

**EFFECTS OF ARMED CONFLICTS ON THE NATIONAL SECURITY OF POST
CONFLICTS STATES, A CASE STUDY OF JUBA COUNTY IN CENTRAL
EQUATORIAL STATE, SOUTH SUDAN**

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**A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate School in Partial Fulfilment for the Requirements
for the Master of Arts Degree in Security Management of Egerton University**


EGERTON UNIVERSITY

OCTOBER, 2024

DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Declaration

This thesis is my original work and to the best of my knowledge has not been presented for examination or any academic award in any institution or university.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family members, friends, and colleagues.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to acknowledge Jehovah God, for his grace that has enabled me to have the enthusiasm to do this kind of spirited exercise, writing this thesis. The academic accomplishment was not only my effort but also the strong support and understanding from my family and friends who provided spiritual and emotional guidance. Thanks to all that gave me support to complete this academic work.

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ABSTRACT

This study was necessitated by persistent armed conflicts in South Sudan despite several peaceful resolutions that this study believe had implications on its national security in Juba County. The study assessed the nature of existing armed conflicts and their effect on security management in Juba County, established the influence of the local and regional dynamics of conflicts on security management and finally examined the effect of the emerging security threats on security national in Juba County, South Sudan. The study was guided by two theories; Conflict Transformation and National Security. The study used descriptive survey research design and purposive sampling technique to enlist 210 respondents. The method of data collection was the questionnaire. Data collected was transcribed and coded using NVIVO software. Descriptive statistics were used to present quantitative data. Content analysis was used to analyze qualitative data. The study established a dichotomy of existing armed conflicts; external and internal conflicts in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan that had serious implication on both Security Management and National security. The second objective established the influence of local and regional dynamics that affected security management that included; Interlocking political and tribal division aspects of conflict. The third objective established the effect of several emerging security threats on Security Management strategies in Juba County, which included migrant migration for domestic and international child soldiering recruitment in the context of the on-going civil war and also for soldiering elsewhere outside the country; rise of the Lords Resistant Army (LRA) and the SPLM-10 whose methods of killing and torturing innocent civilians are the same as which created a plethora of security concerns worth further interrogation. The study concludes that South Sudan is not safe, thus, East African region too. The study recommends establishing a five-year presidential term, renewable once, emphasizing fair and transparent elections embedded in the constitution. Further, the study recommends; demilitarization of governance, putting regional and international intervention to crash the interstate conflicts between the North and South Sudan, correcting error that occurred during transition and evolution of South Sudan. There should be a replacement of the socio-cultural belief that construe cattle with wealth, status and prestige with a more superior ideology and by so doing crush cattle rustling. The study recommends a study to establish the depth of this problem with a view of cutting this problem in the nib.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CAR:	Central African Republic
CPA:	Comprehensive Peace Agreement
DFID:	Department for International Development
DRC:	Democratic Republic of Congo
EAC:	East Africa Community
HOA:	Horn of Africa
IED:	Improvised Explosive Device
LRA:	Lord's Resistance Army
NSS:	National security Services
OECD:	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSAC	Overseas Security Advisory Council
RTGONU:	Revitalized Transitional Government of National Unity
SALW:	Small Arms Light Weapons
SPLM:	Sudan People's Liberation Movement
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Science
SSD:	South Su
SSNPS:	South Sudan National Police Services
TOC:	Transnational organized crime
UCDP:	Uppsala Conflict Data Program
UNDP:	United Nations Procurement Division
UNDSS:	United Nations Department of Safety and Security
UNMIS:	United Nations Mission in the Sudan
UNODC:	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNPOL:	United Nations Police
UNTOC:	United Nations Transnational Organized Crimes
USA:	United States of America

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

According to Williams (2016) the world has witnessed a number of civil wars since 1945 with an estimated number of casualties at around forty million and over sixty million people displaced. Further, the conflicts have continued to ravage many societies, leading to death and destruction, the crumbling of weak states, local and international insecurity, and a vicious cycle of underdevelopment, instability, and aggression. This situation has contradicted the hope of many that the end of the cold war in 1989/90s would usher in an era of peace, economic prosperity, harmony and greater cooperation among the nations of the world and regions. These wars were conducted in different forms, and different levels of severity (Panic, 2005).

Observably, this has been the unfortunate trend in developing countries. The rise of extremist groups such as al-Shabaab (Barnaby, 2011), Boko Haram (Bayerl, 2015), and Al Qaeda (Hoffman, 2006) has apparently compounded this problem. Besides, the international community has been grappling with ways to end violent conflicts, although their comprehensive knowledge, policy, and practice for effective responses remain disjointed (Williams, 2020), resulting in misinformed interventions bearing limited effects (Blair & Oxfam, 2015). The result has been notable insecurity in countries such as Cambodia (National Institute of Statistics, 2019), El Salvador (UN Office on Drugs and Crime, 2020), Haiti (United Nations Development Programme, 2019), Bosnia (Office of the High Representative, 2020), East Timor (World Bank, 2019), amongst others.

Since the end of the Cold War, the Horn of Africa (HOA) has also experienced a disproportionately large number of armed conflicts. This region has been plagued by instability and violence, with numerous civil wars, border disputes, and humanitarian crises (World Bank, 2019). According to the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP), there have been an estimated 630 state-based and non-state armed conflicts on the continent between 1990 and 2015 (Williams, 2016). Explanations for this glut of armed conflicts in Africa remain the subject of debates. Nevertheless, between the early 1990s and the late 2000s, Africa underwent a period of significant progress in reducing the number and intensity of armed conflicts. Further, Barbara (2015) argued that since 2010, however, the continent has witnessed some disturbing upward conflict trends. Specifically, there have been significant reversals in the decline of state-based armed conflicts and

deliberate campaigns of violence against civilians; religious and environmental factors have played increasingly significant roles in a wide range of armed conflicts; there has been a dramatic increase in the levels of popular protests across the continent; as well as an exponential rise in the use of improvised explosive device (IED) attacks and suicide bombings. International efforts to respond to some of these developments by deploying more robust and militarized forms of peace operations and interventions have met with at best only limited success (Barbara, 2015).

The Republic of the Sudan as one of the HOA countries has had wars with itself since 1950s. The cause of the conflict may not differ to a large extent from those of other conflict in other nations of the HOA. At the eve of its independence from the British colonial rule in 1955, war broke out between the Arab North and the black people of the South, who felt marginalized by the minority Arab regime in Khartoum (Panic, 2005). These conflicts raged on for over fifteen years and ended in 1972 with a peace accord, famously known as the Addis Ababa Agreement (Christopher & Gibbon, 2015). The accord guaranteed greater autonomy to the South and attempted to solve the issues of imbalanced power sharing (Africa Research Institute, 2020). Although the agreement brought relative peace for a period of ten years, a second phase of war broke out again due to a total violation of the agreement and specifically for unilaterally declaring Sudan an Islamic state by the then regime in 1983 (Packer, 2006).

The 2005 Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) brought an end to the second phase of the Sudanese protracted twenty-one-year civil war (United Nations Mission in Sudan, 2005). The CPA undoubtedly ushered in an opportunity for peace and for the people of Sudan to live together as equals in one country (Human Rights Watch, 2014). Equally, the CPA provided the opportunity for South Sudanese to decide whether to live with the Arab North in a united Sudan or separate from Sudan at the end of the six-year interim period (International Crisis Group, 2011).

In 2011, the people of South Sudan overwhelmingly voted for separation through an internationally monitored referendum to be on their own, hence the birth of the Republic of South Sudan (BBC News, 2011). This led to a new era of independence and self-determination for the people of South Sudan. This civil war/conflict is related to security challenges in Sudan, before South Sudan got its independence. The conflict was rooted in racial, religious, cultural, and political discrimination of the African majority in the country by a minority Arab clique who monopolized power in the country (Khalid, 2012). This discrimination was perpetuated through policies that favored the Arab elite, including land appropriation, marginalization of African

languages and cultures, and restrictions on economic opportunities (African Union Commission, 2019).

The oppressed Africans in Southern Sudan took arms with the objective of seeking freedom from domination and for recognition and realization of their distinct racial, cultural, and religious identity, exclusivity, and full equality in governance and the enjoyment of all rights as citizens (Lubkemann, 2018). The conflict was also fuelled by economic inequality, lack of representation, and political exclusion (Mehler & Söderberg Kovacs, 2019).

Armed conflicts in general have both short- and long-term effects on the people and the nation. It is a key challenge to national security management. It is easy to start a conflict, but it can be an uphill task to restore and sustain the social fabric of societies dislocated by war and reconstruct the physical and social structures of the affected country. As observed by Berhanu (2013), in the conflicts of Africa, though with variation, "there is no instance of any member state where leaders have managed to avert the taking shape and escalation of intra-state violence episodes and move forward resolving the adverse impact of war in a sustainable manner" (p. 12).

Despite efforts to address these challenges, many post-conflict countries continue to struggle with rebuilding and reconciliation (Chopra, 2019). The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has recognized that "the reconstruction process is often plagued by inadequate planning, insufficient resources, and a lack of coordination" (UNDP, 2020).

Given the history of the new nation, South Sudan is now grappling with the legacy of the conflicts it has had experiencing which to a large extent is affecting the country's national security management strategies. National security strategy is a common language used for describing country's foreign relations and defense. It is the bedrock where advancement of essential national goals and purpose, which define a country starts. National Security strategy of any country must include reservation of the country's political identity, institutions, values and systems that foster financial wellbeing of its citizens while advancing regional order that support the important desires of that country and her friends (Berhanu, 2013).

In reality, a country's national security strategy entails the utilization of national authority, which involves the use of available avenues for advancing national goals. This concept is crucial to understanding that national security is not only relevant in times of war but also in times of peace. Against this backdrop, the researcher aims to investigate the emerging threats to national security management in Juba, South Sudan. The research examines South Sudan's national

security strategy over the last 15 years, from 2005 as a regional government to the time of its independence in 2011 and up to 2020.

The study reveals that South Sudan's national security strategy has been shaped by its colonial past, civil wars, and external factors (African Union, 2019). The government has struggled to consolidate its authority and establish a stable security architecture (Mamdani, 2017). Despite these challenges, the government has made some progress in developing its national security strategy, which is guided by a vision of a secure and prosperous nation (Republic of South Sudan, 2013). However, the country still faces numerous threats to its national security, including terrorism, armed rebellion, and human trafficking (International Crisis Group, 2020). The United Nations has expressed concern about the impact of these threats on civilians and the need for a comprehensive approach to address them (United Nations Office for West Africa, 2020).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite her independence in 2011 South Sudan has continued to be embroiled in new and devastating armed conflicts mostly targeted on civilians, ethnic groups, and warring parties accused of war crimes against humanity. These conflicts have not only resulted in a major humanitarian crisis, but also caused mass displacements, and mass atrocities against South Sudanese citizens. These conflicts have continued unabated despite robust and militarized forms of peace operations and interventions by government forces. This current study was conceived because of protracted insecurity in South Sudan which is perceived by this study to be a threat to the country's National Security Management. Although there is a colossal amount of literature on the effects of conflicts in South Sudan, literature on its effects on National Security is scanty. This study therefore sought to fill this gap by showing that situations of continued armed conflicts, can be exploited by enemy forces to further destabilize government in addition to other ramifications against its citizens, hence the rationale for this study in Central equatorial state, Juba.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study was guided by both the broad and specific objectives as follows;

1.3.1 Broad Objective

The broad objective of this study was to investigate the effects of armed conflicts on the national security of post conflicts states, a case study of Juba County in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The study was guided by the following specific objectives

- i. To determine the influence of the nature of existing armed conflicts and their on the security of Post conflicts States in South Sudan.
- ii. To establish the influence of the regional dynamics of conflicts on the security of Post Conflicts States in South Sudan.
- iii. To examine the effect of the emerging security threats on security management strategies in South Sudan..

1.4 Research Questions

The study answered the following research questions;

- i. What is the influence of the nature of existing armed conflicts on the security of post conflicts states in South Sudan?
- ii. What is the influence of the regional dynamics of conflicts on the security of post conflicts states in South Sudan?
- iii. How do the emerging security threats affect security management strategies in South Sudan??

1.5 Justification of the Study

This study hopes to contribute in proposing strategies and approaches of addressing the emerging security threats to post-conflict reconstruction to ensure sustainable peace, security and development in Juba County, Central Equatorial State, South Sudan and to avoid a similar crisis as witnessed in 2013 and 2016 respectively. The study also hopes to benefit the Revitalized Transitional Government of National Unity (RTGONU) and the people of South Sudan in their national reconstruction programs to ensure that there is no recurrence of war or conflict in the Country.

Secondly, as it has already been established, this study fills the existing knowledge gaps in terms of NSS, aiming at prevention or mitigation of the possible recurrence or outbreak of further conflicts in South Sudan, by identifying key emerging threats to the national security management strategies in the country with specific focus on Juba. It is imperative to note that failure to address the emerging threats is likely to impact negatively on an effective post confliction reconstruction process and national security management of the country. This is with specific reference to the

experience of the six years interim period following the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) signed between the government of Sudan and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM) in 2005.

Thirdly, the study findings may benefit other actors, such as the regional organizations (for instance, Inter-Governmental Organization on Development, East African Community, and international (UNMISS, TROIKA, and other UN Agencies) players in the reconstruction of post-conflict South Sudan, especially that, the current conflict in South Sudan has security repercussions on its neighbours in terms of the influx of refugees to neighbouring countries, small arms proliferation, and trans-boundary crimes.

1.6 Scope and limitations of the Study

The study was limited to Juba County in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan. This is because of the increased cases of insecurity in the area which this study assumed was related to unending conflicts in South Sudan. Besides, for some time, Juba has been a metropolitan city and has served as both the political and economic capital of the country. It is therefore characterized by the influx of citizens from the ten states, the region, and other countries. The study was also limited to the perceptions of security sector agencies. Moreover, some respondents and institutions with crucial information were not willing to share it, especially information on sensitive security matters. The researcher resolved the problem by assuring the individuals and institutions of confidentiality in handling the information that was being sought.

1.7 Definition of Terms

Conflict: Refers to any situation in which there are incompatible goals, cognitions, or emotions within or between individuals or groups that lead to opposition or antagonistic interaction. An organization or a country uses such security management procedures as information classification, risk management, and risk analysis to identify threats, categorize assets, and rate system, vulnerabilities so that they can engage in risk mitigation by implementing effective controls.

Emerging Threats to National Security: This term will be used to mean; Smuggling of Migrants in East Africa, Illicit Arms Trafficking, Terrorism Threat, Corruption and Economic Espionage, Kidnapping Threat, Religious and Ethnic Violence and Cattle-raiding.

Local and Regional Dynamics of Conflicts: This term will be used to mean; interlocking political and tribal divisions, weak governance, entrenched inequality, corruption and poverty, Rise of insurgents and armed cross border militia groups from the north and greed.

National Security: Refers to a corporate term that encompasses both the country's defense and foreign relations and diplomacy. In this study, the researcher considers National security as the concept that a government, along with its parliaments should protect the state and its citizens against all kind of 'national' crisis through a variety of power projections, such as political power, diplomacy, economic power, military might, national cohesion and integration, environmental protection and so on.

Post-Conflict: The refers to a situation in which open warfare has come to an end. It is a period of time after a conflict or war has ended, characterized by a transition from a state of active conflict to a state of relative peace and stability. Post-conflict has two dimensions. The first is the determination of the beginning of a conflict period and the second is major events used to determine the official end of a war is the date of signature of comprehensive agreement between the warring parties.

Post-Conflict State: it refers to a country or region that has recently emerged from a period of armed conflict, civil war, or political instability. Post-conflict states are characterized by a transition from a state of war to a state of peace, and are typically marked by a number of challenges and opportunities.

Security Management: Security management is the identification of an organization's or country's assets (including information and intelligence assets), followed by the

development, documentation, and implementation of policies, strategies, and procedures for protecting these assets and the country. In this current study security management refers to how the security apparatus of South Sudan manages and handles the security situation in South Sudan.

Security: Security is about freedom from threat and the ability of states to maintain independent identity and their functional integrity against forces of change, which they see as hostile while its bottom line is survival.

Strategy: Minzberg (1994), in his book "The Rise and Fall of Strategic Planning" argued that strategy is applied in different contexts and it is a plan, a pattern, position, or perspective. For instance, the strategy that will be applied in this study is to plan, implement and monitor as well as gathering and analysing the information that is going to be used in this study. Without better strategies, the collection of data, data management, and data analysis will be hard and impossible.

Threats: A threat in national security management strategy refers to anything intended to harm or alter the national interests of a given country. A threat is also the cause of danger. For this research, a threat is anything that harms the security of a country. In this research, the researcher will evaluate the benefits of preventing and eliminating national security threats and strategies that can be applied without causing more harm to the country. Noticeably, threats are ever-present for every system.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents extant literature that was pertinent to this study guided by the study objectives. The chapter looks at the known effects of armed conflicts on the national security of post conflicts states. Relevant theories that guided the study are also presented. Finally, a theoretical framework was presented showing existing relationship between thematic variables under investigation.

2.2 The Influence of the Nature of Existing Armed Conflicts

Armed conflicts refer to situations where combatants engage in violent or hostile actions, often resulting in significant harm or loss of life, property damage, and disruption of social structures (Kalyvas, 2003). There are various types of armed conflicts, including: Intrastate conflicts: Conflicts within a state's borders, often involving government forces and non-state actors (Kisangani & Pickering, 2017), interstate conflicts: conflicts between two or more states, which can escalate into full-scale wars (Singer & Small, 2020), non-state conflicts: Conflicts involving non-state actors, such as terrorist organizations or insurgent groups (Crenshaw, 2018) and civil wars: Conflicts within a state between government forces and non-state actors, often resulting in significant humanitarian crises (Brady & Collier, 2019).

Wessells (1998) aver that armed conflicts within States are political conflicts involving citizens fighting for internal change. Besides, some are secessionist movements, generally spearheaded by a group of people, more often than not a minority within a community, who take up arms to fight for the establishment of either an autonomous entity within an existing state or an entirely new and independent state of their own (Wessells, 1998). Observably, such struggles have taken place recently in Asia and Europe. Such conflicts have been relatively uncommon in Africa, although issues related to ethnic identity are an important factor in African politics. Notably, In Europe, between 1991 and 1992 Slovenia, Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina seceded from Yugoslavia after short or prolonged war, while the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia did so peacefully. Barring these and East Timor, the break-up of States as a result of secessionist movements has been rare. Observably, such struggles though relatively uncommon in Africa, are an important factor in African politics that is potentially a threat to national security that cannot

be wished away. It is upon this background that this study collected data and tested this phenomenon in the context of Juba County in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan, hence the rationale for this current study.

According to Machel (1996), a second category of armed conflicts within states involves groups that are armed and prepared to fight in order to seize governmental power. These conflicts may not necessarily be driven by political motivations, but rather by economic interests, often driven by the desire for financial gain. Unlike secessionist movements, these groups are typically willing to coexist with other groups in the same territory, regardless of the outcome of the conflict. This category of conflict is distinct from those driven by political or nationalist goals, and is instead motivated by self-interest. This study tested this phenomenon in the context of Juba County in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan, hence the rationale for this current study.

Most armed conflicts are fought not only by regular armies but also by militias and armed civilians with little discipline and with ill-defined chains of command. Such clashes are in fact often guerrilla wars without clear front lines. Another important feature in such conflicts is usually the collapse of the institutions of the state, especially the police and judiciary, with resulting paralysis of governance, a breakdown of law and order, and general banditry and chaos. In some cases, not only are the functions of government suspended but its assets are destroyed or looted and experienced officials are killed or flee the country (Wessells, 1998). It is upon this background that this study assessed the impact of this phenomenon to national security.

According to Armed Conflict Report (1998) in Canada, fighting in most conflicts is usually intermittent, with a wide range in intensity. Besides, it usually occurs not on well-defined battlefields but in and around communities, and is often characterized by personalized acts of violence, such as atrocities committed by former neighbours and, in extreme cases, genocide. In some cases, the fighting spills over to neighbouring countries used by one of the parties in the conflict as supply routes or hideouts for combatants. Home-grown weapons, such as machetes and spears, maim many in armed conflicts, but imported machine-guns, grenades, mortars and armoured vehicles kill many more. The weapons are acquired by warring parties, either through hard currency purchases or through what are known as “parallel financing”, which involves the sale or barter of goods, such as diamonds, oil, timber and coffee (Human Rights Watch, 2002). These illicitly traded goods can be used to fund military activities and sustain armed groups, perpetuating the conflict (Aden, 2014).

There is usually some level of external involvement, whether in the form of arms supply to the warring factions, provision of military advisers or direct combat support for a particular side, as was noted earlier in the case of the Democratic Republic of Congo, Liberia, and Sierra Leone); Amnesty International, 2018). This external involvement can significantly exacerbate the conflict, leading to a prolonged and devastating outcome for civilians (Sollenberger, 2004).

Brief ceasefires characterize most armed conflicts. Armed conflicts may end in many ways, including through peace agreements entered into by the warring parties to explicitly regulate or resolve contentious issues (Kaldor, 2001). They may also end through outright victory, where one party has been defeated and/or eliminated by the other (Keen, 2008). For some experts, conflicts may also be considered to have ended in situations in which even though there has been no formal ceasefire, fighting has been dormant for two years (Stedman, 1997).

According to the United Nations Integrated Regional Information Network (IRIN), a workshop on Small Arms Trafficking in Africa held in 1999 highlighted a significant feature of twentieth-century armed conflicts: civilians have often become the main combatants, as well as the primary victims (IRIN, 1999). This phenomenon can be attributed to various factors, including the proliferation of small arms and light weapons, the collapse of state institutions, and the rise of non-state actors such as militia groups and criminal organizations (Small Arms Survey, 2001). These factors have led to an increase in armed conflicts that involve civilians as combatants, often with devastating consequences (Kaldor, 2001).

The involvement of civilians in armed conflicts can take many forms, including forced recruitment into armed groups, sexual slavery, and forced labour (Human Rights Watch, 2002). Civilians are also frequently targeted by armed groups and government forces, leading to high levels of violence, displacement, and human suffering (Amnesty International, 2003). The impact of civilian involvement in armed conflicts is far-reaching and devastating. Civilians are often caught in the crossfire between warring parties, leading to high levels of mortality and injury (ICRC, 2004). Additionally, civilians may be forced to flee their homes and seek refuge in camps or urban areas, leading to humanitarian crises (UNHCR, 2005).

While it is challenging to estimate civilian casualties in war with precision, authorities concur that the trend is upward (Sivard, 1996). According to World Military and Social Expenditures 1996, civilians comprised approximately 50% of war-related deaths in the first half of the 20th century (Sivard, 1996). Furthermore, the proportion of civilian deaths has continued to

rise over the decades. In the 1960s, civilians accounted for 63% of recorded war deaths (Sivard, 1996), while in the 1980s, this figure increased to 74% (Sivard, 1996). The United Nations Security Council Report of the Secretary-General to the Security Council on the protection of civilians in armed conflict (2002) suggests that the massive killings of civilian populations are largely due to the fact that present-day wars are fought largely within and not between countries (United Nations Security Council, 2002). Villages and streets have become battlefields, and traditional sanctuaries such as hospitals and churches have become targets (United Nations Security Council, 2002). Armed conflicts today destroy crops, places of worship, and schools; nothing is spared (United Nations Security Council, 2002). Moreover, more and more civilians are involved in combat due to the ease of access to small arms and light weapons, which are also inexpensive, reliable, and simple to operate (Sivard, 1996; Wessells, 1998).

Since the end of the Cold War, arms manufacturers have been aggressively promoting sales to developing countries to compensate for the decline in arms purchases by most industrialized countries (Wessells, 1998). As a result, small arms and light weapons have become widely available in many regions of the world and particularly disturbing is the increasing use of young children as soldiers. According to Wessells (1998) and Sivard (1996) there are several reasons why children are recruited as soldiers. They are more docile, complain less and are easily moulded into ruthless fighters. They can easily carry and use lightweight but high-powered weapons. A boy as young as 10 years can strip and reassemble rifles with minimal training. It is also believed that most young soldiers are less afraid of dying than are older combatants. They are often fearless because of being drugged. In addition, children are a greater proportion of the population than are adults in these countries.

In many parts of Africa, for example, half of the population is under 18 years old. Many child soldiers have been deliberately recruited, others abducted, and some coerced into fighting to protect their families (Wessells, 1998). Boys as young as six have been picked from schools and indoctrinated into "small boys" units. Boys have been kidnapped from poor districts of cities or from schools to replenish military forces. To lure children to fight, they are given amulets or the use of "magic" charms, and brainwashed into believing that they are fearless warriors and protected from harm (Wessells, 1998). In other cases, poor parents have offered their children to serve in wars as a means of family survival. Invariably, recruited child soldiers come from impoverished and marginalized backgrounds (Wessells, 1998).

