the interventions so that he did not overspend on his savings during the eight months in which he was waiting for the release of the research fund from his institution.

4.5.5 Action Research in the Zimbabwean Conflict Context

In applying and selecting a set research strategy, the context within which the study occurs should be well-understood and articulated (Kayser and Djateng 2015: 12). Social fractures perpetuate misconceptions and rumours and these can make AR difficult. The proposed interventions may be wrongly interpreted by the stakeholders. The researcher therefore needs to be aware of the state of affairs on the ground and plan their point of engagement accordingly. This will help to not exacerbate the conflict through their AR.

While undertaking this study, the researcher became aware of the following contexts within the area of study:

- Generally, there is a lot of mistrust towards researchers and non-governmental organisations by the Zimbabwean government. To that end, the government has put in place gatekeepers, informers and security services personnel who constantly monitor the activities and movements on the ground.
- Any programme that is not launched through the ruling party, Zanu PF, is assumed to emanate from the opposition party. It is thus placed under constant surveillance with state intelligence wanting to know who is behind it and what their motive is. The research team had two security officers in attendance at one of the programs that was held in the community.
- There is a large amount of politicisation of programmes such that all interventions and activities happening in the community are viewed with a political eye.
- There is polarisation and mistrust in the community such that people wanted to know the person behind the AR and its subsequent interventions before committing to participate. This was also observed during the collection of data using a survey. The question: “Who is Hillary Musarurwa?” was dominant.
- Young people, especially those who are very active in the community, are controlled by political parties and will act on instruction from their handlers. This meant that a few ‘independent’ or neutral participants voluntarily stepped forward to be part of the study.
- Glory seekers or youth leaders looking for an opportunity to springboard their careers and hijack the project, were also present. Much power haggling was present in setting up the action team. This will be discussed later in this study.
- Political interference is also high, with politicians from across political divides seeking an opportunity to capitalise on any event or programme to gain political mileage. The impact of the proposed Youth Indabas was seen to be large, thus there was political positioning to control it. One participant approached one political party to support their artistic talent but was denied an audience because they came

from an ‘independent’ constituency that was doing its own ‘indabas’, hence the party could not work with people from Norton.

- Most of the people in Norton were not happy with the then incumbent Member of Parliament (MP), Themba Peter Mliswa. A few people wanted to be associated with any matter done through his office, as this was seen to be siding with him and his ideologies or political persuasion.
- There was an ongoing disagreement between the local council and the MP, hence a few councillors were willing to support any initiative run through his office.
- There is a lack of support from all government structures to community development programmes.
- Due to the prevailing donor fatigue, the civil society sector in Zimbabwe is highly competitive. Cronyism and corruption are rife in the allocation of the few resources that are available.
- The Norton Town Council has no funds for civil society support.

4.6 Methods and Techniques

There are three research methodologies applicable in scientific studies. The traditional ones are the quantitative and qualitative methodologies, with the third one being the emerging methodology of mixed methods (MM) (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner 2007). Quantitative research applies the post-positivist or positivist paradigms and involves the collection and analysis of numerical data (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 5). It is used in projects that are deductive and ask questions about relationships, co-occurrences or causation (Morse 2010: 3). Qualitative methodologies apply the constructivism paradigm and it involves the collection and analysis of non-numeric data, usually aimed at a deeper understanding of the phenomenon and lived experiences. It is used in inductive projects in which the research questions are descriptive or interpretative (Morse 2010: 3).

4.6.1 Mixed Methods Research

Mixed method (MM) is the third alternative which advocates the usage of “whatever methodological tools are required to answer research questions” (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 7). It is a research design in which qualitative and quantitative approaches are applied in one study depending on the types of questions, research methods, data collection and analysis procedures or inferences” (Cameron 2011: 103).

The selection of MMR for this study is premised on what (Bryman 2006: 106) terms a “process” typology and further explains it as when “quantitative research provides an account of structures in social life but qualitative research provides sense of process”. MMR is the third force of research methods after the quantitative methods and qualitative research methods (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner 2007; Onwuegbuzie and Collins 2007; Cameron and Molina-Azorin 2011). Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) give an all-encompassing definition of MMR, based on its core characteristics, which combines methods, a philosophy, and a research design orientation. This is aptly summarised in the following statement by (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011: 8):

> Research problems suited for mixed methods are those in which one data source may be insufficient, results need to be explained, exploratory findings need to be generalized, a second method is needed to enhance a primary method, a theoretical stance needs to be employed, and an overall research objective can be best addressed with multiple phases, or projects.

MMR is therefore suitable for application in answering research questions in which a single data source is not sufficient.

Selecting to use MM depends on decision points that reflect on interaction, priority, timing and mixing (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011: 68; Terrell 2012: 260). Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 68) further state that there are six MM designs to choose from. These include the convergent parallel design, the explanatory sequential design, the exploratory sequential design, the embedded design, the transformative design and the multiphase

design. This research study applied a transformative mixed methods framework that is depicted in Figure 4.6. This framework enables MM to be used for advocacy and transformative purposes through addressing issues of power and social relationships (Sweetman, Badiee and Creswell 2010). In this study, the focus was on the transformative perspectives of social injustice, social entrepreneurship, and youth expectations (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011; Creswell 2014). The researcher used the framework to quantitatively uncover and then qualitatively expose how structural violence has marginalised youth within the Zimbabwean context. The purpose of its usage is to advance the transformative goals of the study, which are to challenge the status quo and develop solutions for the participants.

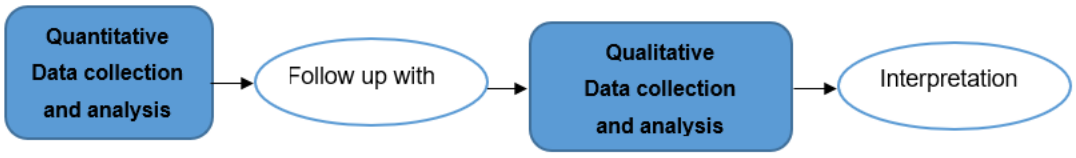


Figure 4.6: Transformative Framework (Source: Creswell and Plano Clark 2011: 69-70).

4.6.2 Characteristics of the Transformative Design

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 73-76) landscape the characteristics of the six MM designs. These have been gleaned for the transformative design and are summarised in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Characteristics of the transformative design.

Prototypical Characteristics	Transformative Design
Definition	Framing the concurrent or sequential collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data sets within a transformative theoretical framework that guides the methods decisions

Design purpose	Need to conduct research that identifies and challenges social injustices
Typical paradigm foundation	Transformative worldview as an umbrella philosophy
Level of indication	Interactive
Priority of the strands	Equal quantitative or qualitative emphasis
Timing of the strands	Either concurrent or sequential
Primary point of interface for mixing	Design level
Primary mixing strategies	Mixing within a theoretical framework Merging, connecting or embedding the strands within a transformative theoretical lens
Common variants	Feminist lens Disability lens Socioeconomic class lens

(Source: Creswell and Plano Clark 2011: 73-79)

4.6.3 When to use the Transformative Design

As Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 97) indicate, the transformative design is appropriate when it has been determined that the study has a transformative aim and also under the following considerations:

- The researcher seeks to address issues of social justice and calls for change
- The researcher sees the needs of underrepresented or marginalised populations
- The researcher has a good working knowledge of theoretical frameworks used to study underrepresented or marginalised populations

- The researcher can conduct the study without further marginalising the population under study

4.6.4 Advantages of the Transformative Design

Some of the strengths of the transformative design that Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 99) prescribe include the following four:

- The study is placed within a transformative and emancipatory worldview
- The research helps empower people and bring about change and action
- Participants usually play an active participatory role
- The researcher uses collection methods which produce results that are both useful to the community and are credible to policy-makers and stakeholders

4.6.5 Challenges of the Transformative Design

Transformative design does present its own set of challenges that are similar to other MM designs. As Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 99) point out, the following are some of the challenges of the transformative design:

- There is little guidance in literature to support researchers
- The researcher may need to justify the usage of the transformative design
- The researcher must develop trust with the participants and be able to conduct the research in a culturally sensitive manner

4.7 Diagrammatic Presentation of this Study

It is recommended that when writing up an MM research that one uses a notation system or a diagram to describe the MM design (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011: 108, Plano Clark *et al.* 2010). The researcher of this study chose to make a diagrammatic presentation of the study, as depicted in Figure 4.7.

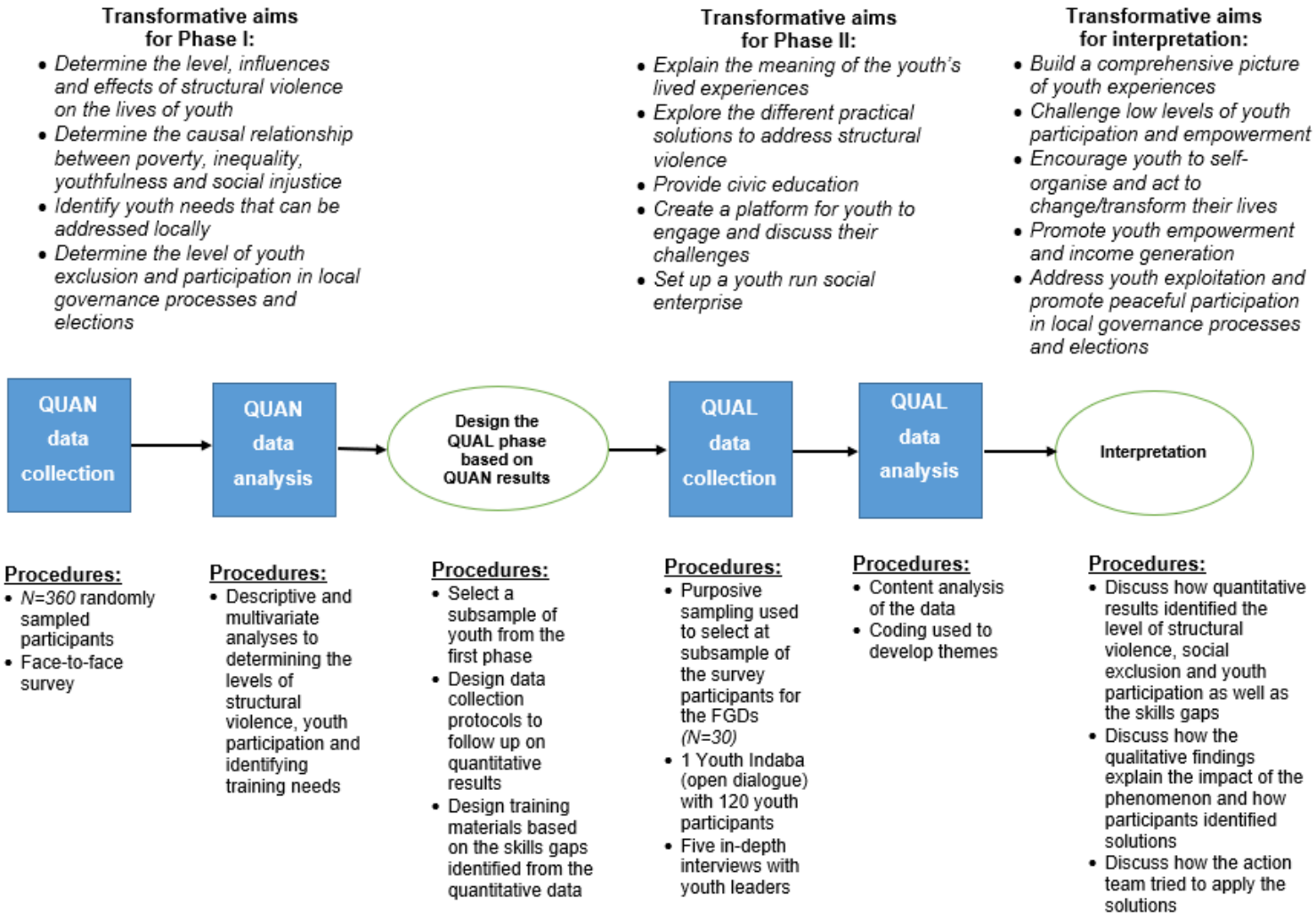


Figure 4.7: Diagrammatic description of the transformative design of the study (format adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark 2011: 129).

4.8 The Structural Violence/Social Injustice Transformation Model

This study was a socio-economic class lens transformative variant (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011: 100). In this regard, the researcher developed the "Structural Violence Transformation Model" which summarises the entire research frame. Given the fact that in Galtung (1969)'s definition, structural violence is equated to social injustice, the model can also be referred to as a "Social Injustice Transformation Model" and is depicted in Figure 4.8.

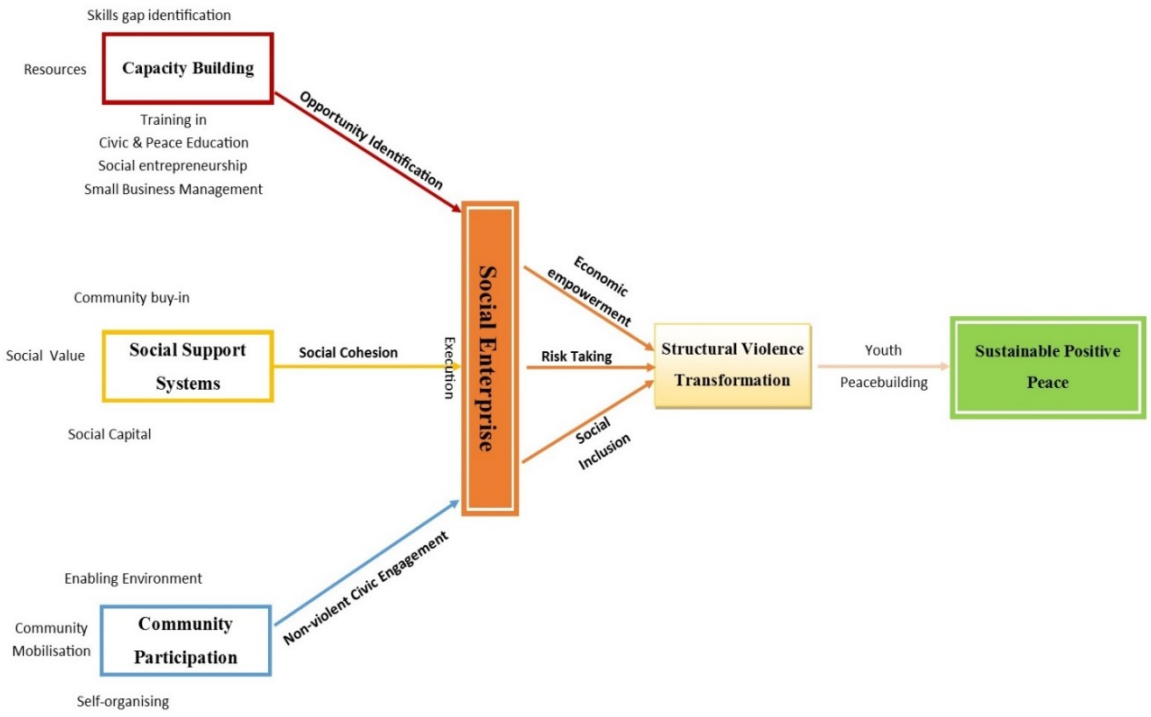


Figure 4.8: Structural Violence/Social Injustice Transformation Model (Source: author).

As indicated in the proposed model, there are three key variables that can be harnessed together in a social enterprise to transform structural violence and therefore attain sustainable peace. The capacity-building variable involves the

identification of needed skills, then filling this gap through training, resource mobilisation and opportunity identification. The social support system entails support from the community, which provides the social capital and social value necessary for the presence of social cohesion during the execution of the intervention. Community participation requires an enabling environment that allows the youth to self-organise and carry out community mobilisation activities that lead to increased non-violent civic engagement. A social enterprise that will be established will address the risk aspects of the intervention while providing the economic empowerment and social inclusion need for social injustice transformation. If well-executed, this can prove to be a useful youth peacebuilding tool that leads to sustainable positive peace.

4.9 Data Collection, Pre-Testing and Data Analysis

4.9.1 Data used

Every research study is supported by the key element of data which needs to be correctly selected in order to accomplish the study's aim (Ellis and Levy 2012: 407). Given that this study was embedded in a practical approach of action research, it relied on primary data. Primary data is data obtained for the sole purpose of the study and is purposively collected directly by the researcher using various techniques (Hox and Boeije 2005: 593, Ellis and Levy 2012: 407). The data used in this study was compiled from the measuring instruments that are explained further in other sections of this chapter. These instruments include questionnaires, focus group guides and interview guides. The researcher also relied on observations and field notes for the primary data.

4.9.2 Data Collection

Data is collected to acquire information that answers the research questions. As Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 171) highlight, the data collection procedures consist of sampling, gaining permissions, collecting data, recording the data, and

administering the data collection. These comprise a series of interconnected steps that are summarised in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Recommended data collection procedures.

Persuasive Qualitative Data Collection Procedures	Procedures in Data Collection	Rigorous Quantitative Data Collection
Identify the site(s) to be studied. Identify the participants for the study. Note the sample size. Identify the purposeful sampling strategy to enrol participants and why it was chosen (inclusion criteria). Discuss recruitment strategies for participants.	Using sampling procedures	Identify the site(s) to be studied. Identify the participants for the study. Note the sample size, the way it was determined and how it provides sufficient power. Identify the probabilistic or non-probabilistic sampling strategy. Discuss recruitment strategies for participants.
Discuss permissions needed to study the sites and participants. Obtain institutional review board approvals.	Obtaining permissions	Discuss permissions needed to study the sites and participants. Obtain institutional review board approvals.
Discuss the types of data to be collected (open-ended interviews, open-ended observations, documents, audio-visual materials). Indicate the extent of data collection. State the interview questions to be asked.	Collecting information	Discuss the types of data to be collected (instruments, observations, quantifiable records). Discuss reported scores for validity and reliability for instruments used.

Mention what protocols will be used (interview protocols, observational protocols). Identify recording methods (e.g. audio recordings, field notes).	Recording the data	State what instruments or checklists will be used and provide examples.
Identify anticipated data collection issues (e.g. ethical, logistical).		State how procedures will be standardised. Identify anticipated ethical issues.

(Source: Creswell and Plano Clark 2011: 173)

There are six data collection strategies, the strengths and weaknesses of which are presented in Table 4.4. Qualitative approaches usually include observations, interviews and documents (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 204), while quantitative ones are normally questionnaires, tests or structured interviews. The data collection procedures applied for this study are summarised in Figure 4.9 based on the presentation format used by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 191).

Table 4.4: Salient strengths and weaknesses of Six Data Collection Strategies.

Strategy	Strengths	Weaknesses
Observation	Allows one to directly see what people do without having to rely on what they say they do. Can be used with participants with weak verbal skills. Good for description.	Reasons for behaviour may be unclear. More expensive to conduct than questionnaires and tests. Data analysis sometimes time-consuming.
Unobtrusive measures	Unobtrusive, making reactive and investigator effects very unlikely. Can be collected for time periods occurring in the past (e.g. historical data).	May be incomplete because of selective reporting or recording. Data possibly dated.

	Archived research data are available on a wide variety of topics.	Access to some types of content may be difficult.
Focus groups	Useful in exploring ideas. Allows study of how participants react to each other. Allows probing.	Sometimes expensive. May be dominated by one or two participants. Focus group moderator possibly biased.
Interviews	Good for measuring attitudes and most other content of interest. Allows probing by the interviewer. Can provide in-depth information.	In-person interviews are expensive and time-consuming. Reactive and investigator effects may occur. Data analysis sometimes time-consuming for open-ended items.
Questionnaires	Good for measuring attitudes and elicit other content from research participants. Inexpensive. Quick turnaround.	Must be kept short. Might have missing data. Response rate may be low for mail questionnaires.
Tests	Can provide good measures of many characteristics of people. Instruments usually already developed. Wide range of tests available.	Can be expensive. Possibly reactive effects may occur. Sometimes biased against certain groups of people.

(Source: Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 239)

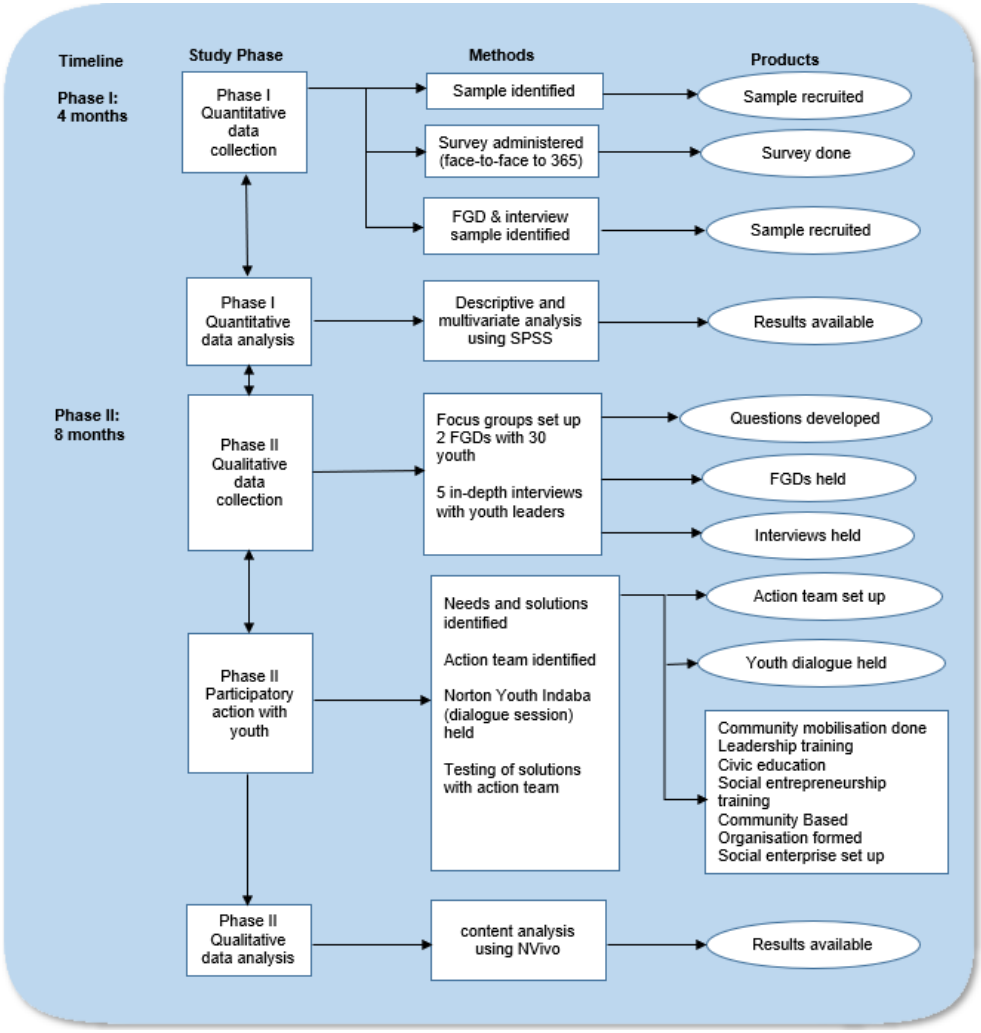


Figure 4.9: Data collection procedures for the study (Presentation format adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark 2011: 191).

The sequencing approach was applied in collecting data for this study. The sequencing design allowed the researcher to collect data from both methodologies and interpret it separately (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011: 211). The researcher used primary data sources that included a survey as well as direct interactions with youth and some policy-makers through Focus Groups and In-depth Interviews. At all stages, observations were made and were recorded as a running narrative of the study (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 219-220). The researcher relied on unstructured field notes to highlight structural violence amongst the youth. A

quantitative survey was first carried out, and the results were then analysed and used to develop the qualitative data collection questions. The questionnaire that was used consisted of close-ended questions based on predetermined response scales. The survey data enabled the researcher to ascertain young people's knowledge, behaviours, attitudes and perceptions towards structural violence and social inequality, and evaluate the youth's peacebuilding skills gaps and thus address objectives 1 and 2 of the study. The survey also determined the impact of structural and cultural violence on the socio-economic rights of marginalised communities, especially youth. During the survey, the researcher was able to identify participants for the Focus Groups (FGs) and the interviews. As Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009: 229-228) specify, FGs are interview and observational techniques that allow the researcher to not only carry out a series of discussions but also to observe interactions amongst group members. They also highlight that interviews are open-ended one-to-one interactions that allow interviewers to ask for explanations of vague questions or probe concepts further. The qualitative typologies that were used in this study allowed participants to express their feelings, experiences and knowledge on social injustice.

The quantitative approach was used to answer the following research questions:

- What is the level of social inequality in Zimbabwe and what are its major contributors?
- What type of peace exists in Zimbabwe?
- How is structural violence presented in Zimbabwe and how does it impact on the lives of youth?
- What is the nexus between social inequality, negative peace and polarisation in Zimbabwe?
- How do social inequality, negative peace and polarisation constitute a vector of conflict?

- What are the training and resource needs that will cause youth to exploit opportunities for sustainable peace within their communities?

The qualitative approach answered the following questions:

- How does poverty and social inequality impact the livelihoods of youth in Zimbabwe?
- How is structural violence presented in Zimbabwe and how does it impact the lives of youth?
- What are the levels of polarisation in Zimbabwe?
- What solutions can youth proffer to address the prevalence of structural violence?
- How can social entrepreneurship be used to bring about conflict transformation in Zimbabwe?

4.9.3 Pre-Testing

The researcher carried out a pre-test of the measuring instruments with a small sample size before going into the field for broader data collection. The survey questionnaire was pre-tested with 15 respondents for accuracy and efficiency. The interview questions were also pre-tested with two participants, while six people were used to pre-test the FG questions. The survey pre-test led to minor changes being made to the questionnaire. The researcher needed to change the wording in a few questions as they were not clearly understood during the administration of the survey. Some skip patterns which were not tying up in the draft questionnaire were also changed. The pre-test of the qualitative instruments revealed a language barrier with the respondents. The interviewees and focus groups struggled with using English and required an explanation of some terms. The researcher therefore translated all his questions into Shona and simplified them.

4.9.4 Data Analysis

Further in this study, the quantitative findings (Chapter 5) will be presented and then the qualitative findings (Chapter 6) will be narrated. Data from the questionnaires was captured, cleaned and analysed using the SPPS software. Descriptive statistics were applied to analyse the responses from the survey and thus determine the variables' frequencies. In this case, the processes of data collection and analysis were closely knit. Content analysis and coding were used in interpreting the qualitative data. The NVivo software was used to capture and analyse this qualitative data. Conclusions drawn from both findings will be presented in the discussion section which will explain how the qualitative data provided an in-depth understanding of the quantitative data. The same section will also provide a report on the findings of how the action team's proposed activities succeeded or failed to bring about the intended social change.

4.10 Study Area, Target Population and Sampling Method

The study was carried out in Norton, an urban district which falls under Mashonaland West Province of Zimbabwe. Norton has 13 wards and a population of more than 67,000 people out of a national estimated figure of more than 14 million inhabitants. The study's target population were youth in this town aged between 18 and 35 years. The researcher randomly selected these youth from within Norton for the survey. Random sampling affords everyone in the defined population group an equal chance of being included in the sample (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 171; Creswell 2013: 204). As Creswell (2013: 204) avers, randomisation allows the researcher to generalise to a population because of the representative sample used. The sampling target for the survey was 340 based on the following calculation adopted from Kumar (2013):

$n = z^2pq/e^2$, where
n = sample size

z = standard normal deviate of 1.96

p = proportion of the population with desired characteristics (youth in Norton)

q = 1 – p

e = maximum allowable error of 0.05

Therefore $n = (1.96)^2(0.33)(0.67)/(0.05)^2$

$= 340$

The final result involved 355 respondents taking part in the survey.

The researcher then undertook a purposive selection of five youth leaders for in-depth interviews (IIs) and 30 focus group participants from the survey participants and the Norton community. Purposive sampling is one of the techniques which can be used for qualitative data collection where a wealth of detail is taken from a small sample, usually of 30 cases (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 173). They further assert that purposive sampling procedures focus on the 'depth' of information generated from these cases. In the purposive sampling process, the researcher deliberately selected youth who had experienced structural violence and were willing to address it. The researcher then used the FGs to select 15 youth who formed the initial action team set to operationalise the solutions developed from the study. The selection of the action team was iterative, as those who could not commit to the emerging solutions were dropped. The aim of this approach was to develop a focused team that could bring out the expected transformative goals of this study.

4.11 Validity and Reliability – Aspects of Data Quality

Regardless of the data collection procedures applied, the researcher must answer questions pertaining to data quality (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 209). Validity and reliability are appropriate concepts for the attainment of rigor in research. According to Hesse-Biber (2010: 85), validity asks if the tools applied measure the phenomenon that they are supposed to, while reliability looks at whether the same results would be obtained if the measure is repeated within the same population

shortly thereafter. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009: 209) put it differently by stating that validity measures whether the data represents the construct that it is assumed to capture and reliability focuses on its consistent and accurate representation of this construct. In MM, validity centres on whether the right MM design procedures were applied. In her collection of validation questions that have been posed by different researchers, Hesse-Biber (2010: 86-87) gives the following as the type of questions to ask:

- Does the research use both qualitative and quantitative data, and if so, are they mixed?
- Is the correct type of terminology employed?
- Does the study give a good reason for using mixed methods?
- Does the study clearly state that its purpose was to mix methods?
- Does the study clearly state the mixed methods steps involved in collecting and analysing the data?
- How well do the researcher's findings fit in with the problem? In other words, did his or her findings capture the issues (problem) at hand?
- How well does the researcher answer his or her research question(s)?
- Did the research capture an understanding of the issue?

This study was expected to pass several criteria and strategies laid down on verifying the truth in interpretive epistemology (Sandberg 2005). The researcher of this study believes that it does pass these. For the quantitative data, internal validity was achieved through establishing cause and effect relationships of the variables, while the external validity was ensured through a representative sample and correct inferences on a different sample. The qualitative data's validity was proven by ensuring data accuracy through participant validation (member check) as well as by doing a multiple-source triangulation (interviews, FGDs, observations and action team diaries). Reliability of the quantitative data was achieved through ensuring that there are consistent and stable scores from respondents. Reliability was therefore

negotiated between social and cultural settings as well as relationships with other people. In the context of this research, the role of the political settings, the communities' attitudes and the perceived dangers were not ignored in determining reality. The following aspects also cement the data quality issues:

- The researcher had a lived experience during the study by working directly with a selected action team.
- The researcher was directly involved in the design, collection, capturing and analysis of the data used in this research.

4.12 Limitations

Time, human and financial resources were the major limitations in this study as I did not have a large funding grant to undertake the study. This meant that the action team and study area were kept small. Due to the economic and political situation, mistrust and polarisation were the other limitations identified in this research study. The community was highly polarised and ever suspicious of anyone collecting information in their neighbourhood.

4.13 Ethical Considerations, Anonymity and Confidentiality

This research needed to address ethical concerns such as plagiarism, confidentiality and protection of the subjects' identities (Terrell 2012: 276, Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009: 198). These concerns were addressed by conforming to the ethical codes set by the Durban University of Technology. The researcher needed to get clearance from the university's Ethics in Research Committee as well as from the community gatekeepers, in this case, the Norton Town Council. The researcher gave standard consent agreement forms to the respondents during the survey as well as in the FGs and KIIs. The researcher ensured the non-disclosure of the respondents' identity by using numbers in place of names. The researcher has also ensured that only his dissertation supervisor, the action team and himself would have access to the raw

data. The research findings will be distributed through this report, which will be made public at a later stage. No raw data or data sources will be made public. The respondents were also given the right to withdraw from the research but would not have the right to censor or edit the final thesis.

4.14 Conclusion

This chapter has elucidated the study's research design in greater detail. This study was based on the transformative and participatory paradigms in which participants and their subsequent actions were aimed towards carrying out something positive about their community's situation. This study also applied an action research method embedded within a mixed methods research (MMR) framework. The researcher will apply a transformative exploratory sequential mixed methods framework, with the focus being on the transformative perspectives of social injustice, social entrepreneurship and youth expectations. The study was carried out in Norton with youth from this town aged between 18 and 35 years. 365 youth were randomly selected to participate in the survey. Using purposive sampling, the researcher selected five youth leaders for in-depth interviews and 30 FG participants from the survey sample. During the FGs, the researcher selected 15 youth who formed the initial action team. In the next section, the data collection procedures will be explained in detail in sharing the data that was collected using quantitative and qualitative strategies. The quantitative data will first be shared and analysed in a separate chapter. This will be followed up with the findings and analysis of the qualitative data in another chapter.

