The Influence of Armed Conflict and Governance on Socio-economic Development in Central Equatoria, South Sudan

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to examine the implications and to evaluate the relationship between armed conflict, Governance and Socio-Economic development in South Sudan, with Central Equatoria a case study. The study also investigated the factors of armed conflict and Governance on Economic development. Both qualitative and quantitative Statistical approaches were employed as well as a cross-sectional, descriptive and inferential statistical method of analysis. The study sample size was 348 people selected from Central Equatoria by use of Probability sampling methods. The sample size was determined by using Krejcie and Morgan Table (1970) formula and the data analysis was made using the Statistical Package for Social sciences (SPSS version 18). The major findings of the study were that: there was a positive relationship between armed conflict and socio-economic development \( r = 0.691, \) P-value < 0.01 which implied that armed conflict affects socio-economic development of Central Equatoria, such that, if there was an armed conflict in Central Equatoria, then the economic development of Central Equatoria slows down; the study also revealed a positive significant relationship between governance and socio-economic development \( r = 0.446, \) P-value < 0.01 which implies that the socio-economic development of Central Equatoria is influenced by the governance. Furthermore, it showed \( R = 0.752 \) a combination of armed conflict and Governance in assessing the level to which they can predict the level of Social economic development in Central Equatoria, such that a one unit change in armed conflict would contribute to a change in Socio-economic development of Central Equatoria by (.752) while a one unit change in governance would contribute to a change in social economic development of Central Equatoria by (.508). It further indicated a statistically significant difference between the number of dependents of the respondents and how likely armed conflict would influence socio-economic development values in Central Equatoria (0.530). Lastly, it indicated a statistically significant difference between gender distribution and how likely armed conflict would influence Socio-economic development in Juba (0.64; Central Equatoria1). The study concluded that, change in armed conflict would contribute to a change in social economic development of Central Equatoria and that governance would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria is evidenced by the result point (0.718). The study also observed that, there is no peace-targeting approach enlisting peace building measures in the former Central Equatoria State (Ye, Lanya, Kajo-keji, Morobo, Terekeka, etc.) that should directly focus on how to combat armed conflict especially the fighters. Consequently, a proper recommendable approach that would be fostering Amnesty programs for fighters, to encourage withdrawal from rebel groups and all guerilla camps, and what government should do so as to realize Peace and Development in South Sudan, was discussed in depth and recommendations are provided in this study.

Keywords: Armed conflict, governance, socio-economic development

1. Introduction

The armed conflict in South Sudan can be attributed to the decline in economic development of the country: the government is finding it difficult to cater for the citizens in the country due to higher inflation in the country. The root causes of armed conflict in the country was politically motivated war, coupled, with lack of accountability, However, unequal distribution of national cake was also considered as a cause. The conflict in the country has made a lot of devastations to both humans and resources in the country. Among scholars who wrote about armed conflict in South Sudan includes Prof. Samson Wassara (Armed conflict Chapter Six ((P.1) and the recent reviews by Blattman & Miguel and Justine(2010). According to the study civil war reduces a country's growth by 85% in the short run (5 years) but, while there is some recovery, still reduces growth by 31% in the long run (35 years). Duponchell (2010) presents evidence that countries that have been longer in civil conflict grow faster, which is consistent with having lower post-conflict equilibrium. (Shahbaz, 2012).
Legitimacy of conflict management and resolution mechanisms is critical, especially in situations of diversity such as in multi-ethnic societies. When conflict resolution mechanisms fail or are considered untrustworthy, insecurity, including fears of physical insecurity can be heightened and individuals and groups are constrained to rely on their own capabilities. Security initiatives undertaken under conditions of deep suspicion of the motives of others combine with limited information can produce security dilemmas. Other forms of insecurity such as food insecurity and famine that may induce desperation and violence are consequences rather than causes of governance failure (Sen, 1989). Poverty does not cause conflict; failure of governance mechanisms can produce distributional and related problems that accentuate cleavage and arouse conflict.

1.1. Definitions of Concepts

1.1.1. Armed Civil Conflict

Armed civil conflict is wide ranging terms, which refers to a variety of violent political phenomena including, insurrections, revolution, rebellions, coups and war. The image it most commonly brings to the mind is that of civil war: which in itself is still a conceptual black box Civil wars have attracted the attention of many Appadurai, (1999) and Luckham, (2002). Most of these studies focus on the state or state institutions as the main actors/targets of armed conflict, while the micro foundations of armed conflict remain less well understood. Micro level analyses of armed conflict are uncommon despite the fact that, at a fundamental level, civil conflict originates from individual behavior, interaction among different prevention of armed conflict. This highlights another neglected dimension of armed conflict in found understanding of not only the mechanisms whereby conflict impacts on household welfare, but also what coping strategies household adopt, as these will impact on the likelihood of resolving the conflict and bringing about sustainable peace.

1.1.2. Governance

Governance is the exercise of political, economic and administrative authority in the management of a country's affairs at all levels the governance "comprises the complex mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, mediate their differences and exercise their legal rights and obligations". Union Development Agency, defines governance as the ability and capacity of a government to fulfill its mission. According to Brinkerhoff, the design and implementation of governance reforms in post-conflict states target three areas namely reconstituting legitimacy, re-establishing security and rebuilding effectiveness. According to a government is essential to providing security, justice, economic, and social functions and to channeling the will, energies, and resources of both the indigenous population and the international community. Good governance is related to a set of values such as participation, accountability, responsiveness and rule of law (Brandi, 2008). Conflict is an attendant feature of human interaction and cannot be eliminated; however, its proper management and transformation are essential for peace and progress in human society. This is why conflict resolution is one of the most important challenges of governance.

1.1.3. Economic Development

Economic development is a process where low income national economies are transformed into modern industrial economies it involves qualitative and quantitative improvements in a country's economy. Political and social transformations are also included in the concept of economic development, in addition to economic changes. Consequently, in the words of economic development is a process whereby an economy's real national income increases over a long period of time. Economic development is generally defined to include improvements in material welfare especially for persons with the lowest incomes, the eradication of mass poverty with its correlates of illiteracy, disease and early death, changes in the composition of inputs and output that generally include shifts in the underlying structure of production away from agricultural towards industrial activities, the organization of the economy in such a way that productive employment is general among the working population rather than the situation of a privileged minority, and the correspondingly greater participation of broad-based groups in making decision about the direction, economic and otherwise, in which they should move their welfare (Shahbaz, 2012). Nevertheless, from an economic theoretical perspective there is no consensus about the impact of conflict on economic performance.

1.2. Background of the Study

Different studies elsewhere are calling attention to the extent of the phenomenon of violence especially to the negative impact of the internal armed conflict on the life and health of the people and on the health sector in different regions of the country. In today's world, one form or another, of conflict does exist in almost every region. However, Zimbabwe and the majority of the Southern African states have for the last decades or so enjoyed relative peace although potions of violence have been reported in a number of these countries. Where, for example, in Madagascar, riotous scenes have erupted, these have been quelled thereby averting armed conflicts, thanks to the interventions of both regional and international blocks. Motivated by the relative peace predominant in the region, there is need to nonscientist the populace of the basic desire to perpetuate and preserve the status of peaceful existence. This paper therefore, examines the implications of armed conflicts in South Sudan. More than 70 per cent of the war casualties are civilians-most of them women and children.

Armed civil conflicts carry various direct and indirect costs which strongly affect the living conditions of households at the time of the conflict and for many years thereafter. Civil wars and violent insurrections kill and injure millions of people every year. They destroy infrastructure, services, assets and livelihoods, displace populations, break social cohesion, institutions and norms and create fear and distrust. Fearon and Laitin (2003) calculate that civil wars have
resulted in three times as many deaths as inter-state wars between states since World War II. Most households affected by armed conflict live in poor countries in Africa, state that in conditions of extreme destitution, poverty and misery, armed civil conflicts are likely to add new forms of vulnerability and exclusion, which in turn may feed into future outbreaks of violence even after the initial conflict has subsided.

The impact of political shocks caused by the outbreak of armed civil conflicts is much less well understood. Recent empirical literature has begun to document the substantial costs that armed conflicts impose on the countries and communities involved. Those costs encompass the most immediate and observable consequences of war-like damages to the national productive structure and the redirection of resources from productive to military uses, as well as the potential impact on the future production capacity of a country. Considerable effort has also been put in to estimating mortality rates in conflict situations (de Walque, 2004; ). The mortality rates can be addressed in conflict affected areas by providing enough midwives to care for them. Armed conflict remains important issue to be addressed in many developing countries like South Sudan. It has therefore also become an important part of the study of economic development, both from a theoretical and empirical perspective. And societies affected by armed conflict and criminal armed violence are often affected economically. These countries are usually in the lower ranks. They are experiencing specific risk factors shaping armed violence onset. For instance, in 2005 22 of the 34 countries farthest from reaching the MDGs are in or emerging from armed conflict, this suggests that armed violence is both a cause and consequence of certain forms of underdevelopment. Risk factors commonly associated with underdevelopment all play an important role in shaping patterns of armed violence: these factors include weak public institutions, systemic economic and horizontal inequalities, persistent exclusion of minority groups, highly unequal gender relations, limited educational opportunities, high rates of unemployment, the presence of organized crime and illicit markets, and the availability of illegal firearms and drugs (Lauren, 2014 ...16). In fact, the crisis in South Sudan has worsened both economic and humanitarian conditions in a country facing acute needs. Fighting and rising insecurity have contributed to deteriorating conditions that are further impacted by the evacuation of many international relief workers (Rodriguez, 2012 p 8). The protection of civilians is the primary humanitarian challenge in South Sudan, and reports indicate that the security forces are, in many areas, divided and/or unable to provide security for either residents or foreigners. In some areas, reports by human rights groups suggest that members of the security forces may have committed serious abuses against civilians. It has decreased the probability of less capacity building and sustainable development by INGOs in a country. Therefore, this study investigates how armed conflict has a sustained effect on Governance and/or economic performance after the conflict in Sudan ended with the independence of South Sudan in July 2011.

1.3. Problem Statement

For almost five years now, South Sudan is living an intense internal armed conflict, as a result of confrontations between the State and different armed organizations. It is due to the establishment of Militias and guerrilla organizations since the 1990s Islamic regime in Sudan, worsened by the eruption and expansion of ethnic politics towards the end of 2013. During this period the internal armed conflict increased and gained complexity because of the diversity of actors, the coincidence of processes encouraged the conflict and led to involvement of different sectors of the civil society. Concomitantly, the rates of different forms of violence such as homicides, disappearances of innocent people, forced displacements and kidnapping reached levels beyond tolerance in the country. The quality of life of the South Sudanese people was seriously affected by the conflict including the health sector. While armed conflict may lead to poor economic performance, the reverse relationship seems equally credible, and this raises challenges against good governance in South Sudan. Comparatively less attention has been devoted to the study of the effects of violent conflicts on governance and Economic development in South Sudan. This is, to a large extent, due to lack of useful and reliable data that enables researchers to explore the relationship between armed conflict, governance and socio-economic development, in a rigorous fashion, that goes beyond discussions of state agency or broad macro analysis. According to Duponchell(2010), an armed conflict is a contested incompatibility which concerns government and/or territory where the use of armed forces between two parties, of which at least one is the government of a state, results in at least 25 battle-related deaths. Armed conflict decreases the probability of capacity building and sustainable development, the data survey conducted by the World Bank in 2006 in Sierra Leone, conflict reduces the number of employees that a firm can hire. Hence, armed violence can result in the loss of fixed assets, the disruption of formal and informal labor markets, reductions in absence of foreign and domestic investment, declining tax revenues and diminishing service-delivery capacities.

1.4. General Objective of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine how armed conflict and governance affect socio-economic development of South Sudan, taking Central Equatoria as a case study.

1.5. Specific Objectives of the Study

- To evaluate the relationship between armed conflict and socio-economic development in central equatoria
- To assess the relationship between governance and socio-economic development
- To study the factors causing armed conflicts and their impacts on governance and socio-economic development in central equatoria
To evaluate the effect of armed conflict in Central Equatoria

1.6. Research Questions
- What is the relationship between armed conflict and socio-economic development in Central Equatoria?
- What is the link between governance and socio-economic development in Central Equatoria?
- What are the effects of armed conflicts and bad governance on socio-economic development in Central Equatoria?
- What are the causes and effect of armed conflicts in Central Equatoria?

1.7. Hypothesis of the Study
- Hypothesis One: There is significant positive relationship between governance and socio-economic development in Central Equatoria
- Hypothesis Two: Governance is less likely to influence socio-economic development in Central Equatorial State
- Hypothesis Three: The most influential predictor of social and Economic development in South Sudan is the Armed Conflict

1.8. Significance of the Study
The following constitute the positive implications for carrying out this research: The findings from the study can contribute to the academic knowledge and may be used by other researchers interested in carrying out similar research as source of reference. It can provide information for policy makers of government of South Sudan and can contribute to the practical implementation and strategy formulation in South Sudan.

1.9. Scope and Description of the Study Model
The study focused on identifying how armed conflicts and governance influence socio-economic development in South Sudan, with particular emphasis on Central Equatoria. In this study, armed conflict was taken as independent variable with four (4) indicators, Socio economic as dependent variable with five (5) indicators and Governance as the intervening variable with four (4) indicators. The study variables were all measured using five Likert Scale (Refer to Chapter three for details). It is worth noting that, the study was conducted between September 2015 and October 2016 in Central Equatoria and therefore, the results of this study may be limited and its recommendations are strictly applicable to Central Equatoria.
people. Governance is measured using participation, accountability, responsiveness and rule of law that was used (Brandi (2008). Socio-economic performance is measured based on the model of Shahbaz, (2012), using attributes such as life sustenance, self-esteem, attitude towards education, freedom and Per capita income.

1.10. Organization of the Study

This study is divided into six chapters: chapter one introduces the study, it presents a brief background about the subject of the study, problem statement, its general and specific objectives, the research questions and hypothesis, significance of the study and what is achieved out of the study. It also presents conceptual framework of the research, the link between the variables under study and the organization of the study. Chapter Two presents the literature review, chapter three outlines the methodology of the study and the techniques applied to obtain the data, chapter four presents the analysis and interpretation of the study findings, chapter five contains discussion of the findings and chapter six presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations given by the researcher.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the literature, theoretical framework and previous related studies conducted on the field of study. The specific areas covered here are the relationship between armed conflict and socio-economic development, relationship between governance and socio-economic development, factors causing armed conflicts and their effects on governance and socio-economic development.

