ENTREPRENEURSHIP AS A CONFLICT TRANSFORMATION TOOL FOR YOUTH IN BINDURA URBAN OF ZIMBABWE

BY

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved children and my wife. I have learned and continue to learn the true meaning of unconditional love from you every day. It was not until conducting this study that I realised that your love for me knows no boundaries and for that I am forever grateful. I would also like to dedicate this dissertation to my co-workers at Pednor Primary School; I hope I have made you proud. Your love and spiritual guidance throughout my life has taught me that with God, all things are possible.
Abstract

Youth entrepreneurship is generally viewed as the antidote to the socio-economic crisis in developing countries. This study examined the impact of youth entrepreneurship as conflict transformation being a survey of Bindura youth for the period 2017 to 2019. The study utilised a mixed methods approach and a case study research design. A sample size of fifty three 53 comprising of fifty (50) youth entrepreneurs engaged in vending, carpentry, welding, and mining and farming and three (3) key informants was randomly and purposively sampled from a population of 250 youth entrepreneurs. Surveys, key informant interviews and focus group discussions were used to collect data. Themes, tables and charts were used to present data while content analysis was used to analyse the data. Among the key findings of the study were that youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban faces a plethora of challenges that weaken its capacity for conflict transformation such as a lack of start-up finance; that response to the challenges besetting youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban has not effectively mitigated those challenges; and that there are several strategies that may be implemented to boost youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban. Among those strategies is the provision of start-up finance. Among the recommendations proffered by the study are that more private and public lending facilities be availed to youth to enable them to invest in their business ventures; that the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development addresses macroeconomic conditions such as inflation that hinder youth entrepreneurship; and that youth entrepreneurship be streamlined into the discourse for national healing and reconciliation.
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The role of youths in socio-economic and political transformation and development has in the 21st century gained prominence and much recognition as evidenced by Agenda 2063 and the Sustainable Development Goals particularly SDG 8. Accordingly peace practitioners have also begun to pay more attention to the role that youth empowerment, advocacy and mediation can have on social transformation. In particular, youth entrepreneurship, especially in economies characterised by high unemployment and socio-economic deprivation has gained attention as a potentially beneficial strategy in conflict transformation. According to Smith (2012), globally, societal conflict is multi-faceted but often revolves around deprivation and oppression. Mitchel (2002) suggests that there is tension between governments and disgruntled youth who view the government as failing them by not providing adequate opportunities in terms of jobs, education, health services and political participation. Smith (2012) is of the view that this consternation by the youth affects a harmonious existence at every level and across society. Families where unemployment and deprivation exist lack harmony while deprivation has a disproportional effect along gender lines, disability, age and race. However, youth entrepreneurship has the capacity to fill gaps that are established by failing government policies and economies by providing an alternative income that youth are denied in the mainstream job market.

Sub-Saharan Africa, partly because of its proximity to the North African countries that were part of the Arab springs of 2011 and because of a host of other simmering internal factors has been thought of as near boiling point regarding youth related conflict and uprising. The AU summit in Guinea in 2011 identified high levels of unemployment and severely limited economic opportunities as the driving factors that make youth related conflict an insidious cancer in African society that may eventually boil over into open
and armed violence. The World Bank (WB 2013) reports that in Africa that fastest growing population is the age group between 15 years and 24 years which comprises of approximately two hundred million people (200,000,000), that is, over twenty percent (20%) of the entire population. While the WB (2013) also states that the youths in Africa make up nearly forty per cent (40%) of the working population, they also reports that well over sixty percent (60%) of the youths are unemployment around the continent. AU (2011) reports that while the youth in Africa like the rest of the world are potential drivers of economic development and socio-political transformation, in Africa, mostly due to government failure, the youths remain redundant, out of work, underutilized and poor. The United Nations (UN 2010) posits that an unemployed and deprived youthful population tends to be a political stability and economic risk and liability as they have a propensity for deviance, crime, insurgence and environmental decay and waste. The UN (2010) notes that youth related challenges in Africa are set to grow as the youthful population is estimated to increase by well over two hundred percent (200%) and by eight hundred million (800,000,000) to approximately 1.2 billion at the end of 2010. The AU (2011) estimates that in the coming several decades Africa will be overrun by educated by marginalized and frustrated youths that may seek violent means to recognition and empowerment.

Sommers (2015) suggests that African governments are tasked with the enormous yet imperative endeavour of creating employment for all the unemployed youths and opening up opportunities for prosperity and economic success. According to the AU (2018), the continent has progressively and historically set goals aimed at increasing youth participation in business and access to employment and economic opportunities. Among these is agenda 2063 which aims at increasing youth employment on the continent by at least two percent (2%) each year. The continent has also embraced other treaties, conventions and development paradigms and blueprints such as the sustainable developments goals (SDGs) that aim to elevating the quality of life for youth and insuring that they have access to decent work and decent income. According to AU (2011), promoting entrepreneurship through the establishment of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) frameworks and facilities has been one of the ways in which entrepreneurial education has been attempted to be engendered in youths of
different countries around the continent to varying success. Fuller and Goldstone (2013) argue that to date policy reform and action targeted at youth entrepreneurship developed has largely been unsupported by robust institutions and structures on the African continent. Fuller and Goldstone (2011) posit that as a result youth bulges have tended to inspire conflict among African youths and other social groups and economic classes and state institutions. Collier and Hoffler (2007) found that large populations of age groups between 15 years and 29 years are usually synonymous with a between 4.7% to 31.9% increases in conflict. However Collier and Hoffler (2007) acknowledge that economic theories however fail to adequately account for the correlation between population and conflict among youths in Africa.

According to Smith (2012), mainstream economic theories do not adequately account for all factors that influence economic development as they often side-swipe the effect that entrepreneurship and innovation have on economic development and wellbeing. Shumpeter (1934) opines that entrepreneurship, particularly targeted at and driven by the youth is just as important a factor in socio-economic development as infrastructure, productivity, raw materials, property rights, education and health as entrepreneurship has the capacity to add to and facilitate all these other factors. According to AU (2011) African governments have been in the past unable to recognise, acknowledge and mainstream entrepreneurship as a driver of socio-economic development and conflict transformation. Sacramento (2013) argues that despite the ability of youth entrepreneurship to address the many challenges and needs deprivation facing youths, more than half of the youthful population in Africa remains unemployed, poor, disempowered, excluded and unable to generate income.

In Zimbabwe, the existence of a youth bulge which is a possible cause of violent conflicts witnessed in the society where the youths are the major culprits especially since the late 1990s when Zimbabwe plunged into an economic turmoil. Youth unemployment has led to competition for survival by the youth in an effort to outwit each other, youths fight in order to eliminate each other as in violence that pits opposing political parties. Youth have become agents of political violence as they are vulnerable to petty financial benefits used as bait to lure them into engaging in political violence with opponents of different political opinions. It is the realisation that youth have become increasingly frustrated and
to an extent rebellious that the Government of Zimbabwe, in its economic blueprint, Vision 2030 seeks to provide financial, technical and technological resources to the youth to enable them to become self-sufficient income earners which would significantly mitigate the youth oriented societal conflict ion Zimbabwe. It is therefore against this background that the research seeks to understand the role of entrepreneurship in youth development and conflict transformation.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The study sought to investigate the possibility of entrepreneurship being utilised as a conflict transformation tool among the youths of Bindura urban. Often the youth are marginalized and excluded from entrepreneurship opportunities that could extricate them from unemployment and poverty at the same time mitigating civil strife and dissent between state and citizenry. Entrepreneurship has not proven to be an effective tool for youth development and conflict transformation. According to the World Bank (2011), a large portion of people age 15–24 in Sub-Saharan Africa are involved in self-employment in the informal and agricultural sectors. Most youth are still living under abject poverty and surviving under less than a dollar per day. Youth are not equipped with livelihood skills and have not absolutely taken over the informal sector. Youth are not empowered, lack training, education, skills and the capital to become entrepreneurs hence talking about entrepreneurship, conflict transformation and youth development is null and void. The economic crisis in Zimbabwe is even worsening the situation for youth thereby hampering their development.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The study sought to explore entrepreneurship as a tool for conflict transformation and youth development in Bindura Urban (2017-2019).

1.4 Research Objectives

1. To explore the nature and extent of economic challenges facing the youths in Bindura.

2. To examine youth entrepreneurship responses to the challenges.
3. To evaluate the effectiveness of measures put in place to curb economic challenges facing the youth in Bindura.

1.5 Research Questions

1) What is the nature and extent of economic challenges facing the youths in Bindura?
2) What are the entrepreneurship responses to the challenges faced by youth in Bindura?
3) How effective are the measures put in place to curb economic challenges facing the youth in Bindura?

1.6 Significance of Study

The results of the research would assist in policy formulation issues. The research would identify areas of focus for recommendations and corrective measures to improve the roles and duties of the Ministry of Youth with regards to youth development, entrepreneurship and conflict transformation. The government would make use of the findings and recommendations for future policy making, reviewing and amendments.

The youth also stood to benefit from the study. It was important that the youth get to understand entrepreneurship, articulate and be able to come up with their own solutions to their own problems. The research would provide key lessons on the do’s and don’ts to young entrepreneurs. It would also suggest other important measures to consider when engaging in the informal sector and how to empower oneself.

Academics would make use of the research in deepening their analysis on youth development and conflict transformation. They would also use this research to further develop their researches and appreciation of youth entrepreneurship and conflict transformation. This would also help in shaping development policy by government for vocational training centres to be enlightened on how to improve their livelihood skills so as to contribute immensely to youth development and conflict transformation.


1.7 Assumptions

The study assumes that:

- There exists youth policy that addresses youth entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe.
- Youth entrepreneurship has an impact on societal conflict.
- The youth are change agents in conflict transformation.

1.8 Delimitations of the Study

Geographically the study was confined to Bindura Town’s Central Business District. Bindura Town is located in the Mashonaland Central Province of Zimbabwe and is approximately 80 KM north east of the capital city Harare. In its methodology the study was confined to 53 participants and a mixed methods approach. Conceptually the study was confined to youth entrepreneurship and conflict transformation theories.

1.10 Limitations of the Study

The study was confined to Bindura Urban Youth whose experiences in entrepreneurship and conflict transformation may be significantly different from other urban youths in other parts of Zimbabwe and therefore the study findings may not be generalised to all urban youth of Zimbabwe. However most the underlying factors affecting youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban result from the macro-economic conditions affecting all of Zimbabwe therefore in that regard the study findings are applicable to other urban youth in the country. Youth entrepreneurship is only a small niche of youth related issues that may determine the nature of conflict and its transformation and therefore the study may have failed to provide a holistic analysis of youth related conflict. The study was however cognisant of the fact that youth related issues are intertwined and many of them feed into youth entrepreneurship therefore the study cast a wide net and lens in its analysis of related themes.
1.11 Definition of Key Terms

**Entrepreneurship** is an activity that involves the exploration of new opportunities to provide goods and services in ways that have not been previously sought as a way of yielding financial gains.

**Youth** can be referred to as the time of life when one is young. In this study, the term refers to young people aged from 15 to 30 or 35 years of age.

**Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)** are non-subsidiary, independent firms which employ less than 50 employees.

**Conflict transformation**: This is about transforming the way society deals with conflict by moving from violent to non–violent means which seek to address the root causes.

1.12 Outline of Chapters

The research consists of five chapters.

**Chapter one** contains the general introduction of what is to be found in the chapter. These include the background of the study where the research problem is highlighted and why the research is important. This is followed by the statement of the problem, the objectives of the study, delimitations and limitations of the study. Ethical considerations where participants are given consent of the nature of the study are also included followed by definitions and the proposed time frame of the study.

**Chapter Two** is literature review which is critical analysis of what other researchers have said on the topic and where the research topic fits in the research gaps, are clearly discussed. Theoretical framework is also part of this chapter. Principal theories upon which the research project was constructed are clearly explained in this chapter.

**Chapter Three** contains research design and methodology where the basic research plan is described. The research approach procedures to collect data which include the techniques, methods, instrument for measurement and administration of instruments are discussed in this chapter. It also looks at how the collected data is to be analysed.
Chapter Four presents Data analysis results and discussions of findings. It describes the research findings and goes on to interpret the main findings of the study based on the stated objectives.

Chapter Five is the summary of the major findings, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework that guided the study. The chapter also discusses key concepts in the research subject. The chapter then reviews literature related to the study in which research gaps the study sought to close are identified. The chapter discusses John Paul Lederach’s theory of conflict transformation; Kumar Rupesinghe’s Approach on conflict transformation; Youth Bulge Theory; Frustration/Aggression Theory Youth; Youth entrepreneurship; Conflict; Conflict resolution; Conflict transformation; Significance of youth entrepreneurship; Challenges of youth entrepreneurship; Economic challenges; Socio-cultural challenges; Dimensions to youth entrepreneurship; Political challenges; Policy framework issues; Industry support plus patronage; Education system and orientation; Finance plus business support; Entrepreneurial Responses; Youth mining Cooperatives; Youth in SMEs; Effectiveness of youth entrepreneurship responses; and ways of making youth entrepreneurship viable.

2.2 Theoretical framework

There are theoretical frameworks that influence this study which are John Paul Lederach’s Theory of Conflict Transformation, Kumar Rupesinghe’s Approach to Conflict Transformation, ‘Youth Bulge Theory’ and the Frustration Aggression Theory.

2.2.1 John Paul Lederach’s Theory of Conflict Transformation

John Paul Lederach suggested a holistic approach to conflict transformation. Lederach (1976) posits that conflict transformation is a comprehensive process that requires the establishment, over time, of peaceful relations structured by education, advocacy and mediation. According to Lederach (1976) conflict transformation is reformist and should be crosscutting not limited to social change but also to incorporate economic, political and cultural change. According to Lederach (1991) conflict transformation follows 7 factors namely: to envision and respond to conflict; acknowledging the ebb and flow of
conflict; recognizing life giving opportunities in conflict; determining a constructive change process; reducing violence and increasing justice; fostering direct interaction and social structure; and strengthening human relationships. In Lederach (1976)’s holistic approach to conflict transformation, he suggested that the process should be anchored by such principles as justice, liberty, freedom, recognition of diversity, identity and democracy. According to Lederach (1976), unlike with conflict resolution, conflict transformation does not seek restoration of the status quo but rather a new and better end state that is sustainable to peace and should be self-regulating of conflict. Lederach (1976)’s holistic approach suggests that conflict transformation driven by youth entrepreneurship should have a pictorial, multi-dimensional view and approach to the plight of youths and be intended to address all facets of their livelihood rather than just income generation. Applying Lederach (1976)’s approach would mean that public and private institutions should provide education, training and advocacy for youth prominence, visibility and endowment. The conflict transformation capacity of youth entrepreneurship is therefore not only facilitated by a provision of funding but also the establishment of policy recognizing the rights and freedoms of youth for self-determination and prosperity. Protection laws from unfair competition and exclusion are also necessary to insure enabling spaces and room to operate. Lederach (1976) also stressed sustainability of the conflict transformation process to the extent that society does not restore or revert back to the status quo but continuously build towards a better end state and sustainable peaceful relations. In youth entrepreneurship this can be facilitated by institutional and physical infrastructure development and the protection of property rights to insure that the gains made by the youth are sustained while at the same time creating space and an environment where future generations can also prosper.

