

**FACTORS INFLUENCING YOUTH TO ENGAGE IN CONFLICT IN  
GARRISSA MUNICIPALITY, KENYA**

**By  
Muhumed Muktar Abdille**

**A Research Project Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the  
award of Degree of Master of Arts in Project Planning and Management of the  
University of Nairobi**

**2013**

## DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been presented for any award of a degree in any other university.

---

Muhumed Muktar Abdille

L50/60140/2013

---

Date

This research project has been submitted for examination with my approval as university supervisor

---

Signature

Dr. Ndunge Kyalo

Senior Lecturer

Department of Extra Mural

University of Nairobi

---

Date

## **DEDICATION**

This work was made possible with the support of Allah (S.W.T). I dedicate this work to my family and friends who were always with me and supported me during the period of this research. Special thanks to my father and mother who have been available at all times for my entire education process. Special thanks also go to my dear wife who has been patient with me during the entire period of this work.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I extend my most sincere thanks to my supervisor, Dr. Ndunge Kyalo whose guidance was crucial during the development of this work. I also want to thank my family members and friends who encouraged, supported and stood by me in this endeavor. May Allah (S.W.T) bless them.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Cover pages.....	i
Declaration .....	ii
Dedication.....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Table of contents.....	v
List of figures.....	ix
List of tables .....	x
Abbreviations and acronyms.....	xii
Abstract.....	xiii

### CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the problem.....	6
1.3 Purpose of the study.....	7
1.4 Objectives of the study .....	7
1.5 Research questions.....	8
1.6 Significance of the study.....	9
1.7 Limitations of the study.....	9
1.8 Delimitations of the study.....	10
1.9 Assumptions of the study.....	10
1.10 Definitions of significant terms.....	11
1.11 Organisation of the study.....	11

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

2.1 Introduction.....	13
2.2 Concept of youth conflict.....	13
2.3 Factors influencing youth engagement in conflict. ....	16
2.4 Influence of education system on youth engagement in conflict.....	16
2.4.1 Access to education. ....	17
2.4.2 Equity in education.....	18
2.4.3 Quality of education.....	19
2.4.4 Poor organisation of learning institutions.....	19
2.5 Influence of accessibility to weapons on youth engagement in conflict.....	20
2.6 Influence of cultural and social norms on youth engagement in conflict.....	21
2.7 Influence of political risk factors on youth engagement in conflict.....	24
2.7.1 Corruption and poor governance.....	25
2.7.2 Use of youth in political mobilization and violence. ....	27
2.7.3 Lack of youth participation in democratic processes ....	28
2.8 Influence of economic risk factors on youth engagement in conflict.....	30
2.8.1 Unequal distribution of/access to resources.....	33
2.9 Theoretical framework.....	34
2.10 Conceptual framework.....	36
2.10 Summary of literature review and research gaps.....	37

### **CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

3.1 Introduction.....	39
3.2 Research design .....	39
3.3 Target population.. .....	40
3.4 Sample size and sampling techniques.....	40
3.5 Data collection instruments.....	41
3.6 Validity of the instruments.....	41
3.7 Reliability of the instruments.....	42
3.8 Data collection procedure .....	43
3.9 Data analysis techniques.....	43
3.10 Operational Definition of Variables.....	44

### **CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION**

4.1 Introduction.....	45
4.2 Response rate.....	45
4.3 Demographic data of the respondents.....	45
4.3.1 Demographic information of the youth officials.....	45
4.2.1 Demographic information of the youth.....	48
4.4 Influence of education system contributes to youth conflict .....	50
4.5 Influence of accessibility to weapons on youth conflict... ..	54
4.6 Influence of cultural and social norms on youth conflict .....	57
4.7 Influence of political risk factors on youth conflict.....	59
4.8 Influence of economic related risk factors to youth conflict.....	61

**CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS  
AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

5.1 Introduction... ..65

5.2 Summary of findings.....65

5.3 Conclusions of the study.....69

5.4 Recommendations .....70

5.5 Suggestions for further research.....71

References.....73

Appendices.....78

Appendix I: Letter of Transmittal.....78

Appendix II: Questionnaire for the Officials.....79

Appendix III: Questionnaire for the Youth.....85



## FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework.....	36
--------------------------------------	----

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Gender of the youth officials.....	46
Table 4.2 Age of the youth officials.....	46
Table 4.3 Youth officials' highest level academic qualifications..	47
Table 4.4 Distribution of the youth officials according to years they had been in the organization .....	47
Table 4.5 Distribution of the youth according to gender.....	48
Table 4.6 Distribution of the youth according to age.....	48
Table 4.7 Youth highest level of education.....	49
Table 4.8 Youths duration in the organization.....	50
Table 4.9 Youths rate of the level of education of the youth in Garissa.....	51
Table 4.10 Youths officials rate on the level of education of the youth in Garissa.....	51
Table 4.11 Youth rate on the accessibility of education by youth in Garissa.....	52
Table 4.12 Youth responses on the influence of education system contributes to youth conflict.....	53
Table 4.13 Youth officials responses on the influence of education system contributes to youth conflict.....	53
Table 4.14 Youth official rare of the accessibility of weapons in Garissa.....	54
Table 4.15 Youth responses on the influence of accessibility to weapons on youth conflict.....	55
Table 4.16 Youth officials' responses on the influence of accessibility to weapons on youth conflict.....	55
Table 4.17 Youth rate of the level of armed conflict in Garissa. ....	56

Table 4.18 Youth officials responses on whether they experienced conflict as a result of different cultural orientation.....	57
Table 4.19 Youth rate on the contribution of culture to youth conflict.....	58
Table 4.20 Youth officials' rate on the contribution of culture to youth conflict.....	58
Table 4.21 Youth responses on whether youth Garissa were involved in political conflict.....	59
Table 4.22 Youth rate on the contribution of politics to youth conflict.....	60
Table 4.23 Youth officials' rate on the contribution of politics to youth conflict.....	60
Table 4.24 Youth rate on the involvement of youth in the post election violence I n 2007/2008.....	61
Table 4.25 Youth responses on whether unemployment lead to youth conflict.....	62
Table 4.26 Youth responses on whether youth were endowed with resources to establish their own businesses.....	62
Table 4.27 Youth officials' rate on the number of youth who have engaged themselves in income generating activities.....	63
Table 4.28 Youth rate on the number of youth who have engaged themselves in income generating activities.....	63

## **ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

CNDD	Council for the National Defense of Democracy
FDD	Forces for the Defense of Democracy
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HIV/AIDS	Human immunodeficiency Virus Infection / Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
NGO	Non Governmental Organization
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNYF	United Nations of Youth Foundation
USAID	United States AID

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to investigate factors influencing youth to engage in conflict in Garissa municipality, Kenya. Five research objectives were formulated to guide the study. The research design used in this study was descriptive survey, which is a method of collecting data by interviewing or administering a questionnaire to sampled individuals. The sample of the study comprised of 25 youth group administration and 105 youth groups members. Data in the study were collected using questionnaires while data was analyzed by use of qualitative and quantitative techniques. Findings revealed that education system influenced youth conflict. Findings also revealed that inequity in access of education, the unsuitability of education to the job market, lack of technical skills, poor organization of educational institutions and exposure to violence within the learning institutions posed a risk for youth violence. Findings further indicated that accessibility to weapons influenced youth conflict. The study also revealed that cultural and social norms influenced youth conflict. It was further revealed that political risk factors influenced youth conflict. Youth indicated that politics contributed at a high rate to youth conflict. Findings also indicated that economic related risk factors influenced youth conflict. Based on the findings, it was concluded that youths rated the level of education of the youth in Garissa as low. Youth engaged themselves in conflict because of lack of education. The study also concluded that accessibility to weapons influenced youth conflict. Youth respondents for example indicated that youth in Garissa accessed small arms. The study also concluded that cultural and social norms influenced youth conflict. For example, youth officials indicated that they experienced conflict as a result of different cultural orientation. The study further concluded that political risk factors influenced youth conflict. Youth indicated that politics contributed at a high rate to youth conflict, while youth officials indicated that politics contributed at a very high rate to youth conflict, the same number of youth officials indicated that it contributed at a high rate. The study also concluded that economic related risk factors influenced youth conflict. For example, youth indicated that unemployment of the youth lead to youth conflict. The youth respondents indicated that youth were not endowed with resources to establish their own businesses. The study recommended that Strong vision and leadership are needed to tackle youth employment and participation, at national and county levels. The study therefore recommends that at the national level, a fairly participatory, multi-stakeholder and inclusive process to formulate the National Action Plan for Youth Employment should largely be implemented. The momentum behind this initiative, which provides a potentially valuable platform for policy dialogue and change, needs to be rekindled, with active involvement from government, civil society, the private sector and the donor community. At the county level, generating decent jobs in decent numbers will require strong local economic development planning, and a vision and strategies to attract investment in sectors where there is a competitive advantage, as well as socially responsible business practice.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background of the study**

Young people are rapidly increasing as a percentage of the world's population and in Liberia; youths constitute more than 60% of the population. As a result of its youthful population, the country's already-existing challenges of unemployment, poverty, lack of education and skills, and a history of instability are supposedly likely to be exacerbated. Whether or not they participate directly in armed combat, youth are victimized by widespread violence. The attention of the international community has tended to focus on child soldiers. However, adolescents are far more likely than young children to be forcibly recruited into militias and to suffer the attendant problems of trauma, sexual abuse, and a loss of educational and economic opportunities (Curtain, 2004). Youth is undeniably the most important formidable force and resource a nation can have. Countries are positioned with unprecedented opportunity of being endowed with a large youth capital which needs to be harnessed. Given an opportunity, the youth have proven to be a critical social capital that can contribute significantly to peace and development. They have great potential, dynamism, resourcefulness, resiliency, and aspiration (United Nations, 2008).

Today's youth face different challenges and risks in emergency, transition and post-conflict situations. They are more likely to be used as perpetrators of conflicts or civil

disorders, forced and manipulated in the armed forces, become targets of sexual violence, contract sexually transmitted infections (STIs; including HIV) and other infections and miss out on education opportunities. Adequate support, guidance and access to necessary resources can help youth provide the foundation for rebuilding lives and communities. Empowering youth to act as agents of change in the wake of a crisis, including peace-building, is essential (World Bank (2007a).

Against this background, the presence especially of male youths often gets portrayed as a “conflict risk” that makes the instigation and perpetuation of violence more likely (USAID, 2005).: ‘The dearth of opportunities in their communities often leads them to gravitate towards violent conflict and acts of terrorism ( USAID, 2005). Most recently, econometric research into causes and drivers of conflict has posited that the presence of uneducated and unemployed, mostly male, youths presents a variable that heightens conflict risk Some “youth bulge” theories put it more starkly, predicting that countries with a percentage of 40 percent or more young people of the overall population, combined with other factors, cross a “danger threshold” that makes it 2.5 times more likely that these societies will “tip over” into violence(USAID, 2005).

As a result, conflict resolution theory and practice recognize youths’ central role in conflict situations, either as “drivers of conflict”, or potential “peace constituencies”. Views about young people’s role in conflict situations indeed range from seeing them as largely passive conflict victims, vulnerable to its negative impacts and therefore to be

protected; to grassroots youth and peace activists; and proactive actors perpetuating violence, be it for ideological, psychological, social, or economic reasons (most often a mixture of all these (Seneratne, (2007).

The situation of youth at risk in Africa is acute. While youth in many parts of the world, especially in developing countries, are confronted with severe problems, it is clear that African youth are especially vulnerable. Cities in Africa include some of the world's poorest and most overcrowded urban environments. In many African cities more than 50% of the urban population is under the age of 19. They have been particularly affected by growing urban poverty, high levels of unemployment, changing family patterns, and deteriorating environmental and health conditions over the past twenty years (Weeratunga, 2008).

In Tanzania for example, increased levels of poverty or deteriorating terms of livelihood are central economic factors for youth violence (Africa Commission, 2010). This sometimes forces parents to withdraw their children or youths from school and place them in various incomes generating activities or child labour. Despite the lack of institutional and informal support systems in the wake of a crisis, youth have demonstrated in many occasions that they can be among the first to assist in community assessments, relief work and peace-building efforts. Their direct involvement in these efforts has proven to consistently contribute to create their sense of pride, worth and belonging, empower them as full citizens and mitigate the impact of the crisis for them and others (Brown and David, 2008).



