

THE INFLUENCE OF POLITICS IN ARMED CONFLICT IN AFRICA: CASE STUDY OF SOUTH SUDAN

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Abstract: -

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of politics in armed conflict in Africa Sudan. The study identified the possible ways through which politics could facilitate the public awareness about armed conflict in south Sudan.

The research design adapted in this study was survey in which the researcher went to the field to collect data directly, sample size in this study was 50 response duty there the researcher employed simple random sampling technique to select 100 respond duty from target population.

Questionnaires and interview were used to collect data. Data analysis was presented in table with emphasis to frequencies and percentage, The finding, indicated that 58% and 29% of the respondents were agree and strongly agree respectively that influence is the power to have an important effect on someone of something.

The results shows that 60% of the respondents have strongly agree and 30% of the respondents have agreed that politics is the set of activities that are associated with the governance of a country, state or area. 10% of the respondents have strongly agree. The results indicated that 58% and 10 of the respondents have strongly agree and agreed with statement that conflict is the consequence of a clash of interests between two parties, groups, or countries due to chasing contrasting or incompatible goal. The results indicated that 50% and 30% of the respondents have strongly agree and agreed with statement that armed is person that strengthens, protects, or increases efficiency the armed himself against the cold. The results indicated that majority of 28% of the respondents have strongly agree that armed usually occurs primarily as a result of a clash of interests in the relationship between parties groups and states furthermore, 20 others agreed with the statement. 32% were not sure with the above mentioned statement. The finding, 73% and 13.3% were strongly agree and agree accordingly with statement that on 24 June 2008, the south Sudan Air force was formally created by the southern Sudan legislative assembly.. Failure to address any conflict in a manner perceived as respecting citizens' rights will lead to more conflicts. Violence begets violence. State intimidation and human rights abuse are a trigger of violence. Political effectiveness which measures government stability, was significant in reducing the number of political conflicts. This means that any regime has leadership turnover as leaders who overstay are likely to encourage citizens to force them out of office or the military to engage in a coup.

Keywords: - *influence of politics, armed conflicts in Africa*

CHAPTER ONE

1.0. INTRODUCTION

Influence is the power to have an important effect on someone or something. Politics ([Greek](#): *Πολιτικά*, *politiká*, 'affairs of the cities') is the set of activities that are associated with the [governance](#) of a [country](#), [state](#) or area. It involves [making decisions](#) that apply to groups of members ^[1] and achieving and exercising positions of governance organized control over a human community

[Bernard Crick](#) argued that "politics is a distinctive form of rule whereby people act together through institutionalized procedures to resolve differences, to conciliate diverse interests and values and to make public policies in the pursuit of common purposes."^[2] The academic study of politics is referred to as [political science](#).

Politics is a multifaceted word. It has a set of fairly specific meanings that are descriptive and nonjudgmental (e.g. "the art or science of government" and "political principles"), but does often colloquially carry a negative connotation. ^{[1][6][7]} The word has been used negatively for many years: the [British national anthem](#), as published in 1745, calls on God to "confound their politics,"^[8] while the phrase "play politics," for example, has been in use since at least 1853, when abolitionist [Wendell Phillips](#) declared that "we do not play politics; anti-slavery is no half-jest with us."

A variety of methods are deployed in politics, which include promoting one's own political views among people, [negotiation](#) with other political subjects, making [laws](#), and exercising [force](#), including [warfare](#) against adversaries. ^{[10][11][12][13][14]} Politics is exercised on a wide range of social levels, from [clans](#) and [tribes](#) of traditional societies, through modern [local governments](#), [companies](#) and institutions up to [sovereign states](#), to the [international level](#). During the past decade two tendencies made it possible to overlook comparative politics: 1. concern for theoretical explication and [methodological rigor](#); and 2. the emphasis on field studies of the "emerging," "new," and "non-Western" nations. ^[15]

A [political system](#) is a framework which defines acceptable political methods within a society. The [history of political thought](#) can be traced back to early antiquity, with seminal works such as [Plato's Republic](#), [Aristotle's Politics](#), [Chanakya's Arthashastra](#) and [Chanakya Niti](#) (3rd Century BCE), as well as the works of [Confucius](#).

Conflict is defined as the consequence of a clash of interests between two parties, groups, or countries due to chasing contrasting or incompatible goals. Even though war is used synonymously with conflict, it is worth noting that the meaning of war should be restricted to a violent conflict involving the armed forces. Nevertheless, war, just like conflict, has existed throughout history as a standard way of conducting disagreements between political groups. So what are the causes of conflict? The one word that sums all this up is diversity. One David Week even declared that conflict in the society is unavoidable because its absence implies that the world lacks diversity. Causes of conflict Root causes of conflict Causes of conflict in kena We all know that Africa is a diverse continent with various ethnic groups, religions, and socio-cultural affiliations.

Today's global challenge of armed conflict is a problem of sub-Saharan Africa, and a challenge that is inextricably related to the region's poverty. Most of the armed conflicts of recent decades have occurred on that continent, and while the number of wars declined steadily over the 1990s, in all other regions of the world, a similar trend in sub-Saharan Africa has been in evidence only since 2002 (Human Security Report Project, 2006).

Armed an object that covers or supports the human arm, esp. the sleeve of a garment or the side of a chair, sofa. Anything considered to resemble an arm in appearance, position, or function, esp. something that branches out from a central support or larger mass an arm of the sea; the arm of a record player

Armed is refer to (a person or thing) with something that strengthens, protects, or increases efficiency he armed himself against the cold

Africa is the world's second-largest and second-most populous [continent](#), after [Asia](#). At about 30.3 million km² (11.7 million square miles) including adjacent islands, it covers 6% of [Earth's](#) total surface area and 20% of its land area. With 1.3 billion people as of 2018, it accounts for about 16% of the world's [human population](#). The continent is surrounded by the [Mediterranean Sea](#) to the north, the [Isthmus of Suez](#) and the [Red Sea](#) to the northeast, the [Indian Ocean](#) to the southeast and the [Atlantic Ocean](#) to the west. The continent includes [Madagascar](#) and various [archipelagos](#). It contains [54 fully recognized sovereign states](#) (countries), eight [territories](#) and two [de facto](#) independent [states with limited or no recognition](#). The majority of the continent and its countries are in the [Northern Hemisphere](#), with a substantial portion and number of countries in the [Southern Hemisphere](#). large-scale conflict in several countries, the tenuousness of the peace in others, and the economic, social, and political legacy of decades of violence across the continent pose significant peace, security, and development challenges for the global community.

Since 1980, 32 out of 47 countries of this region experienced some 126 wars, and almost 1 million people have died in battle, and millions more have died from related causes or displaced as a consequence. These conflicts are strongly related to the challenges of poverty, reflecting as the Human Security Report 2005 noted, "a volatile mix of poverty, crime, unstable and inequitable political institutions, ethnic discrimination, low state capacity and the 'bad neighborhoods' of other crisis-ridden states all factors associated with increased risk of armed conflict" (Human Security Project, 2005).

The purpose of this paper is to provide an overview of the nexus of poverty/development and armed conflict in Africa. It starts with a review of conflict trends since 1980, including incidence and characteristics of wars that have taken place over the last 26 years. It then explores two sets of links between conflict and poverty. The first focuses on the consequences of war on development and poverty, examining key social and economic indicators. The second set of links are more complex and concern socio-economic structures as underlying root causes and as incentives that can drive insurgencies and incite popular support for them. This framework builds on recent research that has identified certain socio-economic factors as correlates of war. The final section of the paper reviews how these links between conflict and development have been addressed in development policy.

1.1. Background to the study

Conflict can be defined as a clash or disagreement often violent between opposing groups or individuals. It can also be said to be an incompatibility, as of two things that cannot be simultaneously fulfilled. The word conflict is as old as mankind. This is because the word has been in existence in all area of man life since the inception of the world. The word conflict is derived from the Latin word configure, meaning to strike together. Conflict also means contradiction arising from differences in interest, ideas, ideologies, orientations, beliefs perceptions and tendencies.

Conflicts usually occurs primarily as a result of a clash of interests in the relationship between parties' groups and states, either because they are pursuing opposing or incompatible goals.

II Trends Historical trends since 1980 Draft Nov 1, 2007 Since 1980, more than half of the countries of sub-Saharan Africa experienced armed conflict, sometimes multiple conflicts taking place simultaneously in different parts of the country involving different parties, sometimes lasting for over decades interspersed with periods of 'peace.' Appendices 1 and 2 chart 126 wars in 32 countries recorded in the UCDP/PRIO Armed Conflict Dataset. Table 1 lists these wars and their key features. While governments do not collect data on war, over 60 datasets have been created by academics and NGOs to monitor regional and global trends. The armed conflict dataset maintained by the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP) and International Peace Research Institute, Oslo (PRIO), is increasingly used in research and policy work because it is comprehensive, is updated annually, and its methodology is considered rigorous. (See Appendix 3 on datasets.) The wars included include only wars in which the state is a party to conflict, and where at least 25 battle deaths have occurred. These criteria in the definition of war used in the UCDP/PRIO Armed Conflict Dataset are common elements of the conventional definition of war used in many other datasets. However, to capture the full range of wars and the magnitude of casualties, we need to look at armed conflicts that do not involve states as well as at the casualties of conflict that occur off of the battle field. These issues will be addressed in later sections of this paper.

The conflicts listed in Table 1 include six conflicts between states (Ethiopia/Eritrea, Burkina Faso/Mali, Cameroon/Nigeria, Chad/Libya, Chad/Nigeria, and Ethiopia/Somalia), but the majority (120) of sub-Saharan armed conflicts have been intrastate conflicts. Many are decades-long civil wars that were interspersed with repeated attempts at settlement and often involving multiple warring factions pursuing different goals (Angola, Burundi, Chad, Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Liberia, Mozambique, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Sudan, Rwanda, Senegal, and Uganda). There have also been 21 intrastate conflicts of two years or less in Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Comoros, Djibouti, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Nigeria, and Togo. Most of the conflicts designated as minor wars' are such armed conflicts of short duration.s

The driving claims for these conflicts have varied. The majority of conflicts have been driven by attempts to replace the central government or change its composition (Burundi, Central African Republic, Congo Brazzaville, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, DRC, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea,

Guinea Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Mozambique, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Togo, and Uganda). Other conflicts involve challenges to the status of a territory. These territorial incompatibilities may be interstate disputes over which country controls a territory (see the list of interstate wars above) or intrastate conflicts involving challenges from secessionist groups seeking autonomy for a territory (Mali, Niger, Nigeria, and Senegal). Some countries have endured more than one conflict in the period 1980-2005, each characterized by a different incompatibility (Angola, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Chad, Comoros, Eritrea, Ethiopia, South Africa, and Sudan). (Gleditsch and others, 2002; Harbom and Högbladh, 2006) Many of these wars have spilled across national boundaries, as instability in one country causes political tensions to rise in neighboring countries. As different groups have supported rival warring parties in neighboring countries, they have developed into sub-regional conflicts. In particular, they include conflicts in the Great Lakes (Rwanda, Burundi, DRC); Southern Africa (Mozambique, Angola, DRC); Mano-River Basin (Liberia, Sierra Leone, Guinea); and in Central East Africa (Sudan, Chad, Uganda, Central African Republic). Draft Nov 1, 2007

1.2. Statement of the problem

Lack of resources of states and the sub-regional body also hinders the resolution of conflicts in the sub-region. Financial, human and material resources for conflict resolution have been some of the sub-region's challenges

The transformation from inter-state to intra-state conflict from the latter part of the 20th Century in West Africa brought a number of its economies to near collapse. Although conflicts are not always violent, those that have plagued West Africa at community, state and regional levels have been characterized by violence ([Afisi 2009: 59–66](#)).

For decades, countries such as Liberia, Sierra Leone, Côte d'Ivoire and Guinea-Bissau were crippled by conflicts and civil strife in which violence and incessant killings were prevalent ([Afolabi 2009: 24](#)).

While violent conflicts are declining in the sub-region, recent insurgencies in the Sahel region affecting the West African countries of Mali, Niger and Mauritania sends alarming signals of the possible re-surfacing of internal and regional violent conflicts. More critical to add is the low intensity conflicts surging within notably stable countries such as the Calamanco conflict in Senegal, the intermittent Dagon chieftaincy crisis in Ghana and the Niger Delta conflict in Nigeria to name a few ([Olonisakin 2011: 11–26](#)).

These conflicts have resulted in the 'destruction of lives and property, the internal displacement of people, a region-wide refugee crisis, poverty and disease, the proliferation of small arms and light weapons, human and drug trafficking, illegal exploitation of natural resources and banditry' ([Afolabi 2009: 25](#)).

This is possibly attributed to the sudden shift from inter-state to intra-state conflicts that characterized most part of the late 1980s through to the 21st century posing a new challenge of intra-state peace consolidation and conflict prevention. Particular for a number of actors including the sub-regional bloc, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) which was set up to build economic integration ([Jaye et al 2011: 1–7](#)).

The paper posits that failure to identify and thoroughly address the fundamental causes of West Africa’s violent conflicts and civil strife would likely cause the sub-region to continue experiencing and suffering the brunt of these violent wars. Against this background, the author attempts to support discourses on violent conflicts and civil strife in West Africa by first giving an overview of violent conflicts and civil strife in the sub-region; identifying challenges impeding efforts towards ending conflicts in the sub-region; and A lack of information about the (endogenous) strength of the adversary can also generate conflict (Meirowitz & Sartori [2008]).

1.3. Purpose of the study.

The general purpose of the study is to assess the Federalism in South Sudan since 1956-2019.

Goals are:

- i.improving the level of health care available in the district (including education in HIV/AIDS),
- ii.providing instruction and assistance in developing good environmental practices,
- iii.assisting in the public education process by helping students to stay in school as long as possible, and encouraging those that can to become teachers in the district, and
- iv.helping people to develop marketable skills and become productive members of their communities

1.4. Specific/ objectives of the study

- i.To explore the Influence of Politics in Armed conflict in Africa.
- ii.To access the cause of conflict in Africa.
- iii.To find out the factors affected politics of armed conflict in Africa.
- iv.To identify the possible solutions to causes of both in Armed Conflict and Africa

1.5. Research question

- What are the Influence of Politics in Armed conflict in Africa?
- What are the types of conflict occurring in Africa?
- What are the Cause of Armed conflict in Africa.?
- What are the possible solutions to politics in Armed Conflict in Africa?

1.6. Scope of study

The scope of the study was categorized such as the following:

1.6.1. Subject scope

The research was to identify the Influence of Politics in Armed conflict in Africa

1.6.2. Geographical scope.

This is study was carried out in South Sudan only.

1.6.3. Time scope

The study was conducted in a period of five months from April 2020 because it was the period with high mission.

1.7. Significance of the study

1.7.1 The Researcher

The study will benefit the researcher’s personal professional knowledge on the subject matter and help him to improve his knowledge on his study.

1.7.2. The government

The study will enable the government in the formulation of recommendation aimed at betting the current situation, and the recommendation will guide the government in policy formulation.

1.7.3. The community

Some community member who will access this information will get to know how to prevent the role of youth in political participation, the findings also will benefit. the study will be useful to provide information the influence of intergovernmental agency and peace building within societies

1.7.4. Academically: The study will be the source or background to the future researchers who express their interest in knowing the role of youth in political participation

1.9. Organization of the Research

This study was divided into five (5) chapters.

Chapter One (1) Introduction of study which include the Background of the Study, statement of problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, hypotheses, scope and limitation of the study.

Chapter two (2) Literature Review

Chapter Three is to discuss the Methodology which covers Research Design, sample size, determination sample allocation, sample selection procedures, data collection methods, data collection instruments, and ethical considerations and data analysis methods.

Chapter four (4) is to covers data analysis and discussion of the findings talked about findings of the case study or appraisal of this research work, which is; the civil liberties and socio-political development. Further treating sub-topics like; civil liberties and the war against corruption in South Sudan.

The fifth chapter (5) which is the last but not the less interesting, includes the summary of this research work, the conclusion and of course recommendation.

CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Introduction

More precisely, they study changes in the price of agricultural goods (coffee), which are labor intensive, and natural resources (oil), which are not. They show that a conflict is more intense when the price of coffee falls because of lowered wages. In addition, they find that a conflict is less intense when the price of oil falls.