2.2.2 Kumar Rupesinghe’s Approach to Conflict Transformation

Rupesinghe (1991) suggested that conflict transformation requires three main stages, that is, defining the conflict; determining alternatives to the conflict issues; and devising mechanisms to forestall sustainable peace. According to Rupesinghe (1991), conflict transformation must therefore be anchored by constitutionalism and law; political negotiation; and development. Rupesinghe (1991) like Lederach (2005) suggested that conflict transformation requires an integrated process for both short term and long term
goals and outcomes. Rupesinghe (1987) differs slightly from Lederach (2005) by suggesting that conflict transformation relies on the political will of leaders rather than grassroots change agents. However similar to Lederach (2005), Rupesinghe (1987) suggests that conflict transformation should be characterized by a change in attitudes, institutions and mechanisms. Applying Rupesinghe (1987)’s approach to youth entrepreneurship would entail that political leaders make deliberate strides to reform the regulatory and policy framework to create a conducive environment for the youth to access the resource required for them to prosper. Laws have to be aligned towards freedoms and civil liberties that make it possible for the youth to participate in matters that affect them and liberalizing the economy to boost entrepreneurship would be one of the ways to achieve this. Rupesinghe (1987) stresses the change of attitudes and this would involve deconstructing the tradition of exclusion that often affect the youth. Like with Lederach (2005) application of Rupesinghe (1987)’s approach would also entail the establishment of institutional and physical infrastructure to facilitate sustainability of youth entrepreneurship. Unlike with Lederach 92005), Rupesnghe (1987) suggests that conflict transformation is regulated and facilitated by laws and structures rather than human relationships as laws and structures are more stable, consistent and enduring than human emotion, loyalty and wisdom.

2.2.3 Youth Bulge Theory

The first theory that influences this research is the ‘Youth Bulge Theory’ which is the bedrock of youth restlessness, if it is not used to advantage. This is a situation in a country where there is a high proportion of children, a rapid rate of population growth and a low proportion of older people, according to Heinsohn and Fuller (2015). They argue that an excess in especially large youths cohorts or young adults males to be particular, predictably it can lead to opin armed conflict, social and civilian unrest, political uprising and terrorist activity as subsequent generations that find they lack prestigious status in current societies seek to establish their prominence through a violent competition influenced by religious and political ideology.

Hendrickson (2015) suggests that the youth bulge theory is based on the view of youths as a naturally volatile, passionate and impressionable group that is also continuously
growing in number. The theory therefore suggests that the amount of youth is proportional to the likelihood of violence and conflict. In other words, Hendrickson 2015 suggests that according to the theory the more the youths there are the higher the possibility of an occurrence of violence and conflict. The theory suggests that 20% is often the optimal number of youths society should maintain as going above it would destabilize the society and likely thrust it into crisis, violence and conflict.

2.2.4 Frustration/ aggression theory

John Dollard, Leornard Doob and Robert Sears propounded the frustration aggression model in 1939 and it was eventually further developed by Neal Miller in 1941 and Leonard Berkowit in 1969. According to the theory the youth as a vulnerable group in society usually tend to be aggressive when they do not get employment or access to entrepreneurship for their up keep. Friedman (2014) posits that the theory explains conflict as resulting from impediments suffered in the pursuit of goals and aspirations therefore the aggrieved party becomes frustrated and aggressive. The aggression may manifest in violence of different forms. According to Friedman 2014, at first the theory treated the progression from frustration to aggression as linear and straight forward, that is, aggression always follows frustration while frustration always precedes aggression. However, eventually, Millers and Sears found that this like is not only cyclical but iterative as well aggression may lead to frustration. Furthermore while frustration may not always lead to aggression, there often is no aggression without frustration. Mary (2017) posits that as applied in this study, it would imply that youth frustration was imminent in developing countries emanating from lack of or slow economic growth which was reducing socio-economic opportunities for the youth. There was therefore need to address the situation by a variety of measures which included youth entrepreneurship.

2.3 Youth

Literature provides that the classification and definition of youth tends to vary from place to place. According to UNOWA (2005), the UN puts the youth population at ages between 15 years and 24 years. The AU (2006) however puts the age of youths at
between the ages of 15 and 35. Locally, as stipulated by the Zimbabwe Youth Policy (2002), the government of Zimbabwe pegs the youth age group as individuals between the ages of 15 years and 35 years, the same as the AU. This study, since it is being conducted in and related to youth in Zimbabwe and Africa considers youths to be people between the ages of 15 years and 35 years. However reference was also made to other youths defined differently across the world. Riani (2010) suggests that youth entrepreneurship initiatives, policies and programmes must be tailored according to the specific needs, capabilities and environment of the key stakeholders, that is, the youths themselves. Chigunta (2010) identifies three periods of transition and intervention related to age phases of youths. The first of these is what is termed as the greenest, where the youth are at their youngest, specifically, ages between 15 years and 19 years. At this stage the youths are high on ambition and entrepreneurial spirit but short on knowledge, experience and entrepreneurial wisdom. Therefore Chigunta (2010) suggests that intervention and initiatives must be targeted at equipping the youths with knowledge and awareness of such aspects as social enterprise, technological and infrastructural resources and market trends. At this stage youths are molded in to people that view entrepreneurship as serious career paths and not just side projects.

The next stage is that of budding entrepreneurs at which the youths are between the ages of 20 years and 24 years. The youths are generally expected to have gained minimal knowledge, some capital and determination to enter into entrepreneurship. At this stage, depending on the legal, financial and resource environment most of the youths lack adequate means to thrive in their business ventures. This is the stage at which the youths learn the ropes, hustle and bustle of the business world, take risks, make mistakes and most often suffer economic and other shocks. Riani (2010) suggests that often the youths may become stuck on marginal activities, may experience a fold in business while a few may succeed. Most interventions at this stage involve linking start-ups to established businesses, training and opening up financial resources as support structures.

The last category is that of what would be considered as a made entrepreneur. This is the prime stage where the youths are typically above the age of 24 years and will have gained decent experience, education and resources. At this stage of the transition, the youths
would have cut for themselves a niche on the entrepreneurial stage by having a stake in resources, finances, clientele, assets and markets. Chigunta et al (2005) posits that at this stage the intervention is that which seeks to sustain and grow the businesses of the youths.

2.4 **Youth Entrepreneurship**

While youth entrepreneurship may be defined in seemingly different ways in available literature, a common thread in all the existing definitions is prominent. That is, the assertion that business and age are the key pillars of what youth entrepreneurship entails. Most definitions simply point to the income generating activities engaged in by individuals that fit a certain definition of youth as youth entrepreneurship. However according to Weeks (1992) youth entrepreneurship may also refer to the sector rather than activity in which the youth are engaged in to earn an income. Chigunta et al (2005) defines it as “the practical application of enterprising qualities, such as initiative, innovation, creativity, and risk-taking into the work, either in self-employment or employment in small start-up firms, using the appropriate skills necessary for success in that environment and culture.”

The Zimbabwe Youth Policy identifies youth entrepreneurs as those people between the ages of 15 years and 35 years that engage in economic activity of their own to raise income. Youth entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe is often engaged in by mostly college graduates that have not been able to gain employment due to the high unemployment rate obtaining in Zimbabwe.

2.5 **Conflict**

Conflict is defined in many ways in both empirical and theoretical literature. However all these definitions appear to be held together by a common assertion. This is the realization that in all conflict there is the aspect of competing goals and interests. Best (2006) suggests that conflict is characterized by competing values, power struggles, claims to status, resource scarcity and deprivation of needs in which competitors act in ways intended to gain an advantage, mutilate rivals or appropriate resources. According to
Naoli (1998) societal conflict tends to have a political dimension in which leaders expresses promises that they are unable to eventually fulfill. Naoli (1998) suggests that the disparity between promises and outcomes is often expressed as deprivation and causes discontent, dissent and enmity between citizen and state. Best 2006 posits that conflict tends to have trajectory of an upward spiral, getting worse and worse especially when not resolved or addressed in time. Best 2006 also opines that conflict tends to have a multi-dimensional form, namely, political, religious, economic and social and its nature is often molded by how unmet needs are communicated.

Sometimes conflict is a matter of perception. Scramento (2013) posits that “conflict is perceived as a sense or perception, whether real or imagined, by one entity/person that his/her primary self-interests are being threatened by another entity”. Uwazie et al (2008) posits that since “conflict is inevitable in any social interactions or human relations it must not be avoided or ignored”. Sacramento (2013) opines that the difficulty is met in the control, the resolution and the management of the conflict. Uwazie et al (2008) notes however that “while prevention of conflicts may seem desirable it is not possible at all times.”. According to Sacramento (2013) and Uwazie et al (2008) some conflict results in positive outcomes that equip the parties with valuable lessons that eventually utilised in conflict transformation while most conflict has negative results that sometimes includes loss of life, property, status, deprivation and displacement. Uwazie et al (2008) suggests that often conflict rises to extreme consequences when ignored or avoided while it insidiously grows until it is visible and destructive. Determining an effective way to manage or resolve conflict is therefore vital and is a task that befalls all societies’ and communities.

2.6 Conflict resolution

According to Patterson et al (2002) conflict resolution is critical conversation that involves tough issues intended to mitigate between warring parties so as to pacify the conflict and rising tensions. Burton (1990) suggests therefore that resolution is finding a solution to a conflict which ideally is lasting and sustainable. Often well designed conflict resolution strategies that involve experienced and neutral negotiators and mediators often lead to a more comprehensive and lasting conflict resolution. Kahane (2005) argues that
at individual, family, organisation, community and society wide level conflict resolution is utilised to resolve conflict that provides solutions to existing problems. According to Maritburg (1994) conflict resolution is more concerned with a peaceful outcome and while the process is important it is not as important as the end goal. Miller 2003 suggests that conflict resolution seeks to achieve amicable and peaceful resolutions to conflict through the infusion of constructive and inclusive ideals.

Uwazie et al (2008) suggests that conflict resolution is a temperate process that involves dialogue and negotiation so as to help warring parties to find common ground for enduring peace. Usmot (1987) posits that when approaching conflict resolution a decision is made on whether to avoid or tackle the conflict head on. Umstot (1987) opines that negotiators and mediators to conflict often devise creative ways to navigate contentious and sensitive issues so as not to offend any party or appear partial. Conflict resolution often involves setting up of temporary structures for mediation and intervention of current conflict. In Zimbabwe, like with the rest of Africa conflict and crisis has continued to be borne out of socio-economic deprivation and political repression and exclusion. Aina (2003) argues that conflict resolution is often needed to pacify, respond to and address the competing interests between basic needs and income, education and available jobs, aspirations and resources and social as well as political disparities. Aina (2003) posits that often on the African continent conflict resolution manifests in dialogue to end mass protests, industrial action, armed insurgencies, electoral irregularities and ineffective service provision. Aina (2003) notes that often tripartite negotiation forums, peace summits, truth and reconciliation commissions, commissions of inquiry and political Indabas are often vehicles utilised in conflict resolution. However some scholars and policy makers have argued against the limits of conflict resolution, preferring instead conflict transformation. Conflict transformation as a concept and practice has emerged as a strategy that aims at comprehensive and sustainable peace not just by dialoguing to end current conflict by creating structures that are self-regulating and able to constantly address conflict across all sectors and levels of society from grassroots to the top.
2.7 Conflict Transformation

Literature provides that conflict transformation emerged as a step above other approaches to conflict such as conflict resolution. Weeks (1992) suggests that unlike conflict resolution which implies mitigating or ending conflict, returning to the status quo and pacifying tensions, conflict transformation acknowledges the inevitability of conflict. Therefore rather than just mediate conflict away, conflict transformation seeks to reforms structures, institutions, human relationships to a point where the conflict is both minimal and self-regulating because of the reformed structures and relationships in society. In a way, scholars such as Lederach (2005) suggest that conflict can be utilised creatively to instigate change that makes societies stronger, more constructive and functional. Aar (1990) suggests that conflict transformation identifies social asymmetries’ such as gender discrimination, youth oppression, economic deprivation and political exclusion that often influence and manifest both injustice and violence. Bloomfield (2006) suggests that unlike other approaches to conflict such as conflict resolution that are more concerned with outcome, conflict transformation emphasizes the process, reform and outcome ads a continuum. Therefore conflict transformation mobilizes and reinforces internal resources for peace building that seek to transform human relationships, perceptions and attitudes and stimulate institutional and infrastructure development for sustainability of the change process. According to Mitchel (2002), conflict transformation involves multi-stage intervention where the roots of the conflict are addressed by targeting such tools deployed in conflict as communication skills, perceptions, resources, channels for continued dialogue. It focuses on the personal drivers and social structures which underlie violence, rather than simply the immediate and usually political manifestations of conflict.

Lederach (1995) in his description of conflict transformation focuses more on comprehensive social change as the building of right relationships and social structures through a radical respect for human rights, and nonviolence as a way of life. Bush and Fogler (1994) however offer a slightly different view as theirs is a more interpersonal approach that seeks to emphasize individual change, reform and transformation where inclusion and empowerment are the main tools for the change and peace process.
Rupesinghe (1987) suggests that conflict transformation targets the entities of society that are capable of being utilised to manage and mitigate conflict progressively and consistently. For example education is considered a necessity if society is going to rise to a level of better awareness, understanding and moral conviction with regards to human relationships, resource use and control and democratic ethos. Reform not just the educational structures but curriculum would be an example of how to comprehensively induce self-regulating conflict transformation in a society and insure that the utilitarian precepts of mutual respect and inclusion are retained. Lederach (2005) argues that reforming institutions, relations and values insures that peace building values are self-contained in the functionality of society. Conflict transformation endeavors to engender such peace approaches as constitutionalism, tolerance, equality, rights and freedoms, access to basic goods and services, property rights and self-determination among other values that perpetuate a peaceful atmosphere.