However, today's youth face different challenges and risks in emergency, transition and post-conflict situations. They are more likely to be used as perpetrators of conflicts or civil disorders, forced and manipulated in the armed forces, become targets of sexual violence. Youth conflict refers to harmful behaviors that can start early and continue into young adulthood (Cetin, 2007). The young person can be a victim, an offender, or a witness to the violence. Youth violence includes various behaviors. Some violent acts such as bullying, slapping, or hitting can cause more emotional harm than physical harm. Others, such as robbery and assault (with or without weapons), can lead to serious injury or even death (Elliott, Huizinga, & Menard, 2009).

The impact of youth conflict reaches all sectors of society, placing huge strains on public services and damaging communities. Youth conflict is widespread in the United States (U.S.). It is the second leading cause of death for young people between the ages of 15 and 24.1. In 2010, 4,828 young people aged 10 to 24 were victims of homicide—an average of 13 each day. In 2011, over 707,000 young people aged 10 to 24 years had physical assault injuries treated in U.S. emergency departments (UNESCO, 2004). In the same year, about 33% of high school students reported being in a physical fight in the 12 months before the survey. About 5% of high school students in 2011 reported taking a weapon to school in the 30 days before the survey. Deaths resulting from youth violence are only part of the problem. These injuries can include cuts, bruises, broken bones, and gunshot wounds. Some injuries, like gunshot wounds, can lead to lasting disabilities (UNESCO, 2004).

At risk' youth in urban settings include all those young girls and boys whose living conditions, health and circumstances or behaviors place them at risk of victimization and/or involvement in crime (Amarasuriya, 2007). They include, but are not limited to, youth already in conflict with the law, those living in urban slums, street children, youth gangs, school-drop outs, unemployed youth, substance abusing youth, those who are sexually exploited, war-affected children, and those affected by the pandemic of HIV/AIDS including orphans. These groups include both girls as well as boys. Girls in particular are often targets of sexual exploitation, and heavily affected by HIV/Aids (Ngoi, 1999).

Young people are heavily affected by the absence of sustainable employment. The lack of employment opportunities, even for school and university graduates, decades of war, the recruitment of child soldiers and availability of small arms, and the growth in trafficking of children and young people, have all contributed to the critical situation. Urban crime, largely a youth related phenomenon, has increased rapidly over the past decade. Dakar, Senegal, for example, has seen increases in petty theft, burglary and violence by young people throughout the 1990's to present. Garissa youth have limited education and employment opportunities. There is a high rate of youth unemployment, estimated by some to be as high as 90% which is very likely to cause conflict (Garissa G - Youth Project, 2009).

Garissa youth have few structured opportunities for recreation and healthy socializing. Adults are increasingly concerned about the growing prevalence among youth of

unproductive pursuits including habitual qat (or khat) chewing, viewing pornography on cell- phones, pick-pocketing and petty crime, and pre-marital sex. There are no youth friendly health services in the district. Unemployment is the dominant concern of youth in the municipality. It was mentioned as a priority by each of the fifteen focus groups hosted by the assessment team (Garissa G - Youth Project, 2009). Young women may be less likely to be unemployed than young men, due to a greater willingness to contemplate a variety of income earning occupations. Male secondary school youth seem to be more hampered by attitudinal problems which preclude them, for example, from considering positions in the skilled trades. The presence of the Shabaab and other extremist groups lead to violence among the youth. Further, the marginalization, poverty, and inequality that exists in the Garissa environment; the high rates of youth unemployment; the low quality of Garissa schools; the high school drop-out rate; the lack of formal services or social amenities for youth; delayed marriage for males; and the culture of corruption that emphasizes the need for "connections" to get jobs (Garissa G - Youth Project, 2009).

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

There is now ample and accumulating evidence in developed and developing countries that the conditions under which children and young people grow up are crucial for their mental and physical health, and emotional, social and intellectual development Garissa G

- Youth Project, 2009. A range of common factors influence and shape their lives in all countries. One of the major factors predisposing youth to conflict in the region is the nature of the communities in which young people live. The communities are a source of both risk and protection. The major community related risk factors identified include: diminished economic opportunities, high concentrations of poor residents, high level of family disruption or broken homes, low levels of community participation, socially disorganized neighborhoods and negative attitudes towards young people Garissa G - Youth Project, 2009. Faced with such challenges, the young people therefore turn to conflict or even violence as a way of asserting control over their environment. In Garissa, the presence of Shabaab and other extremist groups forced the youth into violence Garissa G - Youth Project, 2009. This study therefore investigated factors disposing youth to conflict; a case of Garissa municipality.

### **1.3 Purpose of the study**

The purpose of the study was to investigate factors influencing youth to engage in conflict in Garissa municipality.

### **1.4 Objectives of the study**

The study was guided by the following objectives

- i. To determine how education system influences youth to engage in conflict in Garissa municipality

- ii. To assess how accessibility to weapons influences youth to engage in conflict in Garissa municipality
- iii. To assess how cultural and social norms influences youth to engage in conflict in Garissa municipality
- iv. To establish how political risk factors influence youth to engage in conflict in Garissa municipality
- v. To establish how economic related risk factors influence youth to engage in conflict in Garissa municipality

### **1.5 Research questions**

The study was guided by the following research questions

- i. To what extent does the education system influence youth to engage in conflict Garissa municipality?
- ii. To what extent does accessibility to weapons influence youth to engage in conflict in Garissa municipality?
- iii. To what extent do cultural and social norms influence youth to engage in conflict in Garissa municipality?
- iv. To what extent do political risk factors influence youth to engage in conflict in Garissa municipality?

- v. To what extent do economic related risk factors influence youth to engage in conflict in Garissa municipality?

### **1.6 Significance of the study**

The study is significant in a number of ways. First the data obtained from the study is important for the general populace will be able to be informed on the causes of youth violence and hence seek for ways of addressing the issues. The study findings are also important to the school systems which may use the information in putting up educational programs that address issues that predispose youth into conflict and hence address such issued in the school system. The findings are important to organizations dealing with youth in addressing issues that lead youth to conflict. Lastly the study findings may be used by other scholars who may be interested in conducted further studies on youth conflict.

### **1.7 Limitations of the study**

The study may be faced by a number of limitations. First, the study relied on the respondents of the youth themselves. Since youth violence is a sensitive issue, some of the respondents may be reluctant to provide information. However, the researcher urged the respondents during the questionnaire administration to be as sincere as possible and assure that their identities were treated with confidentiality. The study was limited to the issue of that some of the youth were not available. However the researcher worked with organisation dealing with youth so that he could access the youth. Finally, this being a qualitative study, the sample was small and focused on understanding young people's

perceptions, perspectives but also fears when it comes to unemployment and wider societal issues. In that sense, the sample is not broadly representative of youth perceptions across it does aim, however, to provide insights, lessons and points of reflection from these discussions.

### **1.8 Delimitations of the study**

The study was limited to Garissa Municipality and not other municipalities. This is because they had been found to be the most affected by conflict as by the youth. The study focused on the youth and organisations working with the youth. The policy makers who were also stakeholders in the life of the youth were not be involved in the study due to logistics of getting them. The study confined itself to issues of conflict among youth and focused on education system, accessibility to weapons, cultural and social norms, political risk factors and economic related risk factors.

### **1.9 Assumptions of the study**

The following were the assumptions of the study

- i. That the youth provided accurate and truthful information to the researcher.
- ii. That the research instruments elicited the required information
- iii. That respondent cooperated with the researcher.

### **1.10 Definitions of significant terms**

**Accessibility to weapons** refers to easy access to weapons which youth can use and cause conflict

**Conflict** refers to a situation where people are involved in fight or corrosion due to an disagreement on an issue.

**Economic factors** refers to fundamental information that affects youth economic and which leads to youth engage in conflict while in search for money.

**Education system** refers to how the education system is organized and how it prepares youth for responsible life.

**Social cultural factors** are influences derived from the customs, traditions, perceptions and beliefs of an individual's culture and can be a key determinant for youth engagement into conflict.

**Social norms** are the behavioral expectations and cues within a society or group.

### **1.11 Organisation of the study**

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter one presents the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions of the study, significance of the study, limitations of the study, delimitations of the study, basic assumptions of the study, definition of significant terms and the organization of the study.



Chapter two deals with the literature review which is organized into sub-themes and also has a conceptual framework of the study. Chapter three presents the research methodology. This describes the research design, the target population, sampling techniques and sample size, research instruments, instruments' validity, data collection procedure and data analysis techniques. Chapter four presents data obtained from the field, its analysis and interpretations and Chapter five contains the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the review of literature on the factors influencing youth into conflict. The chapter specifically focuses the influence of education system on youth conflict in Garissa municipality, the influence of accessibility to weapons contribute to youth conflict, the influence of cultural and social norms contribute to youth conflict, the influence of political risk factors influence youth conflict and lastly the influence of economic factors on youth conflict in Garissa municipality. The chapter also presents the conceptual framework.

#### **2.2 Concept of youth conflict**

In many developing countries, young people are coming of age in societies that lack stable government, economic growth, or basic material and physical security. In such circumstances, youth often turn away from the authority and ideology of older generations and seek to mobilize their own generation in search of solutions (Sommers, 2010).

Indeed, young people tend to be disproportionately affected by conflict, and are more likely to be represented in the ranks of armed groups as well as state armies than adults' are. Social systems and structures, often seriously eroded by years of violence, are less able to absorb and offer young people meaningful opportunities in life. Indeed, if

marginalization and exclusion of identifiable groups from social, economic and political spheres and opportunities is a root cause of many conflicts, then young people, frequently facing even more severe exclusion on grounds of age and hierarchy, are more likely to be affected: ‘The increased stress and feelings of hopelessness that are indirectly linked to poverty, unemployment, low educational attainment and poor governance constitute part of a global pattern in areas of armed conflict (International Labour Organisation (2008)).

One of the major factors predisposing youth to violence in the region is the nature of the communities in which young people live. The communities are a source of both risk and protection (Hewamanne, 2003). The major community related risk factors identified include: diminished economic opportunities, high concentrations of poor residents, high level of family disruption or broken homes(single parenthood, orphanage ,lack of parenting skills and lack of supportive home environments), low levels of community participation, socially disorganized neighborhoods (alcohol and drug abuse, danger and insecurity) and negative attitudes towards young people. Faced with such challenges, the young people therefore turn to violence as a way of asserting control over their environment (Hewamanne, 2003).

Youth are often a targeted group during conflict. Young people’s participation in armed hostilities is facilitated through the trade of small arms and light weapons. The dearth of opportunities in their communities often leads them to gravitate towards violent conflict and acts of terrorism (UN-Habitat, 2007). Many are successfully mobilized through the ideologies of war. As victims and witnesses, they cannot help but be affected by the grim

realities surrounding them. Traditional prevention mechanisms have proved top-heavy and ineffective in addressing the root causes of conflict and problems leading to the escalation of tensions (UN-Habitat, 2007).

Young people have taken on active roles and created youth networks to try to build peace and prevent outbreaks of violence. As one young Nigerian articulated, “The older generation has failed us, and we cannot continue watching while our future is being mortgaged (USAID, 2009). Defining various field-specific terms will allow a clearer understanding of the material to be presented (Trevor, 1999). Conflict occurs naturally and involves two or more parties with differing interests and perspectives. It takes place at personal levels (between family members and friends and even within oneself) and at formal levels (between politicians, diplomats and businesses) (USAID, 2009). It can also act as a stimulus for addressing complaints. However, if channeled improperly, conflict has the potential to intensify and erupt into violence. The focus of this chapter will be on armed conflict, which is an example of violent conflict. Armed conflict commonly refers to the use of manufactured weapons by different parties against one another, with at least one of the parties being the Government of a State (USAID, 2009).

Urban violence is now becoming more common than in the past, as Africa’s rate of urbanization is the highest in the world. Population is increasing dramatically in urban centres, while the economies of most African countries have been deteriorating thus raising urban unemployment to a very high level. The youth (under 18 yrs) make up more than half the population of African countries. The governments are no longer spending

any money on the social sector – education, hospitals, housing and other urban social services – which have deteriorated dramatically during the last 15 years. These conditions in themselves are sufficient to provoke and sustain major and continuous violence in urban areas throughout Africa. It is a miracle that that level of violence has not been reached (Adebayo, 1999).

### **2.3 Factors influencing youth engagement in conflict**

Young people today encounter greater and more unique challenges than ever before. During a crucial phase of their development, not only are they confronted with the biological and psychological growth processes that characterize youth and adolescence, but they must also grapple with formidable external pressures such as poverty, disease and violence. The eruption of war further compounds the adversities many face. Young people have much at stake, yet they have little say in the policies and activities that pertain to their lives. This section presents some of the factors that predispose youth to conflict (UN-Habitat, 2007).