Vanden Eynde 2011 focuses on the India's Naxalite conflict, in particular on the rebel's group (Maoist) strategic target choice. Using a theoretical model, he shows that negative (labor) income shocks increase violence against civilians to prevent them from being recruited as police informers. Following his theoretical prediction, he argues that mineral resource is a key element in the strategy of Maoist group. Maystadt 2013.

Report results for mining activities in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. They instrument granting of mining concession using a mineral price index (mineral prices weighted by the fixed number of past concessions of each mineral). They find that granting of mining concession does not affect the likelihood of conflict at the lowest administrative level but increases the likelihood of conflict at the higher administrative level. Berman & Couttenier 2014.

use fine-grained disaggregated data for the entire set of sub-Saharan African countries which significantly improves the external validity of the previous case studies. Berman & Couttenier [2014] use fine-grained disaggregated data on conflict events to study the impact of external income shocks on the likelihood of violence. They work with a full grid of sub-Saharan African countries divided in sub-national units of 0.5×0.5 degrees' latitude and longitude, *i.e.* their unit of observation is cell-year. They consider changes in the world demand of agricultural commodities produced by the different regions within a country, thus removing the usual assumption that specialization is similar across regions. they find that the incidence, intensity, onset and ending of conflicts are generally significantly correlated with (temporary) commodity shocks within locations. Moreover, they find that this relationship is significantly weaker for the most remote locations, *i.e.* those located away from the main seaports. Their identification is also improved by the use of other (long-lasting) income shocks:

In the same vein, Berman *et al.* [2014] assess the impact of mining on conflicts in Africa.

2.1. Influence of Politics in Armed Conflict in Africa

2.1.1. The internal armed conflict in Colombia

In the first place it must be made clear that what Colombia is dealing with is an internal armed conflict and not a civil war or an unarticulated succession of terrorist actions. In general, three characteristics are accepted for classifying an internal armed conflict: *first*, the opposing parties have a clearly different legal status; *second*, the actions of the armed groups follow the orders of a responsible command, which does not necessarily mean a hierarchic military organization like in the Army; and *third*, the criminal activities pursue systematically a defined political or ideological purpose and seek to control part of the territory¹, an aspect distinguishing the armed conflict from the sudden increase of isolated violent acts.

2.1.2. The effects of the armed conflict on the life and health of the Colombian population

The different consequences of the Colombian armed conflict for the life, the quality of life, the health, health care and disease prevention in the country are serious and complex. For approaching them, it is unavoidable to establish the relation between specific forms of violence and their main victims. Several phenomena have been observed as an expression and at the same time as a consequence of the conflict, able to affect a variety of victims by interfering not only in their quality of life but also in distinct physical, emotional and psychosocial dimensions of their health. Knowing these difficulties, we present the most relevant aspects of the issue in question, describing in the first place four serious forms of today's violence and their impact on the life and health: homicides, forced displacement, kidnappings and antipersonnel mines. We show the magnitude of each of these phenomena and their main modalities and implications, with special reference to children and women victimized by the conflict. Then we outline two of the main consequences of the conflict to the health system: the alterations in the delivery of health services and the attacks against the Medical Mission.

2.1.3. The tragedy of forced displacement due to violence

According to data of the Colombian Episcopal Conference and the nongovernmental organization Counseling on Human Rights and Displacement (CODHES), between 1985 and 2005 more than three million and six hundred thousand Colombians have been victims of forced displacement due to violence⁹, as can be seen in [graph 2](#). According to the same source, 30% of this total, 2,100,000 individuals, have been displaced during the last three and a half years. Approximately half of the population displaced due to violence has less than 18 years of age¹⁰.

2.1.4. The horror of the kidnappings

Kidnapping, understood as detention of persons against their will, is one of the most severe violations of human rights, constituting a crime against humanity. Due to its characteristics and uncertain outcome, kidnapping interferes not only with the quality of life of the victim but also of the persons of his familiar, working and political environment, with severe consequences for their health, especially the mental health.

There are different kinds of kidnapping. The most important for the issue being discussed here is the kidnapping for ransom, frequently combining economic and political elements. In fact, in the Colombian internal armed conflict, kidnapping has become a frequently used mechanism for

2.1.5. The serious damages caused by antipersonnel mines

Another indicator for the intensification and the worsening of the Colombian armed conflict is the increasing use of antipersonnel mines. Their difficult detection and lethal effect or the serious physical damages such as mutilations, amputations, loss of vital organs and complex psychological sequels in the victims themselves, and their personal emotional relationships, make them to highly noxious weapons violating the International Humanitarian Law. Given that a not inactivated mine can be lethal up to 50 years after having been buried in the soil, this "prolonged action" of the armed groups can lead to an extension of the conflict and its unlucky consequences. The registries of these events are not precise and biased.

2.1.6. Children and women in the armed conflict

Since the beginning of the current internal armed conflict, there is the concern with the military use of boys and girls in the legal and illegal armed groups. Since the 90s however, the problem grew worse and passed to call attention on national and international level. According to estimations of the General Secretary of the United Nations, the Colombian Justice Department, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the Human Rights Watch, the number of children present in the illegal armed groups in the country is estimated between 11,000 and 14,000. This transforms Colombia into the fourth country in the world in terms of numbers of armed children. It is estimated that from this total about 6,000 boys and girls, the greater part of them in the age group between 7 and 13, make part of guerilla organizations, and that 15% of members of paramilitary groups have less than 18 years of age. The military age of 18 years was only in 1999 established by law in the country.

2.1.7. The impact of the armed conflict on the health sector

The armed conflict has a variety of consequences for the health sector, for its institutions, its personnel and the funds destined to qualification of medical and paramedic personnel, health research and formulation and implementation of health policies. Besides posing urgent demands to the health care services as refers to timely and appropriate care for victims, the internal armed conflict also consumes great part of the resources of many health institutions and raises serious questions regarding the schemes and models of qualification of health personnel, the health policies of the country and the priorities in health research.

Given the spatial limitations of this article, we will only refer to two specific and very important problems the Colombian armed conflict creates to the health sector: the attacks against the Medical Mission and the problems and limitations they cause to the delivery of health care services.

2.1.8. The frequent attacks against the Medical Mission

Understood as the whole set of persons, installations, material, equipment and activities directed to the delivery of health care services in situations or regions of armed conflicts, the Medical Mission is protected by the International Humanitarian Law, by the four Geneva Agreements, by the II Additional Protocol to the Geneva Agreements and by article 3, common to the mentioned agreements. In the case of Colombia, the mission still counts on a decree that establishes an emblem to identify the Medical Mission, its personnel and institutions nationwide²⁶.

Different investigations show the seriousness and frequency of the attempts upon the Medical Mission in Colombia.

2.1.9. The limitations posed to health care by the armed conflict

The internal armed conflict interferes in a number of ways in the access of the population to health services and hampers or hinders the health personnel to perform their medical activities, including health promotion, disease prevention, treatment and cure of the ill in conflict areas.

2.2. Factors Influence Politics Armed conflict in Africa

2.2.1. Inter-country borders

One of the leading causes of internal and inter-state conflicts is the unacceptable nature of inter-country borders. Most of these borders were established from negotiations and treaties between the colonial powers. Upon gaining independence, most African nations did not make adjustments due to the fact that most nations gained independence at different times.

2.2.2. Military Another cause of conflict is inter-state aggression, invasion, or hostility. This may be as a result of support of rebels from other countries or separatist movements.

2.2.3. Political-international Causes of political conflict on international front emanate from ideological campaigns, regional rivalries, religious expansionism against other nations, terrorism, discrimination or disrespecting the economies of other countries.

2.2.4. Political-domestic Political causes of conflict in African nations may be due to reasons such as over-population, power brawls, communal or ethnic violence, economic/religious differences, or hostile groups.

2.2.5. Poor economic performance of the many socioeconomic causes of conflict in Africa, the main cause of the unending conflict originates from the bad economic performance of the countries. African nations are known for having huge international debts, corruption of public funds, and poor flow of private capital. Because of high poverty levels in African nations, the rich who are the few become the ruling class, resulting into clashes among the rich and the poor economic classes. Moreover, this leads to tribal or ethnic conflicts as people begin to compete among themselves for the limited resources like power and wealth.

2.2.6. Religious conflict Causes of religious conflict between two faiths often commence with ignorance. People deviate from the fact that most religions have similar ideas and become fixated on the idea that the other religion is different from

theirs; hence, the other religion is wrong. The two main religious conflict is often between Christians and Muslims in Africa.

2.2.7. Ethnicity Because African nations are composed of individuals from different communities and backgrounds, ethnicity has been the center of most conflicts among the nations. Causes of ethnic conflict in Africa have resulted in several separatist movements and military coups. For instance, the Katanga in Zaire, in Sudan, In Ethiopia, Biafra in Nigeria, in Somalia, and Idi Amin's coup in Uganda.

2.2.8. Competition for scarce natural resources one of the leading causes of conflict in Kenya is when individuals clash over limited resources such as land and water. For example, most pastoral communities in Turkana and Pokot battle over pastoral land and water for their animals, resulting in cattle rustling that is often done out of revenge. Additionally, valued resources like oil, sand, precious metals, coal, wood, and gypsum among others contribute to conflict.

2.2.9. Politics The other cause of disagreements in our country is centered on politics, such as elections and the election process itself. Ever since the 2007 post-election violence in Kenya, whenever the country is conducting a General Election, most citizens are on edge, believing that there will be a repeat. This has an adverse effect on the Kenyan economic activities as the country comes to a stand-still during the electioneering period. The main reasons leading to political conflict in Kenya stems from politicians with vested interests that makes them favour a specific ethnic community, resulting into tribalism.

2.2.10. Tribal rivalry Tribalism is a major cause of conflict, not just in Africa but in Kenya especially. Cultural rivalry is mainly linked to major communities such as the Kikuyus, Luos, and Luhyas but has currently shifted to even minor ones. For most of the minor communities, their issues remained unsolved. Take, for instance, the Wagalla Massacre which happened many years back and up to date, nothing has been done to address it. Unresolved issues make minor tribes to be resentful against other communities they believed are more favoured and this brings about conflict. Causes of conflict in Kenya Causes of religious conflict Causes of ethnic conflict in Africa

2.2.11. Vicinity of training grounds to Yemen and Somalia Our nation's geopolitical position compared to Al Qaeda and Al-Shabaab affects our regional and internal security. This is because Al-Shabaab use Yemen for training and recruitment of their soldiers. Due to internal socio-economic reasons, conflict arises as some Kenyan elements are involved.

2.2. 12. Crimes in the high seas and terrorist attacks Kenya's biggest port serving the Great Horn of Africa and the Great Lakes Region of Eastern Africa has substantial sea traffic into Coastal Kenya via the Gulf of Eden and from the Far East pursuing the Indian Ocean. Due to this, piracy attacks conducted by terrorists are common in the high seas. The mentality is that reducing the number of dockings in Mombasa will make many people lose their jobs, resulting in high unemployment rates that will deny the Kenyan government its revenue.

2.3. Causes of conflict in Africa

2.3.1. Poor economic performance: a more basic and long term cause of conflict has been the catastrophic economic performance of many African countries. Coupled with the debt problem. Poor flows of private capital into some African countries and foreign and programs often inefficient as Neil. Economic discomfort can bail out into conflict. The deepest causes of the conflict; economic despair, social injustice, and political oppression. In the midst of poverty, African ruling classes or the elite group who happen to hold power at a particular time, have enriched themselves and become the targets of envy or of rivalry by other elite groups.

2.3.2. Political/Domestic: Power struggles hostile groups overpopulation economic or religious disparities oppression and demand for democracy communal or ethnic violence related to economic social religious cultural or ethnic issues.

2.3.3. Political/International:

These takes the form of ideological or political campaigns territorial claims and religious expansionism against other states regional rivalries terrorism, coercion or discrimination respecting the trade or economy of other states

2.3.4. Ethnicity: a major cause of Africa conflicts been ethnicity and it has continued to be so, the creation of independence was accompanied urgent calls for nation building by the new African leaders who were well aware of the difficulty in transcending Africa ethnic and regional loyalties. There have been a number of separatist movement causing attempts of secession such as Katanga in Zaire, Biafra in Nigeria and others in Sudan Ethiopia and Somalia

2.3.5. Military: Interstate aggression annexation intervention or hostility for example support for the rebels of other states or for separatist movement

2.3.6. Inter-state borders: Common to many conflicts is the unsatisfactory nature of interstate borders. Nearly all the borders were inherited from colonial times and were the product of negotiations and treaties between the colonial power decided in Europe with the aid of poor maps and with scant attention to Africa peoples, the African government shield away from making adjustments and in any case these was difficult as they did not all reach independence at the same time.

2.3.7. Persecution: It connotes violation of human rights mass movements of refugees poverty or instability caused by the mismanagement or ineptitude of the government including evident and perceived levels of corruption by the government beyond and acceptable limit of traditional toleration.

2.3.8. Conflict over psychological needs: Conflicts over psychological needs of group and individuals are conflict which cannot be seen but affect the psyche of the individual and groups self-actualization need for individual and group respect attempt to protect on group to be better than the others.

2.3.9. Conflicting involving values: Contradicting value system such as religious belief and ideological position and general worldview is another factor responsible for social conflict among the interacting parties.

2.3.10. Conflict over resources: These kind of conflict are usually easy to identify because they can be seen and are more potentially easy to resolve. This conflict occurs when two or more people are competing for inadequate (or perceived to be inadequate) resources over a period of time. The competition may assume negative or destructive dimension when the available resources are not evenly and judiciously distributed.

2.3.11. Bad governance and corruption

Post-colonial rule of West African countries has been fraught with several challenges. Elemental among them are the issues of bad governance and corruption. Following independence, several regimes across the sub-region have mismanaged state resources and weakened governance institutions which has resulted in economic stalemate, political apprehensions and breakdown of social peace and stability. Today, these twin factors constitute a major cause of violent conflicts and civil strife in West Africa. ([Fithen 1999](#)).

2.3.12. Human rights violations

Incidences of human rights abuses and violations are numerous in West Africa and as such this forms the basis for the eruption and renewal of violent conflicts and civil strife in the sub-region. ([Ejibunu 2007: 17](#)).

2.3.13. Poverty

Poverty also stands to be one of the major setbacks in West Africa and the continent of Africa. According to the 2012 UNDP Human Development report nearly half of sub-Saharan Africans live in poverty ([UNDP 2012](#)).

Consequently, the poverty that many across the continent endure can be seen to be one of the major contributing factors to the occurrence of violent conflicts in Africa. Like the rest of Africa, the West Africa sub-region is neither immune to the poverty canker nor ignorant of its impact on their fragile peace and stability. With over 60 per cent of its population living below the poverty line of a day, civil unrest and grievances, both recipes for conflicts, become widespread. ([ECOWAS 2006](#)).

2.3.14. Ethnic marginalization

Ethnicity by itself is not violent however the concept has been manipulated in 'societies polarized into two imbalanced divides with one faction feeling marginalized' ([Annan and Danso 2013](#)). Correspondingly, James Fearon and David Laitin ([2003](#)).

2.3.15. Small arms and light weapons proliferation

Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) proliferation is one of the major challenges in West Africa. The sub-region remains an area of considerable SALW proliferation because of their affordability, accessibility and availability; and porosity of the borders and legal frameworks legitimizing their ([Edeko 2011: 55-80](#); [Kwaja 2012](#)).

2.4. Types of Conflict

2.4.1. Elite Conflicts

Conflicts within the political leadership are among the most common form of political strife. They have occurred in almost every African country throughout the post-independence period. Elite conflict is normally of a low intensity but it does significantly impact on the polity. The key means of dealing with elite demands have often been through the manipulation of appointments and policy shifts often, distribution of bureaucratic posts is used as a means of appeasement, which partly accounts for the rapid growth of state machinery, such as the creation of numerous states within Nigeria.

2.4.2. Factional Conflicts

As contending elites mobilized their constituents to vie with other groups for scarce state-controlled resources, factional disputes and conflicts emerge. The main purpose of factional politics is to influence the composition of the official power apparatus, to determine who rules in a given political Centre. In Nigeria, Cameroon, Sudan and elsewhere, ethno-regional inequalities have intensified competition and conflict among various interests. African governments have resolved factional conflicts in a number of ways. In some cases, political changes have been launched to alleviate demands.

2.4.3. Communal and Mass Conflicts

Unlike the elite and factional conflicts, communal and mass conflicts call into question not only the legitimacy of specific regimes but also the essentials of state power. They challenge the state's territorial integrity and protest existing distribution of power.