2.8 Role and benefits of entrepreneurship in Economic Development

According to OECD (2001), youth entrepreneurship brings with it an array of benefits to economic development that include job creation, efficient provision of goods and services, raised incomes, increased access to social services, deepening completion to effect higher quality and standardization of goods and services at affordable costs. Furthermore, youth entrepreneurship promotes innovation, adds value to local knowledge and value systems, strengths key institutions such as education, health, trade and industry, mining, agriculture, local government and transport systems. OECD (2001) reports that in developed countries the majority of youths prefer self-employment because their institutions, environment and resources allow it.

OECD (2001) suggests as well that going forward as resources become scarce and formal enterprises become more global, self-employment and entrepreneurship will become even more significant than they are today. OECD (2001) argues that private enterprises are less constrained by geographical boundaries, local laws and regulations giving them the kind of independence and flexibility to navigate current challenges to economies such as climate change, extremist terrorism, regional cluster constraints and technological
limitations. OECD (2001) suggests that youth entrepreneurship enables a frustrated youth to look beyond their current circumstances and boundaries and explore opportunities globally and utilise both internal and external resources to earn an income, provide goods and services and foster development.

2.9 Challenges facing the youth in entrepreneurship

2.9.1 Economic challenges

The African youth of this millennium have experienced the full weight of economic hardships as they try to start their adult lives. The challenges facing young adults also reflect the failure of public policy to address the changing realities of building a life in the 21st century. As the new academic graduates and young workers are trying to get into higher classes of society as middle income earners they are often faced with crippling challenges that derive from the failure of economies to open up financial opportunities, provide resources and training for income generation (Draut 2016).

Draut (2006) notes as well that an enormous amount of the youth population in self-employment across Sub-Saharan Africa have been condemned to the informal sector that has been characterized as vulnerable employment which provides neither decent work nor decent income. In this sector the youths are exposed to many economic shocks, limited resources, extreme competition, a lack of regulatory protection and minimal income. Kenneth (2015) opines that this type of informal arrangement has become a gateway to curb economic hardships but however it further jeopardizes the economy and the youths do not have access to capital.

Kenneth (2015) argues as well that an array of factors contribute to the demise of youth entrepreneurship within developing countries. Kenneth (2015) suggests that start-up slack initial capital and financial support, the regulatory framework is often not robust enough to protect the budding SMEs, limited training and skills and a lack of access to some markets also contribute. The WB (2013) reports that over 29% of SMEs in Southern Africa often lack access to financial support, credit lines and favourable interest rates.
According to the WB (2013) economic shocks such as rapid inflation coupled with a non-skilled workforce also converge to harm the entrepreneurship endeavors of youths.

Li (1998) and Aghion et al (2007) also support the findings of the WB (2013) suggesting as well that a key factor in the depressed performance of SMEs in developing countries has been and continues to be limited access to finances and financial services. Brixiova et al (2009) opine that most youthful ventures in developing countries also only have access to non-skilled workers whom they can afford to remunerate therefore often suffer with competency challenges. Schoof (2006) is of the view that there exists a large gap and disparity between youth entrepreneurship and adult entrepreneurship in Africa that is manifest of a lack of respect and opportunities as well as support for youth entrepreneurs. Schoof (2006) opines that there lacks enough programmes, policies and initiatives that are primarily intended to boost and elevate youth entrepreneurship.

According to the OECD (2001), the challenges that confront youth entrepreneurs are not just related to their being novices in the industry such as limited personal savings for investment, limited skills and education and limited customer base but are mostly derived from institutional and financial gaps in the economies of developing countries that do not offer much opportunities to the youth. According to OECD (2001), the youth have limited resources, limited access to work space, less extensive network of contacts, and reliance on simple tools or no equipment at all. These extra challenges faced by youth entrepreneurs should form the basis and design of youth entrepreneurship and talent development programs (OECD, 2001).

Schoof (2006) identified five (5) major challenges confronting youth entrepreneurs and these fall into the following broad categories; limited finances and financial support; socio-cultural precepts and norms; policy and regulatory framework; the nature of business support in the environment and institutional and physical infrastructure. Llisterri et al (2016) asserts as well that inexperience and limited skills also affect the sustainability and success of the youth enterprises. The same general difficulties and prohibitory challenges have affected youth entrepreneurs in Zimbabwean who are afflicted with severely limited financial services and support, limited material resources, limited access to markets which are often times volatile and suffer economic shocks.
regularly. Furthermore the youths are afflicted by an environment that suffers inflation and cash shortages. Kureya (2018) argues as well that Zimbabwean youth entrepreneurs are exposed to poor institutional and physical infrastructure and those in periphery towns are closed off from the rest of the world as they have very limited access to information, social services, electricity and technology.

Finscope (2015) data on Zimbabwe indicates that the nearer the location to the major centres, the greater the financial inclusion and vice versa. Though the market is much more stable youth entrepreneurs also have to deal with other matters that emerged during the hyperinflationary period: a culture of senseless profiteering, poor service standards along the supply chain, rent seeking behaviour/corruption in some registration offices, and competition with established monopolistic or deep pocketed local and foreign players. All this is in a business environment that regards youthfulness with suspicion, as many are still finding their feet since entrance into the multi-currency regime. Last but not least, they are attempting to build sound business in an economy with a liquidity crunch and political uncertainty. There is a clear need to capacitate youth entrepreneurs to conduct normal business; through training.

2.9.2 Socio-cultural Factors that Inhibit Youth Entrepreneurship

According to Schoof (2006) socio-cultural imperatives especially in caste systems tend to prohibit youth entrepreneurship in a number of ways. For instance in most African families particularly those that are poor and struggling to make ends meet expect a child or adolescent that they send to school and educate, often with great difficulty and little financial resource, to seek gainful employment and help the family financially. As such most families look down on endeavors to establish private enterprises and be self-employed as this often takes time and usurps many family resources, especially in poorly performing economies of Sub-Saharan Africa. Often the inability to secure employment in formal public and private organisations often Causes enmity between the youths and guardians who would have expected the child to give back to the family and look after younger siblings.

Schoof (2006) found as well that a reversed sense of ageism is also institutionalized in some societies were the treatment of youths is significantly different to that afforded the
older population. Schoof (2006) notes that sometimes youths fail to secure meetings with potential investors, strategic partners and credit providers because as young people they are not taken seriously and are looked down upon. Sacramento (2013) also found that at times the youthful flare intends to delve into markets that the older population does not fully understand and therefore do not support them. For instance, Sacramento (2013) notes that a large number of young entrepreneurs in the IT industry in Africa are making their way to foreign markets such as Silicon Valley as they their home countries do not have the respects, value, markets and resources to support and sustain their business of interest.

2.9.3 Dimensions of youth Entrepreneurship

According to Sacramento (2013) youth entrepreneurship in many African societies has similar and common dimensions Characterised by family and community support, social capital, technological acumen, diverse educational backgrounds and activism. Furthermore youth entrepreneurship is also characterized by a diversity of the trade that occurs, for instance, vending (small scale and mostly informal private provision of goods and services), repairs, hairdressing, manufacturing, agriculture, mining, technology, transport and energy. Sacramento (2013) posits that most youth entrepreneurship, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa is heavily reliant on and deeply rooted in family and community support for resources and capital. Youth often do not have much in the way of personal savings to invest into a business nor do they get much support from formal lending institutions. Therefore the youths often rely on family support to launch their enterprises and utilise community needs as markets and entry point customer base. Schoof (2006) suggests that families provide financial and moral support as well as advice. Often the youths in Sub-Saharan Africa reside in communities characterized by high unemployment therefore their families and communities encourage them to pursue economic activities in which they are self-employment and seek to raise their own income for survival. Budding SMEs often exploit their environment to decide the business in which to venture in. For instance OECD (2001) found that many youths in Zimbabwe’s agricultural communities have invested in the transport business to ferry agricultural produce to and from the farms to the markets.
OECD (2001) found as well that many youths often utilise social capital networks as they pull together personal resources to launch businesses. A common trend also is the phenomenon of money clubs that are often engaged in by young women that take turns to pull together financial resources that they give to each member say after every month to enable the members on a rotational basis to pour a lump sum of money into their trade. This is common among vendors, cross border traders and second hand clothing traders. Schoof (2006) found that most youthful entrepreneurs have a collaborative spirit that enables them to form organisations, cooperatives and associations for the purposes of pulling together social capital so as to remain vibrant and sustain their businesses.

According to Sacramento (2013), the modern youth entrepreneur has a technological acumen that previous generations did not have, obviously due to the technological advancement that has occurred in the past several decades. Schoof (2006) suggests that not only has the technology advanced but access has exponentially widened given the spread of internet services and information technology across the globe. Furthermore the cost of technology has lessened due to increased competition. As such youth entrepreneurs have a wider array of businesses they can engage in and have alternative sources of energy to use because of the technological advancements. Furthermore, OECD (2001) notes that in Sub-Saharan Africa most youths are characterized by a diverse knowledge base that is often not entrepreneurial. OECD (2001) argues that because of limited employment opportunities in Africa many youths that venture into entrepreneurship do so to earn a living even though their education is not entrepreneurial. Schoof (2006) notes that this results in a mis-match of skills as for instance political science graduates, media studies graduates, chemists or surveyors engage in vending, agriculture, the transport sector, welding, electronic repairs or cross-border trading and so on.

2.9.4 Economic & Political Factors

OECD (2001) further aver that economies which are not growing are grappling with huge unemployment problems and this is affecting the youth too. When the economy is down and the business is not doing well, there will be no opportunities for small entrepreneurs to provide services to support the economy and business. Political will and focus to focus
on youth in the country and to create a positive environment that encourages youth to dream and work towards realising their dream is very much necessary in any society. It is the political will that can spearhead the Youth revolution. Absence of stability in the political situation of the country and the political party’s outlook towards this area can make or break the youth entrepreneurship’s growth.

2.9.5 Policy framework issues

According to OECD, 2001), government policy and framework in the country helps identify and build the base for youth entrepreneurship. The policies need to encourage and provide opportunities as well as assistance and environment to give impetus to youth entrepreneurship and have got to be implemented at national, regional, and local levels. Policy directives will need to engage the business, banking, educational, and other sectors to be able to deliver definitive steps to encouraging and aiding youth entrepreneurship. Lack of such policy framework can hinder the growth and initiative in the youth.

2.9.6 Industry Support & Patronage

OECD (2001) also observes that in any industry, it is largely the business sector that provides opportunities for support services and creating new networks of business enterprises. Similar to their role in social responsibility, industry can create a very strong platform to help develop the youth and give them the support and guidance as well as opportunities to the youth. In society where the industry enterprise is not very significant or not very active, there can be no encouragement for youth entrepreneurship.

2.9.7 Education System & Orientation

OECD (2001) observe that in most of the countries today the education system is geared to enabling the youth to pass out with their qualifications based on academic knowledge and prepare for seeking a job. However, there is little or no focus on building and equipping the students with leadership, building awareness and giving them training for entrepreneurship. Of late there is a trend to introduce specialised courses and training modules on entrepreneurship in many of the universities. In most cases the students do not attempt to think out of the box as they are not equipped with the necessary skills.
2.9.8 Finance & Business Support

One other biggest hurdle faced by each and every entrepreneur is the lack of financial backup and funding as well as guidance required to incubate new business. Most often those who attempt to start any enterprise do so borrowing from family and friends and dipping into their saving. After a while the business starts to suffer due to lack of funds and they end up in a debt trap. Banking and financial assistance should be made available easily and this can happen only with the active support and engagement by the Government. Nowadays venture capitalists are funding new enterprises. However this is available to very few and not to the larger sections of the society.

2.10 Entrepreneurial responses to youth entrepreneurial challenges

The youths engage themselves in entrepreneurial activities as a way of sustaining their livelihoods as they cannot find proper employment opportunities. Entrepreneurship is considered the economic engine by many countries in the world. The characteristics which include a passion to start own business, readiness to take risks, commitment, dedication, perseverance, need for achievement, initiative and responsibility have seen many youths venturing into entrepreneurship (Co et al., 2016). Youth in Zimbabwe have ventured in various sectors of the economy in their bid to start and run their own small businesses.

2.10.1 Youth Mining Cooperatives

A vast number of youths in developing countries engage in small scale and artisanal mining. According to Kureya (2018), in Zimbabwe there exists a significant number of small scale and artisanal miners. Small scale and artisanal mining is a kind of mining that operates with primitive equipment, at small spaces and closer to the surface. Small scale and artisanal miners often engage in informal mining that is often times illegal and risky. In Zimbabwe, Kureya (2018) reports that there are well over sixty thousand small scale and artisanal miners that are commonly referred to as Makorokoza because of the informal and at times illegal nature of their trade. Also this derogatory term is derived from the primitive and migrant nature of their operations.
Kureya (2018) argues that many small scale and artisanal miners have been driven to this trade because of limited job opportunities and economic hardships characterized by an inability to procure basic goods and access social services. As such most small scale and artisanal miners in Zimbabwe, Zambia and Mozambique engage in risky mining with primitive tools and a lack of protective clothing and safety provisions. Despite many having experienced collapses in mine shafts, injuries and deaths, many young people continue to pursue this trade as they lack any other source of income. However, Moyo (2017) notes that some youths with the help of the Ministry of Mines and Mining Development and the Ministry of Small to Medium Enterprises in Zimbabwe have identified the entrepreneurial potential of the mining sector and organized themselves into cooperatives that have lobbied the Zimbabwe Government for funding, space and recognition as well as protection by the law.

Kureya (2018) argues that the mining sector could be developed to be a sustainable sector for youth entrepreneurship by supporting such organisations as the Women in Mining (WiM) and the Young Miners Foundation (YMF) by expanding the Youth Fund to insure that it provides financial resources to budding mining cooperatives constituted by the youth. Patel (2017) argues that while improvement in equipment and increase in support by government has been experienced more still needs to be done to transform mining as a viable gateway to youth entrepreneurship.

2.10.2 Youth SMEs

According to Chiki (2016) most youth entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe and Africa form Small to Medium Enterprises SMEs that are often constituted with two to three permanent employees and several contract or casual hires. Chiki (2016) finds that SMEs owned by youths often face similar challenges. Often they lack access to funding because banks require collateral which because of their early stage the SMEs often do not have. Youth SMEs often require initial capital and funding to even procure initial operational assets and pay for office space, workshops, energy, communication and workforce. They therefore lack any assets which they could present as collateral to secure loans and are considered risky businesses to finance. Furthermore most banks and financial institutions do not have the technical knowhow to handle budding SMEs as potential investment
opportunities and therefore often regard them as special responsibility rather than strategic investments from where they could get returns. According to Chiki (2016) budding SMEs often resort to loan sharks for funding and are subjected to astronomical interests of 30% per month on loans advanced to them. Chiki (2016) suggests that because of the lack of financial and other resources the youth therefore do not make informed consideration of the entrepreneurship ventures to pursue hence end up entering sectors that do not provide much income such as vending, small scale informal mining, and small scale farming that is not supported by such amenities as irrigation.