Sivard (1996) aver that the brutal indoctrination of child soldiers leaves them with emotional and psychological scars. Children were made to witness massacres and commit atrocities. In Cambodia, Mozambique and the Sudan, child soldiers were “socialized” into violence by subjecting them to periods of terror and physical abuse. In Sierra Leone, abducted children were forced to witness or take part in the torture and execution of their own relatives. This made them outcasts in their villages and forced them to cling to rebel groups. Another effective tactic used by rebels to spread terror is the execution of the village chief by the youngest boy.

2.3 The Influence of the Local and Regional Dynamics of Conflicts

According to Bosshard (2011) interlocking political and tribal divisions threaten to distract the country from state-building efforts and plunge it into internal turmoil, adding to the misery caused by renewed fighting. However as stated by Stewart (2000), a multidimensional conception of the specific drivers of violence and insecurity, embedded in a detailed understanding of a country’s history, social context and politics, yields a richer and more nuanced understanding of why and how violence manifests. This was apparent in the causes of war in Sierra Leone, for instance, where popular mono-causal explanations that centred on ‘conflict diamonds’ gave way to more nuanced explanations of long-standing grievances about governance breakdown at both formal and informal levels, as well as entrenched inequality and corruption (Richards, 1996).

Whereas the causes of conflicts are still a subject of ongoing unending debates, Stewart (2008) stresses the importance of grievances arising from horizontal inequalities between culturally formed groups. Collier and Hoeffler (2004) identify the opportunity costs of conflict; and Fearon and Laitin (2003) highlight factors such as poverty, political instability, a large population and rough terrain that make insurgencies more feasible. Others have analysed the relationship between resources and conflict (Ross, 2004), pointing to the negotiation of resources is not a neutral or technical process, but rather it is shaped by historical and political power relations (Le Billon, 2001). In addition, the distribution of resources is often a reflection of the power dynamics between different groups and actors, and can be used as a tool of control and coercion (Le Billon, 2012).

An important debate within these arguments is ‘greed’ and ‘grievance’ based explanations of conflict – the former focused on combatants’ desire for material advantage and the latter on perceived injustices (Collier & Hoeffler, 2004). Keen (2012) argues that both ‘greed’ and

'grievance' likely stem from other, perhaps more fundamental, motivations such as the desire for security. Whereas many such studies looked at the causes of conflicts this study went a notch higher and assessed the impact of such conflicts on national security, though in the impact of South Sudan. According to Sudan Tribune (2017) and the International Crisis Group (2018), conflicts in South Sudan have indeed been primarily driven by inter-tribal clashes between the Dinka, Lou Nuer, and other smaller tribes. The Dinka, who make up approximately 40% of the population, have historically been the dominant ethnic group in South Sudan (Sudan Tribune, 2017). The Lou Nuer, accounting for around 20% of the population, have also been involved in various conflicts with the Dinka and other groups (International Crisis Group, 2018). The remaining 40% of the population comprises a diverse range of smaller tribes, including the Nuer, Shilluk, Azande, and others (Sudan Tribune, 2017). These smaller tribes have often found themselves caught in the crossfire of conflicts between the Dinka and Lou Nuer, or have been affected by the broader political and economic instability in the region (International Crisis Group, 2018).

According to the International Crisis Group (2009) and the Enough Project (2011), the Dinka have been a dominant force within the Sudan People's Liberation Army/Movement (SPLM/A), while the Nuer have historically been more closely associated with the earlier separatist movement, the Anya-Nya. During the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) period, which lasted from 2005 to 2011, the SPLM/A dominated the South, while the National Congress Party (NCP) dominated the North. Although other parties and liberation movements existed, these two parties were the most prominent players in their respective regions. According to the African Elections Database (2010), in the South Sudanese Legislative Assembly elections of April 2010, the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM/A) won 160 seats, while the Sudan People's Liberation Movement-Democratic Change (SPLM-DC), a breakaway faction of the SPLM/A, secured two seats. The National Congress Party (NCP) won one seat, and the remaining seven seats were taken by independent candidates. Further, much of the opposition was tribally based. Fortunately for the country and unfortunately for analysts trying to decipher the politics of the nation, differences between political and tribal opposition were never clear-cut.

The Dinka have indeed had a dominant presence within the Sudan People's Liberation Army/Movement (SPLM/A), but the organization has also made significant efforts to integrate other groups, including appointing them to leadership positions. A notable example is the appointment of Vice President Riek Machar, who is Nuer, alongside President Salva Kiir, who is

Dinka. According to various sources, including the Enough Project (2011) and the International Crisis Group (2009), Machar's relationship with Kiir has been tumultuous. Machar has moved in and out of the SPLM/A, even founding a separate organization that sought to negotiate directly with the National Congress Party (NCP) in Khartoum. In 1997, he signed an agreement with the NCP, and later established a military force that competed with the SPLM/A before returning to the organization in 2002. Despite their differences, Machar's return to the SPLM/A was seen as a significant step towards reconciliation and unity within the movement.

The South Sudan Defense Forces (SSDF) played a significant role in the second civil war, forming an uneasy alliance with the National Congress Party (NCP) in Khartoum from 1983 to 2005. Although many SSDF soldiers were incorporated into the Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA) after the Juba Declaration of January 2006, which aimed to unify the South's military forces, recent reports suggest that the militia may be re-emerging within South Sudan, potentially compromising national security. According to a report by the Small Arms Survey (2018), the SSDF has been involved in various conflicts and power struggles in South Sudan since its demobilization, leading to concerns about its potential re-emergence. Another report by the International Crisis Group (2017) notes that the SSDF's re-emergence could exacerbate existing tensions and undermine efforts towards national unity and stability.

The South Sudan Liberation Movement/Army (SSLM/A), which operates in the Upper Nile region, was established in 1999 amidst infighting among the Nuer and has since become a formidable opposition force against the SPLM's rule in South Sudan. In recent times, the SSLM/A has captured bases belonging to the SPLA and has pledged to provide military support to parties involved in conflict in Jonglei State. The SSLM/A was led by Peter Gadet, who has since signed a peace agreement with Juba and is now involved in leading a disarmament campaign in Jonglei that, ironically, targets SSLM/A arms, among others (Enough Project, 2013). Another significant rebel group opposing Salva Kiir's government and the rule by SPLM is the South Sudan Democratic Movement/Army (SSDM/A), which was established in 2010 by former SPLM/A leader George Athor after he lost the governorship of Jonglei State in an election he claimed was rigged (Human Rights Watch, 2012). Although Athor was killed in December 2011, the movement remains relatively active and is considered one of the most prominent insurgencies in the country.

Some have suggested that the SSDM has played a role in fanning the flames of tribal conflict in Jonglei between the Murle and Lou Nuer. More recently, two new groups have emerged

to challenge the SPLM: The National Democratic Front, established in September 2011, is led by a relatively unknown, Jack Deng, and seeks to overthrow Kiir's government, accusing it of "corruption, tribalism, and sliding into the abyss." December 2011 also witnessed the rise of the South Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army, which calls for South Sudan to be governed by Khartoum, mimicking a vision of unity similar to that of the late John Garang. South Sudan has repeatedly accused Khartoum of supporting rebel and militia groups like these, but President Bashir has categorically denied this is the case. The conflicts in South Sudan are further exacerbated by the widespread proliferation of small arms, which were supplied to tribal militias by both the SPLM/A and the northern government for their own political purposes. The inevitable leakage of these weapons from these militias and the SPLM/A itself has created an environment where any group with grievances can easily resort to violence (Sundaram & Shrestha, 2018).

Furthermore, at the local level, much of the tribal conflict is rooted in longstanding issues that have historically led to clashes, such as competition for access to land, water, and pasture – essentially, control over the means of livelihood for rural populations (Kibreab, 2014). This phenomenon can be explained by the concept of resource competition, which posits that conflicts arise when groups compete for limited resources necessary for survival (Homer-Dixon, 1999). In this context, the competition for access to land, water, and pasture can lead to tensions and conflicts between groups with different ethnic or tribal affiliations. There is a significant scientific study gap in this area, as most research focuses on the political and military aspects of conflict without fully exploring the local-level drivers of violence. Further research is needed to better understand the ways in which resource competition and other local-level factors contribute to conflict and violence in South Sudan.

2.4 Effect of the Emerging Security Threats on the Security of Management Strategies

Post-conflict states face unique security challenges exacerbated by emerging threats, which can destabilize already fragile environments. These states often experience weakened governance, diminished institutional capacity, and economic instability, making them particularly susceptible to threats such as organized crime, and even the resurgence of violent extremism. For example, the proliferation of digital technologies in these regions can enhance communication and coordination among insurgent groups or criminal organizations, enabling them to exploit vulnerabilities in state structures. The 2021 International Crisis Group report highlighted that in countries like Libya and Afghanistan, the lack of regulatory frameworks and

skilled personnel in cybersecurity has led to unintended consequences, including increased cyberattacks from both domestic and external actors (International Crisis Group, 2021). Moreover, post-conflict societies may also be grappling with the effects of misinformation and propaganda propagated through social media. Such disinformation campaigns can incite violence, deepen societal divides, and undermine trust in key institutions. In nations recovering from conflict, like South Sudan and the Central African Republic, these threats have been linked to exacerbated ethnic tensions and violence, illustrating how emerging cyber threats can shift power dynamics and create new challenges for peacebuilding efforts (Urban, 2022). Consequently, the very technologies that can facilitate recovery and development can also pose significant risks if left unchecked.

Emerging security threats on the Security of Post Conflicts States include transnational organized crime, smuggling of migrants in east Africa, Illicit Arms Trafficking (Small Arms and Light Weapons), terrorism threat, corruption and economic espionage, cattle-raiding and ungoverned space. Security threats refers to criminal activities that involve the cooperation and coordination of individuals or groups across national borders, often involving illegal activities such as drug trafficking, weapons trafficking, human trafficking, and financial crimes (Shelley, 2018). There are various types of transnational organized crime, including, drug trafficking: The illegal production, transportation, and distribution of drugs across national borders (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2019), human trafficking: The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring, or receipt of persons by means of threat, force, coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, or abuse of power for the purpose of exploitation (International Labor Organization, 2020), weapons trafficking: The illegal trade in weapons and ammunition across national borders (Small Arms Survey, 2018) and financial crimes for instance the illegal activities involving financial transactions and money laundering (Financial Action Task Force, 2020).

According to Williams (2002), the major risk to national and global security is considered to be Transnational Organized Crimes. This perspective highlights the significant threat posed by organized criminal networks that operate across borders, engaging in activities such as drug trafficking, arms dealing, and human trafficking (UNODC, 2010). This has antagonistic impacts on human rights, economic development and democratic institutions. It could be a unique phenomenon that changes depending on many such as technology and geopolitical changes. According to Albanese (2004), it was argued that there are eleven components of organized

criminal organizations. The view that organized criminal organizations possess specific characteristics that enable their success and longevity has been a topic of extensive research and debate in the field of criminology. According to Albanese (2004), one of the most comprehensive studies on this topic, organized criminal organizations exhibit eleven distinct components that contribute to their effectiveness.

Firstly, Albanese (2004) highlights the importance of extensive planning, which enables these organizations to execute complex criminal operations with precision and precision. This planning involves strategic decision-making, resource allocation, and risk assessment, all of which are essential for achieving their goals. Secondly, a chain of command is a crucial component of organized criminal organizations, as it ensures that orders are communicated effectively and carried out efficiently. This hierarchical structure allows for clear lines of authority and accountability, making it easier for the organization to function cohesively. Thirdly, profit through crime is a primary motivation for many organized criminal organizations. This profit can take various forms, such as financial gain, power, or control over specific markets. The use of force or coercion is often employed to achieve this profit, highlighting the violent nature of these organizations. Fourthly, corruption is another key element of organized criminal organizations. This corruption can manifest in various ways, such as bribery, extortion, or influence peddling. It allows these organizations to exploit vulnerabilities in the legal system and create an environment conducive to their activities.

Fifthly, a monopoly over specific markets is another characteristic of organized criminal organizations. By controlling particular industries or sectors, they are able to dictate prices, quality, and availability of goods and services. This allows them to maintain a stranglehold on their respective markets. Sixthly, confined membership is a feature of organized criminal organizations. Members are often selected based on their skills, loyalty, and willingness to follow orders. This creates a sense of exclusivity and cohesion within the organization. Seventhly, non-ideological motivation is a distinguishing feature of organized criminal organizations. Unlike terrorist groups or political extremists, these organizations are not driven by ideological beliefs or agendas. Instead, they are motivated by financial gain and personal enrichment.

Eighthly, specialization is another characteristic of organized criminal organizations. Members often develop expertise in specific areas, such as fraud, extortion, or violence. This specialization enables them to be more effective in their illegal activities. Ninthly, code of secrecy

is a crucial component of organized criminal organizations. Members are often required to maintain confidentiality about their activities and affiliations to avoid detection by law enforcement agencies. Tenthly, open request for services is another characteristic of organized criminal organizations. These requests can take the form of advertising services on social media platforms or through word-of-mouth referrals. This open approach allows potential clients to find and engage with these organizations easily. Albanese's (2004) model highlights the importance of understanding the distinct components that comprise organized criminal organizations. By recognizing these characteristics, law enforcement agencies and researchers can better understand the nature and extent of these organizations' activities. Furthermore, this knowledge can inform effective strategies for disrupting and dismantling these groups.

Further, Williams (2002), argues that transnational organized crime (TOC)is an expansion of organized crimes. However, some Scholars on the other hand refer transnational organized crimes as criminal business that in one way or another cross-nations. The border crossing can include the culprits themselves; illicit goods, illegal Women and Children. One can contend that the only truly worldwide biggest industry is that of crime. For governments, the Trans-nationalization of crime is proving to be a big challenge. The challenge emerges in how various states view the issue differently (Williams (2002). As a result, they may not be willing to work together and often bound by legal frameworks and legacies. There is the resources inadequacy, not all nation-states have the logistical and budgetary capabilities. The developing states are faces enormous challenges when managing organized and transnational organized crimes. The more the disorganization of the political environment, the more a nation-state is helpless the country is to crime and corruption. The international community have made a multi-layered administration that deals with organized crimes from a security, political and economic terms. In spite of the fact that the report needs the exact definition and the types of crimes that constitute emerging threats, the intention is to allow for a broader application of the organized crime treaties to the emerging and ever-changing global issues is essential.

Under the traditional practice, the organized crime groups are defined by the offenses they commit and the profit nature of their kind of work, UNTOC (United Nations Transnational Organized Crimes, (2010). Under the traditional practice, the organized crime groups are defined by the offenses they commit and the profit nature of their kind of work (UNTOC, 2010). This perspective focuses on the criminal activities and financial gains of organized crime groups, often

categorized into distinct types such as: drug trafficking organizations, arms trafficking organizations, money laundering organizations, extortion and fraud schemes, sex trafficking and human exploitation rings. This traditional approach emphasizes the illegal activities and financial motivations of organized crime groups, often overlooking other important aspects such as their internal structures, communication methods, and social networks.

However, perspective has been criticized for being too narrow and not taking into account the complex nature of organized crime. For example, it may not consider the role of corruption, political protection, or the use of violence and intimidation in achieving their goals. A more comprehensive understanding of organized crime requires a multidimensional approach that considers both the criminal activities and the organizational structure and dynamics of these groups. This implies that offenses across two or more states are sometimes arranged in one state and controlled in another. These criminal acts committed in one state maybe influenced another state. Therefore, the inferred definition of TOC incorporates all profit-motivated criminal activities with worldwide implications. This broad definition takes into account the global complexity of the issue and allows cooperation in a wide range of concerns.

Johnson and Donald (2012) in agreement with the objective of the tradition practice that goes beyond the actual terms, it is to encourage cooperation and collaboration among nation-states to counter impediments caused by organized and transnational crimes. According to Johnson and Donald (2012), the traditional practice of defining organized crime goes beyond the actual terms, with the objective of encouraging cooperation and collaboration among nation-states to counter the impediments caused by organized and transnational crimes. This perspective emphasizes the importance of international cooperation and collaboration in addressing the complex and dynamic nature of organized crime. By adopting a broad definition of organized crime, nation-states can work together to share intelligence, coordinate efforts, and develop common strategies to combat this type of criminal activity. This approach recognizes that organized crime is a global problem that requires a global response, and that no single country can effectively combat it alone.

Johnson and Donald (2012) argue that a broad definition of organized crime can facilitate international cooperation in several ways: It allows for the sharing of intelligence and information among countries to identify and track organized criminal networks, it enables countries to develop common strategies and tactics to combat organized crime, such as freezing assets,

extraditing suspects, and disrupting criminal networks, it facilitates the development of international laws and treaties that criminalize organized crime and provide for cooperation among countries in investigating and prosecuting these crimes. By taking a broader view of organized crime, nation-states can work together to address the root causes of this type of criminal activity, such as poverty, corruption, and political instability. This approach recognizes that organized crime is often a symptom of deeper social and economic problems that require a comprehensive response.

Organized crime poses a significant threat to human security, peace, and stability worldwide (Marenin, 2018). It is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that exploits vulnerabilities in societies, economies, and governments, perpetuating cycles of violence, corruption, and inequality (Andreas & Nadelmann, 2006). The effects of organized crime are far-reaching, impacting not only the individuals and communities directly affected but also the broader social fabric of society (Hess & Orthmann, 2017). For instance, organized crime can lead to the perpetuation of human rights violations, as seen in the cases of forced labour, human trafficking, and drug trafficking (UNODC, 2018). Moreover, organized crime can undermine economic development and social justice by diverting resources away from legitimate businesses and investments (Golub & Hiller, 2018). Furthermore, organized crime can also lead to corruption and bribery, which can compromise the integrity of governments and institutions (Transparency International, 2019). This can erode trust in institutions and the rule of law, making it difficult for communities to address other pressing social issues.

In addition to these consequences, organized crime can also have a profound impact on individuals and communities. It can lead to feelings of fear, anxiety, and vulnerability, as well as physical and emotional trauma (Kilgore et al., 2017). One of the most significant consequences of organized crime is the erosion of human rights. Criminal organizations often use violence, intimidation, and manipulation to silence witnesses, coerce victims, and extort money from businesses and individuals. This can lead to a culture of fear, where people are afraid to speak out or report crimes, fearing retaliation or persecution (Friedman & Friedman, 2014). Furthermore, organized crime undermines economic development and social justice. The illegal economy generated by criminal activities diverts resources away from legitimate businesses and investments, perpetuating poverty and inequality. Moreover, the corruption and bribery that often accompany organized crime undermine trust in institutions and the rule of law, eroding social

equity and civil advancement (Golub & Hiller, 2018). The reality is that huge amounts of cash are involved in organized criminal activities, including drug trafficking, weapons trafficking, and the sale of counterfeit goods. This has significant implications for legitimate economies and regimes. Corruption and bribery are often used to facilitate these activities, compromising the integrity of governments and institutions (UNODC, 2019).

Despite the severity of the problem, there is a significant study gap in understanding the complex dynamics between organized crime and corruption. There is a need for further research on the ways in which corruption enables organized crime and how this relationship affects human security and peace. The 21st century security environment poses a complex set of threats to national security, imperilling the essential obligations of nation-states to their people (Realuyo, 2004). In the United States, for instance, organized crime groups have evolved to pose a significant threat to national security by using illegal means to achieve their goals, including violence, killing, threats, and kidnapping. These groups often operate through a transnational organizational structure, utilizing advanced communication mechanisms to facilitate their illicit activities. One of the primary concerns is the impact of organized crime on the economy. The illegal activities of these groups can undermine legitimate businesses and investments, perpetuating poverty and inequality. Moreover, the corruption and bribery that often accompany organized crime can compromise the integrity of governments and institutions, eroding trust in the rule of law (Golub & Hiller, 2018).

Another significant threat posed by organized crime is its ability to disrupt global supply chains and economies. The illegal trade in goods such as drugs, weapons, and counterfeit products can have far-reaching consequences for global stability and security (UNODC, 2019). Despite the significance of this issue, there is a notable study gap in understanding the tactics and strategies used by organized crime groups to evade detection and prosecution. Further research is needed to identify effective countermeasures that can be taken to disrupt their operations and bring them to justice.

Cockayne (1990) notes, the increased ease and speed of international communication and transportation have provided criminals with unprecedented opportunities to organize and operate transnationally. This has enabled them to engage in illegal activities on a global scale, making it increasingly difficult for any one nation to contain or prevent these crimes. The proliferation of transnational crime has far-reaching consequences, including the erosion of trust in governments

and institutions, the undermining of legitimate economies, and the creation of an environment of fear and insecurity (Galeotti, 2015). Moreover, the ability of criminals to operate across borders has made it increasingly difficult to identify and prosecute perpetrators, as well as to recover stolen assets and disrupt criminal networks (Levi & Wallis, 2004).

The impact of transnational crime is not limited to any one country or region. It is a global phenomenon that requires a coordinated and sustained response from governments, law enforcement agencies, and civil society. As Cockayne (1990) notes, no nation can afford to ignore the threat posed by transnational crime, as it is a risk that is progressively worldwide. The modern role of transnational organized crime has evolved significantly in recent years, posing a complex and multifaceted threat to global security, stability, and prosperity. This phenomenon has been characterized by the increasing involvement of organized criminal groups in a wide range of illegal activities, including drug trafficking, arms dealing, human trafficking, and cybercrime (Galeotti, 2015). One of the key features of modern transnational organized crime is its ability to operate across borders, often with ease and impunity. This is facilitated by advances in technology, which have enabled criminals to communicate and coordinate their activities anonymously and at a rapid pace (Levi & Wallis, 2004). Furthermore, the increasing globalization of trade and commerce has created new opportunities for organized crime groups to launder money and invest their illegal profits in legitimate businesses (Andreas & Nadelmann, 2006).

The impact of transnational organized crime on global security is significant. It can undermine trust in governments and institutions, erode social cohesion, and create an environment of fear and insecurity (Hess & Orthmann, 2017). In addition, it can also have severe economic consequences, including the diversion of resources away from legitimate businesses and investments, and the corruption of public officials (Golub & Hiller, 2018). Despite these challenges, there is a lack of consensus on how to effectively combat transnational organized crime. Many countries lack the resources and capabilities to investigate and prosecute these crimes effectively, while others may be complicit in or turn a blind eye to the activities of organized crime groups (Realuyo, 2004). The modern role of transnational organized crime is a significant challenge that requires a coordinated and sustained response from governments, law enforcement agencies, and civil society. To effectively combat this phenomenon, it is essential

to develop a deeper understanding of its causes and consequences, as well as the tactics and strategies used by organized crime groups.

The United States National Strategy for Combating Transnational Crime (2003) emphasizes the need for a multidimensional approach to combat transnational crimes and trafficking systems, including disrupting the financial networks that fund terrorist organizations and protecting citizens from their harmful activities. This requires a collaborative effort among countries, as seen in the case of South Sudan, which has worked with other nations to plan and execute a collective strategy to confront the same threats. For instance, South Sudan has partnered with neighbouring countries to share intelligence and coordinate efforts to disrupt terrorist financing networks (UNSC, 2018). Thus, in combating transnational crimes and trafficking systems requires a multidimensional technique that protect the citizens, breaks the money flow to the terrorists. Whereas these are major challenges, South Sudan in collaboration with other countries has been able to plan and execute a collective technique with other countries confronting the same threats. Schlepp (2001), focuses out the basic enablers of Transnational Organized Crimes and to combat these organizations behind it. There is a need to have their operations, inspirations, vulnerabilities and qualities curtailed.

Another emerging threat is the smuggling of migrants, which has become a significant issue in East Africa, with thousands of individuals being trafficked and smuggled every year (IOM, 2020). The region's porous borders, political instability, and economic vulnerability make it an attractive route for human traffickers and smugglers (Ghosh et al., 2020). According to the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime (UNOC), Article 3 of the Smuggling of Migrants Protocol defines migrant smuggling as "the procurement, in whole or in part, of the consent of a person having control over another person, especially a woman, child or other person who is innocent, with the purpose of exploitation" (UNOC, 2000). This illegal activity originates from the Horn of Africa and occurs through various means, including air, land, and sea routes (IOM, 2020). This phenomenon has severe consequences for the migrants, including physical and emotional abuse, exploitation, and even death (Kilpatrick et al., 2019).

A study published in the Journal of Refugee Studies found that between 2015 and 2018, over 100,000 migrants were smuggled out of East Africa, with the majority coming from Ethiopia, Somalia, and Eritrea (Ghosh et al., 2020). The study also found that the majority of these migrants were women and children, who were often subjected to physical and sexual abuse during their

journey. Another study by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) reported that in 2019, over 50% of migrants who arrived in Europe via the Eastern Mediterranean route were from East Africa (IOM, 2020). The study highlighted the increasing trend of East African migrants using this route to reach Europe, which has been facilitated by the rise of smuggling networks and the lack of effective border control measures. The smuggling of migrants in East Africa is often linked to other forms of transnational organized crime, including human trafficking and arms trafficking (Kilpatrick et al., 2019). The instability in the region has created an environment conducive to criminal activity, with armed groups and terrorist organizations profiting from the smuggling trade.