### **2.4 Influence of education system on youth engagement in conflict**

An analysis of the education system in the region reveals multiple problems in terms of equity in the access to education and quality education which poses a risk for youth violence. The major problems related to the education system include lack of access to education, inequity in access, the unsuitability of education to the job market, lack of

technical skills, poor organization of educational institutions and exposure to violence within the learning institutions (Salim, 1999).

#### **2.4.1 Access to education**

In Kenya, although primary education is free access for many poor parents it is still problematic due to the high hidden costs. There are also geographical and cultural inhibitions in terms of access. Additionally, poverty especially in urban areas limits access. The last post-election violence for example, created a large pool of youth, some of whom are currently not in school. In Burundi; the percentage of children in full time education is low. For example, only 46% complete primary school, 19% end complete junior high school, whereas only 12% complete the second part of secondary school. During the 1993 crisis many youths who were recruited by armed groups abandoned schooling. Education infrastructure was also destroyed. This high level of poverty of parents, combined with strong population growth, hampers educational attainment experienced by young people (Busher, 2008). Every year, the school system produces thousands of young men and women without qualifications, with few possibilities to find jobs. 200 000 children finish primary school every year. About 30 % continue with the secondary school. 70 percent stay down or leave school. 46 percent of children who start primary school terminate the cycle, and only 12 percent finish the secondary level<sup>27</sup>. In Tanzania, only a quarter of adolescents of secondary school-age attend secondary school. More males than females attend secondary school, with youths in urban areas (44%) exceeding those in rural areas (19%). More than a quarter of women in the country have

never had any schooling, compared to a fifth of males (18%).<sup>28</sup> Those youths who have no access to education cannot compete favorably in the job market. A majority of them resort to crime and violence as a means of survival (Busher, 2008).

#### **2.4.2 Equity in education**

There are glaring inequalities in access to education across socio-economic classes and geographical areas in the three countries. For example in Kenya, private schools are very well equipped with well-motivated teachers, followed by national schools, whereas the district schools are poorly equipped and with few teachers. This situation creates a lot of frustration among those who go to poor public schools and feel that they cannot compete favourably with those in better private schools. Young people in communities with low literacy levels also have a high propensity for violence (Africa Commission, 2010). In Kenya, the persistence of armed gangs and cattle rustling in some communities is partly attributed to lack of education.<sup>29</sup> In Tanzania, wealth disparities have a bearing on women's education due to the fact that 7% of females in wealthy households compared to 46% of those in poor households have never attended school. Males are less affected by wealth disparities<sup>30</sup>. More children in urban areas (88%) attend primary school compared to those in rural areas (78%). Children from wealthier households (90%) are more likely to attend primary school than those from poorer households (68%) (Africa Commission, 2010).

### **2.4.3 Quality of education**

One of the major factors contributing to unemployment and consequent violent behavior of youth in the region is the quality of education. In Kenya, for example, critics argue that the curriculum is not suited to the needs of the learners or linked to the labor market, which contributes to growing unemployment. The problem of unemployed educated youth in Third World countries like Kenya is partly caused by the inappropriate education system. The education system in Kenya has been blamed for its failure to impart technical skills to the youth. It is further blamed for encouraging the youth to have unrealistic aspirations that drive them to search exclusively for white collar jobs that match their education level. The case is the same in Burundi, where those completing primary and secondary schools do not have the necessary qualifications required in the job market. Due to their lack of technical skills, the unemployed youth, resort to survival strategies which include crime (Elliott, et al 2009).

### **2.4.4 Poor organisation of learning institutions**

In Kenya the characteristics of both the school organization and specific teacher practices have been shown to increase risk for young peoples' aggression or promote positive behavior. Youth violence in learning institutions in Kenya has partly been blamed on the organization of schools, colleges and universities. For instance, positive student behavior is more likely in schools that encourage student involvement in decision making, focus on excellence, have high quality leadership, and provide clear formal and informal behavior codes that are consistently enforced (Boronia, 2002).



In Burundi, civil strife has contributed to the disorganization of the schooling environment. In Tanzania, weak and/or misguided collaboration between parents and other stakeholders in supporting youth to achieve progress in their academic, economic and social life endeavors causes some youth to drop out of school and gravitate towards social and economic vices. Most schools are poorly prepared to determine how to assist youths who are having problems in school. Instead the recourse is seeking for voluntary response from various stakeholders. For instance most teachers are unable to determine or detect that difficult behavior by youth might be a sign of parental conflicts, physical, verbal or sexual abuse at home (Africa Commission, 2010).

## **2.5 Influence of accessibility to weapons on youth engagement in conflict**

There is convincing evidence that the availability of guns can turn a violent situation lethal.<sup>40</sup> The ease with which young people can access firearms has been associated with youth violence. In Kenya, easy accessibility and availability of fire arms, their relative cheapness and ease of use are factors for young people committing violence. Small arms are widespread among pastoralist communities where police are rare and cattle theft and inter-communal conflict is common<sup>41</sup>. Efforts at disarmament have not been very successful with communities accusing police failure to protect them and justifying the need for guns for self- protection. An Amnesty International report shows how Kenya is one of the countries that has failed to control movement of weapons leading to serious human rights violations (Sundberg, 1999). Murders, violent robberies at gun point and carjacking are common in Nairobi and other major towns<sup>43</sup>. Current

studies indicate that violent crimes such as armed robbery, murder, engage in crime to acquire basic needs. Criminal youth gangs are increasingly becoming a growing phenomenon in the city. The largest proportion of crime in Kenya is committed by youths, and over 50 per cent of convicted prisoners in the country are aged between 16 and 25 years<sup>44</sup>. In Burundi, and DRC the political conflict has meant that young people have access to arms. The access to arms heightens militant and behaviour among the youth and increases crime (Sundberg, 1999).

## **2.6 Influence of cultural and social norms on youth engagement in conflict**

Youth and adolescents who experienced early aggression and a violent childhood are at the highest risk of perpetrating violence. Unaccompanied children are both victims and sources of violence in Africa and Latin America. Studies indicate that uneducated youth and school dropouts are more likely to engage in violence and other behaviours that are detrimental to their health. This is perhaps because they are less secure than their educated peers and feel inferior to or less capable than other members of the community or, in a word, humiliated. Youth and women are often marginalized in decision-making processes. At the local and national levels, they are expected to obey political and religious community leaders. At the international level, they have little say in the formulation and implementation of policies that are meant to protect their interests and well-being during peacetime and wartime. Nonetheless, they must endure the sometimes brutal socioeconomic effects of these decisions, and their long-term needs are left unmet, as in the case of rape victims who do not receive health and counselling services.

Cultural and social norms are highly influential in shaping individual behaviour, including the use of violence. Norms can protect against violence, but they can also support and encourage the use of it. Cultural acceptance of violence, either as a normal method of resolving conflict or as a usual part of rearing a child, is a risk factor for all types of interpersonal violence. Social tolerance of violent behaviour is likely learned in childhood, through the use of corporal punishment or witnessing violence in the family in the media or in other settings<sup>45</sup>. There are many different ways in which cultural and social norms support different types of violence. The most common in the region is gender discrimination (Sundberg, 1999).

For instance, in Kenya, traditional beliefs among some communities hold that men have a right to control or discipline women through physical means, this makes women vulnerable to violence by intimate partners and places women and girls at risk of physical and sexual abuse. Furthermore, adherence to harmful traditional practices such as genital mutilation, early/forced marriages, low value of female children, men's right to assert power over and discipline women, the belief that sex is a man's right in marriage and that sexual activity is a marker of masculinity, the idea that women are the property of men due to dowry payment, among others are all cultural practices in Kenya that may lead to different types of violence.. A report by World Vision which looks into violence among young pastoralists in Northern Kenya, particularly in relation to cattle rustling, identifies specific traditional practices as factors enabling violence. In the report it is claimed that young people follow the advice of their elders, and consequently traditionally steal cows to increase their wealth and secure a bride price or dowry. Some studies in Kenya have

also shown that the patriarchal nature of society expects men to be the bread winners. With increasing poverty, young men resort to crime and violence as a means of meeting this cultural expectation. Young men feel completely inadequate if they cannot take care of their families. This explains partly the increasing cases of violence among young men in Kenya (Elliott, 2009).

In Tanzania, youth is supposedly partly evolving, and partly still bound by the “culture of silence”. Tanzania being a patriarchal dominated society, the opinions and views of most youths are usually undervalued in their families, and the youths themselves are viewed as ineligible for participation in decision making in or outside the home, as well as in the political processes. Gender norms and values also tend to support some forms of domestic violence. According to the 2010 Tanzania Health and Demographic Survey, “*gender based violence occurs in all socio economic and cultural backgrounds*”<sup>49</sup> The socialization of women includes nurturing women and girls into accepting, tolerating and rationalizing domestic violence. This includes them being silent when violence occurs to them or around them (Englert, 2008).

In the DRC, some cultural and social beliefs and ideologies promote violent behaviour as tolerable; these include ancestralism, hegemonic masculinity, and witchcraft beliefs. For example, according to the dominant ideology of ancestralism, old people are considered as those disposing of sagacity, social initiative and the decision-makers on land and community affairs. Young people have difficulty accessing to land and to self-reliance in

rural areas and are inclined to migrate into towns, in order to avoid the harassment and burden of traditions (Government of Kenya, 2010)

## **2.7 Influence of political risk factors on youth engagement in conflict**

Democracy and political stability are closely associated with maintaining peace and preventing the eruption conflict. The demise of countries is linked to the application of non-democratic tactics, which marginalizes groups of people and contributes to the inequitable distribution of resources (Ogachi, 2009). Non-transparent parties withhold or alter information on basic rights to benefit determined leaders, in the process breaching human rights laws. Corruption, extortion and abuse are woven into the fabric of most political systems, signaling State failure. The greatest misappropriations, however, occur in areas in which the Government feels no accountability towards its subjects (United Nations, 2001). Without established social safety nets, the struggle for survival may turn dangerous as people set out on desperate searches for food, risking their lives in the process, as exemplified in Sudan. This type of situation is generally reflected in low standards of living and in both quantitative and qualitative analyses. Signs of State failure and high levels of tension may be seen in indicators such as high mortality and low life expectancy rates, destruction of the environment, and “brain drain” (or capital flight). Some Governments, fearing an intensification of violence, establish formal or informal safety nets to meet the immediate needs of the populace (United Nations, 2001).

Injustice and the lack of transparency in local and national governments create an environment in which corruption, covert markets and crime can take root and flourish.

Youth often receive severe penalties for petty infractions, and no measures exist to challenge inappropriate judicial decisions, resulting in the marginalization of these young people (Hopenhayn, 2001). Mistrust is bred if neither the legal nor the traditional justice system can offer adequate means of settling disputes, making extrajudicial violence easier, as in the case of Colombia, where drug organizations illicitly control some security and justice officials to help protect their business interests (Hopenhayn, 2001).

Social learning processes, especially ideologies and cultural norms, underpin much of the violence. One way oppressive regimes seek to gain advantage is through the media, often controlled or threatened by the dominant political faction. Such regimes use mass communications to spread propaganda and divert attention away from outstanding issues (Hopenhayn, 2001). Leaders use emotional appeals placed within religious, cultural and political contexts—to mobilize people; youth are targeted in particular, as they are more susceptible to ideological messages. Young people are especially vulnerable because they lack the necessary skills to communicate through non-violence (Hopenhayn, 2001). The media also transmit negative models that young people imitate. As studies show in Latin America and West Africa, perpetrators look up to gunfighters as their role models and mimic their behaviour because they can relate to the characters' convictions and portrayed emotions of an outcast.

### **2.7.1 Corruption and poor governance**

For many years, corruption has been a major social problem in Kenya. It impacts negatively on economic growth, encourages police harassment of youths, limits education

and job opportunities for those who refuse to pay bribes, and negatively affects service delivery (Government of Kenya, 2010) are important factors for violence. Social inequalities caused by corruption in part led to Kenya's 2007/2008 post-election violence<sup>58</sup>. Some research in Kenya shows that many unemployed and frustrated youth blame corruption and poor governance for their predicament. Despite various government-instigated attempts, many youths do not seem to readily respond to self-employment and vocational training opportunities offered by governmental and nongovernmental agencies, and as such opportunities are often not in keeping with their own aspirations, desires and expectations (Imoite, 2007). Opportunities created are often stereotypical (e.g. offering traditional livelihoods to rural youth, or types of training for young women influenced by gender stereotypes); additionally, they do not offer the economic and social rewards that many rural youth feel they require to gain a certain social status and integration into "adult" society. Even in the agricultural sector, educated rural youth are often compelled to play a marginal role, mostly as unskilled helpers to their families, not as catalysts and innovators (Ruteere, 2008).