2.11 Effectiveness of Measures to Economic Challenges

According to Chituri (2015), most African governments have in recent years attempted to put in place measures to address the economic challenges faced by youths in entrepreneurship. According to Chituri (2015) in Zimbabwe the government through the Ministry of Youth Development, Indigenisation and Empowerment launched the Youth Fund intended to provide financial support to youths in a variety of income generation ventures. Chituri (2015) notes that the fund is a collaborative effort between the government and private sector players and is administered through the Central African Building Society (CABS), Stanbic Bank, the Commercial Bank of Zimbabwe (CB Z), the Zimbabwe Development Bank and is supported by such insurance brokers as Old Mutual Private Limited. Chituri (2015) argues that the Fund has employed a protectionist approach by relaxing the preconditions to accessing the fund and maintaining a significantly low interest rate of 10% in comparison to the prevailing market rate of 18%.

However in most African societies, Zimbabwe included it is often generally thought that government intervention has remained insufficient to curtail or mitigate the vast array of economic challenges that budding youth entrepreneurs come up against. Rwigerma and Venter (2014) suggest that the financial and material resources that are required by youth entrepreneurs are often in short supply in developing countries because these economies lack robust institutions and infrastructure to sustain entrepreneurship. Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2015) are of the view that most governments in developing countries have also not adequately addressed the training and skills development required for youth entrepreneurs to become astute and competent business people. Nieman and
Nieuwenhuien (2015) argue as well that the regulatory framework has not be developed and broadened to provide enough protection to budding youth run SMEs in order for them to flourish.

2.12 Making Youth entrepreneurship viable

UNESCO 2016 suggests that governments have to focus on entry level challenges faced by youths as they attempt to enter the entrepreneurial world as these tend to beset the budding enterprises until the collapse or prevent youths from becoming entrepreneurs altogether. According to UNESCO (2016), government intervention should not only have a material and financial scope but a legal and regulatory one as well. Policies that enable the youths to compete, own property and protect them from various infringements is necessary. Furthermore youth related affirmative action would insure that the youths are represented in most forums and at every level politically, economically and socially so as to insure that they have a voice in matters that affect the income generation prospects. UNESCO (2016) suggests that governments in developing countries should acknowledge and remain cognizant of the fact that unlike in developed countries where then youths are pulled towards entrepreneurship because of the opportunities that already exist there, in developing countries the youths are pushed towards easy to access entrepreneurship sectors with minimal resources and skill because of a lack of job opportunities and economic hardships. Therefore governments need to develop these informal sectors that most young people tend to gravitate towards to insure that the youths are provided with resources to grow and establish large customer basis to boost their income levels. UNESCO (2016) also emphasizes the role of TVETs as institutions that should be established to provide training and education for youth entrepreneurs in order to foster cross-sector-collaboration.

Schoof (2006) argues too that in order to peel away some of the barriers to youth entrepreneurship there is need to deconstruct the socio-cultural perceptions that look down of youths that attempt to engage into businesses. Schoof (2006) posits that one of the ways that governments could achieve this is to incentivize youth entrepreneurship by offering favourable tax breaks and protectionist laws that insure that youth entrepreneurs have an easier access to resources such as finances, office space, raw materials, energy
and labour. Schoof (2006) goes on to suggest that government and other stakeholders must not treat youth entrepreneurs in the same manner as they do adult and established entrepreneurs as the challenges confronting these two are significantly different. Chigunta et al (2005) for instance suggested that while adult and established entrepreneurs already have sufficient resources to remain viable, there is need for enormous capacity building among youth entrepreneurs in Southern and Eastern Africa.

Javanovic (1982), Mcpherson (1986), Evans and Leighton (1989) and Chigunta et al (2005) all point to the fact that both empirical and theoretical literature stresses the importance of developing human capital as a means to boost youth entrepreneurship. According to Javanovic (1982) the nature of entrepreneurship is often intricately linked to the nature of skills and knowledge possessed by the entrepreneur. As such, Evans and Leighton (1989) posit that African governments must establish TVETs and other institutions that constantly and continuously equip young entrepreneurs with skills, education and knowledge to navigate the entrepreneurial world.

Recent studies by Klinger and Schunden (2014) found that among countries in Central America, the prospects of a business succeeding or a new one being started were significantly enhanced by training the youths in business. In a study in Ghana, Mano et al (2012) found that among youth SMEs basic-level training in management of business significantly improved organisational and business performance even if the SME was endowed with limited resources. According to Gindling and Newhouse (2014), targeted training programmes that were aimed at the youths in entrepreneurship who were self-employed significantly led to business growth and viability. Cho and Honorati (2014) note that often targeted training programmes often have a much better impact on business performance and labour quality among youth entrepreneurs than adult entrepreneurs.

Numerous international and continental studies have demonstrated that training programmes often facilitate the success of government intervention into youth entrepreneurship. According to Frank et al 2005, training programmes are only effective when adequate time and effective targeting is deployed. Studies by Frank et al (2005); Athayde (2009); Henry, Hill and Leich (2005); and Disckson, Solomon and Weaver (2005) suggests that entrepreneurship is a teachable subject just as other contemporary
subjects taught in schools and various academic institutions. Dickson (2008) posits that there is a correlative and intractable link between entrepreneurship education and enterprise performance. Peter and Kennedy (2003) argue that in some cases it is more helpful to train the youth in entrepreneurship than just allocating them funding as with the right training the youths may be able to mobilize their own resources competently. Frank et al (2005) entrepreneurship education as well as students’ immediate and general environment can be used to influence entrepreneurial orientation and the inclination to start a new business. Some empirical findings (for example, Athayde 2004, 2009a, 2009b; Lewis 2005; Peterman & Kennedy 2003) also suggest that early entrepreneurship education has a positive impact on the potential for entrepreneurial activity. Peterman and Kennedy (2003: 129, 141) measured the perceptions of a sample of secondary school learners enrolled in the Young Achievement Australia (YAA) enterprise programme and concluded that participants’ perceptions of the desirability and feasibility of entrepreneurship had increased, in turn providing support for the implementation of enterprise education programmes in secondary schools.

It has also been argued extensively, and successfully so, that entrepreneurship education and training at school must fulfill a primary role in preparing young people to contribute towards economic growth (Isaacs et al. 2007: 613); that schools have an important role to play in the lives of learners by instilling “relevant academic, business and positive lifelong skills” (Burger et al. 2004: 201); and that attention should be paid to “formal learning, informal learning and practical experience” if previously disadvantaged groups are to be supported in bridging the existing gaps (Burger, O’Neill & Mahadea 2005: 93).

2.13 The Impact of Youth entrepreneurship in South Africa

Steenekamp, Van der Merwe and Athayde (2011) studied youth entrepreneurship in South Africa. The objectives of this study were to scrutinize empirical literature on youth entrepreneurship, education in youth entrepreneurship and to ascertain effective approaches to researching on youth entrepreneurship as well as to gather, interpret and analyse data on the extent to which entrepreneurship is taught to young secondary school learners. The purpose of the study was to determine the extent to which young learners exploited the entrepreneurship education and how this affected their career paths. The
study chose as case studies, several secondary schools in South Africa in an empirical study that drew data from one thousand four hundred and forty eight (1748) learners in the tenth grade. Among the major findings of the study were that; While Southern African secondary school youth had appositive view of entrepreneurship and its potential reward they were skeptical of their own abilities to succeed as entrepreneurs; that the extent of entrepreneurial education the learners received was shallow, infrequent and rudimentary; furthermore despite some of their parents, siblings and friends being self-employed the youths were not motivated to be entrepreneurs but rather obtain formal employment. The study recommended deeper entrepreneurship education and incentives to young learners to view entrepreneurship as a legitimate career option.

Gwija, Eke and Iwu (2014) also studied youth entrepreneurship in the Western Cape of South Africa. This study sought to establish what factors were prohibiting the development of youth entrepreneurship and to ascertain what the post intervention prospects for youth development were in the Kayelitsha Township located in South Africa’s Western Cape Province. The study was quantitative and the data collection instruments were survey questionnaires distributed to one hundred and thirty two (132) participants. The sample was derived from a population of two hundred (200) youth entrepreneurs that were registered in a database compiled by a South African youth oriented non-governmental organisation. Among the major findings of the study were; that there was limited financial support to influence entrepreneurship development in Kayelitsha; that there was limited training and education on entrepreneurship in Kayelitsha; and that though there were inhibiting factors to entrepreneurship the government and private sector could exploit the intense enthusiasm that the youth of Kayelitsha had for entrepreneurship to encourage more youths to participate.

2.14 Youth Development and Conflict Resolution in Nigeria

Ngozi and Dike (2017) studied youth development and conflict resolution in Nigeria. This study sought to determine the applicability of youth entrepreneurship as a conflict resolution tool in Nigeria. The study was action research that deployed intervention and evaluation as strategies to reach a determination on the research objective. The study was
a mixed methods approach that utilised interviews, questionnaires and focus group discussions in three small communities in Lagos. Among the key findings of the study were that when youth entrepreneurship rose to the level of being able to close the gap between needs and available goods and services or between deprivation and income it was ineffective tool at resolving conflict at family community and societal level. The study found too that youth entrepreneurship can only be effective at resolving conflict such as economic deprivation, social and political exclusion, and unlawfulness only if it was supported by comprehensive government policy, action and resources. In view of these findings the study recommended that the Government of Nigeria introduces youth entrepreneurship education as a legitimate aspect and important component of conflict resolution studies; that the Government of Nigeria provide financial, policy and material support to youth entrepreneurships help it grow and remain sustainable; that more technical and vocational colleges be established to equip the youths with necessary skills and education to be vibrant entrepreneurs.

2.15 Summary

This chapter discussed the theoretical framework that guided the study and reviewed literature related to the study. The process of reviewing existing literature on youth entrepreneurship revealed vast links between youth entrepreneurship and conflict transformation. Youth bulge theory provided greater insight into the challenges that are created by a growing youthful population and the likely conflict that would ferment from such developments. The need for youth entrepreneurship was clearly articulated by numerous authors as solution to lack of employment and development opportunities for the youth in third world countries, occasioned by economic recession, lack of growth, poor policies and corruption. The literature also highlighted important benefits of youth entrepreneurship as it would help diffuse the pressure coming from the youth and also help pre-empty potential civil unrest, violence and crime. The review of literature was a beneficial undertaking for the study in that it helped the researcher to identify gaps that this study could fill within the existing body of knowledge on youth entrepreneurship as conflict transformation approach. For instance, not much research had been done in Zimbabwe pertaining youth entrepreneurship as a conflict transformation strategy, hence, this carrying out of this study would generate research based facts that would inform
policy making in a bid to effectively manage this area. Secondly, most of the literature reviewed pertained to situations outside the country and their applicability in Zimbabwe and Bindura, would need to be tested. The researcher was also mindful that the socio-economic environment in Zimbabwe provided a unique setting in which youth entrepreneurship could be consciously applied as a relatively new strategy. The next chapter focused on the research design that was applied in this study.
CHAPTER 3

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focused on the research methodology and it looked into the research design, the research instruments used to collect the data, the population sample and sampling techniques that were used in the research study. The chapter also looks into the procedures for collecting data as well as the data presentation and analysis procedures that were carried out in the research. The research was carried out in Bindura urban in the Mashonaland Central Province targeting the youth entrepreneurs as the participants. Methodology refers to relevant chosen tools used in the research by the researcher to achieve a result. The research made use of various tools of research to come up with the required data for analysis. In the research, questionnaires and interviews were used to t data from participants.

3.2 Research Approach

The study adopted a predominantly constructivist approach. According to Annum (2014), the aim of the constructivist approach is to construct realities by studying distinct human behaviour and interpret the realities subjective to every human being under study. Leedy (2015) asserts that according to constructivists there is no single valid methodology in science, but rather a diversity of useful methods. The application of the constructivist approach in this study is anchored in the attribute of constructivism being a research philosophy that acknowledges and instructs that scientific knowledge is constructed by the community, who seek to measure and construct models of the natural world. The link between youth entrepreneurship and conflict transformation is not obvious to the natural senses. Conflict transformation in particular is subject to various and abstract pontifications. Its true meaning, features and attributes as a consequence of the nature of youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban had to be constructed by the researcher from the data derived from respondents. The researcher therefore had to make intelligent
deductions and inferences from the natural and human world affected by youth entrepreneurship as a concept to determine its impact on conflict transformation.

3.2 Research Methodology

The study utilised a mixed methodology in which both qualitative and quantitative data was utilised. The study utilised surveys for predominantly quantitative data and key informant interviews for predominantly qualitative data. According to Annum (2014), a mixed methodology combines both aspects of qualitative and quantitative data so as to broaden the depth and credibility of the study wherein quantitative methods complement qualitative methods. Haralambos and Holborn (2009) suggest that mixed methodology is often utilised to investigate complex phenomena that seeks both the data from a wide range of respondents and key informants. Annum (2014) is of the view that social science research is rarely strictly based on one single paradigm but often incorporates elements of both quantitative and qualitative methods. This particular study had to apply a mixed methodology in which aspects of both the qualitative and the quantitative research paradigms were utilised because the data had to be drawn from a large sample of youths and also from key informants that were knowledgeable on youth entrepreneurship, employment and struggles in Bindura and Zimbabwe. Furthermore, the subject of conflict transformation is multifaceted and intertwined with an array of other societal phenomenon to the extent that a single research paradigm would not adequately facilitate the gathering of sufficient data to fulfill the research objectives.

3.3 Research Design

The research study used a case study research design in which the youth of Bindura Urban were the focus of study. According to Cheek and Given (2018), a research design is the nature in terms of steps, scope and conceptualisation of the research study. Cheek and Given (2018) opine that a case study research design is one that confines the research to a singular setting, phenomenon or entity for targeted study from which generalizations of other similar settings, phenomena and entities may be made. An advantage of employing a case study design in this research was that the researcher had an easy reach
of respondents which meant that the research could be conducted with the depth befitting a mixed methodology in the time allocated. The case study also enabled the researcher to make a more credible and in-depth analyses of the themes that emerged as the conditions that affect youths in their forage into entrepreneurship were similar due to their residing in the same setting and environment. Annum (2014) suggests that case study give more elaborate context to study subject as the researcher does not have to prance around comparing and contrasting factors derived from different settings but focuses on the singular case which facilitates a more vivid portrayal of the research variables. Chiromo (2009) however argues that at times case studies are too localized and are an end to themselves as the data may not be useful to predict or explain phenomena in other settings. This research was intended to look into the linkages between entrepreneurship and conflict transformation.