The migrants are driven out of their nations by destitution and strife, climate change and decisive changes in their homelands. The EAC is an open corridor for migrant smuggling and human trafficking DRC reports (2018). Concurring with the Danish Displaced Person Committee (DRC) in South Sudan, it was stated that internal displacement is influenced by almost 80 per cent of migration of the locals. Human trafficking has got no restrictions globally. The hoodlums involved are profoundly organized with worldwide networks. Majority of illegal aliens use organized global criminal networks to access whatever that they want and need and when they need it. The same applies to those seeking employment from developing nation-states in just like the USA and Europe.

Illicit Arms Trafficking (Small Arms and Light Weapons) has become a significant security threat in southern Sudan. Over the years, South Sudan has faced numerous challenges due to the proliferation of illegal weapons smuggled in from neighbouring countries (Human Rights Watch, 2020). According to the Small Arms Survey, an estimated 10 million small arms are estimated to be in circulation in South Sudan, with many being smuggled from neighbouring countries such as the Democratic Republic of Congo, Uganda, and Ethiopia (Small Arms Survey, 2019). Several factors have contributed to the demand for these weapons, including economic, social, and political issues. Economic instability and poverty have driven many individuals to seek illegal means of acquiring weapons, including through illegal arms trafficking (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2018). Additionally, social and political tensions, including conflicts over land and resources, have also contributed to the demand for arms (International Crisis Group, 2019).

The impact of illicit arms trafficking on South Sudan's security is significant. The proliferation of illegal weapons has contributed to the escalation of violence and conflict in the country, including intercommunal fighting and rebel activity (United Nations Mission in South Sudan, 2020). Furthermore, the illegal arms trade has also fuelled corruption and organized crime in South Sudan (Transparency International, 2019). The presence of illegal weapons has exacerbated the ongoing political issues and armed conflicts in the pastoralist areas of Lakes, Warrap, Jonglei, Pibor, and Upper Nile States. According to a report by the United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA), the proliferation of small arms and light weapons has contributed to the perpetuation of violence and instability in these regions (UNODA, 2020).

The economic and social factors also play a significant role in fuelling the demand for illegal weapons. A study by the World Bank found that poverty and unemployment in South Sudan are driving many young people to join armed groups or become involved in illegal activities, including weapon trafficking (World Bank, 2018). Additionally, a report by the International Crisis Group notes that political instability and corruption have created an environment conducive to illegal arms trafficking (ICG, 2019). The rapid increase of Small Arms Light Weapons (SALW) is mostly responsible for humanitarian laws violation. According to Red Cross report (2019), “the proliferation of weapons in the hands of undisciplined and new actors has outpaced efforts to ensure compliance with the basic rules of warfare resulting in Violence and horrific images which threaten to immunize the public and decision makers to violation of humanitarian law”. The demand for international action is evident, as human rights organizations have recorded that uncontrolled small arms and light weapons are a major concern globally, perpetuating numerous human rights abuses and sometimes violating international humanitarian law (Human Rights Watch, 2020). In wartime and post-conflict settings, small arms have been used to destabilize and commit crimes by both government forces and non-state actors (Amnesty International, 2019).

According to Michael (1990), the widespread circulation of small arms around the world has contributed to the scourge of ethnic partisan and criminal cruelty. It is not the weapons themselves that cause conflicts, but rather their ease of accessibility and increased lethality that expand the degree of violence, encouraging savage instead of tranquil resolutions and stability (Michael, 1990). Hartung (1990) adds that guns do not murder individuals, but social orders inundated in weapons are more likely to resolve their differences through violence. The

international community faces significant challenges in halting the murdering and recovering from societal wounds incurred by warlords, criminals, and oppressive governments (Hartung, 1990).

Small arms are preferred by criminal groups and regular forces in armed conflicts due to their numerous advantages and affordability. For instance, the AK-47 rifle can be used by police, military, and security agencies. As a result, the ease of access to light weapons has changed the nature of conflict (Small Arms Survey, 2018). The widespread availability of small arms has led to an increase in violence and instability in many parts of the world. According to a study published in the *Journal of Conflict Resolution* in 2020, "Small arms are a primary driver of conflict and violence in many countries, particularly in Africa and the Middle East" (Gleditsch et al., 2020).

Similarly, a report by the Small Arms Survey, a leading global authority on small arms issues, notes that "the proliferation of small arms has contributed to an escalation of violence in many regions, including the Sahel, the Horn of Africa, and Southeast Asia" (Small Arms Survey, 2020). Furthermore, a study published in the *Journal of International Affairs* in 2019 found that "the availability of small arms is a significant predictor of conflict onset and duration, and that states with high levels of small arms proliferation are more likely to experience political instability" (Hartzell & Regan, 2019).

In addition, the United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs has reported that "the proliferation of small arms has had devastating consequences for human security, including an increase in violent crime, terrorism, and human rights violations" (United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs,

The proliferation of small arms has led to a significant threat to global security, with various actors within and outside the state contributing to the problem. Criminal groups and religious groups are among the actors that have been involved in the misuse of small arms (Gleditsch et al., 2020). The use of small arms has evolved beyond being a single bullet issue, leading to armed confrontations that have devastating effects on civilians (Small Arms Survey, 2020). The hazard of armed confrontations has forced civilians to adapt their daily lives to mitigate the impact of these weapons on their families (Hartzell & Regan, 2019).

Morgenthau's (2020) states that the concept of traditional security, security is primarily concerned with the protection of the state from external military threats. However, the proliferation of small arms has created an environment where the threat to national security is not only external but also internal. The individuals most affected by this situation are women and children, who

often bear the brunt of the consequences (United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs, 2020). The proliferation of small arms has also contributed to a culture of violence by promoting weapon glorification and reliance (Sadowski & Walker, 2019). This has led to a vicious cycle where the availability of small arms perpetuates violence and instability.

The proliferation and illicit trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) have significant effects on human security, particularly affecting women, children, vulnerable groups, and infrastructure (Small Arms Survey, 2020). The misuse of SALW promotes a culture of violence, destabilizes societies, and creates a propitious environment for criminal and illegal activities (Gleditsch et al., 2020). Moreover, violence perpetrated by small arms undermines good governance, hinders economic development, jeopardizes fundamental human rights, and worsens armed conflicts (Hartzell & Regan, 2019). The focus on human security highlights the importance of addressing law and human rights violations, as well as the impact of SALW on public safety and prospects for human development (United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs, 2020). The misuse of SALW can lead to a cycle of violence, displacement of innocent populations, and threats to international humanitarian law (Sadowski & Walker, 2019).

In addition, the proliferation of SALW can have devastating effects on civilians, including women and children, who are often the most vulnerable to the consequences of armed conflicts (Gleditsch et al., 2020). The misuse of SALW can also perpetuate a culture of violence and fear, making it difficult for communities to rebuild and recover from conflict (Hartzell & Regan, 2019). Despite the significant impact of SALW on human security, there remains a significant research gap in understanding the specific ways in which SALW affect different groups within society. For example, there is a lack of research on the impact of SALW on indigenous communities, who may be disproportionately affected by conflict and violence (Morgenthau, 1948). Furthermore, there is a need for more research on the role of SALW in perpetuating gender-based violence and its consequences for women's empowerment and participation in peacebuilding efforts.

Terrorism is another serious threat to global security, causing harm to individuals, communities, and nations. The term "terrorism" refers to the use of violence or threats of violence, particularly against civilians, in order to intimidate or coerce governments, societies, or individuals in pursuit of political, ideological, or religious goals (LaFree & Dugan, 2007). The most widely accepted definition of terrorism is that provided by the US Department of State, which states that

terrorism is "premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetrated against non-combatants targets by subnational groups or clandestine agents" (US Department of State, 2020). Terrorist acts can take many forms, including bombings, assassinations, hijackings, kidnappings, and other forms of violence. The targets of terrorist attacks can include government buildings, public places, transportation systems, and infrastructure (National Counterterrorism Center, n.d.). The motivations behind terrorism can vary widely, but are often driven by political, ideological, or religious beliefs. Terrorist organizations may seek to advance their goals by creating fear and uncertainty among the general population, as well as to draw attention to their cause (Crenshaw, 2011).

Terrorism is a significant threat to global security, causing widespread fear, violence, and destruction. It involves the use of violence or intimidation to achieve political, ideological, or religious goals (Schmid & Jongman, 1988). The threat of terrorism is diverse and dynamic, with various groups and individuals using different tactics to carry out attacks (Gohel, 2015). According to the Global Terrorism Database, there were over 12,000 terrorist attacks in 2020 alone, resulting in over 28,000 deaths (National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism, 2021). The majority of these attacks were carried out by non-state actors, such as terrorist organizations and lone-wolf extremists (Krueger & Maleckova, 2003).

The impact of terrorism is far-reaching and devastating, affecting not only the immediate victims but also their families, communities, and societies as a whole (Hoffman, 2006). The economic costs of terrorism are also significant, with estimates suggesting that the global economy lost over \$2 trillion in 2020 due to terrorism-related damage and disruption (Economic Commission for Europe, 2021). According to Henry and Johnson (1990), the U.S. Department of State has assessed Juba as being a LOW-threat location for terrorism directed at or affecting official U.S. government interests. South Sudan's borders are porous, making it vulnerable to indigenous terrorist organizations from neighbouring countries. Ineffective border controls may allow terrorist and other militant groups to seek refuge in South Sudan.

There is no evidence that terrorist cells train or operate in South Sudan. While the Somali terrorist group al-Shabaab is not known to conduct operations in South Sudan, it is believed to transit the country and may use it as a safe haven (The International Crisis Group, 2019). The northern Uganda-originated Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) had a fairly constant presence in South Sudan in the past, but in recent years has been confined to Northern Democratic Republic

of Congo (DRC) and eastern Central African Republic (CAR) (Human Rights Watch, 2018). There were no reports of major LRA incursions into South Sudan in 2019.

However, South Sudan's longest land border is with Sudan, and large numbers of anti-Sudanese rebel militia groups are known to train, seek safe haven in, and conduct operations against the Sudanese Armed Forces from South Sudan's northern states (United States Department of State, 2020). This raises concerns about the potential for violence and instability along the border. There is a lack of research on the dynamics of cross-border violence between South Sudan and Sudan, particularly in the context of anti-Sudanese rebel groups operating from South Sudan. Further study is therefore needed to understand the role of South Sudan as a transit country for terrorist groups such as al-Shabaab.

Corruption and economic espionage are significant threats to national security and economic stability. Corruption can take many forms, including bribery, embezzlement, and misappropriation of funds (Transparency International, 2020). Economic espionage, on the other hand, involves the unauthorized acquisition or use of trade secrets or proprietary information to gain a competitive advantage (U.S. Department of Justice, 2020). Corruption can have severe consequences, including undermining trust in institutions, eroding social cohesion, and hindering economic development (World Bank, 2020). Economic espionage can also have devastating effects on businesses and individuals, causing financial losses and damage to reputation (PwC, 2020). According to a recent report by the Global Financial Integrity (GFI), corruption and economic crime cost the global economy over \$2.6 trillion in 2019 alone (GFI, 2020). In addition, a study by the Ponemon Institute found that the average cost of a data breach caused by economic espionage is over \$3.9 million (Ponemon Institute, 2020).

The South Sudan Transitional Constitution 2011, as amended, defines national security as the protection from both internal and external threats (South Sudan Transitional Constitution, 2011). However, corruption has been a persistent issue in South Sudan, dating back to the time when it was part of Sudan. The subsequent regimes in Khartoum planted the seeds of corruption, which were later transferred to the newly independent South Sudan (Johnson, 2019). Independence did not bring about a change in the status quo, and corruption continued to flourish (Holtzmann, 2018). The roots of corruption are deeply ingrained in the societal fabric of South Sudan, making it essential to discuss the three security institutions responsible for maintaining national security: the National Security Service, South Sudan National Police Services, and South Sudan People's

Defense Forces (Chenoweth & Hoover Green, 2017). There is a need for further research on the impact of corruption on the effectiveness of these security institutions in maintaining national security. More studies are required to understand the role of historical and structural factors in perpetuating corruption in South Sudan. There is a need for further research on the impact of corruption and economic espionage on small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), which are often more vulnerable to these threats. More studies are needed to understand the effectiveness of different strategies for preventing and detecting corruption and economic espionage.

Cattle-raiding Safer World report (2020), portended that cattle raiding has a long history in South Sudan, but the vast supply of small arms in civilian hands has led to the raids becoming more violent in recent years. In remote areas the South Sudan Police Service lacks the capacity to protect communities and so many cattle herders keep arms to defend themselves. In some cases, this has increased problem of small arms proliferation in South Sudan affecting government and local partner's initiatives to encourage dynamic and strategic solutions to prevent violent cattle raiding. It is on the basis of this background that this study assessed the extent and impact of the problem to national with specific reference to Juba in South Sudan. According to a report by Safer World (2020), cattle raiding has a long history in South Sudan, but the proliferation of small arms among civilians has led to increased violence in recent years. In remote areas, the South Sudan Police Service lacks the capacity to protect communities, prompting many cattle herders to keep arms for self-defence. This has contributed to the problem of small arms proliferation in South Sudan, hindering government and local partner initiatives to develop dynamic and strategic solutions to prevent violent cattle raiding (Safer World, 2020).

2.5 Theoretical Framework

This section presents two theories that were used to guide the study. First, the Conflict Transformation Theory was used to explain why some people or groups of people within a society get involved in conflicts and its consequences on national security. Second, the National security theory was used to explain how on-going conflicts and the emerging threats may have both internal and external paradigms (for example from the North Sudan) that are likely to affect the balance of power in South Sudan.

2.5.1 Conflict Transformation Theory

Conflict transformation theory as propounded by Coser (1913-2003) argues that contemporary conflicts require more than the reframing of positions and the identification of win-win outcomes. Further the theory argues that the very structure of parties and relationships may be embedded in a pattern of conflictual relationships that extend beyond the particular site of conflict. Conflict transformation is therefore a process of engaging with and transforming the relationships, interests, discourses and, if necessary, the very constitution of society that supports the continuation of violent conflict. Constructive conflict is seen as a vital agent or catalyst for change. People within the conflict parties, within the society or region affected (in this case in Toret County), and outsiders with relevant human and material resources all have complementary roles to play in the long-term process of peace building. This suggests a comprehensive and wide-ranging approach, emphasizing support for groups within the society in conflict rather than for the mediation of outsiders. It also recognizes that conflicts are transformed gradually, through a series of smaller or larger changes as well as specific steps by means of which a variety of actors may play important roles.

In the words of Lederach (1995): *“Conflict transformation must actively envision, include, respect, and promote the human and cultural resources from within a given setting. This involves a new set of lenses through which we do not primarily, see ‘the setting and the people in it as the, problem ‘and the outsider as the ‘answer” ‘.* Rather, we understand the long-term goal of transformation as validating and building on people and resources within the setting (Lederach, 1995). It is on the strength of Lederach (1995) words that this present study presupposes the use of the emerging dynamics of dimensions of human insecurity interventions to inter-communal conflict in Torit County, Eastern Equatoria State.

According to Lederach (1995), conflicts have both life-affirming and life-destroying aspects. They form from contradictions in the structure of society. They then become manifest in attitudes and behavior (In this case violent behaviour at Toret County). Once formed, conflicts undergo a variety of transformational processes: articulation or disarticulation, conscientisation or de-conscientisation, complexification or simplification, polarisation or depolarisation, escalation or de-escalation (1996, 90). The incompatibility which arises between parties may be eliminated by transcending the contradiction, by compromise, by deepening or widening the conflict structure, and by associating or dissociating the actors (1996, 116). Galtung, Krippendorf and

others also emphasize the relationship between conflicts and larger conflicts embedded in the structure of world society and the world economy.

Curle's (1971) traces how asymmetric relationships can be transformed, through a shift from unbalanced to balanced relationships achieved through a process of conscientisation, confrontation, negotiation and development. Lederach took up Curle's ideas, as did Francis who develops them in her contribution to this handbook. Contributions from theorists on non-violence have also been important (Clark, 2000). A non-violent campaign can transform conflict by detaching the props sustaining it such as groups resisting land reform and harnessing them to support social alternatives.

On the other hand, if there is sufficient capacity in governance and society, if politics are not too militarized, and if the international environment is supportive, states may instead choose accommodation, and communal groups may choose political forms of confrontation. This can lead to a pattern of constructive conflict that in turn promotes legitimate decision-making capacity, strengthens autonomous development and sustains civil rather than military politics. All these are conducive to the meeting of basic needs. The model goes beyond simple structural or behavioural explanations and suggests how patterns of conflict interact with the satisfaction of human needs, the adequacy of political and economic institutions and the choices made by political actors. It also suggests how different options can lead to benign or malignant spirals of conflict. Vayrynen argues for a conflict theory based on the idea of transformation rather than settlement, stressing that it is important to understand how conflicts are transformed in dynamic terms:

The bulk of conflict theory regards the issues, actors and interests as given and on that basis makes efforts to find a solution to mitigate or eliminate contradictions between them. Yet the issues, actors and interests change over time as a consequence of the social, economic and political dynamics of societies (Vayrynen 1991). Vayrynen (1991)'s approach is primarily analytical and theoretical, but is also suggestive of the types of intervention that peacebuilders should be considering that include; actor transformations that may look at internal changes in parties, or the appearance of new parties; issue transformations that altering the agenda of conflict issues; rule transformations that may want to make necessary changes in the norms or rules governing a conflict; and finally structural transformations—the entire structure of relationships and power distribution in the conflict is transformed.

Rupesinghe (1995, 1998) argues for a comprehensive, eclectic approach to conflict transformation that embraces multi task interventions. He proposes building peace constituencies at the grassroots level and across the parties at the civil society level (where it exists), and also creating peace alliances with any groups able to bring about change, such as business groups, the media and the military. He sees conflict transformation as broad approach incorporating conflict resolution training and Track interventions including diplomatic interventions and peacekeeping. This theory however focused more on conflict causes, patterns and its impact on structure of parties and their relationships but did not indicate how society is affected with reference to national security, hence the need for another theory.

2.5.2 National Security Theory

Proponents of National Security like Baldwin (1997), argue that National security is characterized by self-interest and political gains. National Security ideas gained popularity during the cold war era between Russian and United States of America where Relations between states and their national security were seen through the focal points of discouragement and adjust of power (Baldwin, 1997). The choice of this theory is based on the view that both the ongoing conflicts and the emerging threats which according to this study are potential national security threats may have both internal and external paradigms (for example from the North Sudan). Seen through these diverse focal points within the local and global framework, balance of power is vital for the country's self-preservation.

Observably, seen as a characteristic of the post-cold war era, the selfish nature of national security in a globalizing world has led to the emergence of new threats like terrorism, transnational crimes, amongst others that this study intends to assess their impact on national security. Though self-preservation takes precedence over collective security, the culmination of cold war opened up the process of globalization making states more interdependent and expanding its democracies. However as argued by Moravcsik (2010) states are and have been in a transnational and domestic society that creates incentives for social, economic and cultural interaction across borders, albeit with security implication, hence the rationale for this study in the context of South Sudan.

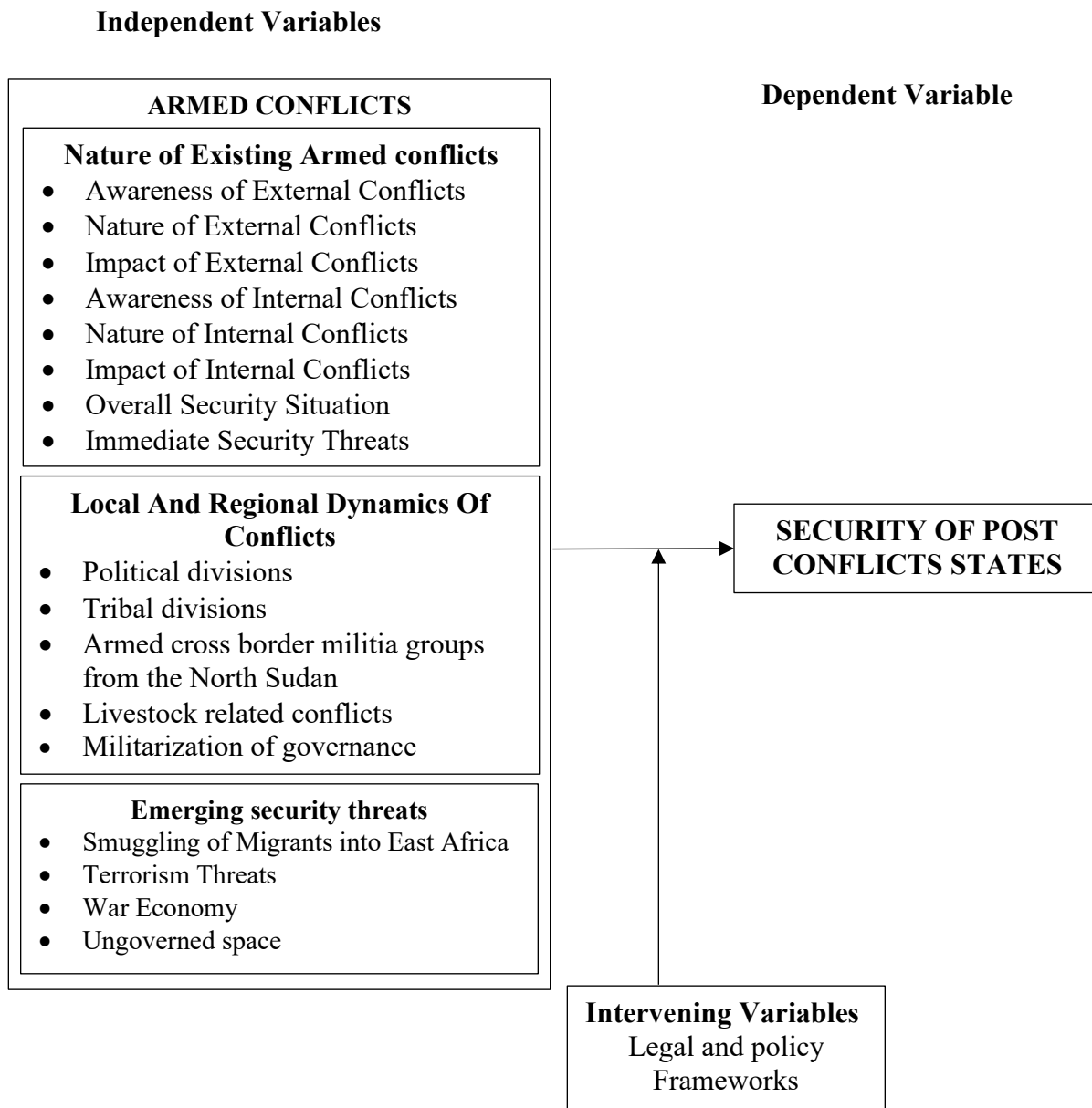
2.7 Conceptual Framework

According to Ravitch and Riggan (2012), a conceptual framework presents a broad

set of principles and ideas and relationships employed in structuring a research idea. As is the case in this study, the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is shown in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework



As shown in Figure 1, the conceptual framework describes the relationship between independent variables (Nature of existing armed conflicts, local and regional dynamics of armed

conflicts and emerging security threats on security management strategies) and dependent variable (strengthened/weakened National security). If proper strategies (intervening variables) are affected, then there will be strengthened National security, Conversely, if proper strategies are not affected insecurity will prevail.

The relationship between the independent variables—nature of existing armed conflicts, local and regional dynamics of armed conflicts, and emerging security threats—and the dependent variable of strengthened or weakened national security is intricate and multifaceted. Each of the independent variables contributes uniquely to shaping a nation's security management strategies, which, in turn, influence the overall effectiveness of national security.

Firstly, the nature of existing armed conflicts plays a crucial role in determining a nation's security posture. Conflicts characterized by high levels of violence, prolonged duration, and intricate geopolitical interests can severely strain national resources and undermine public trust in governmental institutions. The intensity and complexity of these conflicts may necessitate a re-evaluation of security strategies, pushing governments to adopt more comprehensive approaches to counter-terrorism, peacebuilding, and community resilience. As a result, if the government can effectively adapt to these conflicts, national security may be strengthened; however, if it fails to respond adequately, this could lead to a weakened security environment.

Secondly, local and regional dynamics significantly influence how armed conflicts manifest and evolve, impacting national security in nuanced ways. Local grievances, ethnic tensions, and socio-economic disparities can exacerbate existing conflicts or give rise to new ones. Additionally, regional geopolitical factors, such as the involvement of neighbouring states or transnational organizations, can complicate conflict dynamics. Nations that successfully engage with these local and regional actors might mitigate threats and build cooperation, leading to strengthened national security. Conversely, failure to consider these dynamics in security strategies could result in an escalation of conflicts and the destabilization of the national security framework.

Lastly, emerging security threats, including cyber threats, terrorism, and the impact of climate change, pose new challenges that nations must navigate. These threats often intersect with traditional armed conflicts and require adaptive security management strategies that incorporate innovative technologies and frameworks. A proactive approach toward these emerging threats can bolster national security by enhancing preparedness and resilience. In contrast, neglecting these

threats can leave nations vulnerable, leading to weakened security outcomes as they struggle to respond effectively to rapidly evolving challenges.