CHAPTER 5: QUANTITATIVE DATA

5.1 Introduction

This section of the study presents the data that was collected in the field. As indicated in Chapter 4, the study was carried out in two phases (see Figure 4.9). Phase I involved the collection and analysis of quantitative data using a survey. This phase was used to obtain baseline data that informed the second phase. Phase II involved the carrying out of qualitative data collection using several measuring instruments that included FGDs, IIs and observations during the application of the intervention to address SV. It is relevant to point out at the outset that the findings from the study might look peculiar in relation to what the 'norm' is in other countries simply because Zimbabwe presents a somewhat unique situation. It is unique that Zimbabwe, while not at war, has a high number of internally displaced people and refugees due to a perpetual economic crisis. There are many Zimbabweans who have been forcibly evicted from farms or residential stands that were illegally sold to them by land barons. It is estimated that more than a quarter of the country's population is living outside its borders (Idemudia, Williams and Wyatt 2013). Many of these have gone on to seek asylum in friendly countries under the guise of persecution, yet what they are looking for in actuality are better economic prospects for themselves and their families. Another point to note is the aspect of employment in Zimbabwe. Due to the high unemployment rate, youth have been forced to find "innovative ways to express and exploit their talents and capabilities in the agriculture and household enterprises (informal sector)" (Fox, Senbet and Simbanegavi 2016). While this type of self-employment would fit into the World Bank (2012) definition of jobs being activities that generate actual or imputed income, monetary or in kind, formal or informal, it is still flawed as a measure of employment. The researcher of this study contends that as long as people are forced into self-employment, they are merely operating as 'survival entrepreneurs' still restricted to a state of poverty and living on less than $2 a day. The informal nature of many of the businesses in Zimbabwe makes it harder

to justify the usage of the broader definition of employment that is used by the government to claim that the country has high employment rates. The researcher of this study argues that self-employment should only be classified as employment if it leads to the (i) meaningful generation of income, (ii) contribution to the fiscal through taxes and (iii) creation of sustainable jobs. The findings pertaining to unemployment levels in Zimbabwe are shared in Section 5.2.3.a.

Table 5.1 below summarises the major findings of the study in line with the research aims and questions. These findings will be explained in further detail in the subsequent sections of this chapter.

Table 5.1: Linking the findings of this study to the research aims and questions.

Research Aim	Research Question	Findings
Explore the nexus between social inequality, negative peace and polarisation in Zimbabwe and how they constitute a vector of conflict and determine their impact on the lives of youth.	What is the level of social inequality in Zimbabwe and what are its major contributors?	There is a high level of social inequality that is being driven by political and economic systems that don't favour the poor and marginalised.
	How does poverty and social inequality (structural violence) present in Zimbabwe and how does it impact the livelihoods of youth?	People live in abject poverty and have limited access to basic services like water, education and health care. Youth endure high levels of unemployment, lack of access to information, hopelessness and resignation due to structural violence.
	What type of peace exists in Zimbabwe?	There is negative peace in Zimbabwe that is punctuated with polarisation and intolerance.
	What is the level of Zimbabwean youth participation in	Youth participation is low and the major barriers include ephebiphobia, the lack of youth-

	elections and public processes and what are its barriers or enablers?	friendly spaces, lack of financial resources and a general lack of interest in politics and public processes.
Identify the training needs and social entrepreneurship opportunities within the community for youth focused peace infrastructure(s) in the community's context of negative peace.	What are the training and resource needs that will make youth exploit opportunities for sustainable peace within their communities?	Youth needed training on elections, governance, democratic processes and youth participation. They lacked skills on communicating and dealing with government officials, dealing with conflict non-violently and starting their own businesses.
	What solutions can youth proffer to address the prevalence of structural violence?	SV can be addressed through allowing youth the space to participate in community development without restrictions, leadership trainings, awareness campaigns, pro-youth policies, getting effective engagement in productive activities and fostering employment opportunities.

5.2 Results of the Quantitative Study

The quantitative survey was conducted in Norton between September 2016 and January 2017, with the help of a research assistant. The study targeted young people who fell within the 18-to-35-year-old age group. Respondents were randomly selected in the streets as well as in places where youth usually congregate such as the Norton Vocational Training Centre (NVTC), churches, sports clubs and at some youth events. Respondents who participated from the NVTC were selected through the help of the staff there although participation was voluntary. The rest of the respondents were approached individually and asked if they were keen to participate in the study. Those who consented were then given the paper questionnaire to

complete. Out of 450 people who were approached, 365 completed and returned the questionnaires, thus giving the research team a response rate of 82%.

The questionnaire had four sections namely: (i) demographics, (ii) knowledge, behaviour, attitudes and perceptions on socio-economic, elections and governance processes, (iii) perceptions on structural violence incidents and (iv) perceptions on Positive Peace Index (PPI) Indicators. While the researcher developed most of the questions himself, some of the questions used in the survey were taken from the Youth Survey of Nepal (British Council Nepal 2011), the Baseline Survey done in Timor-Leste (Dhungana and Adams 2013) and the PPI 2016 (IEP 2016).

5.2.1 Respondents' Characteristics

Approximately 96% of the respondents were aged between 18 and 35 years, with 54% being female. 48% indicated "O" Levels as their highest level of education. This data is presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Respondent's demographics.

Age	
18-23	32%
24-30	39%
31-35	25%
35 +	4%
Gender	
Male	46%
Female	54%
Highest level of education	
Primary	11%
O Level	48%
A Level	11%

Tertiary	28%

5.2.2 Level of Structural Violence amongst Youth

To find out the level of structural violence, the respondents were asked to indicate their employment status, reason for being unemployed as well as their monthly income. Only 9% of the respondents reported being formally employed as depicted in the diagram on their employment status (Figure 5.2). The lack of employment opportunities within the community was reported as the main reason for unemployment by 39% of the respondents. See Figure 5.3 for the different reasons why respondents were unemployed. This was reiterated during the focus group discussions and in-depth interviews. Close to 80% reported monthly earnings between $0 and $60 (Figure 5.4). This classifies most of the youth as poor. Only 5% indicated that they perceived their family's level of affluence to be rich. A mere 4% of the respondents were most likely to own the house that they were staying in (Figure 5.5). The rest were either renting (23%) or staying in a place owned by someone else where they were not paying rent (73%).

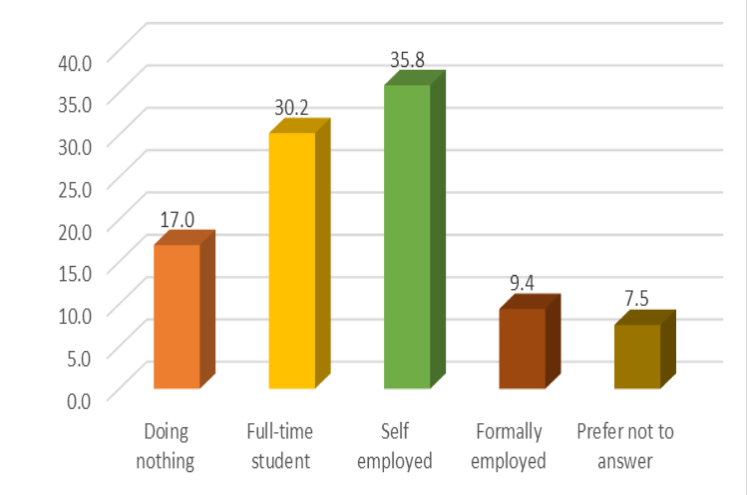


Figure 5.2: Employment status.

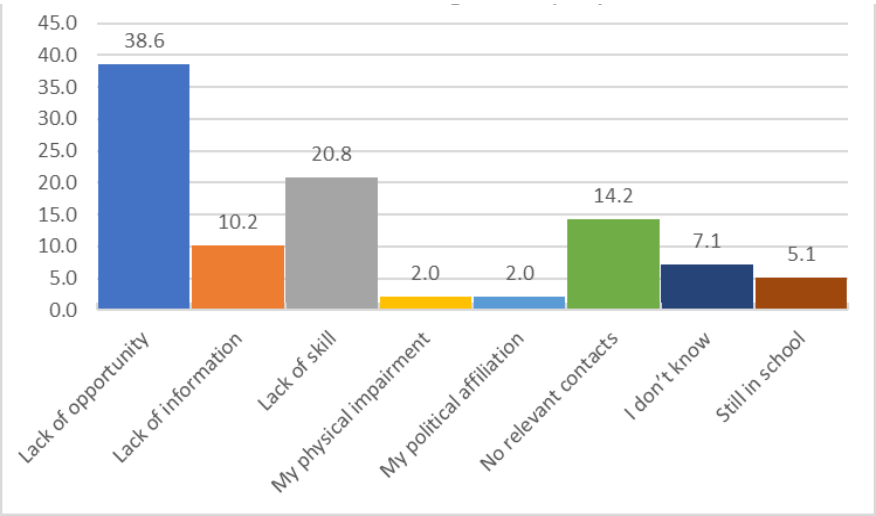
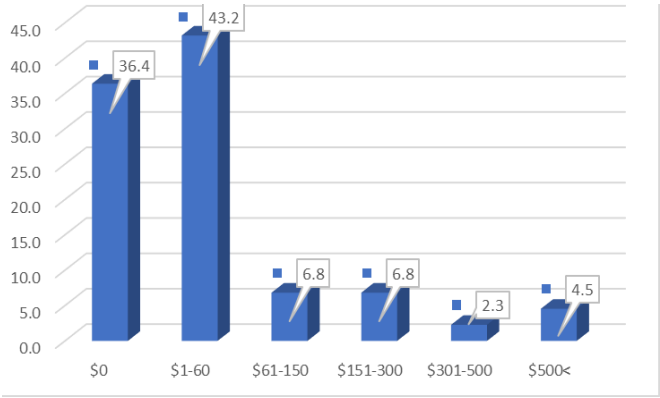


Figure 5.3: Reason for being unemployed.



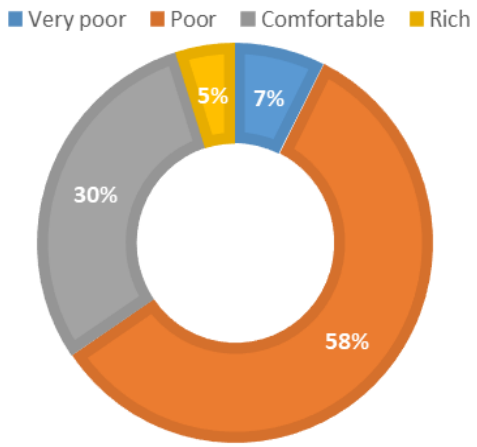


Figure 5.4: Monthly earnings and perception of family's level of affluence.

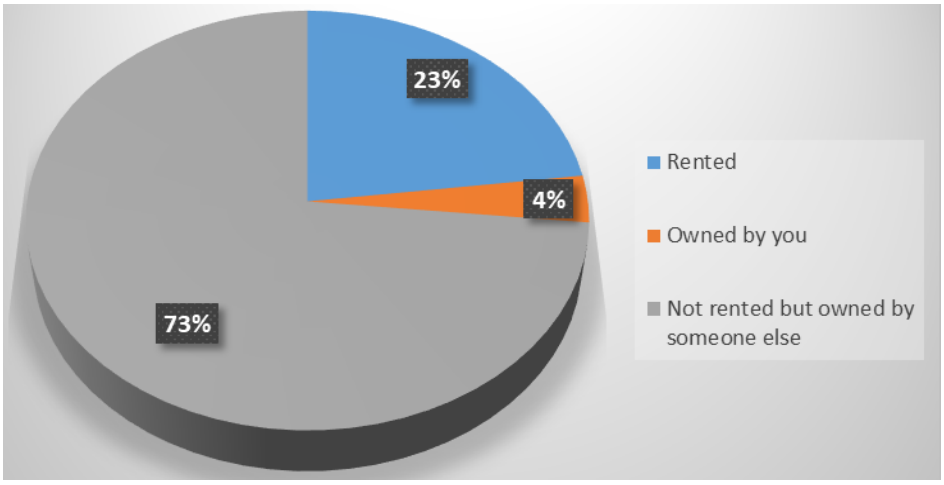


Figure 5.5: Ownership of current place of residence.

5.2.3 How Structural Violence is presented in the Community

a. Major Socio-Economic Challenges faced by Youth

Respondents were asked to indicate the three major socio-economic challenges faced by youth in the community. Unemployment (85%), access to basic education (62%), poverty (55%) and drug-abuse (38.1%) were identified as the major socio-economic challenges that befall youth in the community (Figure 5.6). The youth indicated that due to the unfavourable economic situation in the country, the social moral fibre is decaying and that they are now adopting dangerous coping habits.

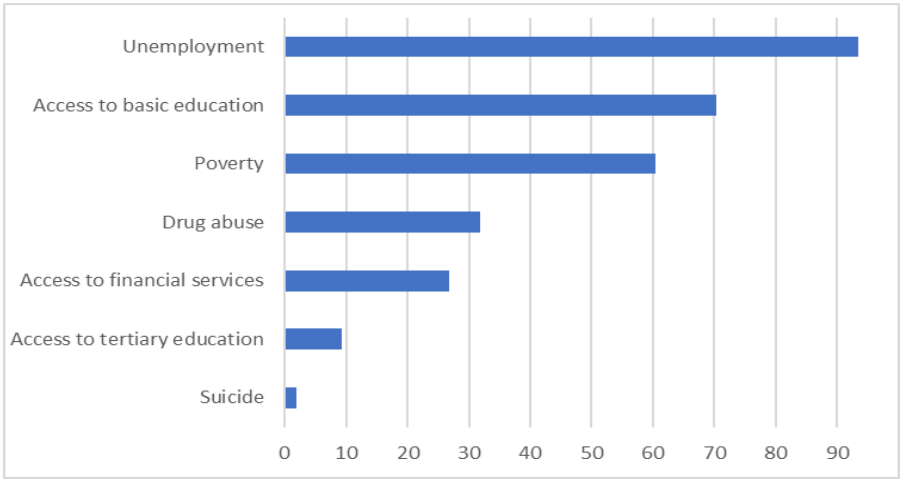


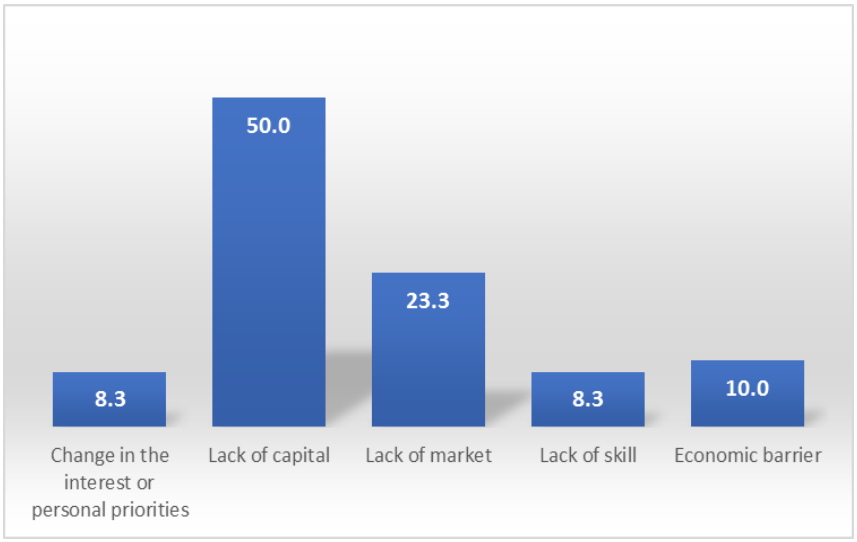
Figure 5.6: Major socio-economic challenges.

b. Access to Means of Production and Local Resources

To determine if the youth had access to a means of production, they were asked if they owned a business, owned one that has since closed or planned to start one. Only 28% of young people reported ownership of an existing business, with 22% indicating ownership of one that has closed while almost all (98%) wanted to own one in the future. Almost 60% had received some form of business management training (Table 5.3). Table 5.3 shows how many respondents either owned a current business or one that is now closed. The table also shows data on whether the respondents planned to open a business in the future or had received any business management training. A lack of capital, a lack of skills, a restrictive economy and a lack of access to markets were the major reasons why the businesses had either been closed or not been started (Figure 5.7).

Table 5.3: Business ownership.

Current ownership		**Ownership of a closed business**		**Plan to open a business in the future**		**Business management training received**	
Yes	28%	Yes	22%	Yes	98%	Yes	60%
No	72%	No	78%	No	2%	No	40%



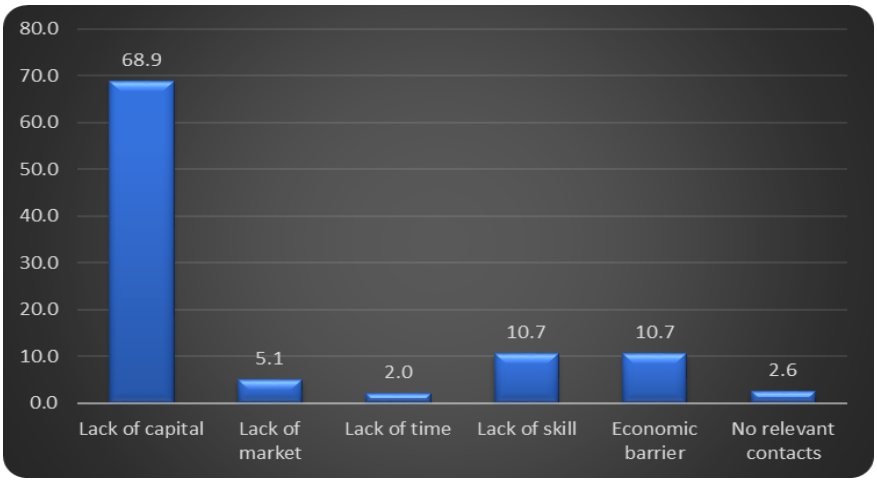


Figure 5.7: Reason for closing or not starting a business.

c. Access to Services and Information

To gauge the effect of structural violence on the youth, the respondents were asked the following: *"Because of your background and Zimbabwe's current socio-economic situation, would you be able to equally get access to (select the one easiest for you to do)"*. In response, only 18.7% indicated that they would easily get employed, with 15.5% stating that it would be easy for them to access the government-run Youth Fund Loans (Figure 5.8).

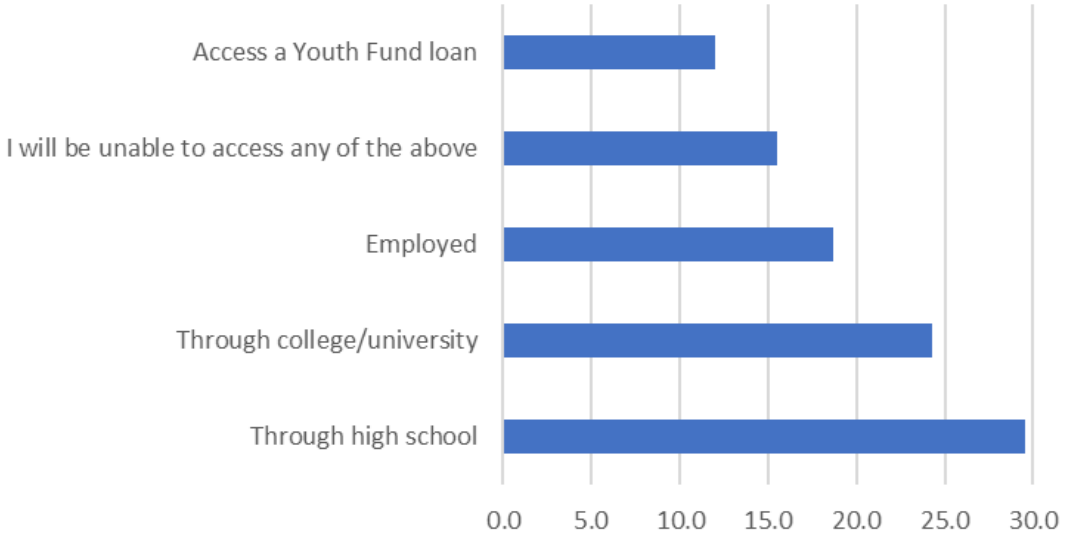


Figure 5.8: Ability to access services in the prevailing personal and national situation.

d. Access to Vocational Skills Training

The respondents were also asked if they had access to vocational skills training or information on the same. Even though 87% of the respondents said that there were opportunities to get training and that Norton has a vocational training centre (VTC), only 39% had received training from there (Table 5.4). Out of those who received the vocational skills training, only 22.8% were employed in the area in which they had received training. 76.8% of those trained indicated that they had been sponsored by a government or a non-governmental organisation to do their studies (Table 5.5).

Table 5.4: Vocational skills training opportunities.

	Availability of vocational skills training	**Received vocational skills training**	**Employed in area of vocational training**
Yes	87%	39%	22.8%
No	2%	61%	58.8%
Not known	10%		18.4%

	n=354	n=349	n=136

Table 5.5: Sponsor of the vocational skills training.

	Sponsorship of the vocational skills training
Government, NGO or INGO	77%
Self-funded	16%
Not known	7%

e. Barriers to Access of Training

The respondents were asked to state the barriers that inhibited them from accessing the available vocational skills training from the local VTC. A lack of information (30%) and the inability to raise fees (19%) were the major reasons stated (Figure 5.9). The lack of information on the courses offered by the VTC was shown by the respondents' inability to correctly indicate these. Some selected courses are noticeably not offered at the VTC (Table 5.6).

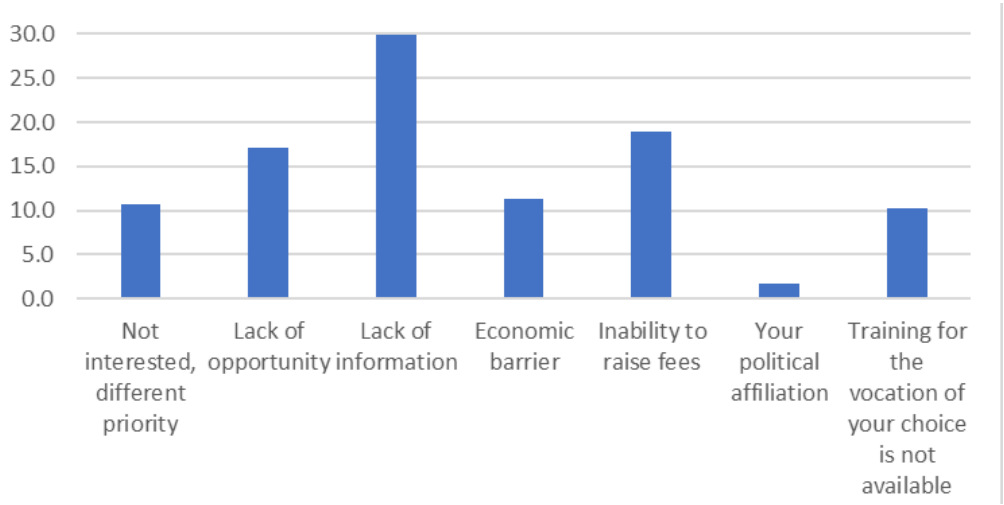


Figure 5.9: Reasons for not accessing vocational training.

Table 5.6: Courses available at the local VTC.

Computers	2.20%
Carpentry	24.70%
Hairdressing	20%
Motor mechanics	11%
Tailoring	9.30%
Cooking	9%
Bee-keeping	9%
Fisheries	9%
Plumbing	5.80%
Electrician	4.70%
Electronic mechanics	6.60%
Caregiver	7.10%
I don't know	7.10%

5.2.4 Youth Participation, Ephebiphobia and Tokenism

The respondents were asked if they thought that youth had any role to play in community development and governance and whether they were afforded an equal opportunity to participate. The two questions had a five-point Likert scale of 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' options. While 95% of the respondents felt that the youth had a role to play, only 25% agreed that they were being given equal participation opportunities (Table 5.7). Only 18% of the youth agreed that *'local development decision making processes and activities are becoming more participatory and youth inclusive in your area, compared to two years ago.'*

Table 5.7: Youth playing a role in community development and getting an equal opportunity to participate.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Not sure
Youth have role to play in community development and governance	**63%**	**32%**	0%	4%	1%
Youth given equal opportunity to participate in development issues	5%	20%	**61%**	**7%**	**7%**
Decision-making processes more participatory & youth-inclusive	4%	14%	**35%**	**32%**	**15%**

It was also observed that there were no youth-friendly public service facilities such as a library or recreational facilities in the area. There was little support being given to youth organisations operating in the area. In a bid to find out how easy it is for youth to access land, the researcher applied for land from the local council, indicating that he would like to set up a youth centre, but over the two-year period of the study, nothing had materialised. In addition, the researcher was asked thrice to resend an email to the Town Secretary with the request and asked by the Housing Department to resubmit the hardcopy of the letter three times as well.

With regard to youth participation in civic processes and meetings, the respondents were asked if they participated in community meetings or other civic processes. Seventy-six percent of the respondents were likely to participate in community meetings (Figure 5.10). The most common reason for not participating in meetings was that youth were either busy looking for money (32%), had no interest (27%) or that they had no information (26%) at all about the meetings (see Figure 5.11 for the

reasons why respondents did not participate in meetings). None of the respondents blamed the non-attendance on their parents not allowing them to attend, with only 15% believing that the meetings were only meant for adults.

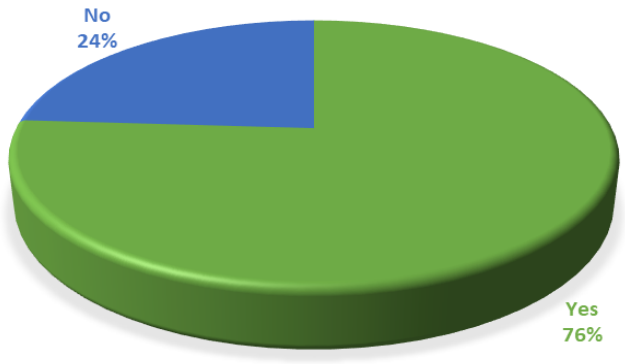


Figure 5.10: Do you participate in community meetings?

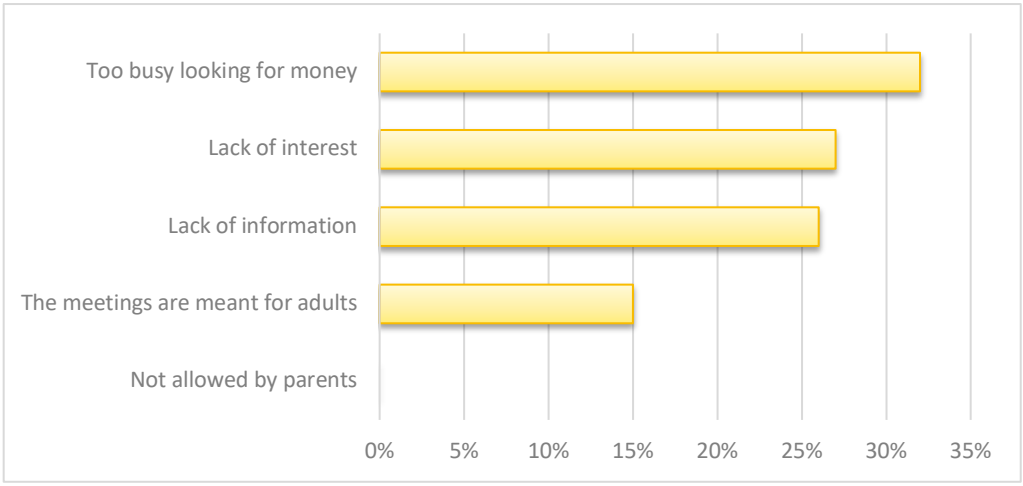


Figure 5.11: Reason for not participating in meetings.

5.2.5 Role played in Community Meetings

The respondents indicated that they played different roles when they attended community meetings, although they were most likely acting as participants (97%) with no major leading role (Table 5.8). Only 5% had chaired a meeting.

Table 5.8: Role played in community meetings.

	Convener / Chair	Participant	Discussant	Resource Person / Speaker
Yes	5%	97%	23%	28%
No	95%	3%	77%	72%
	n=75	n=207	n=270	n=274

With regards to youth participation in elections and politics, the following information was obtained:

a. Registered Voters

Respondents were asked whether they were registered voters or not? 49.3% of the respondents indicated that they were registered voters (Figure 5.12).

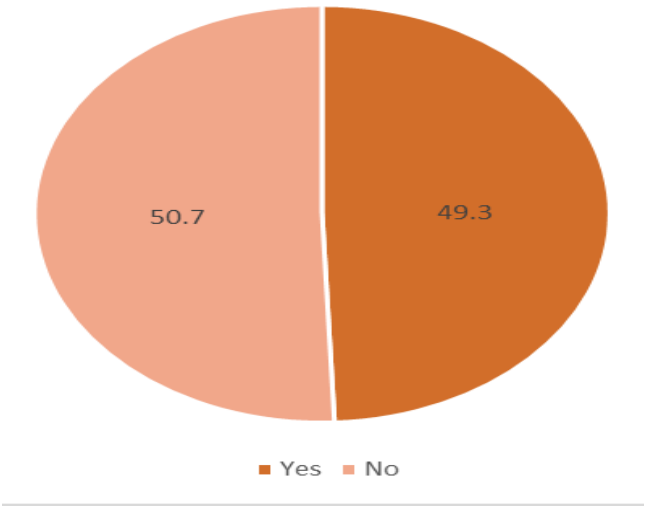


Figure 5.12: Are you a registered voter?

b. Conducive Environment for Political Discussions

The respondents were asked to state the settings in which they felt comfortable discussing issues related to elections or politics and decision-making with others. Similar trends were reported for both aspects, with the degree of comfort dropping as one went outside the circle of people that they were familiar with. As shown in

Table 5.9, 82% of the respondents indicated that they would be at ease discussing these issues with family but only 36% would do the same with any other unknown person.

Table 5.9: Ease in discussing elections or political issues in the community

	Comfortable discussing elections issues				Comfortable discussing political and decision-making issues			
	Yes	Not Always	No	Can't Say	Yes	Not Always	No	Can't Say
Family	82%	11%	7%		82%	8%	10%	
Friends	76%	17%	7%		72%	17%	11%	
Teachers	53%	21%	20%	6%	55%	21%	21%	3%
Local Leaders	60%	14%	22%	4%	56%	21%	19%	4%
Others	35%	27%	22%	16%	36%	25%	22%	17%

c. Open Political Space for Youth

Only 17% of the respondents agreed to the fact that political parties were creating space for youth participation, as shown in Figure 5.13. The rest were either not sure or in total disagreement.

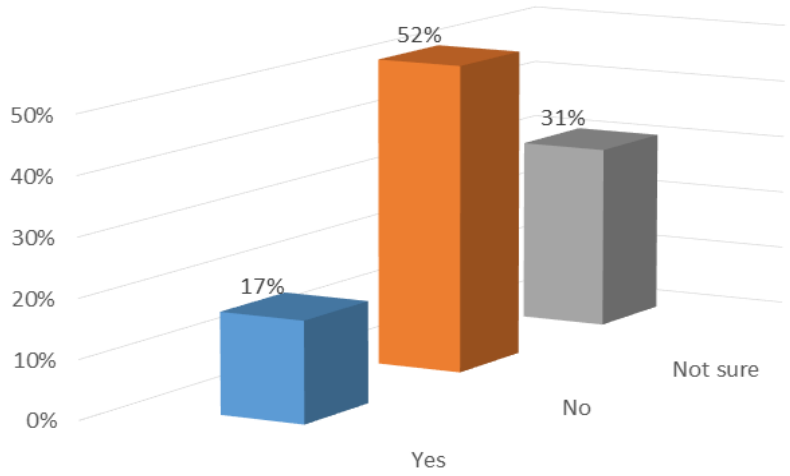


Figure 5.13: Political parties opening space for youth.

d. Readiness to run for Public Office

The respondents were asked if youth were ready to run for public office and whether this was the opportune time to do so. 48% were convinced that young people were ready to run for office although they needed more support to do so (Figure 5.14).