It is thought that this problem prevails mainly due to the lack of a well-functioning civil society at the grass-roots level in Sri Lanka. Over the last 50 years, Sri Lanka has experienced the rise of a system of extreme political patronage built upon the use of welfare-state measures as a means of ensuring votes during elections. This includes distribution of jobs within the state-controlled labour market by political elites, largely among their own party followers. As a consequence, there is a fairly widespread perception of social injustice when it comes to access to employment among youth, given

hiring practices based on political choice and connections, rather than objective job requirements and merit.<sup>50</sup> Elsewhere in the country, this has been articulated clearly by one 20-yearold woman from Welligama: "Here youth are supporting politicians. After that they demand jobs. Only those who work for politicians find employment. Otherwise even with education they have to just wait. This happens because most of the jobs are under manipulation of the government (Weeratunga, 2008).

### **2.7.2 Use of youth in political mobilization and violence**

In Burundi the involvement of youth in armed conflict has been high since independence. During the 1993 crisis in particular, the Hutu youths from the FRODEPU party were reported to be the main perpetrators of genocide. As a reprisal, especially in the capital, the young Tutsis organized themselves in armed bands and killed the Hutu and destroyed their houses. During the 2010 elections, youth involvement in violence before and during the elections was noticed. The NGO Human Rights Watch shows that many cases of violence were committed by the youth in the capitals and in many rural areas during and after elections of 2010. During the election campaigns, competition between the parties revived the tension between militants. Many parties recruited young former fighters after the peace agreements between Government, CNDD-FDD and FNL (Imoite J. (2007). Tanzania has not experienced a lot of political violence as seen in the other neighboring countries. However, popular youth culture is sometimes seen by adults as the scapegoat for misbehavior or deviant forms of expressions by the youths. Few adults understand the global view of the youth, and even fewer have the right skills to manage this



misbehavior. For the large part, most youths have viewed political activities as an avenue or channel to acquire easy gifts in exchange of favors and votes. For example, during election periods the youth may be used in violent demonstrations. In Kenya, politicians sometimes incite youth into violence for their own political interests. The worst of such violence was witnessed during the post-election violence.

### **2.7.3 Lack of youth participation in democratic processes**

Undemocratic leadership, especially if it is repressive and if power stems from ethnic identity is a powerful contributor to violence. Political and economic powers, if exercised according to ethnic identity undoubtedly lead to corruption and marginalization of groups which may lead to violent and criminal behaviour. In Kenya, despite the need for political parties to play a strong role in moving the country forward in the reform process, the parties continue to lack the necessary structures and influence to do so. Political parties have historically been patriarchal in nature, reducing the opportunity for constructive participation by key constituent groups such as women and youth in the political process. Although their total number in parliament increased, women and youth continue to be largely underrepresented in Kenyan politics. Women and youth leaders seeking to become politically active and assume leadership roles have been marginalized and have found difficulties in taking an active role in the parties' decision making structures and procedures.<sup>63</sup> Women and youth are typically relegated to women and youth wings that lack structured party support. In 2008, the Political Parties Act was passed. The law requires the constitutions of political parties to list the party's practices with respect to

gender, nomination procedures, and human rights in order to receive government funding. Despite the new law many Parties face challenges implementing the necessary internal reforms and streamlining their procedures to ensure youth participation<sup>64</sup>. Recognizing the relationship between political power and the distribution of the country's resources, Kenyan youth have always viewed the political process as an effective way of addressing their needs, which is why they have continued their struggle to secure political participation. A recent study conducted in Kenya shows that many youth blame poverty, unemployment and lack of access to the country's resources on lack of political participation. Still, others attribute political violence perpetrated by youth to the lack of participation in the democratic process (Boronia, 2002). In Burundi, the study shows how youth are coping with the harsh realities of a post-conflict environment, in a country that suffered genocide similar to the one in neighboring Rwanda. The findings of this study present anecdotal evidence on how social and economic dynamics combined with poverty could increase marginalization of youth in the democratic process and the risk for the country to relapse into conflict. In Tanzania, only a minority of youth wield their right to vote and contest in local and national elections in Tanzania. A contributing factor is that youth, as a consequence of the current political culture, are not provided space to legitimately claim their rights and entitlements. Moreover, patronage, unfair political recruitment and ignorance prevent many youths from entering the political realm. Most youth are therefore only used by politicians for campaign purposes. As in other African countries, the young majority in Tanzania has found itself in a situation of subordination vis-à-vis the political establishment which predominantly consists of

members of the elder generation. Widespread lack of opportunities for political participation of the younger generation has characterized the post-colonial period (ILO, 2006).

## **2.8 Influence of economic risk factors on youth engagement in conflict**

Deficiencies in employment opportunities and social safety nets, including rationing systems and basic health services, generate more tension and leave civilians with limited options for a sustainable livelihood. In a wartime economy, the situation turns catastrophic as civilians are left to fend for themselves without sufficient State or international assistance (United Nations of Youth Foundation [UNYF], 2001). This places the youth population in a particularly vulnerable position, as they are the group most targeted for recruitment and abductions, and more likely to turn to black markets for survival and use armed conflict as a way to vent their anger.

Insufficient opportunities exist for young people to earn a living, substantially heightening their chances of facing poverty and turning to illicit activities. Of the 3 billion people surviving on less than \$2 a day, approximately half are below the age of 24 and live in developing countries. Over 70 million young people are unemployed, and many more are struggling for survival on low wages and must endure poor (and often exploitative) working conditions. More than 1 billion jobs must be created by 2010 to reduce unemployment and accommodate young workers entering the labour force (United Nations of Youth Foundation, 2009).

Creating jobs for youth, while vital, is not sufficient to produce a level of economic development and stability that will ensure peace (United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF], 2011). There are other factors at the national and regional levels that work against peace-building through economic means. Internally, the absence of skilled workers owing to, for instance, the prevalence of deaths from war, starvation and diseases such as HIV/AIDS lowers the GDP of some nations, as exemplified in sub-Saharan Africa (UNICEF, 2011). In other places, the destruction of the country sets the economy back decades. This was the case in Lebanon during the 1990s, when GDP remained at about 50 per cent of what it had been before the troubles began in 1974. Conflict may affect resources as well, placing the welfare of the country's population at risk as in the case of Angola during its civil war, where 80 per cent of the agricultural land was abandoned, greatly affecting the food supply (UNICEF, 2011).

Economies are also affected by outside factors that threaten peace. The production and distribution of illicit drugs, tremendous in scope and highly profitable, often feed into armed conflicts. In many regions, the profits from trading in illicit drugs are used to fund fighting by insurgent and guerrilla groups. Violence is often employed to protect their business interests. Some economists believe that the economic dimensions of war are the most important, taking precedence over other factors such as social grievances (Collier, 2000).

According to a World Bank (2009) a country is at risk of civil conflict if the primary commodity exports—diamonds, oil and agricultural products comprise the greatest

portion of the national income. The paper contends that a country in which commodity dependence reaches 26 per cent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is prone to rebellion. The same country with no primary commodity exports has only a 0.5 per cent probability of engaging in rebellion. While this view provides interesting insights, it reduces the complexity of war to the economic interests of the insurgency groups. Further, it does not, for example, account for variables that contribute to the mobilization of the masses, who often receive little or nothing in the way of financial gains during or after rebellions (World Bank, 2009).

The young people of the Great Lakes region face challenges when seeking employment. The opportunities for employment are inadequate for the youth who graduate into the job-market. The environment for self-employment is not youth friendly as the resources are not sufficient to develop entrepreneurial skills among young people, and facilitate their entry into business, particularly in remote areas (United Nations , 2008).. Even where opportunities exist, youth face various challenges including not receiving equal pay for equal work and being exposed to hazardous working environments. Internships, placements and apprenticeship programs are not formally in place to ensure that the youth can develop and sharpen their skills. Youth have various talents in art, craftsmanship, sports. However these talents are not promoted as they ought to (United Nations, 2008).

Unemployment and underemployment are cited as the major economic reasons of why young people engage in violence. In Kenya, the economic growth rate has been

insufficient to create enough employment opportunities to absorb the increasing labour force of about 750,000 annually. Only about 25% of youth are absorbed, leaving 75% to bear the burden of unemployment. Additionally, some of those absorbed in the labour market have jobs that do not match their qualifications and personal development goals which may lead to frustrations and disappointment (United Nations, 2005). In Burundi, according to the 2008 census, the unemployment rate of youths who had completed university studies was 13%. The pressure on available land is very high, meaning that the uneducated youth cannot be gainfully employed in agriculture. Such unemployed youth may be taken advantage of by political leaders leading them to engaging in violent acts. In Tanzania, the “consequences of lacking livelihood and employment opportunities for the youth are increasing rates of youth who migrate out of rural areas, increasing the number of young criminals and prostitutes, and increasing drug abuse and HIV and AIDS infections. Among factors making youth at risk are structural changes in the local economies in most areas (United Nations, 2005).

### **2.8.1 Unequal distribution of/access to resources**

In Kenya the problem of unequal access to resources is a major contributor to youth violence. For example, in the Central Province of Kenya, many young people have been persuaded to join the dreaded *Mungiki* gang who claim to fight for the rights to own land, arguing that most of the land is in the hands of a few rich individuals who did not participate meaningfully in the liberation of the country from colonialism (Ruteere, 2008). The majority of those who join the gang are children of poor peasants. In the

coastal region, a militant group called the Mombasa Republican Army, consisting of young people recently staged an uprising. Their main grievances are associated with landlessness among coastal communities, most of whom are still squatters many years after independence. They also claim that people from other regions of the country are benefit more from the port of Mombasa than coastal communities. The post -election violence of 2007/8, in which youth played a major role was also partly associated with a feeling that there was unequal access to land in the Rift Valley Province. Politicians reportedly incited youth in the Province to rise up in arms against those perceived to have migrated from other parts of the country into the province (Government of Kenya, 2010).

## **2.9 Theoretical framework**

A ‘youth crisis’ is described as a situation where the transition to adulthood is blocked or shrunk due to various socio-economic and political challenges. This situation leads to the failure by youths to attain the requisite status of adulthood (UNDP, 2006). Thus, instead of the concept of youth being characterized by a transition to adulthood, it becomes what is described as an “enduring limbo” (Spinks, 2002:193), which is a source of immense frustration. Proponents of the ‘youth crisis theory’ emphasize on how economic and social crises in many parts of the world are severely affecting young people by impairing their capacity to negotiate their transition into adulthood (UNDP, 2006). To make their case, the ‘youth crisis’ scholars point to young people in most of the developing world who are increasingly deprived of education and employment opportunities.

They argue that uneducated and unemployed individuals lack the possibility of upward social mobility. Using Garissa as a framework for analysis, Kaplan (1994) argues that violent conflict and insecurity are directly connected to the presence of a large, unemployed and disaffected mass of youth. Richards (1996) employs the ‘youth crisis’ theoretical framework to argue that young people join the rebellion as a way of demonstrating their frustration with exclusionary neo-patrimonial practices of the state. As such, the ‘youth crisis’ theory has often been used to explain the involvement of young people in violent conflict (Richards, 1996). Maclay and Ozerdem (2010) argue that many of Kenya’s young people are disconnected from broader society and, in some cases, are being actively marginalised. They further assert that young people in Kenya typically have had little independence or agency over their own lives, and even less influence in the community around them. Analyzing youth crime and delinquency in Latin America, Benvenuti (2003) argues that ‘youth crisis’ is a product of inept societal policies and structures. Benvenuti (2003) posits: “Inequality and impoverishment, further reinforced by neo-liberal macroeconomic policies adopted by many countries in the region, together with the incapacity of national states to address poverty and exclusion in the distribution of economic, political and social resources, account for the main reason for the proliferation of juvenile delinquency.”