3.4 Population

A population is a group of people or individuals that have one or more typical characteristics in common that are of interest to the researcher. The target population was the youths of Bindura Urban aged 15-35 years. Babbie (2015) defined a population as an aggregation of elements from which a sample is actually selected.

3.5 Sample and sampling techniques

A sample is a small separate part showing the quality of the whole population from which it is drawn. There is no single correct procedure for sampling hence the method chosen depends on the purpose of the enquiries which are taken as external constraints, Donald and Schindler (2014). The researcher generated his data from the following groups of people: market vendors, youth in mining, welders and carpenters, youth in farming, ministry of (youth, small and medium enterprises), Bindura Vocational Training Centres and Academics.

3.6.1 Simple Random Sampling

The participants from each sector were sampled at random. The researcher utilised simple random sampling so as to eliminate bias in the selection of participants at different sectors. The researcher utilised simple random sampling for questionnaire respondents.
The researcher simply included in the research any youth he encountered from market vendors, youth in mining, welders and carpenters, youth in farming, ministry of youth, small and medium enterprises. Since the study was of a mixed methodology the questionnaire respondents would provide predominantly quantitative data and therefore the sample for questionnaire respondents would be larger than that of interviews which provided predominantly qualitative data. To save time and utilise an easy sampling method that also eliminated bias the researcher utilised the simple random sampling method. According to Resnik (2011), simple random sampling is often the easiest method of sampling and is utilised for a relatively large sample. Khan (2016) suggests that simple random sampling is probability sampling in which every participant from the population has a chance of being included in the study. Resnik (2011) posits that simple random sampling often eliminates bias as it often ignores such biographical data as gender, income or marital status as a criteria for inclusion in the study. This particular research, having stratified the population by sector, chose participants from those sectors at random to eliminate bias and save time.

3.6.2 Purposive Sampling

The study also utilised the purposive sampling technique to include key informants. The purposively sampled participants would provide the qualitative data of the mixed methods approach. According to Khan (2016), purposive sampling is non-probability sampling in which the researcher deliberately includes specific respondents in the study based on personal judgement of the relevance of each respondent. Haralambos and Holborn (2009) opine that purposive sampling is often utilised when the researcher makes a determination that for depth and credibility there would be need to incorporate respondents that are experts, knowledgeable or experienced in the study subject. In this particular study the researcher purposively sampled one high ranking official from the Ministry of Youth, one high ranking official from the organ on national healing and reconciliation and another high ranking official from Activista, a youth oriented Non-Governmental Organisation active in Bindura Urban. The researcher utilised purposive sampling to include these respondents as they would provide relevant, in-depth and expert data related to the research subject because of their oversight, experience and proximity to and in youth, entrepreneurship and conflict transformation issues in Bindura.
Urban. Since the study was of a mixed methodology the purposively sampled respondents provided the predominantly qualitative data of the research and was confined to three respondents, fewer than the questionnaire respondents because key informant interviews focus on depth rather than quantity of data.

3.7 Data collection methods

3.7.1 Surveys

Surveys and key informant interviews were the data collection methods utilised in the study. Data collection methods are, according to Chiromo (2009) defined as, the process by which data is derived from research participants in order to find solutions to a social problem under investigation. Surveys were conducted by disseminating semi-structured survey questionnaires were distributed to collect data from respondents. Annum (2014) defines a survey questionnaire as a list of either open ended or closed ended questions and sometimes both that is distributed to research participants to fill out in response to questions that elicit relevant data on the research subject. Cheek and Given (2018) argue that questionnaires commonly derive quantitative data from a large array of respondents. According to Cheek and Given (2018), questionnaires are particularly advantageous when data has to be collected from a wide range of respondents as they generally save time since many can be distributed and answered at the same short space of time. This advantage coupled with the fact that questionnaires do not require the researcher to be present as the respondent fills out the questionnaire, thereby reducing inhibition in respondents inspired the researcher to utilise questionnaires. Questionnaires that had both unstructured and structured questions were administered to respondents with the intention of extracting in-depth data. Some questions were in matrix form, which made it easier for the general public to fill in as they simply ticked the appropriate answer or response.

The research chose to use the questionnaire as a research instrument because it has the following advantages: It could be sent to a large group of people over thousands of kilometers away, they had less travel expenses, and instead the researcher met postage or emailing costs. This helped the researcher to broadcast questions to various people on a wide geographical area without the researcher being present in most cases. The absence
of the researcher from the participants gave room for participants to express their opinions freely.

However the use of questionnaires also had disadvantages and as noted by the research because in many cases the return rate of questionnaires was quite low, many participants did not return questionnaires to the researcher, and hence participants who return them might not be necessarily representatives of the originally selected sample. Questionnaires required literacy and hence those who were not literate were not catered for, resulting bias somehow. Questionnaires however, did not allow room for clarity on certain questions posed. There was limited interaction in questionnaires so the research also used other means of data collection.

3.7.2 Key informant Interviews

The research also made use of key informant interviews as a data collection method for the study. According to Babbie (2010) key informant interviews are usually face to face question and answer segments between the researcher and respondents that are included in the study for their expertise, knowledge, experience, role or proximity to the study subject. Leedy (2015) suggests that key informants often exercise an amount of oversight into the field being researched on. In this particular research the three key informants were one high ranking official from the Ministry of Youth, one high ranking official from the organ on national healing and reconciliation and another high ranking official from Activista, a youth oriented Non-Governmental Organisation active in Bindura Urban. The researcher included these respondents as they would provide relevant, in-depth and expert data related to the research subject because of their oversight, experience and proximity to and in youth, entrepreneurship and conflict transformation issues in Bindura Urban. Haralambos and Holborn (2009) are of the opinion that, interviews are particularly useful for getting the story behind a participant’s experiences. The interviewer can pursue in-depth and relevant information around the subject area of study. The research used face to face interviews as well as telephone interviews in the data collection process. Through the participant’s comments, facial and bodily expressions (body language), gestures, reactions, voice tones, attitudes, feelings, non-co-operation and evasiveness, the researcher acquires vital information that would not be conveyed in any other way. It has
an advantage over other forms of data collection because it flexible and interactive. Kvale and Flick (2007) posit that key informant interviews provide for flexible dialogue in which a deliberative face to face encounter permits the researcher who is the interviewer to seek clarity and ask follow up questions that allow the interviewee that is the research participant to expand further. Babbie (2010) asserts that the key informant interview enables the researcher to observe non-verbal gestures and other facial expressions that may indicate how strongly the respondent feels about certain issues that may not be captured by a questionnaire. In this study the key informant interview provided in-depth data that complemented the questionnaire and focus group discussions.

Interviews were useful as they allowed respondents to speak freely about their experiences without the limit of writing down as compared to questionnaires, (Martins, 2011). Thus they were adaptable and could enable the researcher to obtain rich and useful information. In interviews, all questions are most likely to be answered and can also be changed when the need to do so arise which cannot be done on administered questionnaires. They were chosen by the research as they allowed one to read between the lines and probe further questions with new questions as the respondents said their views. Leedy (2015) argues that the interviewer has access not only to what people say but how they say it. The researcher also assured respondents that they were free to withdraw from the interview at any time. However disadvantages of the interviews as a data collecting instrument in the study was that face to face interviews required a lot of travelling and the researcher met a lot of travelling costs to conduct interviews. Interviews were however a time consuming and tedious process which took up much of the time of the research. However to get a near-accurate response, follow up on questionnaires through forms of interviews were employed.

3.7.3 Focus Group Discussion (FDG)

Babbie (2010) asserts that focus group discussions are questions and answer, deliberative sessions facilitated or moderated by the researcher to gather first hand data from a group, usually diverse, on the research subject. Leedy (2015) suggests that the FDG requires meticulous consideration of the component members as they should be representative of the sampling frame. This study conducted a one hour FDG on 10 respondents drawn from
the initial sample of 53 respondents. 7 of the respondents were drawn from the questionnaire sample and included youths from each different sector namely market vendors, youth in mining, welders and carpenters, youth in farming, ministry of (youth, small and medium enterprises), Bindura Vocational Training Centers and Academics. The other 3 participants were the 3 key informants namely one high ranking official from the Ministry of Youth, one high ranking official from the organ on national healing and reconciliation and another high ranking official from Activista, a youth oriented Non-Governmental Organisation active in Bindura Urban. An advantage of the focus group discussion was that it allowed for open discussion over the research topic and enabled the respondents to debate among each other which provided a real time critique of various viewpoints, better clarity and understanding of what would make perceptions over the research topic vary or be similar. Furthermore, the FDG complemented the questionnaires and the key informant interviews.

3.8 Data presentation

Data presentation according to Babbie (2010) is the display of synthesized data in an orderly and readable as well as understandable way and sequence. In this study qualitative data was presented in themes while quantitative data was presented in tables and charts. The study utilised these methods because they easily facilitated the compilation and display of synthesized data for easy comprehension and reflection.

3.9 Data Analysis

According to Khan (2016), data analysis is a useful technique for linking in-depth interview data to theoretical propositions guiding the study. Content analysis was used to amylase data in which plausible deductions were drawn from the data that was presented. The research analyzed the data that was gathered from the sampled population. The data gathered was coded into themes according to their frequencies from the categories of respondents who answered questionnaires, those who took part in interviews and those involved in focus group discussions. The study utilised content analysis which a method of establishing inherent themes common in the discourse provided by respondents especially during interviews. The researcher recorded the
interviews, with the permission of the respondents, and listened to the audios compiling recurrent and common responses into salient themes that answered the research questions.

3.10 Validity and Reliability

Validity according to Khan (2016) is the ability of a research instrument to measure what it was intended to measure. Validity in this study was insured by conducting a pilot study to insure that the questionnaire functions as intended. Validity was also insured by incorporating relevant questions in the questionnaire, interview and the focus group discussion. Reliability according to is the ability of the research instrument to produce consistent results across the whole sample it is used upon and its ability to be used over and over consistently producing similar results. Reliability in this study was insured by crafting questions that were easy to understand, legibly written questions and the similar questions in questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions so that the data collection process was consistent and each research instrument could be a check on the other.

3.10.1 Acceptability

According to Donald and Schindler (2014), acceptability of a study is the extent to which the study follows the basic steps laid out in the methodology, adheres to ethical parameters and does not falsify data. This study insured acceptability by adhering to the ethical considerations laid out in the study, adhering to the basic steps of the methodology and insuring that the researcher’s own predisposed notions did not influence research findings but rather data was presented as it was provided by the respondents.

3.10.2 Pilot Testing

According to Khan (2016), a pilot test is a trial run for a survey questionnaire intended to identify any potential flaws to the research instrument prior to the conducting of actual research. This study conducted a pilot test on 10 random youths in the Bindura Town CBD. All 10 questionnaires were successfully retrieved. The researcher was satisfied that
the questions to the questionnaires were answered correctly, legibly and satisfactorily. There was therefore no need for alterations.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

Research ethics involve the application of fundamental ethical principles to a variety of topics involving research (Resnik, 2011). Ethics refers to the standard and behaviour expected of a group of people. According to Welfel (1998:124), “The research must, protect the anonymity of the research participants and confidentiality of their disclosure unless they consent to the release of personal information”.

The researcher insured that all the participants were informed of all the aspects of the research from purpose, nature, duration, methods and significance so that they participated voluntarily what is known as informed consent. According to Khan (2016), participants in a research should volunteer to participate after having been appraised of all the aspects of the research. Nothing must be withheld from them.

The researcher insured that the identities of the research participants so that there would be no reprisals or harm brought on them as a consequence of their participation in the research. According to Weimer (2015), a critical safety net that should be afforded participants is anonymity as this insures that they do not suffer legal, occupational or social liabilities and hazards due to their participation in the study.

Permission was sought from relevant authorities and gatekeepers of the various institutions that were part of the research including the Bindura University of Science Education, the Ministry of Youth, Activista, the Organ on National Healing and Reconciliation. Khan (2016) suggests that permission from the academic institution and institutions from were data is to be gathered are paramount ethical priorities.

The researcher also made sure that there was a mechanism for feedback for participants and that there was no plagiarism as all the sources from whom the study cited scholarly, policy and empirical material were acknowledged. According to Weimer (2015), it is
vital for researchers to acknowledge cited sources so as to retain credibility and integrity of the study.

The researcher insured that in that respect a lot of effort was put to prevent inadvertent revelation of participants’ identity in the complete document. The researcher promised confidentiality to all participants taking part in the interviews. The questionnaire took note of the issue of confidentiality to get as much information and accurate answers as possible. The results of the research will be given as feedback to the respondents. During the research the issue of obtaining informed consent by all respondents through consent forms was carried out meaning that the participants had agreed to participate in the research willingly.

### 3.12 Summary

The chapter focused on the research methodology that was utilised by the study. The chapter discussed the mixed methodology and case study research design. The chapter also discussed the research population and sample size. The sampling techniques, that is, simple random sampling and purposive sampling. The chapter also discussed the data collection methods where surveys, key informant interviews and focus group discussions were utilised. The validity and reliability of data collection methods was also dilated upon. The chapter also discussed the methods of data presentation and analysis as well as the ethical considerations made were also discussed. The next chapter focused on data presentation, analysis and interpretation.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents analyses and interprets data derived from survey questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions. The chapter first presents, analyses and interprets the biographical data of participants. The rest of the data is categorized into broad themes that mirror the research objectives that the study sought to fulfil. These are; challenges faced by the youths of Bindura Urban in entrepreneurship; Effects of challenges faced by youths in youth entrepreneurship; Factors affecting youth entrepreneurship; areas of business were most youth have ventured into entrepreneurship; Factors influencing the choice of entrepreneurship; Responses to challenges in youth entrepreneurship; Effectiveness of government efforts to promote youth entrepreneurship; and strategies for enhancing youth entrepreneurship. On each theme the impact to conflict transformation is identified and discuss.

Table 4.1 Questionnaire Response rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaires Distributed</th>
<th>Questionnaires retrieved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 above shows that out of the 50 questionnaires that were administered, all of them were completed and returned to the researcher; hence 100% response rate was achieved. All the 3 interviews that were planned were held as scheduled with all participants availing themselves at appointed times and venues. This 100% response rate demonstrates that the participants realized the value of the aim and objectives of the
study. The focus group discussion was successfully and satisfactorily conducted with 10 participants over a one hour session that occurred in the same venue. The participants engaged in healthy, insightful and respectful debate on youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban and its role in conflict transformation.