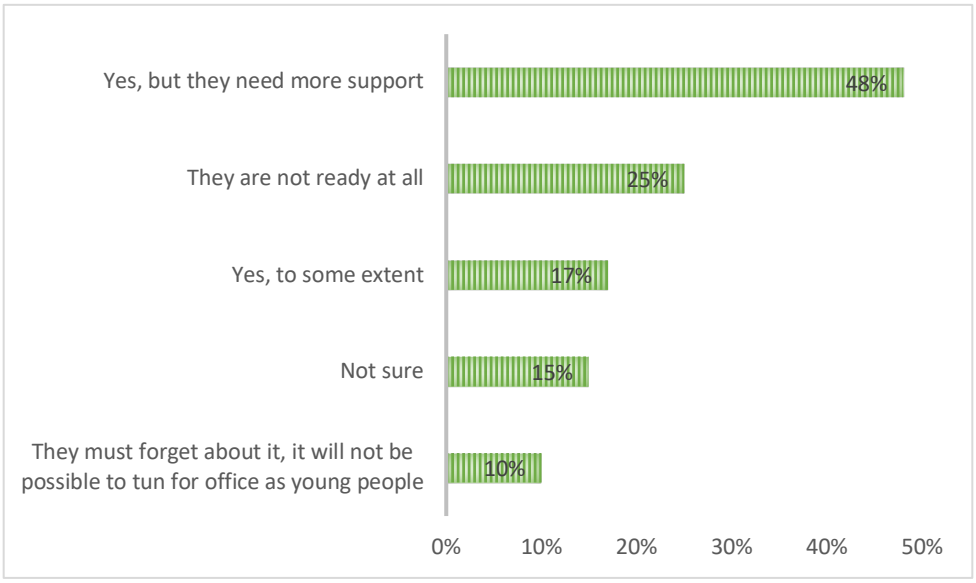


Figure 5.14: Youth readiness to run for public office.

e. Barriers to Youth Participation in Politics

The most common barriers to youth participation in politics or governance processes were: (i) political structures not allowing meaningful youth participation (67%), (ii) a

lack of interest (67%), (iii) being too busy looking for money (55%), (iv) a lack of information (37%) and (v) a lack of campaigning funds (35%), as shown in Figure 5.15.

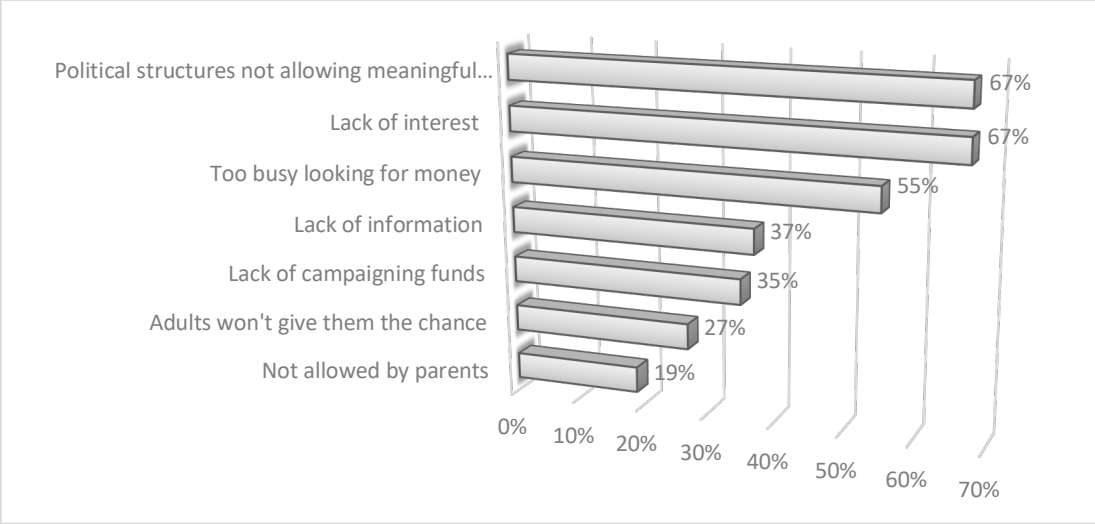


Figure 5.15: Barriers to youth participation in politics.

f. Ways to improve Youth Participation in Elections and Governance Processes

The respondents were asked what they thought needed to be done to improve youth participation in elections. 52% indicated that there was a need for the mobilisation and sensitisation of youth to register to vote, while 29% also highlighted the need for training in elections, governance and democratic processes (Figure 5.16).

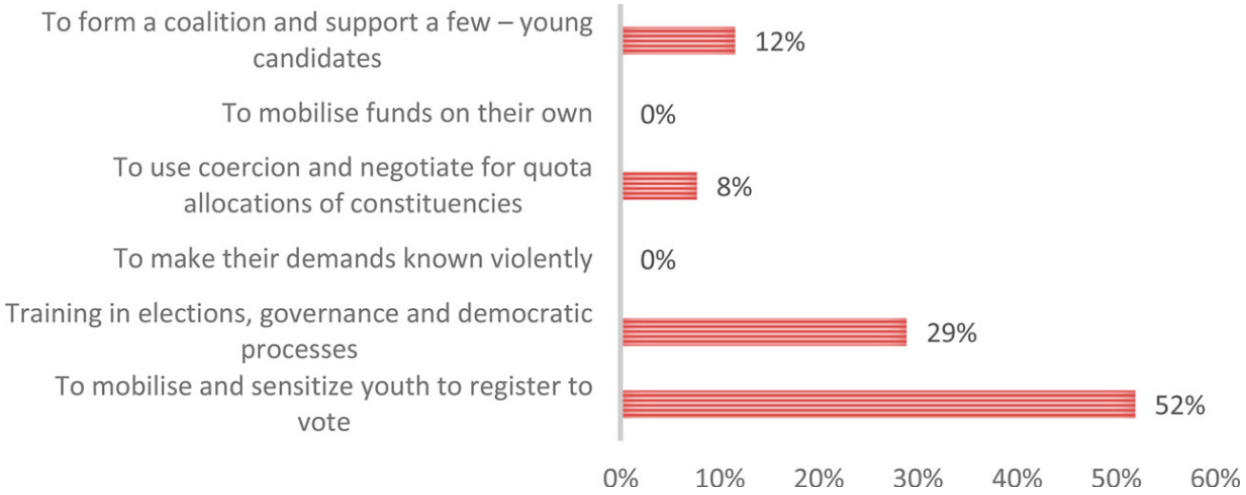


Figure 5.16: Ways to improve youth participation in elections.

5.2.6 Youth Participation in Violence and Peacebuilding Processes

a. Youth and Violence

The researcher asked the respondents if they agreed with the statements that positioned '*youth as the perpetrators of most violence in the community'* and that '*those who were violent were paid for it'*. Both questions had a 5-point Likert scale. 61% did not agree that youth were perpetrators of violence, while 79% believed that those who acted violently were paid to do so (Table 5.10). 20% of the respondents had participated in a protest or in political violence (Figure 5.17). Unemployment (51%) and payment from politicians (31%) were cited as the major reasons why youth are forced into violence (Figure 5.18).

Table 5.10: Youth as perpetrators of violence.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Not sure
Youth are the perpetrators of most violence in your community.	4%	26%	**45%**	**16%**	**9%**
Youth are not violent but those	**56%**	**23%**	20%	0%	1%

who are violent are usually paid to be so.					

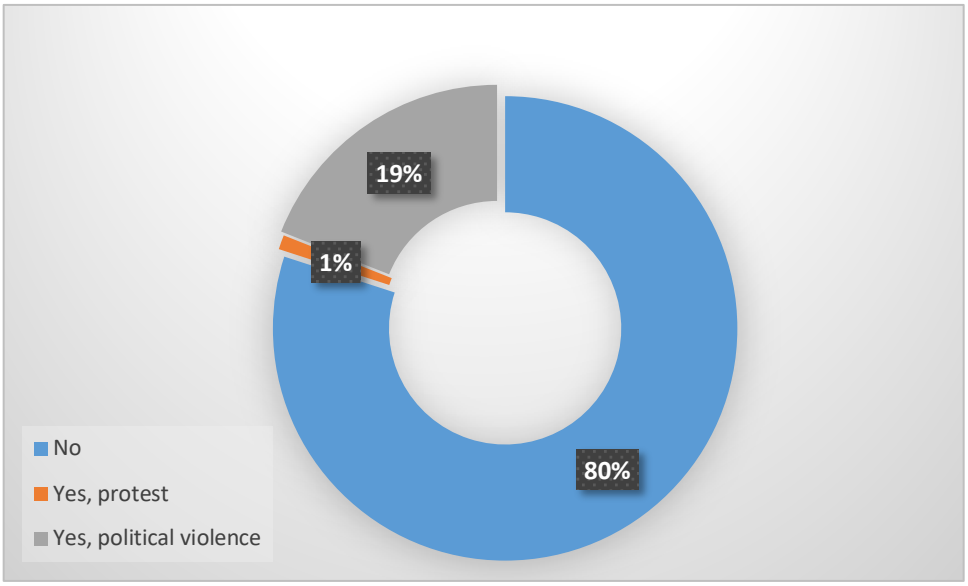


Figure 5.17: Participation in political violence.

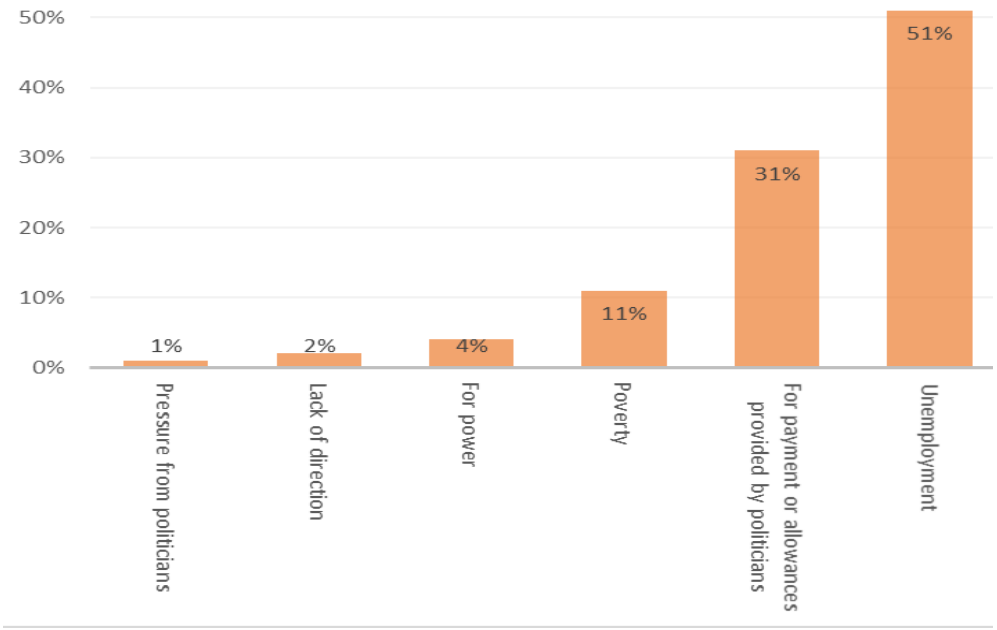


Figure 5.18: Reasons that youth are forced into violence.

b. Youth and Peacebuilding

64% of youth were most likely to be involved in some peacebuilding initiative within their community, with 70% not being satisfied with the level of involvement (Figure 5.19). Those who took part in peacebuilding initiatives did so as campaign volunteers (33%) or by avoiding to actively participate in any conflict or violence (25%) (Figure 5.20). The major reasons for not participating, as depicted in Figure 5.21, were that youth either did not believe in the output (37%) or they were not at all interested in peacebuilding (34%).

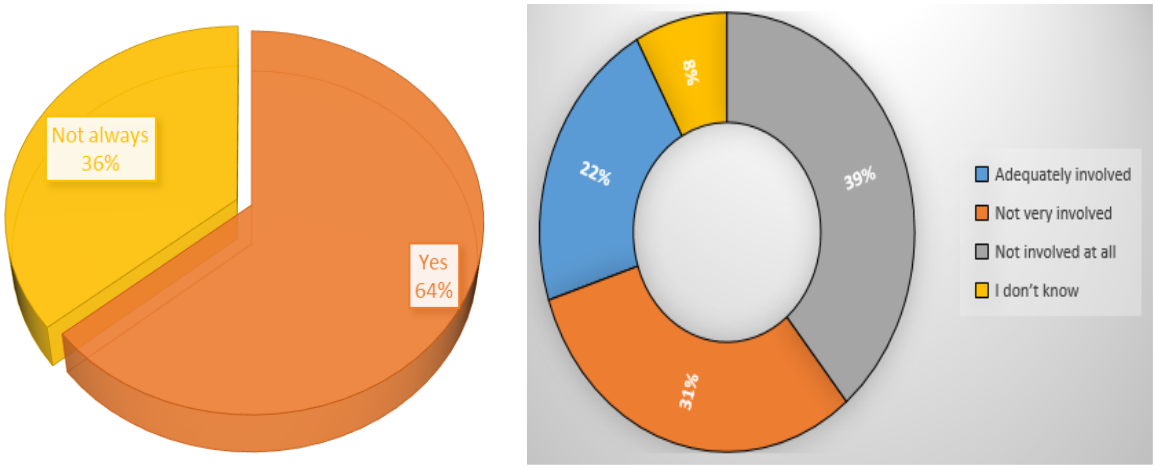


Figure 5.19: Involvement in peacebuilding.

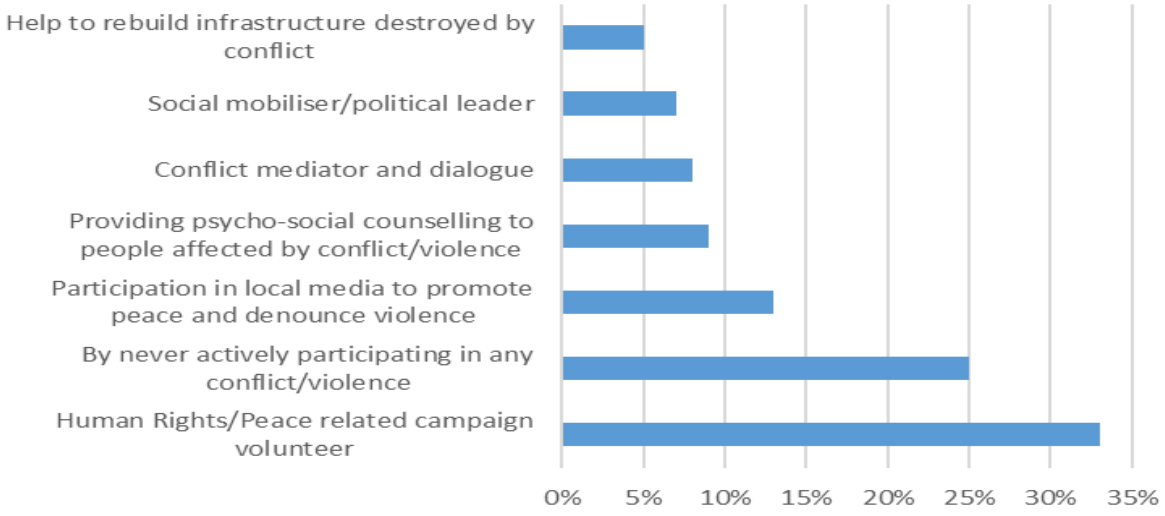


Figure 5.20: Ways you are involved in peacebuilding.

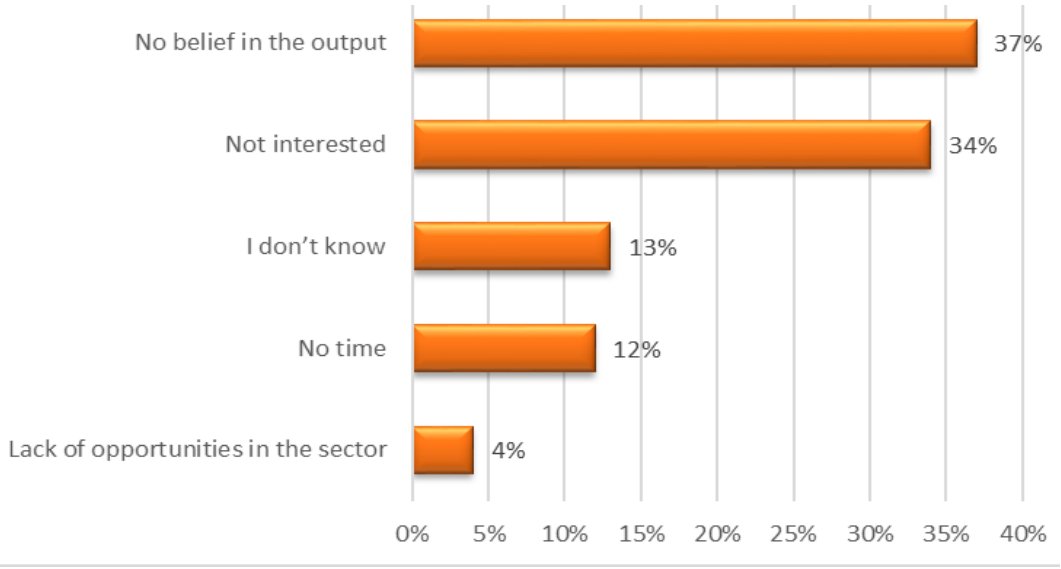


Figure 5.21: Reason for not participating.

c. Ephebiphobia and Tokenism

Respondents felt that when they attended meetings with adults that they were being ignored and nothing is done (55%) or that they were not given a chance to speak at all (31%). On the other hand, 83% were convinced that adults only called upon youth when they needed their energy as a gesture of tokenism (Figure 5.22). It was noted that the NTC has set up a Junior Council, which is a platform for youth within schools to participate in civic engagement. Participants in the FGDs and the Norton Youth Indaba lamented the lack of space and facilities that allowed youth to engage with local leaders and express themselves freely.

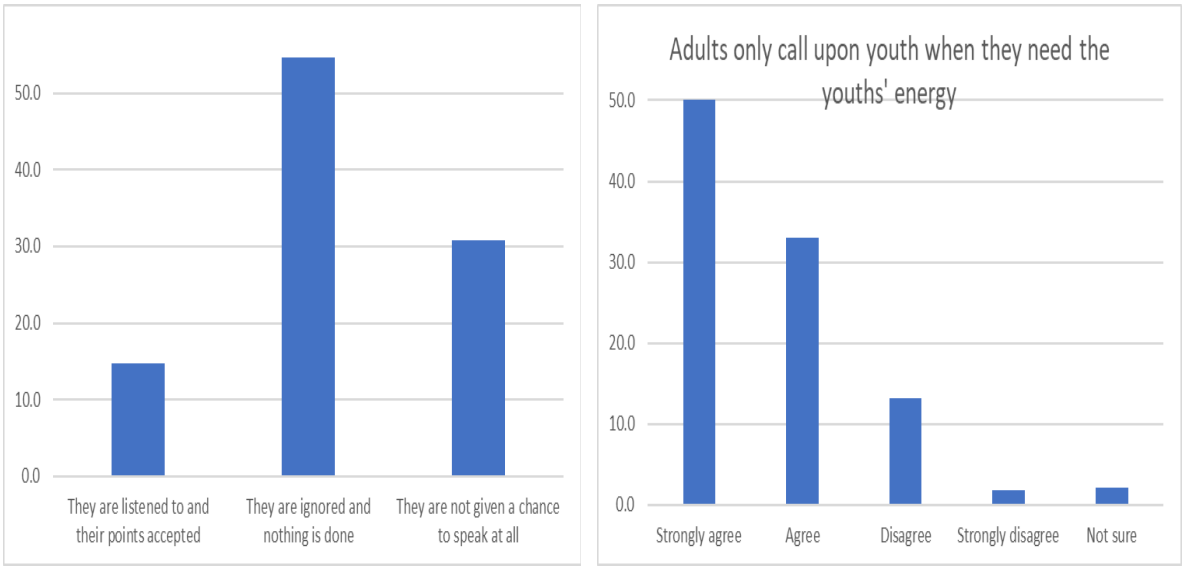


Figure 5.22: Ephebiphobia, tokenism or genuine youth participation?

5.2.7 Skills Gap Analysis

The respondents were asked if they possessed skills or knowledge in four areas. Fifty-one percent felt that they were skilled in dealing with conflict non-violently and in starting and running their own businesses (Table 5.11). However, 71% and 59% had a small amount of skills in election processes and in communicating with government officials respectively.

Table 5.11: Skills gap in four key areas of democratic processes, engaging government officials, non-violent action and business management.

	Yes, full range of skills	Yes, on the whole	Somewhat	Not really	Not at all
Knowledge on elections, governance, democratic processes and youth participation	27%	2%	**45%**	**22%**	**4%**

Skills to communicate and deal with government officials	33%	8%	**41%**	**12%**	**6%**
Skills to deal with conflict non-violently	**37%**	**18%**	33%	12%	0%
Skills to start and run your own business	**24%**	**27%**	30%	18%	1%

5.2.8 Correlational Tests across Variables

a. Correlation between Age, Gender and Level of Education and the Impact of Structural Violence

To discover if variables such as age, gender and level of education were associated with some structural violence indications, the researcher carried out a Chi-square analysis. The indicators that were tested were: (i) ownership of the house currently occupied, (ii) monthly income, (iii) employment status, (iv) occupation, (v) the ability to access education, employment and loans and (vi) the ownership of a business.

i. Correlation by Age

As Table 5.12 indicates, the Chi-Square analysis showed a statistically significant difference in five indicators ($p = 0.000$, $\alpha = 0.05$) except the ownership of a business, which revealed no significant difference ($p = 0.197$, $\alpha = 0.05$). These differences are depicted in Figures 5.23, 5.24 and 5.25.

Table 5.12: Chi-square analysis of age and structural violence indicators.

Age and …	Residence type			Earnings per month			Current employment status			Occupation			Ability to get services			Business ownership		
	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	60.381[a]	4	.000	56.950[a]	8	.000	28.431[a]	6	.000	145.698[a]	22	.000	63.805[a]	8	.000	3.250[a]	2	.197
Likelihood Ratio	63.928	4	.000	44.274	8	.000	27.181	6	.000	185.894	22	.000	79.587	8	.000	3.206	2	.201
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.820	1	.051	.757	1	.384	6.795	1	.009	17.453	1	.000	1.030	1	.310	.425	1	.514
N of Valid Cases	365			346			365			277			242			365		
	a. 1 cell (11.1%) has expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.64.			a. 7 cells (46.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.			a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .52.			a. 22 cells (61.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .49.			a. 1 cell (6.7%) has expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.32.			a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12.75.		

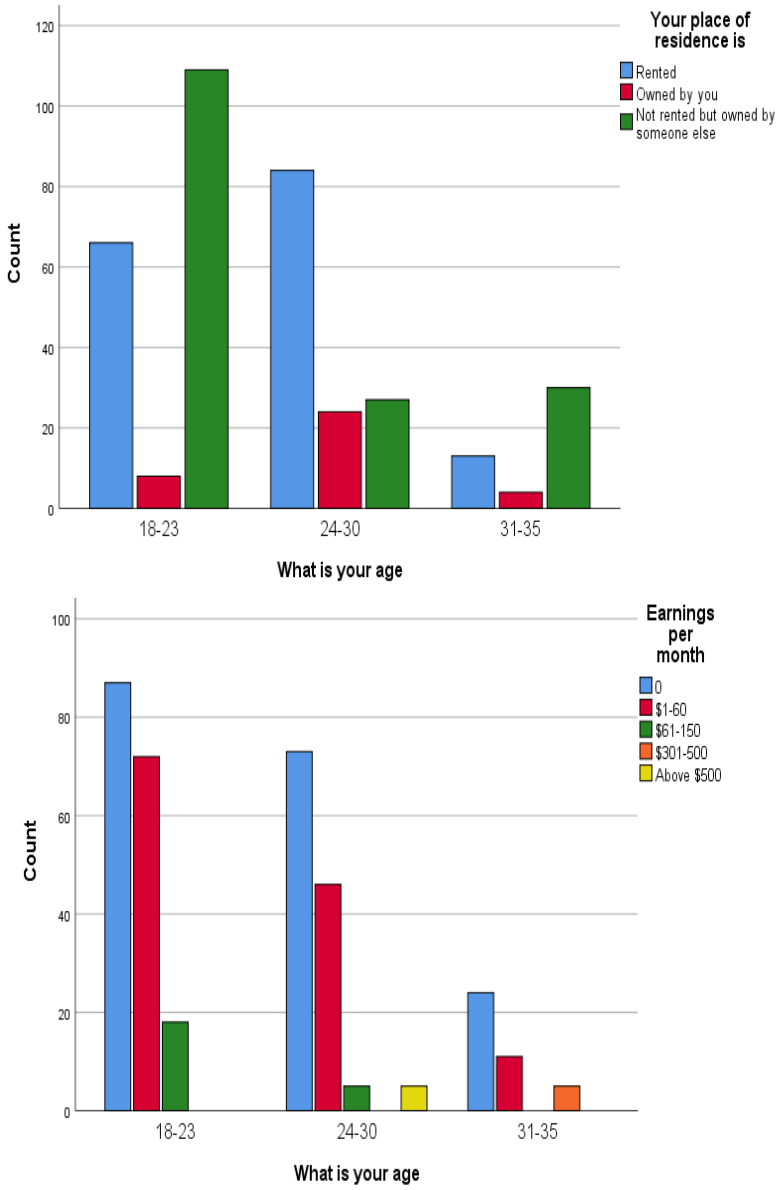


Figure 5.23: Differences in home ownership and income across age groups.

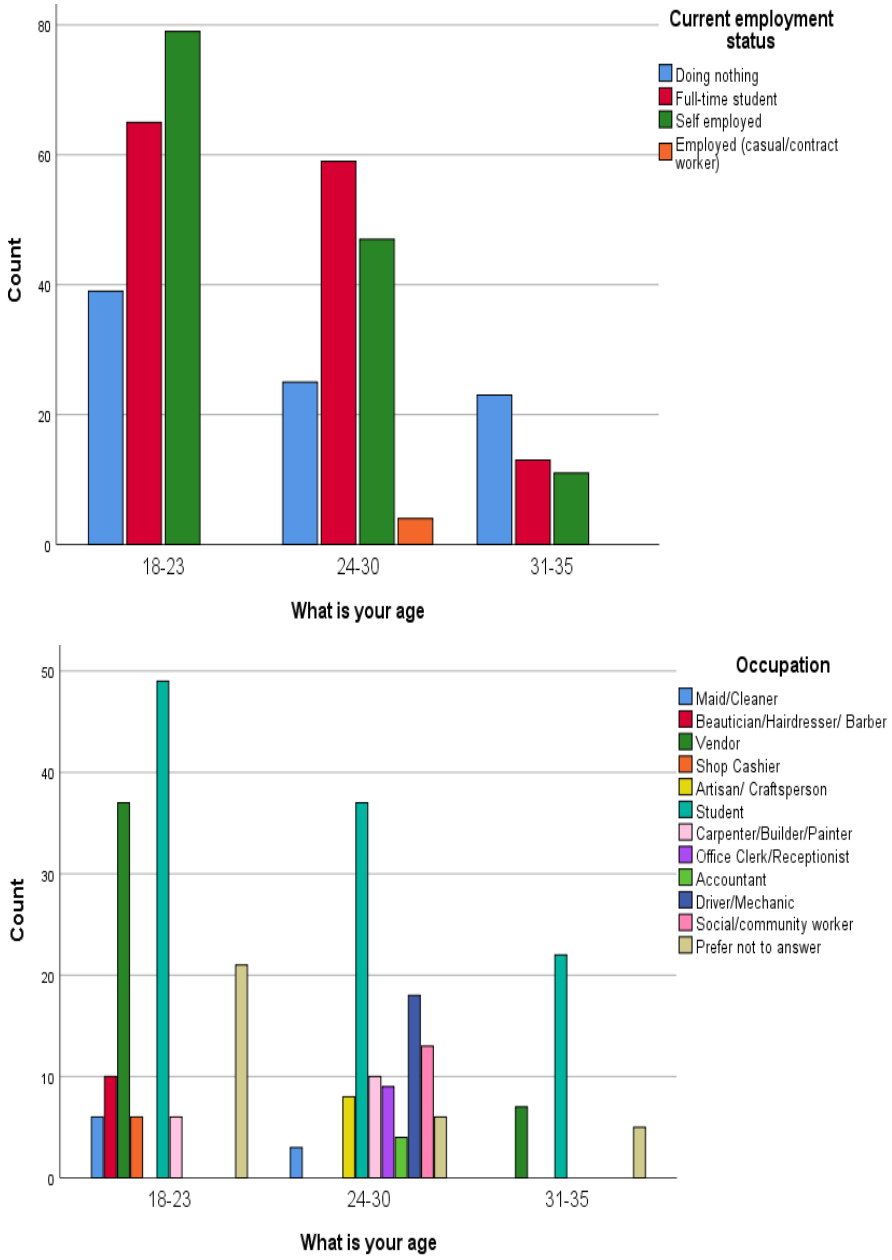


Figure 5.24: Differences in employment status and occupation by age.

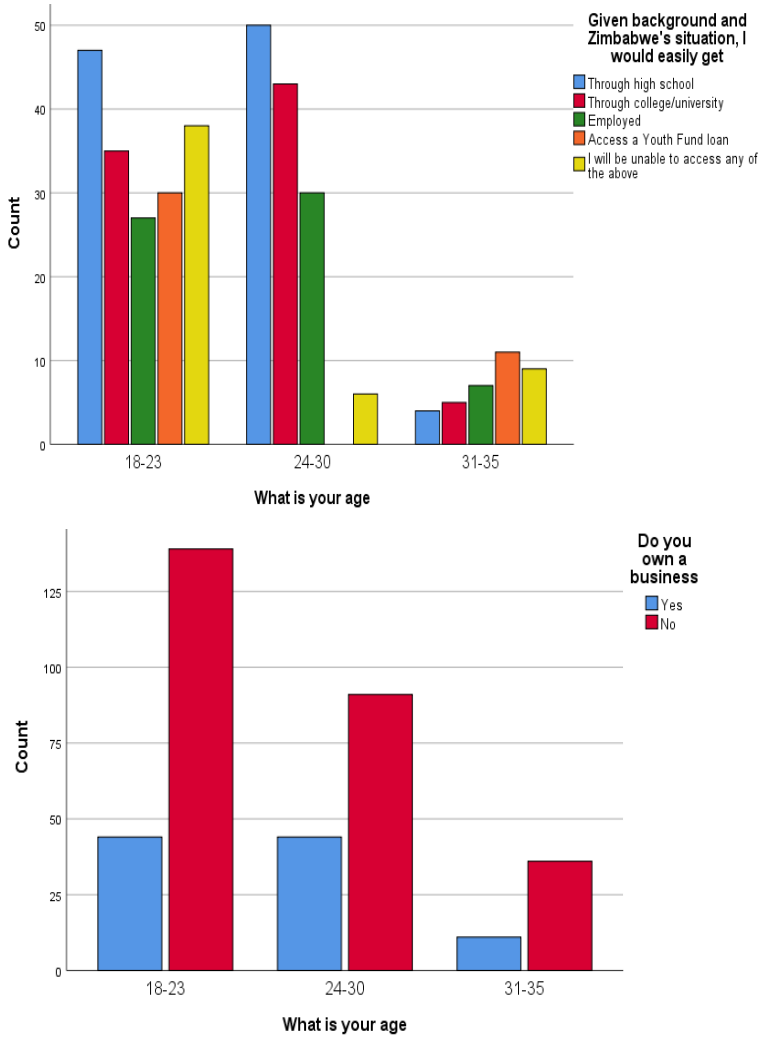


Figure 5.25: Differences in access to services and business ownership by age.

ii. Correlation by Gender

As Table 5.13 indicates, the Chi-Square analysis showed a statistically significant difference across all six indicators (p between 0.000 and 0.003, α = 0.05). These differences are depicted in Figures 5.26, 5.27 and 5.28).

Table 5.13: Chi-square analysis of gender and structural violence indicators.

Gender and …	Residence type			Earnings per month			Current employment status			Occupation			Ability to get services			Business ownership		
	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27.237[a]	2	.000	37.338[a]	4	.000	13.854[a]	3	.003	46.196[a]	11	.000	18.161[a]	4	.001	9.673[a]	1	.002
Likelihood Ratio	27.783	2	.000	49.707	4	.000	15.557	3	.001	57.522	11	.000	18.428	4	.001	9.817	1	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	19.027	1	.000	.029	1	.864	6.698	1	.010	.719	1	.397	6.044	1	.014	9.647	1	.002
N of Valid Cases	365			346			365			277			242			365		
	a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.16.			a. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.24.			a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.91.			a. 9 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.69.			a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.66.			a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 47.19.		