2.2. The Relationship between Armed Conflict and Economic Development

2.2.1. Armed Conflicts

Hazen (2008) defines the term “armed conflict” as the intentional use of illegitimate force (actual or threat) with arms or explosives, against a person, group, community or state, which undermines people-centered security and/or sustainable development. Often, it is prolonged conflict carried on between states, nations, or other parties typified by extreme aggression, social disruption, and high mortality thereby hampering development. On one hand, The Use of Force defines armed conflict as the presence of organized groups that are engaged in intense fighting. On the other hand, armed conflict as organized collective violent confrontation between at least two groups, either state or non-state actors. Armed conflicts are typically accompanied by large population movements. Civilian populations are often targeted for both armies and rebel groups trying to expand their territorial control, weaken support for opposing groups, increase their own support base and/or add to their resources through looting and appropriation of valuable assets and sites. This leads to population flights from areas of more intense fighting or areas where the outbreak of violence is expected. In 2002, almost 35 million people across the world were forced to seek asylum in another country or within the national borders due to violent conflicts. 25 million people were displaced in 2004, 2005, many were displaced within their own country in 2006. By cutting off a large number of people from economic opportunities, internal conflicts can lead to a vicious cycle of displacement and household poverty from which it is difficult to escape. This is made worse by the destruction of social networks and the consequent depletion of important elements of the social, economic and political capital of the poor. Refugees from conflict areas and displaced populations are found to be living under the most difficult forms of socio-economic exclusion and deprivation the literature has distinguished between different types of displacement, including forced migration, asylum seeking, and refugees. Asylum seekers and forced migrants are, to a large extent, young economically active household members. They have always been traditionally the most likely members of the society to migrate. In conflict settings, this effect is compounded by the fact that they are also the most probable targets for violence and forced recruitment into armies or rebel groups or other displaced groups such as the elderly, women and children are overrepresented amongst refugees from conflict areas. Despite these facts, there is little empirical evidence available on the effects of violent conflict on the experience of displaced households and individuals, the breakdown of societies and the destruction of social networks. Most researches so far have focused on collecting event data based on counting numbers of refugees but not necessarily internally displaced populations or numbers of deaths among these groups. This is because most individual- and household-based datasets tend not to follow migrants, and even less internally displaced populations. Kondylis (2005) study analyzed empirically the cost of displacement at the household level. From displaced households in Columbia to estimate welfare losses, assess how displaced households smooth their consumption, and analyzes the strategies they adopt. Their results indicate that forced displacement entails significant asset losses, limits the ability of households to generate new sources of income, disrupts risk-sharing mechanisms amongst affected communities, and forces households to rely on costly strategies in order to continue smooth consumption. Displacement entails, in addition, significant labor effects, which further limit the capacity of households to recover from welfare losses during the conflict. In the context of displaced Bosnians during the 1992-95 war, Kondylis (2007) shows that displaced populations are less likely to work in the post-conflict period (by 7 and 5 percentage points, respectively for men and women. These effects have important long-term impacts. The establishments of sustainable patterns of peace and conflict resolution depend largely on the successful integration of displaced populations into society as displaced populations as well as demobilized combatants may provide the basis for opposing political factions to continue expanding violence. The demobilization of troops and returned refugees and displaced populations may also create competition for available scarce resources such as jobs, land, assets, available services like health care and so forth, which may, in turn, create new forms of exclusion and renewed sources of instability. Slowly emerging evidence has shown that productivity levels of returnees...
tend to be lower than those that stayed behind, which may cause difficulties in terms of reintegration of these individuals into their original communities (Kondylis, 2005), if their original communities exist at all after the conflict. In contrast, in the context of young Congolese men in Ugandan refugee camps, Clark (2006, 2007) shows that conflict may create the scope for new forms of household dynamics, social decision-making and livelihood strategies, as these young people break with the traditional norms and values imposed by older generations. There is, however, no study that quantifies the impact of these changes on household welfare. In a pioneering study using a unique dataset, Deininger, Ibanez and Querubin (2004) analyze return patterns of displaced populations during the Colombian conflict. Their results show that the desire to return is very much influenced by particular characteristics of the household and the displacement process. In general, agricultural employers, in the origin and reception sites, families with access to land or households with a dense social network in the origin will be more willing to return to their village. On the other hand, vulnerable families, such as households with one parent, with female heads or large dependency ratios (often found overrepresented amongst the chronically poor), show a strong preference for settling in the reception site. Households tend to be less willing to return to their place of origin when displacement was caused by distressing events or if security fears are still present. These emerging results show a pattern of welfare fragility and high socio-economic vulnerability amongst displaced populations, including those who decide to return to their site of origin. These findings have enormous implications for post-conflict reconstruction policies, suggesting that these policies must not only be concerned with adequate reintegration of these groups into the society (either in new relocation regions or in sites of origin), but need also to create forms of assistance aimed to help returnee populations access new or renewed markets and employment. Armed conflicts have profound effects on social relations between family members, neighbors and friends, on how communities relate internally and with other communities and on the operation of local institutions and their relation with state-level institutions. These changes are caused to a large extent by changes in household composition and the displacement and migration of households to safer areas as already discussed. They are also caused by the dynamics of the conflict itself, such as people informing on each other, different groups turning against each other, and loss of trust amongst communities. These effects result often in changes and/or the breakdown of social relations and social cohesion and in loss of risk-sharing arrangements. In other words, the violence generated by armed conflict will result in a breakdown of the main components of social capital in any given society (Wood 1995). Social capital is fundamental to the establishment of social cohesion and economic stability, as well as creating the conditions for successful and sustainable economic growth. One of the most tragic outcomes of armed conflict is the breakdown or the outright destruction of social capital and the social fabric. The impact of this breakdown on household welfare can be dramatic as households will no longer be able to rely on community relations in times of difficulty, will not be able to access particular employment or credit arrangements based on informal ties and may even be excluded from new institutional processes. In addition, political forces may strengthen some forms of social capital that either feed into conflict itself or constitute the ‘tipping point’ for the outbreak of violence. This was clear in the case of Rwanda, where the 1994 genocide was responsible for one of the most distressing collapses of social cohesion in modern times. At the same time, the conflict and the genocide were fomented by the reinforcement and politicization of intergroup cooperation and association. In the words of the authors, “the genocide was in a frightening way, an exercise in communal cooperation and organization among the participating Hutu. “Without the conversion of social capital to bond the Hutu together it is doubtful, that the genocide could have been unleashed at such a rapid pace with such tragic consequences. This case study illustrates how armed conflict can both lead to and result from the destruction and manipulation of forms of social capital and illustrates clearly what Kalyv as (2000) has designated by the ‘dark side of social capital’. Very few research studies, and even less policy documents, reflect on the key relevance of these processes in maintaining peace and contributing towards the recovery of household welfare in the post-conflict period. ICRC (2008) defines the term armed conflict as protracted armed confrontations occurring between governmental armed forces and the forces of one or more armed groups, or between such groups arising on the territory of a State (party to the Geneva Conventions). The armed confrontation must reach a minimum level of intensity and the parties involved in the conflict must show a minimum of organization and have the capacity to sustain military operations. Two main effects of conflict can be considered on existing markets: through trade (the buying and selling of commodities) and employment. The impact of exchange and employment factors on household welfare in developing countries has traditionally been analyzed within the framework provided by the household farm. This model allows for capturing behavioral interactions of households for whom agriculture constitutes the main source of income. The model combines production, consumption and labor supply decisions within the same decision unit, so that households produce both for consumption and for sale and are, at the same time, inputs providers and inputs buyers. These features are common in many developing countries. According to this framework, households make decisions regarding exchange (consume or sell) and labor allocations (farm and non-farm) depending on the income or profit derived from household’s production. This depends in turn on four key factors: the market price of goods sold and purchased by the household, the price of a staple good produced (and possibly sold) by the household, the market price of labor (wage) and profit obtained from their market activities. Changes in the price of staple goods are of key importance for household decisions. Whenever the price of agricultural staple increases, the household will be expected to decrease its consumption. But if the household is a consumer as well as a producer of that good the positive profit effect of the price change, which may well outweigh its negative effect on consumption should be taken into consideration. This positive profit effect may, in turn, release household labor to off-farm employment. Any economic and political shock will impact on these mechanisms. Empirical evidence on price effects of armed conflict is scarce though some sparse evidence has reported an increase in prices of staple food. This increase has however been more than offset by reported dramatic decreases in prices of commodities produced and assets held by the household particularly cattle and other livestock, as well as the decrease in access to exchange markets. In particular, the destruction of roads, train lines and other infrastructure will increase transaction costs for households involved in market exchanges.
and, in extreme cases, will result in return to subsistence activities. This is particularly true when markets are themselves destroyed by fighting. The ability of a household to respond to price shocks depends on the sign of the shock, which, in turn, is related to different household types. A negative shock will result in losses in household utility and welfare if the household is not able to switch activities or no alternative activities exist. If the household is able to switch activities in order to take advantage of them (for instance, looting but also possibility of access to new markets, including informal or illegal markets through alliances of support of different fighting factions) then losses may be small or the effect may even be positive. Micro processes of violence during armed conflict cannot be understood without understanding further the role of markets both as an opportunity for predatory behavior and a source of livelihood for those involved in armed conflict. In addition, accommodating the impact of armed violence will transmit the shock to other markets and therefore may set off a series of second-round effects which also need to be considered. Also, very few studies have analyzed the impact of armed conflict on labor markets in South Sudan, whether the supply of labor by households or the demand for household labor from off-farm sources. Analyses of processes leading to the onset of armed conflict often mention the presence of a large group of unemployed youth as a pre-condition for the effective recruitment of fighters and, therefore, for the rise of armed rebel groups. The impact of armed conflict on labor markets remains largely unknown, with the exception of studies that analyses the labor market impact of demobilization and reintegration of ex-fighters and displaced populations in post-conflict settings. It seems evident that households affected by death, illness, or recruitment of their members will be unable to undertake off-farm work as their subsistence labor needs will take priority. It is unclear how these effects will influence existing labor markets, how labor market characteristics (e.g. unemployment, discrimination, exclusion, and so forth) will impact on the process of generation of violence during armed conflict (to control populations, resources and territories) and how labor markets are shaped by armed conflict. Armed civil conflict changes the structure of political institutions, both local and national, as well as their ability to provide public goods and guarantee the establishment of property rights, the rule of law and security. Violent conflicts frequently result from and/or lead to forms of state and governance failure (Zartman, 1995; King and Zheng, 2001). The war effort affects negatively social spending as well as the institutional ability to run the economy, provide even basic social services (such as health care, education, sanitation, etc.) and maintain socio-economic stability. But they also offer important opportunities for new classes of local and regional leaders to challenge political powers (e.g. Reno, 2002). In most conflicts, a number of actors (militia-leaders and members, political elites, businessmen, petty traders, but also households and groups) have tried to improve their position and to exploit the opportunities offered by a context of internal conflict. The result is a profound reshaping of relations between populations, the politico-military or economic elites, and legal and judiciary structures. Political relations are shaped and reshaped during times of conflict; inducing thereby processes of social and political transformation and the One way in which those processes occur is through the emergence of local ‘governance’ structures in places where ‘government’ is absent. In the available literature, such circumstances are usually referred to as state ‘collapse’ (Zartman, 1995). However, the collapse of government Example in Somalia does not necessarily have to be accompanied by the collapse of ‘government.’ The government collapse may rather be accompanied by institutional changes, as different actors replace weak or inexistinstructs in the provision of local public goods, enforcement of property rights and social norms, and provision of security. While development and political science literatures provide substantiated accounts of such institutional changes at the national level, we have only limited evidence on changes of power relations at a grassroots level and their impact on local institutional processes and structures. The important issue in understanding the relationship between the onset and duration of armed conflict is not to equate the rise of conflict with fragile or weak states, but to understand how state and non-state actors interact throughout the conflict, how their different or similar strategies of violence determine population support and territorial control, and how different state and non-state actors’ activities are embedded in different areas and communities. During violent conflicts assets get lost or destroyed through heavy fighting and looting. These include houses, land, labor, utensils, cattle, livestock and other productive assets. The very poor are likely to be the worst affected. 12% of all households lost their house during the 1994 Rwandan genocide, while cattle stock on average decreased by 50%. the homes and livelihoods of around 7% of households were damaged during the civil war in Tajikistan between 1992 and 1998. The Burundi conflict in the 1990s was associated with severe asset depletion (Bundervoet and Verwimp, 2005). In Latin America, violence has significantly affected the efficiency of farm holdings due to the disruption of rural labor markets and limits imposed on the operation of larger farms (Gonzalez and Lopez, 2007 ; Wood,2005 ) The number of deaths and injuries in these conflicts were extremely high (see Verwimp, 2005; Bundervoet and Verwimp, 2005) with unaccountable impacts on individual livelihoods. The destruction of assets, in addition to making for unstable economic, social and political environments, will impact significantly on the ability of affected households to recover their economic and social position in post-conflict settings. On the other hand, armed civil conflicts usually take place because there is something worth fighting for, implying that some groups and individuals will benefit from violence through looting, redistribution of assets during conflict, and privileged access to market and political institutions for those who ‘win’ the conflict or support winning groups during the conflict. These effects are as important in understanding processes of armed conflict as the more negative effects of fighting as both will have significant bearing on the sustainability of peace during the post-conflict period. The investigations conducted elsewhere show that 43 out of every 100 women affected by the internal armed conflict have been victims of different forms of violence based on their gender. In today’s world, with some form of conflict in almost every region, more than 70 per cent of the casualties are civilians-most of them women and children. During conflict and reconstruction, the impact of horrific gender-based violence at societal, community and individual levels is a critical issue. A lot has been said about the effects of the armed conflicts the world over. However, hereunder are reviews of a few of the articles that are accessed on the web to give a brief insight into these effects. The effects are discussed under the headings; Displacement, widowed, Sexual abuse, other abuses and Socio-economic effects. According to Agustiana and Pakpahan
(2004), civilian women and girls face different risks and dangers in armed conflict compared to those faced by civilian men and boys. There is a growing literature and attention to sexual violence and rape as a strategy of warfare. After incidences of sexual violence, women are often rejected by family or community. Despite pity for the trauma the women have suffered, society marks the victims as ‘damaged goods’ (Bennett et al. 1995) The forms of violence used - rape, mass rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced sterilization and the forced termination of pregnancies. The raping of women is a means for the aggressor to symbolically and physically humiliate the defeated men. In some contexts, the actors of the conflict use sexual violence as a punishment and a general warning to the female population within the community under control (Amnesty International, 2004). Rape or the threat of rape is also used to drive communities off lands or to heighten terror during attacks. In recent years rape has also been used to willfully transmit HIV (Smith, 2001). Such cases of abuse have been well documented in Rwanda, Uganda and Sierra Leone. Women and girls have been held against their will and repeatedly raped until they conceive, as in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Rwanda. Sexual slavery is another form of gender-based violence experienced by women and girls during armed conflict. Examples of women and adolescent girls being forced into sexual slavery include East Timorese women abducted during the occupation of the island region, and Rwandan ‘ceiling women’ who were kept in the space between the rafters and roof while their captors were away and then brought down for sexual and domestic slave labor upon the captors’ return (Agustiana and Pakpahan, 2004). An investigation of refugee camps in Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone revealed the sexual exploitation of women, girls and boys by humanitarian workers and peacekeepers in exchange for basic provisions (Benjamin, 2001; UNIFEM. Women who have lost their limbs may be unable to farm and are often abandoned by their husbands Agustiana and Pakpahan, 2004). As members of the civilian population, women experience distinctive economic problems in armed conflict. In many cases women are separated from the men who traditionally may be their source of income. Lack of education and training, their role in caring for others, and general community attitudes make it extremely difficult for women to support themselves financially. In many cultures, moreover, it is women who have the most to gain from economic development, and are thus particularly disadvantaged when these resources are diverted during armed conflict. From the fore-mentioned facts, it can be deduced that conflict involves the use of arms and has to do with two or more warring factions. Armed conflict, therefore, can be viewed as a contested incompatibility which concerns government and/or territory where the use of armed force between two parties, of which at least one is the government of a state, results in at least 25 battle-related deaths (Duponchell, 2010). As such, armed violence can result in the loss of fixed assets, the disruption of formal and informal labor markets, reductions in, or absence of foreign and domestic investment, declining tax revenues and diminishing service-delivery capacities. In short, armed violence undermines development through a detailed survey to 113 Colombian firms located in 6 cities, found that the armed conflict in Colombia negatively affected them. In particular, she found that the conflict increases indirect operational cost. Moreover, the uncertainty generated by the attacks, kidnapping and threats has decreased their investment in research, technology and in hiring more laborers. Armed conflict is measured by attributes including destruction of infrastructure, unprotected human and property rights, loss of lives and displacement of people based on armed conflict model by Blattman, (2010):

- Loss of lives: Civilians in war zones may also be subject to war atrocities such as genocide, while survivors may suffer the psychological aftereffects of witnessing the destruction of war (Dreher, 2010).
- Destruction of infrastructure: During violent armed conflict, assets are lost or destroyed through heavy fighting and looting. For example, the Burundi armed conflict in the 1990s was associated with severe asset depletion (Bandyopadhyay, 2010).
- Forced displacement: Large population movements typically accompany an armed conflict. Asylum seekers and forced migrants are, to a large extent, young economically active household members. Other displaced groups such as the elderly, women and children are overrepresented amongst refugees from armed conflict areas (Berthélemy, 2011).
- Unprotected property rights: International human right law lays down obligations of governments to act in certain ways to refrain from certain acts in order to protect human and property rights and fundamental freedoms of individual and groups. Most often during armed conflicts, human and property rights are infringed upon (Berthélemy, 2006). Humanitarian law applies in armed conflicts, restructuring the actions of warning parties, providing for protection and human treatment of persons who are not taking part in the conflict of those that can longer take part in the armed hostilities (Blattman and Miguel, 2010).

2.2.2. Socio-economic Development

Socio-economic development is a process where low income national economies are transformed into modern industrial economies it involves qualitative and quantitative improvements in a country’s economy. Political and social transformations are also included in the concept of socio-economic development in addition to economic changes. Consequently, the socio-economic development is a process whereby an economy’s real national income increases over a long period of time. Social economic development is generally defined to include improvements in material welfare especially for persons with the lowest incomes, the eradication of mass poverty with its correlates of illiteracy, disease and early death, changes in the composition of inputs and output that generally include shifts in the underlying structure of production away from agricultural, towards industrial activities, the organization of the economy in such a way that productive employment is general among working age population rather than the situation of a privileged minority, and the correspondingly greater participation of broad-based groups in making decision about the direction, economic and otherwise, in which they should move their welfare (Shahbaz, 2012).Introduces social factors as an important phenomenon in the process of socio-economic development. According to him, “development theory is much preoccupied with the rate of social factors as inputs or prerequisites for economic growth. It is widely believed that neglect of these
factors has been a reason for disappointing rate of economic growth. At the same time, it is evident that there is no simple universal law that can be stated regarding the economic impact of education, health, housing and other social components. Socio-economic development includes economic growth measured in terms of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and its distributional dimensions (Shahbaz, 2012). In respect to this, some economists include the role of reducing poverty, provision of improving basic needs, goods and services and reduced inequalities in income distribution in the definition of economic development which can be achieved by increasing the rate of production and employment. Thus, the growth of productive employment is another dimension which is included in the definition of economic development. In 1980, the World Bank outlined the challenges of development as economic growth, and joined the views of observers taking a broader perspective, when, in its 1991 World Development Report, it asserted that the challenge of development is to improve quality of life, especially in the world’s poor countries. A better quality of life generally calls for higher incomes but it involves much more. It encompasses as ends in themselves better education, higher standard of health and nutrition, less poverty, a clearer environment, more equality of opportunity, greater individual freedom, and a richer cultural life.

- **Life Sustenance**: Life sustenance refers to the ability of humans to meet basic needs such as food, shelter, and water that are essential for improvement in the quality of life. In this sense, the basic function of economic activity is to free people from the misery arising from shortage of such basic needs.
- **Self-esteem**: A second universal component of the good life is self-esteem, which refers to self-respect and independence: and for the development of a country it is an essential condition. Developing countries need development for self-esteem to eliminate the feeling of dominance and dependency.
- **Freedom**: A third universal value is the concept of freedom. Freedom here is understood as a fundamental sense of release from freedom, freedom from misery, institutions and dogmatic beliefs. It refers to freedom from three evils of want, ignorance and squalor.
- **Per capita income**: Per capita income has been one of the earliest and also a popular measure of social economic development. It is a primary indicator which measures socio-economic performance of a country (Shahbaz, 2012). Further, for measuring the rate of socio-economic development, national and international agencies mostly use per capita income indicator and it has tremendous conceptual and statistical merits. Per capita income is the best single index which is readily available and an easily assumed measure for classifying countries into developed and less developed, and may be used as a relevant starting point.

There is a relationship between armed conflict and socio-economic development because armed conflict decreases the probability of sustainable development in a country (Camacho and Rodriguez, 2012). As such, armed violence can result in the loss of fixed assets, the disruption of formal and informal labour markets, reductions in (or absence of) foreign and domestic investment, declining tax revenues and diminishing service-delivery capacities. In short, armed violence undermines sustainable development.

### 2.3. The Relationship between Governance and Social Economic Development

#### 2.3.1. Governance

The quality of governance is ultimately attributed to its democratic content. Thereby, the promotion of ‘democratic governance’ is a core element in their development assistance strategy. Human development and governance are inseparable. From the human development perspective good governance is ‘democratic governance. According to Brandi (2008), Democratic Governance is the glue that holds together all the other development priorities set out across the world. In post-conflict societies it is much advocated by the international community that democratic systems provide the best mechanisms for reconciliation and are the best guarantors of lasting peace (Brandi & Clara, 2008). According to Kimble and Pigey (2010), a government is essential to providing security, justice, economic, and social functions and to channeling the will, energies, and resources of both the indigenous population and the international community. According to Shah (2012), governments support peace building through encouraging institutional participation in peace building and democratic process of their countries. The government’s role to peace building is by ensuring that its legitimacy and credibility are intimately tied to a transparent and representative process of policy making by a council of democratically elected community leaders that enjoys legal recognition as an established corporate entity. According to the authors, if this is achieved, leaders are likely to be respected and trusted and this can help to bridge divergent interests and ideas which are fundamental for peace building. Addison and Murshed (2001), point out that an important characteristic of effective local government is its proximity to the recipients of the basic services it provides. Thus, if government is well-recognized for its role in providing basic infrastructure such as drinking water, waste management, construction of latrines and public convenience facilities, recreational facilities and parks, and local roads, it is likely to unite people to work together for peace (Brandi & Clara, 2008). Governance failure in Africa have their roots in several sources, principal among are the legacies of colonialism, the nature of the independence struggle, the character of the post-colonial state and their leaders, and the structure and requirements of the global order. Colonial governance institutions were designed to promote domination and extraction, these being colonialism’s principal mission. Although these institutions were the target of the anti-colonial struggle, they ultimately became colonialism’s legacy to post-colonial governance. Independence struggles around Africa required mobilization and produced movements in which, with few exceptions, decision-making was largely plebiscitary. At independence, African countries maintained over-centralized state institutions that reposed enormous powers in the hands of their “founding fathers.” Political mobilization and plebiscitary decision-making conveniently dominate post-independence governance strategies, especially since the pursuit of development so as to “catch up” was the national pre-occupation. Democracy was not a significant item on Africa’s post-independence governance agenda (Akresh, 1996).
With ambitions of wielding disparate groups into a “nation-state,” Africa’s central states relied upon an appeal to the promise of development to sustain their legitimacy as they tightened their control as a governance device. Thus, in addition to over-centralization’s natural tendency to degenerate into arbitrary and autocratic rule, pressures to maintain control in the face of failed development initiatives quickened recourse to repression. Preventive detention laws, all-embracing sedition laws and increased presidential prerogatives drove governance processes. Regime maintenance became the most important if not the sole pre-occupation of government.

External actors were very much a part of the governance arrangements that produced and maintained autocratic governance in Africa. Cold war machinations required responses that produced alignments that deepened divisions within and among countries, often creating a source of upward legitimacy and relieving leaders from any semblance of accountability to local populations. Cold war bipolarity was not the only external dynamic affecting African governance. Since independence, Africa’s development agenda has been determined either by the former colonial powers or by the Bretton Woods institutions. The dynamics of bipolarity combined with the prescriptions of the Bretton Woods institutions to produce imperialism as a form of governance intervention which has had a profound impact in strengthening autocracy as well as directly inducing conquest. Assessment of governance institutional failure in African countries remains incomplete unless the full impact of internal and external factors is considered. Governance failure can be progressive and its effects incremental. What appears to be a sudden implosion could in fact be a manifestation or consequence of half a century or more of failed governance. Some autocracies operating within the Cold War global order were such predators that they destroyed the very fabric of their societies but were propped up because of their strategic role in bipolar politics.

Relying on external support and a well-catered-for but narrow internal constituency, such regimes existed for decades and became despotic. Zaire, now the Democratic Republic of the Congo was one such regime; it only crumbled when the Cold War ended. Then there are cases like Sierra Leone with relatively little significance in bipolar politics but with predatory regimes that were perceived to be benign seething in rapid corruption, such regimes can grind to a halt and implode. Many others do not implode but totter on the brink while ordinary people struggle to find ways to cope with the dilemmas of daily living. Whatever the circumstance; human toll and social consequences of governance failure in Africa have been staggering magnitudes.

The human toll of governance failure: The most visible consequence of governance failure can be seen through the toll violent conflicts that have taken the life of human beings. Most noted is the alarming level of conflict related deaths and displacement. Though estimates vary, it is generally agreed that there have been more than 6 million conflict-related deaths in Africa since 1983. There is an estimated 20 million conflict related displaced persons of whom 14 million are internally displaced. These figures constitute close to three percent of Africa’s total population and their implications fully considered; they reveal a crisis of a profound proportions. In the Central Africa region and the Great Lakes, for example, a disruption of societies consisting of thousands of communities with linkages and spillovers is reported, that still affect thousands more. In Uganda, for example, internally displaced people (IDPs) account for close to 3 per cent of that country’s population and with exponential impact on others. One quarter of Uganda’s 45 districts (administrative jurisdictions) is in some form of upheaval. Warring factions operate in northern as well as western districts and sporadic conflicts involving pastoralists are waging in eastern districts. Food shortages and the HIV/AIDS pandemic have added further burdens especially on women and children. Uganda has become a strategic link between systems of conflict extending north in Sudan, west into the Great Lakes region and east into the Horn of Africa. However, the conflict in Uganda end and people of Uganda are now in peace. The problem of internal displacement has not been given the same level of international attention as the problem of refugees, i.e. the externally displaced. In South Sudan it is two out of every four, in Somalia, one out of every 7 and in Eritrea one out of every 10 persons is internally displaced and destitute. When circumstance and duration of displacement are considered, a bleaker picture emerges. Loss of dignity and diminished hope associated with prolonged displacement can erode self-confidence and optimism predispositions that are vital for self-reliance and self-organization. Moreover, the impact of extensive societal trauma associated with gruesome massacres often witnessed by displaced people (internal and external) can hardly be fully assessed. Resettlement can also be hazardous and rife with insecurity, e.g. the war which erupted on 7 of July 2016 in presidential palaces in Juba has again worsen the situation in the country including insecurity stemming from landmines and other unexplored devices. Amara et al. (2009) note that the government can also ensure peace by strengthening public participation for peace building. Good governance is related to a set of values such as participation, accountability, responsiveness, and transparency (Brandi & Clara, 2008).