## 2.10 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework for the study is presented in figure 2.1.

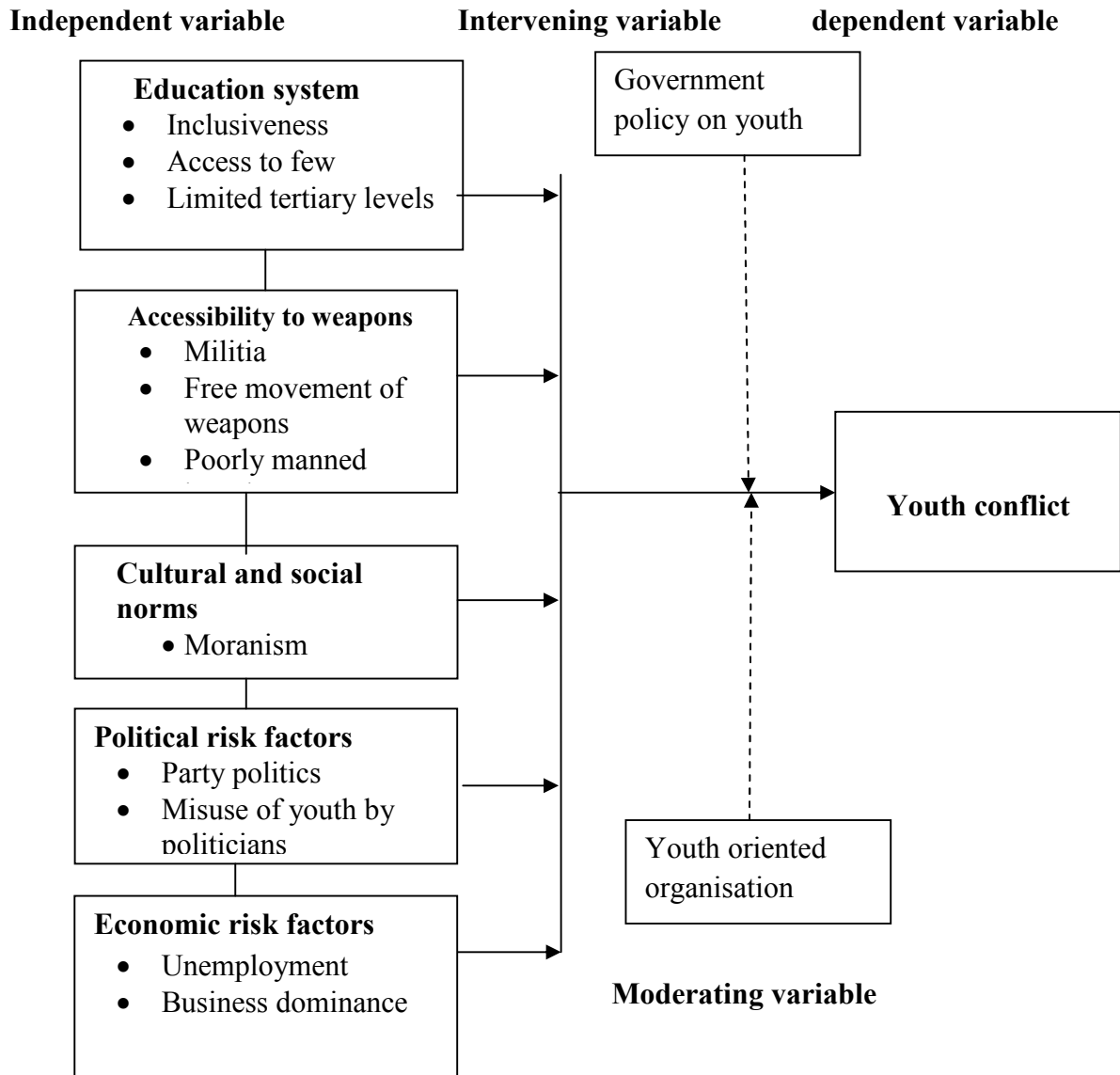


Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework

The figure presents the interrelationship between the variables in the study. The figures indicate that there are various factors that predispose youth to violence. These include education system, accessibility to weapons, cultural and social norms, political risk factors and economic factors. These form the independent variable of the study. This implies that once these variables have been manipulated, they will have an influence on youth violence. The intervening variable will be the government policy on youth while organizations working among the youth will be the moderating variable.

### **2.10 Summary of literature review and research gaps**

The chapter has focused on literature review. Hewamanne, (2003) has established that one of the major factors predisposing youth to violence in the region is the nature of the communities in which young people live. The communities are a source of both risk and protection. On the other hand, Adebayo, (1999).states that the major problems related to the education system include lack of access to education, inequity in access, the unsuitability of education to the job market, lack of technical skills, poor organization of educational institutions and exposure to violence within the learning institutions. Salim, (1999) contents that those youths who have no access to education cannot compete favorably in the job market. While Busher (2008) states that majority of them resort to crime and violence as a means of survival.

Youth violence in learning institutions in Kenya has partly been blamed on the organization of schools, colleges and universities. For instance, positive student behavior is more likely in schools that encourage student involvement in decision making, focus

on excellence, have high quality leadership, and provide clear formal and informal behavior codes that are consistently enforced (Boronia, 2002). The largest proportion of crime in Kenya is committed by youths, and over 50 per cent of convicted prisoners in the country are aged between 16 and 25 years<sup>44</sup>. In Burundi, and DRC the political conflict has meant that young people have access to arms. The access to arms heightens militant ant behaviour among the youth and increases crime (Sundberg, 1999). Sundberg, (1999) states that there are many different ways in which cultural and social norms support different types of violence. The most common in the region is gender discrimination. These studies have however not focused on the factors predisposing youth into violence hence this study will fill in that gap. In Kenya the problem of unequal access to resources is a major contributor to youth violence. For example, in the Central Province of Kenya, many young people have been persuaded to join the dreaded *Mungiki* gang who claim to fight for the rights to own land, arguing that most of the land is in the hands of a few rich individuals who did not participate meaningfully in the liberation of the country from colonialism (Ruteere, 2008).

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the procedures that were used in conducting the study. The chapter focuses on research design, target population, sample and sampling procedures, research instruments, validity of the instruments, reliability of the instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis.

#### **3.2 Research design**

According to Orodho (2004), research design is what holds all the elements of the research project together. The research design used in this study was descriptive survey, which is a method of collecting data by interviewing or administering a questionnaire to sampled individuals. Descriptive survey also can be used to investigate a population by collecting samples to analyze and discover occurrences.

The study aimed at collecting information from respondents about the factors predisposing youth to violence. Primary data were gathered through questionnaires and interviews. Both quantitative and qualitative methods shall be used in the study.

### 3.3 Target population

The target population is all the members of the real set of people, events or objects to which the researcher wishes to generate the findings as defined by Borg and Gall (1982). The target population was 350 youth from the 15 youth organisation comprising of 85 leaders in the Municipality.

### 3.4 Sample size and sampling techniques

To sample the teachers, the researcher used the 30 percent of the population as suggested by Gay and Airasian (2003) who states that a sample size of between 10 percent and 30 percent of the total population is representative but the more the better. This implies that out of 350 youths, 105 were selected. The group administrations were also sampled where the executive which comprises of 5 officials were sampled from each of the youth groups. The respondents were selected by use of simple random sampling. The sample was therefore be 128 respondents. The sampling frame is presented in table 3.1

Table 3.1

<b>Category</b>	<b>Population</b>	<b>% sample</b>	<b>Sample</b>
Youth group administration	85	30	25
Youth group	350	30	105
<b>Total</b>	<b>425</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>130</b>

### **3.5 Data collection instruments**

Data in the study were collected using questionnaires. The researcher relied on self-administered questionnaires. The questionnaires were developed by the researcher. A questionnaire is a research instrument that gathers data over a large sample (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). The advantages of using questionnaires are: the person administering the instrument has an opportunity to establish rapport, explain the purpose of the study and explain the meaning of items that may not be clear. Gay (1976) maintains that questionnaires give respondents freedom to express their views or opinions and also to make suggestions. They are also anonymous which helps to produce more candid answers than it is possible in an interview. It was responded to by the youth themselves and their officials.

The questionnaire for the executive contained two major sections. Section one contained the demographic information of the members of the executive while section two had items regarding the factors predisposing youth to violence. The questionnaires had both structured and unstructured items. The questionnaire for the youth contained two major sections. Section one contained the demographic information of the members of the executive while section two had items regarding the factors predisposing youth to violence. The questionnaires had both structured and unstructured items.

### **3.6 Validity of the instruments**

According to Kombo and Tromp (2009), validity of a test is a measure of how well a test measures what it is supposed to measure. The pilot study helped to improve face validity

and content of the instruments. The researcher used face validity to review and develop an informal opinion as to whether or not the test is measuring what it is supposed to measure. Content validity on the other hand was used by the researcher to check whether the items in the questionnaire answer the research the objectives. The supervisors who are experts in the area of study validated the instruments through expert judgment (Kirk & Miller, 1986).

### **3.7 Reliability of the instruments**

Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) defines reliability as a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated tests when administered a number of times. To enhance the reliability of the instrument, a pilot study was conducted. The aim of pre-testing was to gauge the clarity and relevance of the instrument items so that those items found to be inadequate for measuring variables were either discarded or modified to improve the quality of the research instruments. This was to ensure that the instrument captures all the required data. Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient formula was used.

$$r = \frac{N\Sigma xy - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)}{\sqrt{[N\Sigma(x)^2 - (\Sigma x)^2][N\Sigma(y)^2 - (\Sigma y)^2]}}$$

The reliability coefficient was 0.76. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) a coefficient of above 0.70 or more showed that there is high reliability of data.

### **3.8 Data collection procedure**

The researcher sought for a research permit from the University of Nairobi. The researcher then proceeded to report to the District Youth Coordinator and thereafter wrote letters to the youth group leaders to be allowed to do the study. The researcher visited the selected youth groups, create rapport with the respondents and explain the purpose of the study and then administer the questionnaire to the respondents. He also conducted the focus group discussion with the youths. The respondents were assured that strict confidentiality would be maintained in dealing with the identities. The completed questionnaires were collected once they have been filled.

### **3.9 Data analysis techniques**

After the data has been collected there was cross-examination to ascertain their accuracy, competences and identify those items wrongly responded to, spelling mistakes and blank spaces. Quantitative data were entered into the computer for analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 12.0. This generated the frequencies and percentages which were used to discuss the findings. Frequency distribution tables, pie charts and bar graphs were used to present the data while descriptive statistics such as percentages and frequencies were used to present the qualitative data (research questions). Qualitative data was analyzed according to the themes in the research objectives.



### 3.10 Operational Definition of Variables

Indicators were denoted by the main variables under the study in order to render them measurable.

<b>OBJECTIVE</b>	<b>INDEPENDENT VARIABLE</b>	<b>INDICATORS</b>	<b>MEASURE</b>	<b>SCALE OF MEASUREMENT</b>	<b>TOOL OF ANALYSIS</b>
To determine how education system influences youth to conflict in Garissa municipality	Education system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inclusiveness</li> <li>• Access to few</li> <li>• Limited tertiary levels</li> </ul>	Level of education	Nominal	Descriptive
To assess how accessibility to weapons influences youth to conflict in Garissa municipality	Accessibility to weapon	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Militia</li> <li>• Free movement of weapons</li> <li>• Poorly manned borders</li> </ul>	Number of weapons	Ordinal	Descriptive
To assess how cultural and social norms influences youth to conflict in Garissa municipality	Cultural and social norms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Moranism</li> </ul>	Cultural dimension	Nominal ordinal	Descriptive
To establish how political risk factors influence youth to conflict in Garissa municipalit	Political risk factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Party politics</li> <li>• Misuse of youth by politicians</li> </ul>	Political inclination	Nominal ordinal	Descriptive
To establish how economic related risk factors influence youth to conflict in Garissa municipality	Economic related risk factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Unemployment</li> <li>• Business dominance</li> </ul>	Number of youth employed	Nominal ordinal	Descriptive

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

Presented in this chapter are data analysis, presentation and interpretation of finding. The data presented in this chapter were processed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). All themes discussing the same research questions were presented and analyzed together. The analysis of data was presented in both narrative and tabular forms.

#### **4.2 Response rate**

Questionnaire return is the proportion of the questionnaires returned after they have been issued to the respondents. Out of the 23 youth officials and 105 youths sampled during the study, all youths and officials filled and returned the questionnaires. The return rates were above 80% and hence were deemed adequate for data analysis.

#### **4.3 Demographic data of the respondents**

This section presents demographic data of the youth officials and them of youth.

##### **4.3.1 Demographic information of the youth officials**

Demographic information of the youth officials was based on gender, age, level of education and the duration they had been in the organization. Table 4.1 shows gender of the youth officials.

**Table 4.1 Gender of the youth officials**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Male	18	78.3
Female	5	21.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 18(78.3%) of the youth officials were male while 5(21.7%) of the officials were female.

**Table 4.2 Age of the youth officials**

<b>Age</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Below 25 years	6	26.1
26 – 30 years	7	30.4
41 – 45 years	8	34.8
51 years and above	2	8.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 8(34.8%) of youth officials were aged between 41 and 45 years, 7(30.4%) of officials were aged between 26 and 30 years while 6(26.1%) of officials were below 25 years.