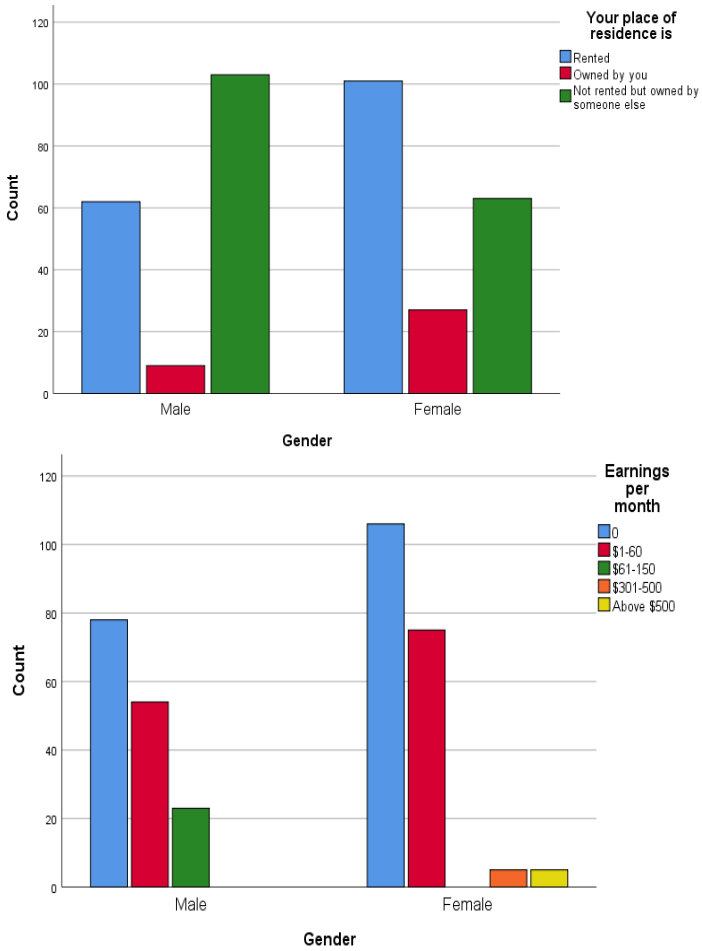


Figure 5.26: Differences in home ownership and income by gender.

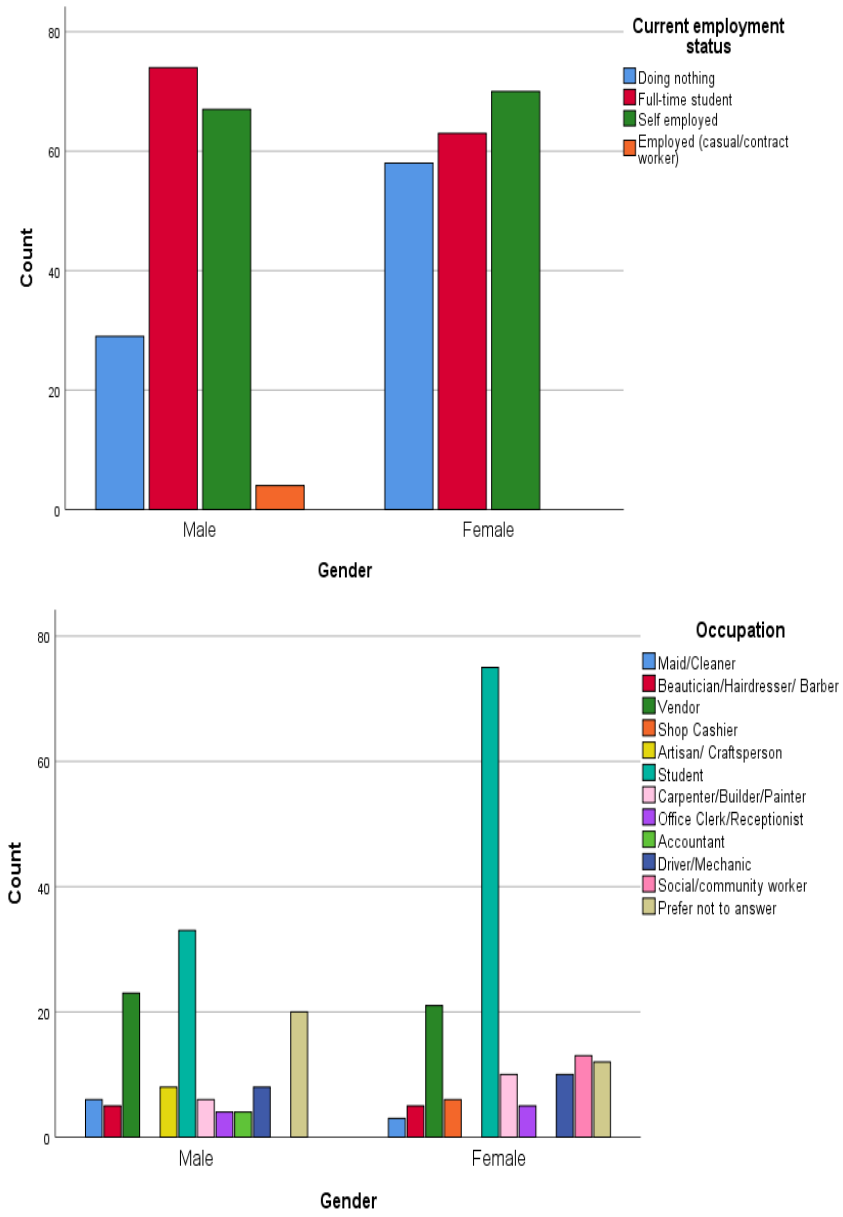
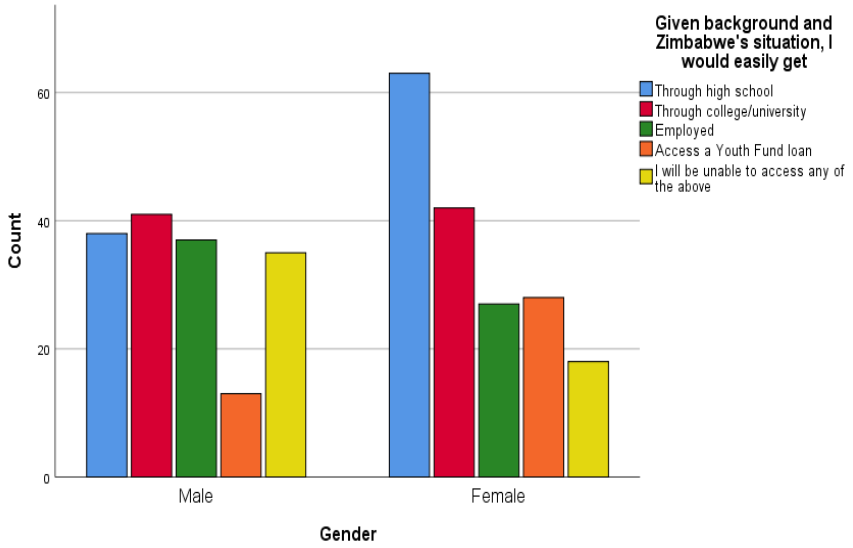


Figure 5.27: Differences in employment status and occupation by gender.



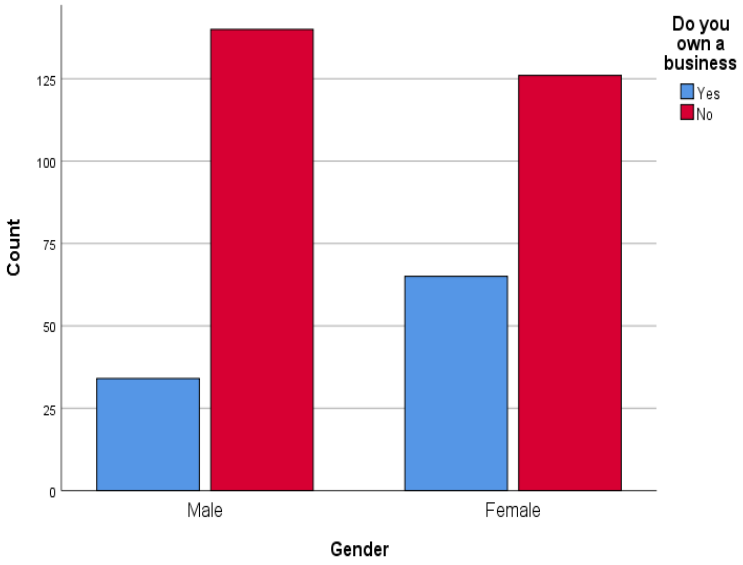


Figure 5.28: Differences in access to services and business ownership by gender.

iii. Correlation by Level of Education

As Table 5.14 indicates, the Chi-Square analysis showed a statistically significant difference across all the six indicators ($p = 0.000$, $\alpha = 0.05$). These differences are depicted in Figures 5.29, 5.30 and 5.31.

Table 5.14: Chi-square analysis of level of education and structural violence indicators.

Level of education and …	Residence type			Earnings per month			Current employment status			Occupation			Ability to get services			Business ownership		
	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.220[a]	6	.000	68.479[a]	12	.000	130.723[a]	9	.000	207.842[a]	33	.000	56.636[a]	12	.000	82.583[a]	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	26.010	6	.000	79.327	12	.000	145.770	9	.000	179.068	33	.000	65.420	12	.000	99.115	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.451	1	.502	22.427	1	.000	5.697	1	.017	21.812	1	.000	11.837	1	.001	1.503	1	.220
N of Valid Cases	365			346			365			277			242			365		
	a. 1 cell (8.3%) has expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.68.			a. 11 cells (55.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .25.			a. 5 cells (31.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .19.			a. 34 cells (70.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .16.			a. 4 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.04.			a. 1 cell (12.5%) has expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.61.		

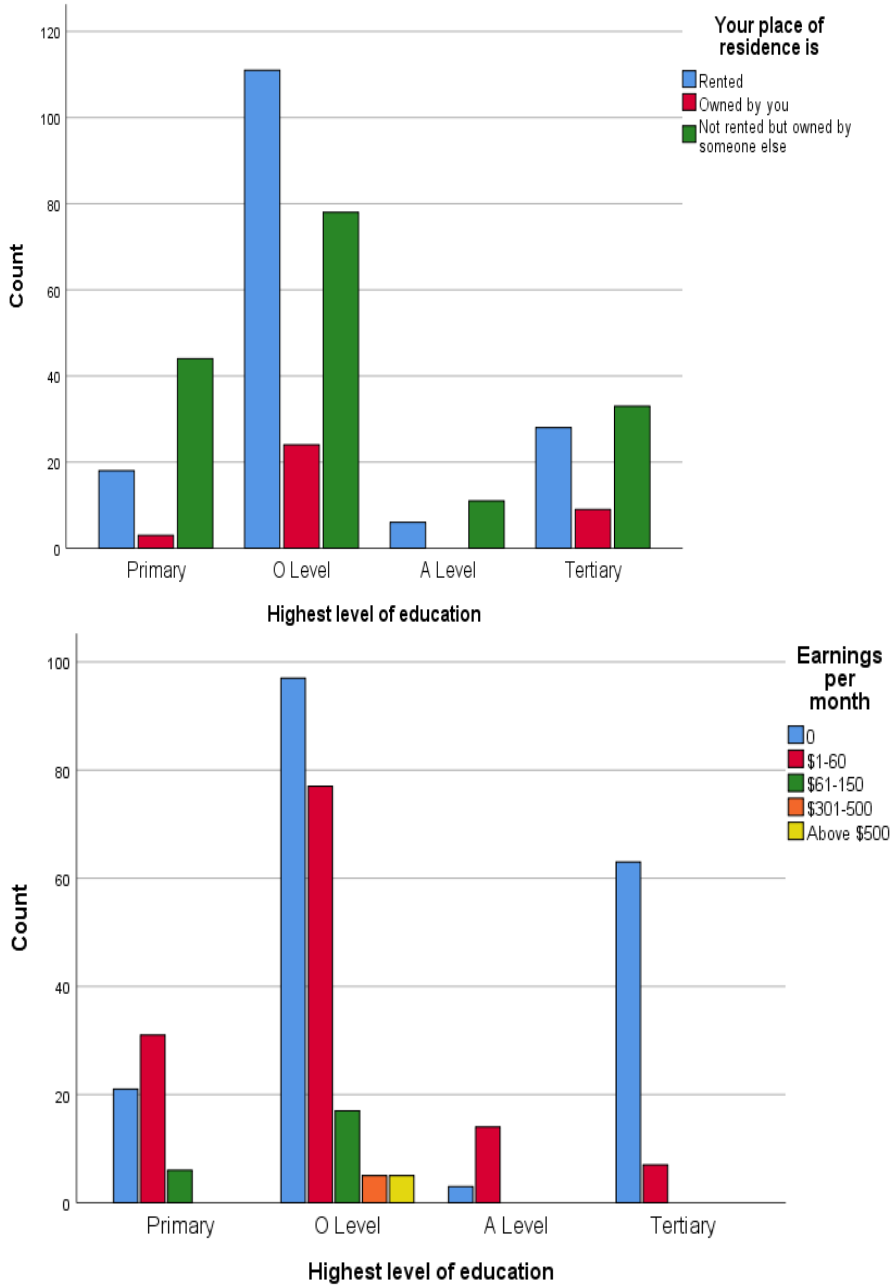


Figure 5.29: Differences in home ownership and income by level of education.

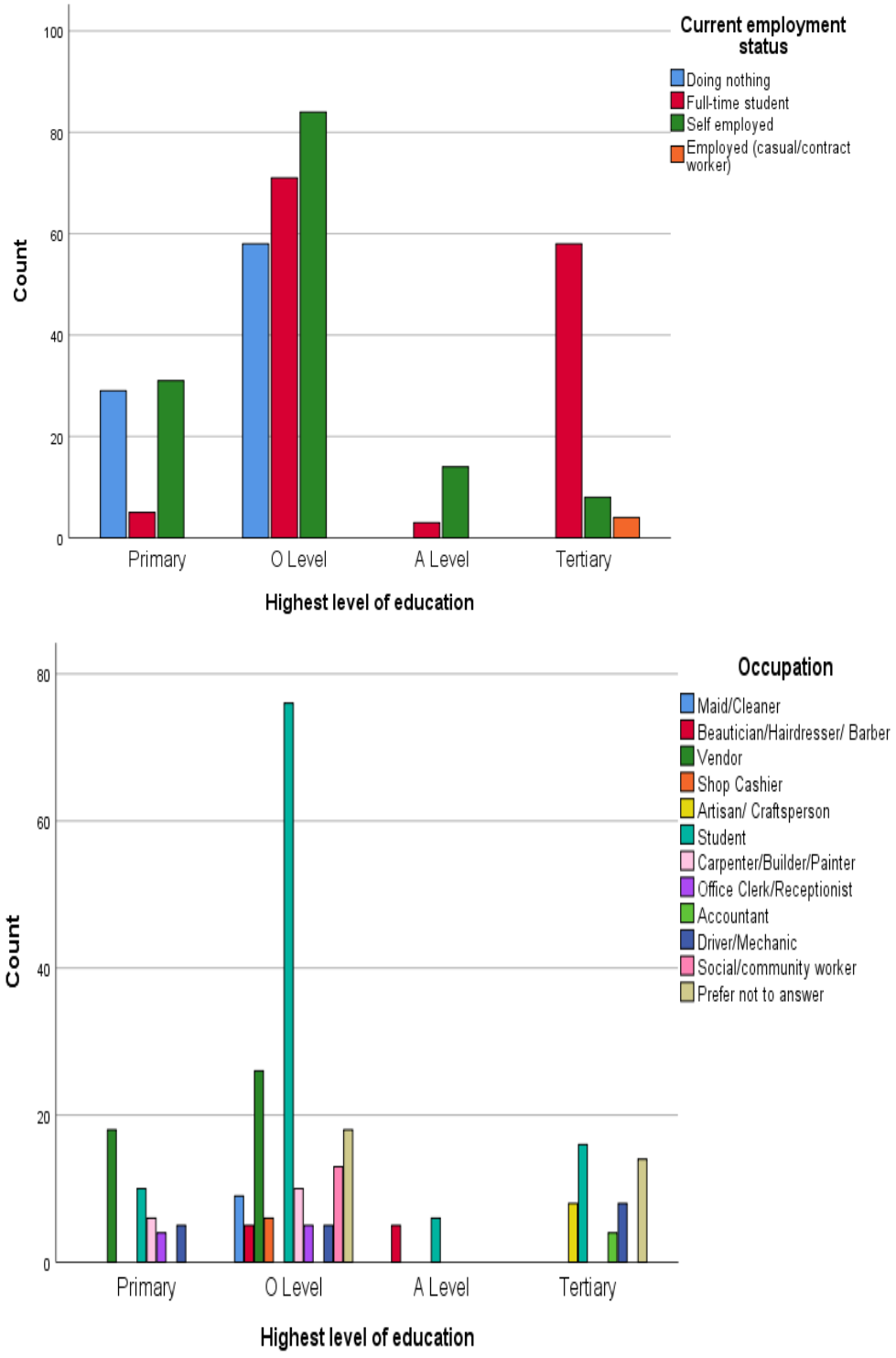


Figure 5.30: Differences in employment status and occupation by level of education.

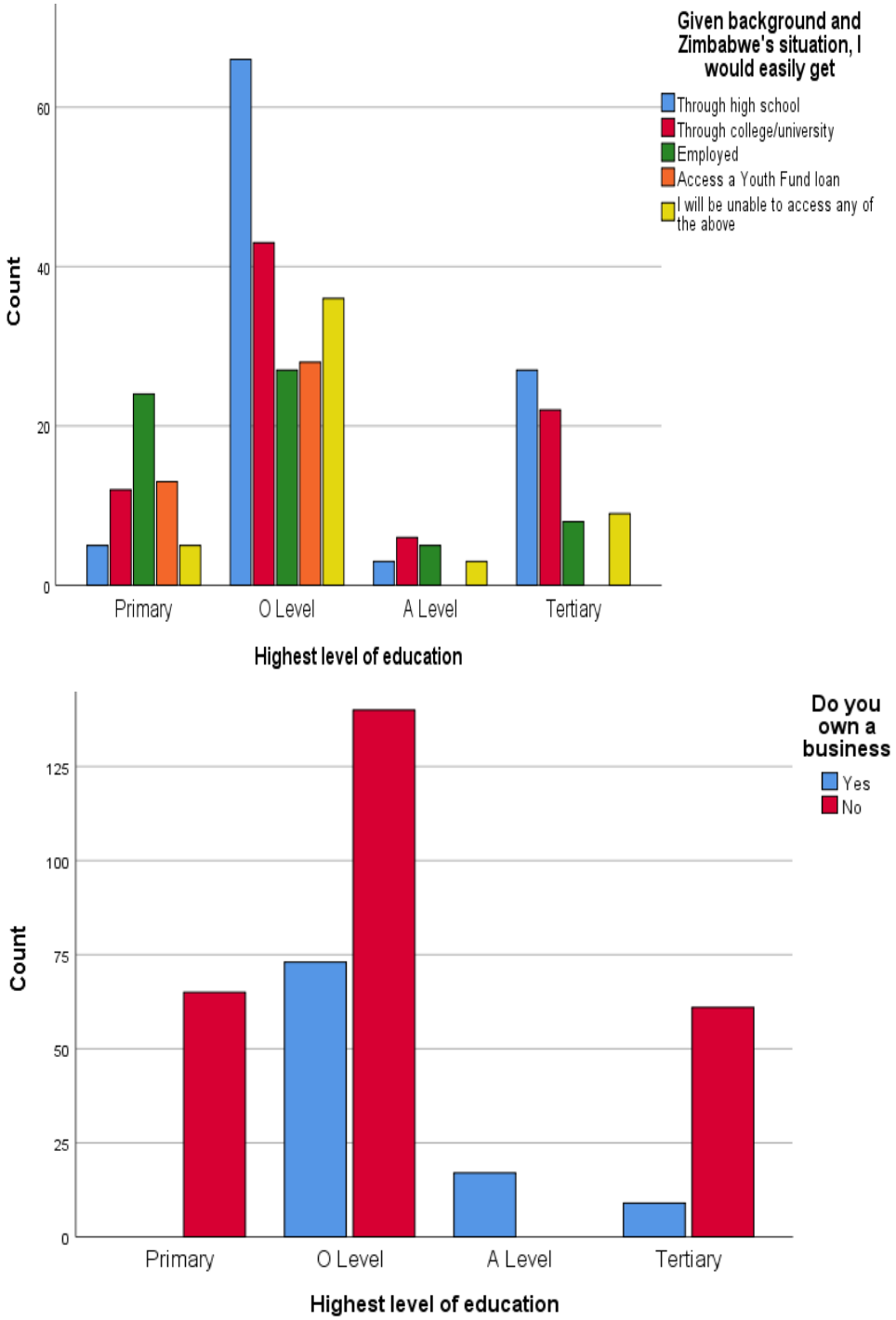


Figure 5.31: Differences in access to services and business ownership by level of education.

iv. Correlation between Income and Perceived Structural Violence

In a bid to find out how income is associated with exposure to structural violence, the researcher carried out further tests that looked at the differences in the level of affluence, home ownership, access to services and owning a business. As Table 5.15 indicates, the Chi-Square analysis showed a statistically significant difference across all five indicators ($p = 0.000$, $\alpha = 0.05$). These differences are depicted in Figures 5.32, 5.33 and 5.34.

Table 5.15: Chi-square analysis of income and some indicators.

Income and …..	Residence type			Number of children			Perceived family affluence level			Ability to get services			Business ownership		
	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	181.914[a]	8	.000	60.896[a]	8	.000	155.067[a]	12	.000	114.318[a]	16	.000	61.101[a]	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	168.509	8	.000	62.783	8	.000	89.802	12	.000	109.897	16	.000	63.169	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	82.177	1	.000	.199	1	.655	27.332	1	.000	9.349	1	.002	4.961	1	.026
N of Valid Cases	346			346			346			323			346		
	a. 8 cells (53.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .19.			a. 6 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.16.			a. 10 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .26.			a. 13 cells (52.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .53.			a. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.43.		

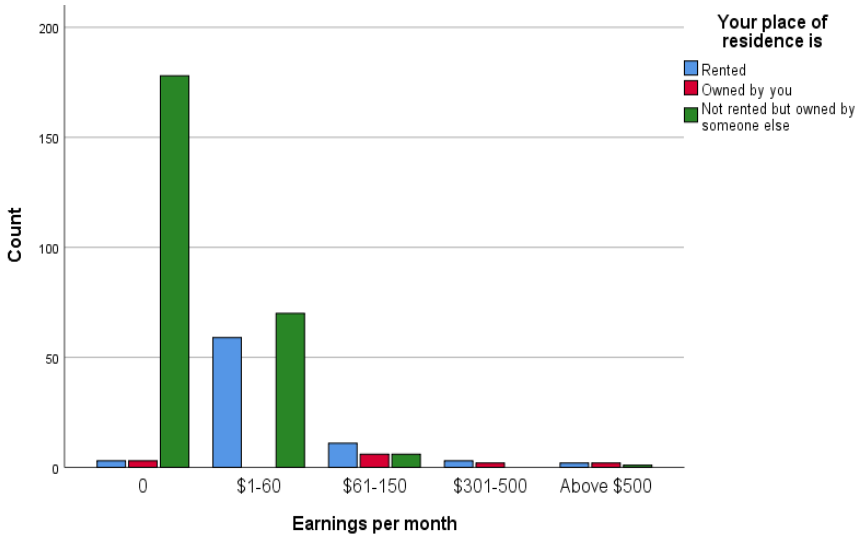


Figure 5.32: Differences in home ownership.

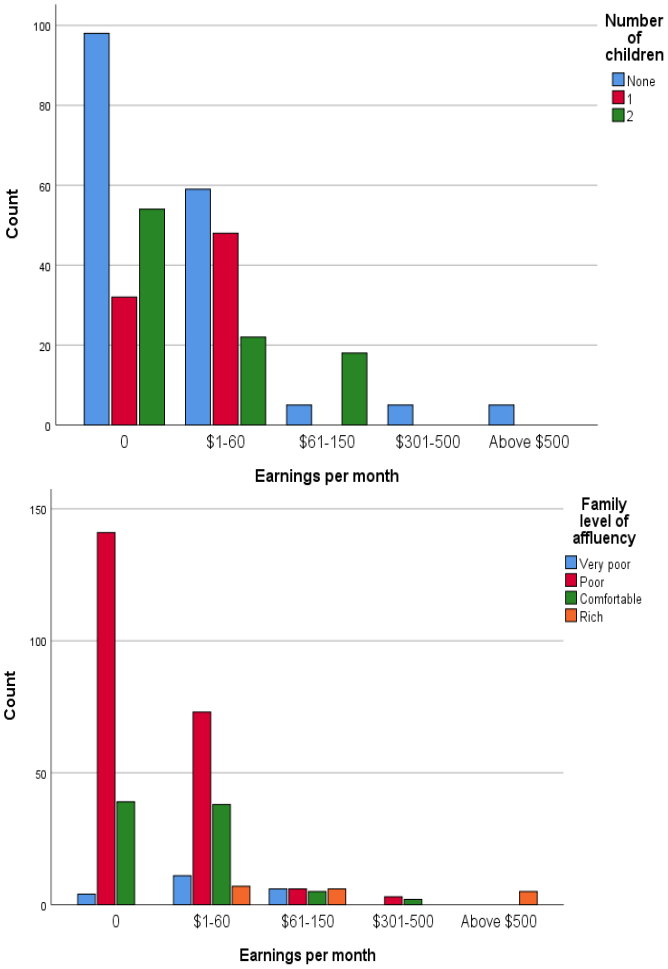


Figure 5.33: Differences in number of children and level of family affluence.

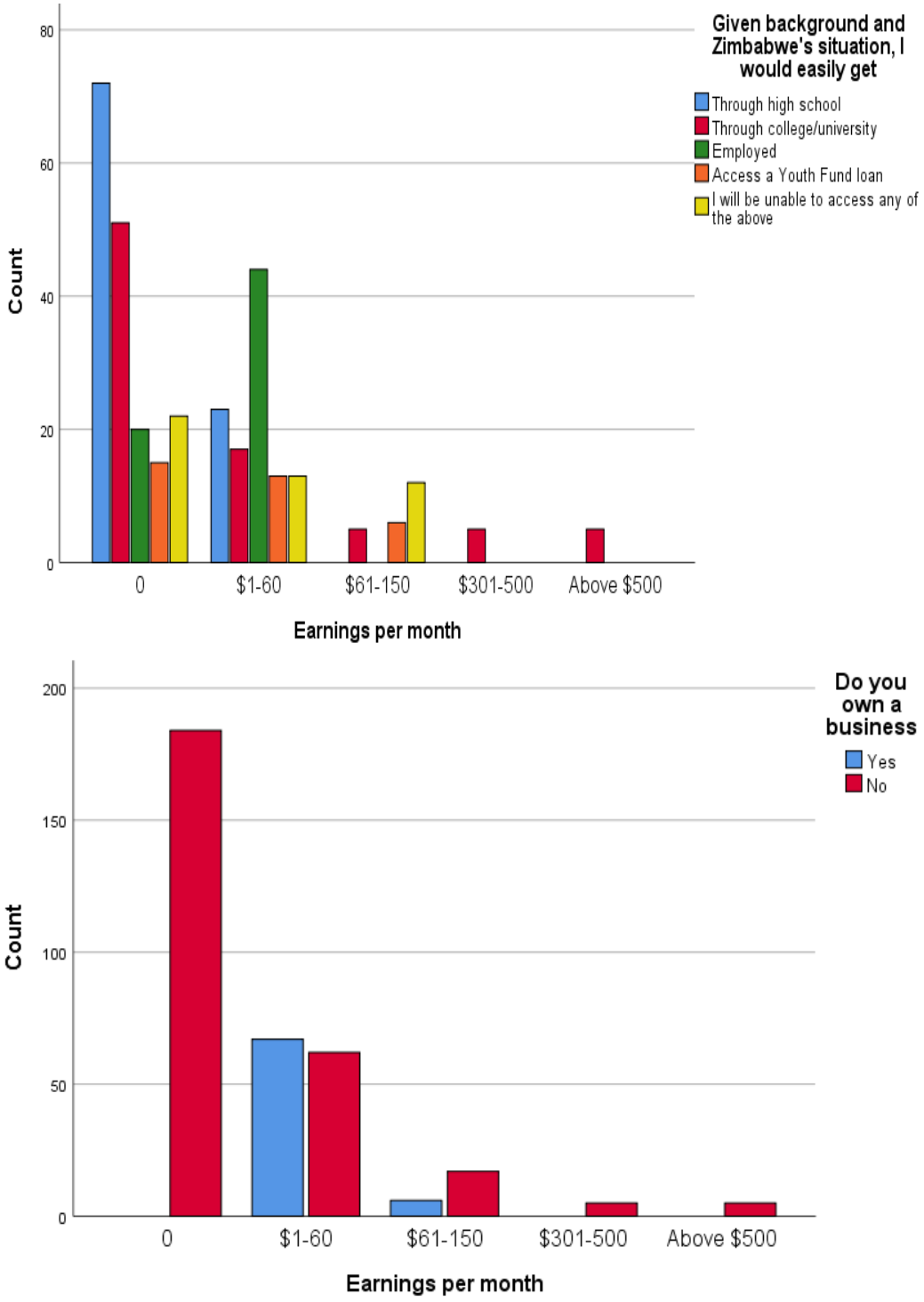


Figure 5.34: Differences in access to services and owning a business.

b. Correlation between Age, Level of Education, Income and Employment Status with the Level of Participation

The researcher carried out further tests to determine how age and some aspects of structural violence such as poverty (indicated by education level, income earned and employment status) affect youth participation and perhaps create vectors of conflict.

i. Correlation by Age

As Table 5.16 indicates, the Chi-Square analysis showed a statistically significant difference in being a registered voter and participating in political violence (and $p = 0.003$, $\alpha = 0.05$). There were no statistically significant differences in attending meetings and taking part in peacebuilding efforts ($p = 0.963$ and 0.612 respectively). These differences are depicted in Figures 5.35 and 5.36.

Table 5.16: Chi-square analysis of age and participation.

Age and …	Registered voter			Attending local meetings			Participation in violence			Participation in peacebuilding		
	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	17.999[a]	2	.000	.076[a]	2	.963	22.698[a]	4	.000	.981[a]	2	.612
Likelihood Ratio	18.734	2	.000	.076	2	.963	22.217	4	.000	1.000	2	.607
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.404	1	.036	.000	1	.997	5.492	1	.019	.885	1	.347
N of Valid Cases	365			365			365			348		
	a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23.18.			a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.49.			a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.91.			a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.69.		

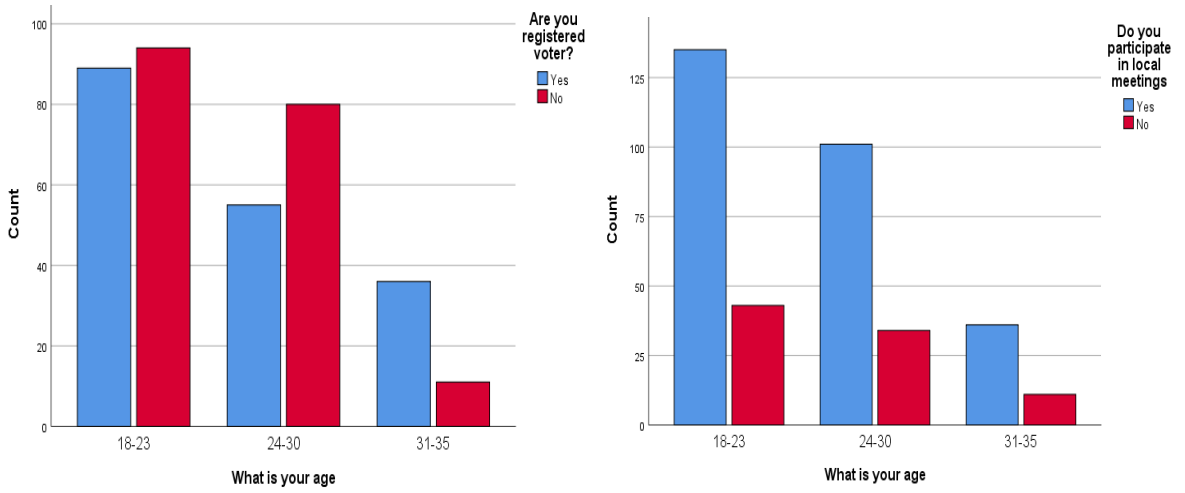


Figure 5.35: Differences in participation in elections and meetings across age groups.

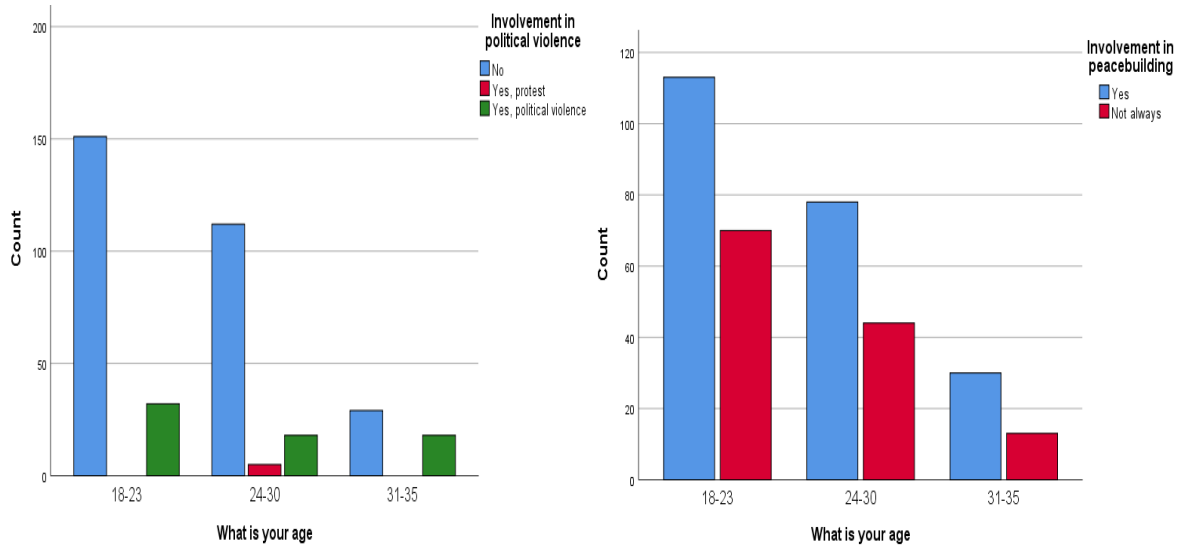


Figure 5.36: Differences in participation in political violence and peacebuilding across age groups.

ii. Correlation by Gender

As Table 5.17 indicates, the Chi-Square analysis showed a statistically significant difference in participation in all the four areas of participation between male and female respondents (p between 0.000 and 0.025, α = 0.05). These differences are depicted in Figures 5.37 and 5.38.