In summary, the interplay between the independent variables and the dependent variable illustrates how the nature of armed conflicts, local and regional dynamics, and emerging security threats collectively shape national security management strategies. The efficacy of these strategies directly impacts whether national security is ultimately strengthened or weakened, underscoring the importance of a nuanced and comprehensive approach to security in the contemporary landscape.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methods that were used to help researcher in the investigation processes. This chapter presents the research design, site of study, target population, sampling procedure and sample size, methods and tools of data collection, and methods of data analysis

3.2 Research Design

This research used a descriptive survey research design. The design was appropriate because it uses investigative orientation to explain phenomenon (Creswell, 2014). It also offers the researcher an advantage of focusing on specific description or suitable characteristics where attitudes and opinions of respondents towards a given phenomenon are being sought. The design involves an interaction initiated by the researcher for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information guided by specific research objectives. The design was used to profile the attitudes and opinions of the respondents into thematic situations using interviews in order to further analyse and explain the problem under the study.

3.3 Study Area

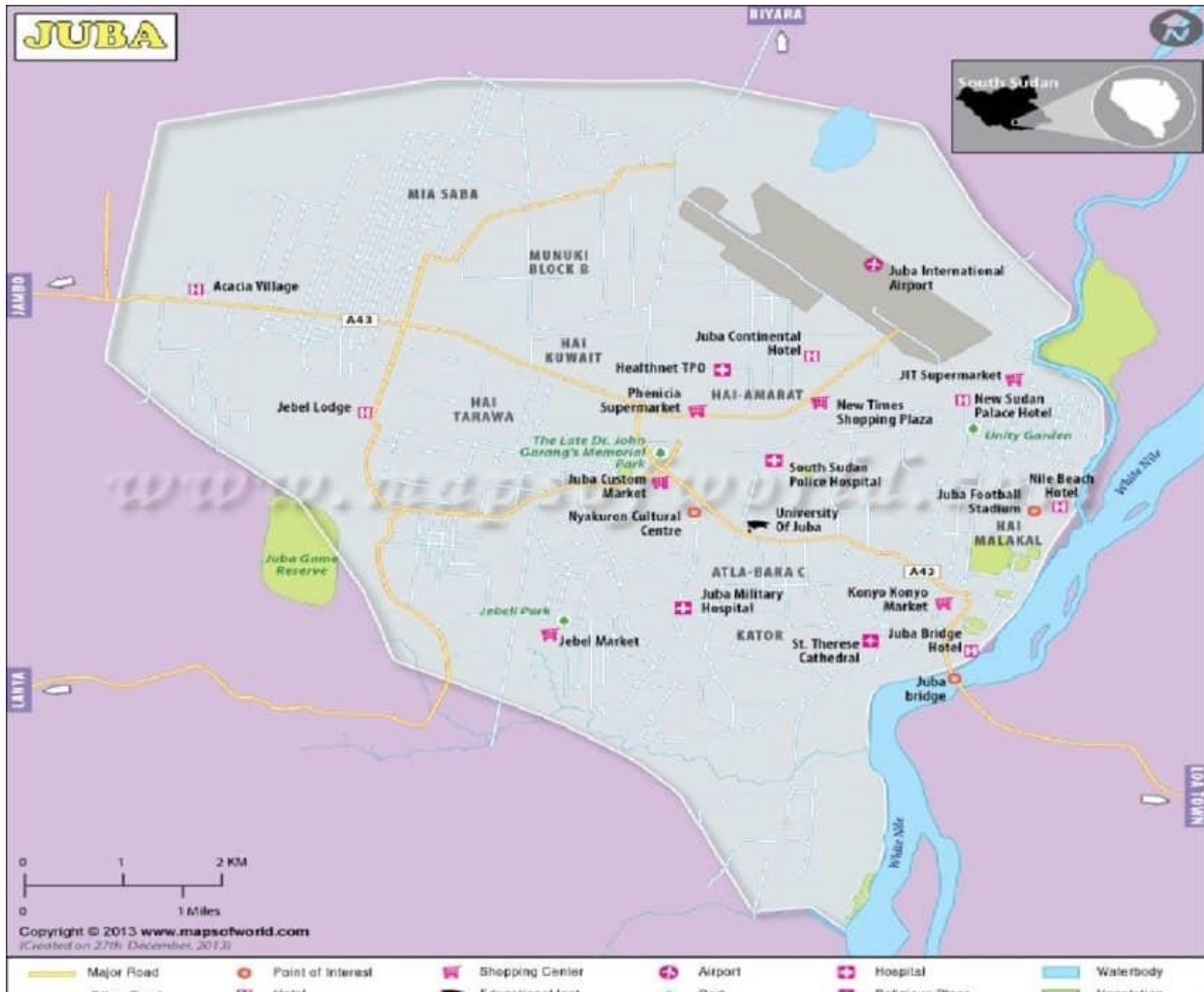
The research area for this study was Juba city. This area was chosen due to the fact that all organized forces headquarters are based in Juba. This is also the place where most of the essential security decisions are made. Juba is found in Central Equatoria State, one of the ten States of the Republic of South Sudan, and is also the host of the capital of the Republic of South Sudan. It is a metropolitan city and serves as both the political and economic capital of the country. It is therefore characterized by the influx of citizens from the ten states, the region, and other countries. The Map of the study site is presented in Figure 2.

3.1: Map of the Study Site

The study area was as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Map showing the Location of Juba County



Source: Ilof map: Graphic maps.com (Overseas Security Advisory Council OSAC, 2029)

3.4 Population, Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

This section presents the sub-sections on study population, sample size and sampling procedures.

3.4.1 Target Population

The target population refers to the specific group of individuals or entities that a researcher aims to study or intervene with. In the context of research on cattle raiding in South Sudan, the target population may include cattle herders, community leaders, police officers, and government officials (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Identifying the target population is crucial in determining the sample size, data collection methods, and data analysis procedures (Babbie, 2017). According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 2020), identifying and targeting the most vulnerable populations is essential for effective humanitarian responses. The UNDP guide highlights the importance of understanding the needs and characteristics of the target population to ensure that interventions are tailored to their specific needs. In research studies, defining and selecting a target population is critical to ensure that the findings are relevant and applicable to the intended audience (WHO, 2020). The World Health Organization (WHO) provides guidance on how to define and select a target population for a research study, emphasizing the importance of considering factors such as geographic location, age, sex, and socioeconomic status.

The target population for this study consisted of approximately 700 security sector employees working in Juba, South Sudan (OSAC, 2019). This group was selected as the target population due to their unique experiences and perspectives on cattle raiding in the region. According to the (OSAC, 2019), South Sudan is comprised of a diverse group of individuals with varying levels of experience and expertise. This diversity makes the security sector a rich source of data for understanding the complexities of cattle raiding and its impact on the community. These included; personnel in the Ministry of Interior, South Sudan People Defence Forces, South Sudan Law Review Commission, South Sudan Constitutional Amendment Committee, Joint Defence Board, Strategic and Defence Security Review, TNLA, National Security, United Nations Police, Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs, wildlife and prisons services, Fire brigade, South Sudan Women Block Association, South Sudan Youth Association, South Sudan Political Forum, South Sudan Hotel Industry Association, Chambers of Commerce and SPLM secretariat situated in Juba City.

3.4.2 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

According to De Leeuw et al. (2018), a sample size of 10% to 30% of the target population is considered optimal for web-based surveys, as it balances the trade-off between precision and response rate (De Leeuw et al., 2018). A study by Kreuter et al. (2010) found that a sample size of 10% to 30% of the target population was sufficient to achieve accurate estimates of population parameters in a telephone survey (Kreuter et al., 2010). In a review of survey methodology, Bethlehem (2016) concluded that a sample size of 10% to 30% of the target population is generally considered optimal for achieving adequate precision and representativeness (Bethlehem, 2016).

According to Kothari (2014) 10 % - 30 % of the target population is an optimum sample which fulfils the requirements of efficiency, representativeness, reliability and flexibility. For purposes of representativeness and inclusiveness, this study will adopt 30 % of the target population (700 Security sector employees working in Juba South Sudan) as an ideal sample size (210). Additionally, for the purpose of representativeness, equal numbers of respondents were drawn from all security sector agencies as shown in Table 1.

Table 1**Summary of Respondents**

Category	Description	Target Population	Sample Size
RESPONDENTS	South Sudan Law Review	34	11
	Ministry of Interior	35	11
	South Sudan People Defence Forces,	35	11
	South Sudan Constitutional Amendment Committee	35	11
	Joint Defence Board	34	11
	TNLA	35	11
	Wildlife and Prisons Services	35	11
	Fire brigade	35	11
	South Sudan Youth Association	34	11
	South Sudan Political Parties Forum	35	11
	Chambers of Commerce	35	11
	SPLM	35	11
	South Sudan Hotel Industry Association	34	11
	South Sudan Women Block Association	35	11
	National Security service	35	11
	United Nations Police	35	11
	Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs	34	11
	Strategic and Defence Security Review,	35	11

	TOTALS	660	198
	UNDSS		2
	UNPOL		2
K.I	UNMIS		2
	DFID		2
	OECD		2
	UNDP		2
	TOTALS		12
GRAND TOTALS			210

3.5 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis refers to the individual or entity that is being studied or measured in a research study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In the context of this question, the unit of analysis could be individual security personnel, such as police officers or military personnel, or organizations within the security sector, such as the Ministry of Defence or National Police Service (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). According to Trochim (2006), the unit of analysis is a critical consideration in research design, as it can impact the validity and generalizability of the findings.

The unit of analysis in this study included South Sudan People's Defense Forces (SSPDF), national security personnel, national police services, criminal investigation personnel, South Sudan civil population, Chiefs, heads of residential areas, security managers, and the entire security establishments. Economists and policy makers and judiciary personnel will also be interviewed. Therefore, these people were chosen because they constituted the key architectures of South Sudan's national security establishments. Besides, they had information necessary for the completion of this study.

3.6 Method of Data Collection and Instrumentation

The study used interview method to collect data from all the respondents. Interview schedule was used to collect data. The interview schedule adopted both open and closed questions to collect data. The nature of questions gave the respondents the freedom to decide on the form, detail and length of their answers. In addition, these questions helped to gain more insight and knowledge that this study has not anticipated.

3.7 Piloting Study

Pilot testing, also known as pre-testing, is a preliminary testing of a research instrument, such as a questionnaire, interview schedule, or survey, to evaluate its effectiveness and identify potential issues before conducting the main study (Berg, 2009; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The goal of pilot testing is to ensure that the research instrument is valid, reliable, and easy to understand for the target population (Paddison & Zumbo, 2020). Pilot testing was conducted with 21 respondents, representing 10% of the sample. As recommended by Paddison and Zumbo (2020), pilot testing is essential to ensure study reliability and validity. Punch (2009) emphasized the importance of pre-testing to evaluate the suitability of questions. In this study, the test-retest approach was employed, which included a pilot examination aimed at measuring the rationality of the questionnaire. Additionally, Steenkamp (2017) highlighted the significance of pilot research in determining whether the questionnaire is not too long and time-wasting. In this current study, the researcher pre-tested the interview schedule.

3.7.1 Validity

Pre-testing or pilot testing assessment was done with 21 respondents. In the recommendation of Padden (2013) pilot test is essential because it guarantees study reliability and validity. Punch (2009:43) stated that pre-testing is applied in a research so as to evaluate the suitability of questions.

3.7.2 Reliability of Research Instrument

According to Ary (2010), reliability refers to the notch of uniformity in which a mechanism is measurable. According to Kumar (2012), reliability ensures that the survey is steadfast and ensures answers attained are repeated. Additionally, the researcher used Ajzen's (1991), model of planned behaviour policies for creating the questionnaire for the research. According to Shams et al, (2013), when applying Ajzen's theory, the model of planned behaviour enhances the reliability of the questionnaire. For the purposed of this study, Cronbach's alpha method was used to calculate the reliability of the survey. Field (2013) stated that Cronbach's alpha can measure the Likert scale survey with precision. According to Twycross and Heale (2015), Cronbach's alpha outcome assumed figure from 0 to 1, with an acceptable reliability score of 7 or higher.

3.8 Data Analysis

Data collected was transcribed and the transcriptions coded using NVIVO software; computer software for managing qualitative and quantitative data. NVivo is a software application used for qualitative data analysis, particularly for coding, analyzing, and visualizing unstructured data from various sources, such as interviews, focus groups, and texts (Bazeley, 2015; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). NVivo is widely used in social sciences, education, healthcare, and business research to analyse and interpret qualitative data. Descriptive statistics; use of tables, percentages and bar graphs will be used to present quantitative data. Qualitative data was coded using numerals into limited number of categories. This was enhanced by using verbatim quotes from qualitative responses. Additionally, the researcher quantified and analyzed the meanings and relationships of related concepts, and made inferences from such relationships. Content analysis was used to analyze qualitative data.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

This study sought for approvals to carry out research from Egerton University Board of Post graduate school, the South Sudan government Ministries of Education, the Ministry of Interior, and Police headquarters in South Sudan, Juba. Besides, this study sought consent from respondents before it was executed. Respondents were assured of their anonymity and confidentiality and that information they gave was solely for research purpose.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the study results and the discussion guided by the objectives. Besides, the chapter also presents the findings thematically based on the set objectives. First, the chapter starts with a brief introduction, then; the response rate, the demographics, and finally presents the findings.

4.2 Response Rate

The study sought to collect data from 198 respondents and 12 K.I through interviews. The researcher reached 160 out of the 198 targeted respondents and all K.I as depicted in Table 2. This is because some of the respondents were out on field operations. The respondents reached make a response rate of 80.8 % of the expected sample. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) the response rate of more than 70% is very good, 60% response rate is considered good while 50% of the response is considered adequate for analysis. Based on this recommendation the response rate of 80.8% was considered ideal for this research.

Table 2

Actual Number of the Respondents Reached

S/NO	Description	Category of Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
1	Respondents	Responses	160	160
		Non Responses	38	13.2
		Total	198	100.0
2	Key Informants	Responses	12	100.0
		Non Responses	0	0.0
		Total	12	100.0

4.3 Demographic Characteristics

The demographic information of the respondents assessed included age, security force, how long they have served in the security forces and their highest level of education. The findings are illustrated in various subsections as follows;

4.3.1 Age of the Respondents

The researcher sought to establish age distribution of the respondents participating in the study. The findings are illustrated in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Age of the Respondent

	Frequency	Percent
20-29 years	40	25.0
30-39 years	37	23.1
30-49 years	58	36.3
Above 50 years	25	15.6
Total	160	100

According to the findings in Table 3 above, majority 36.3% (58) of the respondents were aged between 30 and 49 years, 25.0%, (40) respondents' were aged between 20 and 29 years, between 30 and 39 were 23.1% (37) respondents while the remaining 15.6 % of the respondents were aged 50 years and above. This implies that data is very representative as it cuts across all the desired age groups. Further most of the respondents were adults between 30 and 57 years of age respectively.

4.3.2 Gender of the Respondents

Gender matters because research has consistently shown that gender plays a significant role in shaping attitudes, behaviours, and outcomes across various domains (Betz, 2013; Lippa, 2018). Gender differences in cognitive abilities, personality traits, and social roles can impact how individuals respond to stimuli, interact with others, and make decisions (Király et al., 2020). For instance, a study on work-life balance found that women reported higher levels of work-related stress and lower levels of job satisfaction compared to men (Aryee et al., 2020). Another study on social media use found that women were more likely to engage in online social activities and experience social media-related anxiety compared to men (Király et al., 2020). The findings are presented in the Table 4 below.

Table 4

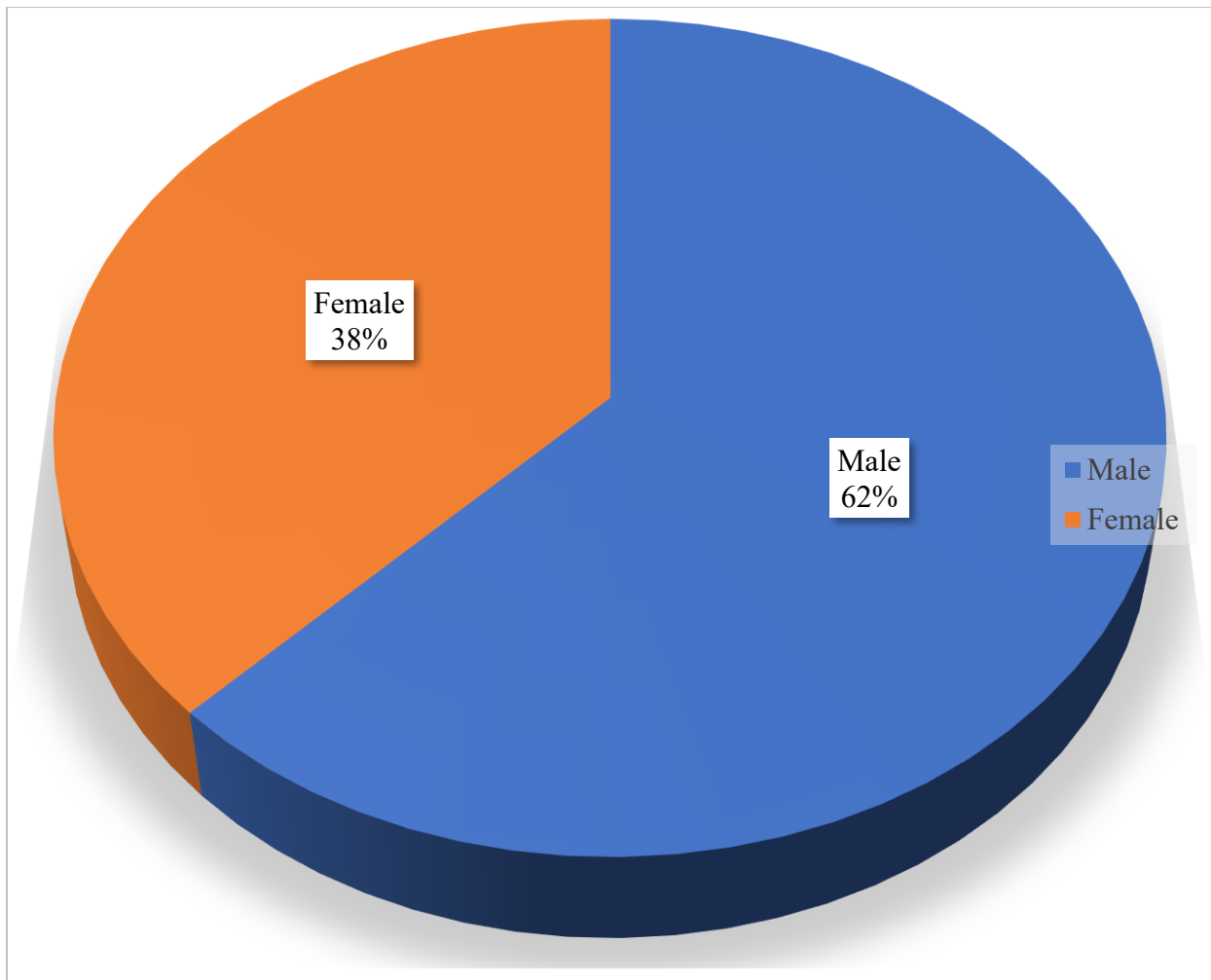
Gender of Respondents

Gender of Respondents	No of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Male	100	62.5
Female	60	37.5
Total	160	100

Source: (Field Data, 2024)

Figure 3

Gender of Respondents



As indicated in Table 4 and Figure 3 above, majority of the respondents 62.5% (100 respondents) were males while that of the minority respondents were 37.5% (60 respondents) were

females. This outcome does not show any biasness in sampling, this it occurred by chance. This significant difference illustrates that the majority of the participants were male, which may have implications for the interpretations of the results, depending on the context of the research. Analyzing the gender demographics further, the higher representation of males suggests that the study may reflect perspectives and experiences that are predominantly masculine. Although the results do not indicate intentional bias in sampling—suggesting that this distribution occurred by chance it's important to recognize how such a gender imbalance can influence the findings. For instance, if the research pertains to topics such as social behaviour, workplace dynamics, or health issues, the predominance of male respondents may skew the discussions and potential conclusions, leading to insights that do not fully encapsulate the views or experiences of the female population.

Furthermore, while the study concludes that the sampling process was unbiased, it is vital for researchers to consider the broader implications of having a bold gender disparity in participant representation. Future studies may benefit from implementing strategies to ensure more balanced representation across genders, allowing for richer and more comprehensive insights that better reflect the diversity of perspectives within the population studied. Overall, understanding the gender dynamics at play in this research is critical for accurately interpreting the results and for informing subsequent inquiries in related fields.

From a gender perspective, the predominance of male respondents may reflect broader societal trends and gender dynamics prevalent in many regions, particularly in contexts where cultural, economic, or social factors influence participation in studies. Research has documented that gender disparities in various fields can arise from systemic issues such as cultural norms, gender roles, and economic barriers that may deter women from engaging in certain activities, including employment, education, or research participation (UN Women, 2020; World Bank, 2018). In some contexts, male participants may be more readily available or willing to engage in research, thereby skewing the sample toward male representation.

The implications of this gender imbalance can significantly impact the research outcomes. For instance, gender differences in perspectives, experiences, and issues may lead to a one-dimensional understanding of the research topic. Literature emphasizes the importance of gender-inclusive research methodologies that consider the voices and experiences of both genders to ensure a comprehensive understanding of the issues at hand (Saldanha & O'Brien, 2019). For example, studies in health, education, and social sciences have shown that men and women often

have different experiences and attitudes towards the same phenomena, which could lead to differing conclusions if both perspectives are not adequately captured (Mackey et al., 2019).

Furthermore, the potential for bias in the interpretation of results must also be noted. If male perspectives dominate the findings, the conclusions drawn may inadvertently reinforce stereotypes or fail to acknowledge the unique challenges faced by women in the context under study. For instance, in studies related to employment, healthcare, or education, overlooking female perspectives may downplay significant gender-specific barriers, leading to flawed policy recommendations or interventions.

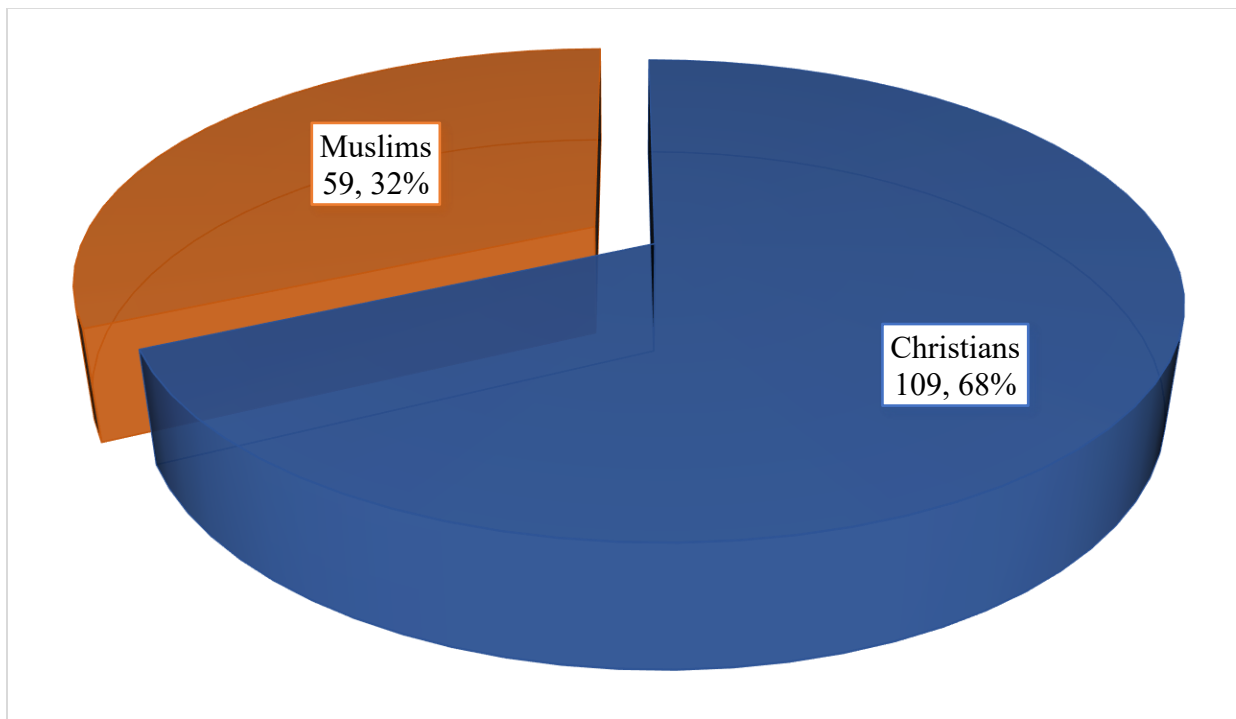
In conclusion, while the gender distribution in the study may have occurred by chance, it raises critical considerations for the interpretation of the findings. As the literature suggests, understanding gender dynamics is paramount for generating insights that reflect the experiences of all individuals involved. Future research should prioritize gender equity in sampling to enhance the validity and applicability of the results across diverse populations.