**Table 4.3 Youth officials' highest level academic qualifications**

<b>Level</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Diploma	12	52.2
Degree	3	13.0
Masters	8	34.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 12(52.2%) of the youth officials had diploma education, 3(13.0%) of official had degree while 8(34.8%) of officials had masters.

**Table 4.4 Distribution of the youth officials according to years they had been in the organization**

<b>Years</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
1 – 5 years	14	60.9
6 – 10 years	3	13.0
11 – 15 years	4	17.4
16 years and above	2	8.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 14(60.9%) of the officials had been in the organization for between 1 and 5 years, 3(13.0%) of officials for between 6 and 10 years, 4(17.4%) of officials for between 11 and 15 years while 2(8.7%) of officials for above 16 years.

#### 4.2.1 Demographic information of the youth

Demographic information of the youth was based on gender, age, level of education and the duration they had been in the organization. Table 4.5 shows gender of the youth

**Table 4.5 Distribution of the youth according to gender**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Female	53	50.5
Male	52	49.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 53(50.5%) of the youth were female while 52(49.5%) of youth were male. Table shows age of the youths

**Table 4.6 Distribution of the youth according to age**

<b>Age</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Below 25 years	39	37.1
26 – 30 years	62	59.0
31 – 35 years	4	3.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that majority 62(59.0%) of youth were aged between 26 and 30 years, 39(37.1%) of youths were below 25 years while 4(3.8%) of the youth were aged between 31 and 35 years.

**Table 4.7 Youth highest level of education**

<b>Highest level</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Certificate	47	44.8
Diploma	40	38.1
Degree	10	9.5
Masters	8	7.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 47(44.8%) of youths had certificate level of education, 40(38.1%) of youths had diploma, 10(9.5%) of youths had degree while 8(7.6%) of youths had masters.

**Table 4.8 Youths duration in the organization**

<b>Years</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Below 1 year	31	29.5
1 – 5 years	57	54.3
6 – 10 years	9	8.6
11 – 15 years	4	3.8
16 years and above	4	3.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 57(54.3%) of the youth had been in the organization for between 1 and 5 years, 31(29.5%) of youths for below 1 year, 9(8.6%) of youth for between 6 and 10 years while 4(3.8%) of youths for more than 16 years.

#### **4.4 Influence of education system contributes to youth conflict**

To investigate the influence of education system contributes to youth conflict, the youth officials and youths were asked to rate the level of education of the youth in Garissa.

Table shows youths responses

**Table 4.9 Youths rate of the level of education of the youth in Garissa**

<b>Rate</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very High	24	22.9
High	17	16.2
Low	27	25.7
Very low	37	35.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 37(35.2%) of youths rated the level of education of the youth in Garissa being very low, 27(25.7%) of youths indicated that it was low while 24(22.9%) of youth said that it was very high..

**Table 4.10 Youths officials rate on the level of education of the youth in Garissa**

<b>Rate</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very High	1	4.3
High	9	39.1
Low	12	52.2
Very low	1	4.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 4.10 shows that majority 12(52.2%) of youth officials indicated that education level of youth in Garissa was low, 9(39.1%) of officials indicated that it was very low while a significant number 1(4.3%) of officials indicated that it was high.



When asked to rate the accessibility of education by youth in Garissa, the youth responded as Table 4.11

**Table 4.11 Youth rate on the accessibility of education by youth in Garissa**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very accessible	19	18.1
Moderately accessible	30	28.6
Not accessible	56	53.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 4.11 shows that majority 56(53.3%) of the youth indicated that education by youth in Garissa was not accessible, 30(28.6%) of youths said it was moderately accessible while 19(18.1%) of youth indicated that it was very accessible. This agreed with youth officials responses as majority 14(60.8%) indicated that education in Garissa was not accessible.

**Table 4.12 Youth responses on the influence of education system contributes to youth conflict**

Statement	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
Education system enabled youth to become self reliance	97	92.4	8	7.6
Youth engage themselves in conflict because of lack of education	89	84.8	16	15.2
Youth in Garissa appreciated the education	74	70.5	31	29.5

Table 4.12 shows that majority 97(92.4%) of youth indicated that the education system enabled youth to become self reliance, majority 89(84.8%) of youths indicated that youth engaged themselves in conflict because of lack of education while majority 74(70.5%) of youth indicated that in Garissa appreciated the education.

**Table 4.13 Youth officials responses on the influence of education system contributes to youth conflict**

Statement	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
Education system enabled youth to become self reliance	13	56.5	10	42.5
Youth engage themselves in conflict because of lack of education	18	78.3	5	21.7
Youth in Garissa received the education	5	21.7	18	78.3

Majority 13(56.5%) of youth officials indicated that education system enabled youth to become self reliance, majority 18(78.3%) of officials indicated that youth engage themselves in conflict because of lack of education while the same number of officials indicated that youth in Garissa had not received the education. To establish how the education systems contribute to conflict among the youth, the respondents were asked to indicate the same. Data shows that inequity in access of education, the unsuitability of education to the job market, lack of technical skills, poor organization of educational institutions and exposure to violence within the learning institutions posed a risk for youth violence.

#### **4.5 Influence of accessibility to weapons on youth conflict**

The study sought to examine the influence of accessibility to weapons on youth conflict.

The Youth officials were asked to rate the accessibility of weapons in Garissa.

Table 4.14 shows their responses

**Table 4.14 Youth official rare of the accessibility of weapons in Garissa**

<b>Rate</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very High	13	56.5
High	7	30.4
Low	1	4.3
Very low	2	8.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 4.14 shows that majority 13(56.5%) of youth indicated that accessibility rate of weapons in Garissa was very high, 7(30.4%) of officials indicated that it was high while a significant number 1(4.3%) of official said it was low.

Majority 76(72.3%) of youth also indicated that the accessibility rate of weapons in Garissa was high.

**Table 4.15 Youth responses on the influence of accessibility to weapons on youth conflict**

Statement	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
Accessibility of weapons lead to youth conflict	90	85.7	15	14.3
Youth in Garissa are accessing small arms	94	89.5	11	10.5

Data shows that majority 90(85.7%) of the youth indicated that accessibility of weapons lead to youth conflict while 94(89.5%) of youth indicated that youth in Garissa are accessing small arms.

**Table 4.16 Youth officials' responses on the influence of accessibility to weapons on youth conflict**

Statement	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
Accessibility of weapons lead to youth conflict	15	65.2	7	30.4
Youth in Garissa are accessing small arms	22	95.7	1	4.3

Data shows that majority 15(65.2%) of youth officials indicated that accessibility of weapons lead to youth conflict while majority 22(95.7%) of officials indicated that youth Garissa are accessing small arms.

To investigate what lead to small arms accessibility in Garissa, the respondents were asked to respond to the same. Findings shows that in Garissa there was easy accessibility and availability of fire arms, their relative cheapness and ease of use were the factors for young people committing violence.

**Table 4.17 Youth rate of the level of armed conflict in Garissa**

<b>Rate</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very high	23	21.9
High	47	44.8
Low	14	13.3
Negligible	21	20.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 47(44.8%) of youth indicated the level of armed conflict in Garissa was high, 23(21.9%) of youth sad it was very high, 21(20.0%) of youth said it was negligible while 14(13.3%) of youth indicated that it was low. When the youth officials were asked to respond to the same item, majority 14(60.8%) of officials indicated that it was very high.

#### 4.6 Influence of cultural and social norms on youth conflict

The study sought to examine the influence of cultural and social norms on youth conflict. The youth were asked whether there was cultural conflict among the youth, majority 89(84.8%) of youth indicated that there was conflict. When the youth officials were asked whether they experienced conflict as a result of different cultural orientation, they responded as Table

**Table 4.18 Youth officials responses on whether they experienced conflict as a result of different cultural orientation.**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes	18	78.3
No	5	21.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that majority 18(78.3%) of youth officials indicated that they experienced conflict as a result of different cultural orientation

Data further indicates that there were cultural factors that lead to youth conflict among the youth as indicated by majority 89(84.8%) of the youth and majority 16(69.6%) of the youth officials.

**Table 4.19 Youth rate on the contribution of culture to youth conflict.**

<b>Rate</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very high contribution	39	37.1
High contribution	52	49.5
Low contribution	4	3.8
Negligible contribution	10	9.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 52(49.5%) of youth indicated culture highly contributed to youth conflict, 39(37.1%) of youth said that it contributed at a very high rate while 4(3.8%) of youth indicated that culture contributed at a low rate

**Table 4.20 Youth officials' rate on the contribution of culture to youth conflict**

<b>Rate</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very high contribution	8	34.8
High contribution	9	39.1
Negligible contribution	6	26.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 8(34.8%) of youth officials indicated that culture contributed to youth conflict at a very high rate, 9(39.1%) of officials indicated at high rate while 6(26.1%) of officials indicated that they it negligible contributed.

#### 4.7 Influence of political risk factors on youth conflict

To establish the influence of political risk factors on youth conflict, the youth were asked to indicate whether the youth in Garissa were involved in political conflict. Table 4.21 shows their responses.

**Table 4.21 Youth responses on whether youth Garissa were involved in political conflict**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes	84	80.0
No	21	20.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 84(80.0%) of youth indicated that youth in Garissa were involved in political conflict. This agreed with youth officials' responses as majority 17(73.9%) of the officials indicated that youth in Garissa were involved in political conflict



**Table 4.22 Youth rate on the contribution of politics to youth conflict.**

<b>Rate</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very high	39	37.1
High	44	41.9
Low	18	17.1
Very low	4	3.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 44(41.9%) of youth indicated that politics contributed at a high rate to youth conflict, 39(37.1%) of youth indicated that it contributed at a very high rate while 18(17.1%) of youth indicated that politics contributed at low rate.

**Table 4.23 Youth officials' rate on the contribution of politics to youth conflict**

<b>Rate</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very high	9	39.1
High	9	39.1
Very low	5	21.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data shows that 9(39.1%) of youth officials indicated that politics contributed at a very high rate to youth conflict, the same number of youth officials indicated that it

contributed at a high rate while 5(21.7%) of officials indicated that politics contributed at very low rate.

**Table 4.24 Youth rate on the involvement of youth in the post election violence in 2007/2008**

<b>Rate</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very high involved	20	19.0
Highly involved	66	62.9
Low involvement	10	9.5
Very low involvement	9	8.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 66(62.9%) of youth indicated that youth were highly involved in the post election violence in 2007/2008, 20(19.0%) of youth indicated that they were very high involved while 10(9.5%) of youth indicated that youth were involved in the post election violence in 2007/2008 at low rate.

Majority 97(92.4%) of youth further indicated that there were political conflicts that youth were involved in.

#### **4.8 Influence of economic related risk factors to youth conflict**

To establish how economic related risk factors influence youth conflict, the researcher sought to establish from the respondents whether unemployment lead to youth conflict.

The data is presented in table 4.25.

**Table 4.25 Youth responses on whether unemployment lead to youth conflict**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes	98	93.3
No	7	6.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 98(93.3%) of youth indicated that unemployment of the youth lead to youth conflict. This agreed with majority 16(69.6%) of youth officials agreed with the statement.

**Table 4.26 Youth responses on whether youth were endowed with resources to establish their own businesses**

<b>Response</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes	24	22.9
No	81	77.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 81(77.1%) of youth indicated that youth were not endowed with resources to establish their own businesses.

**Table 4.27 Youth officials' rate on the number of youth who have engaged themselves in income generating activities**

<b>Rate</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very high	2	8.7
High	8	34.8
Low	12	52.2
Very low	1	4.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority 12(52.2%) of youth officials indicated that the number of youth who have engaged themselves in income generating activities was low, 8(34.7%) of officials indicated it was high while 1(4.3%) of officials indicated that it was very low.

**Table 4.28 Youth rate on the number of youth who have engaged themselves in income generating activities**

<b>Rate</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
Very high	29	27.6
High	6	5.7
Low	56	53.3
Very low	14	13.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 4.28 shows that majority 56(53.3%) of youth indicated that the proportion of youth that was managing the economy in Garissa was low, 59(27.6%) of youth said it was very high while 14(13.3%) of youth said it was very low.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter focuses on the summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations; the study further presents the suggestions for further studies.

#### **5.2 Summary of findings**

The purpose of the study was to investigate factors influencing youth engagement into conflict in Garissa municipality. Five research objectives were formulated to guide the study. Five research objectives were formulated to guide the study. The research objective sought to; determine how education system contributes to youth engagement in conflict in Garissa municipality; assess how accessibility to weapons contribute to youth engagement in conflict in Garissa municipality; assess how cultural and social norms contribute to youth engagement in conflict in Garissa municipality; establish how political risk factors influence youth engagement in conflict in Garissa municipality and lastly establish how economic related risk factors influence youth engagement in conflict in Garissa municipality. The research design used in this study was descriptive survey, which is a method of collecting data by interviewing or administering a questionnaire to sampled individuals. The target population was 350 youth from the 15 youth organisation comprising of 85 leaders in the Municipality. The sample comprised of 25 youth group

administration and 105 youth groups. Data in the study were collected using questionnaires while data were analysed by use of qualitative and quantitative techniques.