- **Transparency:** Transparency involves clear and public disclosure of information, rules, plans, processes and actions by governments, companies, organizations and individuals. It is the principle that public affairs need to be conducted in the open (EC, 2013). Questions designed to measure transparency focus on financial management, financial record keeping, and stakeholder knowledge of schools’ financial status.
- **Accountability:** It means holding individuals and organizations responsible for executing their powers properly (in accordance with the rules and duties of their post), and for paying particular consideration to vulnerable parties. More specifically, accountability is about upwards and downwards responsibility of actors (to their superiors and to service users), participation, and sanctioning of actors for their corrupt acts.
- **Participation:** These are processes in the system that explicitly accord space and time to involve the public through consultations, hearings or even through delegating certain decisions or activities to citizen committees. Participation in monitoring and evaluation is regarded as a means of improving the quality and relevance of projects by facilitating their implementation, including the contribution of local resources, and acceptance. If people participate in the execution of projects by contributing their ingenuity, skills and other untapped resources, more people can benefit, implementation is facilitated, and the outcome responds better to the needs.
and priorities of the beneficiaries. Participation approaches may be adopted to foster and institutionalize elements of good governance (EC, 2013).

- Leadership: Leadership establishes and transmits to all employees the overarching direction of the organization, as such, developing a better understanding of effective leaders is important for future leader development (Gupta et al., 2005). The European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) (2009) defines leadership at the strategic level as "how leaders develop and facilitate the achievement of the mission and vision, develop values required for long-term success and implement these via appropriate actions and behaviors, and are personally involved in ensuring that the organization’s management system is developed and implemented. On the relationship between governance and social economic development, and that participation is assumed to have the effect of empowering the citizens so that they can continue to give direction in public policies or programmes, and also direct future changes and put pressure on outside forces to support these changes. He argues that participatory work is thus focused on the local level and depends upon local interests and capacity to engage in action for change for the success of the public policy or programmes. In a related study, and that will increased participation of people in self-help projects, there was an increased sense of ownership, and belonging by the local community members and also their willingness to take care of the existing projects in their respective villages.

2.4. The Impact of Armed Conflict and Governance on Socio-Economic Development

Armed violence can result in the loss of fixed assets, the disruption of formal and informal labour markets, reductions in (or absence of) foreign and domestic investment, declining tax revenues and diminishing service-delivery capacities. In short, armed violence undermines sustainable development and that participation is assumed to have the effect of empowering the citizens so that they can continue to give direction in public policies or programmes, and also direct future changes and put pressure on outside forces to support these changes. He argues that participatory work is thus focused on the local level and depends upon local interests and capacity to engage in action for change for the success of the public policy or programmes. Conflict is an attendant feature of human interaction and cannot be eliminated; however, its proper management and transformation are essential for peace and progress in human society. This is why conflict resolution is one of the most important challenges of governance. Legitimacy of conflict management and resolution mechanisms is critical, especially in situations of diversity such as in multi-ethnic societies. When conflict resolution mechanisms fail or are considered untrustworthy, insecurity, including fears of physical insecurity can be heightened and individuals and groups are constrained to rely on their own capabilities. Security initiatives undertaken under conditions of deep suspicion of the motives of others combine with limited information can produce security dilemmas and. Other forms of insecurity such as food insecurity and famine that may induce desperation and violence are consequences rather than causes of governance failure (Sen, 1989). Poverty does not cause conflict; failure of governance mechanisms can produce distributional and related problems that accentuate cleavage and arouse conflict. Contemporary conflicts in African societies are frequently categorized as ethnic conflicts even though most of them are caused by governance failure. Such categorization is due to the fact that ethnic factors are often mobilized as resources of conflict in zero-sum politics associated with highly centralized, autocratic and predatory regimes. Ethnic loyalties can claim primacy over other forms of group loyalty and protagonists in conflict can more easily take recourse in ethnic solidarity. Conditions of sustained marginalization or fears of assimilation can accentuate ethnic cleavages, and appeals to ethnic sentiments can prove to be a potent tool in conflict. As critical as is ethnicity to conflict, empirical evidence shows that ethnicity, itself, is not a source of violent conflict but can be used as an instrument of conflict (Lake and Rotherchild 1993). This does not mean that there are no purely ethnic-based conflicts. African societies are replete with ethnic conflicts between ethnic and cultural groups, pastoralists and agricultural groups, but these are hardly the arenas of the systemic breakdowns and cataclysmic violence that engulfs entire countries and regions; and even these are exacerbated by failure of governance mechanisms having to do with conflict resolution. Studies have shown that a mix of political and military factors having to do with overly-centralized governance structures, the use of military resources in support of arbitrary and autocratic governance and the implementation of policies and practices that sustain rent-seeking and predation are fundamental elements in most situations of institutional failure and violent conflicts. While state institutions constitute sites of governance failure, institutional failure at the supranational level often contributes substantially to governance failure resulting in violent conflicts. Institutions of national governance operate in larger regional and international environments to which they must respond. Thus, to investigate the roots of governance failure the dynamics of governance should be examine at all level, sub national, national and supra-national. Conceptually, our benchmark is a growth model that includes human capital and is of the general form. This model predicts that economies converge to their own steady state, with the speed of convergence depending on the distance from the steady state, assuming decreasing returns to individual production factors. A reduction in physical or human capital will result in a more rapid accumulation of physical or human capital after the conflict, and the economy will converge to its steady state, assuming that other parameters in the model do not change. Barro and Sala-i-Martin (2004) predict that the speed of recovery depends on the type of capital that is destroyed, with a slower recovery if human capital, rather than physical capital, is destroyed, because it has a higher adjustment cost. Endogenous growth models, as well as poverty trap models, predict that conflict has a direct effect on an economy’s steady state, and as a result otherwise similar economies do not converge Collier (1999). Existing empirical evidence, mostly relying on cross country data, does not allow rejecting either of these views. Among the first to present evidence on catch up, assert that, while economies suffered heavy short-term losses from the two world wars, these effects dissipated after 15-20 years, when the economy had returned to pre-war growth trends. Gerra and Saxena (2008) also find that, while output falls steeply immediately after the conflict (6% on average), the economy recovers relatively soon afterwards, with, in their case, half of the fall made up within a few years. On the other hand, state that civil war
reduces a country’s growth by 85% in the first five years, and while there is recovery, growth is still reduced by 31% after 35 years. The growth rates have lacked persistence in many countries since the 1970s because of domestic conflict. Collier (1999) lays out how civil war reduces the desired stock of factors of production, and how the duration of civil war affects pre-war performance (with longer conflict durations leading to higher post-war growth). However, because these papers rely on cross country data, accounting for causality remains a challenge, and the results may be fragile, as argued in the introduction. Cross country analysis also rarely takes into account the nature of conflict, considering the joint effects of war between states, which is associated with large scale destruction of physical capital, and civil conflict, which tends to be more detrimental for human capital, institutions and social order (Collier, 1999). The use of cross country data implies an implicit focus on middle and high income countries, since data for poor countries that remain in conflict is typically absent, thus introducing a selection bias. To address these shortcomings, recent work makes use of micro level data, comparing outcomes between neighboring areas with different exposure to conflict. Three papers stand out for one purpose. Davis and Weinstein (2002) show that Japanese cities that were bombed had completely recovered in size 20 years after the U.S. bombing in World War II. They state that were bomb by Germany had a significant but temporary impact on post-war city growth in West Germany, but a sustained impact in East Germany. Miguel and Roland (2011), finally, studying the effect of the destruction of physical capital by the bombing in Vietnam, find that the economy in hit areas had recovered 30 years after the conflict in terms of consumption, infrastructure, poverty, literacy, and population density. All three studies look at the effects of physical capital destruction, several decades after an international conflict. This paper differs in four ways: it studies the consequences of the destruction of human capital caused by civil conflict, much shorter after the conflict, and provides insight into the underlying mechanisms of post war growth. Although there is little direct evidence on the impact of human capital destruction on economic growth, two existing studies indicate that the effects of a sudden drop in human capital can be profound. Historical research suggests that the black death in the mid-14th century led to a change in the land labour ratio and resulted in a rise in real wages, leading to the start of the ‘Golden Age of the English Labourer farm the example second was provided by Young. Investigating the effect of high HIV infection rates on future living standards in South Africa, the author shows that the negative effect on human capital accumulation (especially for orphans) is compensated by a positive effect of slower population growth, which is caused both by lower sexual activity and an increase in the value of woman’s time due to the increased scarcity of labour associated with high mortality. There is ample evidence that conflict can have strong impacts on human capital. With respect to health, Alderman, Hoddinot and Kinsey (2009), analyzing data for Zimbabwe, find that greater exposure to civil war has a negative effect on child height. Bundervoet et al. (2009), focusing on Burundi, find that an additional month of war decreased children's height for age z-scores by 0.05 standard errors compared to non-affected children; and Arcand and Wouabe (2009) find that conflict intensity worsened child health during and after the conflict in Angola. There is also micro evidence for the effects of conflict on education. Akresh and de Walque (2008) show that the armed conflict in Rwanda had a negative effect on schooling outcomes, with exposed children completing half a year less. de Walque (2004) discusses how civil conflict in Cambodia had a lasting impact on educational attainment, mostly because of the collapse of the education system, presents evidence of the negative impact of conflict on schooling in the case of Tajikistan, Chamarbagwala and Morán (2011) find a strong negative effect of the civil war in Guatemala on the education of Mayan men and women in rural areas, the most disadvantaged groups. In contrast, Arcand and Waubay (2009), find that conflict increased school enrolment in Angola. The results, which are also summarized indicate that conflict can have profound negative effects on human capital, thereby sustaining poverty and slowing down economic recovery. Individuals and households in developing countries face severe economic risks even in the absence of armed conflict insecure socio-economic environments force vulnerable people into deprivation and distress. Outbreaks of armed conflict are likely to further increase insecurity. These conflicts are typically associated with the destruction of essential infrastructure and social services, the breakdown of the rule of law, and significant reductions in private and public investment. Armed conflicts kill and displace populations, often limiting the access of households to employment and earning due to, for instance, the death or recruitment of young adult males and increasing levels of instability and loss of trust. This situation can be aggravated once displaced and refugee populations and demobilized combatants return to their communities in post-conflict situations, particularly when food aid and medical help (at least for those who were in refugee camps) may no longer be available. Conflict, followed by periods of insecurity and fear, may decrease the ability of individuals and households to fall back on known survival strategies. In poorer, more vulnerable areas, or amongst the poorest, more vulnerable households, these consequences of conflict will add to already difficult circumstances. Those that were not poor may well become so due to reductions in food security following market disruption, increased difficulties in getting to markets to sell and buy goods, and the loss of earning capacity, savings and formal and informal risk-sharing networks. Direct effects of armed conflict on the household (represented by the dotted line) include changes in household composition due to killings, injuries and recruitment of fighters by either the government or the rebel groups, changes in the household economic status due to the direct destruction of assets and effects caused by forced displacement and migration. Indirect effects (represented by the full lines) include changes in households’ surrounding institutions and environments such as changes in social networks, changes in access to or destruction of exchange and employment markets and changes in local and national political institutions. Violent conflicts kill and injure civilians and combatants alike and cause severe psychological damage to those involved in fighting, to those living in war-torn communities and to displaced populations. The levels of mortality and morbidity associated with armed conflict are explained not only as outcomes of fighting but also for the most part as the result of spreading disease and malnutrition. Armed civil conflicts are highly correlated with increases in infant and maternal mortality rates, a higher proportion of untreated illnesses and reduction in nutritional levels, even when these are not directly caused by the initial conflict. For instance, Verwimp and van Bavel (2004) show that although refugee women tend to have higher fertility rates than other population groups, their...
children (girls in particular) have a much lower probability of survival due to the health and socio-economic conditions experienced in refugee camps. These effects are often aggravated by a variety of factors, even after the end of the initial conflict. These include the breakdown of health and social services (which increase the risk of disease transmission such as HIV/AIDS, particularly in refugee camps), decreased food security (possibly resulting in famines), increase insecurity in living conditions and the loss of social capital and political trust (Grein et al., 2003). There is, however, little knowledge on the health consequences of violent conflict. Some institutions such as Medicines Sans Frontiers have conducted localized field surveys. But in general, research on health issues in conflict areas is complicated by limitations on movement of researchers, destruction of registration systems, and possible misrepresentation of information on true levels of mortality and morbidity (Grein et al., 2003). The direct impact of armed conflict on mortality and morbidity is further clouded by the simultaneous proliferation of malnutrition and epidemics in fighting areas and in refugee and IDP camps due to food shortages and living under unsanitary conditions. Though research is sparse, major advances have been made during the past decade in the way the international community responds to the health consequences of complex emergencies. In particular, epidemiology has become an important tool for assessing health impacts during and after natural disasters and complex emergencies. The most visible direct impact of armed civil conflict on household welfare is the destruction of human lives. These are often young men in prime working age that constitute the bulk of the army, though a large number of more violent conflicts have been accompanied by violence against civilians, often children, women and the elderly (Woodward, 1995). The death of household members in working age means that the household will be left with severely depleted earning capacity. This is often enough to push previously vulnerable households into extreme forms of poverty (particularly amongst households with widows, orphans and disabled individuals), which may well become persistent if the household is unable to replace labour. Injuries, spread of infectious diseases, and increases in permanent disabilities caused by violence and conflict may also result in large decreases in household welfare. Households may have to draw on existing savings to pay for medical bills, which will pose severe financial burden on already vulnerable households. Consequences in terms of household about decisions can also be dramatic and long-lived. In many circumstances, the household may choose to replace dead or injured males with children. Children are then removed from school, which may in turn deplete the household of their stock of human capital for future generations Alderman et al., 2004; de Walque, 2006). This outcome is made worse when the health status of children is badly affected by the conflict. These effects may result in forms of poverty trap and contribute towards the reinforcement of structural, persistent forms of poverty since negative health and education shocks during childhood have significant negative impacts on the long-term performance of individuals (Miguel and Kremer, 2004; Bleakley, 2007). These effects can also be aggravated by the severe mental health and the psycho-social consequences of conflict (amongst adult and children fighters, raped women, abused children and old age people), though these have not yet received the attention they deserve in the epidemiologic literature or the development economics literature on conflict and violence.

2.5. Causes of Armed Conflict

The decision to take up arms is a complex process involving many actors in a wide range of conditions and circumstances. Thus, the history of a war's outbreak is usually complex, and the historian must make carefully nuanced choices as to which factors to stress and what evidence to trust. Attempting to develop theoretical explanations for the causes of armed conflict as a general phenomenon involves the analysis of multiple, interactive variables. This is true even when looking at a limited period of time such as the post-1945 era, or even the years since the end of the Cold War. The task is complicated because, there are very few necessary conditions for war and very many sufficient conditions, of which only a few of these may apply in any single conflict. War is possible as soon as weapons are available with which to fight and as long as there is a dispute between two or more parties. What makes war probable, however, is a far more complicated question. Despite the work of scholars such as (Horowitz (1985), most research conducted before 1990 on the causes of armed conflict focused on international conflict. This is remarkable, because, since at least 1945, civil or internal conflicts have been more common than international or inter-state conflicts. However, the relative importance of internal or civil conflicts from a global perspective has only been generally recognized since the end of the Cold War. Even as recently as that, the conclusions of a major analytical review of the University of Michigan's Correlates of War database concentrated almost exclusively on interstate wars. Since 1990, however, there has been an impressive growth in the scope of scholarly research and literature on the causes of armed conflicts that are not between two or more established states. Current research on internal conflicts focuses particularly on ethnic, environmental, political and economic factors. Relative deprivation theory (Gurr 1970) offers an explanation that is based on the contrast between groups' expected and actual access to prosperity and power. This approach is closely related to group entitlement theory (Horowitz 1985), which places more explicit emphasis on ethnic factors which accompany the economic and political (Gurr 1995). However, ethnic diversity does not in itself seem to be a cause of war. If it were the most war-prone, states would be the most ethnically diverse which is in fact not the case. Indeed, it may well be that ethnic and religious fractionalization even reduces the risk of violent conflict (Collier 1999), perhaps because it encourages divergent groups to learn the skills of living together despite diversity. When this learning process fails, however, ethnic diversity may turn out to exacerbate conflict and increase the likelihood of serious escalation, precisely because it offers fertile material for political mobilisation. A prime example here is the disintegration of Yugoslavia during the 1990s. Research on the links between environmental degradation and conflict explores the varying (sometimes catastrophically low) capacity of states and societies to adapt to changing environmental conditions without resorting to violence. Those research approaches that have identified significant, simple and direct connections leading from environmental degradation to violent conflict, have, however, been strongly challenged. The most recent exposition of the argument downplays its theoretical claims considerably. The contention now is simply that there are some armed conflicts, such as those in Haiti and the Philippines,
whose causes cannot be understood without reference to environmental degradation. Research on the relationship between political systems and peace starts with the observation that democratic states almost never go to war with each other, this finding as being "as close as anything to an empirical law in international relations." This claim has generated controversy both as to its empirical robustness and as to its theoretical soundness. Contests that such a conclusion is based on a misguided research focus. The empirical assertion, however, is widely accepted; even if further theoretical and conceptual clarification is still necessary the hot topic today in this aspect of research on the causes of armed conflict is the question of whether democracies are in general as peaceable with themselves as they are with each other. The and the disputed. Introduce an essential nuance to the discussion by identifying the different propensities to internal conflict of different kinds of democracies. They conclude that is the not quite democratic, yet also not quite autocratic regimes that are the most war-prone. Transition towards democracy is particularly dangerous (Jaggers and Gurr 1995). This argument throws considerable light on the violent conflicts in former Yugoslavia and the ex-USSR as societies in the midst of systemic change and the disintegration of a federal state, and likewise on the upsurge in violence in Indonesia since the end of the Suharto regime in 1998. Overall, however, economic conditions emerge as the most important explanatory factors. The key issue here is a low level of economic development (Hauge and Ellingsen 1998). This may be indicated by a low average Gross National Product per capita, by a disproportionately large agricultural sector, or by a country's economic vulnerability to shifts in world markets in commodities and capital (Avery and Rapkin 1986). Like Hauge and Ellingsen (1998), Auvinen (1997) identifies lack of democratic openings as an important secondary factor in addition to poor economic conditions. These findings are qualified by the arguments and evidence put forward by Collier (1999; Collier and Hoeﬄer 1999) that, even in poor societies, leaders are usually competing with one another for control of the available economic surplus, small as that may be. When the available surplus is small, as in poor societies or where there has been catastrophic slump, competition for it may be particularly intense, and a violent escalation will very likely result. The terrible violence in Liberia from 1989 to 1997, the war in Sierra Leone since 1991, decades of warfare in Angola and the cycles of massacre and brutality in Burundi and Rwanda are among the many examples highlighted by this approach. According to Amani (2003) the causes of armed conflict are often linked with attempts to control economic resources such as oil, metals, diamonds, drugs or contested territorial boundaries. In countries such as Colombia and the Sudan, for example, oilfield exploration has caused and intensified the impoverishment of women and men. Entire communities have been targeted and killed, displaced and/or marginalized in the name of oil development. The control of resources, like the exercise of power, is gendered. Those who do not have power or resources - groups that are disproportionately, though by no means exclusively, made up of women - do not usually start wars. Research suggests that access to natural resources is both a cause of these conﬂicts and a factor in sustaining them. Research from the Africa Centre for Technology Studies, Kenya, examines the relationship between armed conﬂict and access to agricultural land. Studies in Rwanda, Burundi and eastern Democratic Republic of Congo show that changes in land use and land access are signiﬁcant factors in armed conﬂicts. Limited access to land and unfair land distribution create patterns of economic domination, leading to social exclusion for poor, landless people. Those living in poverty seldom have access to the equipment necessary to initiate armed conflict. Occasionally, sometimes with the help of foreign powers, hunger and poverty lead people to take desperate measures and take up arms to achieve some degree of dignity for which they are willing to sacriﬁce themselves. These conditions can create the deprivation and social tension that leads to violence (Amani, 2003). Unresolved struggles over resources, combined with the severe impact of displacement, impoverishment and increased militarization in zones of conﬂict, serve to prolong existing armed conﬂicts. Moreover, conﬂict tends to cause and/or perpetuate inequalities between ethnic groups and discrimination against marginalized groups of women and men, thereby paving the way for the outbreak of future conﬂicts (Hugins et al, 2005; Amani, 2003). Armed conﬂict is growing in its complexity. At the international level, inequality in the distribution of power and resources has become more pronounced. Coupled with structural inequalities between and within nation-states, this disparity has led to more regional conﬂict, as well as an escalation of international armed conﬂicts. Nations have placed greater emphasis on increasing and/or reinforcing military strength. This worsens existing constraints on women's rights, which in turn exacerbates inequalities in gender relations (Amani, 2003). At the same time as, increased militarization has further limited the rights of women within countries, gender equality has been co-opted at the international level to justify military intervention into sovereign nations. The liberation of women from the oppressive Taliban regime, for example, constituted one of the justifications for the American invasion of Afghanistan in 2001. But in the ﬁve years prior to the invasion, there was a consistent lack of regard for the plight of women, despite attempts by both local and international non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to draw attention to the violation of Afghan women's human rights. Amani (2003) argues that in reality, military interventions are never the answer to resolving gender inequalities. Armed conﬂict and its aftermath either cause gender inequality or exacerbate existing gender inequalities, which are further compounded by divisions on the basis of race, class, caste, sexuality, religion or age. Religion and race seem to be inescapably at the top of the list when we look at the spate of Terrorism / armed conﬂict over the last century. Furthermore, from observation, this cause is concentrated almost entirely on the religions all vying for domination, credibility, and increasing control over their followers (Amani, 2003). Race could apply more in Africa and Asia than elsewhere but despite human rights, anti-discrimination and other recent world-wide laws, there seems to remain a huge gap in people's tolerance of other races. Almost all of the world's major attempts at genocide have been centered on this issue.