4.2 Biographical data of Respondents

The respondents were asked to declare their personal data and the responses given are as tabulated below:

Sex

Table 4.2 Distribution of respondents by sex N=50

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1 Distribution of respondents by sex

According to Table 4.2 and figure 4.1 above, a total of 27 participants were female while 23 were male. This demonstrates that the majority of the youth who took part in the study were female as demonstrated by the clear majority of 54%. The distribution according to sex could not be even as the questionnaire respondents were drawn from a random sample. However the researcher was satisfied that there was adequate representation of
both sexes in the sample as the challenges that confront youth entrepreneurs could be influenced by sex and gender. Furthermore it is probable that this distribution is representative of the distribution of youth entrepreneurs in Bindura Urban according to gender and it in itself reflects that there does not appear to be much gender disparity in terms of representation in youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban and this could be a viable tool to mitigate societal conflict caused by general exclusion of women and girls in the broader Bindura Community.

**Age**

**Table 4.3 Distribution of respondents by age N=50**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-24 years</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-30 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.2 Distribution of respondents by age**

According to Table 1 above, 30 respondents were in the 15-24 years range, 15 were in the 25-30 years range and only 5 were within the 31-35 years age range. This shows that the majority of the youth who participated in the study were within the age range of 15-24 years as evidenced by the outright majority of 30 respondents representing 60%. This
implies that study probably benefitted from the insight of mature youth who had completed tertiary learning and were ready to be employed. These participants could clearly understand the objectives of the study and offer objective responses that drew from knowledge of the socio-economic issues that affected them as youths.

**Level of education**

**Table 4.4 Distribution of respondents by level of education N=50**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O’ Level</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A’ Level</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Level of education chart](chart.png)

**Figure 4.3 Distribution of respondents by level of education**

Education is held to be one of the key ingredients of emancipating youth economically. Acting from this premise, it was therefore important to ascertain the level of education that had been attained the various youths who participated in the study. Education could also affect the opportunities that could be available for youths to lead better lives and realize their full potential. Illustrated below are the responses that were given. According
to Figure 2 above, a total of 5 (10%) of the respondents were degree holders, 10(20%) held Diplomas, 10(20%) had attained Advanced Level of education, and 25(50%) had attained the Ordinary level of education. This shows that most youths were educated. However, their dream to get gainfully employed was becoming a nightmare as the economy was not able to absorb them into the job market. This is also observed by Draut (2016) who posits that youths trying to get into the entrepreneurial sector are dealt with the double blow of having no financial and economic resources and having no opportunities for success in the economy. This is also buttressed by the African Union (2011), who underscore that it is a priority for more youth to enter the labour market to promote stability and reduce crime as well as establishing several youth-focused goals, and also to reduce youth unemployment by 2 percent per year from 2009–2018.

**Source of idea for becoming an entrepreneur**

Table 4.5 Source of idea for becoming an entrepreneur N=50

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of idea to become an entrepreneur</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social media</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.4 Source of idea for becoming an entrepreneur

As reflected in table 4.5 and figure 4.4 a total of 48% indicated that they were influenced by family, 20% cited friends, and 24% indicated social media and 8% indicated that they were not influenced by anyone. This shows that most of the youth were influenced into entrepreneurship by their families. It could therefore be inferred that close relatives had an influence on youth decisions to take up entrepreneurship.

Motivation for becoming an entrepreneur

Table 4.6 Motivation for becoming an entrepreneur N=50

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation for becoming an entrepreneur</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Need to be own boss</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To become financially independent</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make money and build wealth</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could not find paid work</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.5 Motivation for becoming an entrepreneur

The data in table 4.6 and figure 4.5 shows that youths were motivated by many things to become entrepreneurs. Up to 56% indicated that they were driven by the desire to become financially independent, 20% needed to be their own bosses, 18% wanted to build their own wealth and 6% indicated that they could not find paid work. Thus, most of the youths seemed to choose entrepreneurship out of the desire to earn some money and become financially independent. This similar to the views of Draut (2016) who suggests that often within communities in Sub-Saharan Africa the youth demographic often turns to entrepreneurship, especially informal trade as a means to extricate themselves from poverty and dependency on their parents, relatives and friends. Draut (2016) also suggested that a high percentage of youths that venture into entrepreneurship in countries with low GDP could also be indicative of inherent conflict and mismatch between unemployed youth and available formal jobs.

4.3 Challenges faced by the youths in entrepreneurship

4.3.1 Economic challenges

Table 4.7: Economic challenges faced by the youth N=50
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of access to finance/start-up financing</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of access to work space</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliance on simple tools and equipment</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less extensive network of contacts</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 4.7 above, 2 (4%) respondents cited Less extensive network of contacts, 25 (50%) indicated lack of start-up finance for projects, 8 (16%) indicated Reliance on simple tools and equipment, and 15 (30%) cited lack of access to work space. Clearly, the majority of the youth who took part in the study, seemed to hold the view that lack of access to finance to start income generating projects was a major stumbling block to their quest to enter into and participate in the economic activities of the country, as reflected by the majority of 50% who expressed this view. A high ranking official from Activisata had this to say:

*The enthusiasm among youths to extricate themselves from poverty and deprivation and earn a living is severely hindered by a lack of financial institutional support. This is partly due to the cash crisis, inflation and volatility of the economy as most lending institutions are reluctant to finance business ideas without assurance that they will get their money back.*

An official from the Organ for National Healing and Reconciliation was quoted as saying:

*While entrepreneurship has the ability to potentially mitigate conflict at every level of society, that is, the individual, family and community, there exists resources challenges such as finance confronting the youth that want to prosper. Without the necessary finance, the youths cannot acquire operating space, merchandise to trade, fuel, electricity, transport, raw materials and so on. So they remain in deprivation which causes all sorts of conflict among themselves, disrupts the harmony in families as they go hungry, enmity between government and citizenry as the citizenry view the lack of jobs and opportunities as government failure.*
The study established therefore that several challenges confront the youth in their endeavour to be successful entrepreneurs thereby limiting the ability of entrepreneurship to be a conflict transformation tool among youths in Bindura Urban. The study determined that Chief among these challenges is inadequate finances. However lack of access to work space, reliance on simple tools and equipment and less extensive network of contacts were found to be factors as well. It is therefore vital for the State and other key stakeholders to ensure that job creation is made top priority and is accelerated so to try and absorb as many youths into the labour market as possible to avoid challenges which emanate from the youth bulge. This is similar to what is in literature. Schoof (2006) identified five (5) major challenges confronting youth entrepreneurs and these fall into the following broad categories; limited finances and financial support; socio-cultural precepts and norms; policy and regulatory framework; the nature of business support in the environment and institutional and physical infrastructure. Listerri et al (2016) asserts as well that inexperience and limited skills also affect the sustainability and success of the youth enterprises. The same general difficulties and prohibitory challenges have affected youth entrepreneurs in Zimbabwean who are afflicted with severely limited financial services and support, limited material resources, limited access to markets which are often times volatile and suffer economic shocks regularly. Furthermore the youths are afflicted by an environment that suffers inflation and cash shortages. Kureya (2018) argues as well that Zimbabwean youth entrepreneurs are exposed to poor institutional and physical infrastructure and those in periphery towns are closed off from the rest of the world as they have very limited access to information, social services, electricity and technology.

### 4.3.2 Social-cultural challenges facing youth entrepreneurship

**Table 4.8 Social challenges facing youth entrepreneurs N=50**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Challenges</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of entrepreneurial skills</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative attitudes towards youth entrepreneurship</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of obstacles and hurdles</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio-economic segregation and discrimination</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 4.8 above, a convincing majority of 52% cited lack of entrepreneurial skills, 11 (22%) cited negative attitudes towards youth entrepreneurship, 20% cited fear of obstacles and hurdles and 6% cited socio-economic segregation and discrimination of youths from the mainstream economy. The respondents suggested that often a lack of job opportunities in the areas they would have professionally trained for causes them to try their hand at entrepreneurship which they would not have been schooled in. Therefore, according to respondents most of them venture into the entrepreneurial world without acquiring much skill that would help them make more informed and astute business decisions and investments. An official from the Ministry of Youth said:

_the local markets are not stable which makes it even more difficult even for experienced and skilled entrepreneurs to navigate the economic shocks and remain viable. However most local Bindura youths lack formal training in entrepreneurship and therefore often just stumble into markets that they cannot succeed in. For example, the mere choosing of a business venture appears difficult for most youths. In Bindura for instance most youths venture into informal mining yet they are unaware of the regulatory and technical requirements of this industry._

The respondents also suggested that negative attitudes and perceptions towards youth entrepreneurship by society makes it difficult for the youth to establish themselves. The respondents suggested that while there may be policy in place to support youth entrepreneurship the reality on the ground is that young entrepreneurs are taken for granted by competitors, financial institutions, suppliers and contractors. An official from the Organ on National Healing and Reconciliation suggested that this negative perception emanated from cultural norms of age. The official was quoted as saying:

_our endogenous socio-cultural instructs and value systems cast a lot of reverence on the elderly so much so that the youth are taken for granted and looked down upon when they aspire to leadership perches in society. This is why most young entrepreneurs struggle to make a mark in local society and Bindura Urban because age is a dominant factor in how one is treated. The youth are often treated with distrust and skepticism even when_
they are capable. This detracts from the ability of youth entrepreneurship to be a conflict transformation tool as the youth are denied the voice and space to flourish.

The study established therefore that lack of entrepreneurial skills, socio-economic segregation and discrimination, fear of obstacles and hurdles and negative attitudes towards youth entrepreneurship are significant socio-cultural challenges hindering youth entrepreneurship and its ability to be a conflict transformation tool in Bindura Urban. This resonates with Schoof (2006) who argues too that in order to peel away some of the barriers to youth entrepreneurship there is need to deconstruct the socio-cultural perceptions that look down of youths that attempt to engage into businesses. Schoof (2006) posits that one of the ways that governments could achieve this is to incentivize youth entrepreneurship by offering favourable tax breaks and protectionist laws that insure that youth entrepreneurs have an easier access to resources such as finances, office space, raw materials, energy and labour.

4.4 Effects of challenges on youth entrepreneurship
According to Figure 4.6 above, 46% of the respondents indicated that their businesses were struggling, 14% indicated that their businesses required higher level of innovation in view of tough economic situation, 18% indicated that some businesses folded up and 22% indicated that their businesses grew at a slow pace. Thus, most of the youth held their view that they were struggling to run their businesses due to the numerous challenges they faced. The respondents suggested that because of the limited cash injection into most of their ventures they therefore realised marginal returns, profits and income. According to the respondents, because they realised minimal income, they often were left with little financial resources to re-invest into the business as they would have used a significant amount of the income to pay for life expenses and basic needs such as food, rentals, transport, school fees and health costs. Many of the respondents suggested as well that most of the ventures were informal ventures that have been characterized as vulnerable employment because the informal sector in Zimbabwe does not provide for decent work or decent income. An official from Activista was quoted as saying:
Most youth entrepreneurs in Bindura Urban are in vulnerable employment as their business ventures are both not sustainable and unrewarding. For instance, the youth that venture in farming struggle as they lack irrigation yet the country has for a long time been experiencing inadequate and irregular rainfall. Many of the youths engage in such unrewarding ventures as informal and sometimes illegal mining, juice card vending, second hand clothing sales and many more are street money changers which too is illegal.

An official from the Ministry of Youth had this to say:

The phenomenon of collapsing or struggling business ventures by the youth is a reflection of a lack of institutional and physical infrastructure to facilitate business viability. Furthermore the young entrepreneurs are hampered by the inability of the generality of citizens to pay for the goods and services since most workers are low income earners and many more are unemployed. The customer base for the youths is therefore severely limited.

The study has established therefore that due to the challenges that are faced by young entrepreneurs most of their business ventures struggle, foldup or grow very slowly. The study established therefore that in Bindura Urban the ability for youth entrepreneurship to be a conflict transformation tool is significantly curtailed by the consequences of the challenges faced by young entrepreneurs. Because their businesses do not thrive the youth therefore remain in deprivation, without much income to afford basic needs and access social services. Due to this there remains conflict within families, between established businesses and youth startups and between the government and the youth demographic. This is consistent with the views of Schoof (2016) who argued that because of negative social and cultural attitude towards youth entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship education, access to finance/start-up financing, administrative and regulatory framework, and business assistance and support many youth businesses tend to suffer a premature death or simple struggle and do not grow beyond basic survival sources for the owners.
4.5 Factors promoting youth entrepreneurship

Table 4.9: Factors promoting youth entrepreneurship N=50

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors promoting youth entrepreneurship</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Availability of Vocational Training Centres</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of funding for youth projects</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound education and training</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demand for products and services in the economy</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 5 above, 25 (50%) of the respondents saw youth entrepreneurship being promoted by the availability of vocational training centres, 12 (24%) indicated the availability of funding for youth projects, 3 (6%) indicated the existence of sound education and training systems and 10 (20%) indicated the existence of demand for goods and services. The majority of the youth seemed to think that the existence of vocational training centres would equip them with knowledge and skills that could be crucial for them to start their own projects. The respondents however suggested as well that while these factors were to some extent in place, they remained inadequate to cause a significant upsurge in the viability of youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban. The respondents suggested that if these measures could be expanded to correspond with the percentage of Bindura Urban Youths that sought to earn a living and extricate themselves from poverty and deprivation through entrepreneurship there could be progress made and conflict associated with limited economic opportunities mitigated. An official from Activista had this to say:

While both central government and local authorities have made some strides in facilitating the establishment of vocational training centers partly in relation to the government’s Vision 2030, such measures are met with challenges of their own. For instance we have noted that such initiatives instituted through sector ministry are prone to politicization and polarization of some groups. Funding for youth projects is at times expedited through political party lines. A positive that has stood out in most of these measures though is that there appears to be gender impartiality.
An official from the Ministry of Youth had this to say:

*There have been steps taken by the Government of Zimbabwe and private players as well to boost the prospects of young entrepreneurs. This Ministry for instance has rolled out many funding initiatives and presided over the construction of vocational training centers. The legislative and regulatory framework, as guided by the youth policy, is one that encourages and facilitates youth entrepreneurship. However like with all initiatives challenges do exist in implementation. Bureaucracy is one of those challenges.*

The study established therefore that the factors promoting youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban include availability of vocational training centers, availability of funding for youth projects, sound education and training, demand for products and services in the economy. However the study also determined that there are factors that hinder the administration and implementation of these positive factors. Among which are politicization and bureaucracy. The need for institutional, resource and technical support for the viability of youth entrepreneurship was echoed by Dickson et al. (2008) who posited that there is a significant and positive relationship between education and entrepreneurial performance therefore suggesting that there is need for such institutions as vocational training workshops.