Findings revealed that education system influenced youth conflict. For example, youths rated the level of education of the youth in Garissa being very low. Majority 56(53.3%) of the youth indicated that education by youth in Garissa was not accessible. Majority 89(84.8%) of youths indicated that youth engaged themselves in conflict because of lack of education. Majority 18(78.3%) of officials indicated that youth engage themselves in conflict because of lack of education while the same number of officials indicated that youth in Garissa had not received the education. Findings also revealed that inequity in access of education , the unsuitability of education to the job market, lack of technical skills, poor organization of educational institutions and exposure to violence within the learning institutions posed a risk for youth violence. The findings are in line with Hewamanne, (2003) has established that one of the major factors predisposing youth to violence in the region is the nature of the communities in which young people live. The communities are a source of both risk and protection. On the other hand, Adebayo, (1999).states that the major problems related to the education system include lack of access to education, inequity in access, the unsuitability of education to the job market, lack of technical skills, poor organization of educational institutions and exposure to violence within the learning institutions. Salim, (1999) contents that those youths who have no access to education cannot compete favorably in the job market. While Busher (2008) states that majority of them resort to crime and violence as a means of survival.

Findings further indicated that accessibility to weapons influenced youth conflict. For example, majority 13(56.5%) of youth indicated that accessibility rate of weapons in Garissa was very high, 7(30.4%) of officials indicated that it was high. Majority 90(85.7%) of the youth indicated that accessibility of weapons lead to youth conflict while 94(89.5%) of youth indicated that youth in Garissa are accessing small arms. Majority 15(65.2%) of youth officials indicated that accessibility of weapons lead to youth conflict while majority 22(95.7%) of officials indicated that youth Garissa are accessing small arms. Youth further indicated the level of armed conflict in Garissa was high, 23(21.9%) of youth sad it was very high. Youth violence in learning institutions in Kenya has partly been blamed on the organization of schools, colleges and universities. For instance, positive student behavior is more likely in schools that encourage student involvement in decision making, focus on excellence, have high quality leadership, and provide clear formal and informal behavior codes that are consistently enforced (Boronia, 2002). The largest proportion of crime in Kenya is committed by youths, and over 50 per cent of convicted prisoners in the country are aged between 16 and 25 years<sup>44</sup>. In Burundi, and DRC the political conflict has meant that young people have access to arms. The access to arms heightens militant ant behaviour among the youth and increases crime (Sundberg, 1999).

The study also revealed that cultural and social norms influenced youth conflict. For example, majority 18(78.3%) of youth officials indicated that they experienced conflict as a result of different cultural orientation. Majority 89(84.8%) of the youth and majority 16(69.6%) of the youth officials indicated that there were cultural factors that lead to



youth conflict among the youth. Youth indicated culture highly contributed to youth conflict. Youth and youth officials indicated that culture contributed to youth conflict at a very high rate. Sundberg, (1999) states that there are many different ways in which cultural and social norms support different types of violence. The most common in the region is gender discrimination. These studies have however not focused on the factors predisposing youth into violence hence this study will fill in that gap. In Kenya the problem of unequal access to resources is a major contributor to youth violence. For example, in the Central Province of Kenya, many young people have been persuaded to join the dreaded *Mungiki* gang who claim to fight for the rights to own land, arguing that most of the land is in the hands of a few rich individuals who did not participate meaningfully in the liberation of the country from colonialism (Ruteere, 2008).

The study findings also revealed that political risk factors influenced youth conflict. For example, majority 84(80.0%) of youth indicated that youth in Garissa were involved in political conflict. This agreed with youth officials' responses as majority 17(73.9%) of the officials indicated that youth in Garissa were involved in political conflict.

Youth indicated that politics contributed at a high rate to youth conflict, while youth officials indicated that politics contributed at a very high rate to youth conflict, the same number of youth officials indicated that it contributed at a high rate. Majority 66(62.9%) of youth indicated that youth were highly involved in the post election violence in 2007/2008, 20(19.0%) of youth indicated that they were very high involved while 10(9.5%) of youth indicated that youth were involved in the post election violence in

2007/2008 at low rate. Majority 97(92.4%) of youth further indicated that there were political conflicts that youth were involved in youth conflict.

Findings also indicated that economic related risk factors influenced youth conflict. For example, majority 98(93.3%) of youth indicated that unemployment of the youth lead to youth conflict. This agreed with majority 16(69.6%) of youth officials agreed with the statement. Majority 81(77.1%) of youth indicated that youth were not endowed with resources to establish their own businesses. Majority 12(52.2%) of youth officials indicated that the number of youth who have engaged themselves in income generating activities was low while 8(34.7%) of officials indicated it was high while 1(4.3%) of officials indicated that it was very low. Majority 56(53.3%) of youth indicated that the proportion of youth that was managing the economy in Garissa was low.

### **5.3 Conclusions of the study**

Based on the findings, it was concluded that youths rated the level of education of the youth in Garissa was. Youth engaged themselves in conflict because of lack of education. Inequity in access of education, the unsuitability of education to the job market, lack of technical skills, poor organization of educational institutions and exposure to violence within the learning institutions posed a risk for youth violence. The study also concluded that accessibility to weapons influenced youth conflict. Youth respondents for example indicated that youth in Garissa accessed small arms. The study also concluded that cultural and social norms influenced youth conflict. For example, youth officials indicated that they experienced conflict as a result of different cultural orientation. Youth

and majority of youth officials indicated that there were cultural factors that lead to youth conflict among the youth. Youth indicated culture highly contributed to youth conflict. Youth and youth officials indicated that culture contributed to youth conflict at a very high rate.

The study further concluded that political risk factors influenced youth conflict. For example, Youth indicated that youth in Garissa were involved in political conflict. This agreed with youth officials' responses as indicated that youth in Garissa were involved in political conflict. Youth indicated that politics contributed at a high rate to youth conflict, while youth officials indicated that politics contributed at a very high rate to youth conflict, the same number of youth officials indicated that it contributed at a high rate. The youth respondents indicated that youth were highly involved in the post election violence in 2007/2008. The youth further indicated that there were political conflicts that youth were involved in youth conflict.

The study also concluded that economic related risk factors influenced youth conflict. For example, youth indicated that unemployment of the youth lead to youth conflict. The youth respondents indicated that youth were not endowed with resources to establish their own businesses. Youth officials indicated that the number of youth who have engaged themselves in income generating activities was low.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

The following were the recommendations of the study

- i. Strong vision and leadership are needed to tackle youth employment and participation, at national and county levels. The study therefore recommends that at the national level, a fairly participatory, multi-stakeholder and inclusive process to formulate the National
- ii. Action Plan for Youth Employment should largely be implemented. The momentum behind this initiative, which provides a potentially valuable platform for policy dialogue and change, needs to be rekindled, with active involvement from government, civil society, the private sector and the donor community.
- iii. At the county level, generating decent jobs in decent numbers will require strong local economic development planning, and a vision and strategies to attract investment in sectors where there is a competitive advantage, as well as socially responsible business practice.
- iv. The study also recommends that the government should come up with education system that addresses the needs of the youth which empowers them to be active participants in national development.
- v. The study also recommends that the security agencies should come up with strategies of curbing accessibility to weapons so as to reduce use of the weapons among youth.

### **5.5 Suggestions for further research**

The following areas were suggested for further studies

- i. Influence of youth entrepreneurship funds in curbing youth violence
- ii. Influence of government youth employment policies in curbing youth violence.
- iii. Effects of government policy on disarmament on youth conflict
- iv. The effect of the education system on the employability of graduate youth.

## REFERENCES

- Adebayo, A., , ed. (1999). *Comprehending and mastering African conflicts*. London: Zed Books.
- Africa Commission (2010), “Youth to Youth Fund.” Information note; Tanzania Youth Entrepreneurship Facility. Africa Commission
- African Union. (2006) *African Youth Charter, adopted 2 July 2006*. AU Commission, Addis Ababa.
- Amarasuriya, H. (2007, unpublished). *Discrimination and social exclusion of youth in Sri Lanka*, Background paper for the National Youth Employment Policy. Youth Employment Network.
- Argenti, N. (2002) Youth in Africa: a major resource for change. In: De Waal, A. and Argenti, N. (eds) *Young Africa: realizing the rights of children and youth*. Lawrenceville, NJ: Africa World Press.
- Available from: <<http://wilsoncenter.org/topics/pubs/Final - Youth and Politics.pdf>> [Accessed 20 January 2012].
- Beehner, L. (2007) *The effects of ‘youth bulge’ on civil conflict*. Washington DC: Council on Foreign Relations.
- Benvenuti, P. (2003), *Youth Violence and Delinquency in the Latin America Region*, Thesis, London: London School of Economics.
- Boronia, H. (2002), Young people as Victims of Violence: A discussion paper prepared for the National Youth Affairs Research Scheme, National Clearing House for Youth Studies, Australia
- Brown and, David W., et al (2008), “Bullying among Youth from Eight African Countries and association with Adverse Health Behaviours”. Special Report. Future Medicine Limited, ISSN 1745-5111. 2008.
- Busher, D. (2008). ‘Marginalising youth: How economic programs fail youth in post-conflict settings’, in CHF *International Development Matters – Youth, conflict and enterprise*, Occasional Papers, Vol. 2, February 2008. Silver Spring, MD: CHF.

- Collier P.,(2000). “Economic causes of civil conflict and their implications for policy” (Washington, D.C., World Bank/Development Research Group, 15 June .
- Cuhadaroglu-Cetin F (2007), Youth Violence, A Research Paper submitted at the Political Violence Organized Crime, Terrorism and Youth 13-14 September 2007, Ankara, Turkey
- Curtain, R. (2004).*Youth in Extreme Poverty: dimensions and policy implications with particular focus on South East Asia*. Paper presented at the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs workshop, 2 November 2004, New York, USA.
- Del Felice, C. and Wisler, A. (2007) The unexplored power and potential of youth as peacebuilders. *Journal of Peace Conflict & Development*, 11.
- Drummond-Mundal, L. and Cave, G. (2007) Young peacebuilders: exploring youth engagement with conflict and social change. *Journal of Peacebuilding and Development*, 3 (3), pp. 63–76.
- Elliott, D. S., Huizinga, D., & Menard, S. (2009). *Multiple problem youth: Delinquency, substance use and mental health problems*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Englert, Birgit. (2008). “Ambiguous Relationships: Youth, popular Music and Politics in Contemporary Tanzania”. Stichproben, Wiener Zeitschrift für Kritische Afrikastudien Nr. 14/2008, 8 Jg., 71-96.
- G. Ngoi (1999).,“Measurement of Women’s Participation in Labour Market”. Paper presented to a Workshop on National Gender Mainstreaming 15th to 17th November 1999 at the White Sands Hotel. Ministry of Community Development, Women Affairs and Children. Ministry of Labour and Youth Development and ILO.
- Government of Kenya (2010), Kenya Human Development Report 2009, Youth and Human Development: *Tapping on the Untapped Resource*
- Heinsohn, G (2008) *Kenya Violence: Exploding Youth Population*, *The New York Times*, 7 January 2008.

- Hewamanne, S. (2003). 'Performing disrespectability: New tastes, cultural practices and identity performances by Sri Lanka's free trade zone garment factory workers,' in *Cultural Dynamics*, 15:71.
- Hopenhayn, M, (2001). "Social roots of violent conflict: ideas based on the Latin American experience", a paper prepared for the Expert Group Meeting on Structural Threats to Social Integrity: Social Roots of Violent Conflict and Indicators for Prevention, New York, 18-20 December 2001.
- Huntington, S. (1996) *The clash of civilisations and the remaking of the world order*. New York, Simon & Schuster.
- ILO:2006. "Decent Work Country Programme. Tanzania." ILO Country Programme for the United Republic of Tanzania, August 2006.
- Imoite J. (2007) Youth participation in politics in Kenya: Challenges and Opportunities. Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars, May, 2007
- International Labour Organisation (2008) *Global employment trends for youth, October 2008*. Geneva, Switzerland:
- Jarwolo, E. (2007) Effective approaches to youth mobilization. In: *Youth and politics in conflict contexts* [Internet]. Conference report, Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars.
- Kombo, D.K. and Tromp, DLA (2006). *Proposal and Thesis Writing*. An Introduction, Paulines Publication Africa. Nairobi, Kenya. Nairobi Reata Printers.
- Lopes, T. and Pasipanodya, T. (2008) *Youth employment initiatives in West Africa. An overview of survey results*. Dakar, YEN-WA.
- McLean H, L. and Fraser, E. (2009) *Youth exclusion, violence, conflict and fragile states*. Report prepared for Department for International Development (DFID) Equity Rights Team. Social Development Direct.
- Mercy Corps. (2011) *Understanding political violence among youths: evidence from Kenya on the links between youth economic independence, social integration and stability*. Government of Kenya and Peacenet.
- Mugenda, O. & Mugenda, A. (1999). *Research Methods. Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Nairobi, Act Press.