By far, the most prevalent in the post-colonial Africa, communal conflicts seek the promotion of sub-national identities a goal which can be achieved either through adequate representation, including the protection of minority rights, the granting of autonomy, or through outright secession.

2.4.4. Revolutionary Conflicts

Revolutionary conflicts pose a basic threat to the validity of state power as constituted and offer alternative political visions guided by a clearly defined set of organizing principles. But many African countries have not been able to suppress mass discontent. From available indices, Nigeria has the potential for this type of conflict, given the high graduate unemployment, poor standard of living, marginalization of the peasants, emasculation of labour and many other unresolved social ills. So far, in Africa, most of the groups have not been able to carry out the more violent strategies that they espouse, primarily because the governments have generally responded to these movements by jailing their leaders and closing the opportunities for the expressions of such forms of dissent. This has been the case in Kenya and Nigeria.

2.4.5. Foreign Intervention

The history of Africa since colonization includes a series of self-interested foreign interventions and ruthless exploitation of African conflicts by the former Soviet Union and the United States, with their respective proxies during the cold war when both super power

2.5. Possible Solutions to Cause of both Armed Conflict and Africa Conflict

2.5.1. Inquiry: fact finding by neutral investigation, they find fact by neutral investigation they investigate about things they also inquire about things that happen in the nation.

2.5.2. Good Offices: encouraging parties to negotiate. The United Nations encourages parties to negotiate they prefer other parties to relate with each other to do things in common

2.5.3. Mediation: making suggestions about possible solutions acting as an intermediary between two parties to suggest about possible solution. They also serve as middle men between two different parties to help them suggest about possible solution.

2.5.4. Arbitration: Using a special panel to find a solution that all parties agree in advance to accept they find solution to all parties.

2.5.5. Adjudication submitting disputes to an international court such as the United Nations international court of justice (I.C.J)

2.5.6. Enforcement of sanction: peace maintenance involves three distinct but interrelated activities.

2.5.7. Peacekeeping: It involves coordinated efforts to ensure stability and relative chaotic situation. Peacekeeping has no express constitutional legislation in the UN charter it's a pragmatic response to the program.

2.5.8. United Nation extend goal is to create conditions conducive to establish lasting political settlement they help to create a conducive environment for last longing political settlement.

2.5.9. United Nations resolves conflict in Africa by using mediation conducted by the use of good will eminent personalities mandated by the assembly of head of states and government. They help to develop tools which were quite effective in the mediation of interstate conflict.

2.5.10. Another mechanism was the mounted operations by the United Nations the Africa union and other organization such as the commonwealth ECOWAS ranging from political missions and election monitoring missions to military and civil policy observer groups, or to peacekeeping and peace enforcement missions.

2.6. The Five Most Common Political Systems around in the World

2.6.1. Democracy

We often hear the United States referred to as a democracy. Indeed, many refer to the U.S. as a representative democracy. A democracy in a more traditional sense is a political system that allows for each individual to participate. There are two rather popular types of democracy:

2.6.1.1. Direct Democracy: Many scholars point to Athens as an example of [direct democracy](#). Technically, every citizen has an equal say in the workings of government. (The qualifications for being considered a citizen are completely different.) Citizens could show up at a meeting, and then directly participate in the governing process, and the process of making laws.

2.6.1.2. Representative Democracy: In a [representative democracy](#) set-up, citizens elect representatives who actually make the law. The United States operates similarly to this principle. Citizens elect legislators who, in turn, make laws. In the U.S., even the president isn't elected directly; representatives called electors make the decision (although designated electors usually vote according to the wishes of the citizens in their states).

2.6.2. Republic

In theory, a republic is a political system in which the government remains mostly subject to those governed. Some scholars define any political system in which the citizens legitimize the government. As such, some including [Montesquieu](#) consider the U.S. a republic. Some of the types of republics that you might see include:

- Crowned (a constitutional monarchy might be considered a [crowned republic](#))
- Single Party
- Capitalist
- Federal (the United States is often referred to as a [federal republic](#))
- Parliamentary

2.6.3. Monarchy

When most of us think of a monarchy, we think of the political systems of medieval European countries. In a monarchy, a ruler is not usually chosen by the voice of the people or their representatives. Often a monarch is the head of state until he or she abdicates or until death. In many cases a monarch is the final word in government. There may be functionaries to make decisions and run the political system, but the monarch has discretion with the laws, and how they are enforced.

2.6.4. Communism

In most cases, a communist state is based on the ideology of communism as taught by [Marx](#) and/or [Lenin](#). However, some argue that these political systems are not true to the ideals espoused by these revolutionary thinkers. Communist states are often dominated by a single party, or a group of people. A planned economy is often part of the governing class, and in many cases resources are taken and then redistributed to others, at the top of the system. Sometimes communists call themselves "workers' states" or "socialist," but there are very real differences in their operation. In a lot of cases, citizens are required to do certain jobs, or have some of their life decisions especially concerning where they can live and what jobs they can do. Communism is often considered an [authoritarian](#) political system.

2.6.5. Dictatorship

Another authoritarian form of government is the [dictatorship](#). Normally, a dictator is the main individual ruling the country. While there are lackeys and others who work for the dictator, he or she makes most of the decisions, and usually has enforcers. In some cases, the political system is run by a small group of people. Dictators are not restricted by constitutions or parliaments. The governed are usually not consented in any way.

2.7. Types of Political System

Various states and governments obviously exist around the world. In this context, state means the political unit within which power and authority reside. This unit can be a whole nation or a subdivision within a nation.

2.7.1. Democracy

The type of government with which we are most familiar is democracy, or a political system in which citizens govern themselves either directly or indirectly. The term [democracy](#) comes from Greek and means “rule of the people.” In Lincoln’s stirring words from the Gettysburg Address, democracy is “government of the people, by the people, for the people.”

2.7.1.1. Democracies, people make their own decisions about the policies and distribution of resources that affect them directly. An example of such a democracy in action is the New England town meeting, where the residents of a town meet once a year and vote on budgetary and other matters. However, such direct democracies are impractical when the number of people gets beyond a few hundred.

2.7.1.2. Representative democracies are thus much more common. In these types of democracies, people elect officials to represent them in legislative votes on matters affecting the population.

Representative democracy is more practical than direct democracy in a society of any significant size, but political scientists cite another advantage of representative democracy.

2.7.2. Monarchy

Monarchy is a political system in which power resides in a single family that rules from one generation to the next generation. The power the family enjoys is [traditional authority](#), and many monarchs command respect because their subjects bestow this type of authority on them. Other monarchs, however, have ensured respect through arbitrary power and even terror. Royal families still rule today, but their power has declined from centuries ago. Today the Queen of England holds a largely ceremonial position, but her predecessors on the throne wielded much more power.

2.7.3. Authoritarianism and Totalitarianism

Authoritarianism and totalitarianism are general terms for nondemocratic political systems ruled by an individual or a group of individuals who are not freely elected by their populations and who often exercise arbitrary power. To be more specific, authoritarianism refers to political systems in which an individual or a group of individuals holds power, restricts or prohibits popular participation in governance, and represses dissent. Totalitarianism refers to political systems that include all the features of authoritarianism but are even more repressive as they try to regulate and control all aspects of citizens’ lives and fortunes.

2.8. Types of Politics

2.8.1. Majoritarian Politics

Policy in which almost everyone benefits and almost everybody pays. Social Security benefits and taxes.

2.8.2. Interest Group Politics

Policy in which one small group benefits and another small group pays. Bill requiring companies to give 60 days’ notice of closing/layoff.

2.8.3. Client Politics

Policy in which one small group benefits and almost everybody pays. Farmers benefit from agricultural price supports; consumers don’t know it costs them. Taxes and increased food prices.

2.8.4. Entrepreneurial Politics

Policy in which almost everyone benefits and a small group pays. Antipollution/safety requirements at the expense of automobile manufacturers.

2.9. Background of South Sudan

The South Sudan Air Force (SSAF), also previously known as the Sudan People's Air Force or Sudan People's Liberation Air Force, is the air force of the South Sudan People's Defense Forces (SSPDF) of South Sudan. The headquarters are located in Juba Air Base, Juba.

Sudan: 2008–2011

On 24 June 2008, the South Sudan Air Force was formally created by the Southern Sudan Legislative Assembly, although it didn't have any aircraft at that time. The U.S. Air Force Special Operations School announced in July 2009 that Sudan participated in the Building Partner Aviation Capacity Course.^[2] In May 2010, Major General Kuol Dim Kuol of the Sudan People's Liberation Army said: "SPLA has formed a nucleus air force and navy. Our pilots and engineers have been trained, and local support and administrative units will follow suit."^[2]

On 8 August 2010, the South Sudanese government impounded a Mi-8, Mi-17 variant from Sudan Air as an effort to stop smuggling of weapons in the South, a few days before delivery of the first SSAF Mi-17s.

British magazine Jane's Defiance Weekly said in September 2010 that "Bloomberg News had reported earlier that the fleet consisted of nine Mi-17V-5 transport helicopters and one Mi-172 variant, purchased for a total US\$75 million from Russia's Kazan Helicopters, in a contract negotiated in May 2007 for deliveries set to begin in March 2010."^[3] The deal was reported to be worth US\$75 million; deliveries of the first eight aircraft had taken place by December 2010, with the

helicopters delivered to Juba Airport in Antonov An-124 transports, with the remaining two aircraft were delivered in January 2011.^[4] Nine of the helicopters were Mi-17V-5s configured for transport, with the remaining aircraft being a Mi-172 configured for VIP transport.^[4]

South Sudan: 2011–present

On 11 January 2011, President Salva Kiir launched the region's air force as the South Sudan Air Force in the presence of senior officials of the Government of Southern Sudan (GoSS) and foreign diplomats. The SPLA purchased its first batch of 10 Mil Mi-17 helicopters from Kazan, a Russian supplier, and ordered unarmed aircraft for transport purposes.^[5]

On 13 September 2014, six air force military officers and engineers of the Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA) loyal to South Sudanese president Salva Kiir Mayardit have joined the rebels or SPLM-IO, saying their decision to join the SPLM/A-in Opposition is a result of lack of diversity in the army of training opportunities and poor promotion policy.^[6] The deserted SPLA personnel also said that the government of South Sudan used the air force to transport militias and SPLA regular soldiers who participated in the killing of innocent civilians in Juba late last year.

On 25 November 2015, the South Sudanese government launched an aerial campaign on rebel positions in a SPLA-IO's designated area in Mundri County of Western Equatoria State. It was said that the South Sudan Air Force unleashed helicopter gunships and attacked the designated cantonment area of the rebels.^[7] The action was a violation of the ceasefire deal and the security arrangements signed by the two parties (GRSS and SPLA-IO).

Sudan People's Liberation Army

The Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA) is the army of the [Republic of South Sudan](#). The SPLA was founded as a guerrilla movement against the government of [Sudan](#) in 1983 and was a key participant of the [Second Sudanese Civil War](#). Throughout the war, it was led by [John Garang](#).

After Garang died in 2005, [Salva Kiir](#) was named the SPLA's new Commander-in-Chief.^[3] Following [South Sudan's independence](#) in 2011, the SPLA became the new republic's regular army. As of 2018, the SPLA was estimated to have 185,000 soldiers as well as an unknown number of personnel in the small [South Sudan Air Force](#).^[4] As of 2010, the SPLA was divided into [divisions](#) of 10,000–14,000 soldiers.^[3]

In 1983 a number of mutinies broke out in the barracks of the Sudanese army in the southern regions, most notably in [Bor](#). These mutineers formed the nucleus of SPLA.^[8] By June 1983 the majority of mutineers had moved to [Ethiopia](#) or were on their way. The Ethiopian government's decision to support the nascent SPLA was a means of exacting revenge upon the Sudanese government for its support of [Eritrean rebels](#).^[9]

SPLA was led by Commander-in-Chief [John Garang de Mabior](#).^{[10][11]} SPLA struggled for a united and secular Sudanese state.^[12] Garang said the struggle of the South Sudanese was the same as that of marginalized groups in the north, such as the [Nuba](#) and [Fur peoples](#).^[13] Until 1985, SPLA directed its public denouncements of the Sudanese government specifically at Nimeiri. During the years that followed, SPLA propaganda denounced the [Khartoum](#) government as a family affair that played on sectarian tensions.^[13] SPLA denounced the introduction of [sharia](#) law in September 1983.^[14] War in the 1980s

Official flag of the Sudan People's Liberation Army until 2011

In the village of Bilpam, the first full-fledged SPLA battalion graduated in 1984. The name 'Bilpam' carried great symbolic importance for SPLA for years to come, as the epicentre of the uprising. After Bilpam, other SPLA training camps were established at [Dimma](#), [Bonga](#) and [Panyido](#).^[9]

In the mid-1980s the SPLA armed struggle blocked development projects of the Sudanese government, such as the [Jonglei Canal](#) and the [Bentiu](#) Oil Fields.^[15]

SPLA launched its first advance in [Equatoria](#) in 1985–1986. During this campaign, SPLA were confronted by a number of pro-government militias. The conduct of SPLA forces was chaotic, with many atrocities against the civilian population. The SPLA drove out around 35,000 [Ugandan](#) refugees (who had settled in Equatoria since the early 1980s) back into Uganda.^[16]

SPLA had a complicated relationship with [Anyanya II](#). Anyanya II forces blocked the expansion of SPLA between 1984 and 1987, as Anyanya II attacked SPLA recruits heading for Ethiopia. Anyanya II also attacked civilians believed to be SPLA supporters.^[17] The conflict between Anyanya II and SPLA had a political dimension, as Anyanya II sought to build an independent South Sudanese state.^[18] SPLA tried to win over the leaders of Anyanya II.^[19] The Anyanya II commander [Gordon Kong Chuol](#) aligned with SPLA in late 1987. Other sectors of Anyanya II followed his example over the ensuing years, marginalizing the remainder of Anyanya II (allied with the Sudanese government).^{[19][20]}

Another force that confronted SPLA were the Murahaleen militias in northern [Bahr el-Ghazal](#). Warfare between SPLA and Muraleheen began in 1987. By 1988 SPLA controlled most of the northern Bahr el-Ghazal.^[16] Unlike the Anyanya II, the Murahaleen had no political ambitions.^[18]

In March 1986, the SPLA kidnapped a Norwegian aid worker of the Christian NGO Kirkens Nødhjelp ([Norwegian Church Aid](#)).^[21] Moorcroft writes that by this time, 'training, weapons, and discipline improved as the guerillas scored more and more victories. In November 1987 the guerillas captured the small town of [Kurmak](#) near the Ethiopian border. It was 450 miles from the capital, but the nearby dam provided most of Khartoum's electricity.' The government showed itself very nervous about containing the SPLA advance.^[22]

Political openings

SPLA boycotted the 1986 elections. In half of the constituencies of southern Sudan elections could not be held due to the SPLA boycott.^[13] ^[23] In September 1989, the RCC invited different sectors to a 'National Dialogue Conference'. The SPLA refused to attend.^[24]

On November 15, 1988, SPLA entered into an alliance with the DUP. The two parties had agreed on the lifting of the state of emergency and abolition of sharia law. The press release was made public through an announcement on Radio SPLA.