4.3.3 Religion of the Respondents

The religion of respondents can play a significant role in shaping the results and implications of the findings. Research has consistently shown that religious beliefs and practices can influence attitudes, behaviours, and outcomes across various domains (Hill et al., 2016). Religion can provide valuable insights into the experiences and perspectives of diverse populations (Graham et al., 2013). By considering the religious composition of the sample, researchers can identify patterns and trends that may not be apparent otherwise (Kosmin & Lachman, 2001). Moreover, incorporating measures of religiosity and religious affiliation can help researchers capture the complexity of human experience and promote more nuanced understandings of social phenomena (Hood et al., 2015). The study established the religion of the respondents and the results are as shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4

Religion of the Respondents



The results depicted in Figure 4 illustrate the religious composition of the respondents in the study, revealing a significant predominance of Christians. Specifically, 68% (109 respondents) identified as Christians, while 32% (51 respondents) identified as Muslims. This distribution aligns closely with the broader religious demographics of the country, where approximately 98% of the population identifies as Christian. The over-representation of Christians among the respondents can be interpreted as a reflection of the national context, where Christian beliefs and practices are likely to be more pervasive than those of Islam. This demographic reality may contribute to a greater willingness or availability among Christians to participate in such studies, justifying the evident skew in religious representation. In this sense, the findings may not only highlight the religious landscape of the sample but also underscore the socio-cultural environment in which the study was conducted.

However, this disparity raises important considerations regarding the implications of the results. The predominance of Christian respondents may result in a bias that affects the overall insights and conclusions drawn from the research. If the study addresses issues linked to religious perspectives, beliefs, and experiences, the voices of the Muslim minority may not receive adequate

representation, potentially skewing the interpretation of data or leading to conclusions that do not fully consider the Muslim experience within the context studied.

Moreover, understanding the underlying reasons for this representation is crucial. It raises questions about the accessibility of participation for individuals from different religious backgrounds and whether systemic factors, such as socio-economic status or cultural norms, influenced who chose to respond. To ensure a more comprehensive understanding of the research topic, future studies might benefit from deliberate efforts to include a more balanced representation of various religious groups. This would enable a richer dialogue and enhance the validity of the findings, ultimately contributing to a more holistic understanding of the issues being explored.

4.3.4 Highest Level of Education

The researcher sought to establish the level of education of the respondents. The findings are illustrated in Table 5 below.

Table 5

Respondents Highest Level of Education

	Frequency	Percent
Secondary Education	68	42.5
College Diploma/Certificate	55	34.4
Bachelor’s Degree	16	10.0
Master’s Degree	21	13.1
Total	160	100

From the findings shown in Table 5, a majority of the respondents 42.5% (68) has secondary level of education, those with college diploma/certificate were 34.4% (55), bachelor’s degree were 10.0% (16 respondents) while master’s degree level were 13.1% (21 respondents). This implies that all the respondents were learned enough to give credible information regarding the effects of armed conflicts on the national security in Central Equatorial State State-South Sudan. These findings suggest that while a substantial portion of the respondents have attained some form of post-secondary education, a notable number have only completed secondary education. This distribution may indicate systemic educational trends in the region, such as limited access to higher education opportunities or socio-economic factors that influence educational attainment.

When relating these results to the existing literature, we can consider various factors that contribute to educational attainment within the population. Research has shown that socio-economic status significantly impacts access to education, with lower-income families often facing barriers that limit educational advancement (Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997). Additionally, cultural attitudes towards education and occupation can profoundly affect individuals' decisions to pursue further education (Meyer et al., 2017). For example, in some communities, vocational training or immediate job readiness might be prioritized over higher academic qualifications.

Furthermore, these findings align with literature suggesting that developing countries struggle with education systems where secondary education is more widely accessible, yet the transition to higher education remains a challenge (UNESCO, 2020). The relatively low percentages of respondents with bachelor's and master's degrees could reflect broader national trends, whereby educational infrastructure and resources are inadequate for higher education capacity.

With a large portion of the sample having only secondary education, it is critical for future research to explore the implications of this educational profile on various outcomes, whether social, economic, or health-related. Understanding how educational attainment influences life choices and opportunities can provide valuable insights for policy interventions aimed at enhancing access to higher education and promoting lifelong learning.

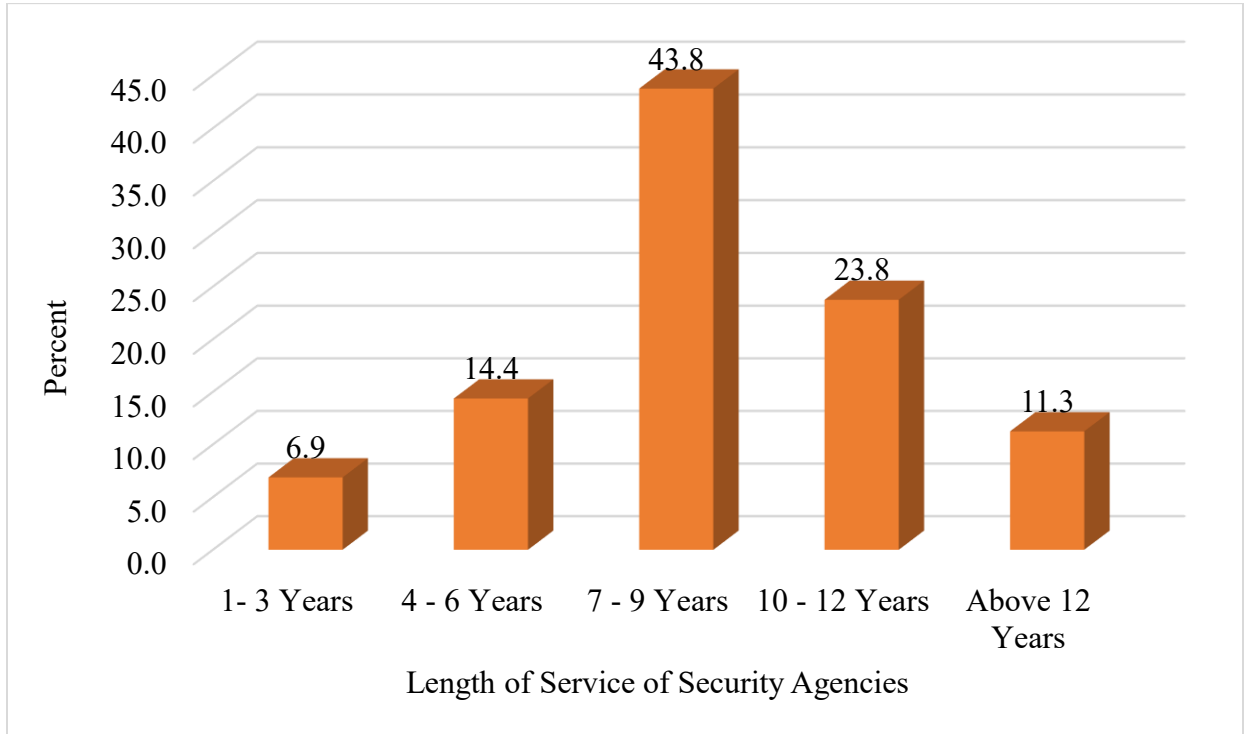
While the respondents in this study boast a considerable level of education when considering secondary and post-secondary levels combined, the lower representation of individuals with bachelor's and master's degrees highlights significant gaps in higher education attainment. This phenomenon warrants further exploration and targeted policy efforts to bridge the educational divides and empower individuals toward greater educational achievements.

4.3.5 Length of Service of Security Agencies

The study sought to establish the respondent's length of Service of Service. The findings are illustrated in Figure 5 below.

Figure 5

Respondents Length of Service



From the findings in Figure 5 above, 43.8% (70 respondents) of the respondents had served in the security force for 7 to 9 years, for 10 to 12 years, 23.8% (38) had served in the security service for 10 to 12 years, 14.4% (23 respondents) had served in the security agency for 4 to 6 years, 11.33% (18 respondents) had served for 10 to 12 years, while 6.9% (11) had served for 1 3 years. This implies that most of the respondents have served in security force for long enough to be able to provide adequate information regarding the effects of armed conflicts on the national security in Central Equatorial State State-South Sudan. From a theoretical perspective, the experience of personnel within security agencies is often linked to their understanding of conflict dynamics and their ability to assess the impact of such conflicts on national security frameworks. Literature emphasizes that seasoned individuals in security forces are typically more equipped to evaluate the nuanced effects of armed conflict due to their prolonged engagement in conflict situations (Bøås & Hatløy, 2005). Their accumulated insights can reflect the complexities involved in security operations, allowing for a comprehensive analysis of how such conflicts influence various aspects of national security, including stability, community trust, and resource allocation.

Moreover, individuals with extensive service history may also have first-hand experiences that shape their perspectives on the effectiveness of security interventions and policies enacted during periods of conflict. Studies have shown that experienced personnel can provide critical evaluations of operational strategies, suggesting that their insights may highlight both successful practices and areas needing improvement (Herd & Lutz, 2014). The significant percentage of respondents (43.8% and 23.8%) with 7 to 12 years of service ensures that the data collected reflects an informed understanding, making their responses particularly valuable for policymakers and practitioners addressing security issues in conflict-affected regions.

Furthermore, the literature on conflict management and resolution underscores the importance of gathering insights from individuals with substantial field experience, as they can help bridge the gap between theoretical frameworks and real-world applications (Ramsbotham et al., 2011). In contexts like South Sudan, where armed conflicts have both historical and contemporary implications for national security, the experiences of security personnel are essential for developing evidence-based strategies for conflict resolution and security improvements.

However, it is also worth noting that while a majority have substantial experience, responses should be contextualized within the broader socio-political landscape of South Sudan. The specific challenges and dynamics faced during their service—including issues related to integration, ethnic tensions, and the effectiveness of peacebuilding initiatives—should be considered as they may influence respondents' insights and perceptions (Menkhaus, 2014).

In summary, the data indicating that most respondents have served in the security force for 7 to 12 years provides a strong foundation for understanding the implications of armed conflict on national security. Their extensive experience equips them to offer valuable insights that, when analysed in relation to existing literature, emphasize the importance of operational knowledge in shaping effective security policies and interventions in conflict-affected regions like South Sudan. Future research could further explore the correlation between years of service and the perceptions of conflict impact to generate deeper insights into security dynamics.

4.3.6 Demographic Characteristics of Key Informants

Figure 6 below presents the gender of the key informants.

Figure 6

Gender of the Key Informants

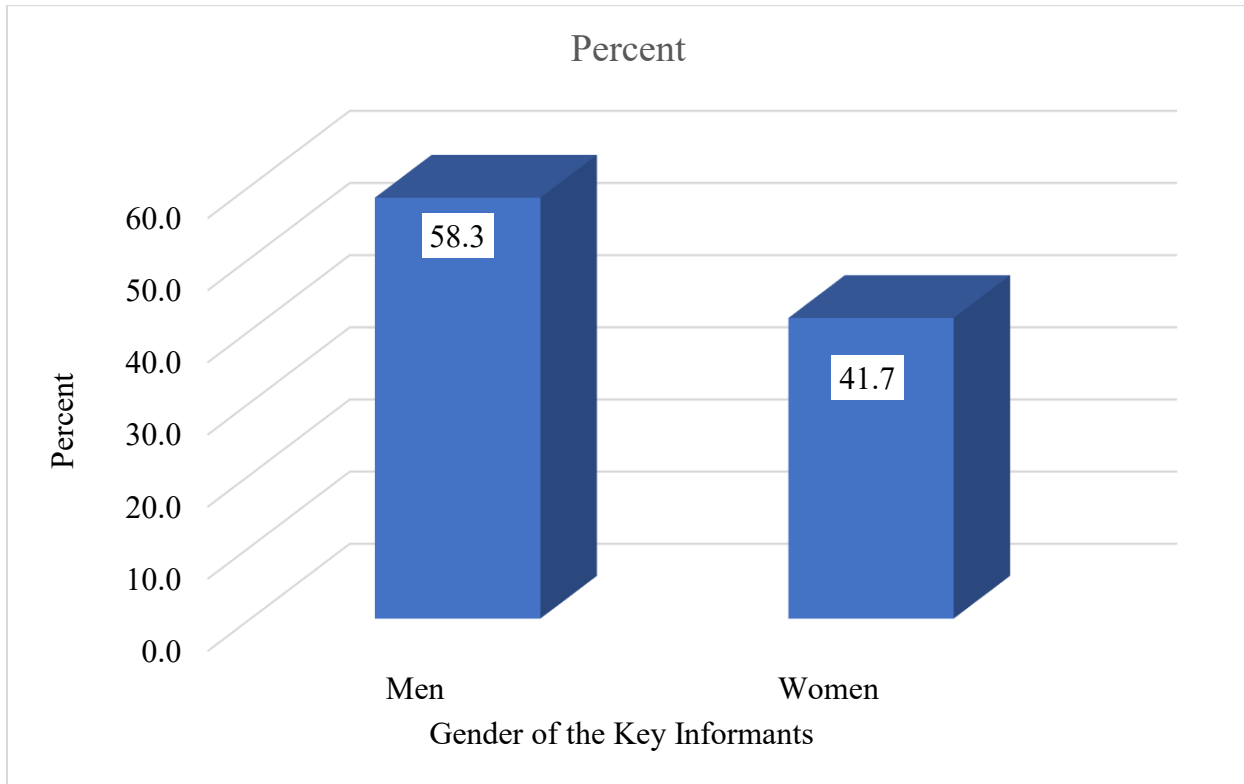


Figure 6 indicate that the study comprised of 58.3% (12) men as key informants; while 41.7% (5 women (41.6%) and 7 men (58.4%). The findings depicted in Figure 6 reveal a composition of key informants in the study, with 58.3% (12) being men and 41.7% (5) being women. This representation indicates a slight gender imbalance in the sample of key informants drawn from middle and senior management positions of various development partners operating in South Sudan, including organizations like the United Nations Department of Safety and Security (UNDSS), United Nations Police (UNPOL), United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMIS), Department for International Development (DFID), Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

The gender distribution suggests a predominance of male informants, which may reflect broader trends within international organizations and development agencies, where men often occupy senior leadership roles more frequently than women. Despite significant global progress toward gender equality, particularly in leadership positions within humanitarian and development sectors, women remain underrepresented in higher managerial roles in many contexts (UN

Women, 2020). This can result from various factors, including structural barriers, cultural norms, and ongoing gender biases within organizational contexts (Doldor et al., 2020).

The inclusion of key informants from a variety of organizations underscores the importance of diverse perspectives in understanding the complexities of development and security challenges in South Sudan. Men and women may have different insights based on their experiences and socialization, which can inform the understanding of how armed conflict affects national security and development (Bennett, 2019). The gendered experiences of key informants could reveal critical information on issues such as the implementation of security protocols, community engagement strategies, and the effectiveness of aid interventions.

Existing literature highlights the significance of gender diversity in decision-making processes, especially in crisis and conflict contexts. Research demonstrates that organizations with a more gender-balanced leadership are better equipped to address the diverse needs of the populations they serve (Zuckerman et al., 2015). Gender-diverse teams not only bring varied perspectives but also foster innovative approaches and solutions tailored to the complexities of specific environments.

Moreover, studies indicate that women's participation in peace and security issues can lead to more effective peacebuilding and conflict resolution, as women often bring unique insights, experiences, and approaches that differ from their male counterparts (UN Security Council Resolution 1325; True, 2016). Therefore, the gender imbalance among the key informants in this study raises concerns about the comprehensiveness of the insights gathered. It suggests that if male perspectives dominate the discussions, important gender-specific issues related to security and development may be overlooked.

Given that many organizations in South Sudan, such as those represented in the study, have made commitments to gender equality and women's empowerment, it is critical for these institutions to assess their internal policies and practices to promote gender equity in leadership roles. Initiatives such as mentorship programs, gender-sensitive recruitment strategies, and supportive workplace cultures may be necessary to yield a more balanced representation of voices in future research endeavours.

In conclusion, while the study's inclusion of key informants from reputable organizations provides valuable insights into the impacts of armed conflict on national security and development, the gender disparity observed raises critical considerations regarding the breadth of perspectives

included in the analysis. The findings highlight the need for ongoing efforts to promote gender equity within leadership roles in international development and security sectors. Future research should aim to engage a more diverse set of voices to ensure a nuanced understanding of the challenges at hand, aligning with both academic literature and contemporary priorities for inclusive approaches to peace and security.

4.4 Influence of Nature of Existing Armed Conflicts on Security in South Sudan

The first objective in this study sought to explore the nature of existing armed conflicts and their effect on security management in Juba County, South Sudan.

This section presents a detailed analysis of the data collected regarding the awareness, nature, and impact of both external and internal conflicts on the security situation in Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan. The findings are categorized into several tables for clearer understanding.

The study sought to assess the influence of the nature of existing armed conflicts on the security of post conflicts states, a case study of Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan. Data were collected from a sample population of 160 respondents, providing insights into both external and internal conflicts and their influence on security perceptions in the region. The respondents were asked to indicate whether they were aware of the existence of external conflicts in the region. The results of the data are as shown in Table 6

Table 6

Awareness of the Existence of External Conflicts among Respondents

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	147	92
No	13	8
Total	160	100

Table 6 show that 92% (147) of the respondents reported being aware of the existence of external conflicts that impact Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan, suggesting a significant level of community engagement with geopolitical issues. This awareness is critical as it shapes perceptions of safety and security within the region.

On the nature of nature of external conflicts, the respondents were further asked about the specific types of external conflicts they perceive. Table 7 displays the study findings.

Table 7*Nature of External Conflicts*

	Frequency	Percentage
Border disputes	51	32
Involvement of foreign armed groups	26	16
Regional political tensions	83	52
Total	160	100

The data reveals that the predominant concerns among those aware of external conflicts revolve around regional political tensions (52%) and border disputes (32%), while involvement of foreign armed groups was 16%. This indicates that the geopolitical landscape continues to play a significant role in the stability of Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan, further emphasizing the need for diplomatic efforts.

Respondents were then queried about the impact of these external conflicts on their security. The findings are summarized in Table 8.

Table 8*Impact of External Conflicts on Security*

Impact of External Conflicts	Frequency	Percentage
No impact	10	6
Low impact	13	8
Moderate impact	24	15
High impact	37	23
Very High impact	77	48
Total	160	100

A considerable majority of respondents (80%) reported that external conflicts have a moderate to critical impact on their security. This finding aligns with previous research, highlighting the detrimental impact external pressures can exert on internal stability.

Concerning the awareness of Internal Conflicts, respondents were similarly asked about their awareness of internal conflicts within Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan. Table 9 outlines the results.

Table 9

Awareness of Internal Conflicts among Respondents

Awareness of Internal Conflicts	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	29	18
No	131	82
Total	160	100

Table 9 indicate that the recognition of internal conflicts by 70% of respondents reflects a strong community awareness of local issues, which is essential for mobilizing efforts towards conflict resolution and peace-building.

The analysed data on the nature of internal conflicts as reported by respondents. The study categorized the conflicts into four distinct types: ethnic/tribal conflicts, political faction groupings, economic disparities, and land disputes. The total number of respondents interviewed was 160. The results were as presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Nature of Internal Conflicts

Nature of Internal Conflicts	Frequency	Percentage
Ethnic/tribal conflicts	48	30
Political faction groupings	30	19
Economic disparities	38	24
Land disputes	43	27
Total	160	100

Ethnic and tribal conflicts emerged as the most significant type of internal conflict, accounting for 30% of the responses with 48 respondents identifying it as a key issue. This suggests that divisions based on ethnic or tribal identities are a prevalent source of discord, which

could stem from historical grievances, cultural differences, or competition for resources. Land disputes were noted by 43 respondents, making up 27% of the data. Land ownership and use can be contentious issues, often exacerbated by economic factors, population growth, and environmental changes. These disputes may lead to disputes over rights, ownership, and the utilization of land resources. Economic disparities, indicated by 38 respondents (24%), highlight the role of unequal distribution of wealth and resources as a conflict driver. This type of disparity can foster resentment and frustration among those who feel marginalized or economically disadvantaged, potentially leading to social unrest.

Lastly, political faction groupings were cited by 30 respondents, representing 19% of the conflicts reported. Political divisions can create an environment of rivalry, where different groups contest for power and influence, often at the expense of national or community unity. The total of 160 respondents confirms that these forms of internal conflict intersect and influence each other, shaping the socio-political landscape. Understanding these dynamics is crucial for addressing the root causes of internal strife and promoting social cohesion.

The impact of internal conflicts on security was also assessed. The data collected illustrates the perceived impact of internal conflicts among respondents, categorizing the effects into five distinct levels: no impact, low impact, moderate impact, high impact, and very high impact as shown in Table 11.

Table 11

Impact of Internal Conflicts on Security

	Frequency	Percentage
No impact	5	3
Low impact	11	7
Moderate impact	19	12
High impact	34	21
Very high impact	91	57
Total	160	100

Table 11 reveal that a significant majority of respondents, 91 individuals (57%), viewed that impact of internal conflicts on security as very high. This overwhelming number emphasizes

the profound toll such conflicts take on the lives of many, potentially affecting various aspects such as social stability, economic opportunities, and personal well-being. 34 respondents (21%) acknowledged a high impact from these conflicts, suggesting that they face considerable disruption or distress due to internal strife. A more substantial portion, comprising 19 individuals (12%), indicated a moderate impact, signalling that internal conflicts somewhat influence their experiences. In addition, a smaller minority expressed less concern, with 11 respondents (7%) describing the impact as low, indicating that while conflicts exist, they did not seem to significantly affect Security of the region. 5 respondents (3%) indicated that internal conflicts had no impact security in Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan.

Overall, with over 97% stating that internal conflicts impacted the security of Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan, the results underscores the urgent need to address internal conflicts, given their pervasive and damaging effects on the community as a whole.

In order to evaluate the overall security situation rating, the study asked respondents to state their views on the overall security situation in Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan. The results are displayed in Table 12.

Table 12

Overall Security Situation Rating

Overall Security Situation	Frequency	Percentage
Very insecure	91	57
Insecure	62	39
Neutral	2	1
Secure	3	2
Very secure	2	1
Total	160	100

Table 12 show the table provides an overview of respondents' perceptions regarding the overall security situation, highlighting their feelings of safety and security. A significant majority of participants, 91 individuals, or 57% of total respondents, identified the security situation as "very insecure." This statistic underscores a prevailing sense of vulnerability within the population, indicating that many individuals deeply feel the impacts of insecurity in their

environment. In conjunction with the “very insecure” category, 62 respondents (39%) described the situation as "insecure." Together, these two categories account for a substantial 96% of the responses, suggesting that insecurity is a dominant in Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan. This alarming figure points to a collective experience of apprehension and concern about personal safety, which can have far-reaching implications for community cohesion and overall well-being.

Conversely, only a small fraction of the respondents expressed more positive feelings toward their security situation. Just 2 respondents (1%) reported a "neutral" stance, indicating ambivalence, while another 3 respondents (2%) deemed the situation as "secure." Lastly, only 2 individuals (1%) felt "very secure." This stark contrast between the negative and positive perceptions further reinforces the notion that a vast majority are grappling with feelings of insecurity.

Overall, the data illuminates a pressing issue within the community, as the overwhelming percentages reflecting insecurity and vulnerability highlight the urgent need for initiatives aimed at enhancing safety and stability. The significant disparity between those feeling insecure versus secure serves as a call to action for policymakers and community leaders to address the root causes of insecurity and work towards fostering an environment where individuals can feel safe and protected.

The study identified the specific threats by asking the respondents about immediate security concerns Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan. Table 13 presents these findings. Here is the table of immediate security threats rearranged from the largest to the smallest frequency and percentage.

Table 13

Immediate Security Threats

Immediate Security Threats	Frequency	Percentage
Violence against civilians	56	35
Criminal activities (theft, corruption)	48	30
Displacement of populations	37	23
Recruitment for armed groups	19	12
Total	160	100

Table outlines 13 the perceptions of respondents regarding various immediate security threats they face, indicating the frequency of occurrences and the corresponding percentage representation of these threats among the total responses. The most significant threat identified is violence against civilians, with 56 respondents (35%) highlighting it as a primary concern. This substantial percentage emphasizes the gravity of this issue, suggesting that many individuals within the community feel vulnerable to violence, which can include a range of acts such as assault, robbery, or conflict-related violence. This perception of violence likely contributes to a climate of fear and insecurity among the general population. Criminal activities, which encompass theft and corruption, were reported by 48 respondents, representing 30% of the total. This indicates that concerns surrounding day-to-day criminal acts are prevalent and widespread, further compounding the overall sense of insecurity. The impact of such activities not only affects individual safety but also undermines trust within the community and the effectiveness of local institutions. Displacement of populations emerged as the third most cited threat, with 37 respondents (23%) acknowledging it.