- Munive, J. (2010). The army of unemployed young people, *Young*, 18(321), pp. 322–338.
- Newman, J. (2005) *Protection through participation: young people affected by forced migration and political crisis*. Refugee Studies Centre Working Paper No. 20. Oxford, Refugee Studies Centre, University of Oxford.
- O'Brien, D. C. B. (1996) A lost generation? Youth identity and state decay in West Africa. In: Werbner, R. and Ranger, T. (eds) *Postcolonial identities in Africa*. London, Zed Books, pp. 55–74.
- Ogachi, O.. (2009). Economic reform, political liberalization and ethnic conflict in Kenya. *Africa Development XXIV*, nos. 1 and 2.
- Orodho, J. A. (2004). *Techniques of Writing Research Proposals and Report* pp. 317–332.
- Ruteere (2008). 'Dilemmas of Crime, Human Rights and the Politics of *Mungiki* Violence in Kenya.' Nairobi: Kenya Human Rights Commission.
- Salim, S. A. (1999). Localising outbreaks: The role of regional organisation in preventive action. In *Preventative diplomacy*, edited by Kevin M. Cahill.
- Seneratne, J. P. (2007). *Political violence in Sri Lanka, 1977-1990: Riots, insurrections, counter-insurgencies, foreign intervention*. Amsterdam: Leiden Univ. Press.
- Sommers, M. (2006) *Youth and Conflict: A Brief Review of the Available Literature*, Washington DC: United States Agency for International Development (USAID).
- Sommers, M. (2009) *Fearing Africa's young men: male youth, conflict, urbanisation and the case of Rwanda. The other half of gender: men's issues in development*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
- Sommers, M. (2010) Urban Youth in Africa, *Environment and Urbanization*, 22(317),
- Sundberg, A. (1999). Class and ethnicity in the struggle for power – The failure of democratization in the Congo-Brazzaville. *Africa Development XXIV*, nos. 1 and 2.
- Trevo, G.S. (1999). In *Comprehending and mastering African conflicts*, edited by Adebayo Adedeji. London: Zed Books.

- Ukeje, M. (2001) Youth violence and collapse of public order in the Niger Delta of Nigeria. *Africa Development*, Vol 26, Number 2, pp 336–348.
- UNESCO (2004), Language as Violence, Violence as language, A Report of the UNESCO Youth Forum 9-12 August 2004 prepared by Section for Youth BSP, for the 3rd World Youth Festival Forum of Cultures, 2004, Barcelona
- UN-Habitat (2007), Youth Crimes and Violence: City Case Studies. Un Habitat Press
- UNICEF, HIV/AIDS Unit, (2011). “Fact sheet: HIV/AIDS and children affected by armed conflict”...
- UNICEF. (2009) *Children and conflict in a changing world, Machel study 10-year strategic review*. New York: UNICEF.
- United Nations of Youth Foundation (now the United Network of Young Peacebuilders), African Network of Young Peace-builders, African Peace-building Toolkit, compiled by J. Salgado, I. Aparicio San-José and A. Hemmingson (June 2001), p. 100.
- United Nations, “Report of the Panel on United Nations Peace Operations” (Brahimi report) (A/55/305- S/2000/809)
- Urdal, H. and Hoelscher, K. (2009) *Urban youth bulges and social disorders: empirical studies in Asian and sub-Saharan cities*. Policy research paper 5110. Washington, DC, World Bank.
- USAID (2005). *Youth and conflict: A toolkit for intervention*. Washington, DC: USAID.
- USAID (2009), Cross-Sectoral Assessment for At-Risk Youth in Kenya, USAID, Kenya
- Weeratunga, N. (2008, unpublished). *Developing youth entrepreneurs: A critical analysis of policy and programs on entrepreneurship as a youth employment strategy in Sri Lanka*. Revised YEN Working Group Paper.
- World Bank (2007a). *World Development Report 2007: Development and the next generation*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- World Bank (2007b). *Country Assistance Strategy – Sri Lanka*. Colombo: World Bank.

## **APPENDICES**

### **APPENDIX I: LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL**

University of Nairobi  
Department of Extra Mural Studies  
P.O. BOX 30197  
NAIROBI

#### **RE: RESEARCH PROJECT**

Dear Respondent,

I am a student of the University of Nairobi pursuing a Master of Arts Degree in Project Planning and Management. I am conducting an academic research on factors predisposing youth into conflict in Garissa municipality. I will appreciate if you could answer the following questions as comprehensively and as truthful as possible. Please use the space provided.

Yours faithfully,

Muhumed Muktar Abdille

## APPENDIX II

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE OFFICIALS

The purpose of this questionnaire is to solicit information on the factors predisposing youth to conflict. You are required to participate in the study by filling in this questionnaire. You are assured that the information that you provide will be used for the purpose of the study and that your identity will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Kindly respond to all the questionnaire items as truthful as possible.

#### Section one: Demographic information

1. What is your gender?

Male [     ]     Female     [     ]

2. What is your age bracket

Below 25 years     [     ]     26 – 30 years [     ]

31 – 35 years     [     ]     36 – 40 years [     ]

41 – 45 years     [     ]     46 – 50 years [     ]

51 years and above [     ]

3. What is your highest level academic qualifications?

Certificate [     ]     Diploma     [     ]

Degree     [     ]     Masters     [     ]

4. How long have you been in this organisation?

Below 1 year [     ]     1 – 5 years     [     ]     6 – 10 years [     ]

11 – 15 years [       ]       16 years and above [       ]

**Section Two: Influence of education system contributes to youth conflict**

1. How would you rate the level of education of the youth in Garissa?

Very High [       ]       High [       ]       Low [       ] very low

2. How would you rate the accessibility of education by youth in Garissa?

Very accessible [       ] moderately accessible [       ]

Not accessible [       ]

3. Has the education system enabled youth to become self reliance

Yes [       ]       No [       ]       not sure [       ]

4. Do youth engage themselves in conflict because of lack of education?

Yes [       ]       No [       ]

5. Have the youth in Garissa received education

Yes [       ]       No [       ]

6. How does education system contribute to conflict among the youth?

---

---

---

---

**Section Three: Influence of accessibility to weapons on youth conflict**

1. How do you rate the accessibility of weapons in Garissa?

Very accessible [ ] Moderately accessible [ ]

Not accessible [ ]

2. Does accessibility of weapons lead to youth conflict?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

3. Are youth in Garissa accessing small arms?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

4. What factors lead to small arms accessibility in Garissa?

---

---

---

---

5. How do you rate the level of armed conflict in Garissa?

Very high [ ] High [ ] Low [ ]

Negligible [ ]

#### **Section Four: Influence of cultural and social norms on youth conflict**

1. Do youth experience conflict as a result of different cultural orientation?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

2. Are there cultural factors that lead to youth conflict among the youth?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

2 (ii) If yes please explain

---

---

---

---

3 How would you rate the contribution of culture to youth conflict?

Very high contribution [ ] High contribution [ ]

Low contribution [ ] Negligible contribution [ ]

**Section Five: Influence of political risk factors on youth conflict**

1. Are youth in Garissa involved in political conflict?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If yes please explain

---

---

---

---

2. How do you rate the contribution of politics to youth conflict?

Very high [ ] High [ ]

Low [ ] Very low [ ]

3. How do you rate the involvement of youth in the post election violence in 2007/2008?

Very high involved [ ] Highly involved [ ]

Low involvement [ ] Very low involvement [ ]

4. How would you rate the youth involvement in youth conflict?

Very high [ ] High [ ] Low [ ]

Very low [ ]

5. Are there political conflicts that youth are involved in?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If yes please explain

---

---

---

**Section Six: Influence of economic related risk factors on youth conflict**

1. What forms of economic activities are youth in Garissa involved in?

---

---

---

2. How do you rate the nature of unemployment in Garissa?

Very high [ ] high [ ] low [ ]

Does unemployment lead to youth conflict?

b) If yes please explain your answer

---

---

---



3. Are youth endowed with resources to establish their own businesses?

Yes [     ]     No [     ]

b) If yes please explain

---

---

4. How do would you rate the number of youth who have engaged themselves in income generating activities?

Very high [     ] high [     ] low [     ]

## APPENDIX III

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE YOUTH

The purpose of this questionnaire is to solicit information on the factors predisposing youth to conflict. You are required to participate in the study by filling in this questionnaire. You are assured that the information that you provide will be used for the purpose of the study and that your identity will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Kindly respond to all the questionnaire items as truthful as possible.

#### Section one: Demographic information

1. What is your gender?

Male [     ]     Female     [     ]

2. What is your age bracket

Below 25 years     [     ]                      26 – 30 years [     ]

31 – 35 years     [     ]                      36 – 40 years [     ]

41 – 45 years     [     ]                      46 – 50 years [     ]

51 years and above [     ]

3. What is your highest level academic qualifications?

Certificate [     ]     Diploma                      [     ]

Degree [     ]     Masters                      [     ]

4. How long have you been working in this organisation?

Below 1 year [     ]     1 – 5 years [     ]     6 – 10 years [     ]

11 – 15 years [       ]       16 years and above [       ]

**Section Two: Influence of education system contributes to youth conflict**

1. How would you rate the level of education of the youth in Garissa?

Very High [       ]       High [       ]       Low [       ] very low

2. How would you rate the accessibility of education by youth in Garissa?

Very accessible [       ] moderately accessible [       ]

Not accessible [       ]

3. Has the education system enabled youth to become self reliance

Yes [       ]       No [       ]       not sure [       ]

4. Do youth engage themselves in conflict because of lack of education?

Yes [       ]       No [       ]

5. Have the youth in Garissa appreciated the education?

Yes [       ]       No [       ]

6. How does education contribute to conflict among the youth?

---

---

---

**Section Three: Influence of accessibility to weapons on youth conflict**

1. How do you rate the accessibility of weapons in Garissa?

Very accessible [       ]       Moderately accessible

Not accessible [       ]

2. Does accessibility of weapons lead to youth conflict?

Yes [     ]     No [     ]

3. Are youth in Garissa accessing small arms?

Yes [     ]     No [     ]

4. What factors lead to small arms accessibility in Garissa?

---

---

---

---

5. How do you rate the level of armed conflict in Garissa?

Very high [     ]     High [     ]     Low [     ]

Negligible [     ]

**Section Four: Influence of cultural and social norms on youth conflict**

1. Are there cultural conflict among the youth?

Yes [     ]     No [     ]

2. Are there cultural factors that lead to youth conflict among the youth?

Yes [     ]     No [     ]

b) If yes please explain

---

---

---

---

3. How would you rate the contribution of culture to youth conflict?

Very high contribution [ ] High contribution [ ]

Low contribution [ ] Negligible contribution [ ]

**Section Five: Influence of political risk factors on youth conflict**

1. Are youth in Garissa involved in political conflict?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If yes please explain

---

---

---

2. How do you rate the contribution of politics to youth conflict?

Very high [ ] High [ ]

Low [ ] Very low [ ]

3. How do you rate the involvement of youth in the post election violence in 2007/2008?

Very high involved [ ] Highly involved [ ]

Low involvement [ ] Very low involvement [ ]

4. Indicate the contribution of politics to youth conflict?

Very high [ ] High [ ]

Low [ ] Very low [ ]

5. Are there political conflicts that youth are involved in?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If yes please explain

---

---

---

---

**Section Six: Influence of economic related risk factors on youth conflict**

1. What forms of economic activities are youth in Garissa involved in?

---

---

---

---

2. How do you rate the nature of unemployment in Garissa?

Very high [ ] high [ ] low [ ]

3. Does unemployment lead to youth conflict?

b) If yes please explain your answer

---

---

---

4. Are youth endowed with resources to establish their own businesses?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If yes please explain

---

---

---

5. How do you rate the proportion of youth managing the economy in Garissa?

Very high [ ] high [ ] low [ ]