After DUP rejoined the government, a ceasefire with SPLA was achieved.^{[13][25]} After the elections, negotiations between SPLA and [Sadiq al-Mahdi](#) started, but were aborted after SPLA shot down a civilian airplane, killing 60 people.^[13] With the NIF coup d'état in 1989, all peace talks ended.^[26] SPLA launched a major offensive between 1989 and the fall of the Ethiopian [Derg](#) government in 1991. It captured various towns, such as Bor, [Waat](#), [Maridi](#), [Mundri](#), [Yambio](#), [Kaya](#), [Kajo-Kaji](#), [Nimule](#), [Kapoeta](#), [Torit](#), [Akobo](#) and [Nasir](#). By the middle of 1991, SPLA controlled most parts of southern Sudan with the exception of the major garrison towns ([Juba](#), [Yei](#), [Malakal](#) and [Wau](#))^[19] Between January 21 and 29, 1990, SPLA shelled Juba. SPLA forces also moved into the [Nuba Mountains](#) and the southern parts of the [Blue Nile State](#). In comparison with its 1985–1986 offensive in Equatoria, the conduct of SPLA was now more orderly.^[16]

1991: Setback and split

High-ranking SPLA officers at the South Sudan independence celebrations, 2011

But the downfall of the [Derg](#) government in Ethiopia in May 1991 caused a major setback. The Ethiopian government had provided the SPLA with military supplies, training facilities and a safe haven for bases for 18 years. Soon after the change of government in Ethiopia, SPLA accompanied hundreds of thousands of refugees back into Sudan.^[19]

A split in SPLA had simmered since late 1990, as [Lam Akol](#) and [Riek Machar](#) began to question Garang's leadership.^[27] Akol began secretly contacting SPLA officers to join his side, especially among the [Nuer](#) and [Shilluk peoples](#).^[28] The situation deteriorated after the fall of the [Derg](#).^[27] As the [Derg](#) regime crumbled, Akol published a document titled *Why Garang Must Go Now*.^[28] The split was made public on August 28, 1991, in what became known as the [Nasir Declaration](#). The dissidents called for democratization of SPLA, a stop to human rights abuses, and an independent South Sudan (in contrast to the SPLA line of creating a united and secular Sudan). Kong Cou joined the rebellion. The 'SPLA-Nasir' was joined by the SPLA forces in [Ayod](#), [Waat](#), [Adok](#), [Abwong](#), [Ler](#) and [Akobo](#).^[12] A period of chaos reigned inside SPLA, as it was not clear which units sided with Garang and which with SPLA-Nasir.^[29]

Garang issued a statement through the SPLA radio communications system, denouncing the coup. Nine out of eleven (excluding himself) SPLA/M PMHC members sided with Garang.^[11] The mainstream SPLA led by Garang was based in [Torit](#).^[10] The two SPLA factions fought each other, including attacks on civilians on their opponents' turf.^[30]

Battles of 1992

As of 1992 the Sudanese government launched a major offensive against SPLA, which was weakened by the split with [SPLA-Nasir](#). SPLA lost control of [Torit](#) (where SPLA was headquartered), [Bor](#), [Yirol](#), [Pibor](#), [Pochalla](#) and [Kapoeta](#).^{[31][32]} SPLA made two attacks on Juba in June–July 1992. SPLA nearly captured the town. After the attacks, the Sudanese government forces committed harsh reprisals against the civilian population. Summary executions of suspected SPLA collaborators were carried out.^[33] On September 27, 1992 the deputy commander-in-chief of SPLA, William Nyuon, defected and took a section of fighters with him.^[34] SPLA recaptured [Bor](#) on November 29, 1991.^[35]

Mid-1990s

As of the mid-1990s, the majority of the population of Southern Sudan lived in areas under the control of either the mainstream SPLA or SPLA-Nasir.^[36]

2005 Comprehensive Peace Agreement

In 2004, a year before the Comprehensive Peace Agreement, the [Coalition to Stop Child Soldiers](#), estimated that there were between 2,500 and 5,000 children serving in the SPLA.^[37]

Salva Kiir Mayardit, Commander-in-Chief of SPLA Following the signing of the CPA, a SPLA reorganization process began. This process was actively supported by funding from the [United States](#). In 2005, Garang restructured the top leadership of SPLA, with a Chief of General Staff, Lt. Gen. [Oyay Deng Ajak](#), and four Deputy Chiefs of General Staff: Maj. Gen. [Salva Mathok Gengdit](#) (Administration), Maj. Gen. [Bior Ajang Aswad](#) (Operations), Maj. Gen. [James Hoth Mai](#) (Logistics) and Maj. Gen. [Obuto Mamur Mete](#) (Political and Moral Orientation).^[3] SPLA officer as part of [Joint Integrated Units](#) during the CPA era The initial organization of the SPLA, based on divisions, was assembled in mid-2005 but not actually put into practice in the field until 2006. It was based on six divisions (in Upper Nile State; [2nd Division](#): Equatoria; [3rd Division](#): Northern Bahr el Ghazal and Warrap states; [4th Division Unity State](#); the [5th Division in Lakes State](#), the 6th Division, SPLA personnel in the [Joint Integrated Units](#)) and four independent brigades.^[38] The four independent brigades grouped SPLA forces in Southern Blue Nile, [Bor](#) (Jonglei), the [Nuba Mountains](#) (South Kordofan) and [Raja](#) (Western Bahr el Ghazal).

Probably more important than the reorganization was the Juba Declaration agreement that was signed by Salva and General [Paulino Matiep](#) on 8 January 2006. Matiep commanded the [South Sudan Defence Forces](#), the largest and best-equipped militia that remained beyond SPLA control. Paulino was appointed a Deputy Chief of Staff, his subordinate generals became part of the SPLA without any reduction in rank, and about 50,000 SSDF were added to the SPLA payroll.^[39] The number of generals in the SPLA also rose as Salva promoted hundreds of existing SPLA officers to match the arriving ex-SSDF generals. By 2011 and independence, the SPLA had 745 generals. At about the same time, the legislature voted to double infantrymen's base pay from the equivalent of \$75 a month (the rate under Khartoum's control) to \$150.

In 2007–08 the independent brigades in Blue Nile, [Bor](#), and the [Nuba Mountains](#) became the 10th, [8th](#), and 9th divisions, respectively.^[40] The 9th and 10th Divisions thus fell north of the 1-1-56 Independence dividing line between North and South Sudan. The last independent brigade, in [Raja](#), became part of the 5th Division.

Ministry of Defence

In 2007, the SPLM/A established a Ministry of Defence. Gen. [Dominic Dim Deng](#), an SPLA veteran, was chosen as the first Minister for SPLA Affairs and the first political officer of the SPLA. Dim died in a plane crash in 2008 alongside his

wife, [Josephine Apieu Jenaro Aken](#), and other SPLA officers. He is buried alongside his wife at the SPLA headquarters in Bilpham, Juba.^[43]

Deputy Chief of Staff (Logistics) James Hoth Mai replaced Oyay Deng Ajak as Chief of General Staff in May 2009.^[44] In 2010 U.S. diplomats reported that [Samora](#) "made a point to discuss how the SPLA needed to be reorganized. He stated that the SPLA was top heavy, carrying nearly 550 general officers and providing more than 200 security guards for each minister."^[42]

The 2005 [Comprehensive Peace Agreement](#) stipulated that the SPLA in northern Sudan were to move south of the 1956 North-South boundary during the interim period, excepting those part of the [Joint Integrated Units](#), composed of equal numbers from the SPLA and the [Sudanese Armed Forces](#).^[43] Officially, this move did take place, in 2008, with the 10th Division relocating its headquarters to Guffa, five kilometers south of the Blue Nile-Upper Nile border, and most of its troops to al-Fuja, Yafta and Marinja on the southern side.^[44] But more than 1,600 fighters remained north of the line. In early June 2011, following the lack of progress on popular consultations in Southern Kordofan & Blue Nile, the SAF attempted to forcefully disarm Nuba SPLA soldiers, and fighting began in Southern Kordofan.^[45] After the fighting began, former SPLA 9th and 10th Division fighters proclaimed themselves the [Sudan People's Liberation Movement-North](#) (SPLA-N), under [Malik Agar](#) as Chairman and Commander-in-Chief.^[46]

The Government of Southern Sudan named the SPLA General Headquarters outside Juba 'Bilpam'.^[9] The headquarters staff was expanded after 2008 to match the ten-division structure. This expansion coincided with the completion of the GHQ facility at Bilpam, built by DynCorp with funds from the [U.S. State Department](#)'s Africa Peacekeeping Program (AFRICAP).^[47]

Work on a national security strategy began in late 2012.^[48]

[South Sudanese Civil War](#)

On December 15, 2013, fighting broke out in Juba between different factions of the armed forces in what the South Sudanese government described as a [coup d'état](#). President Kiir announced that the attempt had been put down the next day, but fighting resumed December 16. Military spokesman Colonel Philip Aguer said that some military installations had been attacked by armed soldiers but that "the army is in full control of Juba." He added that an investigation was under way.^[49]

Eventually the Sudan People's Liberation Movement split into two main factions, divided on the issue over leadership of the ruling party:

The Sudan People's Liberation Movement (In Government) was led by President Kiir; it was the ruling faction that signed the Comprehensive Peace Agreement in January 2005. Kiir served as president of the Transitional Autonomous Region of South Sudan from its formation in 2005 after Garang's death till the country's independence in 2011. The SPLM-IO faction formally withdrew from the SPLM ruling faction in 2013.

The [Sudan People's Liberation Movement \(In Opposition\)](#) was formed in 2013 and is led by former South Sudan Vice President [Riek Machar](#). The group is the major opponent to the SPLM-IG faction in the [Southern Sudanese civil war](#).

The coordination of the April–July 2015 attack by the SPLA-IG in Unity State—involving multiple divisions across multiple sectors—indicates a high level of operational planning from Juba.^[50] The ferocity with which people were chased into the swamps to be killed was aimed at annihilating the SPLM/A-in-Opposition's support, and led to systematic destruction of villages and towns.

The [Tiger Faction New Forces](#) (also called Tiger Faction or 'The Tigers')^[51] split from the SPLA in late October 2015. A [Shilluk](#) militia, it aimed to reverse the [division of South Sudan into 28 \(later 32\) states](#) in order to restore the territory of the [Shilluk Kingdom](#) to its 1956 borders.^[51] Led by Yoanis Okiech, the TFNF started an insurgency against the [SPLM](#) government.^[52] In 2016, however, it also came into conflict with the [SPLM-IO](#) rebels, leading to Okiech's death and the group's destruction in January 2017.

Over the course of the war, the SPLA has become dominated by Dinka, in particular Dinka from greater Bahr el-Ghazal. The Panel of Experts wrote in 2016, 'While other tribes are represented in SPLA, they are increasingly marginalized, rendering the multi-tribal structure of the army largely a façade that obscures the central role that Dinka now play in virtually all major theatres of the conflict. (S/2016/963, 8)

On May 16, 2017, Kiir announced that the SPLA's name would be changed to South Sudan Defense Forces (SSDF).^[53]

A cessation of hostilities agreement was reached in December 2017, but never really took effect. The negotiations stalled over disagreement among the parties about power sharing, future security arrangements and whether Riak Machar could return from exile to political life in South Sudan. In early May 2018, a two-day meeting of the Parties to the Revitalized Agreement on the Resolution of the Conflict in South Sudan (R-ARCSS) started in Addis Ababa. The parties were to take stock of the progress so far of the R-ARCSS, the pending tasks, and debate the way forward.

The SPLA currently has nine divisions and a small air force, all of which report to the DCOGS, Operations:

- [1st Division](#) : Renk, [Upper Nile State](#). Established 2006. After the CPA, [George Athor](#) was appointed a major general and confirmed in overall commander of Division I (2005–07) before being moved to SPLA HQ in Bilpam as director for administration.^[55] The [Small Arms Survey](#) wrote in early 2016 that '[the] Division, stationed in Renk and widely regarded as the best fighting force in the country, is largely [Nuer](#). Until 2 December 2015, it was under the command of [Stephen Buay](#), a Bul Nuer who was subsequently redeployed to lead the SPLA's [4th Division](#) in Rubkona, [Unity State](#).^[56]
- [2nd Division](#) : Giada Barracks, Juba, [Central Equatoria State](#) Established 2006. By 2013 division headquarters was at [Mogiri](#) east of Juba.^[57] On 19 August 2011, it was reported that the UN SRSF would visit [Kapoeta](#) to meet the County Commissioner and the Commander of Brigade 9 of the SPLA's 2nd Division.^[58]
- [3rd Division](#) : Winejok, [Northern Bahr el Ghazal](#)^[59] (also covers [Warrap State](#))

- **4th Division** : Mapel, [Western Bahr el Ghazal](#)^[60] (formerly at Rubkona) Established 2006. Rands wrote in 2010 that "Upon integrating into the SPLA, the core forces of [Paulino Matiep](#), under the command of Tahib Gatluak, [remained] in Mayom County in Unity State. Some were then redeployed to Juba to join Matiep's bodyguard. The remaining men were deployed as part of the 4th Division in Duar, Unity State." News reports on December 21, 2013 from [Bentiu](#) said the 4th Division commander, [James Koang Chuol](#), had declared that he has deposed the caretaker governor and that his forces were no longer loyal to President [Salva Kiir](#).^[61] Chuol said he had overthrown Governor [Joseph Monytuel](#) after surviving an assassination attempt. Koang said that the 4th Division's tank unit allegedly tried to kill him at around 7pm on Friday upon being ordered by Monytuel at the behest of senior SPLA members in Juba. Significant forces from Division IV defected to the [Sudan People's Liberation Movement-in-Opposition](#), with their arms and ammunition.^[62] Division IV was involved in the April–July [Unity State](#) offensive by the SPLA, alongside Bul Nuer youth, other SPLA forces, and other armed groups.^[63] In 2015-16, the division was placed under the command of [Stephen Buay](#).
- **5th Division** : Girinti Barracks, Wau, [Western Bahr el Ghazal State](#)^[64] (formerly at Rumbek)<https://www.nyamile.com/2018/06/01/buay-rolnyang-to-appear-in-military-court-very-soon/>
- **6th Division** : Maridi, [Western Equatoria](#). On 13 August 2016, some 800 to 900 troops from SPLA Division VI launched an incursion into the [Democratic Republic of the Congo](#), crossing the border and engaging in a battle with SPLM/A in Opposition.^[65]
- **7th Division** : Owachi, [Upper Nile State](#)^[66] Rands wrote in 2010 that '..[m]uch of the SPLA's 7th Division operating west of the Nile in the Shilluk areas of Upper Nile State is composed of former forces of the SSDF commander [Peter Gadet](#), now a major general in the SPLA. Gadet stayed with SAF Military Intelligence during the Juba Declaration process and many were suspicious of his allegiances. As of the time of writing when Rands wrote, Gadet's authority over his former men in the 7th Division was unclear.^[67] Still under command of Peter Gadet in 2013. Significant forces from Division VII defected to the [Sudan People's Liberation Movement-in-Opposition](#), with their arms and ammunition.^[62] Gadet died on 15 April 2019.
- **8th Division** : Bor, [Jonglei State](#)
- **Mechanized Division** : Mapel, [Western Bahr el Ghazal State](#)^[68] Circa July 15, 2017, the Mechanized Division, with the 8th Infantry Division, was to deploy forces to the Juba-Bor road to ensure the safety of travelers, the SPLA spokesperson announced. The move came after a series of deadly road attack by armed men.^[69]
- **Special Forces brigade** with four battalions
- The **Sudan People's Air Force** : Juba, [Central Equatoria State](#)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

Chapter three highlights and entails the method used during the research such as how the data being collected and the Influence of Politics in Armed Conflict in Africa. The researcher encountered during the data collection and the scope of the study (its dimension at national, regional and international level and its implication on the civilians and the economy, stability, security, of the region , chapter three addresses the following factors, research, design, area of study, population of study, sampling , data collection procedure and data analysis. The study employs qualitative and quantitative methods as indicated in the sub-chapter. By using qualitative and quantitative methods, the researcher sought to get contextual conceptualization of the role of intergovernmental agencies in South Sudan, Africa, meaning this chapter will focus on a detailed description of how the study will be done. The chapter will present the researcher design and study population. It will show how data will be collected and analyzed and also discussed how the methods of data collection chosen will be reliable and valid for the study.

Limitations of the study and ethical considerations will as well be discussed in this particular chapter and solutions to the challenges the importance and the reliability of the researcher.

3.1. Research design

This research used a cross-sectional survey design, which made inferences about a population of interest at one point in time. Cross-sectional surveys were conducted using modes of data collection, including telephone interviews in which cell phones are called, face to face interviews, mailed questionnaires, other self-administered questionnaires e.g. The design was preferred because it was easy for the researcher to draw conclusion and the researcher based on the views of respondents to reach at conclusions and make recommendations.

3.2 Study population

The researcher was based on the entire population of case study. 100 target population. The study draws data from various respondents including the management of organization, government workers the beneficiaries and other members of intergovernmental agency.

3.3 Sample size

The study was conducted in Influence of Politics in Armed Conflict in Africa as focusing on the case study. Out of the total population of the study the researcher selected a sample of 50 Respondents who was got from a sample population of 100 to be got using the in the table of determining sample size form a selected sample population. From which information was got.

3.4 Data source

The study mainly used two types of data collection methods such as: primary data collection and secondary data collection. Primary data included raw data obtained directly from respondents in the study management of organization, government workers, other Political participation and beneficiaries, which was obtained from published documents including reports, journal articles, newspapers and other written material from the organizations achieves and libraries was useful.