2.6. Effect of Armed Conﬂict

Livelihoods are directly affected through decreased access to land, and inadequate access to natural resources, as a result of exclusion, displacement and the loss of biodiversity. Conflict can set in motion a cycle of degradation and human vulnerability. Human vulnerability refers not only to the exposure to negative environmental change, but also to the ability

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to cope with such change through either adaptation or mitigation. Conflict contributes to the breakdown of social cohesion and the disruption of local governance systems; this in turn may result in established safety nets becoming unavailable. The increase in social and economic vulnerability, as a result of conflict, may in the face of environmental and land degradation, trigger new tensions and conflict over critical resources, such as water or food. The incidence of poverty may increase, not only through the loss of livelihoods but also as a result of a growing inability of people to cope with change. This loss of resilience is also directly linked to diminished access to public services, resulting in, for example, an increasing incidence of ill health, a contraction in formal employment opportunities, the destruction of subsistence livelihoods, and other entitlements failures which affect consumption and nutrition, as well as the weakening of social cohesion and heightening insecurity (Luckham and others 2001). The use of landmines, for example, has severely limited access to land, both during the conflict and in the long term. Conflict is estimated to result, on average, in production losses of 12 per cent and to undercut growth in the agricultural sector by 3 per cent per year (DfID 2001). War, therefore, by increasing the gap between food production and need, aggravates poverty and hunger, and consequently promotes continued dependence on food aid. The full impacts of landmines on human well-being and livelihoods, and ecosystems are not well understood; and there is a need for systematic and comprehensive study of their impacts. These costs cannot be measured in only economic terms; landmines are designed to maim, and the resulting bodily harm, for example, to limbs and reproductive organs, can have severe psychological impacts on those affected. For example, due to prejudice and cultural factors in some communities, injured unmarried women may have reduced opportunities to marry and have children. Landmines are cheap to use but extremely expensive to decommission. A single mine can often be bought on the black market for US$3, but may cost anything between US$200–1 000 to remove, depending on where it is placed. The destruction and decay of infrastructure not only affects the provision of essential services but leads to a breakdown in communication, through the loss of roads and telecommunications. This may increase the extent of isolation already experienced by rural communities; it may further diminish their sense of citizenship and contribute to a shrinking of civil society (Luckham and others 2001). Infrastructural decay results in the loss of market and other economic opportunities. DfID reports that in the 20 years from 1980 to 2000, Africa lost over 50 per cent of its infrastructure as a result of conflict (DfID 2001). For example, in southern Sudan there is no viable road network, and Angola and DRC are entirely dependent on air transport due to the collapse of infrastructure. Local, national and international issues are all significant in generating and perpetuating conflict, and interact in different and changing ways. At the local level, controversies over resource access can be a factor in the formation of armed groups, which are often linked to larger national or international “political” conflicts or economic interests. This may result in the militarization of the local socio-economic space, including increasingly bloody competition over economic infrastructure and resources, extraction systems and trade networks. In some cases, this may be manifested in rent-seeking behaviour by those with access to military power, or even direct appropriation and transfer of assets (Luckham and others 2001). This militarization may limit access to markets for local people, pushing up transaction costs and effectively driving up the cost of living. The displacement of people is a major social and economic cost of serious conflict, in the short term as well as in post-conflict periods. Typically, the casualties of modern armed conflicts are civilians. Because conflict often takes on ethnic overtones, and because modern African conflicts generally involve militias and guerrillas rather than regular troops, it is all too easy for civilians to be targeted just because they share the same ethnic or cultural identity as an “enemy group.” Since 1960, more than eight million people have died directly or indirectly as a result of war in Africa, and projections suggest that by 2020 injuries caused by war will have become the eighth most important factor placing a disease burden on society (DfID 2001). In a significant number of conflicts, violence has taken new forms, with the deliberate targeting of civilians and an increasing incidence of mutilations, violent rituals and rape (DfID 2001). Specific groups, who rely on the collection of natural resources, or farming, as many people in rural Africa do, may be targeted. Women, for example, are often specifically targeted as they collect firewood or water. This “total war” effect, as well as ruthless counter-insurgency strategies employed by some states, can lead to forced displacement and the destruction of homes, crops and food stocks, exacerbating extreme poverty and food insecurity. As a result of the targeting of civilians, large areas can become depopulated and output of agricultural or pastoral production reduced, thus affecting local livelihoods and the national economy. Northern Uganda, where almost 2 million people are displaced on a regular basis (ACTS 2005), is a case in point. One major, and often lingering effect of such violence, is damage to the social fabric, including informal networks of trust and support, undermining governance and often NRM. This hinders the resurgence of institutions, including markets and NRM institutions, in the post-conflict period. Children are a major target of conflict and violence. In a significant number of conflicts, including in Uganda, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Angola and Mozambique, there has been the forced recruitment of child soldiers through, among other things, abductions. In 2001, there were estimated to be 200 000 child soldiers in Africa (DfID 2001). Children may be killed or maimed by one group in order to undermine the morale of the other side. As a result of violent conflict, there has also been an increase in the numbers of street children (UN 1999).

Displacements impact directly on neighbouring countries, as refugees flee across international boundaries. However, impacts on neighbouring countries are not limited to these population movements and there may be multiple effects on social cohesion and economic opportunities. There are often complex cross-border links at different levels and between different actors, this includes cross-border operations of armed opposition groups, the international and local arms trade, and the sale of natural resources, narcotics, and other commodities used to sponsor conflict. Around centres of conflict, there are often extended zones of “bounded instability” which experience sporadic violence. Long-term situations of “neither peace nor war” can therefore ensue. International border zones are especially conflict-affected. Typically, these zones of friction are the most politically and economically marginalized, with weak state administrative structures. They are often also, because of their remote nature, havens of biodiversity. The influx of refugees across national borders into areas adjacent to national parks has contributed to immense pressure on these protected areas, often undermining NRM.
Displacements of people also have direct impacts on receiving communities and countries. The burden placed on local infrastructure such as schools, hospitals and sanitation facilities may be considerable and difficult to bear. Conflict also has macro-level impacts. These include a decline in state capacity, associated with a shrinking revenue base and reduced public spending, and economic stagnation as a result of a fall in exports, hyper-inflation, exchange rate depreciation, disinvestment, and capital flight (Luckham and others 2001). The economic impacts, however, are seldom confined to the country of conflict. Countries bordering conflict zones may need to increase security expenditure in military and non-military sectors. Additionally, they may incur new costs in relation to refugees and losses from deteriorating regional trade.

A further feature of conflict is the collapse of public institutions or the inability of these institutions to cope. Conflict can lead to large areas coming under the control of non-state actors. There may be a weakening of environmental institutions and governance systems, resulting in lower managerial capacity. Environmental and other relevant agencies are handicapped through lack of funds or loss of personnel. Low levels of monitoring and evaluation may contribute to biodiversity loss and encourage illegal and unsustainable trade in natural resources. Natural resources in these zones may be exploited at unsustainable rates in order to purchase weapons, or simply to enrich members of the controlling forces. Foreign or multinational companies are often involved in resource exploitation in such zones, for example timber in eastern DRC. Some of the environmental problems associated with landmines include: habitat degradation, reduced access to water points and other vital resources, species loss, alteration of the natural food chain, and additional pressure on biodiversity. When landmines are found in national parks, game reserves and other conservation areas, they undermine the tourist trade and affect the ability of managers and others to do their work. Endangered or vulnerable species can also be directly affected by landmines. In Angola, thousands of animals including antelopes and elephant fell prey to landmines, and in Mozambique, more than 100 elephants have died. In some cases, landmines have even been used by poachers, as a field of mines can kill or wound an entire herd of elephants to obtain ivory illegally. Conflict may also have negative impacts on biodiversity in neighbouring countries. In the CAR, for example, traditional hunting of elephants using spears was transformed when small arms started to become readily available due to conflict in neighbouring Chad and Sudan. By the late 1990s, the elephant population had fallen by about 90 per cent from levels known during the 1970s, and the rhinoceros’ population had completely disappeared (Blom and Yaminou 2001).

In some cases, conflict can lead to “positive” outcomes for the environment for example, some areas that become “no-man’s lands” can become havens for wildlife – but the livelihoods of the majority of people rarely, if ever, improve through conflict. 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. Therefore, with Knowledge about the most relevant aspects of the issue in question we presented, 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. The magnitude of each of these phenomena and their main modalities and implication are shown, with special reference to children and women victimized by the conflict, including outline of 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. In spite of the homicide curve in Colombia during the last thirty years being the result of different processes and forms of violence, there is a clear relation between this curve and the development of the internal armed conflict. The extreme increase of the homicide rates per 100 thousand inhabitants occurs since the mid-70s and reaches its peak in 1991, with 81 homicides/100 thousand inhabitants. Since then, there were oscillations in the curve, with a marked decrease since 2003. The reason for this decrease is still not clear but there are several hypotheses: one of them relates the fact to the democratic security policy established by the current government, based on military repression of the guerilla, with a considerable increase of the budget and power of the troops. Part of this policy is the demobilization of some of the paramilitary groups, whose participation in the homicides was very high. Another hypothesis links the decrease in the number of violent deaths to the policies and programs for urban safety and citizenship carried out on local level, as occurs in the cities of Bogotá and Medellín. On the contrary to what is happening in some of the big cities, in many small cities of the country, whose statistics does not make much difference in the national data, the cases of deadly violence are increasing. Analyzing the homicide rates on the basis of age and sex, one observes that the main victims were young and always younger males, involving even boys with less than five years of age. In 1994, in the division of Antioquia, whose capital is Medellín, homicides were responsible for more than half (53%) of deaths of boys between 10 and 14 years of age and for 87% of deaths of adolescents between 15 and 19 years of age. Although women were relatively less frequently victims of homicide than men, the proportion had dropped in less than ten years from 18 men per one woman to 13 men per one woman, indicating a progressive increase in homicides of women. With respect to the different regions of the country the homicide rates vary significantly, very well expressing the dynamics of the conflict and the stronger or weaker response of the society and of the State on regional level. Recently, divisions like Antioquia are leaving the first places in homicide rates and divisions in the east and south of the country with formerly low homicide rates are occupying the first places now The increase of the illegal plantations and related drug trafficking, the weak presence of the State, the exploitation of oil and the fights between the different armed actors for obtaining the control of a territory explain to a good part this trend and the dynamics of the deadly violence. On the other hand, there are the frequent massacres, understood as collective homicides more than four deaths per episode committed intentionally and in a programmed manner against defenseless victims with the intent to immobilize people by causing fear and to establish political and territorial control, and representing an extreme violation of the International Humanitarian Law. According to the UNDP,
between 1997 and 2002 a total of 930 massacres occurred in the country, a mean of one massacre per day, producing a total 2,630 fatal victim an estimation of the number of deaths directly related to the internal armed conflict carried out by the UNDP in 2003 found that between 4 and 8 thousand Colombian people die yearly as a direct result of this war. Using a mean of 6,000 fatal victims per year due to the internal armed conflict, one would find that during the last 25 years Colombia lost 150,000 lives as a direct result of the conflict, not considering its contribution, through different mechanisms and interactions, to the generally high homicide rates in Colombia. Another form of estimating the impact of violence and of the armed conflict on the life of the Colombian population is observing the behavior of the life expectancy, especially comparing the behavior of this indicator among men and women in the country. The life expectancy at birth of the Colombian population as a whole increased, but the rhythm of this increase slowed down and the difference between men and women increased, to a good part as a result of deadly violence. According to the Pan American Health Organization in 2004, the life expectancy at birth for women was 75 years and 69 years for men which shall say a difference of six years in favour of the women. The women in the 1990s the Colombians lost between one and a half and two years of their life expectancy due to violence.

2.6.1. 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, between 1985 and 2005 more than three million and six hundred thousand Colombians have been victims of forced displacement due to violence. 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 age suffer the consequences of armed violence. According to a study carried out by the Social Parish, 46.5% of this population is younger than 15 years, a number similar to the 48.5% found for the same class in the investigation of the Pan American Health Organization and by the University of Antioquia in 2003. Estimate that between 1985 and 2002 about 1,750,000 children had to escape from their places of origin in the country. Only in 2005, a total of 310,000 people was displaced in the country. Seven hundred and fifty municipalities lost residents and 950 received displaced population. According to official information provided by the Red de Solidaridad Social (Social Solidarity Network), a governmental organization in charge of the displacement problem, 90% of displaced people are of rural or semi-rural origin, and one third of them own or owned land in their places of origin; 50% settle in the miserable outskirts of the big cities; 9.2% belong to Afro-Colombian communities and 34% to indigenous communities. The consequences of the displacement vary according to gender, age and ethnic group, former economical level, kind of displacement, destiny and the conditions of insertion into the new environments. In children and adolescents, the deterioration of their environment and displacement turns them more vulnerable to malnutrition, diseases of the skin and infector-contagious diseases. From every 100 displaced children between one and four years of age, only two received the complete vaccination scheme. Thirty-five of each 100 displaced adolescents get pregnant, the double of the national mean according to the already mentioned study. Due to difficult, access to health services, disintegration of the families, physical and sexual abuse, exploitation of labor, and the resulting effects on the mental health. The adult population – with more than 19 years of age represents 50% of the total of displaced individuals, with a higher percentage of women than men. The proportion of illiteracy in women increases with age varies according to regions and ethnic groups and reduces the chances of employment. The average number of children of displaced women is three and the greater part of women assumes the role of head of the family and the consequent economical responsibility, or for having lost their husbands or partners in the conflict or because these had abandoned their familiar responsibilities under the new circumstances. In the studies on gender of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, who is in charge of the displacement problem in Colombia, the ruptures and losses caused by the forced displacement are felt more intensely by women than by men, but in the urban environment men use to be more affected by unemployment than women. Between 3% and 6% of the population in a situation of displacement are older than 60 years. In this age group, 70% of displaced people are women, given that aged men are more reluctant to leave their land and their environment. As in the dynamics of the internal armed conflict, it is mostly the young men who join the armed groups or become victims of homicides. In many cases, grandfathers and grandmothers are taking care of the family, living hidden away in their houses, socially almost invisible and under very poor economic, hygienic and health conditions. The negative impact of the IAC on the indigenous population, in particular, of displacement and confinement, is emphasized here. It is estimated that 57% of indigenous villages of the country are directly affected by the internal armed conflict the confinement imposed by the armed actors is one of the most serious consequences of the conflict for this population, to which currently one out of three indigenous individuals are subject. Both displacement and confinement of indigenous populations are more intense in the regions with a greater indigenous component, such as Cauca, Caquetá, Chocó, Valle del Cauca, La Guajira and Vaupés. The most affected indigenous villages were in this order: Embera, Nasa, EmberaChamí, Wiwa, EmberaKatío, Kankuamo, Pijao, Guahibo, Wayúu and Awa. In addition to the serious consequences, displacement brings to all of its victims, for the indigenous population the displacement from the grounds of their ancestors still means losing their sense of life, they suffer a greater loss of culture and are more subject to extinction. As refers to access to health services, it is estimated that two out of ten displaced individuals do not possess any document, which would allow for access to the health services. In addition, due to the difficulty of being recognized as displaced person, to the high cost of medical consultations and remedies as well as a certain institutional discrimination, around 30% of displaced individuals are deprived from access to medical care.
2.6.2. 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 financing the illegal armed organizations and for achieving political objectives, like transmission of messages through highly representative personalities or imprisonment of personalities for exchanging the prisoner or as a demonstration of power. The available figures show an alarming increase of cases of kidnappings during the same period in which the internal armed conflict developed, demonstrating its progressive worsening. In the 70s, an average number of 55 people were kidnapped per year. In the 80s, the annual mean increased to 296 cases, with a peak of 781 cases registered in 1989. In the 90s, the yearly mean of kidnappings in the country reaches the alarming number of 1,508 cases. In the year 2000, registration showed highest peak of the whole period, with a total of 3,706 kidnappings, a mean of ten kidnappings per day. At that time, a terrible form of collective kidnapping reached its climax, a technique, taking hostage of groups of people for selecting the definitive victims later, known as “miracle fishing”. Since the year 2000 we observe an apparently significant decrease of the phenomenon, but there are serious doubts with respect to the trustworthiness of the registries. According to statistics of the Observatory for Human Rights of the Vice-Presidency of the Republic, in 2004, 73% of victims of registered kidnappings – 908 – were of masculine sex, while the resting 27% of 342 were women. Of the 1,250 persons victims of kidnappings registered in that year by the Observatory, 222, corresponding to 18% of the total number, were minors. Worse than the kidnappings are the forced disappearances. According to the Inter-American Convention on Forced Disappearance of People, of 1993, forced disappearance is considered to be the act of depriving a person or persons of his or their freedom, in whatever way, perpetrated by agents of the State or by persons or groups of persons acting with the authorization, support, or acquiescence of the State, followed by an absence of information or a refusal to acknowledge that deprivation of freedom or to give information on the whereabouts of that person, thereby impeding his or her recourse to the applicable legal remedies and procedural guarantees. There is a great diversity and inconsistence of data on disappearances, which is due to the criteria used for defining the phenomenon and to the institutions that register the information, in the first semester of 2005, 35 cases of forced disappearance due to political persecution were registered in the country. Of them, 86% were attributed to paramilitary groups. During the same period, 25 cases of forced disappearances were registered, as a result of political-social violence perpetrated by unknown authors. The International Committee of the Red Cross informs that, in 2004, 279 cases of forced disappearance were related to the internal armed conflict in the country. According to the same source, this figure should be added to the more than 2,000 cases registered since 1994. In spite of the seriousness of the disappearances and their consequences for the quality of life of the victims and their familiar and political environment, they are having very little impact in the communication media and in the debates on the conflict.

2.6.3. 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. According to data from the National Army, between 1990 and June 2002, Colombia has been victim of more than 1,800 events generated by explosives used by illegal armed groups. According to the same source, in 411 municipalities situated in 30 of the 32 administrative divisions of the country they said artifacts were present. The Vice-Presidency of the Republic reports for the period 1990 to September 2003 a total of 3,409 events involving explosive devices. The corresponding numbers for the following years were 116 victims in 2000, 147 in 2001 and 384 victims in 2002 suffer a lot due to spread of mine. The efforts of different national and international institutions and organizations for “demining” the country notwithstanding, the problem and its consequences continue increasing as shown by the presented figures. An aggravating factor is that while nearly all countries are supporting and promoting the mine ban, some of the main producers of antipersonnel mines, among them the United States of America, refuse to sign the international treaty prohibiting their production.