Table 5.17: Chi-square analysis of gender and participation.

Gender and …	**Registered voter**			**Attending local meetings**			**Participation in violence**			**Participation in peacebuilding**		
	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37.443[a]	1	.000	13.029[a]	1	.000	7.352[a]	2	.025	16.006[a]	1	.000
Likelihood Ratio	38.106	1	.000	13.101	1	.000	9.274	2	.010	16.141	1	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	37.341	1	.000	12.993	1	.000	2.089	1	.148	15.960	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	365			360			365			348		
	a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 85.81.			a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 41.31.			a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.38.			a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 62.04.		

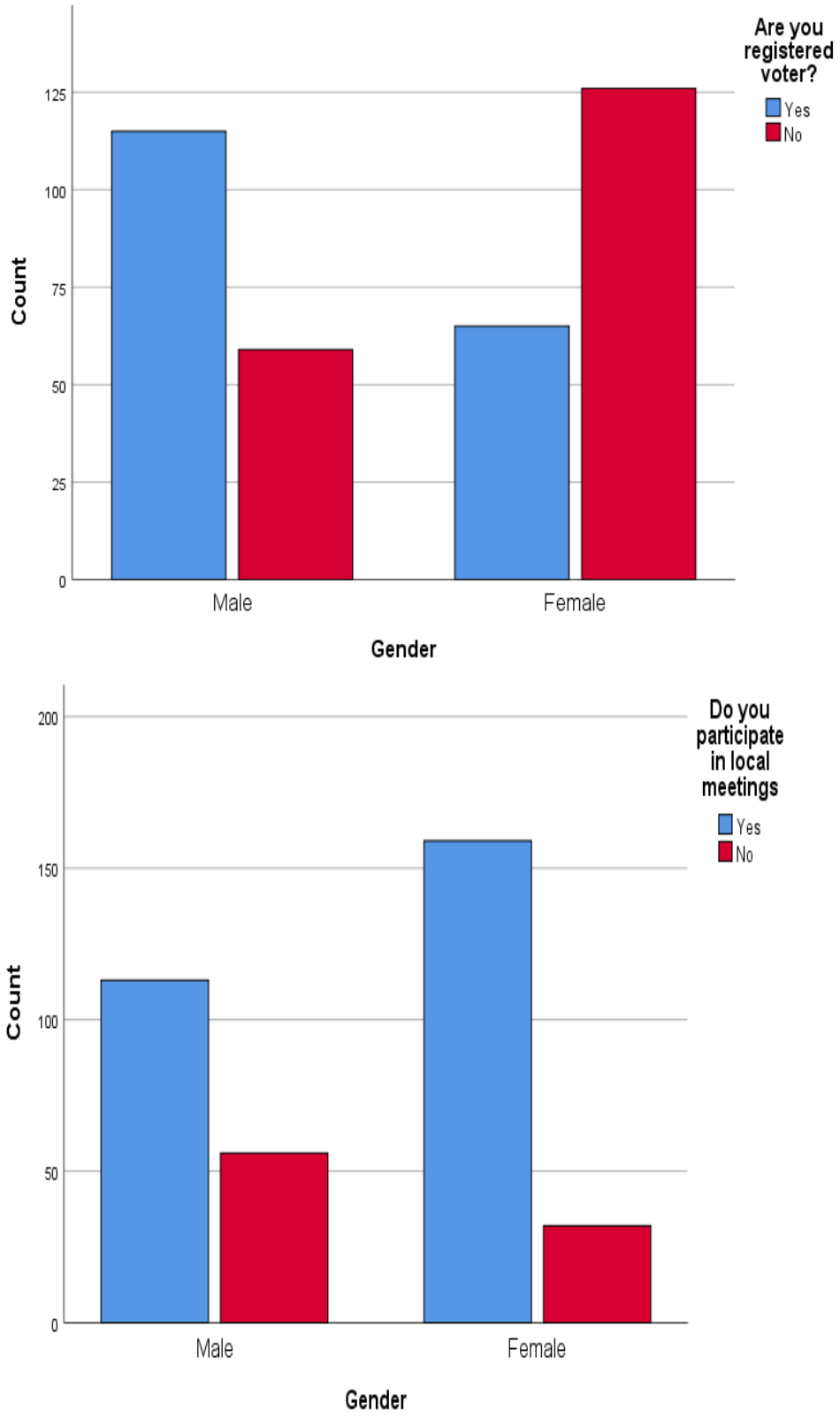


Figure 5.37: Differences in participation in elections and meetings by gender.

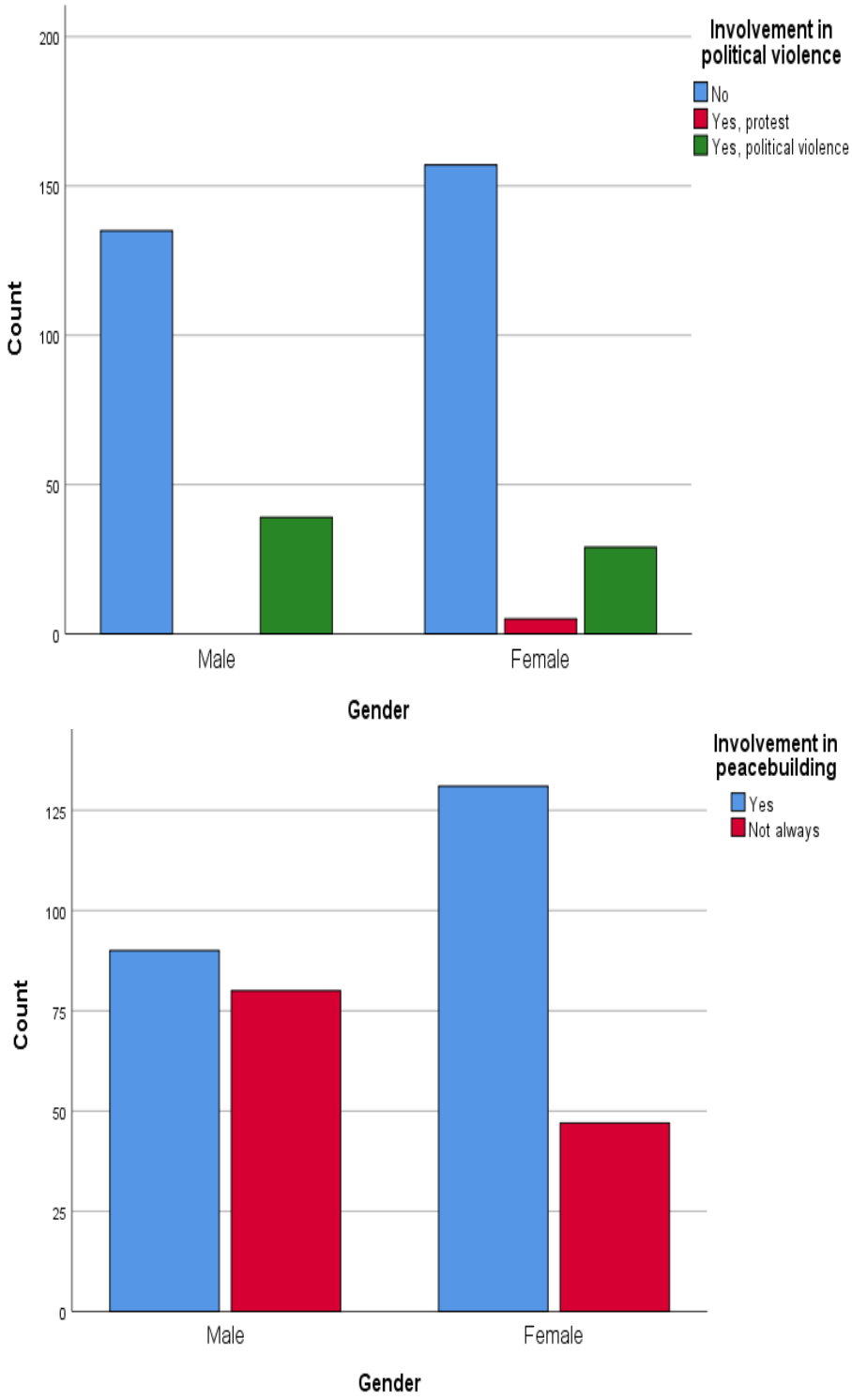


Figure 5.38: Differences in participation in political violence and peacebuilding by gender.

iii. Correlation by Marital Status

As Table 5.18 indicates, the Chi-Square analysis showed no statistically significant difference in being a registered voter ($p = 0.672$, $\alpha = 0.05$). However, the other areas of participation have statistically significant differences between marital statuses (p between 0.000 and 0.023, $\alpha = 0.05$). These differences are depicted in Figures 5.39 and 5.40).

Table 5.18: Chi-square analysis of marital status and participation.

Marital status and …	**Registered voter**			**Attending local meetings**			**Participation in violence**			**Participation in peacebuilding**		
	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.796[a]	2	.672	15.708[a]	2	.000	30.803[a]	4	.000	7.580[a]	2	.023
Likelihood Ratio	.797	2	.671	15.292	2	.000	27.718	4	.000	7.698	2	.021
Linear-by-Linear Association	.569	1	.451	11.863	1	.001	.751	1	.386	6.893	1	.009
N of Valid Cases	348			343			348			331		
	a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.45.			a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.74.			a. 3 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .46.			a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.18.		

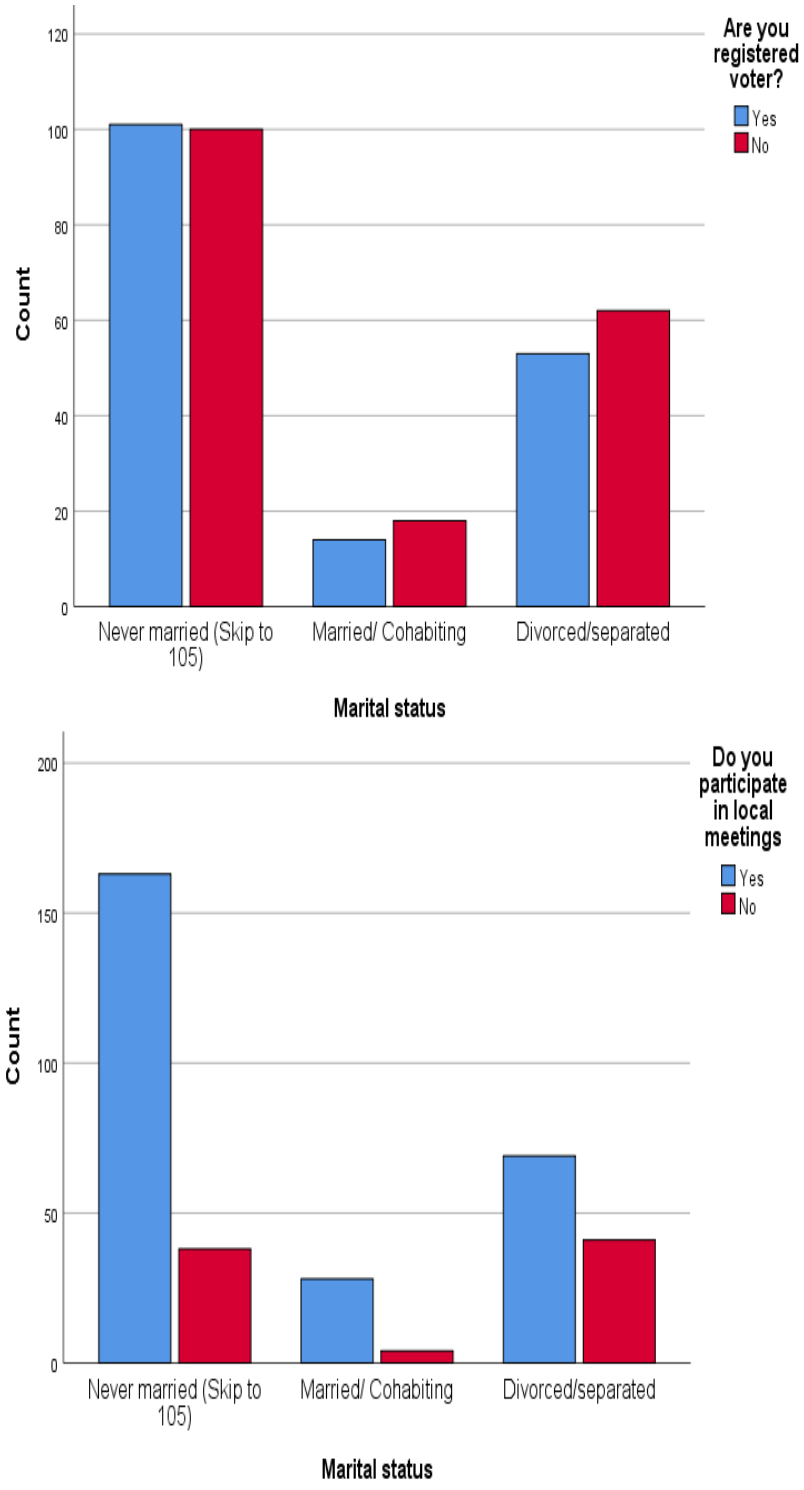


Figure 5.39: Differences in participation in elections and local meetings by marital status.

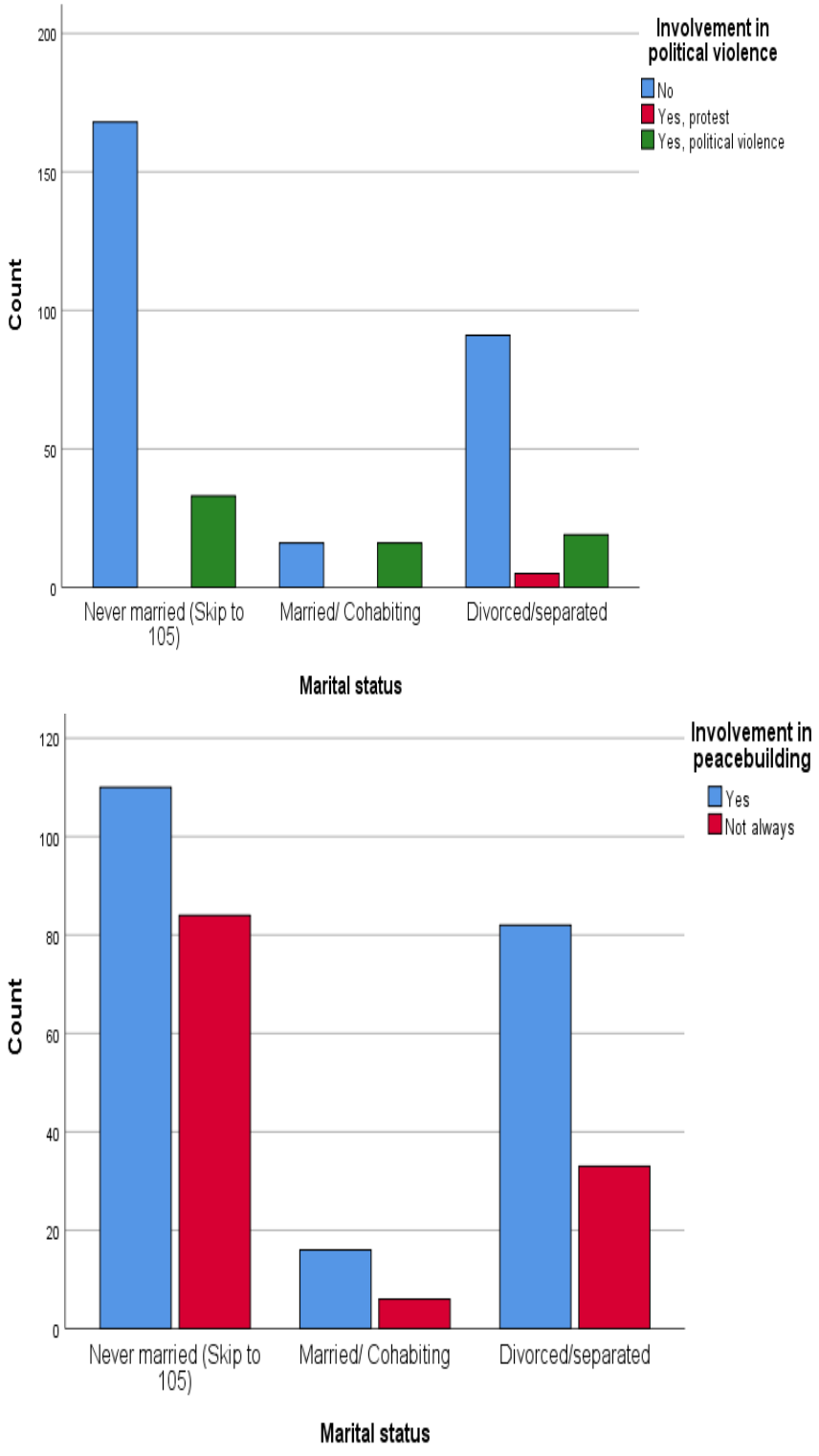


Figure 5.40: Differences in participation in political violence and peacebuilding by marital status.

iv. Correlation by Level of Education

As Table 5.19 indicates, the Chi-Square analysis showed no statistically significant difference in participation in peacebuilding initiatives ($p = 0.167$, $\alpha = 0.05$). However, the other areas of participation have statistically significant differences between marital statuses (p between 0.000 and 0.009, $\alpha = 0.05$). These differences are depicted in Figures 5.41 and 5.42.

Table 5.19: Chi-square analysis of level of education and participation.

Level of education and …	**Registered voter**			**Attending local meetings**			**Participation in violence**			**Participation in peacebuilding**		
	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.611[a]	3	.009	48.747[a]	3	.000	73.068[a]	6	.000	5.062[a]	3	.167
Likelihood Ratio	11.797	3	.008	46.370	3	.000	79.110	6	.000	4.989	3	.173
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.802	1	.179	19.388	1	.000	51.757	1	.000	3.664	1	.056
N of Valid Cases	365			360			365			348		
	a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.38.			a. 1 cell (12.5%) has expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.93.			a. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .23.			a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.20.		

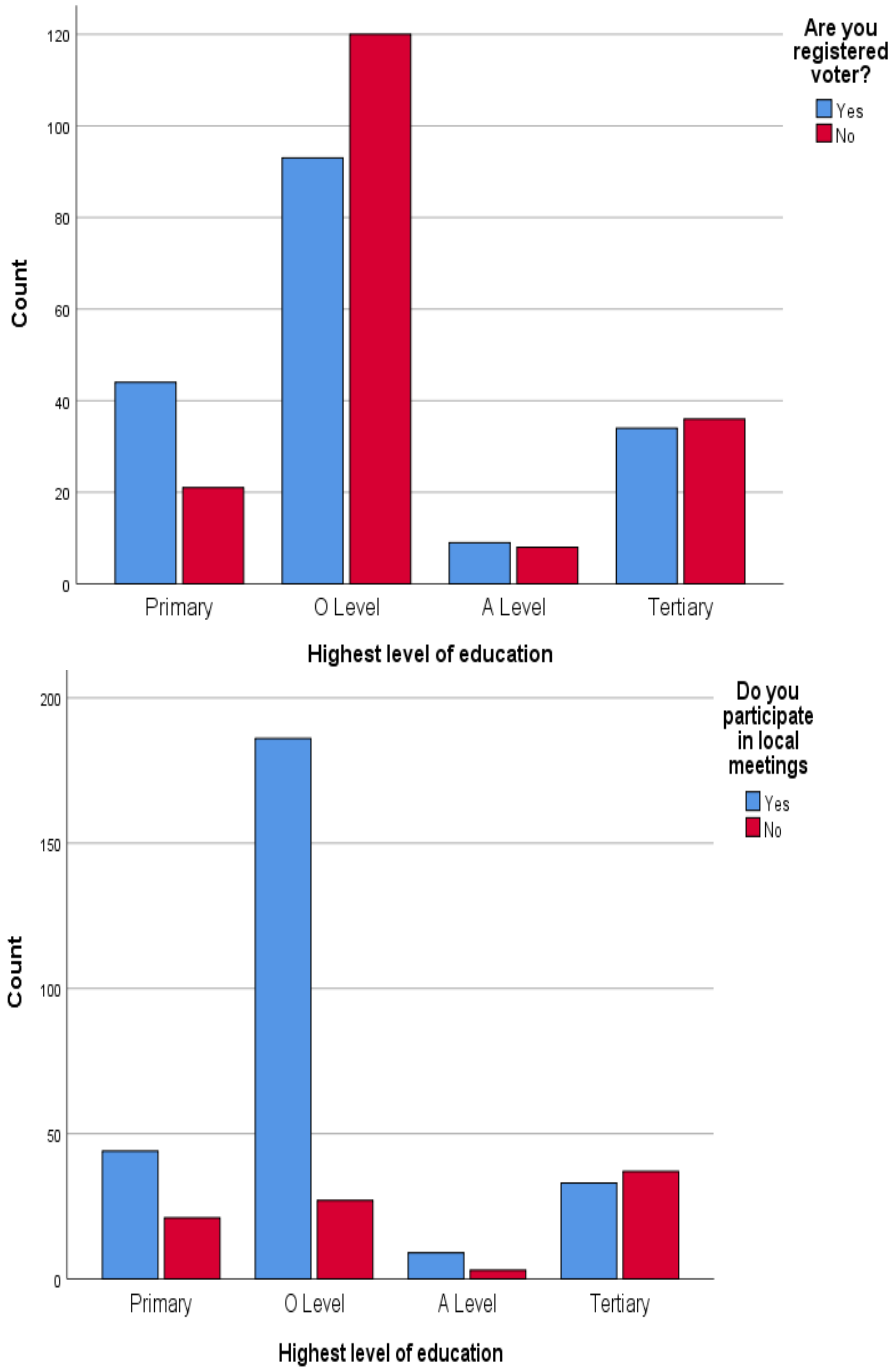


Figure 5.41: Differences in participation in elections and local meetings by level of education.

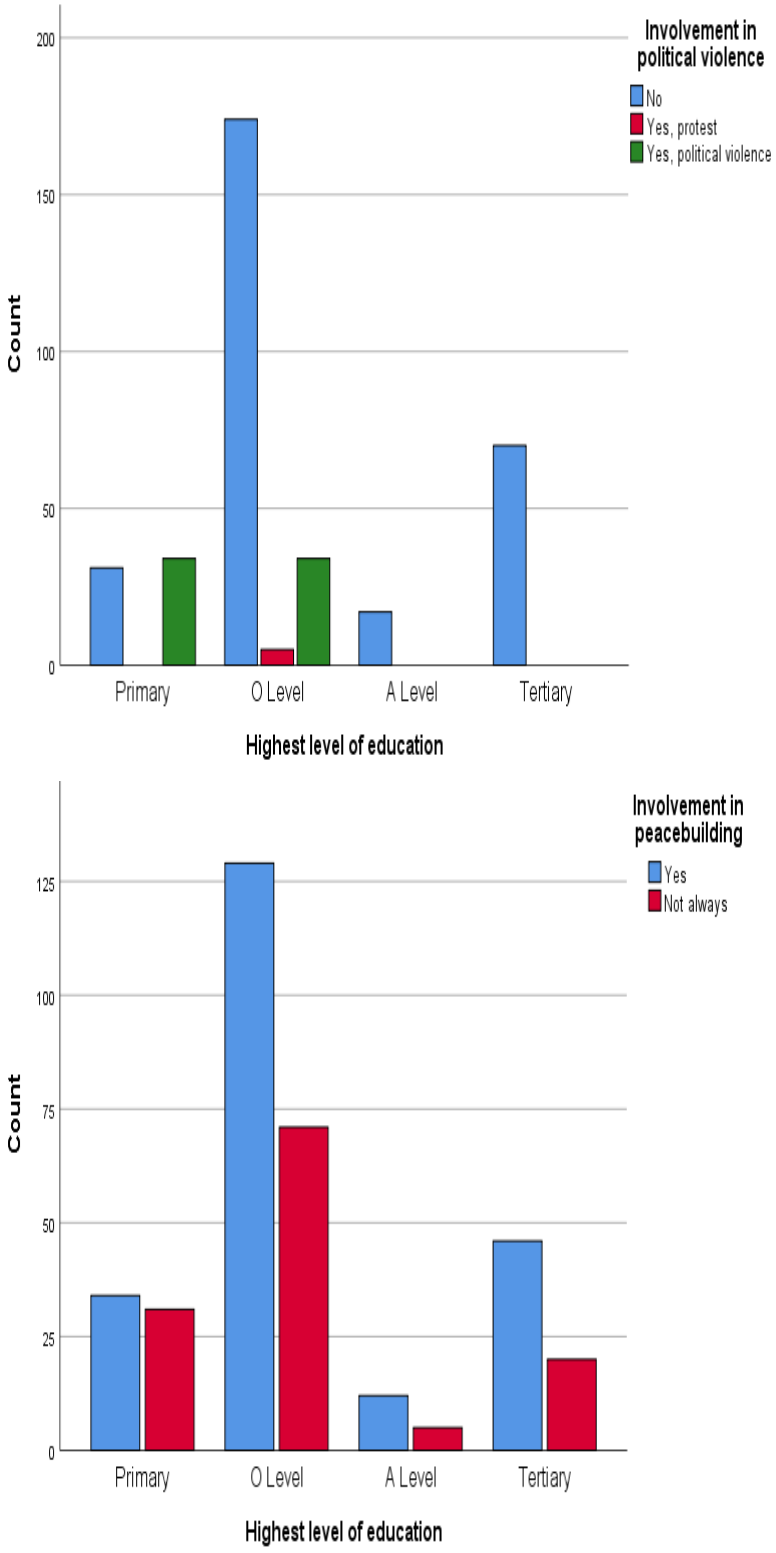


Figure 5.42: Differences in participation in political violence and peacebuilding by level of education.

v. Correlation by Income

As Table 5.20 indicates, the Chi-Square analysis showed a statistically significant difference across three indicators (p between 0.000 and 0.034, α = 0.05). There was no significant difference in participation in peacebuilding initiatives (p = 0.078, α = 0.05). These differences are depicted in Figures 5.43 and 5.44.

Table 5.20: Chi-square analysis of level of monthly income and participation.

Monthly income and …	**Registered voter**			**Attending local meetings**			**Participation in violence**			**Participation in peacebuilding**		
	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asym. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.432[a]	4	.034	57.809[a]	4	.000	404.599[a]	8	.000	8.398[a]	4	.078
Likelihood Ratio	14.246	4	.007	68.890	4	.000	112.603	8	.000	11.474	4	.022
Linear-by-Linear Association	.006	1	.941	36.524	1	.000	10.635	1	.001	.853	1	.356
N of Valid Cases	346			341			346			329		
	a. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.33.			a. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.20.			a. 10 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .07.			a. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.75		

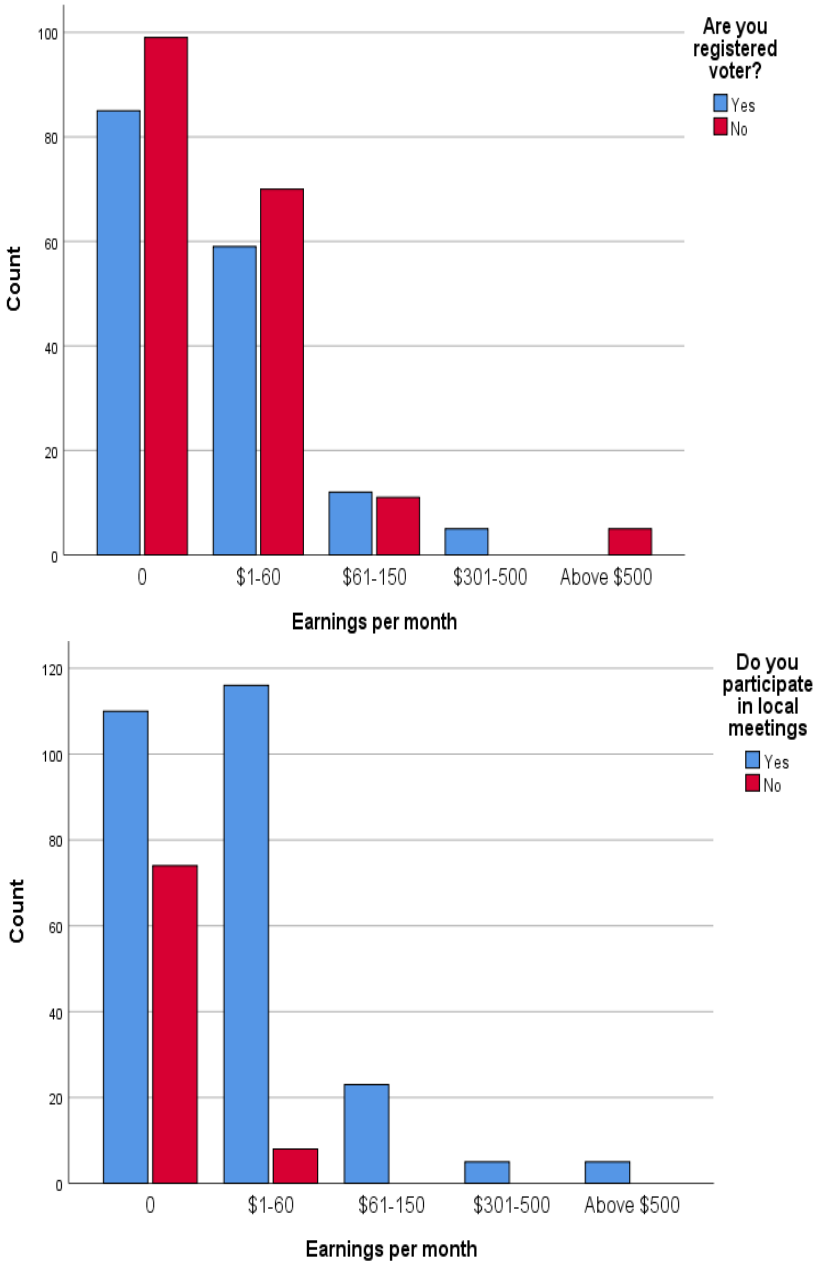


Figure 5.43: Differences in participation in elections and local meetings by income.