This reflects concerns about forced migrations due to violence, conflict, or other destabilizing factors, suggesting that many individuals are affected by or fearful of being uprooted from their homes and communities. Such displacement can lead to a range of social and economic challenges, as those displaced often struggle to find stability and security. Recruitment for armed groups was noted by 19 respondents (12%), making it the least cited immediate threat. While this figure is smaller compared to the others, it still highlights a concern over the potential involvement of individuals—particularly youth—in armed groups, which could exacerbate security challenges and contribute to ongoing cycles of violence and instability.

Overall, the data illustrate a complex security landscape, where violence against civilians and criminal activities are the most pressing threats, followed by concerns about displacement and recruitment. The predominance of violence and crime as significant threats suggests an urgent need for effective interventions aimed at improving safety and addressing the underlying causes of these security challenges.

The study also established a Dichotomy of existing armed conflicts; external and internal conflicts in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan that may have serious implication not only on Security Management but also on the National security of South Sudan. The study thus focused on the various issues comprising of Ethnic conflicts often manifest through cattle raiding,

revengeful killings, civil wars, land grabbing, and guerrilla warfare, driven by competition among elites over access to power and financial resources, exacerbated by cross-border and political ethno-political wrangling, fictitious revenues, and deep-seated socioeconomic and political enmity between North and South Sudan. The results from the data are as shown in Table 14 below,

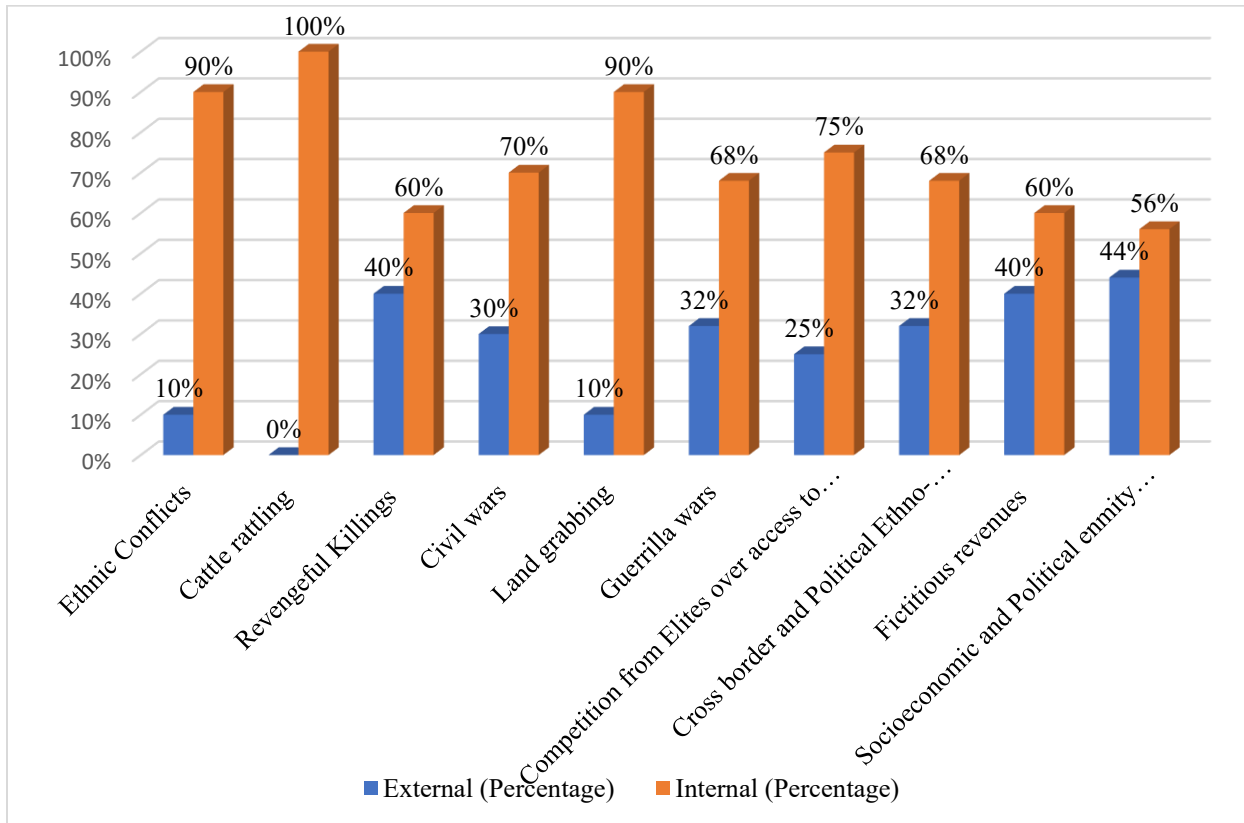
Table 14

Types of Conflicts

Type of Conflict	External (Percentage)	Internal (Percentage)
Ethnic Conflicts	10%	90%
Cattle rattling	0%	100%
Revengeful Killings	40%	60%
Civil wars	30%	70%
Land grabbing	10%	90%
Guerrilla wars	32%	68%
Competition from Elites over access to power and financial resources	25%	75%
Cross border and Political Ethno-Political Wrangling	32%	68%
Fictitious revenues	40%	60%
Socioeconomic and Political enmity between North and South Sudan	44%	56%

Figure 7

Types of Conflicts



As shown in Table 14 and Figure 7 above, the study established a Dichotomy of existing armed conflicts; external and internal conflicts in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan that were said to have serious implication on Security Management. Further the study went a notch higher to establish the nature of conflicts under each type of conflicts as follows;

The analysis presented in Table 14 and illustrated in Figure 7 reveals a pronounced dichotomy between external and internal conflicts in the Central Equatorial State of South Sudan. The data indicates a striking predominance of internal conflicts, which account for the majority of incidents across various conflict types. Ethnic conflicts are predominantly internal, with a notable 90% classified as such, underscoring the significance of community-level disputes and tensions. Following this pattern, cattle raiding stands out as an exclusively internal conflict, exhibiting a 100% internal classification. This suggests that the practice is deeply entrenched in local customs, though it has evolved into a source of violent confrontation.

Other conflict types also reveal a troubling internal bias, with revengeful killings categorized as 60% internal and civil wars at 70%, signifying an entrenched cycle of retribution that exacerbates instability. Land grabbing indicates a severe internal conflict issue as well, with 90% of incidents being internal, highlighting the contentious nature of land as a resource tied closely to ethnic identity and political power. Guerrilla warfare shows a slightly less pronounced internal conflict figure at 68%, signalling the persistent resistance against local or national governance structures.

Moreover, the competition among elites for access to power and financial resources accounts for 75% of internal conflicts, suggesting that political machinations at the local level play a significant role in perpetuating violence. Cross-border and political ethno-political wrangling yield an internal conflict percentage of 68%, indicating that local disputes are often compounded by broader regional tensions. The presence of fictitious revenues, also categorized as 60% internal, points towards systemic corruption that contributes to the grievances fuelling conflict. Finally, the socioeconomic and political enmity between North and South Sudan is slightly more even at 44% external and 56% internal, reflecting how historical animosities continue to impact contemporary conflicts. The results indicate a complex and multifaceted conflict environment in the Central Equatorial State, where internal conflicts overwhelmingly dominate over external threats. This internal predominance raises critical issues for security management, suggesting that strategies should prioritize local conflicts and grievances rather than focusing predominantly on external security concerns. The data on ethnic conflicts and cattle raiding—entirely internal phenomena—highlights the need for community engagement and conflict resolution initiatives that address the root causes of these disputes.

Furthermore, the high rates of internal conflict associated with revengeful killings and civil wars point to a cyclical nature of violence that poses significant challenges to governance and social cohesion. The pattern of retaliation and ongoing community feuds must be acknowledged and addressed through targeted interventions that promote reconciliation and mediation among conflicting parties. The results also shed light on the significant role that elite competition plays in exacerbating internal conflicts. With 75% of conflicts driven by power struggles among local elites, there is a strong indication that the governance structures in place are failing to manage resource distribution equitably. This suggests that improving transparency, enhancing local

governance, and fostering inclusive political dialogues are essential components of any effective strategy to reduce conflict and promote stability.

Additionally, the findings regarding cross-border conflicts and fictitious revenues emphasize the interconnectedness of local and regional issues. Such linkages necessitate a comprehensive approach to conflict resolution that encompasses both internal dynamics and external influences. The slightly even conflict ratio between North and South Sudan indicates that historical grievances are not easily resolved and require careful management to avoid reigniting tensions that could destabilize the region.

Overall, the study underscores the urgency for South Sudan to adopt integrated conflict management strategies that prioritize internal resolutions while recognizing the complexities introduced by external factors. With the overwhelming majority of conflicts being internal, there is an opportunity for local communities, supported by national mechanisms, to play a pivotal role in fostering peace and stability within the Central Equatorial State and the wider South Sudan context. The revelation of inter-state rivalry between North and South Sudan in the findings above should be an eye opener to security pundits because it may have a potential of future nuclear dimension whose consequences are likely to be devastating. The implication will hence be a detriment to not only to security management in Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan, but to the c

According to this study, internal conflicts that affect security Management in South in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan include; Inter-communal conflicts, Land grabbing related conflicts, Cattle Herd related conflicts, Interpersonal conflicts, Ethnic Conflicts, Civil wars pitting ethnic groups, Inter-tribal wars, Revengeful killings.

Basically, the study identified three sets of external conflicts; The first set of conflicts were largely economical, while the second set of conflicts gravitate around control of territories along the border between the North and South.

The study interviewed various respondents and their statements are as shown in the following excerpts.

Excerpt Box 1

The First Set of Conflicts Were Largely Economical

“The first set of conflicts were largely economical, that is the North-South conflict over oil. The conflicts are fuelled by the Norths bitterness about succession that culminated to the loss of territory and oil revenue. As a result, most northerners have not internalized the new reality and feel deeply resentful. Besides, another dispute manifests itself over the transit fees that the landlocked South should pay the North in order to ship its oil through a pipeline running to the northern Sudan Port terminal. On the other hand, bad blood between the north and the south exists because of the Norths refusal to allow a referendum to take place in the contested border of Abyei which would have decided whether the region belongs to the North or South”

(A Male National Security Personnel, 58 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July 2024

The revelation of inter-state rivalry between North and South Sudan in the findings above should be an eye opener to security pundits because it may have a potential of future nuclear dimension whose consequences are likely to be devastating. The implication will hence be a detriment to not only to security management in Juba County, but to the country’s national security.

These conflicts had far reached implications as a respondent stated,

Excerpt Box 2

Internal conflicts have wide spread Direct Negative Impact on Civilians

Internal conflicts have wide spread direct negative impact on civilians by way of proliferation of small arms in that it leads to arming of societies. Those who cannot buy are more often than not prompted to steal from the state armouries. Further, proliferated small arms and weapons make it possible for traditional non-combatants to become involved in conflict. This is a leading course of increased child soldiers who seek for revenge for their decimated parents and significant others. Further, availability of small arms raises the levels of violence and otherwise unrelated segments of society directly into conflicts and endangers the safety and wellbeing of all in the community.

(A Female National Police Service Respond, 45 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

Observably, the implication of proliferated small arms that leads to arming of societies in addition to young people seeking revenge for their decimated parents and significant others is a pointer of life in Hobbes (1651) memorable description, life outside society where it would be “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short”. Security and safety in this anarchically state of life remains a puzzle that requires urgent state intervention if the future of South Sudan Republic is to be salvaged.

Another respondent stated,

Excerpt Box 3

Internal Conflicts have a Lot of Implication

Internal conflicts have a lot of implication that include; violations of human rights including the right to life where people lose their lives, displacement of large portions of populations, economic costs in cases of stolen or robbed livestock, the arming of societies and the cyclical nature of communal violence and general community decline.

(Male Criminal Investigation Personnel, 37 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

Whereas the above finding reveals a cyclical nature of communal violence, this pattern is not favourable for the country's socioeconomic development, leading to more pain and suffering. On the other hand, because of under development, scarce resources will always predispose communities to continue fighting for these resources.

According to this study, other bureaucratic disorders predisposed the Juba government and made it feeble to both external and internal attacks. As a respondent stated,

Excerpt Box 4

Khartoum Has Taken Advantage Promote Ethno-Political and Competition

“Despite the fact that South Sudan has got its own challenges such as inadequate experience in self-governance and administration, Khartoum has been quick to take advantage of the situation to promote ethno-political and competition among the ruling elites over access to power and financial resources. Besides, it has in many cases succeeded in planting North Sudan army of guerrilla fighters against Sudanese People Liberation Army in a view to sabotage government and its institutions”

(A Female National Security Personnel, 43 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

The observation above is a case of a foreign sovereign state that is perceived to be spying or intelligence gathering for military operations against the Juba government. This may have happened by infiltrating its ranks. The security implication is obviously dire. Radical surgery of the military institution is necessary in order to flush out these clandestine forces if South Sudan government is to remain stable.

Another respondent stated,

Excerpt Box 5

Government Authority Contested Due to Inexperienced & Powerless Officials

The authority of South Sudan government is contested due to inexperienced and powerless government officials who are unable to impose bureaucratic order on the new country. This inability to maintain a presence, let alone effectively providing administration, weakens the government even more, creating a vicious cycle of continued instability, much of it caused by competition to control natural resources; land, grazing rights, water, and even oil. The larger Sudan, exploits the situation and always plants seed of discord to either destabilize South Sudan, or crush the new independent country so that it can reach out to its reach oil reserves.

(A Male National Police Service, 50 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

Understandably through the lens of Hobbes (1651) memorable description, of life outside government which would be “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short” in the absence, Hobbes had hoped for some powerful individual in his social contract theory who would enforce the law or who would be given a right to inflict severe punishment on anyone who stepped out of the line. This individual whom he also called ‘sovereign’ should according to this study be created in the context of South Sudan to fix the country’s both internal and external security concerns.

4.5 Influence of Local and Regional Dynamics of Conflicts on Security

The second objective was set to establish the influence of the local and regional dynamics of conflicts on the security of post conflicts states, a case study of Juba County, South Sudan. The

variables of interest included; interlocking political and tribal divisions, Rise of insurgents and armed cross border militia groups from the north, and influence of elites on livestock related conflicts and Militarization of governance. Each variable was discussed below; (data for respondents required)

4.5.1 Effect of Interlocking Political and Tribal Division on Security Management

This study sought to establish the influence of interlocking political and tribal division aspects of conflict on Security Management in South Sudan. The Key informants were the greatest voice in this. For example, a Key informant stated,

Excerpt Box 6

Tribal Divisions and Politics are Intertwined

“Tribal divisions and Politics in South Sudan are inextricably intertwined. The main stimulus for the fighting is who gets what and how. This threatens to distract the country from state building and plunge it into internal turmoil, adding to the misery caused by renewed fighting with the North. The ethnicity of South Sudan is richly diverse. Despite the nation comprising of 64 tribes, the Dinka who are the dominant tribe (with 40% of the population) and the Lou-Nuer(20% of the population) occupy 80% of the political positions, leaving the remaining 62 tribes bitter and disgruntled to share only 40% of the national cake. As a result, much of the opposition is tribally based. Until there is representativeness in government fighting will never end in South Sudan”.

(A Male Chief, 49 Year)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

Observably, the above findings are a precursor for continued ethnic imbalance and generate more conflicts. If one group is substantially larger than others such as the Dinka (40%) and the Lou-Nuer (20% of the population), it is more likely that the majority group will be able to dominate discussions about political arrangements and the minority interests neglected. When people feelings of entrenched inequality, alienation and abuse of their human rights, such as a right

to socioeconomic life encroach, more enmity may deepen. This is likely to threaten peace and security because the minority may join hands with the enemy camp to sink the ship.

4.5.2 The Influence of Insurgents and armed Cross Border Militia Groups from the North

This study sought to establish the influence of insurgents and armed cross border militia groups from the north aspects of conflict and their effect on Security Management in South Sudan. The results were as shown below:

Table 15

Influence of Local and Regional Dynamics of Conflicts in Juba County

Local and Regional Dynamics of		Mean score	Percent
In a scale of 1-10 What do you consider to be the divisions, influence of the Local and armed cross	Interlocking political and Rise of insurgents and	8	80
Regional Dynamics of border militia groups from the north	tribal divisions		
	Rise of insurgents and armed cross border militia groups from the North	7	70
Conflicts on Security Influence of elites on livestock related Management in Juba County conflicts	Influence of elites on livestock related conflicts	10	100
Militarization of governance.	Militarization of governance	10	100

The study aimed to analyse the influence of various local and regional dynamics of conflict on security management in Juba County, South Sudan. The results, as presented in Table 15, highlight several critical factors affecting security in the region, with a particular focus on the militarization of governance, the influence of elites on livestock-related conflicts, interlocking political and tribal divisions, and the rise of insurgents and armed cross-border militia groups.

Each of these factors is shown to have varying degrees of impact on security management, as measured by the mean scores and corresponding percentages provided.

The findings indicate that both the militarization of governance and the influence of elites on livestock-related conflicts received the highest scores (100%), suggesting these issues are viewed as paramount threats to security management. This aligns with existing literature that emphasizes how governance structures heavily influenced by military considerations can exacerbate tensions within a community. Research has found that when governing bodies are closely associated with military forces, there can be a tendency to prioritize coercive measures over conflict resolution, leading to instability and further violence (Nathan, 2015). In contexts like South Sudan, where the transition from conflict to peace is ongoing, militarization can severely hinder effective governance, thus perpetuating cycles of violence rather than fostering security and development.

The respondents also identified interlocking political and tribal divisions as significantly influential, with an 80% agreement rate. This underlines the entrenched nature of identity politics in South Sudan, where ethnic and tribal affiliations are often interwoven with political loyalties. Studies have shown that such divisions can create a fragmented political landscape, making consensus-building and cooperative governance challenging (Holt & Dobbins, 2006). The impact of these divisions is further compounded by the legacy of conflict that has carved deep divides among communities, often resulting in violent clashes over resources and power, which in turn complicates security management strategies.

The rise of insurgents and armed cross-border militia groups from the north was rated slightly lower at 70%, highlighting ongoing concerns regarding regional spill over effects on local security. The presence of cross-border militia reflects the transnational nature of modern conflicts, where local grievances are often exacerbated by external actors. This phenomenon is well-documented in conflict studies, which emphasize that local conflicts can be compounded by regional dynamics, leading to a more complex security environment (Krause & Jütersonke, 2005). In South Sudan, this cross-border influence has the potential to destabilize communities further and hinder the capacity of the state to maintain order and provide basic security services.

The overarching theme in these findings is that the complexities of security management in South Sudan are closely related to the interconnections between governance, local grievances, and regional dynamics. Key informants emphasized the challenges posed by intergroup relations

and the influence of elite power holders, suggesting that solutions to enhance security must consider these underlying social dynamics. Literature suggests that reforms aimed at improving governance and fostering inclusive participation can mitigate some of these complexities (Stewart, 2016). For instance, fostering inter-tribal dialogue and strengthening local governance structures can help to build trust and cooperation among diverse groups, thereby reducing the likelihood of conflicts that affect security.

The results of this study underscore the multifaceted nature of conflicts in South Sudan and their detrimental effects on security management. The identified dynamics, particularly the militarization of governance, elite influence, and interlocking tribal divisions, reflect challenges that resonate with contemporary theoretical frameworks in conflict research. Addressing these issues holistically is crucial for developing sustainable security strategies that acknowledge the intricate web of local and regional influences shaping the security landscape in Juba County and beyond.

As indicated in Table 15, the highest ranked conflicts included Militarization of governance. (100%), Influence of elites on livestock related conflicts (100%), Interlocking political and tribal divisions, (80%) and Rise of insurgents and armed cross border militia groups from the north (70%) in that order. Each variable was discussed below;

The Key informants were the greatest voice in this. For example, a Key informant stated, As shown in Table 8, there were security concerns by 80% of the respondents that interlocking Political and Tribal Division influenced had implication on security in South Suda.

The Key informants were the greatest voice in this. For example, a Key informant stated that,

Excerpt Box 7

Tribal Divisions and Politics in South Sudan are Inextricably Intertwined

“Tribal divisions and Politics in South Sudan are inextricably intertwined. The main stimulus for the fighting is who gets what and how. This threatens to distract the country from state building and plunge it into internal turmoil, adding to the misery caused by renewed fighting with the North. The ethnicity of South Sudan is richly diverse. Despite the nation comprising of 64 tribes, the Dinka who are the dominant tribe (with 40% of the population) and the Lou-Nuer(20% of the population) occupy 80% of the political positions, leaving the remaining 62 tribes bitter and disgruntled to share only 40% of the national cake. As a result, much of the opposition is tribally based. Until there is representativeness in government fighting will never end in South Sudan”

(A Male Heads of Residential Areas, 44 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

Observably, the above findings are a precursor for continued ethnic imbalance and generate more conflicts. If one group is substantially larger than others such as the Dinka (40%) and the Lou-Nuer (20% of the population), it is more likely that the majority group will be able to dominate discussions about political arrangements and the minority interests neglected. When people feelings of entrenched inequality, alienation and abuse of their human rights, such as a right to socioeconomic life encroach, more enmity may deepen. This is likely to threaten peace and security because the minority may join hands with the enemy camp to sink the ship.

Excerpt Box 8

Insurgency remains a political problem in South Sudan

“Insurgency remains a political problem in South Sudan but, that can be cut at the nib if there is political goodwill. A number of rebel groups and militias still operate in South Sudan today. This comprise of members of the military who were not incorporated into the Juba Declaration of 2006 which laid a basis for unification of South Sudan Military forces. Some are tribal Militia that stem from disgruntled tribes with a feeling of politically disenfranchised, trying to fight for political and economic inclusion. For example, also rebelling against Salva Kiir’s government and the rule by SPLM is the militant South Sudan Democratic Movement Army established in 2010 by George Author. Though he died the movement remains relatively active and is considered one of the most prominent insurgencies’ in the country. This, in my view, is a problem that can be thwarted to give way to nation building efforts. Further, the northern government supports rebels and militia groups with arms in South Sudan. This makes the conflicts too intricate in South Sudan. Further, this uncontrolled modern weapon proliferation into South Sudan makes conflicts to be so intricate. For example, in the case of traditional way of cattle rustling practiced by all tribes including the major tribes of Dinka, Nuer and Murle communities which were hitherto using spears, bows, arrows and clubs presently changed into modern guns and powerful weapons. In this case, the escalation of the conflicts is raised to far higher death tolls.

(A Male Security Manager, 49 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

The above finding reveals three shocking things that require radicalized thinking and thought; first, is the uncontrolled modern weapon proliferation into South Sudan makes conflicts to be so intricate. Second, is the presence of armed members of the military who were not incorporated into South Sudan Military forces according to the agreed Juba Declaration of 2006. Third, are tribal Militia that stem from disgruntled tribes with a feeling of politically disenfranchised, trying to fight for their political and economic inclusion. The implication here is

that unless the military is sophisticated in skills, technology and hardware to control proliferated weapons into the country insecurity may never end. Secondly, though this is a policy area, easier way to peace may be to incorporate former military men into the country's defence force. Thirdly, though a policy area too, the disgruntled tribes with a feeling of politically disenfranchised and economically alienated may dissent and pose a national security threat especially if they join hands with terrorist camp to sink the ship if cessation from the rest of the country option fails.

4.5.3 Influence of Elites on Livestock Related Aspects of Conflict

This study sought to establish the influence of Influence of elites on livestock related aspects of conflict of conflict on Security Management in South Sudan. The Key informants were the greatest voice in this. For example, a Key informant stated,

Excerpt Box 9

Livestock Signifies Social Position and Status

In South Sudan, livestock signifies social position and status. Though it is a social cultural belief, it is almost adored by all including those from a ruling class. They serve as means of payment, wedding gifts, means to solve disagreements, substitute for the banking system because it gives a consistent way of saving properties. Consequently, most often than not, because of greed for material wealth and for political expediency, there is deliberate manipulation by political elites to exploit ethnic divisions and rivalry between communities. This has encouraged the creation of ethnic of armed groups such as the Nuer White army (Semi-official name for a militant organization formed by the Nuer people) and the Dinka Titweng, founded on traditional communal groups involved in cattle looting, and conflict on behalf of their community. Most of these tribal armed groups are armed with modern guns and other powerful weapons. The weapons make cattle rustling very effective. The impact is collection of huge cattle flocks by political and military elites to create their prestige and to develop groups of, are utilized to create their prestige and to develop groups of their patrons, financiers or champions. Accumulated cattle wealth is also used in payment of supporters' bride wealth for purposes of guaranteeing loyalty.

(A Female National Security Personnel, 43 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

Observably, the above finding is more of a social cultural problem that may need to be dealt with if the issue of insecurity is to be addressed with finality. If this be the case then policy makers need to be swift because cultural issues involve belief systems and values which most likely calls for a more radical approach for a superior ideology that prioritises security concerns.