2.6.4. 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 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. The greater part of children and adolescents – 13 to 17 years recruited by the armed actors are of rural origin, members of numerous families whose head is generally the mother,
a grandmother or another relative. Many of them were victims of family violence, have poor educational level and were in general early bonded into agricultural labor. In the scenery of the conflict on the other hand, they are not only deprived from their childhood, but also transformed into actors and victims of violence at the same time. In an environment of adult warriors under very difficult circumstances, their safety and integrity are permanently at risk and many times these children suffer physical, sexual and psychological violence. Such circumstances cause complications later life in case these children survive the conflict. The Colombian Institute for Family Welfare in cooperation with other governmental, nongovernmental and international organizations has carried out different actions for preventing the involvement and recruitment of children and adolescents by illegal armed groups. Although some women are participating in armed organizations governmental, insurgent and paramilitary according to their own free will, many other women were and still are victims of the armed conflict.

2.6.5. 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. Two specific and very important problems are common which 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.

2.6.6. 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 Additional Protocol to the Geneva Agreements and by article, 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 nationwide. Different investigations show the seriousness and frequency of the attempts upon the Medical Mission in Colombia. According to a study carried out by the International Committee of the Red Cross, 468 infractions against the Medical Mission were committed between 1995 and 1998. Most of them attempted upon the life and the integrity of personnel, followed by attacks against the infrastructure. Seventy-six of the 341 victims produced by these actions belonged to the health sector. A recent study of the Ministry for Social Protection and PAHO registered a progressive increase of attacks in the period 1999-2002, passing from 29 cases registered in 1999 to 236 in 2002. According to the Institute for Studies on Development and Peace, between 1999 and 2002, 279 employees of the sector received threats. Until August 2004, 662 attacks with 604 victims were registered. Of these, 98% victims suffered attacks against their life and personal integrity. Between 2003 and 2005, the Ministry for Social Protection registered a total of 196 attacks against the Medical Mission, corresponding to a mean of one attack at every six days of the period. Another source of information, the National Association of Hospital Workers registered 633 attacks between January 2001 and September 2003, almost all of them attempts upon the life and the integrity of the health personnel: 49% threats, 29% displacements and 13% (corresponding to 84 cases) homicides, mainly of nursing personnel, physicians and health managers and promoters. This number of fatal victims corresponds to a mean of one homicide of a health worker at every twelve days during the 33 months covered by the reports regarding violent acts against the infrastructure; especially ambulances are frequently frontally attacked or stolen for perfidious use for military purposes. A dramatic case was that of the ambulance of the municipality of San Carlos (Antioquia), which suffered three attacks in four years. During the last of these attacks, four of the occupants were killed: a nurse’s aide, women about to give birth and her sister. Another serious problem is the blocking of shipments of medicine provisions to some communities by the armed groups, under the allegation that the medicines are destined to aid the combatants of the opponent group. Thus, the distribution of medicine provisions for the treatment of leishmaniasis represents a military operation controlled by the Armed Forces. Whoever is in possession of the medicines is at risk of being categorized as insurgent or at least suspect of being one. Medical ethics and the International Humanitarian Law establish as one of the professional obligations of health professionals the provision of medical care to everyone without distinction. The circumstances of the conflict and the position of denying the conflict are bringing the professionals into a complicated situation: if they provide care to the illegal armed actors, they can be sued by the government under the accusation of collaborating with the terrorists; if they don’t, they are at risk of turning into a target of the nongovernmental armed actors. The attacks against the Medical Mission also contributed to epidemics and the reemergence of transmissible diseases. This was the case with the outbreak of yellow fever during the first months of 2004 in Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta and Catatumbo, where illegal armed groups had prevented the health units from developing preventive actions and providing treatment to the population. The same kind of actions in different areas of conflict led to reemergence of vector-transmitted diseases like malaria, leishmaniasis and Chagas’ disease. Insipite of the frequency and seriousness of the attacks against the MM and their impact on the health personnel and the services delivered to the population, the affected personnel receive only very little support from the State, governmental organisms and some humanitarian organizations. An active search carried out in 11 municipalities of the divisions Nariño and Boyacá confirms this fact. Of the interviewed persons, 98% declared not having received any kind of support and only 2% declared having received some kind of working support. The same investigation emphasizes that 52% of the personnel had no knowledge at all about the International Humanitarian Law, 44% had little knowledge and only 4%, corresponding to the directors of hospitals, had
adequate knowledge about the International Humanitarian Law. Many questions can be asked with regard to the impact of education on civil conflict: Does more education among young males reduce the supply of potential rebels? Does a rapid expansion in higher education lead to unmet expectations of employment opportunities and hence a greater conflict risk? Does unequal access to education among individuals and groups produce a threat to peace and stability? Are highly educated individuals more likely to join terrorist organizations, and if so, for what reasons? Various theoretical responses to these and other questions are the focus of the discussion that follows. Scholars have focused on the relationship between education and civil war dating as far back as to early political theorists like Aristotle. As a way of systematizing the different theoretical propositions presented in the literature, we find it useful to distinguish between arguments relating to levels, expansion, inequality, and content of education.

Most of the arguments presented in the literature on education and conflict pertain to levels of education, or government investment in education. What these propositions have in common (with few exceptions) is that more education fosters peace. However, the reasoning behind this expectation differs, and can be grouped into three main categories: grievance explanations, opportunity cost explanations, and stability explanations. The so-called relative deprivation theories posit that grievances arise when the gap between people's expectations and their actual situations worsens (Gurr, 1970). Education can have both a direct and indirect effect on the grievances that may foment political violence. First, according to a World Bank report (Akoki et al., 2002), government investment in education is a means by which governments can make a direct and lasting positive impact on people's lives, which may directly reduce the level of grievances in society. In this case educational spending can reduce grievances and conflict by spurring economic development and social equality. In the strand of the civil war literature focusing on the economic causes of war, education is seen as an opportunity factor. Opportunity factors relate to structural conditions that may facilitate a rebel group's war against a state, of which an important aspect is the cost of rebel recruitment. Soldiers must be paid, and the cost of recruiting is related to their income forgone by enlisting as rebels. Greater levels of educational attainment increase the opportunity cost of young people3 and hence, according to Collier & Hoeffler (2004), rebel recruitment is more costly and rebellion less likely the higher the level of education in a society. In particular, Collier & Hoeffler argue that one should focus on secondary school enrollment of young males—the group from which most rebels are recruited. Following this logic, Barakat and Urdal (2009) assume that in countries with large potential pools of rebel recruits due to large young male cohorts, increasing education at any level will help reduce this pool considerably.

3. Methodology

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was used to carry out the research. It presents the research design, the target population, sample size, sampling procedure, research instrument, validity and reliability of the instrument, data analysis, factor analysis, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) ethical consideration, and limitation of the study.

3.2. Research Design

The research design for the study was cross sectional, descriptive and used quantitative research approach. The quantitative approach was mainly used to quantify and analyze the data in order to get in depth understanding of how the variables under the study impact the overall performance of the indicators. It allowed the researcher to solicit information expressed in numerical format while the qualitative approach was to complement the quantitative approach by soliciting more detailed information expressed in textual format. Combining numerical and textual information helped the researcher to enrich the study findings.

3.3. Study Population

The research was carried out in Central Equatoria. The population comprised of 348 people from the Central Equatoria. Which are clustered this to 8 Administrative staff, 40 Operational staff and 300 citizens of Central Equatoria (Table1.1).

| Target Group                  | Sample Size (Leaders) |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|
| Administrative Staff          | 8 (2.3%)               |
| Operational Staff             | 40 (11.5%)             |
| Citizens/Local Population     | 300 (86.2%)            |
| Total                         | 348 (100%)             |

Table 1: Distribution of Sample Size
Computed by the Author, 2016

3.4. Sampling Procedure

Both probability and non-probability sampling techniques were used so as to be exhaustive in the research findings. Random sampling was used as a probability technique to obtain a good representative sample of the area population of the residents. Purposive sampling technique was used as a non-probability technique for the leaders since these are expected to be more knowledgeable about the impact of armed conflict and governance on socio-economic development in the Country. Purposive sampling enables a researcher choose participants of his own interest based on knowledge and expertise.
3.5. Sample Size

The sample size was calculated using the Krejcie and Morgan Table (1970) for determining the sample, as this gave a practical ratio based on the Central Equatoria’s population size. According to Krejcie and Morgan Table, approximately 213 respondents were used as a sample size of the entire population (350). This population was clustered according to the state and further categorized into two groups, one of leaders (44) and the other of residents (169).

| Target Group             | Leaders | Residents |
|-------------------------|---------|-----------|
| Administrative Staff    | 8 (3.76%) | 8 (3.76%) |
| Operational Staff       | 40 (18.78%) | 36 (8.04%) |
| Citizens/Local Population | 300 (140.85%) | 169 (79.4%) |
| **Sample Size Total**   | **448** | **213**   |

*Table 2: Sample Size Distribution by Percentages Computed by the Author, 2016*

3.6 Sources of Data

Data was collected from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data was collected directly from the respondents. The secondary data was obtained from the available literature review, text books, journals, reports, newspapers and research magazines.

3.7. Research Methods

3.7.1. Research Tool

Questionnaire survey was used to collect data from the leaders of Central Equatoria. The choice of a questionnaire was on the basis that respondents can read and write and enables responding to the study questions without influence on the presence of the respondent. Kabanza (2001) affirms that questionnaires cover big area over a short period of time. It also allowed respondents to respond boldly and frankly to questions. The questionnaire also enables collection of vast amounts of data in a short time and is less expensive (Amin, 2005).

3.7.2. Interview Method

This is a purposeful discussion between the researcher and the respondent. Interviews are face to face meetings. This approach was guided by the consideration that interview method of gathering information can be used to solicit the opinions and suggestions of the respondents. It will also be used as a means of probing of some interesting and unexpected behavior. These were used to collect data from the leaders of Central Equatoria. A set of questions in English were asked to respondents and responses were recorded. This helped explain issues under study in depth. However, the shortcomings of interviews may be that they require much time with the respondents, yet they may have busy schedules.

3.8. Content Analysis

The Content analysis is a research technique used to make replicable and valid inferences by interpreting and coding textual material. By systematically evaluating texts (e.g., documents, oral communication, and graphics) qualitative data can be converted into quantitative data. Although the method has been used frequently in the social sciences, only recently has it become more prevalent among organizational scholars. In other words, Content analysis is valuable in research because it allows researchers to recover and examine the nuances of organizational behaviors, stakeholder perceptions, and societal trends. It is also an important bridge between purely quantitative and purely qualitative research methods. In one regard, content analysis allows researchers to analyze socio-cognitive and perceptual constructs that are difficult to study via traditional quantitative archival methods. At the same time, it allows researchers to gather large samples that may be difficult to employ in purely qualitative studies Content analysis is a class of research methods at the intersection of the qualitative and quantitative traditions. It is promising for rigorous exploration of many important but difficult-to-study issues of interest to organizational researchers in areas as diverse as business policy and strategy, managerial and organizational cognition, organizational behavior, human resources, social-issues management, technology and innovation management, international management, and organizational theory.

Information gathered through content analysis was used to supplement and enrich the information collected from other instruments. In addition, library, field pieces of information were supplemented by more information obtained from the internet. Then information obtained from these sources were then analyzed and reduced in to a written text.

3.9. Validity of the Instrument

According to Smith (2003), validity measures the degree to which the research or study achieves what it sets out to do. Validity of the instrument was therefore established by using expert judgment. This was scientifically determined by using the instrument was thereafter submitted for comments to the supervisor, whereby suggestions were accepted and judgments were made on the content validity of the instrument. The instrument was considered valid when the CVI gotten is above 0.70 is considered.

3.10. Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability refers to the degree of consistency and precision in which the measuring of instruments is demonstrated (Amin, 2005). Reliability establishes the consistency of a research instrument in that the results it achieves...
should be similar in similar circumstances and so the same research respondents using the same instrument should generate the same results under identical conditions. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used to determine the reliability of the instrument before collecting the data. A pretest of the questionnaire to prove reliability was carried out in another organization which was not part of the study area and 25 questionnaires was administered and used to generate the reliability coefficient of determination. A reliability test using a Cronbach’s alpha $\alpha \geq 0.8$ and above were considered adequate (Cronbach, 2004).

| Variable                | Anchor | Cronbach Alpha Coefficient | CVR (Content Validity Ratio) |
|-------------------------|--------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| Armed Conflict          | 5 point| 0.8850                     | 0.7650                     |
| Governance              | 5 point| 0.8325                     | 0.8150                     |
| Socio-economic development | 5 point| 0.8525                     | 0.7350                     |

**Table 3: Validity and Reliability of the Instrument Variable**

Source: Extracts from Printout of SPSS Analysis by the Author (2016)

Since all Content Validity indices for all experts and Alpha coefficients were above 0.8, then the items/questions selected for the study relevant to the study variables

### 3.11. Measurement of Variables
- Armed Conflict was measured using a five point Likert type scale (1- strongly disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Not sure, 4- Agree and 5-Strongly agree) based on armed conflict model by Blattman (2010)with attributes like destruction of infrastructure, unprotected protected human and property rights, loss of lives and displacement of people.
- Governance was measured using a five-point Likert type scale (1- strongly disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Not sure, 4- Agree and 5-Strongly agree) basing on the model of Brandi (2008) with attributes like participation, accountability, responsiveness and rule of law.
- Socio-economic development was measured using a five-point Likert type scale (1- strongly disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Not sure, 4- Agree and 5-Strongly agree) basing on the model of Shabbaz, (2012) with attributes such as life sustenance, self-esteem, attitude towards education, freedom and Per capita income.

### 3.12. Data Analysis
Data collected from the field was coded and analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science version 18.0). The data was then presented using cross tabulation to describe sample characteristics, and Pearson correlation was used to establish the relationship between the study variables. Correlation and Regression Analysis was used to establish the combined effect on the study variables Factor analysis was also used in addition.

### 3.13. Factor Analysis
Factor analysis is a useful tool for investigating variable relationships for complex concepts such as socio-economic status. It allows researchers to investigate concepts that are not easily measured directly by collapsing a large number of variables into a few interpretable underlying factors. The key concept of factor analysis is that multiple observed variables have similar patterns of responses because they are all associated with a latent not directly measured variable. For example, people may respond similarly to questions about income, education, and occupation, which are all associated with the latent variable socioeconomic status. In every factor analysis, there are the same numbers of factors as there are variables. Each factor captures a certain amount of the overall variance in the observed variables, and the factors are always listed in order of how much variation they explain. The eigenvalue is a measure of how much of the variance of the observed variables a factor explains. Any factor with an eigenvalue explains more variance than a single observed variable. So, if the factor for socioeconomic status had an Eigen value of 2.3 it would explain as much variance as 2.3 of the three variables. This factor, which captures most of the variance in those three variables, could then be used in other analyses. The factors that explain the least amount of variance are generally discarded. Deciding how many factors are useful to retain will be the subject of another post. It works a little bit like regression to find factors/ Factors are new measures that summaries data. If a questionaire asks one particular question five times in different ways. People will be expected to give much the same answer each time. In other words, the scores from the five questions would be highly inter-correlated. If somebody responds in a particular way to one of the questions, they will respond the same way to the others. Therefore, rather than present the same information five times, it would be better to summaries it Once the factor is identified it can be can described in time of the extent to which each question belongs to that factor. This is expressed with a loading. A factor loading is simply a correlation coefficient, which tells us the extent to which a question is measuring that factor. When doing an analysis, one has to decide how many factors the data contain. In the end, choice of how many factors to extract from the data will involve judgment, as well naming the factors.

### 3.14. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
Is a collection of statistical models used to analyze the differences among group means and their associated procedures such as variation among and between groups In the ANOVA setting, the observed variance in a particular variable is partitioned into components attributable to different sources of variation. In its simplest form, ANOVA provides
a statistical test of whether or not the means of several groups are equal, and therefore generalizes the test to more than two groups. ANOVAs are useful for comparing three or more means groups or variables for statistical significance. In other word ANOVA is used for wide range of practical problems.

3.15. Ethical Considerations
A letter of introduction stating the purpose of the research Was obtained from the University Juba. The researcher had to take permission from the University before conducting the research. Assurance was given to the respondents about confidentiality of the information. To maintain integrity of the information presented, reference was made to document information collected from the field.

3.16. Limitations of the Study
Limitations faced by the researcher include:

- Attrition; some respondents filled in the questionnaires without taking time to read. The researcher, however, made an effort to avoid distributing questionnaires or holding interviews during rush hour and also try to capture the interest of the respondent.
- Sensitivity of information; some respondents felt the information required as sensitive and can affect their working environment if revealed. The researcher however made an effort to convince respondents that the information exchanged was very confidential.
- Unwillingness to fill the questionnaires; respondents were unwilling to share information about their leaders, supervisors, workmates and the service system. The researcher however endeavored to emphasize that it is a purely academic research and confidentiality was upheld.

4. Analysis and Interpretation of Study Findings

4.1. Introduction
This chapter discusses the response rate, Bio data, Pearson correlation, factor loadings, Standard and Deviation

4.2. Descriptive Analysis of Auxiliary Variable
The response rate was 61.2% of the respondents.

| Gender | Frequency | Percent |
|--------|-----------|---------|
| Male   | 125       | 58.7    |
| Female | 88        | 41.3    |
| Total  | 213       | 100.0   |

Table 4: Distribution of Respondents by Gender
Source: Computed by the Author (2016)

The result in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 indicates the distribution of respondents by sex, where males constituted 58.7% and females 41.3% samples.

| Age group | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|
| 21-30     | 49        | 23.1    |
| 30 - 40   | 58        | 27.2    |
| 41-50 years | 68  | 31.9    |
| 51+ years | 38        | 17.8    |
| Total     | 213       | 100.0   |

Table 5: Distribution of Respondents by Age Groups
Source: Computed by author (2016)
Table 5 indicates that 23.1% of respondents were between the age ranges 21-30 years. In addition, those within the age of 30 – 40 were 27.2%. Those who were between the age range of 41-50 years were 31.9% and 17.8% were 51 years of age and over.

Figure 3: Distribution of Respondents by Age-Groups

| Marital Status | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Married        | 105       | 49.3    |
| Single         | 75        | 35.2    |
| Separated      | 22        | 10.3    |
| Divorced       | 11        | 5.2     |
| Total          | 213       | 100.0   |

Table 6: Marital Status of the Respondents
Source: Computed by the author (2016)

The result in Table 6 and Figure 4.3 indicate that 49.3% of respondents were married, 35.2% were single, 10.3% had separated and 5.2% had divorced from their partners.

4.3. Marital Status of the Respondents

Figure 4: Marital Status of the Respondents

Table 7 Number of Dependents per Household.

| Number of Dependents | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------------|-----------|---------|
| 1 to 3               | 89        | 41.8    |
| 4 to 5               | 61        | 28.6    |
| Above 5              | 45        | 21.2    |
| None                 | 18        | 8.4     |
| Total                | 213       | 100.0   |

Table 7: Respondents’ Number of Dependents
Source: Computed by the author (2016)

Table 7 above indicates that 41.8% of the respondents were with dependents ranging from 1 to 3. In addition, 28.6% had 4 to 5 dependents, 21.2% had above 5 dependents and 8.4% had no dependents.

In summary, every small number of 8.4% of the respondent stated as having no dependents with them most of them are singles while 70.4% had dependents up to 5 persons/family and only 21.2% had more than 5 persons/family however the impacts of war in 2013 and July 2016 has increase the burdens to the relatives sibling and international communities and NGOS who are providing basic needs to the vulnerable people across the nations and not only that the couples war in south Sudan has made the economics of the country decline compared to the previous periods before the couples war erupted. In other word, the couples war in the country has weaken the system of government which has
resulted in high numbers of IDPS and refugees in the country. The war in the country has made majority of people live in condition where one cannot have access to food, water, medication and schools as well.

Figure 5: Number of Dependents per Household

4.3.1. Level of Education of Respondents

The Table 8 below presents the educational levels of the respondents.

| Level of Education | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------------|-----------|---------|
| None               | 26        | 12.2    |
| Primary            | 55        | 25.8    |
| Secondary          | 89        | 41.8    |
| University         | 34        | 16.0    |
| Post graduate      | 9         | 4.2     |
| Total              | 213       | 100.0   |

Table 8: Level of Education of Respondents

Source: computed by the author (2016)

The Table indicates that 41.8% of the respondent had studied up to secondary level, 25.8% had primary education. While 16% of the respondents had studied up to University level, 12% had never gone to school and 4.2% had done post graduate courses.