3.5 Data collection instruments

The collection of data in this research involved questionnaires and interviews. The questionnaires; was a data collection instrument where questions are designed and distributed to the participants to answer. Interview was data collection where the researcher conducted face to face interview.

3.6 Measurements of variables

The study determines the method and means by which data was gathered and analyzed but the method of gathering the data was first be determined, and the next step was gathering, presenting and interpreting the data, in the this step the validity of the ideas about the study was proven and it was measured due to the objectives set

3.7 Procedures for data collection

Before going to the field a letter of introduction from the appropriate authorities shall sought all the respondents' information given shall be kept with utmost confidentiality. Interviews shall be conducted with consent from the respondents. The research team shall be particularly sensitive to organizational culture aspects during the process of the research. Similarly, data shall be analyzed and presented but making sure that in these processes names of individuals will not be used in ways that can hurt them later.

3.8 Validity and reliability of research instrument

Validity of research instrument a degree to which a test measures what it was supposed to measure while reliability of the research instrument is concern with the extent to which the instrument yields the same results on a repeated trial, it was the tendency towards consistency found in repeated measurements. Data collection instruments had when the measure what they are designed to measure and are reliable if repeating measurement within the short time span produces the same results.

3.8.1 Questionnaires

The questionnaires were systematic such that one question follows one another in order of sequence, the study had both structured and unstructured questionnaires so as to ascertain the validity and reliability by permitting the collection of preconceived responses but also responses that were subjected to nuances. The questionnaires were designed in such a way that they captured both qualitative and quantitative data.

3.8.2 Interviews

This instrument were used in collecting the data as well-structured interview guide were followed while interviewing the respondents, and the interviews are very good data collection instrument. Interview guide with open ended administered to the respondents as to enable them give their views freely.

3.9 Data analysis

This study variety of procedures to analyze the data which were collected. The data coding and analysis process was guided by the objectives of the study and research questions. Data was analyzed by making quick imprecise summaries of funding made during the study. Microsoft excel, graphs, tabulation were used to make the compression process easy, conserve space and reduce descriptive statements, editing was done by looking through each field of responses from the interviews, questionnaires and errors were accurately eliminated. The analyzed data was copied to the Microsoft word processor for final cleaning and description of the numerical data.

3.10. Limitations of the Study

There are many limitations encountered in the process of gathering the necessary information for this research work.

- a. Information was obtained through interviews during which some of the respondents felt reluctant to answer some questions relating to their activities in the area where they lived.
- b. There was inadequate finance to carry out most of the work expected to be done during the data collection.
- c. Another problem was time wasted where information were hardly retrieved.
- d. Time was yet another factor that posed a setback to information gathering for this research work, since it was done alongside with normal school lectures, as a result, time was too short for comprehensive collection of data.
- e. Lack of sufficient literature highlighting politics role in the area of rural development was another limitation.

3.11 Ethical considerations

It is important during the process of research for the researcher to make respondents to understand that participation is voluntary and that participants are free to refuse to answer any question and to withdraw from participation at any time they a

Another important consideration, involves getting the informed consent of those going to be met during the research process which will involve interviews and observations on issues that may be delicate to some respondents. The researcher undertakes to bear this seriously in mind.

Accuracy and honesty during the research process is very important for academic research to proceed. A researcher should treat a research project with utmost care, in that there should be no temptation to cheat and generate research results since it jeopardize the conception of the research.

Personal confidentiality and privacy were very important since report was not public. If individuals had been used to provide information, it was important for their privacy to be respected. If private information had been used accessed then confidentiality had to be maintained (Stephen, 2002). All respondents were therefore, re-assured of this before being involved

**CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSIONS**

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the data analyzed in the Frequency Distribution table to satisfy the objectives of the study. The analysis was made on (50) respondents using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel.

And the data collected has been generalized through tabulation, pie chart and graphs to present the finding results of the study.

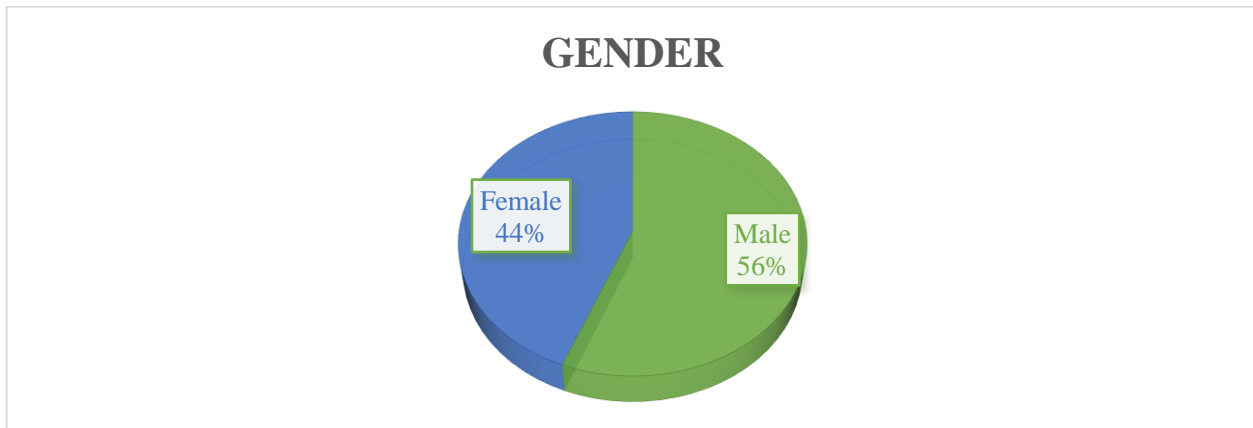
4.1. Result

Table 1: Gender of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	28	56.0	56.0	56.0
Valid Female	22	44.0	44.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 1: Gender of the respondents



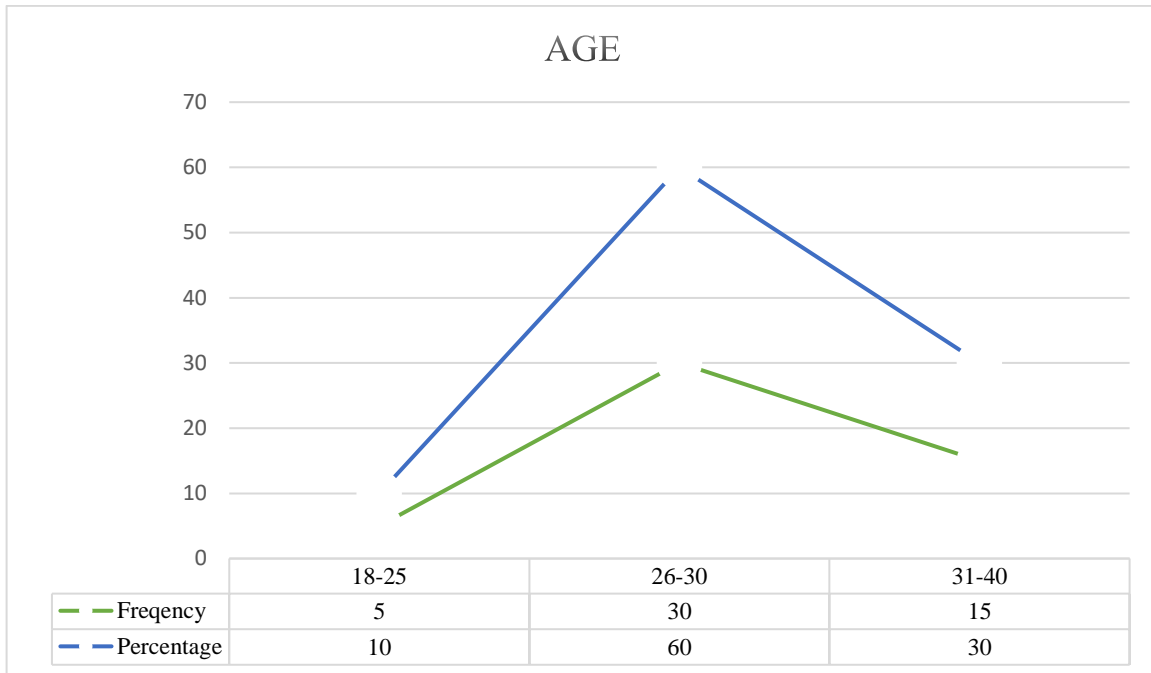
As the gender was require in figure 4.1, 56% leading average presents males while females constituted remaining portion of 44% of the respondents, meaning that most of participants were males according to this finding results.

Table 2: Age of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 18-25	5	10.0	10.0	10.0
Valid 26-30	30	60.0	60.0	70.0
Valid 31-40	15	30.0	30.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 2: Age of the respondents



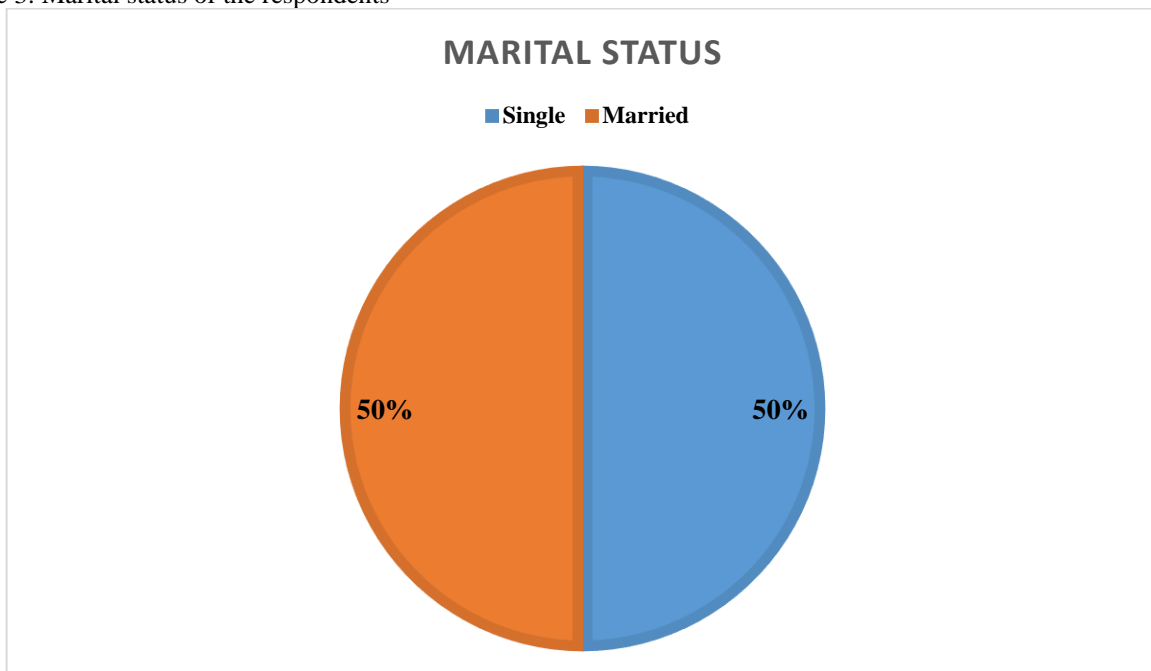
The finding in figure 4.2 results, shows that 60% of the respondents were those whose ages fall between 26 to 30 years old, 30% of the respondents were those whose ages ranged from 31 to 40 years. And those whose ages ranged from 18-25 years were the minority with an average of 10% of the total respondents.

Table 3: Marital status of the respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	25	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Married	25	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 3: Marital status of the respondents



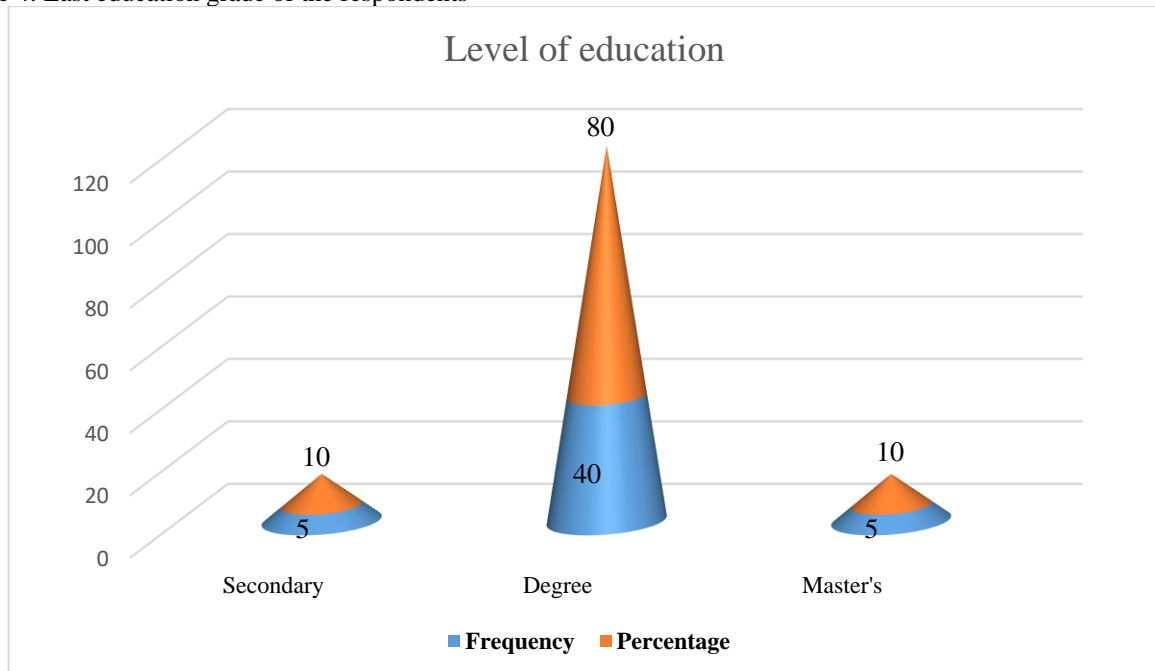
In regard to marital status of the respondents, the finding in figure 4.5 above indicated that 50% of the respondents were both single and married respondents. This mean most of the respondents according to this research were both single and married couple.

Table 4: Last education grade of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Secondary	5	10.0	10.0
	Degree	40	80.0	90.0
	Master's	5	10.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 4: Last education grade of the respondents



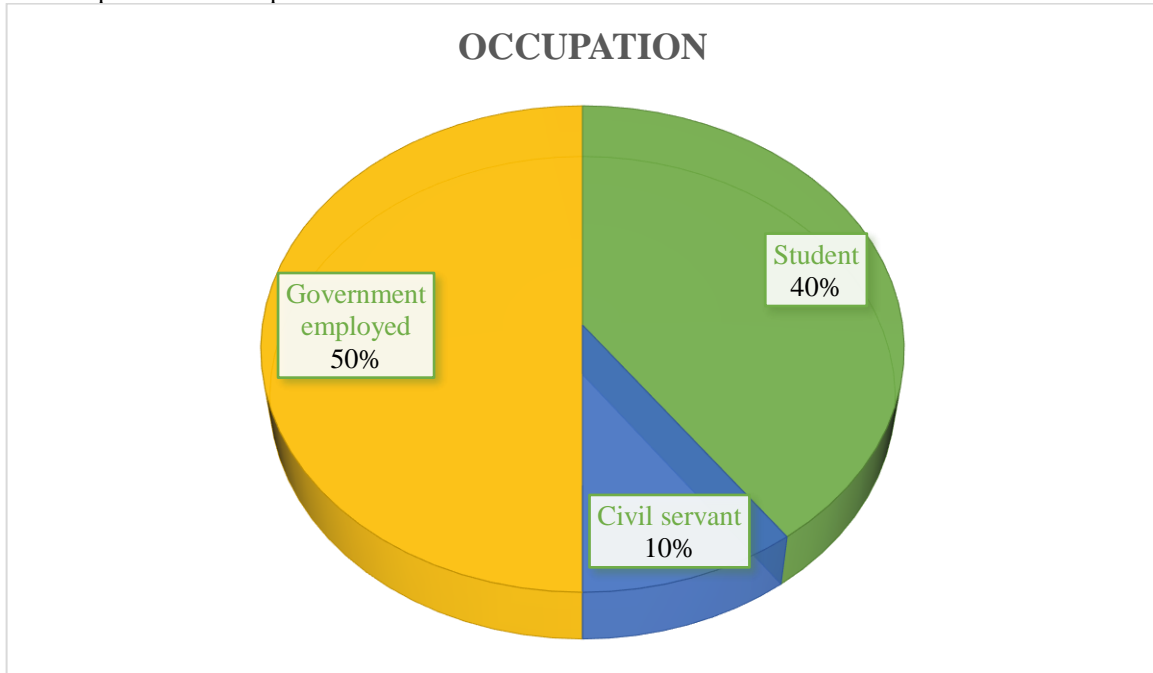
The finding in figure 4.4 above, shows that 80% of the respondents were holders of Bachelor Degree Program, 10% were both secondary certificate and master’s degree holders respectively. This mean the majority of the respondents were at university level and this imply that there is an increase in literacy rate in the communities.