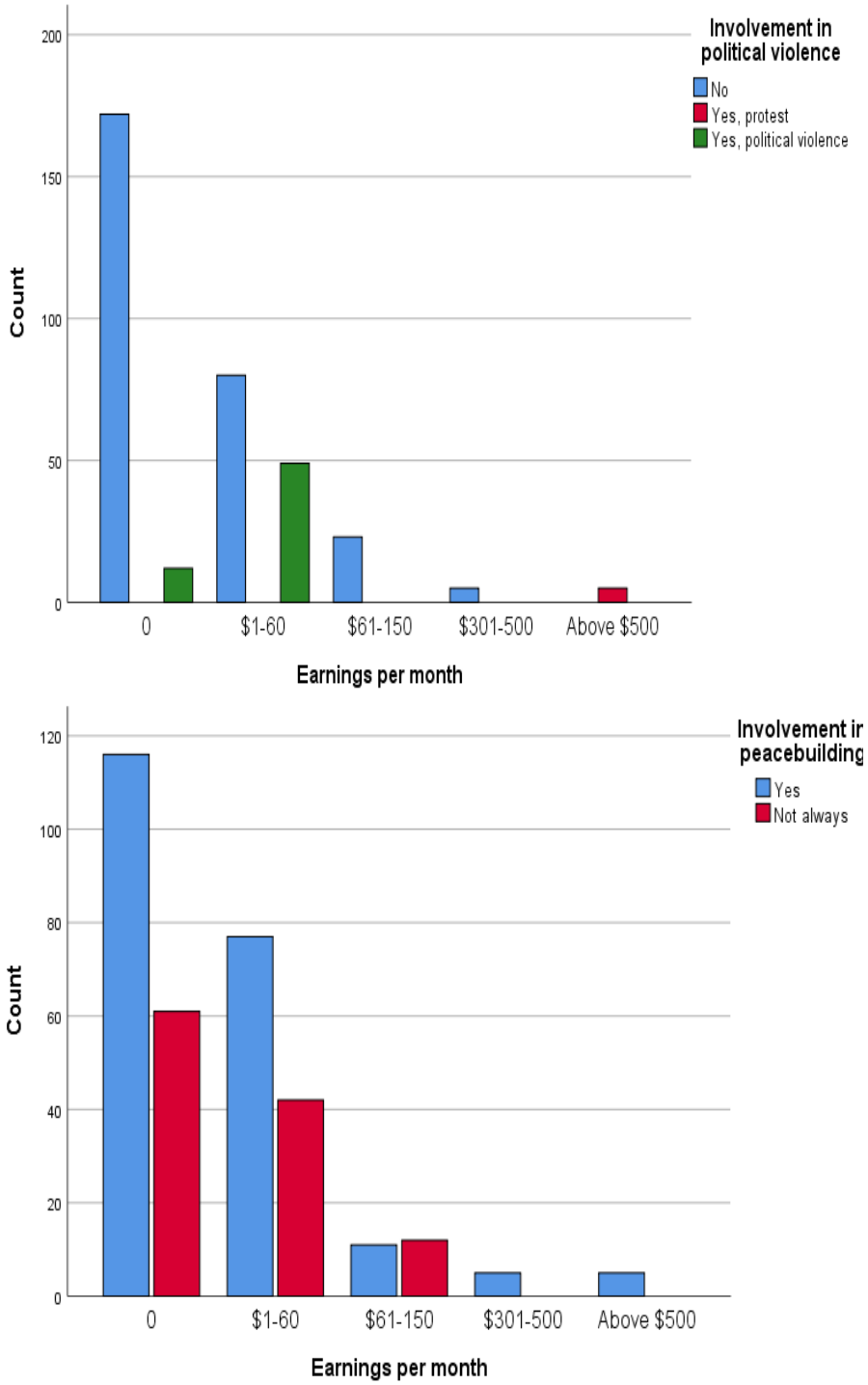


Figure 5.44: Differences in participation in political violence and peacebuilding by income earned.

5.2.9 Recognising Structural Violence through Associated Acts

To investigate the youth's perception towards structural violence and how they would conduct themselves in the nine short scenarios, the researcher posed scenarios, as listed in the left-hand column of Table 5.21. The researcher asked whether (i) the respondent regarded the behaviour described as structural violence and (ii) if the respondent would engage in the activity. The respondents indicated their choices in a 5-point Likert Scale on the likelihood of the scenario being structurally violent. The results are reported in Tables 5.21 and 5.22, respectively. Many of the scenarios drew on cases of possible structural violence reported in the Zimbabwean media between 2015 and 2017. Prominent among these were scenarios which people encounter daily in public institutions such as hospitals, council offices and schools.

Table 5.21 indicates that seven scenarios were judged to be very structurally violent or fairly structurally violent by half or more of the respondents. The cutting off of water supplies and the imposition of tax by the government had mixed reactions, as more than half of the respondents were either not sure or were clear that they constituted structural violence. This implies that the majority of the respondents were knowledgeable on the manifestation of structural violence.

Regarding the conduct of respondents in specific structural violence scenarios, the majority of the respondents indicated that they would not be involved in seven of the listed activities (see Table 5.22). Most people were most likely going to cut off water supplies for defaulters. There was an almost equitable distribution of those who would impose a tax without consulting citizens and those who would not. Overall, this indicates that a large proportion of the respondents were not disposed towards attitudes of structural violence, although in some incidences, they have internalised some behaviours and see them as normal, even though they infringe on people's rights or exacerbate social exclusion and deny access to basic services.

Table 5.21: Perceptions of xenophobic attitudes in the four scenarios.

Scenario	I'm not sure if this is structural violence	This is not structural violence at all	This is a little bit structural violence	This is fairly structural violence	This is extreme structural violence
The leader in your community selects youth for paid public work based on their political affiliation.	16.39%	6.56%	**8.20%**	**18.03%**	**50.82%**
A group of people verbally threaten a person for having a political discussion in public.	4.92%	4.92%	**4.92%**	**26.23%**	**59.02%**
Your local authorities allocate residential stands/land to people belonging to one political party.	13.11%	1.64%	**3.28%**	**9.84%**	**72.13%**
Water supply is disconnected from houses for failure to pay your bill.	**19.67%**	**42.62%**	13.11%	14.75%	9.84%
Government imposes a tax that affects all citizens without consulting them.	**27.87%**	**29.51%**	4.92%	11.48%	26.23%
A villager is excluded from the food assistance list because he/she is known to support a certain political party.	4.92%	1.64%	**1.64%**	**11.48%**	**80.33%**
A patient is turned away from hospital because they can't pay the consultation fees.	21.31%	16.39%	**9.84%**	**21.31%**	**31.15%**
Pupils are told to go play in the playgrounds during lessons because they have not paid school fees.	18.03%	11.48%	**13.11%**	**24.59%**	**32.79%**
A tertiary institution student is stopped from sitting for exams because they have not paid their tuition.	16.39%	19.67%	**11.48%**	**21.31%**	**31.15%**

Table 5.22: Willingness to engage in xenophobic activity involved in the nine scenarios.

Your Possible response in that situation	Definitely not	Probably not	Probably yes	Definitely yes	Don't know
If you were a community leader would you select public workers on partisan grounds?	**86.89%**	**11.48%**	1.64%	0.00%	0.00%
Would you stop people from having open political discussions in public?	**81.97%**	**14.75%**	0.00%	0.00%	3.28%
Would you distribute land/stands on partisan grounds?	**90.16%**	**6.56%**	1.64%	0.00%	1.64%
If you were a local councillor or Mayor would you disconnect houses for not paying their water bills?	11.48%	18.03%	**42.62%**	**26.23%**	1.64%
If you were a government minister would you impose tax without consulting citizens?	**31.15%**	**18.03%**	**34.43%**	**9.84%**	6.56%
If you were a local leader would you distribute food handouts on partisan grounds?	**91.80%**	**8.20%**	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
If you were a Medical Superintendent would you not treat patients because they can't pay for medical services?	**36.07%**	**34.43%**	18.03%	4.92%	6.56%
If you were a Headmaster would you bar children from attending class because they haven't paid their school fees?	**36.07%**	**31.15%**	22.95%	4.92%	4.92%
If you were a Principal or Vice-Chancellor would you bar students from sitting for exams due to unpaid tuition fees?	**49.18%**	**26.23%**	16.39%	4.92%	3.28%

5.2.10 Prevalence of Positive Peace in Zimbabwe

Respondents were asked to rate Zimbabwe on the eight Positive Peace Indicators adopted from the Global Peace Index (IEP 2016). These indicators were: (i) a well-functioning government, (ii) free flow of information, (iii) a sound business environment, (iv) equitable distribution of resources, (v) high levels of human capital development, (vi) acceptance of the rights of others, (vii) low levels of corruption and (viii) good relations with neighbours. The respondents ranked the country poorly on seven indicators except for the indicator on 'good relations with neighbours' (Table 5.23). This indicates that there is no positive peace in Zimbabwe.

Table 5.23: Positive Peace Indicators.

	Non-existent	**Poor**	**Fair**	**Good**	**Excellent**
Well-functioning government	**32.1%**	**19.2%**	**23.6%**	16.7%	8.5%
Free flow of information	**23.6%**	**40.3%**	**15.1%**	11.5%	9.6%
Sound business environment	0%	**72.6%**	**13.2%**	9.6%	4.7%
Equitable distribution of resources	**33.7%**	**56.8%**	3.3%	4.7%	1.4%
High levels of human capital development	**9.0%**	**36.7%**	**47.4%**	3.3%	3.6%
Acceptance of the rights of others	**6.6%**	**49.3%**	**32.1%**	10.7%	1.4%
Low levels of corruption	**51.5%**	**26.6%**	9.3%	6.8%	5.8%
Good relations with neighbours	0%	3.3%	12.1%	**66.3%**	**18.4%**

5.2.11 Proposed Solutions

It is crucial to understand the issues that youth hold as important so that appropriate solutions can be prescribed. The respondents were therefore asked to list the top three issues that they felt were needed to be prioritised in any bid to address structural violence. Job opportunities (54%), leadership development (48%) and collaboration with adult decision-makers (33%) formed the top three issues (Figure 5.45).

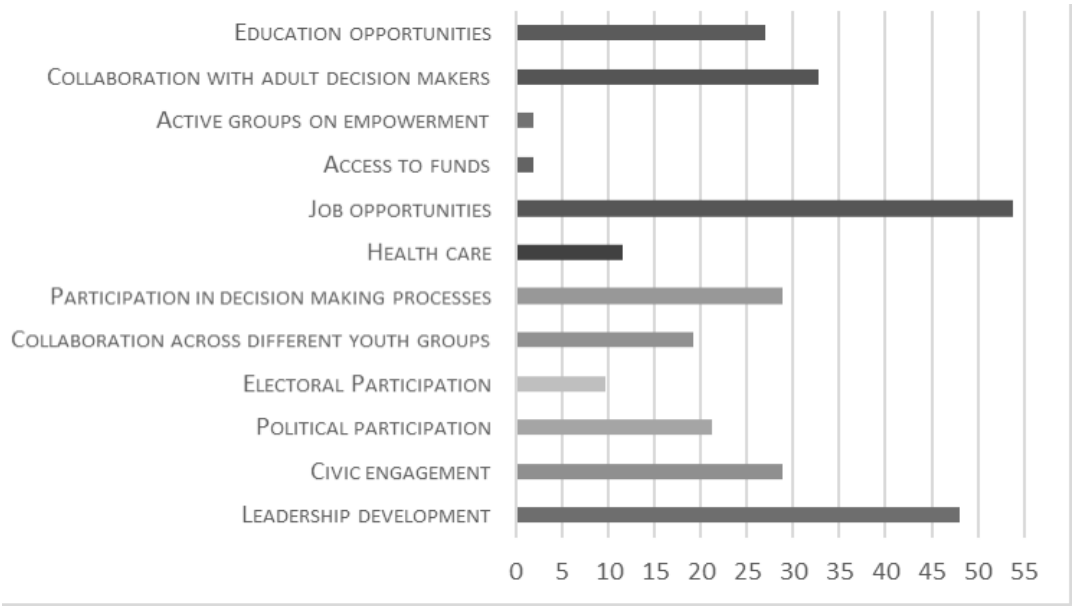


Figure 5.45: Key priority issues for youth.

To identify appropriate solutions, the respondents were asked to select five possible ways of improving youth participation. The top six choices were: (i) freedom to participate in politics and development without restrictions (71%), (ii) provision of leadership training (54%), (iii) youth awareness campaigns (42%), (iv) pro-youth policies (40%), (v) effective engagement in productive activities (38%) and (vi) fostering employment opportunities (31%), as depicted in Figure 5.46.

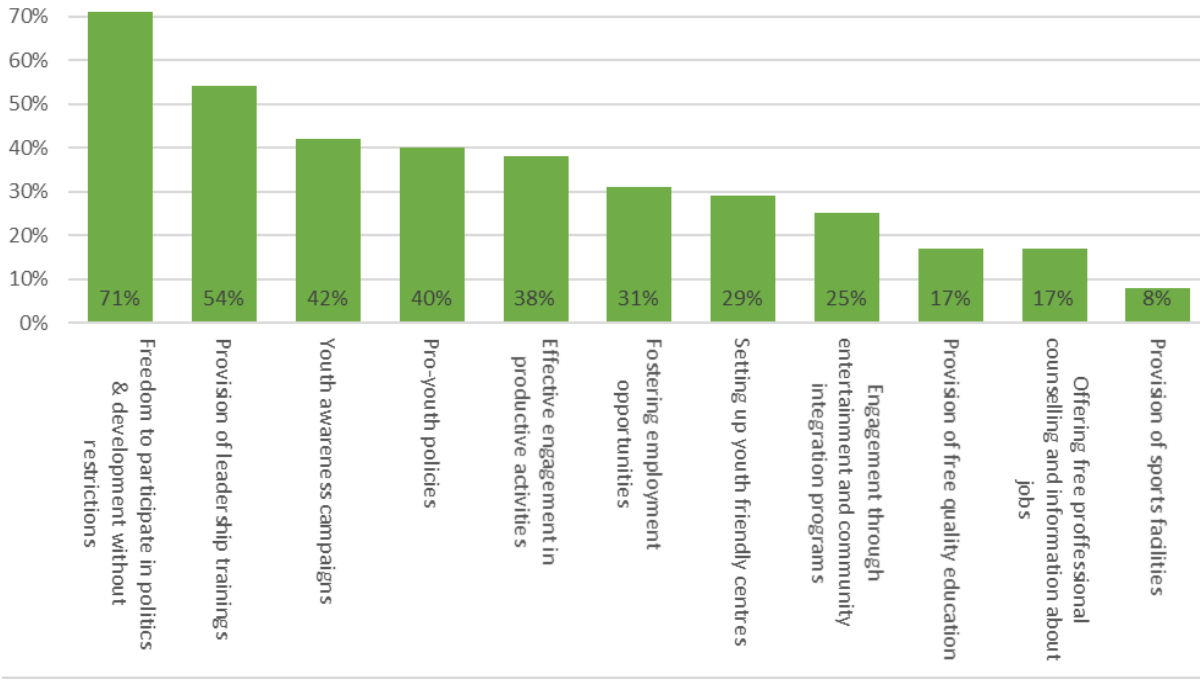


Figure 5.46: Ways to improve youth participation.

5.3 Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the quantitative phase of the study. Data collected through a survey with 365 respondents was shared. Findings relating to the magnitude of structural violence, as depicted by indicators such as monthly income, employment status and access to services, were presented. Findings on the level of youth participation were also presented. The chapter also reveals the statistics on the skills gaps in civic engagement, peacebuilding and running businesses amongst young people. Correlations and differences in structural violence indicators and youth participation across selected variables were also reported. The youth's perceptions on selected structural violence scenarios and their disposition towards acting in such scenarios were also reported. The chapter also reported on the prevalence of positive or negative peace in Zimbabwe. Finally, proposed solutions to enhance youth participation were also shared.

The next chapter will present the findings from the qualitative data collection phase of the study. These include findings from the FGDs, IIs and the action carried out by youth in addressing structural violence within their community.

CHAPTER 6: QUALITATIVE DATA

6.1 Introduction

The qualitative data of this study was collected through FGDs (n=47), interviews (n=6), a community dialogue session dubbed the Norton Youth Indaba (NYI) (n=124) and field observations. The FGDs and Interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The FGDs and interviews were used to obtain a better understanding of how structural violence was impacting youth as well as an understanding of how youth participation was taking place within Norton. They were also used to obtain insights into how youth participation was or could be enhanced. The FGDs were key in providing a forum for the youth to discuss sensitive topics (Greenbaum 2000). Field notes were mainly used during the NYI and in documenting the observations. The researcher used the NVivo software to capture and analyse this qualitative data. Content analysis and coding were used in interpreting the qualitative data. This chapter therefore presents the themes that emerged from the qualitative data collection. Details of the participants in the FGDs, NYI and interviews will be given first. The processes of carrying out the action research will then be explained. The emerging thematic issues from the analysed data will also be presented. A more detailed explanation of the NYI will be given as well as an explanation of how social entrepreneurship was used as a solution for tackling structural violence. The chapter concludes by tabulating the outcomes of the solutions which the action team tested in the community. Results for the qualitative study are expanded upon in the sections below.

6.1.1 Interviews

Interviews are some of the most important data collection tools in social science research. Interviews involve unstructured and generally open-ended questions that are few in number and that are intended to elicit views and opinions from the participants (Creswell 2013). The researcher interviewed six youth leaders from Norton to obtain their views on the prevalence of structural violence in the areas as well as to find out how it can be addressed in a bid to enhance youth participation. The data collected from these interviews also helped the action team

(AT) to discover the training needs as well as possible solutions. The development and training of the participants followed the key questions and themes, as highlighted in the interview and focus group schedules in Appendices B and C.

6.1.2 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

The researcher used focus group discussions (FGDs) as a follow-up to Phase I of the study. Patton (2015) highlights that in a FGD, a group of participants are brought together to have a free-flowing but focused discussion on a particular topic. In a FGD, participants are selected on the basis of being able to contribute to the discussions owing to their general understanding of the topic (Creswell 2013; Creswell & Plano Clark 2011; Davies & Hughes 2014). The researcher needed to purposefully select those participants who had indicated their willingness to discuss the issue of SV and youth participation beyond the survey. The FGDs were carried out using a topic guide developed by the researcher (see Appendix B). There were seven FGDs in total and the researcher chaired four of these, with the remaining three being led by the AT. The FGDs were each composed of five to nine participants. Each FGD was timed to last for about one hour and thirty minutes at most. The participants in the FGDs were free to express themselves and there were no restrictions to what could be discussed.

6.1.3 The Norton Youth Indaba (NYI)

In response to the need for a platform where young people and policy-makers engage openly, the project launched the inaugural NYI (Figure 6.1). The researcher undertook this initiative in close collaboration with the office of the Norton Member of Parliament (MP), Honourable Temba Mliswa. The event, held on 5 May 2017, was attended by youth from around Norton, the MP, the Ministry of Youth Development, Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment (MYDIEE) Honourable Patrick Zhuwao, community-based organisations (CBO) leaders and some religious leaders. The NYI was a dialogue session that was attended by 124 participants, allowing for open discussions to take place. It had been anticipated that more than 200 participants would attend but the NYI did not attract that number, as some youth were advised against attending by their parents or political

party leaders. Since the event was being spearheaded through the MP's office, some parents mistook it for a political event and therefore did not want their children to attend. The reason behind some political parties barring their youth from attending the event is explained in Section 6.3.3. Despite this setback, there was a clear demand for similar events to be replicated within Norton so that more youth could express their views. In this regard, some miniature NYIs were held in the wards and these added to the number of FGDs that were carried out in the study. The researcher observed that these ensuing meetings were drawn on invisible party lines and noted large indications of coached presentations, as some participants made submissions that were responses to issues raised at the original NYI, thereby defending the ruling party.

Figure 6.1: The Norton Youth Indaba as portrayed through photos.

6.2 Details of the FGDs Participants and Interviewees

6.2.1 FGDs and NYI Participants

Tables 6.1 and 6.2 present the details of the people who took part in the focus groups and NYI dialogue session. The FGD participants were selected during the survey and had indicated their willingness to participate at that stage. It was from these participants that members of the AT were also drawn.

Table 6.1: Details of the FGD participants.

Participant number	Gender	Age
FG1		
1	M	19
2	M	23
3	F	18
4	M	24
5	F	27
6	M	32
FG2		
1	M	24
2	M	23
3	F	18
4	M	31
5	F	22
FG3		
1	F	20
2	F	23
3	M	22
4	M	19
5	F	24
FG4		
1	M	18
2	M	24

3	F	17
4	M	22
5	F	23
6	M	18
7	F	19
FG5		
1	M	19
2	M	23
3	F	18
4	M	24
5	F	27
6	M	32
7	M	29
8	F	33
9	F	28
FG6		
1	M	21
2	M	27
3	F	19
4	M	30
5	F	18
6	M	24
7	M	27
8	F	32
FG7		
1	F	18
2	M	24
3	M	27
4	F	23
5	F	18
6	M	29
7	F	20

Table 6.2: Details of the NYI participants.

Total participant numbers	Gender	Age
124	M - 71 F - 53	18 to 24 - 52 25 to 30 - 41 31 to 35 - 18 Above 35 - 13

6.2.2 Interviewees

The interviewees were youth leaders who were working directly with young people in different spheres within the community. Their details are indicated in Table 6.3 below. The researcher has given them pseudonyms in order to protect their identities.

Table 6.3: Details of the interviewees.

Name	Gender	Age	Position in the community
Dadisai	F	28	Sports Team Captain
Maria	F	34	Councillor
Charles	M	24	Community Based Organisation Leader
Princess	F	20	Former Junior Councillor
Hamutyinei	M	32	Political Party Leader
Jokoniya	M	27	Youth Program Coordinator

6.3 Themes emerging from the Interviews and FGDs

The findings detailed in this section emerged from the interviews and FGDs, including the NYI. The data was sorted into a set of *a priori* themes that were derived from the literature review. These themes are: (i) structural violence

indicators faced by youth, (ii) conflict drivers and indicators, (iii) youth participation and inherent challenges and (iv) improving youth participation.

6.3.1 Structural Violence Indicators faced by Youth

When asked to indicate the issues or challenges that youth face daily, the following conflict indicators were prominent:

- Girl-child abuse
- Unemployment and lack of income sources
- Access to land for housing and projects
- Drug abuse
- Prostitution
- Youth exploitation
- School dropouts
- Hopelessness and low self-esteem
- Political and other forms of direct violence
- Corruption
- Disease outbreaks
- Being pressured to make wrong choices

Figure 6.1 depicts the major themes that emerged from the data. Some of these conflict indicators will be briefly expanded upon, revealing how they were presented and how they perpetuated structural violence amongst youth.

Figure 6.2 Structural violence indicators prominent amongst youth

a. Unemployment and Lack of Income Sources

There is high unemployment with the provision of little or no opportunities of life chances for youth. Many youth depend on informal economic activity such as hairstyling, being part-time housemaids or gardeners, vending and working as *mushikashika* (private taxi) drivers. This was highlighted by a coordinator for a local Youth Program:

> Once we have completed our "O" Levels our future is bleak. There is nothing to do because, the industry is dead. There are no employment opportunities, yet we are surrounded by two major dams. Why can't council or government help us earn a living from them? (Jokoniya, interviewee).

This was emphasised during the FGDs as well:

> *Zvinhu zvakadhakwa munongozviona. Kunindustry hakusi kufaya vapfanha havana mabasa tarisai muone kuwanda kwaita twumaKarina-Govans nevari kutengesa paSpeed* (Things are not moving as you can see. There are no jobs, the local industry is closed and there are no jobs in this town. Look at the number of pirate taxi-drivers and informal traders that we have) (FDG6 participant).

b. Drug Abuse and Prostitution

Respondents across the focus groups and interviews lamented the detrimental coping mechanisms that the youth are adopting in order to cope with poverty and economic hardships. There were high numbers of prostitution and drug-abuse cases reported in the community.

> There are high cases of drug abuse and prostitution. A night club in our area now has strip shows. It is sickening to see grown man paying to watch vulnerable girls dance naked. At first, I thought that people were making up the stories until I paid the night club a visit one night (Charles, interviewee).

Another interviewee corroborated this assertion:

> *Vamwe vacho vakakura tichiona, wozoona vavakuita zvisingori normal. Haisi mhosva yavo asi kuti mararamiro avo akaoma. Zvinhu zvacho zvakapresser vanhu. Kutambura nekushaya zvekuita zvakanyanya mucommunity* (Some of them grew up under our watch and it is

> disheartening to see them getting involved in abnormal behaviour. It's not their fault but they are living a tough life. Things are tight for everyone. There is a lot of poverty and lack of economic opportunities in the community) (Dadisai, interviewee).

6.3.2 Conflict Drivers and Indicators

The major conflict drivers that emerged from the findings include: (i) the polarised environment, (ii) the prevailing economic and political situation, (iii) closed industries, (iv) political interference and hijacking of ideas, (v) poor service delivery, (vi) cash shortages, (vii) unhealthy coping mechanisms and (viii) an unwillingness to participate. Some of these conflict drivers will be explained as they were reported or observed in the field.

a. Economic Situation

It was observed that due to the deteriorating economic situation in Zimbabwe during the study period, people were more concerned about making money in any way possible. The need to make quick money can hinder progress in group activities as participants find ways to siphon and divert funds for personal use. There was evidence of individualism, with people being more interested in individual gains at the expense of group benefits. One member of the initial AT spent money which had been donated to take the whole team for a night out, on himself. The immediate concern about earning an income can also be a hindrance to volunteerism and participation in non-paying community projects. A number of youth who were approached to be part of the engagement process and other events such as the clean-up and drug-abuse campaigns, were reluctant to participate as there was no payment to be received. Some youth refused to take part in the survey because the researcher was not offering them any incentive.

b. Access to Information and Training

Access to information was indicated as one of the drivers to SV within the community. Participants spoke of the lack of a library or information centre in the town.

> The whole town doesn't have a library. We don't even know when the one being built by the Lions Club will be completed. Given the time it took them to get permission it could take forever (FGD1 participant).

This was reiterated in the NYI to the Minister:

> We don't have a public information centre where we can go and research or go online. So, if you need to access the internet you either spend a fortune on data bundles or you go kwaGovans or to Harare to use the cheaper internet cafes there (NYI participant).

A high number of youth have not been trained in vocational skills despite the fact that there is a training centre in the town, as they do not have accurate and reliable information. This was also revealed by an officer from the VTC who stated that:

> Most of our courses are provided for free. We even provide students with additional requirements such as safety equipment and materials. Few people from the community turn up for training because we are not doing much to share information about our programs.

This issue was corroborated by Honourable Zhuwao during a debriefing session before the action team started the NYI event. He indicated that the Youth Officers were in actual fact not disseminating information to community members, thereby inhibiting youth development. The Youth Officers are not known by the constituency they are meant to serve but receive payment through public funds as civil servants.

> We gonna (sic) have to find ways of working with Youth Officers *ende vane mbiri yekunzi havashande. Ndiyo mbiri yandakanza. Ini handitombovazive, ndatotanga kuvaziva nhasi* (They are famed for not producing results. I didn't know these officer, I actually met them today). We have been falling out a lot of problems because those guys aren't doing their job… like zvemaYouth Information Corners. We don't know those things. We have to put them to task (Honourable Patrick Zhuwao, during the NYI debrief session).

A suitable example depicting the situation where information is not disseminated to youth involved a debate in one FGD on the introduction of a cookery course at the VTC. The youth in the meeting were advocating for this course since 'it was not on offer there'. However, a Youth Officer present in the meeting revealed that

the VTC does actually carry out training sessions at the centre. The debate ensued with the youth being adamant that they did not know about the course and therefore doubted its existence. The officer indicated that the youth were not aware of this as when the trainings are done, they would not be specifically targeting youth.

Another issue relating to the Youth Officers which emerged during the FGDs was the unclear role played by those who were meant to support youth development in each ward. The youth indicated that they did not know where and how to access those officers. Some also complained that these youth officers were actually grandmothers who were not apt in current youth development issues. One FGD participant summarised it in the following manner:

> *Shuwa shuwa munoona machembere aye achigona kushandisa* computer? *Tiri muTechonology era saka panoda younger stock inounza maideas anoshandisa technology* (Those old people cannot use computers. In this technological era, we need youth officers that are tech savvy) (Female FGD3 participant).

c. Political Interference

There was evidence of political interference in activities in the communities as politicians (the MP, Councillors and Ministers) tried to control processes and influence outcomes. They tried to hijack processes that involved youth for political expedience. A number of participants highlighted that on several occasions, youth were being exploited by politicians to evoke violence in community meetings and during elections. It was observed that politicians also want to be involved in everything that happens in the community, even if it is not political. This failure to separate political events and community development work was also a major contributor to structural violence. Citizens also failed to separate a community development event from a political one, and a number of parents advised their children not to attend the NYI because the MP was part of it. All events become politicised with intelligence officials being assigned to monitor programs. There were two officers from the Police's Internal Security Intelligence (PISI) department who made enquiries about the NYI and who were also in attendance ‘to take notes’.

On the other hand, the MP tried to gain control of the community-based organisation that was being set up as a way to sustain the NYI initiative. Attempts were made to convert it into a political movement by bringing his supporters into the Steering Committee and getting him appointed as a Patron. The researcher found it necessary to drop some initial members of the AT because of this, as this would have taken the project into a different trajectory and seen the NYI being converted into a political movement.

d. Polarisation

The polarised and aggressive relations between and among political parties are a potential source of radicalisation and conflict. During the study period, there was ongoing antagonism between the MP and Councillors. This polarisation was witnessed by the Councillors' snubbing of the NYI because it was carried out in collaboration with the MP's office. Leaders from ZANU PF and MDC-T instructed their members not to attend the event and an interviewee confirmed the following:

> *Hatishandidzane naMP nekuti ari kuti rwisa kukanzuru. Takaudza mayouth edu kuti asauye kuevent yenyu. Vanhu vari kutobvunza kuti sei iwewe wakasarudza kushanda nemunhu asingafarirwe mucommunity. Uchaona kuti hapana councillor achauya nekuti hatidi kuonekwa kunge tiri kusupporter MP* (We don't work with the MP because he is fighting us in Council. We have since instructed our youth not to attend your event. People are even asking why you chose to work with someone who is not liked in the community. You will not find any Councillor at your event because we do not want to be seen as if we support the MP) (Maria, interviewee).

In addition, some of those who attended the FGDs were clear on their scepticism of the MP:

> *Tauya pano kuzonyatsoona kuti chiii chiri kuitwa munharaunda otherwise munhu wamabatana naye hatina kana trust naye. Haashandike naye and mukaramba makabatana naye muchaona kuti mayouth mashoma achauya kuzvinhu zvaTemba* (We had to come to see for ourselves what exactly you guys are doing in the community otherwise we don't trust the person you have partnered with. He is difficult to work with and if you continue in partnership with him you will

see that very few people will come to things being done by Temba) (FDG7 participant).

e. Intimidation and Political Indoctrination

During the survey phase of the study, the researcher noted incidences of intimidation and political indoctrination that led to subdued responses by youth in the data collection. When the researcher visited the VTC, he walked into a class where students were being lectured on patriotism, discipline and political indoctrination. The same students were going to be part of the sample that the researcher had selected to respond to the survey. Immediately before the researcher handed them the questionnaire, a lecturer, who was in charge of lessons that day, reminded them to be patriotic in their responses to the survey. Some students privately indicated their displeasure at the indoctrination at the VTC but could not do anything about it as they needed the vocational skills training. Students were being structurally violated in a public institution. The atmosphere during the completion of the questionnaire was rather tense and a few students were distrusting and questioned the action team's intentions with the survey.

6.3.3 Youth Participation and Inherent Challenges

It was observed that youth participation was very low and dominated by ephebiphobia, political interference and the youth's inability to self-organise. Some of the inherent challenges leading to reduced youth participation are indicated in the sub-sections that follow.

a. Lack of Space for Youth Participation

Participants across FGDs and interviews pointed out the lack of space for youth participation in socio-economic and political issues. This space is both physical, in terms of infrastructure due to limited 'Youth-Friendly Corners', as well as abstract, in terms of creating platforms for young people. There are no youth-friendly facilities in the community for recreational and self-developmental services. This was emphasised in several FGDs as well as at the NYI, in the presence of Honourable Patrick Zhuwao. The team captain of a community-based netball club also lamented this in her interview:

> *Kana tichida kushandisa mafacilities chaiwo emasports hatina kwekuenda. Stadium yedu haina chinhu and kune mamwe mafacilities ndeuko kuHunyani, kwaka vharwa futi. Saka tikati tishandise ikoko pachada mari yekuti tiendeko* (We don't have reliable and accessible to sports facilities in the town. Our stadium is just good for soccer. The only other sports centre is at the defunct Hunyani Industrial Complex. Even if we were to be allowed access we will need transport to get there) (Dadisai, interviewee).

This was also raised during the FGDs:

> *Honai zviri kuita kanzuru paJecha apo paifanirwa kuiswa Sports Facilities but varikupa machurch* (Look at what council is doing with the spaces designated for sports facilities. They are giving out the land to churches) (FGD6 participant).

It was also observed that the local authority's offices are not very accessible to the public. The members of the staff there are suspicious of people who visit them for requests and they usually act upon the requests after some name-dropping occurs. The researcher had personal experiences of being treated with suspicion during his study. When the researcher went to drop off his ethical clearance and request for permission to carry out his research at the Council office, he was suspected of being a political activist. The Town Secretary's Personal Assistant advised her junior to "Process the request carefully lest we allow a political activist into our communities and he starts campaigning for votes." The experience with support offices was no better. The researcher only received access to the town's ward map from the Engineering Department after telling them that the Town Secretary had given him the authority to get the information. During the course of the study, the researcher personally made a request for land to set up a youth empowerment centre, but nothing came through. In the more than 12 months period since the researcher submitted his request, he was asked to re-email the Town Secretary thrice, with the Department of Housing also asking him on three occasions to resubmit the hardcopy to their offices.

It must be pointed out that the situation is not completely disheartening, as there are some stakeholders who are working on creating space for youth development.