Figure 6: A Pie Chart Showing Level of Education

4.4. Respondents’ Working Experience

The Table 9 below presents the number of years the respondents have been working/ using the company’s products.

| Working Experience | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------------|-----------|---------|
| Less than 1 year   | 10        | 4.7     |
| 1-2                | 27        | 12.8    |
| 3-4 years          | 35        | 16.4    |
| 4-6                | 27        | 12.8    |
| 6 and above        | 88        | 41.3    |
| Total              | 213       | 100.0   |

Table 9: Respondents’ Working Experience

Source: computed by the author (2016)
The Table and figure 4.6 show that 41.3% of the respondents had working experience of 6 years and above. In addition, 24.9% had a working experience of 4 to 6 years, 16.4% had 3 to 4 years working experience, followed by respondents with a working experience of 1 to 2 years 12.8% and 4.7% as the least with an experience of less than 1 year.

![Figure 7: Respondents Working Experience](image)

4.4.1. The Relationship between Armed Conflict and Socio-Economic Development in Centr:alequatoria

Spearman correlation coefficient was used to determine the degree of relationship between the study variables as shown in the Table 10 below.

|           | 1 Armed conflict | 2 Governance | 3 Social Economic Development |
|-----------|------------------|--------------|-----------------------------|
| Armed conflict (1) | 1.000           |              |                             |
| Governance (2)      | .446**          | 1.000        |                             |
| Social economic development (3) | .691**         | .755**       | 1.000                       |

Table 10: Pearson’s Zero Order Correlation Matrix

Source: Computed by the Researcher, 2016

**Correlation Is Significant at the .01 Level (2-Tailed)

The results in Table 10 above indicate a significant positive relationship between armed conflict and socio-economic development (r = 0.691, P-value < 0.01), which implies that armed conflict affects socio-economic development of a city like Central Equatoria, such that if there is an armed conflict, then the social economic development of a Country slows. And the opposite is true, however it indicate a significant positive relationship between governance and socio-economic development (r = 0.446, P-value < 0.01) which implies that the socio-economic development of the Country is influenced by the governance, such that when there is a good governance, then the socio-economic development is improved in any Country.

4.5. Regression Analysis of Armed Conflict and Governance on Social economic Development in Central Equatoria

Regression analysis was used to examine the armed conflict and Governance on Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria.

| Model          | Un-standardized coefficients | Standardized coefficients |
|----------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|
|                | B               | Std. Error | Beta  | T    | Sig |
| Constant       | 114.08          | 27.616     |       | 1.111| .606 |
| Armed conflict | .849            | .623       | .752  | 1.017| .497 |
| Governance     | .561            | .444       | .508  | .931 | .400 |

Table 11: Regression Model

R=0.752 R-Square =0.681, Adjusted R-square = 0.593, F= 2.942, Sig = 0.660

Source: computed by the Author (2016)

Results in Table 11 show (R= 0.752) a combination of armed conflict and Governance in assessing the level to which they can predict the level of socio-economic development in Juba County. These variables explained 75.2% of the variance of socio-economic development (R Square =.593). The most influential predictor of socio-economic development was Armed conflict (β = .752, Sig. 497). Therefore, Governance is less likely to influence socio-economic development since it portrays low significance (β = .508, Sig. 400) in the model.

A one-unit change in armed conflict will contribute to a change in socio-economic development of the state by (.752) while a one-unit change in governance will contribute to a change in socio-economic development of Central Equatoria by (.508).
4.6. The Factor Loadings of Armed Conflict, Governance and Social Economic Development

This research used factor loading in order to check how much a variable load into its corresponding factor. To understand how each item is loaded into its relevant principal component, Table 11 was used for the factor loading of each item. Straub et al (2004) suggest that value of each item in factor loading should be at least 0.50 into its relative principal component.

4.6.1. Factor Analysis of Armed Conflict

| Variables | Destruction of Infrastructure | Forced displacement | Loss of lives | Unprotected human and property rights |
|-----------|-------------------------------|--------------------|---------------|-------------------------------------|
| Assets get lost or destroyed through heavy fighting and looting | .899 | | | |
| Destruction of infrastructure affects sustainable development in the country. | | .874 | | |
| The efficiency of farm holdings is affected due to disruption of rural labour markets | | | .844 | |
| Armed conflicts are typically accompanied by large population movements | | | | .827 |
| Internal armed conflicts lead to cutting off large numbers of people from economic opportunities. | | | .794 | |
| Internal armed conflicts lead to destruction of social networks | | | .784 | |
| Violent armed conflicts kill and injure civilians and combatants | | | | .788 |
| Violent armed conflicts cause severe psychological damage to those involved in fights, to those living in war-torn communities and to displaced populations | | | | .726 |
| A number of people have lost their live during the armed conflict in South Sudan. | | | .690 | |
| The government has tried to refrain from certain acts in order to protect human and property rights | | | | .684 |
| The armed rebels respect both human and property rights | | | | .636 |
| More often human and property rights are infringed | | | | .630 |
| Eigen Value | 2.443 | .784 | 2.204546 | .227 |
| Variance % | 61.070 | 19.603 | 13.652 | 5.675 |
| Cumulative | 61.070 | 80.673 | 94.325 | 100 |

Table 12: Factor Analysis of Armed Conflict

Source: Computed by the Author (2016)

The result in Table 12 shows the factor analysis results of Armed conflict, five factors were extracted, component one (Destruction of Infrastructure) explained 61.1%, followed by Forced displacement with (19.6%) then Loss of lives with (13.6%) and the last Unprotected Human and property rights with (5.7%) of the variance of Armed conflict. The factor analysis results of armed conflict under Destruction of infrastructure attribute were explained that Assets get lost or destroyed through heavy fighting and looting (90%), Destruction of infrastructure affects sustainable development in the country (87%) and that the efficiency of farm holdings is affected due to disruption of rural labour markets (84%). Under Forced displacement attribute, they explained that armed conflicts are typically accompanied by large population movements (83%) Internal armed conflicts lead to cutting off large numbers of people from economic opportunities (79%) and that Internal armed conflicts lead to destruction of social networks (78%).

With the Loss of lives attribute, the results explained that; Violent armed conflicts kill and injure civilians and combatants( 84%), Violent armed conflicts cause severe psychological damage to those involved in fights, to those living in war-torn communities and to displaced populations (73%) and that a number of people have lost their live during the armed conflict in South Sudan 69%. Lastly under Unprotected human and property rights attribute, they explained that; the government has tried to refrain from certain acts in order to protect human and property rights (68%), the armed
rebels respect both human and property rights (64%) and that more often human and property rights are infringed (63%).

4.6.2. Factor Analysis of Governance

| Variables                                                                 | Participation | Accountability | Transparency | Leadership |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------|----------------|--------------|------------|
| There is inclusive participation and representation of all the stakeholders | .943          |                |              |            |
| All stakeholders’ participation helps in effective service delivery       | .913          |                |              |            |
| Because of the organizations’ initiatives, citizens have started living together in a harmony and peaceful environment | .890          |                |              |            |
| All leaders have a clear understanding of their responsibilities, and have clearly defined roles in a robust structure | .900          |                |              |            |
| All individuals are responsible for their decisions and actions           | .881          |                |              |            |
| There is a law, policy or statute that enforces accountability among the leaders and other parties | .854          |                |              |            |
| There is clear and public disclosure of information, rules, plans, processes and actions by governments, companies, organizations and individuals | .874          |                |              |            |
| It is the principle that public affairs need to be conducted in the open   | .839          |                |              |            |
| There is financial record keeping in the organization                     | .802          |                |              |            |
| Arrangements based on security to trust that can sustain peace and democracy have been made |              | .810          |              |            |
| I am able to quickly identify and accurately when services are falling below the promised standard |              | .776          |              |            |
| Leaders provide prompt service to the people                              | .733          |                |              |            |

Table 13: Factor Analysis of Governance  
Source: Computed by the Author (2016)

The results in Table 13 show the factor analysis results of Governance variables. Four factors were extracted, component one (Participation) explained (48.6%) followed by Accountability with (23.1%), then Transparency with (21.9%) and the last (Leadership) with (6.4%) of the variance of Governance. The factor analysis results of Governance under Participation attribute were as follows there is inclusive participation and representation of all the stakeholders (94%), all stakeholders’ participation helps in effective service delivery (91%) and that because of the organizations’ initiatives, citizens have started living together in a harmony and peaceful environment (89%). Under Accountability attribute, the results show that; all leaders have a clear understanding of their responsibilities, and have clearly defined roles in a robust structure (90%) all individuals are responsible for their decisions and actions (88%) and that there is a law, policy or statute that enforces accountability among the leaders and other parties (85%).

With Transparency attribute, the results were that; there is clear and public disclosure of information, rules, plans, processes and actions by governments, companies, organizations and individuals (87%). It is the principle that public affairs need to be conducted in the open (84%) and that there is financial record keeping in the organization life (80%). Lastly under Leadership attribute; arrangements based on security to trust that can sustain peace and democracy have been made (81%) I am able to quickly identify and accurately when services are falling below the promised standard (78%) and that Leaders provide prompt service to the people (73%).
4.6.3. Factor Analysis of Socio-Economic Development

| Variables                                                                 | Life Sustenance | Self esteem | Freedom | Income per Capita |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-------------|---------|------------------|
| There is ability to meet basic needs, there are some basic needs like food and shelter in the County | .916            |             |         |                  |
| Life sustenance affects economic development and economic welfare         | .884            |             |         |                  |
| The economic activity helps to overcome people from misery arising from shortage of food, shelter | .851            |             |         |                  |
| Self-esteem is an essential condition for development of a country        |                 | .898        |         |                  |
| Self-esteem helps to eliminate the feeling of dominance among people     |                 | .859        |         |                  |
| Self-esteem influences economic welfare of the people                    |                 | .818        |         |                  |
| Freedom from all the evils affects economic development of the people    | .839            |             |         |                  |
| There are institutions and dogmatic beliefs in the County                | .807            |             |         |                  |
| I am free from misery after the wars in the Country                      | .788            |             |         |                  |
| Income per capita influences economic development in the Country         |                 | .806        |         |                  |
| International agencies in the County use per capita income to measure their economic development |                 | .773        |         |                  |
| The Country is developing economically                                   |                 |             | .739    |                  |
| Eigen Value                                                              | 2.694           | 0.704       | 0.528   | 0.074            |
| Variance %                                                               | 67.351          | 17.589      | 13.207  | 1.853            |
| Cumulative                                                               | 67.351          | 84.940      | 98.147  | 100              |

*Table 14: Factor Analysis of Socio-Economic Development
Source: Computed by the Author (2016)*

The results in Table 14 shows the factor analysis results of Socio-Economic Development variables, four factors were extracted: component one (Life Sustenance) explained (67.4%), followed by Self-esteem with (17.6%), then Freedom with (13.2%) and the last (Income per capita) with (1.9%) of the variance of Socio-Economic Development. The factor analysis results of Socio-Economic Development under Life Sustenance attribute were explained that; there is ability to meet basic needs, there are some basic needs like food and shelter in the County (92%), Life sustenance affects economic development and economic welfare (88%) and that the economic activity helps to overcome people from misery arising from shortage of food, shelter (85%). Under Self-esteem attribute, the results indicate that; Self-esteem is an essential condition for development of a country (90%) Self-esteem helps to eliminate the feeling of dominance among people (86%) and that Self-esteem influences economic welfare of the people (80%.) With Freedom attribute, the results were explained that; Freedom from all the evils affects economic development of the people (84%) there are institutions and dogmatic beliefs in the Country (81%) and that I am free from misery after the wars in the Country (79%.)

Lastly under Income per capita attribute; income per capita influences economic development in the Country (81%) International agencies in the Country use per capita income to measure their economic development (77%) and that the Country is developing economically (74%).
4.7. Analysis of Variance for the Independent and Dependent Variables

4.7.1. Analysis of Variance for Armed conflict

|                | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F     | Sig.  |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|-------|
| **Age**        |                |    |             |       |       |
| Between Groups | 12198.100      | 8  | 1524.763    | .622  | .759  |
| Within Groups  | 2450.000       | 1  | 2450.000    |       |       |
| Total          | 14648.100      |    |             |       |       |
| **Education**  |                |    |             |       |       |
| Between Groups | 34274.100      | 8  | 4284.263    | 21.421| .566  |
| Within Groups  | 200.000        | 1  | 200.000     |       |       |
| Total          | 34474.100      |    |             |       |       |
| **Experience** |                |    |             |       |       |
| Between Groups | 17347.600      | 8  | 2168.450    | 1.166 | .619  |
| Within Groups  | 1860.500       | 1  | 1860.500    |       |       |
| Total          | 19208.100      |    |             |       |       |
| **Marital Status** |            |    |             |       |       |
| Between Groups | 25580.900      | 8  | 3197.612    | .724  | .726  |
| Within Groups  | 4418.000       | 1  | 4418.000    |       |       |
| Total          | 29998.900      |    |             |       |       |
| **Dependents** |                |    |             |       |       |
| Between Groups | 15715.600      | 8  | 1964.450    | 6.286 | .530  |
| Within Groups  | 312.500        | 1  | 312.500     |       |       |
| Total          | 16028.100      |    |             |       |       |
| **Gender**     |                |    |             |       |       |
| Between Groups | 22662.500      | 8  | 2832.813    | 354.102| .641 |
| Within Groups  | 8.000          | 1  | 8.000       |       |       |
| Total          | 22670.500      |    |             |       |       |

Table 15: The ANOVA for Armed Conflict

The result in Table 15 indicates a statistically significant difference between age groups and how likely armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria as evidenced by the result (0.759). In addition, the table indicates that there is statistically significant difference between education levels of the respondents and how likely armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at value (0.566). Similarly, the significant differences are reflected between levels of working experience (0.619), marital status (0.726); number of dependent of respondents (0.530) and between gender distribution and how likely armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at value (0.641). The above results are supported by the following P-Plots which all explain how differences in responses would alter with curve progress;

![Figure 8: P-Plots of Responses to Armed Conflict against Age, Education, Experience, Marital Status and Gender](image)

From the above plots presenting means of different categories of biodata against armed conflict, results show that there are acute deviations between age categories most of which are regressive in nature showing that categories of older people are more convinced than those of younger people that armed conflict has a direct effect on socio-economic
development in Central Equatoria. The same perception is shared among the married, the more educated, males, those of more working experience as well as people with more dependents as opposed to their alternative categories.

4.7.2. Analysis of Variance for Governance

|             | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F     | Sig. |
|-------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|------|
| **Age**     |                |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups | 10122.100     | 8  | 1265.263    | .752  | .718 |
| Within Groups   | 1682.000     | 1  | 1682.000    |       |      |
| Total         | 11804.100    | 9  |             |       |      |
| **Education** |                |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups | 10836.900     | 8  | 1354.613    | .282  | .904 |
| Within Groups   | 4802.000     | 1  | 4802.000    |       |      |
| Total         | 15638.900    | 9  |             |       |      |
| **Experience**|                |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups | 19318.000     | 8  | 2414.750    | 7.727 | .722 |
| Within Groups   | 312.500      | 1  | 312.500     |       |      |
| Total         | 19630.500    | 9  |             |       |      |
| **Marital Status** |            |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups | 8292.400      | 8  | 1036.550    | .767  | .714 |
| Within Groups   | 1352.000     | 1  | 1352.000    |       |      |
| Total         | 9644.400     | 9  |             |       |      |
| **Dependents** |                |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups | 6936.900      | 8  | 867.113     | .553  | .784 |
| Within Groups   | 1568.000     | 1  | 1568.000    |       |      |
| Total         | 8504.900     | 9  |             |       |      |
| **Gender**    |                |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups | 5492.900      | 8  | 686.613     | .238  | .926 |
| Within Groups   | 2888.000     | 1  | 2888.000    |       |      |
| Total         | 8380.900     | 9  |             |       |      |

Table 16: The ANOVA for Governance

The result in Table 16 above indicates a statistically significant difference between age groups and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria as evidenced by the result (0.718). In addition, the table indicates that there is statistically significant difference between education levels of the respondents and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria values (0.904). Similarly, the assure significant difference are reflect between levels of working experience and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.722). and indicated a statistically significant difference between marital status amongst the respondents and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.714). It further indicated a statistically significant difference between number of dependents of the respondents and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria values (0.784). Lastly, it indicated a statistically significant difference between gender distribution and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria (0.926). The above results are supported by the following P-Plots which all explain how differences in responses would alter with curve progress;

![P-Plots](image-url)
The above plots presenting means of different categories of biodata against governance show that there are relatively moderate elevations between age categories most of which are progressive in nature showing that categories of older people are more convinced than those of younger people that governance has a direct effect on socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. The same perception is shared among the married, the more educated, males, those of more working experience as well as people with dependents as opposed to their alternative categories.

4.7.3. Analysis of Variance for Socio-Economic Development

|                  | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F     | Sig. |
|------------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|------|
| **Age**          |                |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups   | 8689.600       | 7  | 1241.371    | 5.821 | .554 |
| Within Groups    | 426.500        | 2  | 213.250     |       |      |
| Total            | 9116.100       | 9  |             |       |      |
| **Education**    |                |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups   | 10968.400      | 7  | 1566.914    | 1.647 | .529 |
| Within Groups    | 1902.500       | 2  | 951.250     |       |      |
| Total            | 12870.900      | 9  |             |       |      |
| **Experience**   |                |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups   | 8951.900       | 7  | 1278.843    | 4.799 | .583 |
| Within Groups    | 533.000        | 2  | 266.500     |       |      |
| Total            | 9484.900       | 9  |             |       |      |
| **Marital Status** |              |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups   | 5878.400       | 7  | 839.771     | 1.082 | .560 |
| Within Groups    | 1552.000       | 2  | 776.000     |       |      |
| Total            | 7430.400       | 9  |             |       |      |
| **Dependents**   |                |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups   | 6878.900       | 7  | 982.700     | .916  | .613 |
| Within Groups    | 2146.000       | 2  | 1073.000    |       |      |
| Total            | 9024.900       | 9  |             |       |      |
| **Gender**       |                |    |             |       |      |
| Between Groups   | 6502.900       | 7  | 928.986     | .367  | .667 |
| Within Groups    | 5058.000       | 2  | 2529.000    |       |      |
| Total            | 11560.900      | 9  |             |       |      |

Table 17: The ANOVA for Socio-Economic Development

The result in Table 17 above indicates a statistically significant difference between age groups and how likely variations in responses would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria evidenced by the result (0.554). In addition, the table indicates that there are statistically significant differences between education levels of the respondents and how likely variations in responses would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.529). It also indicated a statistically significant difference between levels of working experience and how likely variations in responses would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.583). It indicated a statistically significant difference between marital status amongst the respondents and how likely variations in responses would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.560). It further indicated a statistically significant difference between number of dependents of the respondents and how likely variations in responses would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.613). Lastly, it indicated a statistically significant difference between gender distribution and how likely variations in responses would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria (0.667). The above results are supported by the following Means Plots which all explain how differences in responses would alter with curve progress;

Figure 10: P-Plots Showing Differences of Responses to Socio Economic Development by Age, Education, Experience, Marital Status and Gender
Remarks: From the above plots presenting means of different categories of bio-data against socio-economic development, results show that there is moderate progress between all categories most of which are proportionate in nature showing that they are independent of the study variable and none has the ability to alter it without introduction of any other variable. Age, Marital status, education, working experience, gender and number of dependents can all work in favor of or against socio-economic development in Central Equatoria depending on the other introduced variable.

5. Discussion of the Study Findings

5.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the interpretations of the study findings presented in the previous chapter. Discussion of study finding are centered on demographic data, relationship between the variance, factor analysis study and analysis of variance for the independent and dependent variables, these elements influence armed conflict and governance on socio-economic in South Sudan with special emphasis on central Equatoria

5.2. Demographic Data

5.2.1. Gender of the Respondents

The results indicate that 58.7% were males and 41.3% were females. This implies that most of the respondents in Central Equatoria were males. This is as a result of unbalanced education levels between girls and boys in Central Equatoria. However, obtaining information from both male and female is an indicator that the information contained in this report is gender sensitive hence the report data being genuine.