### 4.6 Areas of business where most youths have ventured into entrepreneurship

**Table 4.10 Areas of business mostly ventured into by youth entrepreneurs N=50**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas of business</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vending</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welding</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross border trade</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the results shown by table 4.10 above, 20% of the respondents ventured into mining, 12% indicated agriculture, 44% were into vending, 8% were doing welding, 6% did carpentry and 10% were involved in cross border trading. This shows that a clear majority of the youths engaged in the business of vending of various merchandise. The respondents suggested that vending was a popular venture as it often required the least entry point financial, technical and material resources. However respondents also suggested that it often was the most unrewarding. The respondents also suggested that mining was popular in Bindura Town as the town is traditionally known as a mining town with numerous deposits of gold, nickel, copper and aluminum. As reflected in the responses agriculture is also often considered a viable venture in Bindura as town is surrounded by many farms for commercial, small to medium scale and subsistence agriculture. An official from the Ministry of Youth suggested that these choices of business ventures among youths are similar to other parts of Zimbabwe in that they are influenced by level of capital and nature of town. The official said:

Vending is traditionally the go to first business venture that is thought by youth not only in Bindura or Zimbabwe but the worlds over because of the limited financial and technical resources required. Buying and selling is also often viewed by youths as an easy and quick way of earning an income. Other ventures are often determined by the nature of the town. For instance Bindura is reach in minerals and agriculture is also historically viable here.

An official from Activista said:

Sadly without much institutional and physical infrastructure most youths resort to vending, many of them informally too as they cannot afford the licences and permits to formalize. Unfortunately this means that the youths do not earn enough to afford all their basic needs and sustain their business ventures or grow into big enterprises.

The study established therefore that the common business ventures that are engaged in by the Bindura Youth are mostly vending, mining and agriculture. The study also determined however that the youths of Bindura Urban also engage in welding, carpentry, cross border trade. This finding is similar to that of Chiki (2016) who suggests that because of the lack of financial and other resources the youth therefore do not make
informed consideration of the entrepreneurship ventures to pursue hence end up entering sectors that do not provide much income such as vending, small scale informal mining, and small scale farming that is not supported by such amenities as irrigation.

4.7 Factors influencing the choice of business

![Pie chart showing factors influencing the youth to choose such business areas]

According to Figure 4.7 above, 54% of the respondents cited lower start-up finance required, 20% cited easiness to manage, 16% cited no technical skills required to manage and 10% cited minimum government regulations. This seems to imply that most of the youth chose entrepreneurial projects which needed low start-up financing. This clearly demonstrates that the youth did not have the requisite finance to start bigger projects hence they used the little they could find to start small projects which they sought to grow slowly into bigger projects. The respondents suggested that because of limited resources, the decision for engaging in a particular business venture is often determined by ease of entry rather than consideration of other more sound factors such as customer base, baseline knowledge, opportunities for growth or institutional and physical infrastructure. The respondents suggested that access to some trades and markets is significantly easier than others therefore most youths chose those ventures which are often the least rewarding. An official from the Ministry of Youth was quoted as saying:

*It often is a negative occurrence that youth are driven to some trades because of limited capital and technical requirements as most of those ventures, such as vending and informal mining are often not rewarding. They may provide just enough for the youths to get by but not much more and provide limited opportunities for growth.*
An official from the Organ on National Healing and Reconciliation had this to say:

*Sadly there is a situation where the venturing of most youths into entrepreneurship especially small to medium and informal trade is the least they can do to not completely resign to the poverty and unemployment besieging the country. There is a mindset that it is better than sitting on one’s laurels yet because of limited finances, the ventures they engage in are not rewarding.*

An official from Activista said:

*The tendency to venture into a trade with minimal government regulation exposes the youths to many risks especially in the mining sector where safety and health regulations are necessary. Because the youths cannot afford the infrastructure and equipment for safe mining there are often incidents of young miners being collapsed on and dying in mine shafts.*

The study established therefore that the factors affecting choice of entrepreneurial venture for most youths of Bindura Urban are lower start-up finance required, easiness to manage, no technical skills required to manage and minimum government regulations. The study determined as well however that these factors often cause the youths of Bindura Urban to venture into business enterprises that are neither rewarding nor safe. This finding is similar to the views of Rwigema and Venter (2014), and Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2015) who suggested that since every business needs resources to function and operate successfully, the nature of financial resources, physical assets, human resources and technological resources tend to determine the amount of youth that venture into entrepreneurship and which sectors they delve into.
4.8 Entrepreneurial responses to youth entrepreneurship

Table 4.11. Entrepreneurial responses to youth entrepreneurship N=50

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Government efforts</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Youth Policy</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availing affordable finance for youth projects</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational Training Centres</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enacting of gender policies eliminating gender discrimination</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reserving quotas for youth in economic sectors</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 4.11 above, 8 (16%) of the respondents indicated that Government had put in place the National Youth Policy, 5 (10%) indicated that government was providing affordable finance through youth loans, 26 (52%) indicated that government was equipping critical knowledge skills through Vocational Training Centres, 4 (8%) indicated that gender policies promoting equality and equity had been put in place and 7 (14%) indicated that some economic quotas were being reserved for the youths. The majority of the youths who took part in the study seemed to view the existence of vocational training centres as a major step in the promotion of youth entrepreneurship. This fact is supported by the majority of 52% of the participants who expressed this view. These views by questionnaire respondents were also supported by the key informants. An official from the Ministry of Youth said:

*While on paper it would appear that reserving quotas for youth representation or participation in most sectors would be a leading factor in improving the prospects of young entrepreneurs, this has not been as effective as vocational centers have been in influencing youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban.*

An official from Activista was quoted as saying:

*In terms of actual steps to lure more youths into entrepreneurship, a plethora of government policies are merely ceremonial. For instance the gender laws, youth quota policies are to an extent useful but pale in comparison to the availing of capital and
establishment of vocational centers which the youths can physically utilise in advancing their business ventures.

An official from the Organ on National Healing and Reconciliation had this to say:

*People, in this case youths, often appreciate the deliverables that they can see and experience. So the youth obviously appreciate the vocational training centers and the funding availed to them because they have experienced it. While regulatory laws have also been helpful to youth entrepreneurship, without such direct resources as skills and capital they would be meaningless.*

The study determined therefore that Vocational Training Centers are the most popular response to entrepreneurial needs of the youth in Bindura Urban. However it was also established that the youth also recognise the National Youth Policy (NYP), availing affordable finance for youth projects, enacting of gender policies eliminating gender discrimination and reserving quotas for youth in economic sectors as important and helpful responses as well. These responses are similar to those suggested by UNESCO (2016) which also emphasizes the role of TVETs as institutions that should be established to provide training and education for youth entrepreneurs in order to foster cross-sector-collaboration. Furthermore as literature showed Evans and Leighton (1989) posit that African governments must establish TVETs and other institutions that constantly and continuously equip young entrepreneurs with skills, education and knowledge to navigate the entrepreneurial world.

### 4.9 Effectiveness of government efforts to promote youth entrepreneurship

![Figure 4.8: Effectiveness of government efforts to promote youth entrepreneurship](chart.png)

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According to Figure 4.8 above, 4 (8%) strongly agreed, 10 (20%) agreed, 15 (30%) disagreed and 21 (42%) strongly disagreed. This shows that the majority of the respondents strongly disagreed that the measures being made were effective in promoting youth entrepreneurship as evidenced by the majority of 42% who expressed this notion. It can therefore be inferred that the most youth actually expected more to be done in order for them to become entrepreneurs. The respondents suggested that while national policy theoretically facilitated the promotion of youth entrepreneurship, the implementation of that policy was inadequate and ineffective. The respondents suggested that the provision of funding for projects for instance was hampered by the cash crisis, inflation and limited foreign currency. The respondents also suggested that most of the vocational centers that government established were understaffed and lacked the capacity to train most of the youths in the town of Bindura. Furthermore the respondents suggested that most of government efforts were also not supported by expedient establishment of institutional and physical infrastructure to facilitate vibrant entrepreneurship. An official from the Organ on National Healing and Reconciliation had this to say:

*Most youth feel aggrieved that even when government makes an effort to avail funding for entrepreneurial projects that funding is eroded by inflation or curtailed by the inability of the youths to convert that funding to foreign currency necessary to import material, merchandise and equipment necessary in their ventures.*

An official from the Ministry of Youth was quoted to say:

*Youths rightly feel that government has not done enough to create an environment where entrepreneurship can thrive because addressing youth entrepreneurship requires a holistic approach where all the aspects of the economy are addressed. Unfortunately arresting inflation, cash crisis, foreign currency availability, physical infrastructure development all require time and at present it would appear that little has been achieved in that regard.*

An official from Activista who echoed the other key informants said:

*The small steps taken by government are often eroded by overwhelming macroeconomic challenges and governance failures that manifest in crippling bureaucracy, political*
polarization and inefficiency. While the youth are sometimes supported with finances they have no access to markets. Some youths for instance would have wanted to be cross border traders but at present moment the immigration department is failing to issue passports.

The study established therefore that the youths of Bindura Urban mostly feel that the responses to the challenges facing young entrepreneurs have not been effectively implemented. This is a failure in establishing the necessary requisites cited by Kenneth (2015) who suggested that because of government failure the vast amount of youth entrepreneurs are in the informal sector that provides neither decent work nor decent income and generally referred to as vulnerable employment where they are exposed to economic shocks and such ills as fraud, theft and poor safety and health standards. This required a major review of the existing measures in view of dealing with the realities of the matter as it practically impacted on the youths.

4.10 Strategies for increasing youth entrepreneurship

Table 4.12: Strategies for increasing youth entrepreneurship N=50

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provision of entrepreneurial education and training</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of start-up finance</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting gender equity and equality</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 4.12 above, 25 (50%) of the respondents suggested the provision of entrepreneurial education and training to youths, 15 (30%) suggested the provision of start-up finance for youth projects and 10 (20%) suggested the promotion of gender equity and equality would be viable strategies with which to boost youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban. This shows that most of the youths who participated in the study held the notion that the provision of entrepreneurship knowledge and skills would go a long way in promoting youth entrepreneurship. The respondents suggested that a lot of the youth often do not earn as much as they could because they lack the knowledge, skill and entrepreneurial acumen with which to exploit the various local markets available to them.
The respondents suggested that a lack of entrepreneurial education and training affected the choice of business and its management. According to the respondents due to a lack of knowledge and training most of the youth remained in informal and sometimes illegal ventures. The respondents also suggested that a provision of startup finance would also considerably help the youth to engage in viable entrepreneurship ventures. The respondents suggested that the disbursement of funding would have to be done in a sustainable manner that protected young entrepreneurs from inflation and cash challenges. The respondents also suggested that continued and more vigorous efforts at promoting gender equality and equity would go a long way in assisting youth entrepreneurship to thrive. An official from the Ministry of Youth said:

*Training and capital injection are the two investment drivers that could help youth entrepreneurship more than any other in the short to medium term. If the youth are taught how to turn a profit and provided with the capital to invest in their desired businesses they could contribute to infrastructure development and formalization of informal ventures.*

An official from Activista had this to say:

*Financial and policy provisions are necessary if youth entrepreneurship is going to thrive to the point of being effectively utilised as a conflict resolution tool.*

The study established therefore that the Bindura Urban youth perceive the provision of entrepreneurial education and training, the provision of start-up finance and the promoting gender equity and equality as the foremost strategies with which to boost youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban. This is relatable to the views of Athayde (2004) who posits that entrepreneurship education taught to young learners helps to inspire them to become entrepreneurs and often eventually assists their enterprises to perform well and be sustainable as well as vibrant.

### 4.11 Analysis of information from Focus Group Discussions

The focus group discussion provided data that was similar to that of questionnaire and interview respondents. Participants in the focus group discussion suggested that the youth in Bindura are beset with numerous financial challenges when they attempt to enter the
entrepreneurial sector. Just like the questionnaire and interview respondents the focus group participants generally agreed that access to capital for start-ups was among the major stumbling blocks to the prosperity and sustainability of youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban. A participant said:

*There is no capital. Too many of the youths are educated and unemployed. They have big ideas of the kind of income generating venture they could pursue that all that is destroyed by a severe lack of capital with which to cover operational costs and merchandise for the businesses. The banks only prefer already established ventures which offer collateral since this economy is unstable and funding someone without collateral is extremely risky.*

The focus group participants also suggested that youths are generally looked down upon possibly due to socio-cultural values that ascribe respect to older generations and consider the youths more as labour rather than employers and business owners. Just like the questionnaire and interview respondents the focus group participants suggested that young entrepreneurs were not taken seriously even when they brought forward innovative business ideas.

*There is a combination of fear, envy and scepticism by the older generation and financial institutions which causes them not to provide adequate support to budding SMEs and young start-businesses. Furthermore our families do not have the patience nor understanding that allows us time and moral support to pursue business they’d rather we sought formal employment.*

Similar to questionnaire respondents and interview respondents again, the focus group members identified the establishment of vocational training centers as one of the government and private sector’s response to the challenges faced by youths in Bindura in engaging in entrepreneurship. The participants also suggested that some funding had been availed through the Ministry of Youth. However a lot of other participants were unaware of the funding availed through the Youth Fund which also indicated a lack of access to information as one of the challenges to youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban. One of the participants said:
The government has from time to time established vocational training centres and some youths have been privy to information regarding a Youth Fund availed through the Ministry of Youth. However as with many of central government’s initiatives a lot of their efforts are either inadequate of poorly implemented. The vocational training centres in Bindura teach such skills as carpentry, poultry or welding and building that do not provide a lot of income in the world. A lot of the youths are looking into information technology. Furthermore some of the funding that has been provided has not reached the youths and there appears to be political meddling in the Youth Fund disbursement.

The youths too like with the questionnaire and interview respondents suggested that responses by government and the private sector to the challenges of youth entrepreneurship have been inadequate. They have not been successful at pacifying perceptions of social injustices and therefore youth entrepreneurship has not contributed much to conflict transformation. The focus group participants suggested that the same youth related challenges still persist and have not been addressed by youth entrepreneurship. One of the participants said:

Youths have not been able to extricate themselves from economic deprivation and therefore still suffer from inadequate food and nutrition, poor health and limited access to health facilities and cannot afford rentals to live on their own or construct their own homes. There exists ill feeling that is simmering among youth towards the government and from time to time it boils over into protests, crime and other forms of deviancy and aggression.