4.5.4 Influence of Militarization of Governance on Security Management Strategy

This study sought to establish the influence of Militarization of governance on Security Management in South Sudan. The Key informants were the greatest voice in this. For example, a Key informant stated,

Excerpt Box 10

Security Threats Attributed to the Nature of the State and its Evolution

“The security threats in South Sudan are attributed to the nature of the state and its evolution. There was a misstep in the manner governance was conceptualized. The military in South Sudan permeates all sectors of governance, as a political actor. The SPLM government did not make a transition from a liberation movement and government to a civilian regime with proper and functional state organs of governance. The military dominates politics with civilian structures overlooked or non-existent. As a result, the state lacks legitimate civilian structures of governance. State institutions such as the Judiciary and Executive are highly militarized, hence, the non-existent institutions of governance has created avenues for informal economy and rent seeking South Sudan. As a result, the legacy of war and ethnic manipulation by political elites and divide and rule tactics against other communities polarised and politically marginalized those who did not support armed liberation struggle. As a result, there have been so many militias operating independently of the state and occasionally challenging and contesting the state power through disgruntled politicians and former generals of the military.

(A Female National Police Service, 39 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

The implication of the above finding is that most South Sudan citizens were excluded in politics and in their economy. In a situation where security agencies are seen as personalized and repressive towards realizing political goals as opposed to national good across the region, any effort to create peace and tranquillity may not be tenable and security management just remaining a hoax or a puzzle.

4.6 Effect of the Emerging Security Threats on Security Management Strategies

The third objective was set to examine the effect of the emerging security threats on security management strategies in Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan. Major variables of interest included; Smuggling of Migrants in East Africa, Terrorism Threats, War Economy, ungoverned space. Corruption, Illicit Arms Trafficking (Small Arms and Light Weapons) and cattle-raiding, and economic espionage, and ungoverned space Each variable was discussed Table 16 below;

Table 16

Effect of Emerging Security Threats on Security Management Strategies

	Emerging Security Threats on Security Management Strategies	Mean Score	100% Percent
In a scale of 1-10 What do you consider to be the major Emerging threats that Smuggling of Migrants in East Africa, Terrorism Threats	Smuggling of Migrants in East Africa	8	80
	Terrorism Threats	8	70
	War Economy	9	90
	Ungoverned space	10	100

As indicated, in Table 16 above, the highest ranking of emerging threat that affected security management included; Ungoverned space (100%), War Economy (100%), Terrorism (80%) and Smuggling of Migrants in East Africa (80%) in that order.

The results presented in Table 16 illustrate a significant concern regarding several emerging security threats impacting security management strategies in Juba County, South Sudan. The assessment identifies "Ungoverned space" as the most critical emerging threat, attaining a perfect score of 10 and 100%. This indicates a consensus among respondents on the pervasive

challenges posed by areas where governmental authority is either absent or ineffective. Ungoverned spaces are particularly problematic as they can become havens for criminal activities, including armed insurgencies, human trafficking, and various forms of organized crime. In the context of Juba County, addressing this threat is crucial for establishing stable governance and restoring public safety.

Following closely, the "War Economy" also garnered a high mean score of 9, indicating its significant influence on security management strategies, with 90% acknowledgment of its impact. The concept of a war economy refers to the economic system that emerges during periods of conflict, often dominated by illicit trade, corruption, and the exploitation of resources for warfare rather than for the benefit of the population. This dynamic complicates security management as it intertwines economic incentives with conflict, creating a cycle that can perpetuate violence and instability. Therefore, addressing the war economy and finding ways to divert its influence towards legitimate economic development could be a priority in security planning.

The threats posed by "Terrorism" and "Smuggling of Migrants in East Africa," both receiving mean scores of 8 and 80%, indicate that they also present significant challenges to security management. Terrorism, in particular, is a global concern and has local manifestations in various East African contexts, including South Sudan. The implications of terrorism can destabilize regions, provoke retaliatory measures, and create a climate of fear among the populace, necessitating robust counter-terrorism strategies. On the other hand, the smuggling of migrants is a pressing issue in East Africa, often linked to broader economic and social dynamics such as poverty and violence. The high acknowledgment of this threat implies a recognition of the humanitarian crises it creates, as well as the potential for this illegal activity to undermine national and regional security.

Overall, the results underscore the multifaceted nature of security management in Juba County, where ungoverned spaces and the war economy emerge as foundational issues that might exacerbate other threats like terrorism and human smuggling. A comprehensive and integrated approach to security management must be adopted to address these intertwined challenges, focusing on enhancing governance, promoting economic development, fostering community resilience, and strengthening law enforcement capabilities to create a safer environment for the residents of Juba County and beyond.

Each variable was as discussed in the section 4.6.1 to 4.6.4 below,

4.6.1 Effect of Smuggling Migrants in East Africa on Security Management Strategies

This study sought to establish the effect of smuggling of migrants in East Africa and its effects on Security management strategies in Juba County Central Equatorial State in South Sudan. On this regard, an interviewee stated. As shown in Table 16, there were security concerns by 80% of the respondents indicating that smuggling of migrants in East Africa has had a significant role in affecting security management Strategies in Juba County, South Sudan. For example, on this regard, an interviewee stated as shown in Excerpt Box 11,

For example, on this regard, an interviewee stated as shown in Excerpt Box 11,

Excerpt Box 11

South Sudan Inherited one of the Weakest Border & Migration Management

South Sudan inherited one of the weakest border and migration management regimes following its independence in 2011 that notably permits migrants most notably in form of human child trafficking. Most children are recruited for domestic child soldiering in the context of the on-going civil war and also for soldiering elsewhere outside the country.

(A Male Chief, 35 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

Observably, whereas forced recruitment of child for purposes of participation in armed in armed conflicts under child trafficking falls under the ambit of trafficking in persons, their effect on security management cannot be over emphasized. The biggest dilemma is what to do with them after the civil war is over. In the event that they are not incorporated into the country's army may be tantamount to further militarizing the communities. The other security dilemma to policy makers is surveillance of children recruited for soldiering outside the country when they return to the country.

4.6.2 Effect of Terrorism Threats on Security Management Strategies

As shown in Table 16, there were security concerns by 80% of the respondents indicating that terrorism has had a significant role in affecting security Management Strategies in Juba County, South Sudan.

For example, on this regard, an interviewee stated as shown in Excerpt Box 11

Excerpt Box 12

LRA & SPLM-10, Organization for Killing Maiming & Displacing People

“Though there are terrorist group activities generally in the East African Region, the only terrorist organizations killing, maiming and displacing people in South Sudan are the Lords Resistant Army (LRA) and the SPLM-10. The SPLM-10 rebel movement has since Dec 2013 killed and maimed innocent civilians across the country, particularly in the towns of Bor, Malakai and Bentiu. Their methods of killing and torturing innocent civilians are the same as those used by different terrorist organizations around the world.”

(A Male Criminal Investigation Personnel, 50 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

As observed above, though this study reveals the activities of a terrorist organization from the neighbouring country of Uganda, existence of a terrorist (SPLM-10) rebel movement by the people themselves should worry policy makers and the powers that be likely to have been caused by feelings of politics and economy hence resentment for war. This is because an all-inclusive state that satisfactorily answers the social and national question would significantly inspire people’s hopes and aspirations for a better nation which is in this apparently context largely lacking.

4.6.3 Effect of War Economy on Security Management Strategies

As shown in Table 16, there were security concerns by all respondents (100%) indicating that War Economy has had a significant role in affecting security management strategies in Juba County, South Sudan.

For example, on this regard, an interviewee stated as shown in Excerpt Box 11,

Excerpt Box 13

Transnational Criminal Gangs Engage In Illegal Trade and Other Activities

“The problem in South Sudan is that transnational criminal organized gangs engage in illegal trade and other clandestine activities across its national borders with some military leaders, leaders of armed groups and some civilians. They engage in illegal activities such as poaching of; elephants, tiang” antelope, giraffe, and chimpanzee. Further they engage in commercial trafficking of wildlife as well. In addition, Unknown international individuals and actors carry out illegal business activities such as gold mining, illegal logging, and charcoal production with members of South Sudan security organs. Notable borders include DRC, Central Africa, Sudan, the savannah and equatorial forests”

(A Male Heads of Residential Areas, 49 years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

Undeniably, the findings above that the military and heads of Security agencies engage in clandestine and shady business deals with transnational criminal organized gangs across its national borders creates a plethora of security concerns worth further interrogation. This is also an indicator that the security problem of South Sudan people is internal driven due to acute obsession with insatiable greed for material resources at the expense of their national security.

4.6.4 Effect of Ungoverned Spaces on Security Management Strategies

This study sought to establish the effect of ungoverned spaces on Security management strategies in Juba County, South Sudan. On this regard, as shown in Table 16, there were security concerns by all respondents (100%) indicating that Ungoverned Spaces has had a significant role in affecting security management strategies in Juba County, South Sudan.

For example, For example, on this regard, an interviewee stated as shown in Excerpt Box 14,

Excerpt Box 14

South Sudan has so many Ungoverned Spaces Under the Control of Militias

“Unfortunately, South Sudan has so many ungoverned spaces under the control of militias with access to modern guns and other weapons that proliferated through the porous national borders to the extent that the government has no legitimate security agencies that guarantee security. Further, rebel groups operate within ungoverned spaces or areas with extreme poverty levels. Such places always attract terrorism, transnational criminal gangs, or any other external actors. In addition, such places act as breeding grounds for criminal activities that may threaten not only South Sudan security but also that of frontline neighbours or region. Obsession of former military commanders, some leaders of security agencies and other influential business moguls with greed and control of natural resources in ungoverned spaces is a snare and a timed bomb against South Sudan national security and that of the entire region”

(A Female Security Manager, 47 Years)

Area: Juba City

Date: July, 2024

Understandably now, following the finding that South Sudan government has no legitimate security agencies that guarantee security to its own citizens is a sad state of affair that by extension is likely to be a regional problem. As a matter of policy concern then, if South Sudan is not safe then the whole region is not safe. This calls for an immediate action by all security stakeholders, UN agencies, Non-State Actors, security pundits and think tanks to brainstorm and chart a way forward for South Sudan and the entire region.

4.7 Discussion of Findings

This section discusses the findings thematically in relation to other research studies conducted. The section is organized according to the study objectives as follows;

4.7.1 Effect of Nature of Existing Armed Conflicts on Security Management

The first objective in this study sought to explore the nature of existing armed conflicts and their effect on security management in Juba County, South Sudan. As Wessells (1998) and Ottaway and El-Sadany (2012) observed internationally and also in Africa, the study established a dichotomy of existing armed conflicts; external and internal conflicts in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan that had serious implication not only on Security Management but also on the National security of the country of South Sudan. Additionally, the study also identified two sets of external conflicts; the first set of conflicts was largely economical, while the second set gravitates around control of territories along the border between the North Sudan and South Sudan countries. According to a significant number (44%) of the respondents these conflicts are due to Socio economic and political enmity between

North Sudan and South Sudan over rich oil reserves in South Sudan and also the contested border region of Abyei. The revelation of inter-state rivalry between North and South Sudan in the findings above were said to be an eye opener to security pundits because of its propensity to potentially have future nuclear dimension whose security consequences were perceived to be devastating. The implication was hence, found to be more detrimental to not only to the security management in Juba County, but of the Country's national security.

According to this study, internal conflicts that affect security Management in South in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan include; Inter-communal conflicts, Land grabbing related conflicts, Cattle Herd related conflicts, Interpersonal conflicts, Ethnic Conflicts, Civil wars pitting ethnic groups, Inter-tribal wars, and Revengeful killings. These Conflicts were exacerbated by increased child soldiers who sought for revenge for their decimated parents and significant others (Sivard, 1996). Further, availability of small arms raised the levels of violence and otherwise unrelated segments of society directly into conflicts and endangered the safety and wellbeing of all in the community.

As found by Wessells (1998) Internal conflicts have a lot of implication that include; violations of human rights including the right to life where people lose their lives, displacement of large portions of populations, economic costs in cases of stolen or robbed livestock, the arming of societies and the cyclical nature of communal violence and general community decline. There were also perceptions that there was an underhand of North Sudan operatives in the internal conflicts to weaken the South Sudan government even more, creating a vicious cycle of continued

instability, much of it caused by competition to control natural resources; so that it can reach out to its reach oil reserves.

4.7.2 Influence of Local and Regional Dynamics of Conflicts on Security Management

The second objective established the influence of several local and regional dynamics that affected security management as follows.

4.7.2.1 Influence of Interlocking Political and Tribal division Aspects of Conflict

According to the study, tribal divisions and politics in South Sudan are inextricably intertwined. The main stimulus for the fighting is who gets what and how. This threatens to distract the country from state building and plunge it into internal turmoil, adding to the misery caused by renewed fighting with the North. Despite the nation comprising of 64 tribes, the Dinka who are the dominant tribe (with 40% of the population) and the Lou-Nuer (20% of the population) occupy 80% of the political positions, leaving the remaining 62 tribes bitter and disgruntled to share only 40% of the national cake. There were sentiments that until the government is representative fighting will never end in South Sudan”.

This study agrees with findings Stewart (2000) and Richards (1996) who argued that continued ethnic imbalance and generates more conflicts. If one group is substantially larger than others such as the Dinka (40%) and the Lou-Nuer (20% of the population), it is more likely that the majority group will be able to dominate discussions about political arrangements and economy with the minority interests neglected. When people feelings of entrenched inequality, alienation and abuse of their human rights, such as a right to socioeconomic life encroach, more enmity may deepen. This is likely to threaten peace and security because the minority may join hands with the enemy camp to sink the ship.

4.7.2.2 The influence of Insurgents and Armed cross Border Militia Groups from the North

As Keen (2012) and Ross (2004) argued, this study has also revealed Insurgency to be a security threat in South Sudan but, that can be cut at the nib if there is political goodwill. The study made several shocking revelations that require radicalized thinking and thought; first, is the uncontrolled modern weapon proliferation into South Sudan that makes conflicts to be so intricate. Second, is the presence of armed members of the military who were not incorporated into South Sudan Military forces according to the agreed Juba Declaration of 2006. Third, are tribal Militia

that stemmed from disgruntled tribes with a feeling of politically disenfranchised, trying to fight for their political and economic inclusion.

The implication here is that unless the military is sophisticated in skills, technology and hardware to control proliferated weapons into the country insecurity may never end. Secondly, though this is a policy area, easier way to peace may be to incorporate former military men into the country's defence force. Thirdly, though a policy area too, the disgruntled tribes with a feeling of politically disenfranchised and economically alienated may dissent and pose a national security threat especially if they join hands with terrorist camp to sink the ship if cessation from the rest of the country option fails.

4.7.2.3 Influence of Elites on Livestock Related Aspects

According to this study livestock, which signifies social position and status in South Sudan is almost adored by all including those from a ruling class. As argued by Avis (2019) livestock is used as a means of; payment, as wedding gifts, means to solve disagreements, and also a substitute for the banking system because it gives a consistent way of saving properties. Consequently, according to this study because of greed for material wealth and for political expediency, there is deliberate manipulation of political elites to exploit these ethnic divisions and rivalry for their own advantage. As a result, these political elites have encouraged the creation of ethnic armed groups such as the Nuer White army (Semi-official name for a militant organization formed by the Nuer people) and the Dinka Titweng, founded on traditional communal groups involved in cattle looting, and conflict on behalf of their community.

Most of these tribal armed groups are armed with modern guns and other powerful weapons. These weapons make cattle rustling very effective, collecting huge cattle flocks by political and military elites to create their prestige and to develop groups of their patrons, financiers or champions (Herbert, 2017). Accumulated cattle wealth would also be used in payment of supporters' bride wealth for purposes of guaranteeing loyalty (Avis, 2019). Though this finding is more of a social cultural problem, it needs to be dealt with if the issue of insecurity is to be addressed with finality. Given that it involves a belief system and values, a more radical approach for a superior ideology that prioritises security management concerns cannot be understated.

4.7.2.4 Influence of Militarization of Governance and its Effect on Security Management

The findings of this study lend support to the argument by De waal (2014) and Mamdani (2016) that the security threats in South Sudan are attributed by the nature of the state and its evolution. According to this study, there was a misstep during the governance transition in that, the military in South Sudan permeates all sectors of governance, as a political actor. The SPLM government did not make a transition from a liberation movement and government to a civilian regime with proper and functional state organs of governance. As a result, the military dominate politics with civilian structures overlooked or non-existent.

Consequently, the state lacks legitimate civilian structures of governance. State institutions such as the Judiciary and Executive are dominated by military, hence, the non-existent institutions of governance has created avenues for informal economy and rent seeking South Sudan. As argued by Mandami (2016) the legacy of war and ethnic manipulation by political elites using divide and rule tactics against other communities polarised and politically marginalized those who did not support armed liberation struggle.

According to this study, this led to many militias operating independently of the state and occasionally challenging and contesting the state power through disgruntled politicians and former generals of the military. The implication here is a situation where security agencies are seen as personalized and repressive and opposed to the national good across the region. Under such circumstances, any effort to create peace and tranquillity was no longer tenable making security management appear as a puzzle.

4.7.3 Effect of Emerging Security Threats on Security Management Strategies

The third objective established the effect of several emerging security threats on Security Management strategies in Juba County, South Sudan.

4.7.3.1 Effect of Smuggling of Migrants in East Africa on Security Management Strategies

The finding in this study lend support to the argument by US State Department (2016) and Gemechu (2023) that South Sudan inherited one of the weakest border and migration management regimes following its independence in 2011 that notably permits migrants most notably in form of human child trafficking. Revealed by this study, most children are recruited for domestic child soldiering in the context of the on-going civil war and also for soldiering elsewhere outside the country. Observably, whereas forced recruitment of children for purposes of participation in

armed conflicts under child trafficking falls under the ambit of trafficking in persons, their effect on security management cannot be over understated. The biggest dilemma is what to do with them after the civil war is over. In the event that they are not incorporated into the country's army may be tantamount to further militarizing the communities. The other security dilemma to policy makers is surveillance of children recruited for soldiering outside the country when they return to the country.

4.7.3.2 Effect of Terrorism threats on Security Management Strategies

As observed during the 69th Session of the United Nations general Assembly in New York in 2014 this study also found that the only terrorist groups generally in the East African Region, that perpetrate killing, maiming and displacing people in South Sudan are the Lords Resistant Army (LRA) and the SPLM-10. Accordingly, the SPLM-10 rebel movement has since Dec 2013 killed and maimed innocent civilians across the country, particularly in the towns of Bor, Malakai and Bentiu. Their methods of killing and torturing innocent civilians are the same as those used by different terrorist organizations around the world.

Though this study reveals the activities of a terrorist organization from the neighbouring country of Uganda, existence of a terrorist (SPLM-10) rebel movement by the people themselves should worry policy makers and the powers that be likely to have been caused by feelings of politics and economy hence resentment for war. This is because an all-inclusive state that satisfactorily answers the social and national question would significantly inspire people's hopes and aspirations for a better nation which is in this apparently context largely lacking.

4.7.3.3 Effect of war economy on Security Management Strategies

According to this study, the transnational criminal organized gangs engage in illegal trade and other clandestine activities across its national borders with some military leaders, leaders of armed groups and some civilians. As argued by Collier (2015) they engage in illegal activities such as poaching of; elephants, tiang, giraffe, and chimpanzee. Further they engage in commercial trafficking of wildlife as well. In addition, this study revealed activities of unknown international individuals and actors who carry out illegal business activities such as gold mining, illegal logging, and charcoal production with members of South Sudan security organs at notable borders that include; DRC, Central Africa, Sudan, the savannah and equatorial forests. However, the findings that the military and heads of Security agencies engage in clandestine and shady business deals

with transnational criminal organized gangs across its national borders creates a plethora of security concerns worth further interrogation. This is also an indicator that the security problem of South Sudan people is internal driven due to acute obsession with insatiable greed for material resources at the expense of their national security.

4.7.3.4 Effect of ungoverned spaces on Security Management Strategies

According to this study, South Sudan has so many ungoverned spaces under the control of militias with access to modern guns and other weapons that proliferated through the porous national borders to the extent that the government has no legitimate security agencies that guarantee security. This finding lends support to findings by Collier (2015) who argued that rebel groups operate within ungoverned spaces or areas with extreme poverty levels. Such places always attract terrorism, transnational criminal gangs, or any other external actors. In addition, such places act as breeding grounds for criminal activities that may threaten not only South Sudan security but also that of frontline neighbours or region (Collier, 2015).

Obsession of former military commanders, some leaders of security agencies and other influential business moguls with greed and control of natural resources in ungoverned spaces is a snare and a timed bomb against South Sudan national security and that of the entire region. This study finding that South Sudan government has no legitimate security agencies that guarantee security to its own citizens is a sad state of affair that by extension is likely to be a regional problem. This study established a matter of policy concern then, that if South Sudan is not safe then the whole region is not safe. This calls for an immediate action by all security stakeholders, UN agencies, Non-State Actors, security pundits and think tanks to brainstorm and chart a way forward for South Sudan and the entire region.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter looks into the summary of the study, conclusions based on the findings and recommendations.

5.2 Summary

This study sought to assess the influence of armed conflicts on the security of post-conflict states in South Sudan, with a specific focus on Juba County in the Central Equatorial State. The research was guided by three specific objectives,

The first specific objective was to determine the nature of existing armed conflicts and their effect on security management in Juba County. The findings revealed significant external and internal conflicts impacting national security. External conflicts were primarily driven by political and territorial disputes between North and South Sudan, exacerbated by competition for valuable resources, particularly oil. Internal conflicts, including intercommunal violence, land disputes, ethnic strife, and cattle-related conflicts, were intensified by the proliferation of small arms and ammunition. This volatility not only threatened the security landscape within Juba but also posed larger implications for the nation's stability, inciting a cycle of violence and human rights violations.

The second objective focused on the local and regional dynamics of conflicts and their influence on security management. The study highlighted the profound impact of tribal divisions and political inequalities on the security situation in South Sudan. Dominance by the Dinka and Lou-Nuer tribes in political spaces left many other tribes feeling marginalized, contributing to ongoing unrest and potential collaboration with insurgent groups. Additionally, the study uncovered the disruptive roles of cross-border militias and insurgents, stemming from widespread discontent and militarization of certain groups within the population. The findings indicated that the lack of inclusive governance and representation for disenfranchised communities has been critical in perpetuating instability and violence, suggesting that without addressing these underlying inequalities, security management efforts will be perpetually undermined.

The third objective examined the effect of emerging security threats on security management strategies in Juba County. The study identified various threats including child soldier

recruitment, rising terrorism represented by groups like the SPLM-10, and transnational organized crime, which enriches local elites while compromising security. The analysis pointed out the severe challenges South Sudan faces concerning the management of migration and internal displacement, particularly with child soldiers returning to their communities post-conflict. The presence of ungoverned spaces exploited by criminal organizations and militias further exacerbates the security crisis, highlighting a systemic failure within the state's governance structures. Ultimately, this study underscores the urgent need for cohesive policy responses and collaborative efforts among security stakeholders to address both the immediate and underlying factors contributing to insecurity in South Sudan and the broader East African region.

5.3 Conclusions

This section covers conclusions of this study based on research findings. The conclusions are divided into two categories namely: theoretical conclusions; and empirical conclusions.

5.3.1 Theoretical Conclusions

In exploring the security dynamics of post-conflict states in South Sudan, the study utilized Conflict Transformation Theory to analyze how existing armed conflicts shape the security landscape. This theory posits that conflicts arise from deeper structural contradictions within society, manifesting in various forms of violence and unrest. The findings indicate that addressing these underlying issues requires a transformative approach, involving the reworking of relationships, interests, and societal structures that perpetuate violence. The gradual transformation of conflict can be facilitated through collaborative efforts across local and external stakeholders, emphasizing grassroots peacebuilding initiatives. This highlights the importance of understanding the dynamics of conflict as part of a larger process that involves multiple actors working towards sustainable peace.

Additionally, the study engaged National Security Theory to examine how ongoing conflicts and emerging threats affect the security strategies in South Sudan. The National Security Theory serves as a complementary framework that highlights the impact of ongoing conflicts on both internal and external security paradigms within South Sudan. This perspective underscores the interplay between internal and external security challenges, particularly the legacy of geopolitical tensions from neighbouring regions. The findings illustrate that both the fear of external aggression and internal divisions pose significant obstacles to effective security

management. The focus on self-interest and the competition for power within the state's governance structures complicates the landscape, suggesting a need for a balance of power that can deter potential threats and foster national stability.

Finally, the emerging security threats, such as terrorism and transnational crimes, further complicate the security management narrative in South Sudan. The study's findings reveal that these new challenges are not merely additive to existing conflicts but fundamentally reshape the security environment. The assertion from proponents of National Security Theory that the landscape is influenced by both domestic and transnational factors is particularly relevant, indicating that states must adapt their strategies to navigate this complex interplay. Thus, to effectively address security in post-conflict South Sudan, comprehensive and dynamic approaches are necessary, focusing on both conflict transformation and national security frameworks to promote stability and resilience.