5.2.2. Age-group of the Respondents

The results indicate that 31.9% of respondents were between the age ranges of 41 – 50 years. In addition, those within the age bracket of 31 – 40 were 27.2%. Those who were between the age range of 21 – 30 years were ranked 3rd with a statistical representation of 23.1% and 17.8% were between the age range of 50 and above. This implies that most of the respondents in Central Equatoria are between the age range of 41 – 50 years, an indicator that most of the people in Central Equatoria are mature and energetic people who understand the concept and consequences of armed conflict on socio-economic development. Therefore, presentation of data obtained from mature respondents of above 31 years means that data contained in this study is good and reliable.

5.2.3. Marital Status of the Respondents

The result indicated that 49.3% of respondents were married, 35.2% were single, 10.3% had separated and 5.2% had divorced from their partners. This implied that most of the respondents in Central Equatoria and those engaged in the study were married, a sign of responsibility, thus validity of the information as these would devote time to the study.

5.2.4. Number of Children of the Respondents

The results indicated that 41.8% of the respondents were with dependents ranging from 1 to 3. In addition, 28.6% had 4 to 5 dependents, 21.2% had above 5 dependants and 8.4% had no dependents. This implied that most of the respondents in Central Equatoria were of reasonable families that had 1 to 3 and above dependents that knew the effect and gravity of armed conflict on socio-economic development, an indication that they care a lot about a peaceful environment, good governance for improved socio-economic development in Central Equatoria and the Country as a whole.

5.2.5. Education Levels of the Respondents

The results also indicated that 41.8% of the respondents had studied up to secondary level, 25.8% of the respondents had studied up to the level of primary. While 16% of the respondents had studied up to University level, 12% had never gone to school and 4.2% had done post graduate courses. This implied that the respondents in Central Equatoria were first hand victims who had fresh memories of armed conflict and therefore understood the magnitude of the problem and could express it thus making the study viable.

5.2.6. Number of Years Spent in the University

The results show that 41.3% of the respondents had been in the University for 6 years and above. In addition, 24.9% had been in the University for 4 to 6 years, 16.4% had 3 to 4 years work. Years in the university. This implies that most of the respondents who participated in this study had stayed in Central Equatoria for over 6 years, an indication that data obtained was obtained from the respondents who had fresh and firsthand information about the topic considering that Central Equatoria had experienced armed conflict which has had a colossal effect in the past few years, an indicated that the information got from them was not biased.
5.3. The Relationship between the Variables

5.3.1. The Relationship between Armed conflict and Socio-economic Development in Central Equatoria

The results indicated a significant positive relationship between armed conflict and socio-economic development ($r = 0.691$, $P$-value < 0.01) which implied that armed conflict affects socio-economic development of a city like Central Equatoria, such if there is an armed conflict, then the social economic development of a Country slows. The results are in line with Kondylis finding, (2005) who asserted that productivity levels of returnees tend to be lower than those that stayed, which may cause difficulties in terms of reintegration of these individuals into their original communities. Deininger, Ibanez and Querubin (2004) found that armed conflicts have profound effects on social relations between family members, neighbors and friends, on how communities relate internally and with other communities and on the operation of local institutions and their relation with state-level institutions. These changes are caused to a large extent by changes in household composition and the displacement and migration of households to safer areas as discussed above. Verpoorten, (2005) and Bundervoet, (2006) concluded that empirical evidence on price effects of armed conflict is scarce though some sparse evidence has reported an increase in prices of staple food. This increase has, however, been more than offset by reported dramatic decreases in prices of commodities produced and assets held by the household (particularly cattle and other livestock), as well as the decrease in access to exchange markets. In particular, the destruction of roads, railway lines and other infrastructure will increase transaction costs for households involved in market exchanges and, in extreme cases, will result in return to subsistence activities. This is particularly true when markets are themselves destroyed by fighting. The ability of a household to respond to price shocks depends on the sign of the shock, which, in turn, is related to different household types. A negative shock will result in losses in household utility and welfare if the household is not able to switch activities or no alternative activities exist.

5.3.2. The Link between Governance and Socio-economic Development in Central Equatoria

The results indicate a significant positive relationship between governance and socio-economic development ($r = 0.446$, $P$-value < 0.01) which implies that the socio-economic development of the Country is influenced by the governance, such that when there is a good governance, then the socio-economic development is improved in any Country. The participation is assumed to have the effect of empowering the citizens so that they can continue to give direction in public policies or programmes, and also direct future changes and put pressure on outside forces to support these changes. He argues that participatory work is thus focused on the local level and depends upon local interests and capacity to engage in action for change for the success of the public policy or programmes. In this case the increased participation of people in self-help projects can bring peace, the increased sense of ownership, and belonging by the local community members and also their willingness to take care of the existing projects in their respective village's importance.

5.3.3. Regression Analysis of Armed Conflict and Governance on Socio-economic Development in Central Equatoria

Results show ($R^2 = 0.752$) a combination of armed conflict and Governance in assessing the level to which they can predict the level of socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. These variables show 75.2% of the variance of socio-economic development ($R$ Square = .593). The most influential predictor of socio-economic development was Armed conflict ($β = .752$, Sig. 497). Governance is less likely to influence socio-economic development since it portrays low significance ($β = .508$, Sig. 400) in the model. Such that a one unit change in armed conflict would contribute to a change in social economic development of state by (.752) while a one unit change in governance would contribute to a change in social economic development of Central Equatoria by (.508). The implication in this model was that with good strategies for peace, absence of armed conflict and good governance there would be improved socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. armed violence can result in the loss of fixed assets, the disruption of formal and informal labour markets, reductions in (or absence of) foreign and domestic investment, declining tax revenues and diminishing service-delivery capacities. In short, armed violence undermines sustainable development, and participation of people peace negotiation is assumed to have the effect of empowering the citizens so that they can continue to give direction in public policies or programmes, and also direct future changes and put pressure on outside forces to support these changes. He argues that participatory work is thus focused on the local level and depends upon local interests and capacity to engage in action for change for the success of the public policy or programmes, the first to present evidence on catch up, found that, while economies suffered heavy short term losses from the two world wars, these effects dissipated after 15-20 years, when the economy had returned to pre-war growth trends. Cerra and Saxena (2008) also reported that, while output falls steeply immediately after the conflict (6% on average), the economy recovers relatively soon afterwards, with, in their case, half of the fall made up within a few years, on the other hand, civil war reduces a country's growth by 85% in the first five years, and while there is recovery, growth is still reduced by 31% after 35 years. Growth rates have lacked persistence in many countries since the 1970s because of domestic conflict. Collier (1999) lays out how civil war reduces the desired stock of factors of production, and how the duration of civil war affects post-war performance (with longer conflict durations leading to higher post-war growth).

5.4. Factor Analysis Study

5.4.1. Factor Analysis Study for Armed Conflict

Four factors namely; destruction of infrastructure, forced displacement, loss of lives and readiness unprotected human and property rights were extracted as having 100% of Armed conflict variance with Eigen values above 1 and...
item loadings above ±0.4. This implied that destruction of infrastructure, forced displacement, loss of lives and readiness unprotected human and property rights measured armed conflict.

5.4.2. Factor Analysis Discussion for Governance

Four factors namely; participation, accountability, transparency and leadership were extracted and show 100% of Governance variance with Eigen values above 1 and item loadings above ±0.4. This implied that participation, accountability, transparency and leadership measured the variance of Governance.

5.4.3. Factor Analysis Discussion for Socio-Economic Development

Four factors namely; Life Sustenance, Self-esteem, Freedom and Income per capita were extracted explaining 100% of Socio-Economic Development variance with Eigen values above 1 and item loadings above ±0.4. This implies that Life Sustenance, Self-esteem Freedom and Income per capita measure Socio-Economic Development.

5.5. Analysis of Variance for the Independent and Dependent Variables

5.5.1. Analysis of Variance for Armed conflict

The study indicates that, there are statistically significant differences between age groups and how likely armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria as evidenced by the result (0.759). In addition, it indicated a statistically significant difference between education levels of the respondents and how likely armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.566). It also indicated a statistically significant difference between levels of working experience and how likely armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.619). It indicated a statistically significant difference between marital status amongst the respondents and how likely armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.728). It further indicated a statistically significant difference between number of dependents of the respondents and how likely armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.530). Lastly, it indicated a statistically significant difference between gender distribution and how likely armed conflict would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria (0.641). This implies that the various variations between responses in different age groups had an effect on how armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria that a unit change in the level of responses would have a direct effect on how armed conflict would influence the levels of socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. This was the case with the other classifications of Education, marital status, number of dependents and working experience.

The above argument is supported by the plots with means of different categories of bio-data against armed conflict. The results showed that there are acute deviations between age categories, most of which are regressive in nature showing that categories of older people are more convinced than those of younger people that armed conflict has a direct effect on socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. The same perception was shared among the married, the more educated, males, respondents with more working experience as well as people with more dependents as opposed to other categories. This implied that a fall in armed conflict levels results in a rise in socio-economic development levels in Central Equatoria and the reverse is true.

5.5.2. Analysis of Variance for Governance

The results indicate statistically significant difference between age groups and how likely governance would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria as evidenced by the result (0.718). In addition, it indicated a statistically significant difference between education levels of the respondents and how likely governance would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.904). It also indicated a statistically significant difference between levels of working experience and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.722). It indicated a statistically significant difference between marital status amongst the respondents and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.714). It further indicated a statistically significant difference between number of dependents of the respondents and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.784). Lastly, it indicates a statistically significant difference between gender distribution and how likely governance would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria (0.926). This implied that the various variations between responses in different age groups had an effect on how armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria; in that a unit change in the level of responses would have a direct effect on how armed conflict would influence the levels of socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. This was also the case with the other classifications of Education, marital status, number of dependents and working experience. In relation to the plots presenting means of different categories of bio-data against governance, the results revealed that there were relatively moderate elevations between age categories most of which are progressive in nature and showing that categories of older people were more convinced than those of younger people that governance has a direct effect on socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. The same perception was shared among the married, the more educated, males, those of more working experience as well as people with dependents as opposed to the other categories. This implied that a rise in governance levels (better governance) leads to a proportionate rise in socio-economic levels in Central Equatoria; the same is true about a negative occurrence.
5.5.3. Analysis of Variance for Socio-Economic Development

The result indicates statistically significant difference between age groups and how likely variations in responses would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria as evidenced by the result (0.554). In addition, the results show similar statistically significant differences between education levels of the respondents and how likely variations in responses would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.529). It also indicates (0.583). It indicates a statistically significant difference between marital status amongst the respondents and how likely variations in responses would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.560). (0.613), and it also indicate a statistically significance difference (0.667). This implies that the various variations between responses in different age groups had an effect on how independent variables would influence the levels of socio-economic development; in that a unit change in the level of responses would have a direct effect on how independent variables would influence the levels of socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. This was the case with the other classifications of education, marital status, number of dependents and working experience. From the plots which present means of different categories of biodata against socio-economic development, results showed that there was moderate progress between all categories most of which are proportionate in nature showing that they were independent of the study variable and none has the ability to alter it without introduction of any other variable. Age, Marital status, education, working experience, gender and number of dependents can all work in favor of or against socio-economic development in Central Equatoria depending on the other introduced variable. This implied that only an alteration of any of these factors by another variable can cause a change in socio-economic development levels in Central Equatoria.

6. Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter highlights the major conclusion and recommendations of the study. The summary of findings is outlined in direct response to the specific objectives. Recommendations have been provided to incorporate armed conflict with governance with the overall aim of improving on the speed and effectiveness of socio-economic development in Central Equatoria, and finally suggestions for further research.

6.1. Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine how armed conflict and governance affect socio-economic development of nations with Central Equatoria as a case study area. This study evaluated the relationship between armed conflict and socio-economic development in Central Equatoria, it assesses the relationship between governance and socio-economic development it also studies the factor structure of armed conflict and governance on social economic development in Central Equatoria and finally evaluated the effect of armed conflict in Central Equatoria. This study answered four main research questions and tested three hypothesis statistically for instance what is the relationship between armed conflict and socio-economic development in Central Equatoria?, What is the link between governance and socio-economic development in Central Equatoria?, What is the factor structure of armed conflict and governance on social economic development in Central Equatoria? And, what are the implications and relationship between armed conflict governance and socio-economic development in Central Equatoria? Hypothesis tested in this study were the following:

- Hypothesis One: There is significant positive relationship between governance and socio-economic development in Central Equatoria
- Hypothesis two: Governance is less likely to influence socio-economic development in Central equatorial State
- Hypothesis three: The most influential predictor of social-economic development in South Sudan is the Armed Conflict

The study focused on identifying how armed conflict and governance influence socio-economic development in South Sudan, with particular emphasis on Central Equatoria. In this study armed conflict was taken as independent variable with four (4) indicators, Socio-economic as dependent variable with five (5) indicators and Governance as the intervening variable with four (4) indicators (Refer to Fig. 1: Conceptual Framework in page 13, Chapter One of this study). This study is divided into six chapters: chapter one introduces the study, it present the study background, problem statement, its general and specific objectives, the research questions and hypothesis, significance of the study, conceptual framework and the organization of the study. Chapter two presents the literature on the study themes, chapter three outlines the methodology of the study, and chapter four presents the analysis and interpretation of the study findings, chapter five present the discussion of the findings while chapter six presents the summary, conclusions of the study and recommendations reached. The research design in this study was cross sectional, descriptive and used quantitative research approach. The quantitative approach was mainly used to quantify and analyze the data in order to get in depth understanding of how the variables under the study impact the overall performance of the indicators. Data was collected from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data was collected directly from the respondents. The secondary data was obtained from the available literature review, text books, journals, reports, newspapers and research magazines. Questionnaire survey was used to collect data from the leaders of Central Equatoria. The choice of a questionnaire was on the basis that respondents can read and write and enables responding to the study questions without influence on the presence of the respondent. Interviews were face to face meetings. This approach was guided by the consideration that interview method of gathering information can be used to solicit the opinions and suggestions of the respondents. This can also be used as a means of probing of some interesting and unexpected behavior. A set of questions in English were asked to respondents and responses were recorded. This helped explain issues under study in depth. Information was also gathered through content analysis. This was used to supplement and enrich the information collected from other instruments. In addition, library, field pieces of information were supplemented by more information obtained from the internet. Then information obtained from these sources were then analyzed and reduced in to a written text. Validity of
the instrument was established by using expert judgment. The instrument was also submitted for comments to the supervisor, whereby suggestions were accepted and judgments were made on the content validity of the instrument. The instrument was considered valid when the CVI gotten is above 0.70. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS version 8) was used to determine the reliability of the instrument before collecting the data and the same software was also used in the analysis of the collected data. The sample size for this study was calculated using the Krejcie and Morgan Table (1970) for determining the sample. This gave a practical ratio based on the Central Equatoria’s population size. Based on Krejcie and Morgan Table, the sample size for the entire study was 348 leaders and approximately 213 residences. These 561 respondents from the survey made up the sample size for the entire population of Central Equatoria. The same perception was shared among the married, the more educated, males, those of more working experience as well as people with dependents as opposed to the other categories. This implied that a fall in armed conflict levels results in a rise in socio-economic development levels in Central Equatoria and the reverse is true. Regarding to the plots presenting means of different categories of bio-data against governance, the study reveals that there were relatively moderate elevations between age categories most of which are progressive in nature and showing that categories of older people were more convinced than those of younger people that governance has a direct effect on socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. The same perception was shared among the married, the more educated, males, those of more working experience as well as people with dependents as opposed to the other categories. This implied that a rise in governance levels (better governance) leads to a proportionate rise in socio-economic levels in Central Equatoria; the same is true about a negative occurrence. From the plots which presented means of different categories of biodata against socio-economic development, results showed that there was moderate progress between all categories most of which are proportionate in nature showing that they were independent of the study variable and none has the ability to alter it without introduction of any other variable. Age, Marital status, education, working experience, gender and number of dependents can all work in favor of or against socio-economic development in Central Equatoria depending on the other introduced variable. This implies that only an alteration of any of these factors by another variable can cause a change in socio-economic development levels in Central Equatoria. This study indicated a statistically significant difference between number of dependents of the respondents and how likely armed conflict would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. It also indicated a statistically significant difference between gender distribution and how likely armed conflict would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria the values of 0.53 and 0.641 respectively. This implied that the various variations between responses in different age groups had an effect on how armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria; in that a unit change in the level of responses would have a direct effect on how armed conflict would influence the levels of socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. This was the case with the other classifications of Education, marital status, number of dependents and working experience. It is also found that governance would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria as evidenced by the result (0.718). In addition, the study indicated a statistically significant difference between education levels of the respondents and how likely governance would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.904). It also indicated a statistically significant difference between levels of working experience and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.722). It indicated a statistically significant difference between marital status amongst the respondents and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.714). It further indicated a statistically significant difference between number of dependents of the respondents and how likely governance would influence Socio-economic development in Central Equatoria at values (0.784) it also indicated a statistically significant difference between gender distribution and how likely governance would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria (0.926). This implies that the various variations between responses in different age groups had an effect on how armed conflict would influence socio-economic development in Central Equatoria; in that a unit change in the level of responses would have a direct effect on how armed conflict would influence the levels of socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. This was also the case with the other classifications of Education, marital status, number of dependents and working experience. This study also revealed that, the various variations between responses in different age groups had an effect on how independent variables would influence the levels of socio-economic development; in that a unit change in the level of responses would have a direct effect on how independent variables would influence the levels of socio-economic development in Central Equatoria. This was the case with the other classifications of education, marital status, number of dependents and working experience. From the plots which presented means of different categories of biodata against socio-economic development, results showed that there was moderate progress between all categories most of which are proportionate in nature showing that they were independent of the study variable and none has the ability to alter it without introduction of any other variable. Age, Marital status, education, working experience, gender and number of dependents can all work in favor of or against socio-economic development in Central Equatoria depending on the other introduced variable. This implied that only an alteration of any of these factors by another variable can cause a change in socio-economic development levels in Central Equatoria. The major findings of the study were that there was a positive relationship between, armed conflict and socio-economic development (r = 0.691, P-value < 0.01) which implies that armed conflict affects socio-economic development of Central Equatoria, such that if there is an armed conflict, then the social economic development of a Country slows;
between governance and socio-economic development (r = 0.446, P-value < 0.01) which implies that the socio-economic development of Central Equatoria influenced by the governance. And showed (R= 0.752) a combination of armed conflict and Governance in assessing the level to which they can predict the level of social economic development in Central Equatoria, such that a one unit change in armed conflict would contribute to a change in social economic development of a Central Equatoria by (.752) while a one unit change in governance would contribute to a change in social economic development of Central Equatoria by (.508). Generally, the study recommends that there should be a peace-targeting approach enlisting peace building measures that directly focuses on how to combat armed conflict especially the fighters, a proper recommendable approach that would be fostering Amnesty programs for fighters to encourage withdrawal from rebel groups and all guerilla camps, and that government should try to boost its defense sector through allotting a proportionate amount of budget expenditure on acquiring arms, that, leadership at all levels should be advocated for and democracy and rule of law. The Study conclude that, authorities in Central Equatoria State should foster development through encouraging citizens and empowering them with entrepreneurship skills and a few incentives so that they can start up small enterprises on their own, and if possible, also introduce loan schemes and that the government should support leadership.

6.2. Conclusions

The study established that in general terms, variables including armed conflict and governance play a big role in socio-economic development of Central Equatoria. This trend shows that there is actually a need for reduced armed conflict and better governance as the best way to strengthen socio-economic development. The study observed that, conflict in this country was cause by greediness from the leaders who hold key position in the government. It also observed that, the impacts of war in 2013 and July 2016 in Central Equatoria has increased the problem to the government and international communities who are providing basic needs to the vulnerable people across the nations, not only that, also these couples of war in the Country has made the economy of South Sudan decline compared to previous years before the couples war erupted. Peace in South Sudan can be achieved by fighting tribalism. Resources of the country are channeled along tribal lines which in return bring conflict. Probably the best mechanism that should be apply by the government is to introduce accountability and to establishes policy that will allow equally distribution of national resources across the country so as to mitigate and eradicate conflict in the country. Finally, State development balances is necessary in South Sudan as well as catering for basic needs such as water, medication, food, shelters, and clothes to the citizens of this country without discrimination. Although there are more than five public and private Universities in South Sudan the Country still have very low number of highly qualified people. The creation of more universities both privates and public in South Sudan can eradicate the high rates of illiteracy in the country, this is important partly because a country with high number of qualified people is always in peace and right democratic systems of governance.