Table 5: Occupation of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Student	20	40.0	40.0
	Civil servant	5	10.0	50.0
	Government employed	25	50.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 5: Occupation of the respondents



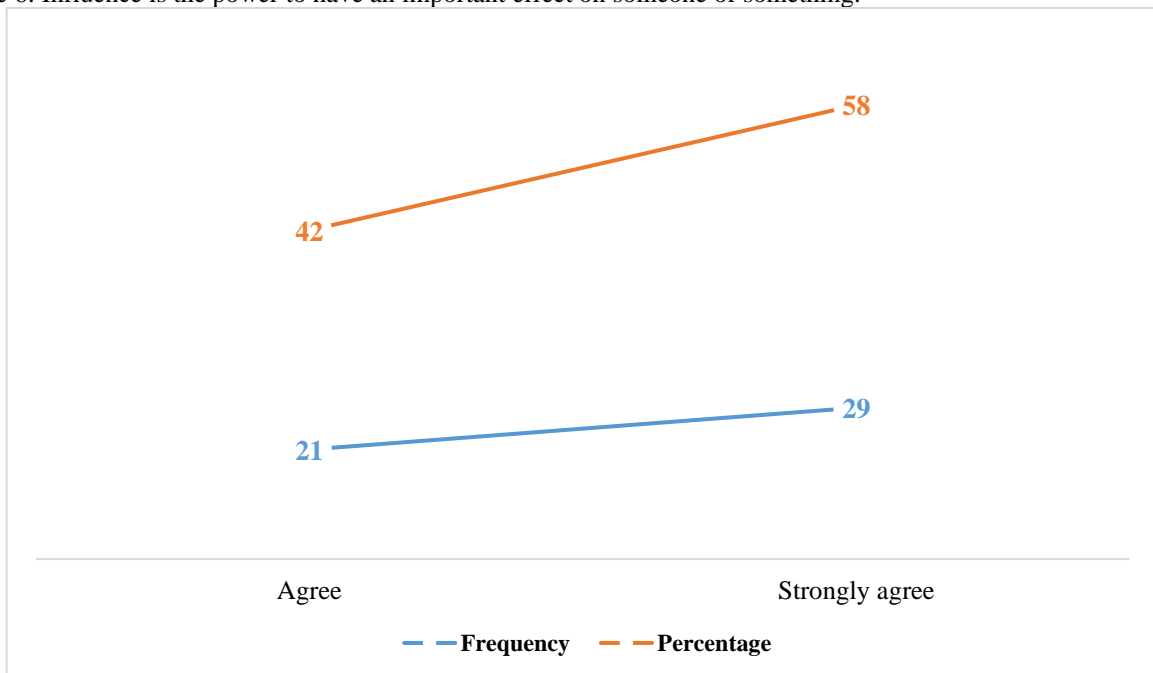
The finding in figure 4.6 results, shows that 50% of the respondents were government employee, 40% were students, and only 10% of the respondents were civil servant. This mean majority of the respondents were government employee.

Table 6: Influence is the power to have an important effect on someone of something.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Agree	21	42.0	42.0	42.0
Valid Strongly agree	29	58.0	58.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 6: Influence is the power to have an important effect on someone of something.



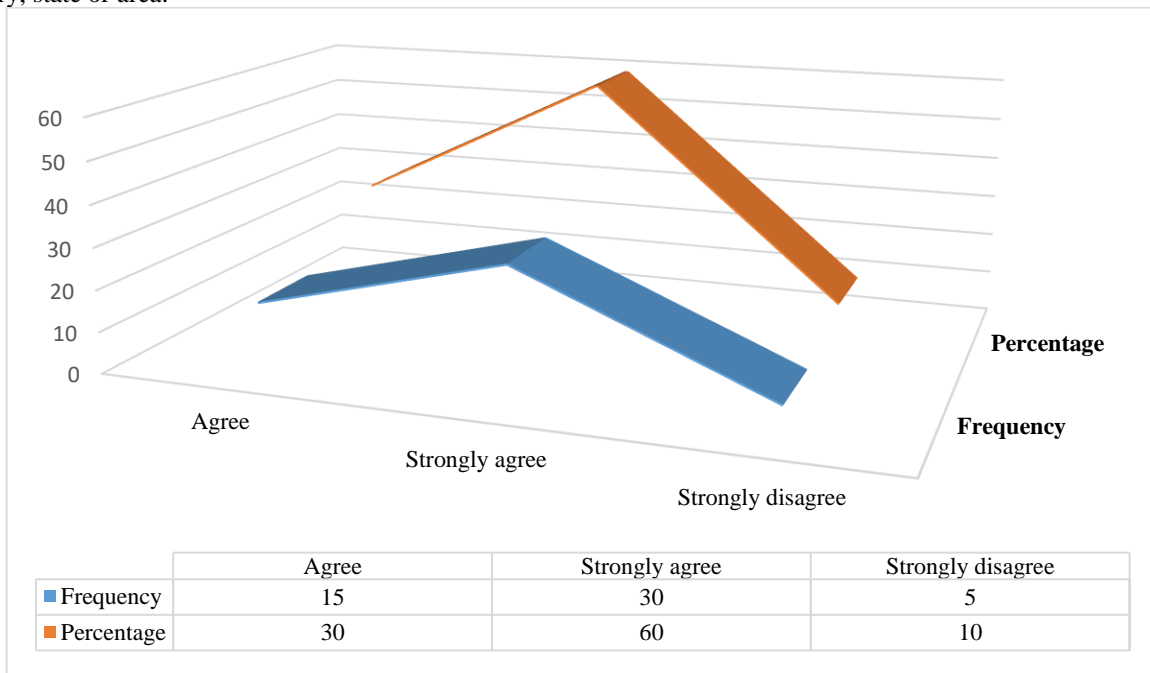
The finding in figure 4.6 results, indicated that 58% and 29% of the respondents were agree and strongly agree respectively that influence is the power to have an important effect on someone of something.

Table 7: Politics is the set of activities that are associated with the governance of a country, state or area.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	15	30.0	30.0
	Strongly agree	30	60.0	90.0
	Strongly disagree	5	10.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 7: Politics is the set of activities that are associated with the governance of a country, state or area.



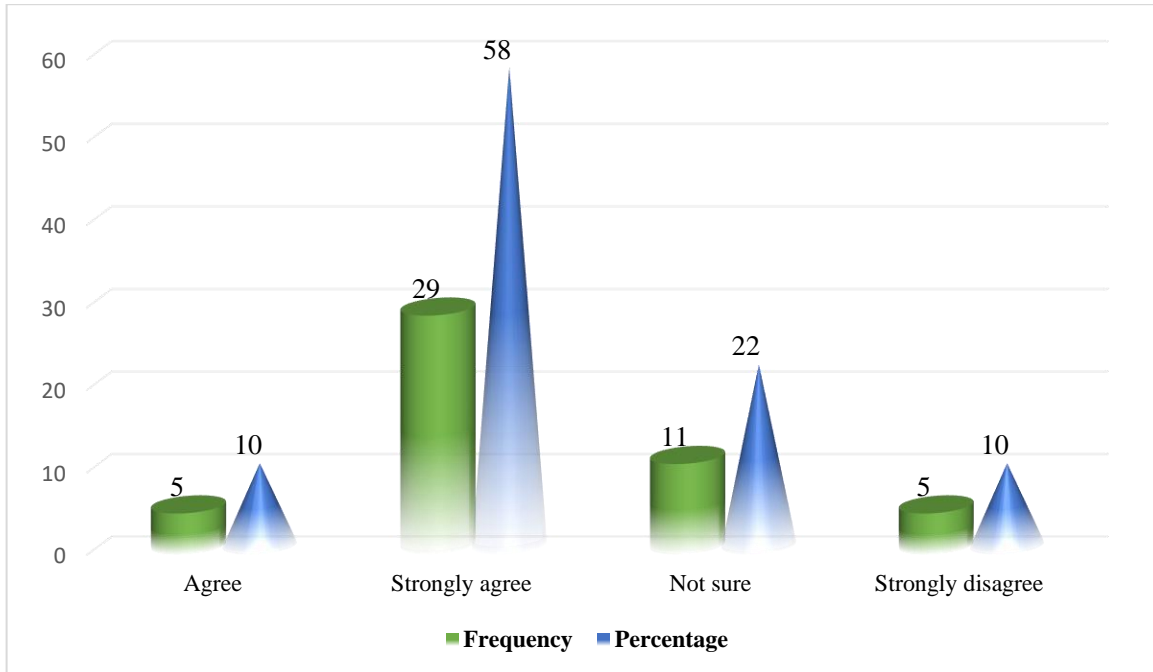
The results in figure 4.7 shows that 60% of the respondents have strongly agree and 30% of the respondents have agreed that politics is the set of activities that are associated with the governance of a country, state or area. 10% of the respondents have strongly agree.

Table 8: Conflict is the consequence of a clash of interests between two parties, groups, or countries due to chasing contrasting or incompatible goal.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	5	10.0	10.0
	Strongly agree	29	58.0	68.0
	Not sure	11	22.0	90.0
	Strongly disagree	5	10.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 8: Conflict is the consequence of a clash of interests between two parties, groups, or countries due to chasing contrasting or incompatible goal.



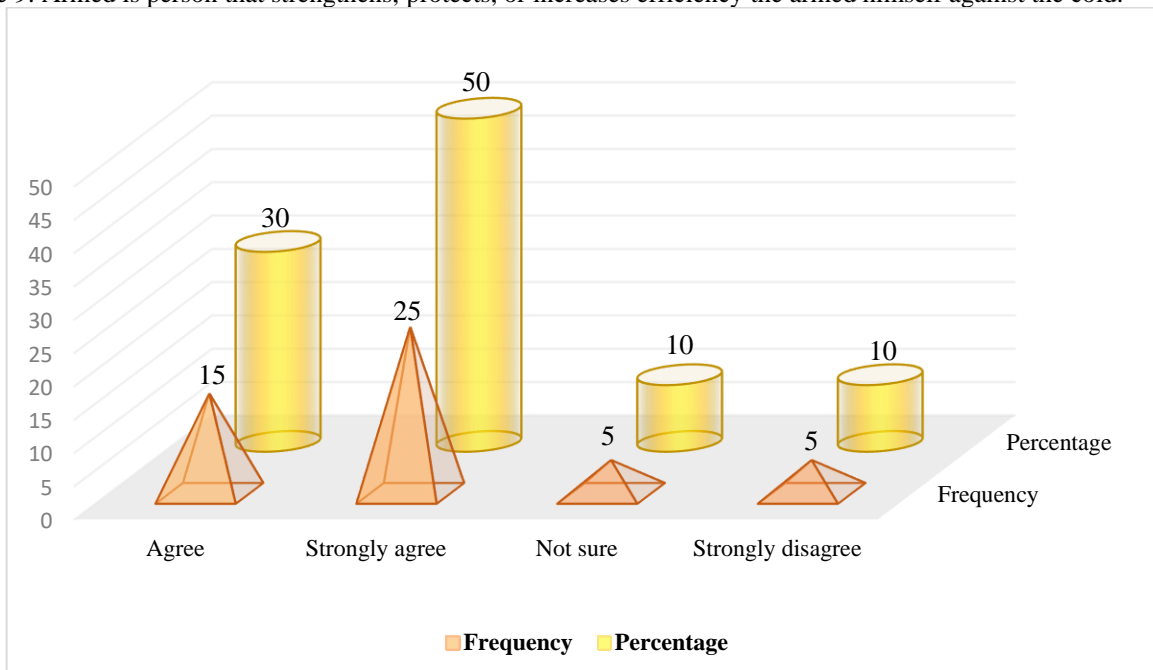
The results in figure 4.8 indicated that 58% and 10 of the respondents have strongly agree and agreed with statement that conflict is the consequence of a clash of interests between two parties, groups, or countries due to chasing contrasting or incompatible goal while 22% were not sure, and only 10% strongly disagree with above statements.

Table 9: Armed is person that strengthens, protects, or increases efficiency the armed himself against the cold.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	15	30.0	30.0	30.0
Strongly agree	25	50.0	50.0	80.0
Not sure	5	10.0	10.0	90.0
Strongly disagree	5	10.0	10.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 9: Armed is person that strengthens, protects, or increases efficiency the armed himself against the cold.



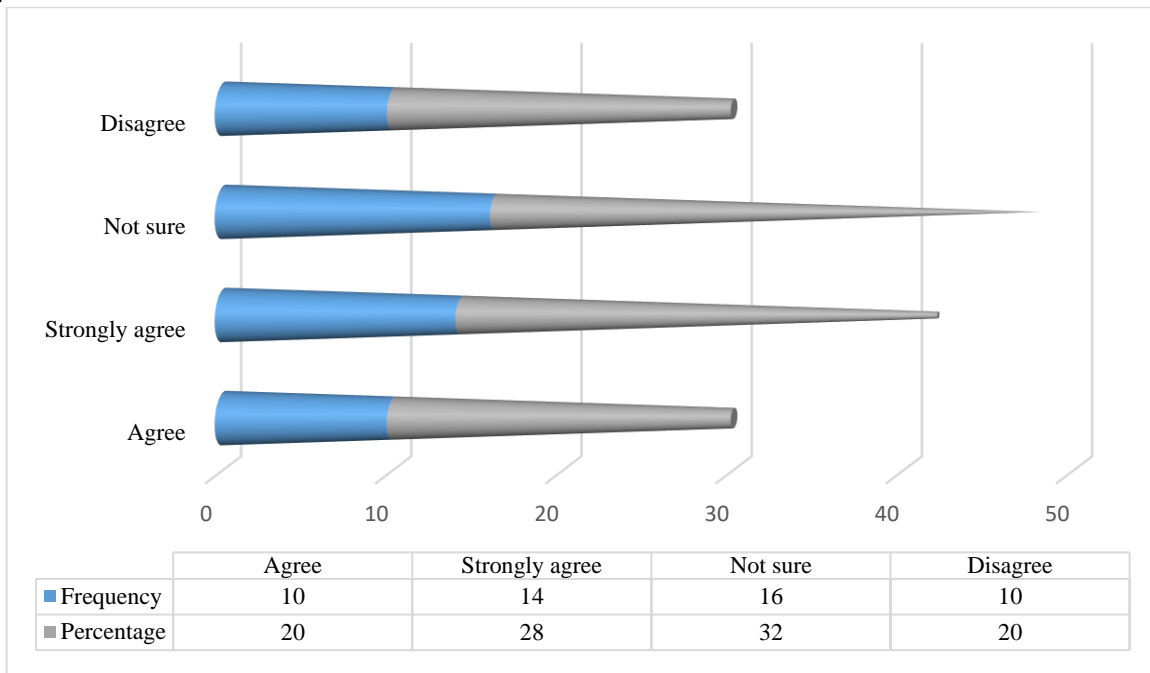
The results in figure 4.9 indicated that 50% and 30% of the respondents have strongly agree and agreed with statement that armed is person that strengthens, protects, or increases efficiency the armed himself against the cold while 10% were not sure and strongly disagree with above statements respectively.

Table 10: Armed usually occurs primarily as a result of a clash of interests in the relationship between parties groups and states.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	10	20.0	20.0
	Strongly agree	14	28.0	48.0
	Not sure	16	32.0	80.0
	Disagree	10	20.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 10: Armed usually occurs primarily as a result of a clash of interests in the relationship between parties groups and states.