5.3.2 Empirical Conclusions

The first objective explored the nature of existing armed conflicts and their effect on security management in Juba County, South Sudan. The study established a dichotomy of existing armed conflicts; external and internal conflicts in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan that had serious implication not only on Security Management but also on the National security of the country of South Sudan. The study established inter-state rivalry between North and South Sudan that was feared to have a potential for future nuclear dimension whose security consequences would be devastating and more detrimental to not only to the security management in Juba County, but of the Country's national security as well.

The second objective established the influence of several local and regional dynamics that affected security management. These include; Interlocking political and tribal division aspects of conflict, the influence of insurgents and armed cross border militia groups; greed for livestock which is a symbol of wealth, status and prestige by elites that saw them arm their tribal militia with Modern guns and military hardware for ease of livestock thefts, Misstep of governance during evolution of the state and political transition that led to military dominance in all sectors of governance in South Sudan who devised divide and rule tactics against other communities and politically marginalized those who did not support armed liberation struggle; and rise of militias operating independently of the state and occasionally challenging and contesting the state power

through disgruntled politicians and former generals of the military making security management appear like a puzzle.

The third objective established the effect of several emerging security threats on Security Management strategies in Juba County, South Sudan. This included migrant migration in South Sudan for domestic and international child soldiering recruitment in the context of the on-going civil war and also for soldiering elsewhere outside the country; rise of the Lords Resistant Army (LRA) and the SPLM-10 whose methods of killing and torturing innocent civilians are the same as those used by different terrorist organizations around the world; transnational criminal organized gangs engage in illegal trade and other clandestine activities across its national borders with some military leaders, leaders of armed groups and some civilians; creating a plethora of security concerns worth further interrogation; many ungoverned spaces in South Sudan under the control of militias with access to modern guns and other weapons that proliferated through the porous national borders to the extent that the government has no legitimate security agencies that guarantee security.

This study concludes that South Sudan is apparently not safe, and if so, then the whole region is not safe. This calls for an immediate action by all security stakeholders, UN agencies, Non-State Actors, security pundits and think tanks to brainstorm and chart a way forward for South Sudan and the entire region.

5.4 Recommendations

Drawing from the research findings and conclusions discussed herein, the study makes the following recommendations:

Objective one set out to analyze the nature of existing armed conflicts and their effect on the National security in Juba County, South Sudan. The study found that there was a dichotomy of existing armed conflicts, external and internal conflicts in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan that had serious implications not only on security management but also on the National Security of the country of South Sudan. Further, the study established inter-state rivalry between North and South Sudan that was feared to have a potential for future nuclear dimension whose security consequences would be devastating and more detrimental not only to the security management in Juba County, but of the country's national security as well.

Based on the above finding, the study recommends that regional and international intervention should be encouraged with a hope to crash the interstate conflicts between the North

Sudan and South countries. The study further recommends that county government of Juba replaces the socio-cultural belief that construe cattle with wealth, status and prestige with a more superior ideology so as to crush cattle rustling.

The second objective was to establish the influence of the local and regional dynamics of conflicts on national security in Juba County, South Sudan. The study found that interlocking political and tribal division aspects of conflict, the influence of insurgent and armed cross border militia groups, greed for livestock which is a symbol of wealth, status them arm their tribal with modern guns and military hardware for ease of livestock thefts are some of the factors that influence local and regional dynamics of conflicts on national security in Juba County. The study recommends that there is need to demilitarize governance in South Sudan by correcting the error that occurred during transition and evolution of the state of South.

The third specific objective was to examine the effect of the emerging security threats on national security management strategies in Juba County, South Sudan. The study found that South Sudan is not safe and this is likely to affect the whole region's safety. This calls for an immediate action by all security stakeholders, UN agencies, non-state actors, Security pundits and think tanks to brainstorm and chart a way forward for South Sudan and the entire region.

The study recommends the implementation of a governmental policy that establishes a five-year presidential term, renewable once, in South Sudan. This approach prioritizes democratic elections conducted with fairness and transparency. By embedding these principles in the country's constitution, citizens will be empowered to select their leaders through a legitimate and democratic electoral process. Such a framework is crucial for fostering political stability and building public trust in governance, ultimately allowing the populace to choose representatives who genuinely reflect their preferences and aspirations. This system not only encourages accountability among leaders but also enhances civic engagement, as citizens feel their voices are heard and valued in the political landscape.

5.5 Areas for Further Research

This study sought to explore the effects of armed conflicts on the national of post security conflicts states, a case study of Juba County in Central Equatorial State State-South Sudan. Among other findings, the study established that due to their socio-cultural belief in cattle wealth the different tribal groupings have started to arm their militia with modern guns and military hardware.

Due to this serious revelation, this study recommends a study to establish the depth of this problem with a view of cutting this problem in the nib.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire For Security Officers

Section A: Demographic Information

1. **Age in years:**

1. 20-29
2. 30-49
3. 50-69
4. 70 and above

2. **Gender:**

1. Male
2. Female

3. **Religion:**

1. Christianity
2. Islam
3. Traditional African Religions
4. Other (please specify): _____

4. **Education Level:**

1. No formal education
2. Primary education
3. Secondary education
4. Diploma
5. Bachelor's Degree
6. Masters

7. PhD

5. Length of Service in Security Agencies:

1. Less than 1 year
2. 1-3 years
3. 4-6 years
4. 7-9 years
5. 10-12 years
6. 13 and above years

Section B: External Conflicts and Internal Conflicts

6. Are you aware of any external conflicts affecting Juba County?

1. Yes
2. No

7. If yes, please specify the nature of these external conflicts:

1. Border disputes
2. Involvement of foreign armed groups
3. Regional political tensions
4. Other (please specify): _____

**8. How do you think external conflicts impact the security situation in Juba County?
(Rate from 1 to 5)**

1. No impact
2. Low impact
3. Moderate impact
4. High impact

5. Critical impact

9. **In your opinion, what measures can be taken to address external conflicts affecting Juba County?**

.....

10. **Are you aware of any internal conflicts within Juba County?**

1. Yes

2. No

11. **If yes, please specify the nature of these internal conflicts: (Tick all that apply)**

i. Ethnic/tribal conflicts

ii. Political factions groupings

iii. Economic disparities

iv. Land disputes

v. Other (please specify): _____

12. **How do you think internal conflicts impact the security situation in Juba County? (Rate from 1 to 5)**

1. No impact

2. Low impact

3. Moderate impact

4. High impact

5. Critical impact

13. **How would you rate the overall security situation in Juba County as a result of existing conflicts? (Rate from 1 to 5)**

1. Very secure
2. Secure
3. Neutral
4. Insecure
5. Very insecure

14. What do you believe are the most immediate security threats facing Juba County due to these conflicts? (Select all that apply)

1. Violence against civilians
2. Displacement of populations
3. Criminal activities (theft, corruption)
4. Recruitment for armed groups
5. Other (please specify): _____

15. In your opinion, what are the most effective strategies for mitigating the effects of both internal and external conflicts on security in Juba County?

.....

Section C: Regional Dynamics of Conflicts

16. Are you aware of any external conflicts affecting Juba County?

1. Yes
2. No

17. If yes, please specify the nature of these external conflicts:

1. Border disputes
2. Involvement of foreign armed groups
3. Regional political tensions

4. Other (please specify): _____

**18. How do you think external conflicts impact the security situation in Juba County?
(Rate from 1 to 5)**

- 1. No impact
- 2. Low impact
- 3. Moderate impact
- 4. High impact
- 5. Critical impact

19. In your opinion, what measures can be taken to address external conflicts affecting Juba County?

.....
.....

20. Are you aware of any internal conflicts within Juba County?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

21. If yes, please specify the nature of the internal conflicts

Nature of the internal conflicts	Yes	No
i. Ethnic/Tribal conflicts		
ii. Political Faction groupings		
iii. Economic disparities		
iv. Land disputes		

v. Other (please specify):.....

**22. How do you think internal conflicts impact the security situation in Juba County?
(Rate from 1 to 5)**

- 1. No impact
- 2. Low impact
- 3. Moderate impact
- 4. High impact
- 5. Critical impact

23. How would you rate the overall security situation in Juba County as a result of existing conflicts? (Rate from 1 to 5)

- i. Very secure
- ii. Secure
- iii. Neutral
- iv. Insecure
- v. Very insecure

24. On your opinion, what do you think are the most immediate security threats facing Juba County in Central Equatorial State in South Sudan due to these conflicts?

Nature of the internal conflicts	Yes	No
i. Violence against civilians		
ii. Displacement of populations		
iii. Criminal activities (theft, corruption)		
iv. Recruitment for armed groups		

25. In your opinion, what are the most effective strategies for mitigating the effects of both internal and external conflicts on security in Juba County?

.....

Section D: Emerging Security Threats

26. How would you rate the overall security situation in Juba County on a scale of 1 to 5?

- 1. 1 - Very Poor
- 2. 2 - Poor
- 3. 3 - Average
- 4. 4 - Good
- 5. 5 - Very Good

27. In your opinion, how has armed conflict affected national security in Juba County?

- 1. Very Positively
- 2. Positively
- 3. No Effect
- 4. Negatively
- 5. Very Negatively

28. Have you observed any instances of migrant smuggling in Juba County?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

• If yes, please provide details: _____

29. On a scale of 1 to 5, how significant do you think the smuggling of migrants is as a security threat in Juba County?

- 1. 1 - Not Significant
- 2. 2 - Slightly Significant

- 3. 3 - Moderately Significant
- 4. 4 - Significant
- 5. 5 - Very Significant

30. Do you consider terrorism a threat to the security of Juba County?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

- If yes, please elaborate on your answer: _____

31. How frequently do you think terrorist activities occur in Juba County?

- 1. Very Frequently
- 2. Frequently
- 3. Occasionally
- 4. Rarely
- 5. Never

32. Do you think that a war economy (economic activities that arise from conflict) has emerged in Juba County?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No
- 3. If yes, please provide examples: _____

33. How does the war economy influence the overall security situation in Juba County?

- 1. Very Positively
- 2. Positively
- 3. No Effect
- 4. Negatively
- 5. Very Negatively

34. Are there areas in Juba County that you consider ungoverned or lacking proper authority?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

35. If yes, please specify which areas: How does the presence of ungoverned spaces affect the security in Juba County?

1. Very Positively
2. Positively
3. No Effect
4. Negatively
5. Very Negatively

36. How would you rate the current security situation in Juba County?

1. Very safe
2. Safe
3. Neutral
4. Unsafe
5. Very unsafe

37. In your opinion, is the security situation in Juba affected by armed conflict?

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

38. To what extent do you believe corruption affects national security in Juba County?

1. Not at all
2. A little
3. Moderately
4. Very much
5. Extremely

39. Have you or anyone you know experienced corruption related to security forces or government institutions?

1. Yes
2. No

3. Not sure

40. In your opinion, how significant do you consider the impact of corruption on the security situation in Juba?

1. Not significant
2. Slightly significant
3. Moderate
4. Significant
5. Extremely significant

41. In your opinion, how significant do you consider the illicit arms trafficking impact on the security situation in Jubay?

1. Not significant
2. Slightly significant
3. Moderate
4. Significant
5. Extremely significant

42. Have you observed any incidents of violence attributed to small arms and light weapons in your community?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Not sure

o If yes, please provide details: _____

43. Have you experienced or witnessed cattle-raiding incidents in your locality?

1. Yes
2. No

44. How do you believe cattle-raiding contributes to insecurity in Juba County?

1. Yes
2. No

45. In your opinion, how significant do you consider the impact of cattle-raiding on the security situation in Juba?

- 1. Not significant
- 2. Slightly significant
- 3. Moderate
- 4. Significant
- 5. Extremely significant

46. In your opinion, what measures could be taken to address the issue of cattle-raiding in your community?

.....

**What do you consider the most pressing emerging security threat in Juba County?
(Select one)**

- 1. Corruption
- 2. Illicit arms trafficking
- 3. Cattle-raiding

47. How effectively do you believe the current government is addressing emerging security threats in Juba County?

- 1. Very effectively
- 2. Effectively
- 3. Neutral
- 4. Ineffectively
- 5. Very ineffectively

Thank you for your participation

Appendix 1I: Key Informants Schedule

1. What are the nature of conflicts that are prevalent in Central Equatorial State- South Sudan?
2. How does the nature of existing armed conflicts affect security management in Juba, Central Equatorial State-South Sudan?
3. To what extent does the following local and regional dynamics of conflicts affect security management in Juba in Juba County?
 - i. Interlocking political and tribal divisions
 - ii. Weak governance,
 - iii. Entrenched inequality
 - iv. Poverty,
 - v. Rise of insurgents, and Armed cross border militia groups from the North.
4. How do the following emerging security threats affect security management strategies in Juba County?
 - i. Trafficking,
 - ii. Terrorism Threat Corruption,
 - iii. Economic Espionage Kidnapping Threat,
 - iv. Religious and Ethnic violence and Cattle-raiding

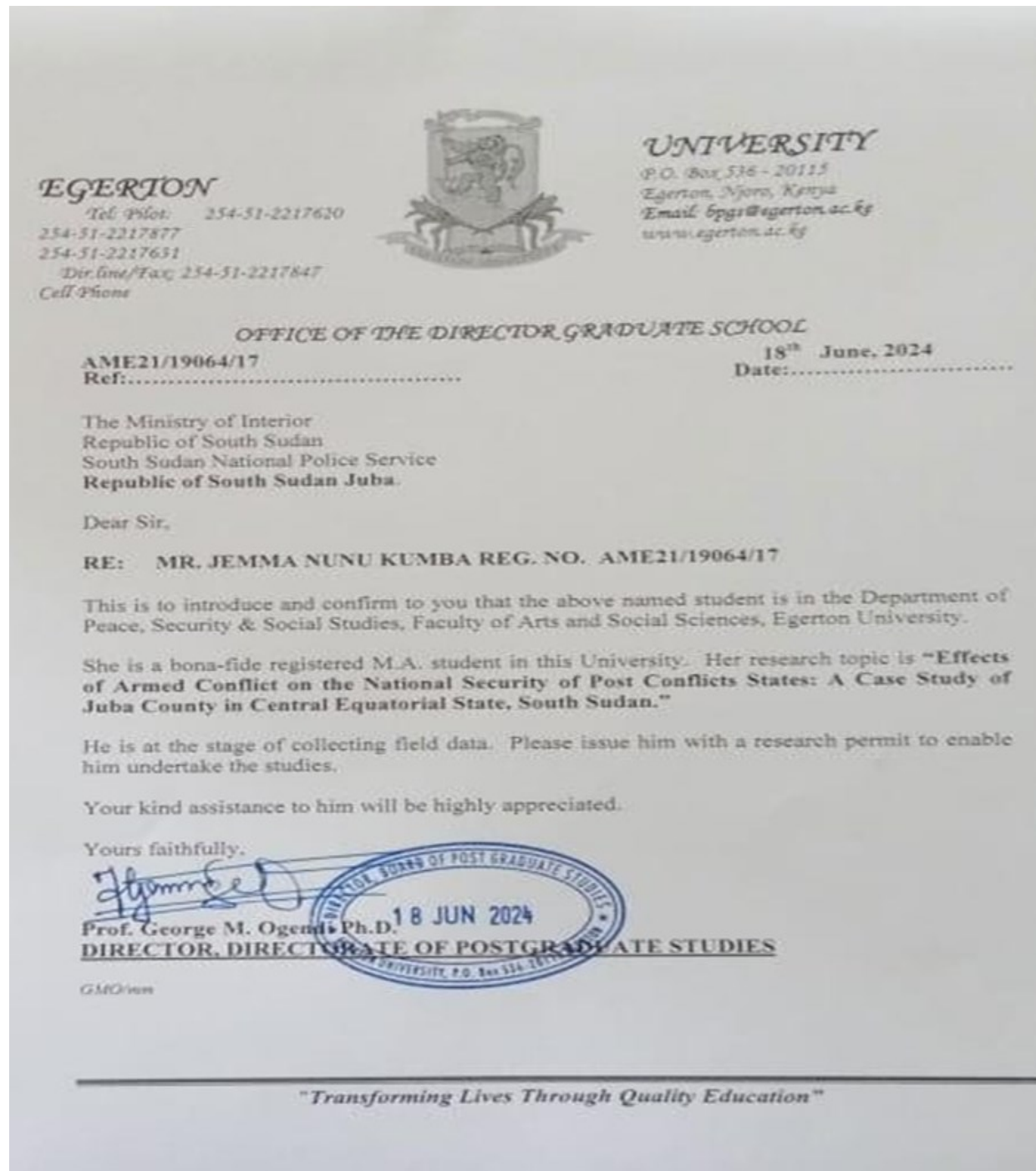
Appendix III: Summary Table of Key Informants Responses

S/NO	Questions	Sampled Responses
1	What are the nature of conflicts that are prevalent in Central Equatorial State-South Sudan?	<i>“There are many types of conflicts but to better understand them, it would be easier to category them; for example from external enemies and internal”</i>
2.	How does the nature of existing armed conflicts affect security management in Juba, Central Equatorial State-South Sudan?	<i>The duty of the state is to protect citizens and their property in addition to protect their constitutional rights including the inalienable right to life among others. In conflicts situation the opposite occur; people lose their lives and property”</i>
3.	To what extent does the following local and regional dynamics of conflicts affect security management in Juba in Juba County? Interlocking political and tribal divisions, Weak governance, Entrenched inequality, Poverty, Rise of insurgents, and Armed cross border militia groups from the north.	<i>“Rise of insurgents and armed cross border militia groups from the north jeopardize state security by either directly attacking state forces and stealing of weapons or vandalizing vital installations. Weak governance, on the other hand disadvantages institutions especially if leaders cannot make crucial decisions in times of crises such as its times of conflicts. Entrenched inequality and poverty on the other hand creates feelings of disenfranchisement and left out in distribution of national cake thus creating fertile ground for war”</i>
4	How do the following emerging Security threats affect security Management strategies in Juba County?	<i>Smuggling of Migrants in East Africa: Some of illicit migrants are criminals running away from their countries. When they enter South Sudan they</i>

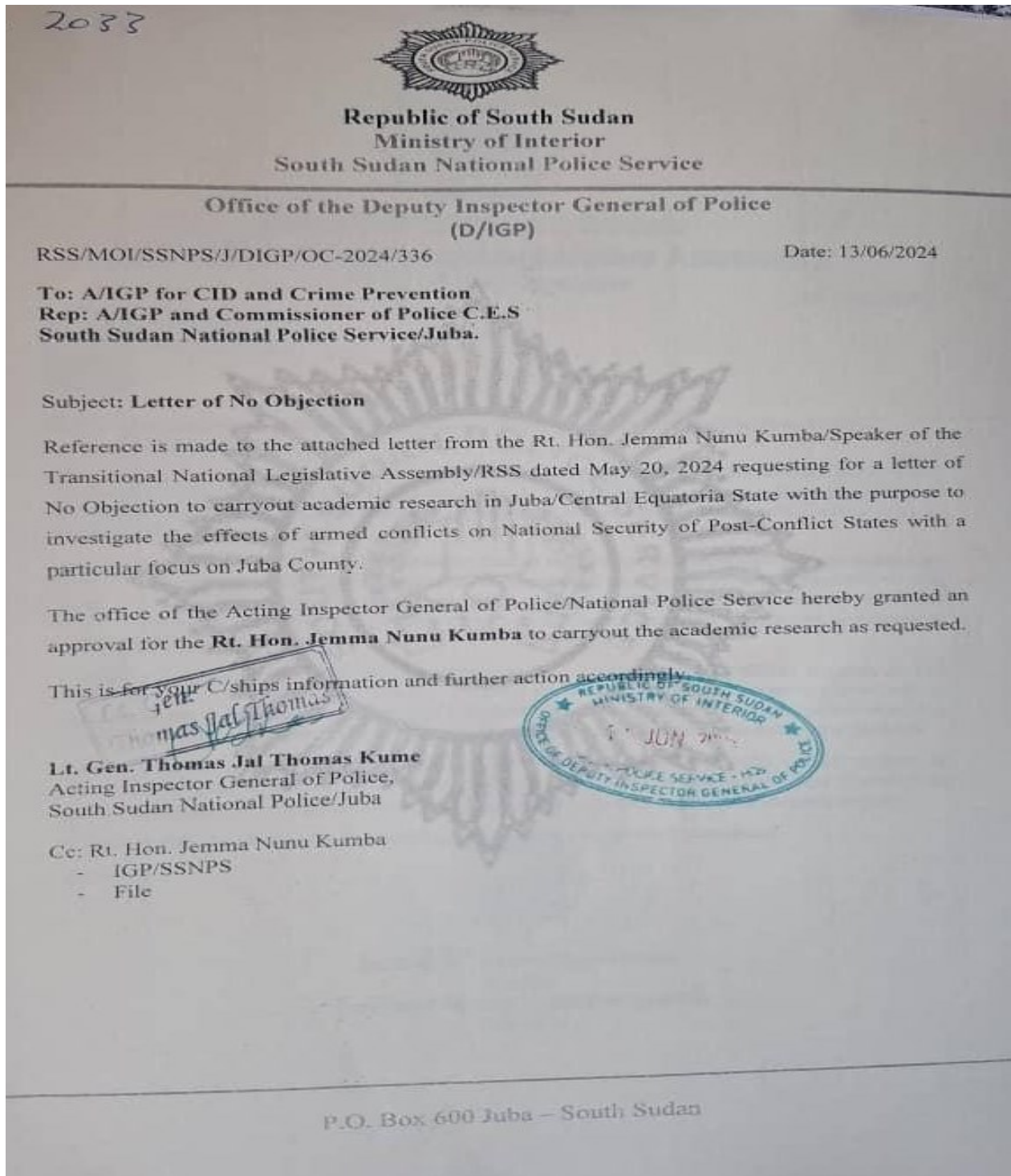
	<p>Trafficking, Terrorism Threat, Corruption, Economic Espionage, Kidnapping Threat, Religious and Ethnic violence and Cattle-raiding.</p>	<p><i>worsen security situation especially if they are join either of the warring groups. Illicit arms trafficking puts guns in the hands of civilians making internal conflicts very sophisticated. Terrorism threat, is worse if warring camps can be bought by external forces to fight the state forces from within. Corruption is dangerous because state employees can be compromised to</i></p>
		<p><i>expose their operations to the enemy camp. Wars are costly. Economic Espionage can be used to sabotage the country especially if it is known in the enemy camp that a country cannot sustain any war. As a result attack becomes more likely. Kidnapping especially of military officers is dangerous because kidnapped officers are always used to leak military intelligence to the enemy camp. Religious and Ethnic Violence threatens life and property in the event of war. Cattle-raiding is sophisticated in most clans because it involves use of guns and modern state of the art military equipment. In most cases they either kill or maim before they still cattle. Counter attacks are always more bloody.</i></p>

5	How can the effect of conflicts on National security of Juba County be mitigated?	<p><i>Regional and international intervention to crash the interstate conflicts between the North Sudan and South countries. Though a tough policy concern, the country should adopt a 5-year-Rotational Presidency, institutionalized through the country's constitution so that each tribe has a chance to lead. Demilitarize governance in South Sudan by correcting the error that occurred during transition and evolution of the state of South Sudan. Replace the sociocultural belief that construe cattle with wealth, status and prestige with a more superior ideology and by so doing crush cattle rustling”</i></p>
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Appendix IV: Introduction Letter from Egerton University Graduate School



Appendix V: Letter of No Objection from the Ministry of Interior, South Sudan



Appendix VI: Abstract For Published Paper

Effects of Armed Conflicts on The National Security of Post Conflicts States, A Case Study of Juba County in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan

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Abstract:

This paper assessed the nature of existing armed conflicts and their effect on security management, established the influence of the local and regional dynamics of conflicts on security management and finally examined the effect of the emerging security threats on security management strategies in Juba County, South Sudan. The study was guided by two theories; Conflict Transformation and National Security theories. The study used descriptive survey research design and Purposive sampling technique to enlist 210 respondents for this study. The main method of data collection was the interview. Content analysis was used to analyze qualitative data and reported in narrative form. The study established a dichotomy of existing armed conflicts; external and internal conflicts in Central Equatorial State, South Sudan that had serious implication on both Security Management and National security. The second objective established the influence of local and regional dynamics that affected security management that included; Interlocking political and tribal division aspects of conflict, the influence of insurgents and armed cross border militia groups; greed for livestock by political elites that saw them arm their tribal militia with modern guns and military hardware for ease of livestock theft, amongst others. The third objective established the effect of several emerging security threats on Security Management strategies in Juba County, which included migrant migration for domestic and international child soldiering recruitment in the context of the on-going civil war and also for soldiering elsewhere outside the country. This paper establishes a regional policy concern that South Sudan is largely unsafe, and by implication the whole region is unlikely to be safe. This calls for an immediate action by all security stakeholders, UN agencies, Non-State Actors, security pundits and think tanks to brainstorm and chart a way forward for South Sudan and the entire region.

Keywords: Armed conflicts, Security Management, National Security.

Introduction:

According to Williams (2016) the world has witnessed a number of civil wars since 1945 with an estimated number of casualties at around forty

million and over sixty million people displaced. Further, the conflicts have continued to ravage many societies, leading to death and destruction.