The structure of security system and policy in South Sudan should take the following five (5) points in to consideration:

- Stabilization of the political system by way of engaging all sectors of the society, the regional and international community for peace, diplomacy, and continuous dialogue;
- Completion of the legal framework by engaging the Ministry of Justice and South Sudan Legislative Assembly to speed up the process of making laws;
- Professionalization of the organized forces and justice system through continuous training with a focus on constitution and human rights and this can be reached through establishment of military and police colleges and a national academy of administrative sciences;
- Transformation of the political economy from a situation of post-war destruction into a viable economic policy that regulates economic institutions, promotes private enterprise and revenue collection to off-set excessive dependence on oil revenues;
- Establishment of communication with society through public media. This entails promotion of civic education and more interactions between the Government, the population and civil society.

The above points should really be put into consideration because, empirical evidence derived from data collected in the field confirms that the destruction of infrastructures, loss of lives, forced displacement and unprotected human and property rights is crucial in measuring armed conflict as these forms the best gauge for such a variable. It also confirmed that participation, accountability, transparency and leadership provide the best yardstick for measuring governance. The same was discovered in the case of socio-economic development where life-sustenance, self-esteem, freedom and per capita income were used as the attributes. The challenge however, is that armed conflict and better governance have not been given top priority yet they heavily impact on the socio-economic development of South Sudan in particular Central Equatoria. The study identified that such attributes have been undermined in the pursuit for faster socio-economic development, giving more attention to variables like corruption, unemployment and poor system. In summary the Government should work hard to strengthen political system that is to consider issues to do with good governance that consider accountability, transparency, respect for the rule of law, respect for human rights and tolerance of opposing views and finally for the country to realise a lasting peace there is need for equally distribution of national resources. The government should also do more to mitigate conflict through political structure whereby security sector reforms, periodic and fair election should be priorities in the country. In other word economic development is achieved when there is peaceful and amicable coexistent among the communities in the republic of south Sudan and to achieve the unity and minimise conflict and accelerates good government and socio-economic development and Prosperity in this country people must first come together and fight corruption, tribalism and nepotism, whereby, offering of job in government institution and private sectors should be based on merits or qualification on which right people are placed in right position.
to deliver the required services to the entirely citizen of the republic of South Sudan and this is not only the task of the government it is our responsibility of citizens of this country to work hard for the better future generations and for the goodness and development of the Country, the Republic of South Sudan in summary the level of education and health determine socio-economic development. The fact though is that armed conflict and poor governance have higher odds than any other variable when it comes to retarding development, Governance today is exercised in a manner that has resulted in democratic Participatory exercises. However, ethnicity continues to determine identity, as political parties are still weak. South Sudan is still a victim of past history, and to break with the past there are urgent changes that need to be implemented. First And foremost, the South needs to be stabilized, and violence has to be contained and people need to be protected. Security sector institutions such as organize forces must be seen to be protecting the population and the justice system should be strengthened. The Government should also engage with the population to encourage communities to support peace, and also to encourage people to restore damaged relationships. The ability to achieve these changes will determine the future of security sector reform in South Sudan. In order for South Sudan to address the security challenges faced in this country, the national government needs to orient its authority to have a relationship with society that will encourage democracy and participation of majority in decision making to avoid and minimize conflict in the country and the government should also encourage political competition. The government should build strong political economy in the country however citizens of this country need to encourage themselves through the creation of a common aim for a better and Future society and shared responsibility and skills to reach their desire goals and objective. The best way for South Sudanese to have the same unity like what they had 2010 during referendum should be through national dialogue.

6.3. Recommendations

Based on the summary of the study findings and the drawn conclusions, the study derived the following recommendations as per the main study variables: armed conflict, governance and socio-economic development.

6.3.1. Armed Conflict and Socio-Economic Development in Central Equatoria

Since, the results of the study showed that Armed Conflict directly affects the socio-economic development process in Central Equatoria with \( r = 0.691, P\text{-value} < 0.01 \) which implies that armed conflict affect socio-economic development of Central Equatoria, such that if there is an armed conflict, then the social economic development of the country slows, the study recommends that;

- There should be a peace targeting approach enlisting peace building measures that directly focuses on how to combat armed conflict in the country, the proper recommendable approach is that, the government should use a faithful language to encourage armed groups to join peace building through national dialogue.
- A national peace campaign should be preached and advocated for through all channels right from curbing armed conflict, engaging all government agencies and other organizations that can engage in responding to any circumstances that threaten peace and most importantly good governance as it is the main determinant of how fast the peace building process can bear visible fruits.
- There should be war crime committees comprising of both peace activists and ex-fighters with a deeper understanding of armed conflict causes, circumstances and strategic solutions aimed at investigating the magnitude of the conflict problem and forging a way forward.
- Major aggrieved parties should be convinced to come into talks with the government so that it can amicably solve their problem as this will reduce the risk of rebellion both within and out of the Country. Such parties can be convinced through meeting their leaders, civil society organizations and community.

6.3.2. Governance and Socio-economic Development in Central Equatoria

Since, the results of the study showed a significant positive relationship between governance and socio-economic development \( r = 0.446, P\text{-value} < 0.01 \) which implies that the socio-economic development of the Country is influenced by the governance, such that when there is a good governance, then the socio-economic development is improved in any Country. The study therefore recommends that;

- Leadership at all levels should be advocated for. There is always faster development if people are engaged in leadership of their groups as it encourages proper allocation of resources and eases the process of needs assessment especially at community level. This can be achieved through government encouraging individual participation in production and leadership at all levels in the society.
- The Central Equatoria Government should widen the constitution and include provisions for society/communal decision-making to give rise to communal projects that foster development as well as lobbying for constitutional amendment at National level to include, but not be limited to, free and fair elections, term limits, executive, legislative and judicial autonomy.
- There should be democracy and rule of law; government organs should not be instructed on what to do especially if they are being misled by individualistic leaders who intend to use government resources for personal gains. This will give rise to socio-economic development especially if resources are aimed at serving the general public. Democracy should also be exercised in form of free speech, movement, press, association and expression.
- Ensure transparency in the operations of the government. The Government revenue and expenditure should be done transparently and in a manner that benefits all people equitably. Deal documents from oil and gas resources, mineral resources, agricultural resources and various others should be made visible to the general public as this will encourage individual contribution to the Country’s development, thus faster socio-economic development.
6.3.3. Armed Conflict, Governance and Socio-Economic Development in Central Equatoria

The results of the regression analysis explained 75.2% of the variation in socio-economic development (R Square = .593) that is to say a one unit change in armed conflict would contribute to a change in socio-economic development of Central Equatoria by (.752) while a one unit change in governance would contribute to a change in social economic development of Central Equatoria by (.508) which implies that with good strategies for peace/absence of armed conflict and good governance of the Country lead to improved social economic development in Central Equatoria. Hence, this study recommends that;

- The authorities should foster development through encouraging citizens and empowering them with entrepreneurship skills and a few incentives so that they can start up small enterprises on their own and if possible, also introduce loan schemes. These can be provided to both fresh startups and struggling investors to increase output levels which in turn mean a wider market and eventually a better economy thus discouraging opposition within the Country.
- The government should support leadership. Leaders should not only be given offices and titles but also authority and resources that come with those positions such that whenever leaders feel a need to directly serve people, they go into the treasury and get the necessary resources to extend a particular service to the people. This will not only promote better governance and reduce the risk of armed conflict but it will also empower the people economically thus faster socio-economic development.
- There should be improvement in service delivery. The key to sectoral, regional or national development in any area is equitable, fair and reliable service delivery. People with access to education, health, security and other social services are more likely to feel accepted in their environment and also have less chances of engaging in armed conflict against their own country since they feel a sense of democracy and this is what pushes people to contribute to general production thus faster socio-economic development.
- Central Equatoria Administrative authorities should focus on balanced growth especially through sectoral mainstreaming to ensure at least every sector has a reasonable piece of the general budget. This will ensure equity in development at individual levels more so if the sectors being supported also attempt to respond to the people’s needs. This is an operational approach towards solving both armed conflict and governance issues.
- Authorities should also attempt to create relations with other State both in South Sudan and abroad. These help in setting up development platforms and links as well as streamlining Central Equatorias development approaches to ensure they are relevant.

6.4. Suggestion for Further Research

This study has identified the need to investigate and analyse the role of civil society organizations in restoring peace in rural areas; this will help establish how civil society organizations can help promote peace building and Social welfare in South Sudan. The researcher would also like to suggest study on the restructuring of political system as the best way to achieved the total peace in the country, and may be another study on security sector reform where the country will have qualified army, police, prison units, wild life conservation etc. which are the pillars of stability to the security of the state: South Sudan.

7. Dedication

This study is dedicated to my lovely wife Elizabeth Atong Abuoi, my Daughter Monica Manyinadhiere Yar Alier Riak, Jooh Alier known as Ngarachik, Adhieu Alier, Mary Anai Agau, Riak Alier Riak, Adhieu Alier Riak, my Mother Achol Kuol Dut, Brother Peter Agot Alier, Ngon David Kucha, Alier Luk Nong, Nancy Ayuen Alier, My Father in-law James Abuoi Amach, Micheal Amach Abuoi and late Mother in law Athieng Nhial, Young Brother Kwathker Joshua Oter Akol, family members and friends for their continued support during the process of conducting this study, particularly for encouraging me during the development of this research. Undoubtedly, their ideas and moral support gave me strength and the energy to accomplish this academic piece of work.

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Appendix

Questionnaire

Questionnaire for Community Members

Dear Sir/ Madam

I am Gabriel AlierRiak applying for a PhD Programmed in University of Juba Centre for Peace and Development. As part of the requirements for the award of the above degree, I am required to carry out a research project. The research is on the influence of armed conflict and governance on Socio-Economic Development in South Sudan. You are kindly requested to spare some time and voluntarily respond to the following questions. All your responses will be treated confidentially and will be used for academic purposes.

Your input is highly appreciated.

Please tick your selected option

Section A: Bio data

1. Gender

| Male | Female |
|------|--------|
|     1 |        2 |

*Table 18*

2. Age Group

| 21 – 30 Yrs | 31 – 40 Yrs | 41 – 50 Yrs | 50+ Yrs |
|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------|
|             |             |             |        |

*Table 19*

3. Marital status

| Single | Married | Divorced | Separated | Others |
|--------|---------|----------|-----------|--------|
|         |         |          |           |        |

*Table 20*

4. Number of dependants

| 0       | 1-3     | 4-5     | 5+       |
|---------|---------|---------|----------|
|         |         |         |          |

*Table 21*

5. Level of education

| None | Primary | Secondary | University | Postgraduate |
|------|---------|-----------|-----------|--------------|
|     1 |         |           |           |               |

*Table 22*
6. Number of years staying in Central Equatoria

|                | <1 year | 1-2 Yrs | 3-4 Yrs | 5-6 Yrs | 70 + |
|----------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|------|
| **Table 23**   |         |         |         |         |      |

**Section B: Armed Conflicts**

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements. Tick the scale

|                     | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Not Sure | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---------------------|-------------------|----------|----------|-------|----------------|
| 1                   | Assets get lost or destroyed through heavy fighting and looting. | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 2                   | The efficiency of farm holdings is affected due to disruption of rural labour markets. | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 3                   | Limits imposed on the operation of larger farms affects the business | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 4                   | There is destruction of houses in the country | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 5                   | Destruction of infrastructure affects sustainable development in the country. | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 6                   | Armed conflicts are typically accompanied by large population movements | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 7                   | Civilian populations are often targets for both armies and rebel groups trying to expand their territorial control | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 8                   | Internal armed conflicts lead to cutting off large numbers of people from economic opportunities. | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 9                   | Internal armed conflicts can lead to a vicious cycle of displacement | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 10                  | Internal armed conflicts lead to destruction of social networks | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 11                  | Loss of lives | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 12                  | Violent armed conflicts kill and injure civilians and combatants | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 13                  | Violent armed conflicts cause severe psychological damage to those involved in fights, to those living in war-torn communities and to displaced populations | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 14                  | Civilians in war zones may also be subject to war atrocities such as genocide | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 15                  | Loss of lives caused by violent armed conflicts affects sustainable development | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 16                  | A number of people have lost their live during the armed conflict in South Sudan. | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 17                  | Unprotected human and property rights | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 18                  | More often human and property rights are infringed | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 19                  | Persons that are not taking part in the conflict of those that can longer take part in the armed hostilities are respected | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |
| 20                  | There has been independency for the sake of protecting the innocent victims of conflict with their property | 1        | 2        | 3      | 4               |

**Table 24**
### Section C: Governance

| Participation | | | | | |
|---------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | There is inclusive participation and representation of all the stakeholders | | | | |
| 2 | The leaders allow our participation in all the activities. | | | | |
| 3 | Because of the organizations’ initiatives, citizens have started living together in a harmony and peaceful environment | | | | |
| 4 | The organisations allow citizens to be involved in development programmes | | | | |
| 5 | All stakeholders’ participation helps in effective service delivery | | | | |
| Accountability | | | | | |
| 6 | All individuals are responsible for their decisions and actions | | | | |
| 7 | There is stewardship of funds | | | | |
| 8 | All leaders have a clear understanding of their responsibilities, and have clearly defined roles in a robust structure | | | | |
| 9 | There is sound financial management at the center | | | | |
| 10 | There is a law, policy or statute that enforces accountability among the leaders and other parties | | | | |
| Transparency | | | | | |
| 11 | There is clear and public disclosure of information, rules, plans, processes and actions by governments, companies, organisations and individuals | | | | |
| 12 | It is the principle that public affairs need to be conducted in the open | | | | |
| 13 | There is financial management in the organisation | | | | |
| 14 | There is financial record keeping in the organisation | | | | |
| 15 | I have knowledge of organisation’ financial status. | | | | |
| Leadership | | | | | |
| 16 | Leaders are always willing to help the public | | | | |
| 17 | Arrangements based on security to trust that can sustain peace and democracy have been made | | | | |
| 18 | Leaders provide prompt service to the people | | | | |
| 19 | There is transformed public service in South Sudan | | | | |
| 20 | I am able to quickly identify and accurately when services are falling below the promised standard | | | | |

**Table 25**

### Section D: Social Economic Development

| Life Sustenance | | | | | |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | There is ability to meet basic needs, there are some basic needs like food and shelter in the Country | | | | |
| 2 | I have access to basic needs that essential for improvement in the quality of life | | | | |
| 3 | The economic activity helps to overcome people from misery arising from shortage of food, shelter | | | | |
| 4 | There are programmes for empowerment with the main aim of self-reliance | | | | |
5 Life sustenance affects economic development and economic welfare
Self-esteem

6 All individuals have self-respect
Individually in the Country have and independence

7 Self-esteem is an essential condition for development of a country

8 Self-esteem helps to eliminate the feeling of dominance among people

9 Self-esteem influences economic welfare of the people

Freedom

10 There is sense of release from freedom in the Country

11 I am free from misery after the wars in the Country

12 There are institutions and dogmatic beliefs in the Country

13 I have freedom from want, ignorance and squalor

14 Freedom form all the evils affects economic development of the people
Income per capita

15 There is national economic development

16 The Country is developing economically

17 International agencies in the Country use per capita income to measure their economic development

18 Income per capita influences economic development in the Country

Questionnaire for Administrative Staff

Dear Sir/Madam
I am Gabriel Alier Riak applying for a PhD Programme in University of Juba Centre for Peace and Development. As part of the requirements for the award of the above degree, I am required to carry out a research project. The research is on the influence of armed conflict on Economic Development in South Sudan. You are kindly requested to spare some time and voluntarily respond to the following questions. All your responses will be treated confidentially and will be used for academic purposes.
Your input is highly appreciated.

Please tick your selected option

Section A: Bio data

1. Gender

| Male | Female |
|------|--------|
| 1    | 2      |

Table 27

2. Age Group

| 21 – 30 Yrs | 31 – 40 Yrs | 41 – 50 Yrs | 50+ Yrs |
|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------|

Table 28

3. Marital status

| Single | Married | Divorced | Separated |
|--------|---------|----------|-----------|
| 1      | 2       | 3        | 4         |

Table 29
4. Number of dependants

|       | 0  | 1-3 | 4-5 | 5+ |
|-------|----|-----|-----|----|

Table 30

5. Level of education

| Certificate | Diploma | Tertiary | Masters | Phd |
|-------------|---------|----------|---------|-----|
| 1           | 2       | 3        | 4       | 5   |

Table 31

6. Number of years working in Central Equatoria

|       | <1 year | 1-2 Yrs | 2-4 Yrs | 4-6 Yrs | 6 + Yrs |
|-------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|

Table 32

Section B: Armed Conflicts

| | Please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements. Tick the scale |
|---|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|   | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Not Sure | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|----------|----------|-------|---------------|
|   | 1                 | 2        | 3        | 4     | 5             |

Destruction of Infrastructure

1. There has been assets loss through heavy fighting and looting in the country.

2. The efficiency of farm holdings has been affected due to disruption of rural labour markets.

3. Limits imposed on the operation of larger farms affects the business.

4. There has been destruction of houses in the country.

5. There has been destruction of infrastructure affects sustainable development in the country.

Forced displacement

6. Armed conflicts are typically accompanied by large population movements.

7. Civilian populations are often targets for both armies and rebel groups trying to expand their territorial control.

8. Internal armed conflicts lead to cutting off large numbers of people from economic opportunities.

9. Internal armed conflicts can lead to a vicious cycle of displacement.

10. Internal armed conflicts lead to destruction of social networks.

Loss of lives

11. Violent armed conflicts kill and injure civilians and combatants.

12. Violent armed conflicts cause severe psychological damage to those involved in fights, to those living in war-torn communities and to displaced populations.

13. Civilians in war zones may also be subject to war atrocities such as genocide.

14. Loss of lives caused by violent armed conflicts affects sustainable development.

15. A number of people have lost their live during the armed conflict in South Sudan.

Unprotected human and property rights

16. We try to refrain from certain acts in order to protect human and property rights.

17. The armed rebels respect both human and property rights.

18. More often human and property rights are infringed.

19. Persons that are not taking part in the conflict of those that can longer take part in the armed hostilities are respected.

20. There has been independency for the sake of protecting the innocent victims of conflict with their property.

Table 33
Section C: Governance

| Participation |  |  |  |  |  |
|---------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | There is inclusive participation and representation of all the stakeholders. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | We allow participation of all the citizens in all the activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | Because of the leaders’ initiatives, citizens have started living together in a harmonious and peaceful environment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | We allow citizens to be involved in development programmes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | All stakeholders’ participation helps in effective service delivery. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| Accountability |  |  |  |  |  |
|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6 | All individuals are responsible for their decisions and actions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7 | There is stewardship of funds. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8 | I have a clear understanding of their responsibilities and have clearly defined roles in a robust structure. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9 | There is sound financial management at the center. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10 | There is a law, policy or statute that enforces accountability among the leaders and other parties. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| Transparency |  |  |  |  |  |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11 | There is clear and public disclosure of information, rules, plans, processes and actions by governments, companies, organisations and individuals. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12 | It is the principle that public affairs need to be conducted in the open. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13 | There is financial management in the organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14 | There is financial record keeping in the organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15 | All stakeholders have knowledge of organization’ financial status. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| Leadership |  |  |  |  |  |
|------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 16 | I am always willing to help the public. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17 | Arrangements based on security to trust that can sustain peace and democracy have been made. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18 | I provide prompt service to the people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19 | There is transformed public service in South Sudan. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20 | People are able to quickly identify and accurately when services are falling below the promised standard. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Table 34

Section D: Economic Development

| Life Sustenance |  |  |  |  |  |
|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | There is ability to meet basic needs, there are some basic needs like food and shelter in the Country. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | People access basic needs that essential for improvement in the quality of life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | The economic activity helps to overcome people from misery arising from shortage of food, shelter. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | There are programmes for empowerment with the main aim of self-reliance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | Life sustenance affects economic development and economic welfare. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| Self-esteem |  |  |  |  |  |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6 | All individuals have self-respect. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7 | Individuals in the Country have and independence. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8 | Self-esteem is an essential condition for development of a country. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9 | Self-esteem helps to eliminate the feeling of dominance among people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|   |                                                                 |
|---|-----------------------------------------------------------------|
| 10| Self-esteem influences economic welfare of the people           |
|   | Freedom                                                         |
| 11| There is sense of release from freedom in the Country           |
| 12| There is freedom from misery after the wars in the Country     |
| 13| There are institutions and dogmatic beliefs in the Country     |
| 14| There is freedom from want, ignorance and squalor              |
| 15| Freedom from all the evils affects economic development of the people |
|   | Income per capita                                              |
| 16| There is national economic development                         |
| 17| The County is developing economically                          |
| 18| International agencies in the Country use per capita income to measure their economic development |
| 19| Income per capita influences economic development in the Country |

*Table 35*