The prominent musician, Oliver Mtukudzi, opened up his *Pakare Paye* Arts Centre to youth, where he has been nurturing young talent for several years. A young lady was using sports to help other young woman avoid the adoption of detrimental coping behaviours such as prostitution. She explained her drive as follows:

> *Vasikana vari kupinda muchihure. Saka ini ndiri kuyedza kuti ndigadzire pekuti vambounganira. Kuno kubhora vakaita two or three hours vachijamba pavanosvika kumba vanenge vaneta havazokwanisa kuita zvimwe zvinhu zvisina basa* (Girls are getting into prostitution. So, I am trying to set up a platform where they can come together. After they spend two or three hours at the netball training when they get home, they are too exhausted to engage in any other detrimental activities).

b. Tokenism and Ephebiphobia

Participants highlighted the high level of adultism and tokenism exhibited by elders and government officials as well, who only called upon youth when they saw it as convenient. Participants indicated that government officials made promises that they did not fulfil and, in addition, used government resources to stifle their progress.

> *Tinoda kusangana nevatungamiri zvakanaka vachinzwawo zvichemo zvedu vozvigadzirisa. Taneta nekungoshandiswa nevane mari nemasimba. Madhara aya haasi serious nesu. Pfungwa dzedu havana basa nadzo saka tinoendereyi kune mameeting avo. Isu vechidiki hatina zvatinowana kunze kwemaSuper nemusombo* (We need space for genuine engagement with local leaders so that our concerns are heard and acted on. We are tired of just being exploited by politicians and those in power. Older people don't take us seriously so what's the point of attending their meetings? The only thing they give us is alcohol) (Male FGD participant).

A good example of tokenism was shown by Honourable Zhuwao during the NYI. He promised to launch what he called 'Constituency Empowerment Hubs' in response to submissions made by participants. In recognition of the input from the NYI, he was going to launch the initiative in Norton during the VTC's graduation ceremony that was supposed to take place two or three weeks later. He indicated that the youth at the NYI were free to work together with the Youth Officers at the VTC on setting up the site for the launch. However, nothing materialised since that speech. When the AT followed up to see how they could co-create the engagement

space with the Youth Officers, they were told that no such instructions had been formally communicated to the officers, so they were not going to work with outsiders. This is despite the fact that the NYI was held within the VTC grounds with the Youth Officers themselves being present during the dialogue session. Such incidences are not isolated and they discourage youth from participating in any local initiatives. The Minister also promised to install unlimited Wi-Fi at the VTC, but nothing was carried out during the period up to the conclusion of the research.

c. Resignation and Hopelessness

The prominence of tokenism has had a downstream effect of resignation and hopelessness amongst young people in the community. This was aptly narrated across the FGDs and interviews. One artist indicated how resigned she had become:

> *Kana usina anokusapota hakuna kwaunoenda semuyouth. Isu vamwe tine zvipo asi hatina vanotibatsira* (If you don't have anyone supporting you won't get anywhere as a young artist. Some of us are talented but are failing to breakthrough because of lack of the much-needed support) (Female artist in FGD4).

The interviewees also revealed the challenges they faced in reviving hope in the community:

> *Kuti ungati unovaunganidze wovaudza zvekuti vaite, vanhu vacho havauye. Vanhu vekuti havasisina tarisiro yekuti pane chakanaka chavangaitirwe muno. Vanhu havasisina tarisiro* (Even if you try to bring them together to share an idea with them, they will not come. We are dealing with people who have lost hope that something good can come out of this town. They are totally hopeless) (Charles, interviewee).

> *Pari tricky ukada kuvaunganidza. Hongu wavanacho chekuti vaite asi ukada kuti uvaunganidze, ukavadeedza iye zvino sevanhu vasisina pfungwa dzekuti tichawanawo anotibatsira unogona kushaya kana hwani anouya. Vanhu havasisina hope zvekuti ukavati huyai vanoti, "Ha hazvisisina kana basa izvi, hazvina hwazvinotisvitsa." Zvinhu zvavajaira mazuva ese zvekunyeberwa* (It's a tricky situation when you try to bring youth together. You might have something for them to do but you might fail to get anyone who comes. People are now hopeless such that they'll

tell you that, “This is pointless, it won’t get us anywhere.” They are used to being lied to always) (Dadisai, interviewee).

d. Failure to self-organise

It was observed that the youth were failing to self-organise and mobilise peers to take action. It becomes a conflict driver because regardless of many young people complaining that nothing was being done for them by the leaders, they themselves were not being proactive to solve the issues they faced. A former Junior Councillor also highlighted this during her interview:

> *Dambudziko redu nderekumirira kuti pauye Mesiya kuzotiitira. Tarisai imimi makauya mukatanga kuunganidza vanhu kuIndaba yenyu. Isu chatinogona kungoita ruzha nekuti hapana chiri kufamba. Asi tarisai kuvanhu vangani vakauya kuIndaba? Ndiwo mayouth eNorton ese here akauya? Tikasashanda tiri vadiki so hatisvike patiri kuda kusvika* (Our problem is we are waiting for the Messiah to come and do it for us. Look at how you came along and mobilised people to the NYI. There is too much complaining that we are being looked down upon and no action. Look at the number of young people who attended NYI? Are those all the youth from Norton? We really don’t want to participate when asked to and at the end of the day they say. So, if we cannot work on our own as youth we will never progress and achieve anything) (Princess, interviewee).

Another example of the youth’s failure to self-organise that is worth mentioning was an example raised where the youth are not capitalising on the programs taking place at the Pakare Paye Arts Centre. A participant emphasised this during an FGD after a few other participants had lamented the lack of support given to budding artists. The participant stated that:

> *VaMtukudzi vaka offer Pakare Paye kuti ibatsire maArts departments ese. Chakazoitika ndechekuti iyesu mayouth takazoita problem yekusava organised zvikadzokera kumashure.* People stopped going there *vega zvikadzokera kumashure* (Dr Mtukudzi offered to support all arts departments at Pakare Paye. The problem was that we failed to organise ourselves and this pushed the project back. People stopped going there on their own) (Male FGD2 participant).

6.3.4 Ways to improve Youth Participation

Participant stated that youth participation can be improved by:

- Being able to self-organise
- Involving youth in policy-making, listening to their views and acting on them
- Supporting sports programs
- Encouraging and support group-based enterprises or projects
- Leaders engaging youth more and moving towards intergenerational co-creation
- Doing activities that expose local talent
- Carrying out voter education programs

An interviewee stressed that:

> We just need to believe in our own ability as young people. As a young person I can shake the community if given the platform to speak and act on our problems. Youth need to be given a chance to show what they can do (Princess, interviewee).

6.3.5 Participation in Elections

It emerged that youth were ready to participate in the July 2018 Harmonised Elections, but some were not making progress within their party structures. Most interviewees indicated that their parties had 'old guards' who were not willing to create the space for youth to take up positions within their hierarchies. This was highlighted by one political party youth leader:

> *Munoona madhara ari mumisangano yedu aya haabve zvekumhanya. Isusu tinoudzwa kunzi muchiri vana garai pasi titungamire isusu. Ukaonekwa uchida kukwikwidza zvimwe zvinzvimbo unotonzi uri nhubu hauna respect kuvakuru. Kwedu kwatinotarisirwa kumiramira kumayouth nekuita macouncillor. Hatikwane kuNational Executive kana kuparliament* (You see those old people in the party are in no rush to relinquish power to the younger generation. They always tell us that we are still young and should sit down and allow them to lead us. If you try

> to contest for some positions, you are labelled a rebel and can be expelled from the party. We are expected to battle it out in the youth wing or for the seemingly junior posts in council. You cannot aim for a national executive or parliamentary post) (Maria, interviewee).

The other hindrance was the lack of civic education programs, which meant that youth were not well-informed on the election process. Another political party youth leader noted that:

> *Mukoma apa tinofanirwa kuzviitira tega. Hapana inofurira ivete. Tikasanyoresa kuvhota hapana chedu. Madhara aya haambotifunge plus haabve zvekumhanya. Panotoda training yakasimba just because vamwe havatombozive kuti election yacho chii kana kuti vhoti yake yakakosherei* (My brother we have to do it on our own. No one will cater for our interests so if we don't register to vote there is nothing for us. There is need for intensive voter education because a number of young people don't even know what election is so they don't know the value of their vote) (Hamutyinei, interviewee).

This was echoed by another youth leader:

> *Ngavaite kuti zvive nyore kune vechidiki kuti tipindewo mupolitics. Tonoda kuona vechidiki muhutungamiri* (I also want to recommend room be given to young people to participate in politics. We also want youth representative in the government arena) (Maria, interviewee).

6.4 Getting the work done (Action Research Intervention)

6.4.1 The Researcher's Role as a Facilitator

As the action team carried out the action component of the research, the researcher played a facilitator's role which complemented that of being the core researcher. His facilitation role was more a "developing and empowering role" (Harvey *et al.* 2002: 581) which worked to create a space where the participants could express themselves freely and contribute (Cahill 2007) to the ensuing activities. The researcher reduced his direct involvement in the activities carried out by the AT so that he would not bias the direction that the study took and so as to avoid dominating the local interventions. The facilitation role was carried out in

order to improve the likelihood of success during the research (Kitson *et al.* 2008). At times this would entail an intervention by the researcher when he felt that the AT was steering off-course. The researcher also facilitated the training of the AT and thereby shared the knowledge he had on most of the key issues, as indicated in Section 6.4.4 of this study.

6.4.2 Setting up the Action Team

During the survey phase of the study, the researcher asked those who were keen to be part of the FGD discussions as well as the AT to leave their contact details. The researcher secured 32 contacts who responded to this follow-up action. The researcher then engaged with these contacts further and selected 15 who would make the first core AT which was going to carry out the action research component of the study. This AT was involved in most of the activities undertaken in the second phase of the project. The researcher worked in close contact with this team while also ensuring that he did not interfere in the way that they carried out their tasks. The researcher's role was merely an advisory one, and he stepped in when he saw that the conflict and group dynamics would probably derail the project and lead to a total failure of the study. Such a time arose, as explained in Section 6.3.2.c, when there seemed to be signals of political hijacking of the AT.

6.4.3 The Action Plan

Given that this was an action research project, the researcher facilitated the AT's identification of social problems which needed to be tackled. The team then looked at the top six solutions which had been selected and used participatory methods, such as the Problem Tree and the Ranking Matrix, to agree on the ones to prioritise during the next phase of the study. Table 6.4 below summarises the action plan which they designed.

Table 6.4: Action plan to carry out the proposed solutions.

Proposed solution	Activity	Implementation mode	Responsible party

Provision of leadership training	Leadership training workshop	2-day training on CBO formation	Researcher
Freedom to participate in politics & development without restrictions	Voter Education	Door to door campaigns	AT
Setting up youth friendly centres	Norton Youth Indaba Setting up a CBO	1 Day event Ward based meetings	AT & Researcher
Fostering employment opportunities	Social enterprise	Training on Small Business Management	Researcher
Effective engagement in productive activities	Sanitary Pads manufacturing	Setting up of venture	AT
	Plastic pavers manufacturing	Setting up of venture	AT
Youth awareness campaigns	Drug Abuse Awareness Campaign	Door to door campaigns	AT
	Waste Management Campaign	Clean Up Campaign	AT
	Mental Health Support	Lay mental health counselling	AT

6.4.4 Training the Action Team

Francis (2002: 53, 86) explains that training is one form of conflict intervention which can go a long way in addressing the need for constructive conflict resolution. Francis revealed that training offers three important domains in conflict transformation which are (i) the internal skills for effective personal behaviour, (ii) the external skills for effective interpersonal behaviour and (iii) the analytical, organisational and strategic skills for effective group action. As Tillett and French

(2010: 288) also highlight, conflict resolution involves a set of practical skills for it to have any real value. These skills are basic intellectual and interpersonal skills that everyone possesses, but they are often largely underdeveloped and unapplied. In this regard, the researcher therefore facilitated a five-day leadership training for the AT to ensure that they had the skills to lead the process and carry out community-based interventions in response to the identified social issues (Figure 6.2). The researcher ensured that the training covered the key attributes recommended for peacebuilders, namely: understanding, ownership, sensitivity, respect, time, networking and experience (Evans-Kent 2001). The training also covered the aspects of starting and running a business, since the AT was supposed to apply social entrepreneurship skills in the project.

Figure 6.2: The AT going through the leadership training.

The training program covered the areas given in Table 6.5 below:

Table 6.5: The training program for the action team.

Day	Training
Day 1	1. Conflict mapping 2. Leadership training • Qualities of a leader • Learning to lead • Different types of leadership 3. Democracy (definition and accepted indicators)

	4. Elections (their role in democracy, identifying electoral stakeholders, importance of transparent regular and free and fair elections) 5. Governance (relationship between those who govern and the governed, dual relationship between transparency and accountability) 6. Stakeholder Engagements (power mapping and its importance in influencing people, institutions and leaders, the importance of effective communication in galvanising people) 7. Respect for human rights and active participation 8. Youth participation in elections and governance
Day 2	1. CBO formation • Difference between CBOs, NGOs and INGOs • CBOs impacting the community 2. Operating legally (drafting the constitution) • Registration (Zimbabwe Youth Council or Private Voluntary Organisation Board) • Getting authority to operate (District Social Office, District Administrator and NTC). 3. Organisational structure (committee members)
Day 3 and 4	1. Generate your business idea • Why social entrepreneurship • Organising your group/self to start a business • What is a business? • What is a business idea? • Generating your own business idea • Analyse your business ideas and select the best one to start your business 2. The business plan • The marketing plan • Type of business registration • Staff • Costing your products and services • Financial planning • Required start-up capital • Types and sources of start-up capital • Starting the business
Day 5	1. Community transformation and community mobilisation 2. Nonviolent Conflict Transformation (definition and accepted indicators) 3. Non-violent strategic planning 4. Action plan design

The training was conducted using group exercises and discussions and it focused on formative learning with the participants being urged to link the learnt concepts to their day to day experiences. Mini-lectures were also presented to introduce and provide grounding of the concepts.

6.5 Findings from the Projects

The data presented in this section emerged from the interviews as well as during the action phase. This section then integrates data from the baseline data collection, carried out through the FGDs and the NYI, with that from the implementation of some of the identified solutions.

6.5.1 Outcomes of Tested Solutions

The study looked at the effectiveness of the proposed solutions in attaining structural violence transformation. The outcomes of the testing of the solutions acted upon by the AT are summarised in Table 6.6 below. The table also shows the enhancers or barriers of any solution depending on whether it was or was not successfully carried out.

Table 6.6: Outcomes of the tested solutions.

	ACTIVITY	OUTCOME	ENHANCERS / BARRIERS
1	Leadership training workshop	Successfully completed	Enthusiasm from the AT from the beginning
2	Voter Education	Not done regardless of the fact that team members received training on numerous occasions	Polarisation in the community Fear of arrest or political intimidation
3	Norton Youth Indaba	One-day event successfully completed	Social cohesion and good social capital in putting together logistics for the one-day event Polarisation and mistrust so turn-out was not as high as

			expected. Some youth turned away because the event was being organised through the local MP's office
4	Setting up a CBO	Some ward meetings done but later dropped CBO formation started but abandoned	Inability to self-organise Individual ambitions being placed ahead of group Power struggles (committee was changed thrice in three months) Political interference
5	Social enterprise	Training on Small Business Management	Good turn out from AT
6	Sanitary Pads manufacturing	Yet to be fully implemented	Lack of manufacturing skills and inability to apply Small Business Management skills Lack of starting capital Impatience by some members wanting immediate income
7	Plastic pavers manufacturing	Yet to be fully implemented	Lack of manufacturing skills and inability to apply SBM skills Lack of starting capital Impatience by some members wanting immediate income
8	Drug Abuse Awareness Campaign	Training conducted but campaign did not fully take off	Delays in putting plan into action Lack of volunteerism amongst youth
9	Waste Management Campaign	Successfully completed	Social cohesion and support from local town council
10	Mental Health Support	Lay mental health counselling training conducted but campaign did not fully take off	Promising due to buy in from elderly volunteers Social cohesion as elders also want to help address social problem affecting the community

			Readily available support from external trainer to roll out initiative

6.5.2 Drawbacks in implementing some of the Projects

It was observed that some of the drawbacks in implementing the proposed solutions were in actuality internal challenges emanating from the AT. For instance, the AT leaders went for training on voter education with the Zimbabwe Election Commission (ZEC) and received training and promotional materials to use in community sensitisation, but they did not carry out a single voter education event. This was due to their fear of being construed as carrying out political campaigns. These leaders failed to appreciate that voter education is a key component of citizen participation and their failure to carry it out was a disappointment to fellow youth. On another note, a workshop on Drug Abuse Awareness was arranged for the entire AT, but no concrete follow-up activities were carried out. Funds were also availed to start the manufacturing of sanitary pads and the recycling of plastics into pavers. However, the money was diverted and never used for the intended capital investments. These were some of the drawbacks to the implementation that were observed by the researcher. The AT team itself was at times a hindrance to the progress in carrying out interventions. There was a lack of leadership impetus. There were incidences of bickering, disunity and fighting over money, with some members being under the impression that their leaders were receiving a large amount of money from the researcher and not sharing it with everyone else. The team was notably engrossed in ‘looking’ for money. There was a lack of self-confidence from the team (the person leading was dominating the team but was not willing to act on identified solutions). They failed to put to use the skills which they had acquired on how to engage and lobby for support from council officials. They did not approach the ministry for clearance nor did they organise a number of mobilisation events.

6.5.3 The Potential of Social Entrepreneurship as a Solution

There were mixed sentiments on how SE can work in addressing SV within the community. Most of the participants, however, agreed that any income-generating projects carried out to address SV should be done in groups and not for individuals. I think that the government should also be seen playing a neutral role and not carrying out interventions on partisan grounds. This is how one youth leader summarised it:

> SE brings about positive peace since poverty and unemployment are the main challenges that youth face in the community. If our youth become entrepreneurs that means they can be self-reliant and easily participate in peace education. However, more should be done by government and civic society to empower youth. This should not be done on political grounds. More activities to empower youth need to be launched. Also, the government should ensure that the Youth Fund goes to the youth (Jokoniya, interviewee).

On the other hand, another youth leader felt that business-related interventions might not work. She noted that sports-related interventions might be a more effective way to bring youth together, stating:

> *Zvekuita mabhizinesi or maproject awo zvinogonzi zvinoenda nekupi. Unotobvunzwa mubvunzo wekuti unogumirwa, "Kana tazoita zvozodii?" Zvionofira panzira mucommunity. Huku dzinodyiwa. But at least kana iri nyaya yemasports yes. Vakawanda vanofarira zvemasports* (People are sceptical when it comes to business or projects. They ask you some disheartening questions like, "What next after we have participated in your project? Where will that take us?" The projects will collapse, people will eat the chickens or throw spanners into the whole project. But when it comes to sports, yes most of them are interested in sports) (Dadisai, interviewee).

6.5.4 Social Capital and its Stockholders

Social entrepreneurship is aimed at bringing social value to the community, but in order for this to happen, it needs social capital. A vital step in unlocking social capital is also being able to articulate the project and its intended benefits so that people come on board to support it. The success of all the planned solutions for this project depended on the social capital which the AT could access. The team

also had to develop an ability to identify the key 'social capital holders' to whom they could reach out. One such social capital holder was the local MP, Temba Mliswa, who managed to tap into his networks and ensured that the NYI was a resounding success. From his efforts, individuals contributed cash, food items, a tent, chairs and the sound system. Some individuals provided their vehicles to assist on the day of the event. Another intervention where social capital holders were useful was in carrying out the clean-up campaign. In this regard, the NTC provided the much-needed equipment and tools to help in removing the waste. The following were revealed as the possible social capital holders that where key in youth participation:

- Youth in general and Youth Leaders
- Honourable Temba Mliswa
- Youth Officers
- Norton Town Council
- Norton Junior Council
- Dr Oliver Mtukudzi
- Norton Junior Council
- Religious Leaders
- Community-Based Organisations such as the Norton Development Association

6.5.5 Youth Contribution in Community Cohesion

Participants in the FGDs and at the NYI were sceptical about young people's ability to contribute towards community cohesion. They indicated that there was disunity, selfishness, mistrust and polarisation amongst the young people. Therefore, working together towards one goal was very taxing. Despite the doubts that were voiced out on youth contributing to community cohesion and development, a few of the participants were positive and believed that this could be achieved through intensive community mobilisation and sensitisation. During the study period, there was a cholera outbreak in the town and the youth had an opportunity to prove that they were valuable actors in community cohesion. Those who were in the AT went

on to prove this by conducting a clean-up campaign to reduce the community's exposure to communicable diseases. They also carried out a drug-abuse and mental-health-awareness campaign to get more youth off drugs and help address mental health issues. The team mobilised financial support and resources from a few well-wishers, including the researcher, to ensure that they had enough material to disseminate as well as for refreshments. The NTC availed a refuse collection tractor and tools for the team to use (Figure 6.3). The researcher also noted that had the youth not been economically sound, they would not have carried out these campaigns.

Figure 6.3: Youth-led clean-up campaign held by the AT.

6.5.6 Youth Participation in Peacebuilding through addressing Structural Violence

Participants agreed that youth have a role to play in peacebuilding and that they can address SV through: (i) sharing information, (ii) encouraging each other and (iii) being responsible citizens. The AT went on to provide proof of the concept on

how youth can help address SV in their communities. They carried out their own initiatives that included the following:

- Advocating for government policy clarification on issues such as the compulsory selling of uniforms in schools
- Supplying girls with sanitary pads to address period poverty
- Mobilising funds to pay fees for pupils from poor households while advocating for schools not to turn them away
- Working on setting up a social enterprise that creates employment for youth while addressing social problems such as period poverty and waste management

6.6 Summary

This chapter narrated the findings from the qualitative phase of the study. It explained how FGDs, interviews, the NYI and observations were used to collect data. It indicated the SV indicators, as highlighted by participants across the FGDs and interviews. It also explained the key conflict drivers that were hindering youth participation while also fuelling SV in the community. The chapter also touched on the solutions that the youth proffered and how some of these were tested by the AT. It also covered the aspects of how SE could be used in addressing SV and thus promote youth participation across sectors. It concluded by analysing the outcomes of the tested solutions and indicated the enhancers or inhibitors to each tried intervention. The next chapter will discuss these findings together with those from the quantitative phase of the study and link them to the research objectives. It will also explain similarities or differences between these findings and those from other empirical studies.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter links the research findings in order to corroborate them with the current literature and explains the results while highlighting the contribution of this research in the wider literature.

7.2 Prevalence of Structural Violence

The findings from this study validate that SV is real in the Zimbabwean community. While the study was carried out in an urban setting within the country, it can be concluded that SV amongst youth in Zimbabwe is not only specific to Norton but can be generalised to be about the inequalities that young people face across the country. The majority of young people, as well as older people, have found ways to endure their suffering and live life as if everything is normal. People have found ways to use humour to keep them going. For example, jokes and comedy are often-times used to explain away some policy pronouncements that would be further entrenching the structural violence. Citizens look for alternative ways of living in spite of structural violence such as digging wells in their back yards to ensure they have water or reducing the number of meals consumed per day when food prices escalate. Some people have gone on to become ‘entrepreneurs’ by resorting to street-vending or fish-poaching in the nearby Lake Chivero, caused by the absence of employment opportunities. This resilience has jokingly been said to be the downfall of many returning residents who fail to cope with the SV on their return from outside the country. While the resilience displayed by many Zimbabweans is a positive way to endure SV, it is a large drawback when change is proposed. Those that would have adjusted to the SV allow less time for the change to take place. If the incentives for change and the results therein are not visible from the onset or in the early days, the initiative is quickly dismissed or abandoned. Many potential interventions have thus been terminated prematurely due to the lack of patience from community members.

7.3 Contributors of Structural Violence

SV was exhibited through five themes, namely: poverty, unemployment, health, water and sanitation, as well as access to education. Many households depend on informal and unregulated employment such as hairstyling, being part-time housemaids or gardeners, vending and working as gypsy cab drivers (*mushikashika*). There is high unemployment with the provision of little or no opportunities or life chances for youth. Politics and institutions within the community shape poverty and inequality and thus contribute to the prevailing SV. There were cases of cholera outbreaks and the spread of communicable diseases exacerbated by poor waste management and water supply in the community. The high number of youth who have not been trained in vocational skills, despite the presence of a training centre in Norton, also signals SV. These findings correspond with the research carried out by Venkatesh (2008), Alcock (2012), Gaynor (2015) and Bonnet and Venkatesh (2016).

7.4 Positive and Negative Peace

The findings are consistent with the research carried out by Muchemwa, Ngwerume and Hove (2011), Rwafa (2012) and Makuvaza (2013). There is negative peace in Zimbabwe. This is shown by the high unemployment, poverty levels, school drop-outs and reported cases of mental health related issues in Norton. On the same note, the polarised and aggressive relations between and among political parties are a potential source of radicalisation and conflict (Tilahun 2015; Brady, Blome and Kleider 2017).

7.5 Addressing Structural Violence

Conflict transformation can help address structural violence conflicts because it provides processes and ways to build a desired state, thus altering the manifestation of the conflict (Waldman 2009). In this regard, the AT team tried the following of Waldman's (2009) solutions: (i) basic skills training, (ii) employment and income generation, (iii) peace education – conflict resolution/transformation training and (iv) youth empowerment, voice and inclusion. On another note, non-

violent civic engagement is also key in addressing SV (Musarurwa *et al.* 2016; Yemenici 2016). The youth proved that they could use non-violent solutions by engaging in dialogue amongst themselves and with community leaders. They also successfully negotiated for support from the NTC to carry out the clean-up campaign.

Addressing SV is replete with challenges, as observed during the project. Issues such as power dynamics, political interferences, bureaucratic policies and processes, fear, resignation and akrasia were noted hindrances. There is much red tape in the community and one has to obtain approval from the DA and Town Secretary before embarking on any intervention. This is compounded by the relegation of politicians to community development practitioners who want to be involved in every project. This is also validated by communities blindly inviting them to launch or officiate at such programs. The MPs also feature as guests of honour at prize-giving events. The researcher of this study does not have a personal vendetta with MPs, but such acts give them the currency to want to have a say in every project or program that takes place at the grassroots level. This usurps power from the community and in actuality makes citizens accountable to public officers and not the other way around – public officers should be accountable to citizens. The researcher observed the clashes that emanated from such encroachment into local government structures by MPs. There were a number of instances where the MP and councillors did not go along, as the former claimed to be playing an oversight role by attending full council meetings and other local events. This notably led to most councillors not wanting to be associated with the NYI, since it was carried out through the MP's office.

7.6 Youth Participation

Youth are not making adequate usage of centres such as the VTC in their community because they do not have accurate and reliable information (Lynch, Baker and Cantillon 2000). Conditions of SV and exclusion also persist through a lack of political or community structures that enhance youth participation (Gaynor 2015). Individualism, political interference and the need to make quick money can

hinder progress in group activities. The immediate concern about earning an income can be a hindrance to volunteerism and participation in non-paying community projects. The selection of volunteers and leaders for social projects is key to their success. If the volunteers are not self-driven, the projects will terminate soon after initiation. As observed during the research study, the AT would always wait to be pushed by the researcher or would only act when he was around. Ownership of the intervention by everyone involved also ensured successful implementation.

7.7 Encouraging Youth Participation

In order to successfully contribute to their own socio-economic participation and thus address structural violence, youth have to be able to self-organise and not wait for an outsider to plan things for them (Nejati, Pourezzat and Gholipour 2013). Youth can contribute positively to sustainable socio-economic transformation if they are given a platform for their narratives to be heard (Waldman 2009; McEvoy-Levy 2012; Izzi 2013). It is recommended that government and policy-makers increase the efforts to create participatory spaces, both physical and structural, that allow for the meaningful participation of youth (Flanagan and Levine 2010). Local authorities should expand the youth councils' program and broaden their recruitment base to include school-leaving youth. In this way, marginalised youth also have an opportunity to raise their concerns with those who can actively provide solutions.

Intergenerational collaborations can be more effective as the elderly bring stabilisation and guidance to younger social change agents – in undertaking a participatory approach, the youth need to be equal partners (Jones and Perkins 2006). Therefore, their own proposed solutions need to be laid on the table. Meaningful participation will thus be attainable if youth are indeed afforded the space and resources to contribute to policy formulation through collaborative dialogue with adults. In this case, the youth become co-creators and not merely beneficiaries of socio-economic structural transformation policies and initiatives.

7.8 Applying Social Entrepreneurship in Peacebuilding

Social cohesion and social capital are key to unlocking resources in the community and they can help initiatives that are not capitalised to take off (Bruhn and Love 2009). Social entrepreneurship can be a key in promoting youth participation and tackling structural violence (Mabuto 2014). However, there are no readily-available systems to help capitalise social enterprises. I recommend that local government, donors and the corporate world need to put in place structures that help finance social enterprises and amplify their social impact.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This final chapter gives a synopsis of the research and the challenges the researcher faced during the study. The chapter further discusses how this thesis contributed to theory and fulfilled the research aims and objectives. It then presents the limitations of the study and proposes future research avenues, ending with a general conclusion for the thesis.

8.1 Synopsis of Research

8.1.1 Study Background and Context

The study was informed by the researcher's lived experience through working directly with youth in difference parts of Zimbabwe since 2008. Moving into Norton in 2014 gave the researcher a closer insight into the magnitude and similarities of the SV-fuelled challenges faced by youth. Norton, being a town that is less than 45 km from Zimbabwe's capital city, presented a rich context to analyse SV indicators and dynamics. The town is surrounded by natural resources such as two national dams and a number of farms. These resources can easily create employment for young people. However, Norton is only a dormitory town where most of its residents commute to Harare for almost everything from accessing reliable internet cafes to going to work. The town experiences high levels of unemployment, with prostitution and substance abuse being prevalent as youth try to navigate the reality of SV that they live with daily.

8.1.2 The Research Processes

The researcher then embarked on this study, armed with the desire to explore ways of enhancing youth participation and activating them as social change agents. After having received ethical clearance from DUT, the researcher then approached the NTC and the local MP for permission to undertake the study. The local council granted the researcher permission to proceed, with the MP allowing him to work directly with his office team. The researcher also had access to the MP's social networks, which he had set up to ring-fence his authority in Norton.

This network included a youth organisation called Youth Advocacy for Reform and Democracy (YARD) and the Norton Development Association (NORDA), both of which he chaired. The fact that he was a figurehead in both these organisations was, in the researcher's opinion, a conflict of interest, as he was controlling and directing civic structures that were composed of people whom he was meant to be accountable to as a public officer. From the researcher's observations, the MP was the one determining the agenda and direction that these CSOs took. The researcher strongly feels that MPs, just as civil servants, have no business running CBOs or community projects. On a positive note, working with the MP's office proved to be valuable as it opened up access to social capital that was needed to get the study moving on the ground. The researcher was able to set up a team of youth which he worked with in mobilising and organising some of the project events such as the NYI and subsequent ward meetings.

After having been granted permission by the gatekeepers, the researcher started his research by carrying out a survey between September and December 2016. The researcher worked with an undergraduate student based in Norton as his research assistant. The student helped the researcher to select respondents and administer the survey in the community. The survey was then followed up by a series of interviews with youth leaders as well as FGDs with ordinary young people from the town. It was during the FGDs that some of the possible solutions and action plan were developed.

The researcher then met with the MP in March 2017 and they agreed to hold the NYI in May 2017. The MP recommended some youth leaders from YARD, with whom the researcher teamed up. These youth leaders worked together with other youth from Norton who had volunteered to participate further in the project during the FGDs. They became the core AT that planned the NYI and the action team travelled within Norton mobilising youth for the community dialogue scheduled for 5 May 2017. With the financial and material support obtained from his research fund and from the CSOs that the MP led, the action team successfully held the NYI. This was immediately followed by a leadership training for the AT, with the intention of converting the NYI into a CBO.

The researcher then left the AT to carry out additional ward-based meetings independently and to constitute themselves into a CBO. The researcher needed to minimise his involvement in these processes so that he could reduce researcher bias. However, barely two months into the process, the researcher had to step in to avert the hijacking of and the possibility of diverting the NYI for political purposes. The researcher then disbanded the initial AT and identified another set of volunteers to work with as the team experimented with a number of the proposed solutions. Activities to address SV were carried out between August 2017 and September 2018.

8.1.3 Personal Reflection on the Research

The researcher found the study to be exciting and an eye-opening experience. The researcher met many youth who were yearning to bring about change. All that they needed was encouragement and a mentor to guide them. There were others who needed to be begged or pushed to act on their own challenges. There were also others who were content with being perennial mourners and who would not do anything to change their situation. The researcher did not encounter any major challenges in obtaining support from the community. Many people were eager to contribute, and the social capital was saturated. The researcher needed to be careful in how he manoeuvred the project as he realised that the community was expecting too much from him. At the same time, some politicians tried to exploit the project to their advantage. The researcher also lost personal resources such as time, money and some materials, as some of the youth he worked with either diverted them or spent them without producing tangible results on the ground. The greatest drawback were the power-grabbers who were readily available to occupy leadership positions for personal goals, and who then proceeded to prevent the progress of everyone. These people would dominate discussions or activities and then provide false updates while actively frustrating their teammates from making meaningful contributions.