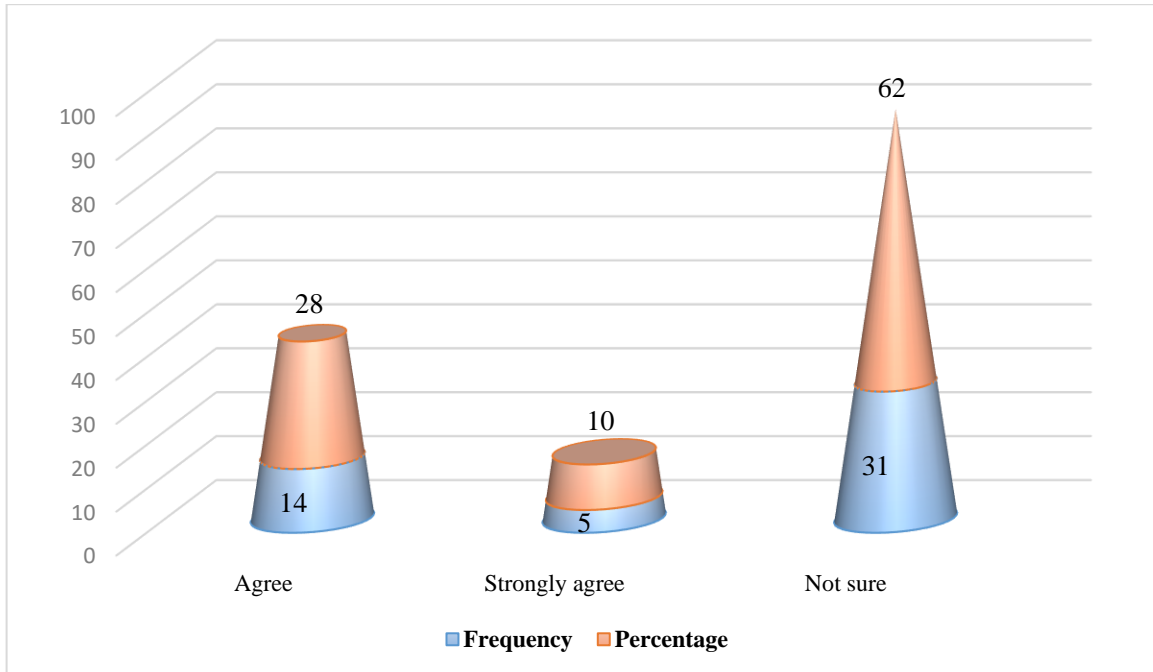
The results in figure 4.10 indicated that majority of 28% of the respondents have strongly agree that armed usually occurs primarily as a result of a clash of interests in the relationship between parties groups and states furthermore, 20 others agreed with the statement. 32% were not sure with the above mentioned statement while 20% disagree.

Table 11: On 24 June 2008, the south Sudan Air force was formally created by the southern Sudan legislative assembly.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	14	28.0	28.0
	Strongly agree	5	10.0	38.0
	Not sure	31	62.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 11: On 24 June 2008, the south Sudan Air force was formally created by the southern Sudan legislative assembly.



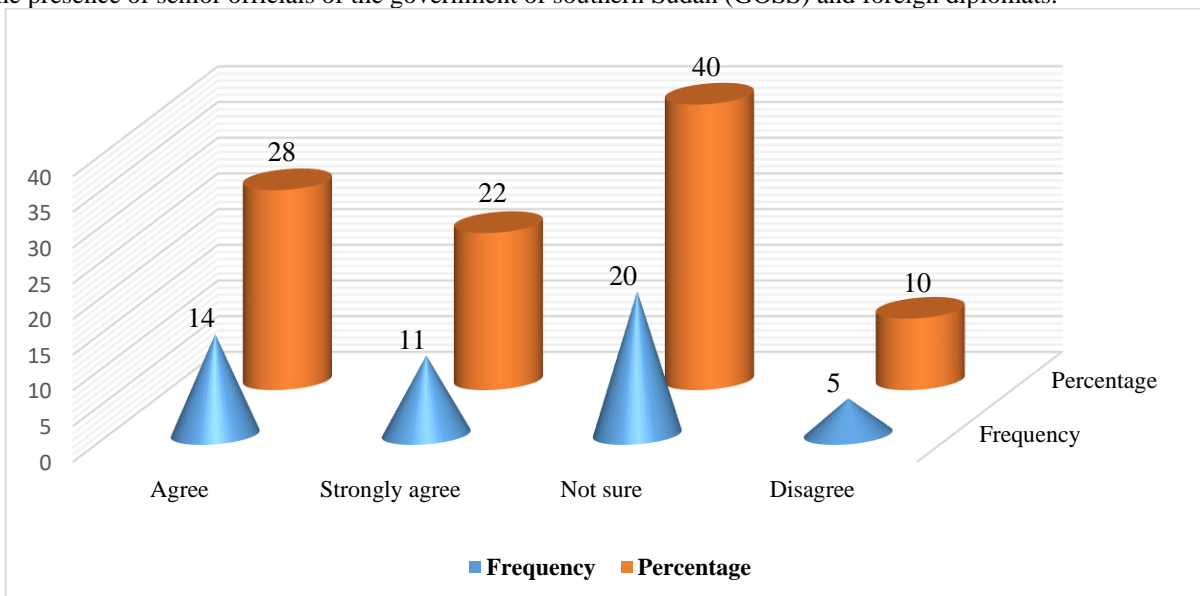
The finding in figure 4.11, 73% and 13.3% were strongly agree and agree accordingly with statement that on 24 June 2008, the south Sudan Air force was formally created by the southern Sudan legislative assembly. while 6.7% of the respondents were not sure and disagree respectively. Base on the finding above in figure 4.11, it shows that early children affect their empowerment opportunity.

Table 12: On 11 January 2011, President Salva Kiir Mayardit launched the region's air force as the south Sudan Air force in the presence of senior officials of the government of southern Sudan (GOSS) and foreign diplomats.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	14	28.0	28.0	28.0
Strongly agree	11	22.0	22.0	50.0
Not sure	20	40.0	40.0	90.0
Disagree	5	10.0	10.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 12: On 11 January 2011, President Salva Kiir Mayardit launched the region's air force as the south Sudan Air force in the presence of senior officials of the government of southern Sudan (GOSS) and foreign diplomats.



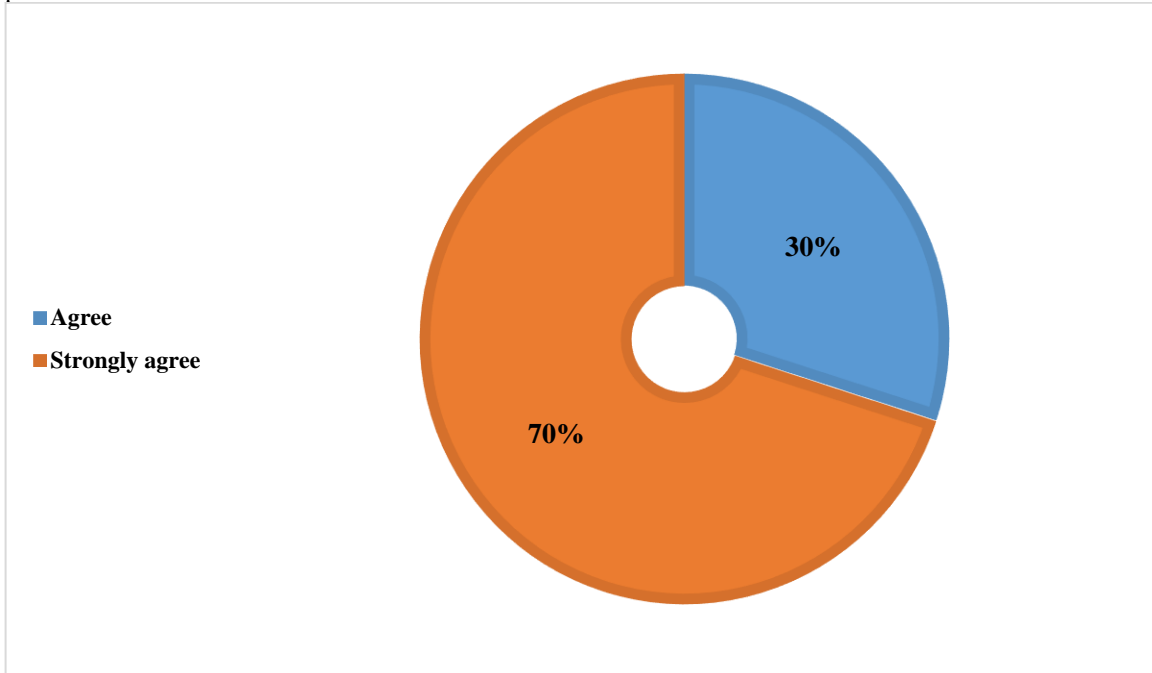
The finding in figure 4.12y, 22% and 28% were strongly agree and agree accordingly with statement that On 11 January 2011, President Salva Kiir Mayardit launched the region's air force as the south Sudan Air force in the presence of senior officials of the government of southern Sudan (GOSS) and foreign diplomats while 40% of the respondents were not sure and disagree respectively. However, 10% of respondents disagree with the above statement.

Table 13: The SPLA was founded as guerrilla movement against the government of Sudan in 1983 and was a key participant of the second Sudanese civil war.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Agree	15	30.0	30.0	30.0
Strongly agree	35	70.0	70.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 13: The SPLA was founded as guerrilla movement against the government of Sudan in 1983 and was a key participant of the second Sudanese civil war.



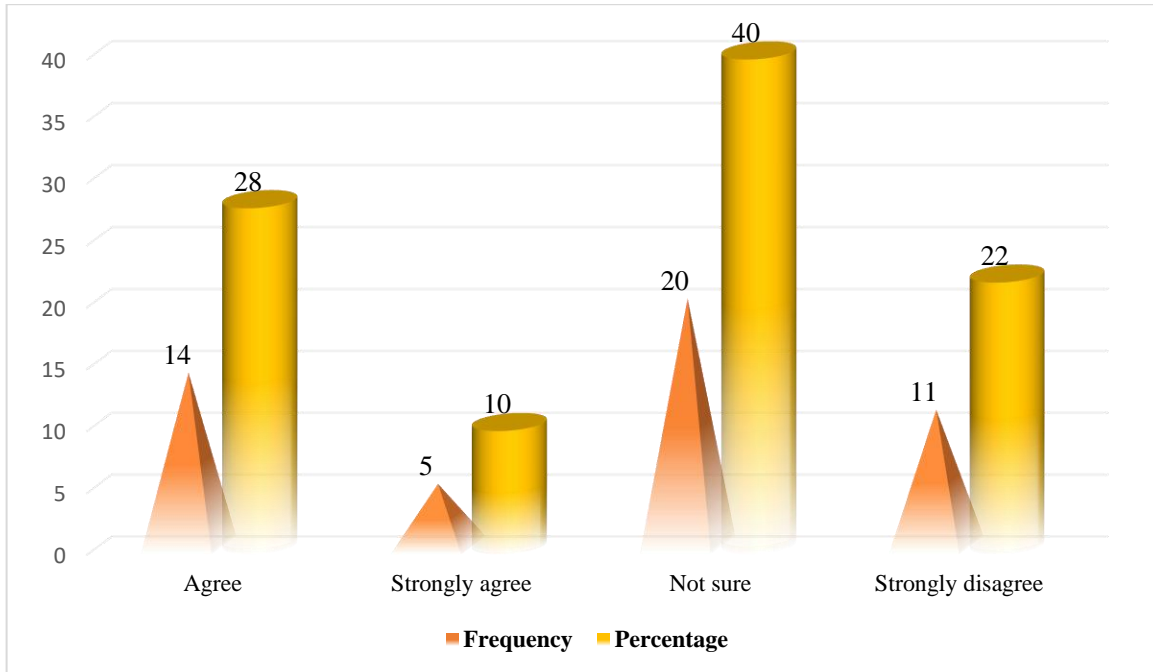
According to level of awareness on the impact of early child marriage in figure 4.13 results, 70% of the respondents were strongly agreed that the SPLA was founded as guerrilla movement against the government of Sudan in 1983 and was a key participant of the second Sudanese civil war, in addition to 30% who agreed with above mentioned statement.

Table 14: Force that confronted SPLA were the Murahaleen militaries in northern Bahr el Ghazal.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Agree	14	28.0	28.0	28.0
Strongly agree	5	10.0	10.0	38.0
Not sure	20	40.0	40.0	78.0
Strongly disagree	11	22.0	22.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 14: Force that confronted SPLA were the Murahaleen militaries in northern Bahr el Ghazal.



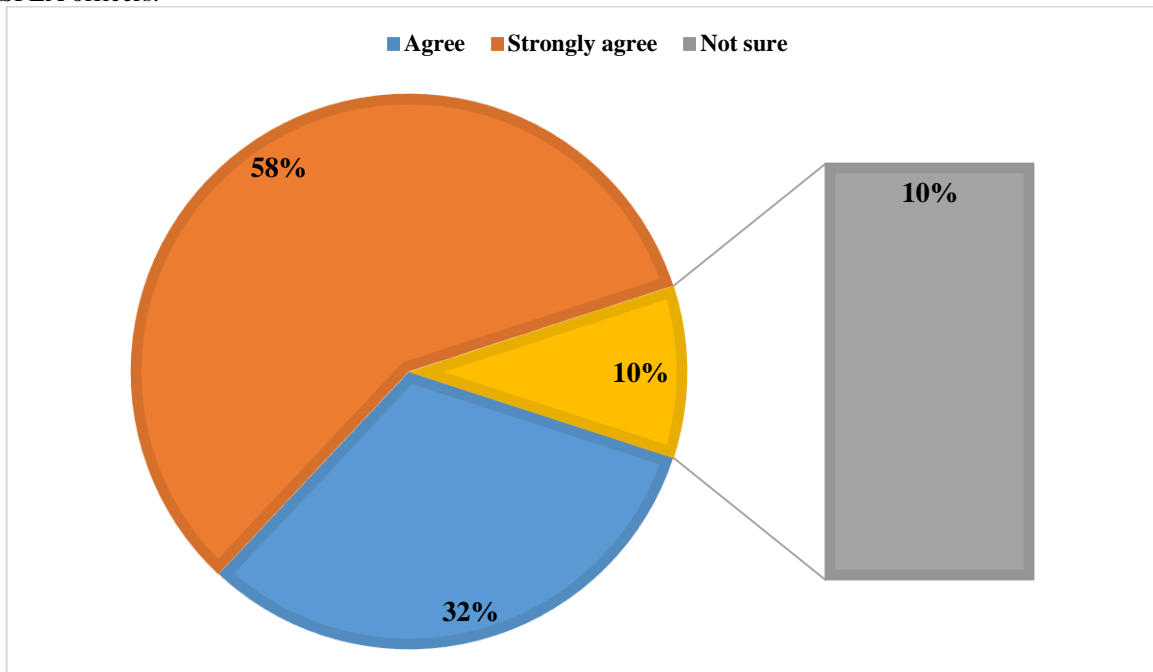
The figure 4.14 results indicate 20% of the respondents have agreed that force that confronted SPLA were the Murahaleen militaries in northern Bahr el Ghazal, 10% others strongly agree while 40% were not sure. On the other hands 22% strongly disagree with statement.

Table 15: Gen. Dominic Dim Deng died in a plane crash in 2008 alongside his wife, Josephine Apieu Jenaro Aken, and other SPLA officers.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Agree	16	32.0	32.0	32.0
Valid Strongly agree	29	58.0	58.0	90.0
Valid Not sure	5	10.0	10.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 15: Gen. Dominic Dim Deng died in a plane crash in 2008 alongside his wife, Josephine Apieu Jenaro Aken, and other SPLA officers.