The focus group participants also felt that the government had woefully failed to utilise youth entrepreneurship as a conduit for conflict transformation as there has not been development of institutions and physical infrastructure to sustain youth entrepreneurship despite the existence of policy calling for the same. The youths still feel socially, economically and politically excluded. One of the participants said:

Well supported entrepreneurship facilitated by the establishment of lasting institutional and physical infrastructure would have immensely contributed to the youths being included in nation building which would in turn have influenced a significant reduction
in discrimination based on gender, disability and social class. Robust institutions would have recognised that among us as youths we are not a homogenous group but are further characterized by diversity in gender, capabilities, physical ability and religious well as political ideology. The disparities that therefore persist among us and between us and other generations are a constant source of conflict and dissent.

The focus group participants offered up solutions that would help boost youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban that were quite similar to those of questionnaire and interviews respondents. The participants basically suggested that addressing the challenges directly was the best way of solving them. The respondents suggested that youth funding should not be an afterthought but part of the budgetary provisions of the Ministry of Finance allocated to the annual budget of the Ministry of Youth. The participants also suggested that entrepreneurship must be a subject taught in Primary and secondary school and a course in all disciplines in college to insure that the youths have more than just basic education on how to generate income and manage a business.

Overall, the findings of the FGDs confirmed the gap in entrepreneurial skills and training programs to be an important hindrance for youth business start-ups, alongside the lack of the initial capital.

4.12 Summary

In this chapter, data gathered through questionnaires and focus group discussions was presented through tables, pie charts and bar graphs. In order to derive findings and conclusions from it, the data was analysed and then interpreted. The next chapter focused on a summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
The previous chapter focused on data presentation, analysis and interpretation. This chapter summarizes the study. The summary provides a brief description of the research chapters and key findings. The chapter then provides a comprehensive list of conclusions that the study arrived at from an analysis of the findings. Subsequently, the chapter proffers recommendations that if implemented may enhance the utilization of entrepreneurship as a conflict transformation tool for the youth not only in Bindura Urban but in other places as well. An area for further research is also identified and recommended in the chapter.

5.2 Summary
The first chapter being introductory in nature outlined the background to the study, and the reasons for conducting the research. It also highlighted the possible problems the researcher would likely meet. Some terminologies used in this research were also defined. The body of the chapter was made up of Statement of the Problem, Purpose of the Study, Limitations, and Delimitations of the study and definition of key terms. The second chapter concentrated on the review of literature related to the study. The definition and description of key concepts was dealt with under conceptual framework, theories in support of the youth entrepreneurship were articulated under theoretical framework and researches by other researchers were dealt with under empirical review. The third chapter focused on the research methodology taking note of the instruments and techniques used by the research to get factual data that is relevant for the subject study. Important issues such as research design, research instruments, population and sampling useful in data collection were dealt with. The fourth chapter, data gathered through questionnaires and focus group discussions was presented through tables, pie charts and bar graphs. In order to derive findings and conclusions from it, the data was analysed and then interpreted. This fifth chapter focuses on the conclusions, recommendations and areas for future study.
Administered instruments on respondents had the following major findings; The majority of the respondents were females meaning that the youth in the district were female-dominated and most of them were between 25-30 years of age. It was also found out that majority of the respondents attained at least ‘O’ Level and they had a better understanding on the issue of youth entrepreneurship and its role in conflict transformation. The first objective intended to ascertain the nature and extent of economic challenges which the youth faced. The study found out that majority of the respondents expressed the view that lack of employment was the major challenge they faced. It was also found that some youths were crossing borders to other countries in search of greener pastures and better opportunities for employment and raising funds to start income generating projects. The availability of Vocational Training Centres provided an opportunity for youth to become entrepreneurs through skills training. However, youth faced numerous other challenges which needed to be overcome, hence only a few with the necessary resources were embarking on entrepreneurship mostly in the vending of various types of merchandise.

Another objective of the study sought to establish the youth entrepreneurship responses that had been set up and activated by the government and other key stakeholders. The study found that a number of initiatives had been put in place which included the National youth policy, setting up of vocational training centres, provision of youth loans, enactment of gender sensitive legislation and others. However, this study established that most youth viewed the existence of Vocational Training Centres as valuable initiative that should drive the youth entrepreneurship agenda forward through equipping youth with knowledge and skills required. The study asked participants to suggest ways by which youth entrepreneurship could be increased. The study made a finding that youth entrepreneurship could be increased if deliberate effort was made to set-up more Vocational Training Centres so as to provide more opportunities for youth to gain critical knowledge and skills in profitably and sustainably running income generating projects.

5.3 Conclusions
The study made the following conclusions;
The study concluded that youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban is beset with an array of challenges that weaken its ability to be a tool for conflict transformation. This was similar to the views of the African Union (2011). The study established that these challenges had an economic and socio-cultural dimension. Among the economic factors a lack of funding was found to be a significant hindrance to the launching of vibrant entrepreneurial ventures that would extricate the youth in Bindura from socio-economic deprivation. This was relatable to the views of Draut (2016). As such most youths have resorted to unrewarding trades such as vending because they require relatively limited financial and material resources to enter. The study concluded that while a lack of financial support stood out, a lack of access to work space, reliance on simple tools and equipment and less extensive network of contacts were also challenges faced by youth entrepreneurs. This was the same as discovered in literature and suggested by Listerri et al (2016). The study determined that chief among the socio-cultural challenges was a lack of entrepreneurial skills. The study found that a lack of entrepreneurial skills affected the choice of business and its management which was often to the detriment of the venture.

While a lack of entrepreneurial skills stood out, it was also discovered however that negative attitudes towards youth entrepreneurship, fear of obstacles and hurdles and socio-economic segregation and discrimination were also socio-cultural challenges faced by the youth in entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban. This is similar to that which was echoed by Kureya (2018). The summative effect of all these challenges youth entrepreneurship as conflict transformation was that the resultant business failures, limited income and frustration retained the societal conflict inflicted by youth unemployment and poverty. Citizen dissent, family discord, political polarization and illegal ventures appear to have been exacerbated by the failures of youth entrepreneurship to ease the socio-economic hardships of youths and their families. This is relatable to what was discovered in literature, posited by Schoof (2016). The study concluded as well that in response to the challenges faced by the youth in entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban there have been some measures taken by central government, local authorities and private players. The most prominent of these measures was found to be the establishment of vocational training centers that equipped the Bindura Urban Youth with the skills to earn a living through the craft of their own hands. While the establishment of vocational
centers stood out the availing affordable finance for youth projects, the enactment of
gender policies eliminating gender discrimination and reserving quotas for youth in
economic sectors were also found to be significant responses that have attempted to
address the challenges in youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban. This was similar to
the views of Llisterri et al (2016). However it was also determined that these responses
have not been effective and efficient in delivering the desired solutions to challenges
hindering the vibrancy of youth entrepreneurship and its ability to forestall conflict
transformation in Bindura Urban. This was similar to the views of Dickson et al. (2008).
Political polarization, along bureaucratic channel, inflation, cash crisis, unavailability of
foreign currency, limited capacities of vocational training centers were cited as
significant hindrances to the effectiveness of the responses to the challenges faced in
youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban.

The study also concluded that there are three primary strategies that could be deployed to
boost youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban and increase its capacity for conflict
transformation. This tallies with the views of Chiki (2016). The study determined that the
 provision of entrepreneurial education and training would be a significant way of
boosting youth entrepreneurship in Bindura Urban as most youths flounder due to a lack
of astuteness with which to navigate the macro-economic shocks in the Zimbabwean
economy, fail to choose an appropriate business venture and fail to make strategic
partnerships with established ventures. The study also established that while the provision
of entrepreneurial education and training stood out, the provision of start-up finance and
the promoting gender equity and equality are also potent strategies with which youth
entrepreneurship could be boosted in Bindura Urban. This was similar to the views of
Schoof (2016). The study established that the growth and flourishing of youth
entrepreneurship through the implementation of these strategies would help in conflict
transformation by limiting socioeconomic deprivation and exclusion by increasing access
to basic goods and services for the youth, young women and the disabled youth. This
was relatable to the views of Chiki (2016). Vibrant and thriving youth entrepreneurship
would also help maintain law and order as more ventures would formalize and fewer
youths would resort to crime. With a significantly improved income there would be less
political polarization and enmity between the government and disgruntled youths.
5.4 **Recommendations**

In view of the findings and conclusions made, the study recommends that:

i. More private and public lending facilities be availed to youth to enable them to invest in their business ventures;

ii. That the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development addresses macroeconomic conditions such as inflation that hinder youth entrepreneurship;

iii. That entrepreneurship be a subject taught in schools so as to engender an entrepreneurial mindset in all youths;

iv. That youth entrepreneurship be streamlined into the discourse for national healing and reconciliation.

v. That socio-cultural factors that inhibit the thriving of youth entrepreneurship be deconstructed.

vi. That government initiatives to fund and facilitate youth entrepreneurship be depoliticised and open to everyone regardless to political affiliation.

vii. That the peace and reconciliation commission identify and promote the conflict transformation attributes of youth entrepreneurship as part of its mandate.

viii. That initiatives to facilitate youth entrepreneurship be decentralised to insure equal access to information and resources by youths in periphery towns as well.

5.6 **Areas for future study**

This study analysed youth entrepreneurship as conflict transformation. Other researchers are encouraged to focus on the following area:- A comparative study of youth entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe and other countries within the SADC region so as to gain greater insight into the regional perspective of the problem. This study would focus on similarities and differences of the challenges and opportunities for youth entrepreneurship in urban areas. It would also incorporate a gender perspective of youth entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe and other African countries so as to identify inclusive solutions to challenges..
References


Annum, A. (2014). Guidelines to Authentic Qualitative and Quantitative Research in Social Science. Athens. UPPI.


OECD. (2001). Youth Entrepreneurship: Challenges and Opportunities. OECD.


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Appendix ‘A’

Research Questionnaire

The researcher Tendai Jaji is a student at the Bindura University of Science Education where he is studying towards a Master of Science Degree in Peace and Governance. In fulfillment of the requirements of this academic study programme, he is carrying out a field research study which has the following title:-

Entrepreneurship as a Conflict Transformation Tool For Youth in Bindura Urban of Zimbabwe.

As a key stakeholder and participants in this research study, you are kindly requested to assist by filling in this questionnaire. All the information that you will provide will be kept in strict confidence and will be used solely for the purpose of this research study. Please take note of the instructions below.

Instructions

- Answer all questions.
- Indicate your answer by placing a tick inside the brackets or by writing in the answer spaces provided.
- Do not write your name, signature or other particulars anywhere in this questionnaire.
- Return this questionnaire to the researcher after completion.

SECTION ‘A’ – PERSONAL DETAILS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

1.0 What is your sex? Male [ ]
             Female [ ]

2.0 What is your age? 18-24years [ ]
                      25-30years [ ]
3.0 What is your highest academic qualification?

- Degree [ ]
- Diploma [ ]
- Certificate [ ]
- A-Level [ ]
- O-Level [ ]
- Uneducated [ ]

4.0 Where did you get the idea of becoming an entrepreneur?

- Observing parents and family members [ ]
- Through friends [ ]
- Through social media [ ]
- Self [ ]

5.0 What motivated you to become an entrepreneur?

- The need to become my own boss [ ]
- To make money and become financially independent [ ]
- To create money and build wealth [ ]
- Because I could not find paid work [ ]

SECTION ‘B’ CHALLENGES BEING FACED BY THE YOUTH IN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

6.0 What are the economic challenges that youths face in your area?

- Lack access to finance [ ]
Lack of start-up funding for projects

Lack of access to work space

Reliance on simple tools and equipment

Less extensive network of contacts

7.0 What socio-cultural factors are inhibiting youth entrepreneurship?

Lack of entrepreneurial skills

Negative attitudes towards youth entrepreneurship

Fear of obstacles and hurdles

Socio-economic segregation

Society expecting youths to get a job

8.0 How have these challenges affected youth entrepreneurship?

Business projects have tended to struggle

Innovation has led to growth of projects

Business projects have folded up

Businesses grew slowly

SECTION ‘C’ ENTREPRENEURSHIP RESPONSES BY THE YOUTHS

9.0 What factors support the entry of youth into entrepreneurship in your area?

Availability of vocational training institutions

Availability of funding systems for youth entrepreneurship
Rapid urbanization and development [ ]
Demand for products and services [ ]

10.0 In what areas of business have most youths ventured into?

Farming [ ]
Mining [ ]
Vending [ ]
Cross border trade [ ]
Manufacturing [ ]

11.0 What could be influencing the youth to choose such business areas?

Lower start-up finance required [ ]
Easy to manage and run once started [ ]
No technical skill and knowledge required [ ]
Little or no government regulations [ ]

SECTION ‘D’ EFFECTIVENESS OF MEASURES PUT IN PLACE TO ADDRESS THE CHALLENGES FACED BY YOUTH ENTREPRENEURS

12. What measures have been put in place by the authorities in order to encourage the entry and participation of youth in entrepreneurship activities in your area?

Availing funds for youth entrepreneurship [ ]
Providing training services for youth entrepreneurs [ ]
Enacting laws and policies encouraging youth entrepreneurship [ ]
Removing gender discrimination in the economy [ ]
Reserving economic quotas for youth entrepreneurs in all economic sectors [ ]

13. To what extent would you agree that these measures have been effective in stimulating and sustain youth participation in entrepreneurial activities in your area?

Very strongly agree [ ]

Strong agree [ ]

Agree [ ]

Disagree [ ]

Strongly disagree [ ]

14. What needs to be done in order to increase youth entrepreneurship in your area?

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Thank you participating in this field research study by completing this questionnaire. You can use the space below to write any information which you think will help in this research study.

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Thank You
Appendix ‘B’-

Interview Guide

1.0 What economic challenges are being faced by youths who live in Bindura?
2.0 What opportunities are available in Bindura for youths who wish to venture into business?
3.0 What challenges are youths facing which are making it difficult for them to start their own business?
4.0 What are the consequences of lack of economic opportunities for the youths in your area?
5.0 How are the youths reacting to the challenges they encounter as they try to deal with the economic challenges they face?
6.0 What factors support youth entrepreneurship in your area?
7.0 In what business projects are most youths venturing into?
8.0 What could be the factors that are prompting the youths to prefer this area of business area?
9.0 What measures have been put in place in order to curb the economic challenges facing the youth in your area?
10.0 How effective are these measures?

11. What needs to be done in order to help the youths to venture into entrepreneurship in your area?