The study developed the researcher's community engagement skills while also improving his writing and publishing skills. While the study might have failed to leave any tangible program running on the ground, it provided the researcher with valuable lessons on how best to set up something sustainable in the future. Overall, this was a pleasant study to carry out, which opened doors beyond the academic world.

8.1 Theoretical Contribution

This thesis contributed to theory in three ways, namely: (i) validating other research and (ii) contributing to knowledge by depicting the effectiveness of grassroots-initiated solutions and (iii) showing the effectiveness of social entrepreneurship in addressing SV. This thesis also discloses how bringing about change is overwhelming and that it varies across the micro or macro levels. There are many challenges in transforming SV. This study, while acknowledging that changes required in SV might be overwhelming, also shows that grassroots efforts are possible. This is shown through the effectiveness of social capital and social cohesion in fuelling micro-level interventions, thereby revealing that in the absence of local ownership and interest, an effort by an outsider to bring about change can only have short-term results with the momentum ending once the outsider leaves. This has been the fate of many social innovations that have been thrust upon communities to undo SV.

However, given the inherent resignation and acceptance or normalisation of SV at the micro level, trying to effect change will either take long or will be resisted such that initiatives are eventually abandoned. It becomes a case of people being comfortable in their disadvantaged situation such that anything that shifts this position brings in a new disequilibrium to which people are not accustomed. They are therefore not willing to adjust to this new equilibrium, even if it is a result of positive change. At the macro level, SV is fuelled by the government and aid systems that are meant to be addressing it. SV's existence is not denied but the efforts at the macro level are punctuated by political rhetoric and the lack of political will to invest in eliminating some SV enablers. This might be because politicians

thrive under conditions of SV and they keep hold of the social power that they derive from it.

As the study shows, grassroots efforts are feasible and more effective in dealing with SV. Thus, barring the lack of investment into these efforts, the communities can contribute significantly by self-organising, owning the process and acting to address the challenges that they face. Change at the macro level can take years due to the political and legal hurdles that have to be traversed. This gives credence to the micro level change, initiated by grassroots groups, as the relevant approach to bringing about the transformation that can be quickly and easily felt by those bearing the brunt of SV. Citizens must identify local social change champions outside of political structures and rally behind them. Therefore, citizens, not politicians, must be the ones spearheading the fight against SV in society. They should then mobilise and advocate for public officers to carry out the necessary policy reforms that make the process easier.

The thesis contributed to theory by applying conflict transformation measures to convert a situation of social injustice into one of social justice and positive peace, as depicted in Galtung's extended concept on violence using the Structural Violence/Social Injustice Transformation Model (Figure 8.1). In this regard, the thesis combined capacity-building, social support systems and community participation as conflict transformation tools to address some of the SV indicators prevalent in the community.

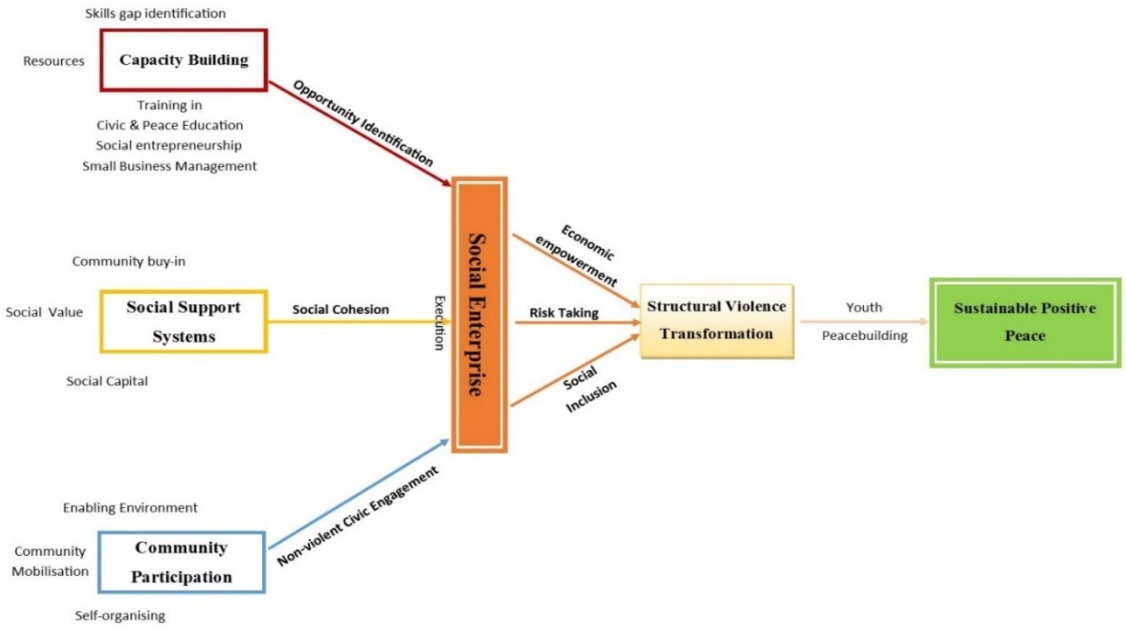


Figure 8.1: Structural Violence/Social Injustice Transformation Model (Source: author).

8.2 Fulfilling the Research Aim

The main aim of this study was to 'evaluate the potential of youth peacebuilding interventions as tools to promote sustainable peace in Zimbabwe'. This was fulfilled in the thesis by evaluating how youth led their participation in interventions that they identified and developed on their own. The study further evaluated how SE could be used to address social injustice and the violence of exclusion amongst youth in Zimbabwe.

8.3 How the Objectives were met

8.3.1 Meeting Objective 1

The objective was to *'explore the nexus between social inequality, negative peace and polarisation in Zimbabwe and how they constitute a vector of conflict, and determine their impact on the lives of youth'.* This objective was met by the collection and analysis of quantitative data that investigated the respondents' situation, knowledge, attitudes, perceptions and beliefs on social inequality, negative peace and polarisation in Zimbabwe.

8.3.2 Meeting Objective 2

The objective was to *'identify, through action research, the training needs and social entrepreneurship opportunities within the community for youth-focused peace infrastructure(s) in the community's context of negative peace'.* This was met through discussions and the application of participatory decision-making tools that led to the identification and ranking of the training gaps and the opportunities to exploit in the study area.

8.3.3 Meeting Objective 3

The objective was to *'pilot and then evaluate the output of different solutions proposed by youth to promote their participation in political and socio-economic processes in their community and thus contribute towards sustainable positive peace in Zimbabwe'.* The action team that was set up during the study piloted a few solutions that enhanced youth participation. These included the NYI; the drug-abuse, mental-health-awareness and clean-up campaigns; as well as the attempt to generate income through waste management and the production of reusable sanitary pads. These pilots had mixed outcomes, with some succeeding and others not proceeding as planned.

8.4 Implications

8.4.1 What could have been done differently

In hindsight, there are a few things which could have been done differently during the study. The researcher could have been more prudent on the recruitment of the AT and undertaken a more thorough screening of volunteers by knowing their backgrounds and motivation for being part of the project. This would have ensured that only those who were committed to seeing transformation in the community were involved. Thorough screening would have been achieved by not working with people seconded from the politicians and gatekeepers offices. At the end of the day some of them disrupted the progress as they tried to change the research agenda to fit into the political aspirations of their handlers. The researcher could have also out rightly avoided working with politicians in the study. Politicians and

gatekeeper are a hindrance to community projects as they usually have ulterior motives to drive their own agenda and gain mileage. One way to avoid working with them is by doing projects through apolitical civic organisations operating in the research area. In this regards I could have done the research through PENYA and not try to set up and independent CBO. The researcher could have taken more control of the action part of the research and could also have selected to do the study in multiple locations so that it could be comparative. The researcher could have also selected and focused on one solution prescribed in previous empirical studies instead of allowing the AT to identify their own solutions to test. The researcher could have also avoided working with politicians in the study.

8.4.2 Limitations

The major limitations of this study were time as well as human and financial resources. The study being done for a PhD needed to be undertaken within 12 to 18 months. There were also limitations to the number of people that could be part of the study as it was not funded research. In this regard, the action team and study area were kept small. Due to the economic and political situation, mistrust and polarisation were the other limitations identified in this research study. The community was highly polarised and very suspicious of anyone collecting information in their neighbourhood. Therefore, the study had to be undertaken within limitations of who was involved in it. The AT was subdued in their approach as they feared that their work could be construed as being political or driving towards regime change. This became worse as Zimbabwe started preparing for elections in 2018 and there was a heightened monitoring of citizens by central intelligence officials. There was minimal broadcasting of the study to avoid drawing unwelcome attention to the researcher and the action team. The study was also done in one urban location of Zimbabwe and could have taken a comparative stance had it been done in multiple sites outside of Norton. Such a comparative study would have given insights on the different support levels that stakeholders can give in each locality. It would have also given an understanding of the social capital that each community brings to the table during community building projects.

Insights on how easy or difficult it is to carry out projects given the different gatekeepers and bureaucratic procedures in each location.

8.4.3 Future Research

The researcher proposes that further research be undertaken in the areas highlighted in Table 8.1 below. These proposals will also help to address some of the limitations indicated above.

Table 8.1: Future research options (Source: author).

Area/Focus	Future research
Sample	• Heterogeneous sample (mixing age groups and going beyond youth) • Multiple sites across Zimbabwe and in different contexts too (urban, rural, peri-urban or mining)
Time scale	• Longitudinal study over two to three years
Potency of SE	• Setting up a social innovation hub. • Training innovators and giving them seed capital
Addressing SV	• Promoting local solutions • Funding interventions on a large scale
Testing the model	• The framework developed in this study needs further testing to ascertain if it will achieve the indicated outcomes over a longer period and across different contexts with a larger number of participants.

8.4.4 Policy Recommendations

The researcher proposes that on the macro level, the following policy changes can be carried out:

1. Conducting NYIs across the country and thereby giving youth space to engage while promoting cross-generational collaboration.
2. Developing a civic and voter education curriculum for youth in and out of schools. The government must not wait until election time to carry out any

voter education and CSOs must be empowered to conduct civic education in the communities.

3. Promoting non-partisan or depoliticised community development by allowing citizens-led organisations to operate without interference from politicians and gatekeepers.
4. Setting up more sports and recreational facilities in the community.
5. Setting up councils to designate space for youth centres and making budget commitments to develop them. These centres are key for the psychosocial development of youth, give them access to recreational and information facilities.
6. There should be support given towards social entrepreneurship centres that train and incubate social innovators.
7. The Council should increase the reach of youth councils by recruiting youth who are school drop-outs or are not part of educational institutions and ensure that they also bring in those who are marginalised into these empowerment programs.

8.5 Conclusion

This research has measured the levels of SV within Zimbabwe and how these are impacting the livelihoods and desire for participation of young people in the country. It also identified ways in which community engagement can be supported to enhance youth participation in socio-economic development and within politics and local governance issues. This has provided several theoretical and contextual contributions. From a theoretical perspective, this research has extended the application of conflict transformation theory and social entrepreneurship into a particular form of violence. The thesis gives insights into how SV transformation can possibly be achieved within a country that is not at war but is experiencing negative peace. This thesis has provided evidence that social entrepreneurship components such as social value, social cohesion and social capital positively affect engagement and participation intentions amongst community members and empower them to provide localised solutions to their problems. The thesis has also provided evidence that youth desire to contribute towards community development

and that they yearn for platforms for their voices to be heard and their ideas put into action.

The results obtained in this research study call for further research into SE in peacebuilding settings. SE provides a potential for its exploitation across various settings in a bid to address social exclusion and provide access to services and products for marginalised citizens. This underlines the need for sound academic research which can provide and analyse empirical evidence to develop and constantly update violence and conflict transformation theory, in order to reflect the changes that communities experience as new approaches and social innovations are made available to them. Ultimately, what this research demonstrates is that approaches which have been applied in other domains can be used to bring about the positive peace that is needed in the world. SE is an example of such an approach which can be adopted from business and entrepreneurship to tackle structural violence and conflict. Social relationships contribute significantly towards the attainment of lasting peace and enhanced youth participation which is key in the provision of better opportunities for current and future younger generations.

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Appendix A: Survey Questionnaire

Youth Peacebuilding Survey 2016 Questionnaire No……

Date……. Interview results (Circle code) Complete…1 Incomplete…….2

Introduction

Hello. My name is Hillary Musarurwa. I am a PhD in Peacebuilding Studies student at the Durban University of Technology (DUT). I am currently doing a study on structural violence and how youth can peacefully work towards addressing it. This research has been approved by the DUT Institutional Research Ethics Committee. Your participation in this research is voluntary and you may choose to withdraw from the research at any time. Your responses will be anonymous as I will not ask your name. With your permission, you will be asked questions about yourself, youth empowerment and peacebuilding issues. The questions usually take about 15 to 20 minutes to answer. All the answers you give will be confidential and will not be shared with anyone. The information you will give me will be useful in helping design an action research plan for youth peacebuilding initiatives in Norton. Should you have any questions regarding the research please feel free to contact the researcher on +263772123845 or +27623710660 or hmusarurwa2@gmail.com.

Kindly circle your preferred answer.

SECTION A: Demographics			
No.	**Question**	**No.**	**Question**
101	How old were you on your last birthday? 1. 15 – 21 2. 22 – 27 3. 28 – 35 4. Above 35 5. Prefer not to answer	102	Gender 1. Male 2. Female 3. Other
103	What is your marital status? 1. Never married 2. Married/ Cohabiting 3. Divorced/separated 4. Widowed 5. Prefer not to answer	104	Your place of residence is.... 1. Rented 2. Owned by you 3. Not rented but owned by someone else
105	How many children do you have?	106	What is the highest level of education you have attained?

	1. None 2. 1 3. 2 4. 3 5. 4 6. 5 or more		1. Never been to school 2. Primary 3. 'O' Level 4. 'A' Level 5. Tertiary 6. Prefer not to answer
107	You consider your family to be 1. Very poor 2. Poor 3. Comfortable 4. Rich 5. Very rich	110	What is your occupation? 1. Maid/Cleaner 2. Beautician/Hairdresser/ Barber 3. Vendor 4. Dressmaker 5. Nanny/elderly caregiver 6. Shop Cashier 7. Waiter/waitress/Barmen 8. Security Guard 9. Artisan/ Craftsperson 10. Teacher 11. Student 12. Carpenter/Builder/Painter 13. Office Clerk/Receptionist 14. Accountant 15. Driver/Mechanic 16. Social/community worker 17. Other (specify)……. 18. Prefer not to answer
108	What is your current employment status? 1. Doing nothing (skip to 111) 2. Full-time student 3. Self employed 4. Employed (permanent worker) 5. Employed (casual/contract worker) 6. Prefer not to answer		
109	How much do you earn per month? 1. $0 2. $1-60 3. $61-150 4. $151-300 5. $301-500 6. Above $500		

111	**In your view, what is the situation of youth employment in your community? 1. Very good 2. Good 3. Neither good/bad 4. Bad 5. Very bad 6. I don't know	112	**If you are not employed, what is the reason? 1. Not interested, different priority 2. Lack of opportunity 3. Lack of information 4. Lack of skill 5. My physical impairment 6. My political affiliation 7. No relevant contacts 8. I don't know
SECTION B: Knowledge, Behaviour, Attitudes and Perceptions on Socio-Economic, Elections and Governance Processes			
No.	**Question**	**No.**	**Question**
201	**Are there opportunities to receive vocational training in your area? 1. Yes 2. No (skip to 206) 3. I don't know	202	**Have you received vocational training? 1. Yes 2. No (skip to 206)
203	Are you now employed in the area that you received your training? 1. Yes 2. No	204	Did government, any NGO or INGO organise, sponsor or support your training in any way? 1. Yes 2. No 3. I don't know
205	**What are the trainings available in your areas? (skip to 207) 1. Computers 2. Carpentry 3. Hairdressing 4. Mechanic 5. Tailor 6. Cooking 7. Bee-keeping 8. Fisheries 9. Plumber 10. Electrician 11. Electronic mechanic 12. Caregiver	206	**What is the major barrier to receiving trainings in your area? 1. Not interested, different priority 2. Lack of opportunity 3. Lack of information 4. Lack of time 5. Economic barrier 6. Inability to raise fees 7. Your physical impairment 8. Your political affiliation 9. Age 10. Gender 11. No relevant contacts

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>13. I don’t know</td><td></td><td>12. Training for the vocation of your choice is not available</td></tr>
<tr><td>207</td><td>**Because of your background and Zimbabwe’s current socio-economic situation would you be able to equally get (select the one easiest for you to do)
1. Through high school
2. Through college/university
3. Employed
4. Access a Youth Fund loan
5. I will be unable to access any of the above</td><td>208</td><td>**What are the three major socio-economic challenges faced by youth in your community?
1. Access to basic education
2. Access to tertiary education
3. Poverty
4. Drug abuse
5. Suicide
6. Unemployment
7. Access to financial services</td></tr>
<tr><td>209</td><td>**Do you own a business?
1. Yes
2. No (skip to 211)</td><td>210</td><td>**Have you received any training in business management? (skip to 215 after answering this question)
1. Yes
2. No</td></tr>
<tr><td>211</td><td>**Did you own a business that no longer exists?
1. Yes
2. No</td><td>212</td><td>Do you wish/plan to open a business in the future?
1. Yes
2. No</td></tr>
<tr><td>213</td><td>**If your once owned a business what led to its closure?
1. Change in the interest or personal priorities
2. Lack of capital
3. Lack of market
4. Lack of time
5. Lack of skill
6. Economic barrier
7. My political affiliation
8. Political unrest
9. Forced to closed
10. Age
11. Gender</td><td>214</td><td>**Why have you not opened a business so far?
1. Lack of capital
2. Lack of market
3. Lack of time
4. Lack of skill
5. Economic barrier
6. My political affiliation
7. Political unrest
8. Age
9. Gender
10. No relevant contacts</td></tr>
<tr><td>215</td><td>Youth have a role to play in community development and governance.
<table><tr><td>1 Strongly agree</td><td>2 Agree</td><td>3 Disagree</td><td>4 Strongly disagree</td><td>5 Not sure</td></tr></table></td><td>216</td><td>Youth are given equal opportunities to participate in development issues in your community.
<table><tr><td>1 Strongly agree</td><td>2 Agree</td><td>3 Disagree</td><td>4 Strongly disagree</td><td>5 Not sure</td></tr></table></td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><td>217</td><td>When youth speak/contribute in the same meetings with adults
1. They are listened to and their points accepted
2. They are ignored and nothing is done
3. They are not given a chance to speak at all</td><td>218</td><td>Adults only call upon youths when they need the young people's energy to gain political mileage?<table><tr><td>1
Strongly agree</td><td>2
Agree</td><td>3
Disagree</td><td>4
Strongly disagree</td><td>5
Not sure</td></tr></table></td></tr>
<tr><td>219</td><td>Are you a registered voter?
1. Yes
2. No</td><td>220</td><td>Do you attend or participate in community meetings?
1. Yes
2. No (skip to 222)</td></tr>
<tr><td>221</td><td>*What was your role in these meetings or fora? (Multiple answers possible if participated in more than one activity)
1. Convener/Chair
2. Participants
3. Discussants
4. Resource Person/Speaker
5. Other……</td><td>222</td><td>Reason for not participating in community meetings?
1. Lack of interest
2. Lack of information
3. Not allowed by parents
4. The meetings are meant for adults
5. Too busy looking for money</td></tr>
<tr><td>223</td><td>What are the barriers to youth participation in elections and governance processes? (select as many as applicable)
1. Lack of interest
2. Lack of information
3. Not allowed by parents
4. Adults won't give them a chance
5. Too busy looking for money</td><td>224</td><td>*Local development decision making and activities (in Norton) are becoming more participatory and youth inclusive now compared to two years ago.<table><tr><td>1
Strongly agree</td><td>2
Agree</td><td>3
Disagree</td><td>4
Strongly disagree</td><td>5
Not sure</td></tr></table></td></tr>
<tr><td>225</td><td>*What are the three 'Key Issues' of importance for you and other youth of Norton?
1. Leadership Development
2. Civic Engagement
3. Political Participation
4. Electoral Participation
5. Cooperation/Collaboration Across Different Youth Groups
6. Participation in Decision Making Processes
7. Collaboration with Adult Decision Makers/Social and Political Structures
8. Education Opportunities for Youth</td><td>226</td><td>*Youth participation in civic engagement and democratic processes can be improved through (select the main five):
1. Provision of leadership trainings
2. Freedom to participate in politics and development without restrictions.
3. Setting up youth friendly centres
4. Effective engagement in productive activities
5. Engaging youth through entertainment and community integration programs
6. Offering youth free professional counselling and information about jobs,
7. Fostering employment opportunities.</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>9. Health Care of Youth
10. Job Opportunity for youth
11. Becoming a victim of crime (housebreaking or robbery)
12. Other (…….)</td><td></td><td>8. Pro-youth policies
9. Provision of sports facilities
10. Youth awareness campaigns
11. Provision of free quality education</td></tr>
<tr><td>227</td><td>Do you feel comfortable discussing (talking) issues related to election with others?<table><tr><td></td><td>Yes</td><td>Not Always</td><td>No</td><td>Can't Say</td></tr><tr><td>Family</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td>Friends</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td>Teachers</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td>Local Leaders</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td>Others</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr></table></td><td>228</td><td>Do you feel comfortable discussing (talking) issues related to politics and decision making with others?<table><tr><td></td><td>Yes</td><td>Not Always</td><td>No</td><td>Can't Say</td></tr><tr><td>Family</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td>Friends</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td>Teachers</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td>Local Leaders</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td>Others</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr></table></td></tr>
<tr><td>229</td><td>Youth are the perpetrators of most violence in your community.<table><tr><td>1
Strongly agree</td><td>2
Agree</td><td>3
Disagree</td><td>4
Strongly disagree</td><td>5
Not sure</td></tr></table></td><td>230</td><td>Youth are not violent but those who are violent are usually paid to be so.<table><tr><td>1
Strongly agree</td><td>2
Agree</td><td>3
Disagree</td><td>4
Strongly disagree</td><td>5
Not sure</td></tr></table></td></tr>
<tr><td>231</td><td>Have you ever been involved in a protest or political violence in your community?
1. No
2. Yes, protest
3. Yes, political violence</td><td>232</td><td>**Are you involved in peacebuilding?
1. Yes
2. No</td></tr>
<tr><td>233</td><td>**How involved are youth of your area in peacebuilding at present?
1. Too involved
2. Adequately involved
3. Not very involved
4. Not involved at all
5. I don't know</td><td>234</td><td>**If you have never been involved in peacebuilding please mention your reason.
1. No time
2. Not interested
3. Lack of opportunities in the sector
4. No belief in the output
5. I don't know</td></tr>
<tr><td>235</td><td>**If you are involved in peacebuilding, please mention how
1. Social mobiliser/political leader
2. Conflict mediator and dialogue
3. Human Rights/Peace related campaign volunteer</td><td>236</td><td>Youth are forced into violence or conflict due to
1. Poverty
2. Unemployment
3. Revenge
4. Peer pressure</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>4. Help to rebuild infrastructure destroyed by conflict
5. Providing psycho-social counselling to people affected by conflict/violence
6. Participation in local media to promote peace and denounce violence
7. By never actively participating in any conflict/violence</td><td></td><td>5. Lack of direction
6. Pressure from politicians
7. Lack of hope
8. For payment or allowances provided by politicians
9. For power</td></tr>
<tr><td>237</td><td>Do you believe that you have knowledge on elections, governance, democratic processes and youth participation?
1. Yes, full range of skills;
2. Yes, on the whole;
3. Somewhat;
4. Not really
5. Not at all</td><td>238</td><td>*Do you believe that you have the skills to communicate and deal with government officials?
1. Yes, full range of skills;
2. Yes, on the whole;
3. Somewhat;
4. Not really
5. Not at all</td></tr>
<tr><td>239</td><td>Do you believe that you have the skills to deal with conflict non-violently?
1. Yes, full range of skills;
2. Yes, on the whole;
3. Somewhat;
4. Not really
5. Not at all</td><td>240</td><td>Do you believe that you have the skills to start and run your own business?
1. Yes, full range of skills;
2. Yes, on the whole;
3. Somewhat;
4. Not really
5. Not at all</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">SECTION C: Perceptions on Structural Violence</td></tr>
<tr><td>241</td><td>Would you consider the following scenarios to be structurally violent?
(Where 1 = I’m not sure if this is structural violence, 2 = This is not structural violence at all, 3 = This is a little bit structural violence, 4 = This is fairly structural violence, 5 = This is extreme structural violence)
<table>
<tr><td>Scenario</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td><td>5</td></tr>
<tr><td>The leader in your community selects youth for paid public work based on their political affiliation.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
</table></td><td>242</td><td>If faced up with the following situations how would act?
(Where 1 = Definitely not, 2 = Probably not, 3 = Probably yes, 4 = Definitely yes and 5 = Don’t know)
<table>
<tr><td></td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td><td>5</td></tr>
<tr><td>If you were a community leader would you select public workers on partisan grounds?</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Would you stop people from having open political discussions in public?</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
</table></td></tr>
</table>

A group of people verbally threaten a person for having a political discussion in public.						
Your local authorities allocate residential stands/land to people belonging to one political party.						
Water supply is disconnected from houses for failure to pay your bill.						
Government imposes a tax that affects all citizens without consulting them.						
A villager is excluded from the food assistance list because he/she is known to support a certain political party.						
A patient is turned away from hospital because they can't pay the consultation fees.						
Pupils are told to go play in the playgrounds during lessons because they have not paid school fees.						
A tertiary institution student is stopped from sitting for exams because they have not paid their tuition.						

Would you distribute land/stands on partisan grounds?						
If you were a local councillor or Mayor would you disconnect houses for not paying their water bills?						
If you were a government minister would you impose tax without consulting citizens?						
If you were a local leader would you distribute food handouts on partisan grounds?						
If you were a Medical Superintendent would you not treat patients because they can't pay for medical services?						
If you were a Headmaster would you bar children from attending class because they haven't paid their school fees?						
If you were a Principal or Vice-Chancellor would you bar students from sitting for exams due to unpaid tuition fees?						

SECTION D: Perceptions on Positive Peace Index Indicators

For the following questions kindly circle how you rate Zimbabwe on the indicated Positive Peace Index domain.
(indicators adopted from PPI 2016)

No.	Question	No.	Question
301	Well-functioning government 1. None existent	302	Free flow of information 1. None existent

	2. Poor 3. Fair 4. Good 5. Excellent		2. Poor 3. Fair 4. Good 5. Excellent
303	Sound business environment 1. None existent 2. Poor 3. Fair 4. Good 5. Excellent	304	Equitable distribution of resources 1. None existent 2. Poor 3. Fair 4. Good 5. Excellent
305	High levels of Human Capital Development 1. None existent 2. Poor 3. Fair 4. Good 5. Excellent	306	Acceptance of the rights of others 1. None existent 2. Poor 3. Fair 4. Good 5. Excellent
307	Low levels of corruption 1. None existent 2. Poor 3. Fair 4. Good 5. Excellent	308	Good relations with neighbours 1. None existent 2. Poor 3. Fair 4. Good 5. Excellent

If you would like to take part in the follow up focus group discussions kindly give your details to the researcher.

THANK YOU!!!

Appendix B: In-depth Interview Guide

Welcome and thank you for your participation today. My name is Hillary Musarurwa and I am a PhD student at Durban University of Technology conducting my study in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of DPhil in Peacebuilding. This interview will take about 60 minutes and will include 14 questions regarding your experiences and views with regards to youth empowerment and participation. I would like your permission to tape record this interview, so I may accurately document the information you convey. If at any time during the interview you wish to discontinue the use of the recorder or the interview itself, please feel free to let me know. All of your responses are confidential. Your responses will remain confidential and will be used to develop a better understanding of how you and your peers view youth empowerment and what might influence it. The purpose of this study is to increase our understanding of youth peacebuilding and to promote their well-being and participation in building sustainable peace.

At this time, I would like to remind you of your written consent to participate in this study. I am the responsible investigator, specifying your participation in the research project. You and I have both signed and dated each copy, certifying that we agree to continue this interview. You will receive one copy and I will keep the other under lock and key, separate from your reported responses. Should you have any questions regarding the research please feel free to contact the researcher on +263772123845 or +27623710660 or hmusarurwa2@gmail.com

Thank you.

Your participation in this interview is completely voluntary. If at any time you need to stop, take a break, or return a page, please let me know. You may also withdraw your participation at any time without consequence. Do you have any questions or concerns before we begin? Then with your permission we will begin the interview.

1. What is your role in the community?
2. What are the major conflicts in your community?
3. What are the drivers of conflict in your community?
4. According to your understanding, who are youth?
5. What is the role of youth in promoting or hindering community cohesion?
6. What are the challenges that youth face in your community?
7. What are the major factors contributing to these challenges?
8. Are youth given a platform to be heard in your community? If yes, please explain and cite examples. If no, why not?
9. How are youth affected by social injustice and inequality?
10. How does social injustice and inequality affect violence and peace?
11. How can equity and inclusion for youth be promoted?
12. What is your view on the role of social entrepreneurship in peace education and peacebuilding?
13. In the context of Norton, are there any key stakeholders who are most active in youth empowerment and peacebuilding?
14. Do you have any comments or recommendations?

That brings us to the end of our interview. Thank you so much for your time.

Appendix C: Focus Group Discussions Guide

Please answer the following questions in the spaces provided, circle or tick the most appropriate options.

1. Age:……

2. Are you: (please tick as necessary) □ Male □ Female

3. What is your current enrolment level?
□ School drop out
□ “O” Levels
□ “A” Levels
□ Certificate/Diploma
□ Undergraduate degree
□ Postgraduate degree

4. What is your role in the community?
□ Church Youth Leader
□ Political party youth leaders
□ NGO employee
□ Independent youth activist
□ Other: (please describe)_____

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Signature…….

Introduction:

1. Welcome

Introduction of Principal Researcher and the Research Assistant, and send the Sign-In Sheet with a few quick demographic questions (age, gender, education level, role in the community) around to the group while you are introducing the focus group.

Review the following:

- Who we are and what we're trying to do
- What will be done with this information
- Why we asked you to participate
- If you are a supervisor, we would like to excuse you at this time

2. Explanation of the process

Ask the group if anyone has participated in a focus group before. Explain that focus groups are being used more and more often in community research.

About focus groups

- I learn from you (positive and negative)
- I am not trying to achieve consensus, I am gathering information
- In this study, I am doing both questionnaires and focus group discussions. The reason for using both of these tools is that we can get more in-depth information from a smaller group of people in focus groups. This allows us to understand the context behind the answers given in the written survey and helps us explore topics in more detail than we can do in a written survey.

Logistics

- Focus group will last about one hour
- Feel free to move around
- Where is the bathroom? Exit?
- Help yourself to refreshments

3. Ground Rules

Ask the group to suggest some ground rules. After they brainstorm some, make sure the following are on the list.

- Everyone should participate.
- Information provided in the focus group must be kept confidential
- Stay with the group and please don't have side conversations
- Turn off cell phones if possible
- Have fun

4. Turn on Tape Recorder

5. Ask the group if there are any questions before we get started, and address those questions.

6. Introductions
    - Go around the circle: Use the “Name Game” for people to de-role and select a name they want to use during the focus group

Discussion begins, make sure to give people time to think before answering the questions and don’t move too quickly. Use the probes to make sure that all issues are addressed, but move on when you feel you are starting to hear repetitive information.

Questions:

1. What are the major conflicts in your community?
2. What are the drivers of conflict in your community?
3. According to your understanding, who are youth?
4. What are the challenges that youth face in your community?
5. What are the major factors contributing to these challenges?
6. Are youth given a platform to be heard in your community? If yes, please explain and cite examples. If no, why not?
7. What is the role of youth in promoting or hindering community cohesion?
8. What is your understanding of social injustice?
9. What is your understanding of inequality and poverty?
10. What is your understanding of the term “peace”?
11. What is your understanding of the term “violence”?
12. How are youth affected by social injustice and inequality?
13. How can equity and inclusion for youth be promoted?
14. How does social injustice and inequality affect violence and peace?
15. Do you think youth have a role to play in peacebuilding? If so, what? If not, why not?
16. Do you think youth have a role to play in violence? If so, what? If not, why not?’
17. What pushes youth into violence?
18. Have you experienced any form of violence in your community? If, yes elaborate.
19. What are the barriers to youth participation in civic engagement and peacebuilding processes?
20. What activities could youth use in peacebuilding programs?
21. Do you have any comments or recommendations?

That concludes our focus group. Thank you so much for coming and sharing your thoughts and opinions with us. We have a short evaluation form that we would like you to fill out if you have time. If you have additional information that you did not get to say in the focus group, please feel free to write it on this evaluation form.