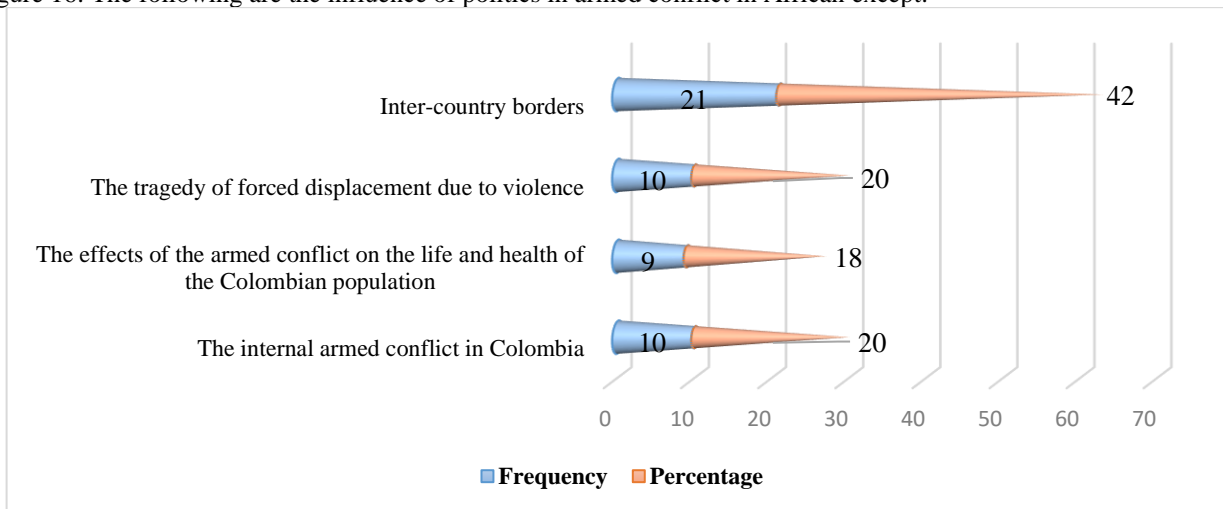
According to figure 4.15 results, 58% in addition to 32% of the respondents strongly agree and agree that Gen. Dominic Dim Deng died in a plane crash in 2008 alongside his wife, Josephine Apiou Jenaro Aken, and other SPLA officers, while 10% were not sure with the statement.

Table 16: The following are the influence of politics in armed conflict in African except:

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
The internal armed conflict in Colombia	10	20.0	20.0	20.0
The effects of the armed conflict on the life and health of the Colombian population	9	18.0	18.0	38.0
The tragedy of forced displacement due to violence	10	20.0	20.0	58.0
Inter-country borders	21	42.0	42.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 16: The following are the influence of politics in armed conflict in African except:



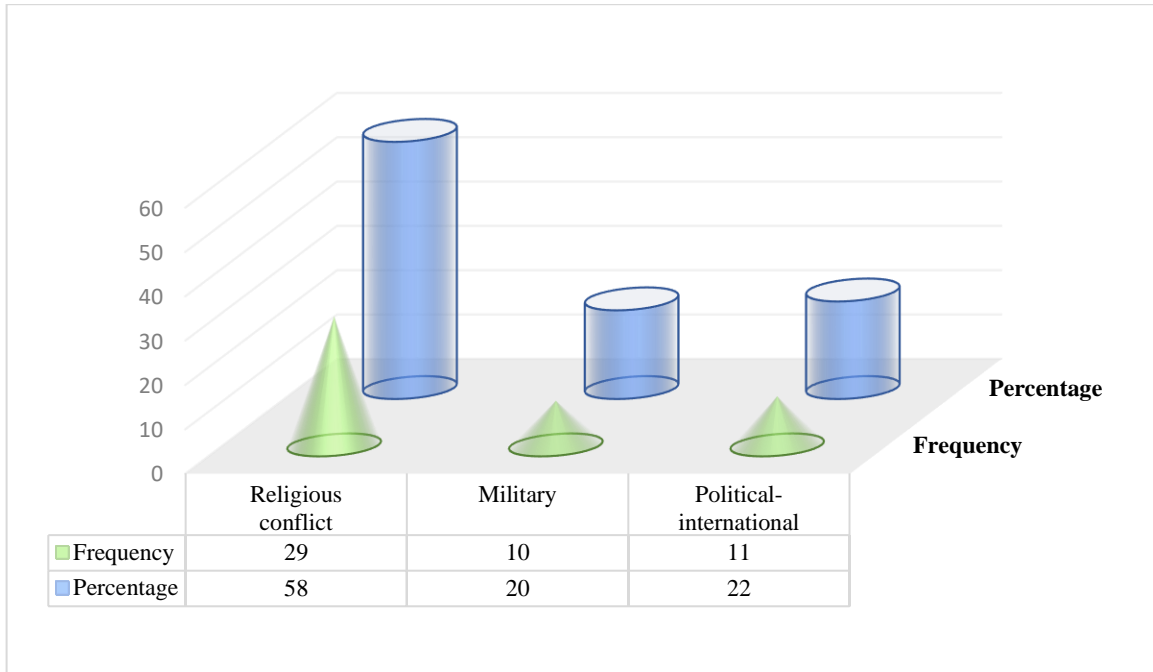
It has shown in figure 4.16 result that inter-country borders 42% influence politics in armed conflict, the internal armed conflict and the tragedy of forced displacement due to violence constituted 20% respectively while the effects of the armed conflict on the life and health constituted 18%.

Table 17: Which of the following is not factors influence politics armed conflict in Africa?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Religious conflict	29	58.0	58.0	58.0
Military	10	20.0	20.0	78.0
Political-international	11	22.0	22.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 17: Which of the following is not factors influence politics armed conflict in Africa?



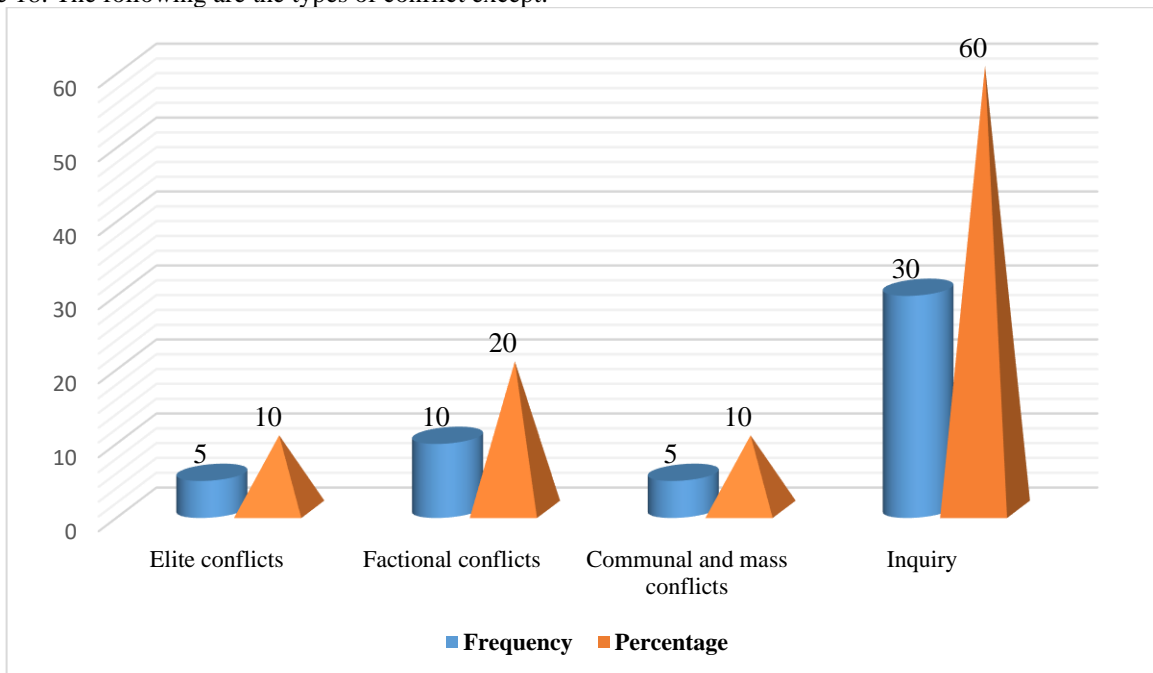
In regard to not factors influence politics armed conflict in Africa figure 4.17, religious conflict constitute 58%, 20% of the respondents indicated political international and military constitute 20% of total respondents.

Table 18: The following are the types of conflict except:

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Elite conflicts	5	10.0	10.0	10.0
Factional conflicts	10	20.0	20.0	30.0
Communal and mass conflicts	5	10.0	10.0	40.0
Inquiry	30	60.0	60.0	100.0
Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data (questionnaire) 2021

Figure 18: The following are the types of conflict except:



According to figure 4.18 result, 60% of respondents have stated inquiry is not the type of conflict. However, factional conflicts which constituted 20% elite conflicts 10% and communal and mass conflict 10% were the main types of conflict.

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

5.0. Introduction

This chapter summarizes the findings, discussions, conclusions and recommendations based on the analysis in chapter four. It also outlines the contribution to the body of knowledge and suggestions for further research.

5.1 Summary of Findings

This section provides a summary of the findings as presented in chapter four of the study. In reference to demographic characteristic, the study sought to establish the respondents' the influence of politics in armed conflict in Africa. The findings indicated that 56% leading average presents males while females constituted remaining portion of 44% of the respondents which enabled the research to attain its objectives. The finding, shows that 60% of the respondents were those whose ages fall between 26 to 30 years old, 30% of the respondents were those whose ages ranged from 31 to 40 years. And those whose ages ranged from 18-25 years were the minority with an average of 10% of the total respondents. In regard to marital status of the respondents, the finding indicated that 50% of the respondents were both single and married respondents. This mean most of the respondents according to this research were both single and married couple. The finding, shows that 80% of the respondents were holders of Bachelor Degree Program, 10% were both secondary certificate and master's degree holders respectively. This mean the majority of the respondents were at university level and this imply that there is an increase in literacy rate in the communities. The finding, shows that 50% of the respondents were government employee, 40% were students, and only 10% of the respondents were civil servant. This mean majority of the respondents were government employee.

5.2. Summary of the Findings

The finding, indicated that 58% and 29% of the respondents were agree and strongly agree respectively that influence is the power to have an important effect on someone of something. The results shows that 60% of the respondents have strongly agree and 30% of the respondents have agreed that politics is the set of activities that are associated with the governance of a country, state or area. 10% of the respondents have strongly agree. The results indicated that 58% and 10 of the respondents have strongly agree and agreed with statement that conflict is the consequence of a clash of interests between two parties, groups, or countries due to chasing contrasting or incompatible goal while 22% were not sure, and only 10% strongly disagree with above statements. The results indicated that 50% and 30% of the respondents have strongly agree and agreed with statement that armed is person that strengthens, protects, or increases efficiency the armed himself against the cold while 10% were not sure and strongly disagree with above statements respectively. The results indicated that majority of 28% of the respondents have strongly agree that armed usually occurs primarily as a result of a clash of interests in the relationship between parties groups and states furthermore, 20 others agreed with the statement. 32% were not sure with the above mentioned statement while 20% disagree. The finding, 73% and 13.3% were strongly agree and agree accordingly with statement that on 24 June 2008, the south Sudan Air force was formally created by the southern Sudan legislative assembly. while 6.7% of the respondents were not sure and disagree respectively. Base on the finding above in figure 4.11, it shows that early children affect their empowerment opportunity. The finding shows that, 22% and 28% were strongly agree and agree accordingly with statement that On 11 January 2011, President Salva Kiir Mayardit launched the region's air force as the south Sudan Air force in the presence of senior officials of the government of southern Sudan (GOSS) and foreign diplomats while 40% of the respondents were not sure and disagree respectively. However, 10% of respondents disagree with the above statement. According to level of awareness on the impact of early child marriage in figure 4.13 results, 70% of the respondents were strongly agreed that the SPLA was founded as guerrilla movement against the government of Sudan in 1983 and was a key participant of the second Sudanese civil war, in addition to 30% who agreed with above mentioned statement. The results indicate 20% of the respondents have agreed that force that confronted SPLA were the Murahaleen militias in northern Bahr el Ghazal, 10% others strongly agree while 40% were not sure. On the other hands 22% strongly disagree with statement. According to results, 58% in addition to 32% of the respondents strongly agree and agree that Gen. Dominic Dim Deng died in a plane crash in 2008 alongside his wife, Josephine Apieu Jenaro Aken, and other SPLA officers, while 10% were not sure with the statement. It has shown that inter-country borders 42% influence politics in armed conflict, the internal armed conflict and the tragedy of forced displacement due to violence constituted 20% respectively while the effects of the armed conflict on the life and health constituted 18%. In regard to not factors influence politics armed conflict in Africa, religious conflict constitute 58%, 20% of the respondents indicated political international and military constitute 20% of total respondents. According to result, 60% of respondents have stated inquiry is not the type of conflict. However, factional conflicts which constituted 20% elite conflicts 10% and communal and mass conflict 10% were the main types of conflict.

5.3 Conclusions

From the results in chapter four, political conflicts can be characterized by “major tactical and strategic use of organized violence in an attempt by political and military elites to gain a favorable outcome in an ongoing, group conflict interaction process. Some conflicts are of smaller magnitude and take a shorter duration when compared to those that later become a longlasting civil war or genocide. The African continent has experienced all these sorts of conflicts, which can be attributed

to the political instability of the region. The study clearly indicates that social, economic, and political factors are significantly correlated to conflicts in Africa.

Failure to address any conflict in a manner perceived as respecting citizens' rights will lead to more conflicts. Violence begets violence. State intimidation and human rights abuse are a trigger of violence. Political effectiveness which measures government stability, was significant in reducing the number of political conflicts. This means that any regime has leadership turnover as leaders who overstay are likely to encourage citizens to force them out of office or the military to engage in a coup.

Weak or fragile states face a diverse range of threats, both internal, such as from armed factions and minority rebellions, and external such as from regional actors or spillover fighting from neighboring states. This study concludes that a country with stronger institutions that are crucial in managing group grievance and allow political participation has minimal political conflicts. A country that is accountable and transparent is likely to see few political conflicts. Likewise, citizens who trust their government to address their grievances in a transparent way are likely to have less motivation to engage in a political conflict.

Social cohesion is key in making sure a country is stable. The social tension created by different cleavages such as ethnic and religious divisions are likely to trigger political conflicts.

While ethnicity is an endogenous factor, religious diversity is more exogenous in itself. However, these identity groups seek different things such as autonomy, recognition, and inclusion in the decision-making process. The political elites have to ensure that they do not manipulate these groups for support or incite them to fight each other. Countries with a high level of ethnic and linguistic fractionalization can be considered as more vulnerable or fragile to high chances of ethnic conflicts. A higher measure of religious fractionalization can be a sign of a more tolerant and democratic form of government. While ethnic and linguistic fractionalization are associated with negative outcomes in terms of quality of government, religious fractionalization is not; in fact, if anything, this measure displays a positive correlation with measures of good governance.

There's clear evidence that social vulnerability has a significant impact on political, as well as economic vulnerability. Ethnic polarization is key in most of these African countries in ensuring that perception of relative deprivation does not trigger ethnic conflicts. While social cleavages such as ethnicity and religion are more endogenous, how a state handles these groups is important. Highly fractionalized countries have to ensure that there are stable institutions that enjoy popular legitimacy, exemplified by competitive elections and fair representation.

5.4 Recommendations

- This study recommends that modern and best practice approaches be adopted in the mediation of conflicts in Africa with specific reference being the South Sudan conflict.
- It also recommends that the political leaders be fully included in the mediation processes both at domestic and international dimensions.
- The study recommends that political leaders be given prominent and active roles in the mediation of conflicts among communities and nations to sustain peace, enhance harmony and reduction of future conflicts as currently witnessed in South Sudan.
- The study additionally recommends for the inclusion of the political communal elders in all state negotiated peace noting their contribution in respect of the decision and outcome as arrive at. The council of leaders should be used alongside the normal court decision to supplement the justice systems in any state around the globe.
- Most states in South Sudan still hold their leaders in high esteem and hold onto their customary laws therefore role of government in mediation is still relevant.
- As a result there is need to merge the formal and informal approaches in international conflict management, charters, and treaties especially in Africa since it has been found to have positive impact on conflict management and resolution.
- The study recommends that all societies in South Sudan over take steps to strengthen the activities of the political leaders most importantly in the management of peace and conflicts.
- Government should be provided with resources, finances and training to enable them be more knowledgeable in the current peace and mediation efforts.
- Their ventures in peacemaking and mediation should also be given due recognition by the regional, sub-regional and conflict management institutions around the globe.
- There is need to constantly and regularly train and hold seminar sessions for the political leaders to capacity build them in conflict management processes especially in mediation and arbitration to increase their skills and expertise in early warning systems, prevention and solution of both internal and international conflicts.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Studies

Based on the key findings the following thematic areas are recommended for further research:

- Role of politician in decision making processes in South Sudan given the assumption that most politicians are partisan to the dominant ruling political party.
- The impacts of political leaders in managing international conflicts.
- How to reconcile political arbitration systems and formal justice systems, or at least narrow the gap between the two.
- Re-aligning the Local government act with the permanent South Sudan Constitution.

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SECTION A:

This section can be referred to as the references found in Books as under:

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SECTION C:

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