

# A Cross-National Analysis of Civil Wars

*Rhythm Mukherjee<sup>1</sup>*

*Sweta Pareek<sup>2</sup>*

## Abstract

In this paper we attempt to provide a comparative cross-national analysis of civil wars. We explore their causes, dynamics, and consequences. The study examines civil wars from multiple regions and evaluates economic, political, social, and cultural factors that contribute to the onset, escalation, and duration of civil conflicts. After analysing various small caslets from Africa, Asia, Europe, and Latin America, we identify trends and differences between civil wars, ultimately suggesting potential policy interventions aimed at conflict prevention and resolution. Through cross-national statistical data and historical case analyses, this study concludes that civil wars are shaped by complex interactions of both global and local variables.

**Keywords:** *civil war, conflict, cross-national, political instability, insurgency*

## Introduction

Civil wars, in perspective, are one of the most destructive forms of political conflict that causes significant loss of life, creates displacement, and inflicts long-term economic decline. According to studies of Fearon and Laitin (2003), civil wars have been wide-spread across various nations since the end of the Second World War, particularly strongly affecting developing countries. Civil wars are internal conflicts between organized groups within a state that aim to gain control of the government or a specific region (Kalyvas, 2006). In this paper we aim to explore the causes, dynamics, and consequences of civil wars across different national contexts; and by comparing case situations, in this research, we provide a broader understanding of the political, social, and economic conditions under which civil wars manifest.

Theories on what causes or triggers a civil war ranges from ethnic tensions to political oppression, economic inequality even to environmental degradation. In their research, Collier and Hoeffler (2004) argue that civil wars are primarily caused by economic greed. While others emphasize upon grievances stemming from ethnic marginalization or political exclusion (see Cederman, Gleditsch, & Buhaug, 2013). This debate of “greed vs. grievance” provides an useful paradigm through which we can analyze the diverse motivations that lead to it. Political scientist James Fearon (2004) asserts that weakness of state, combined with rebellion

---

<sup>1</sup> Research Associate, School of Management, University of Engineering and Management Jaipur

<sup>2</sup> Assistant Professor, School of Management, University of Engineering and Management Jaipur

organizations' capacity, often determines the likelihood of such civil conflicts. Here we use a comparative methodology to examine civil wars in different countries, relying mostly on qualitative case studies supported by quantitative data ranging through the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP) and the Correlates of War (COW) datasets that provide detailed information on the occurrence and characteristics of civil wars. They are also used to identify patterns and associations between variables such as GDP per capita, ethnic diversity, and government type (Sambanis, 2001).

## **Literature Review**

Studies pertaining to 'Civil war' has evolved significantly over the last few decades. Scholars have identified several key factors that prominently contribute to the onset of civil wars, ranging from ethnic diversity, political instability, economic inequality, and external intervention (Walter, 1997). Doyle and Sambanis (2000) moves on to suggest that peace-building efforts in post-conflict societies are often undermined by the same conditions that lead to very conflict. Cross-national studies, to some extent, indicate that civil wars tend to be more prevalent in countries with relatively weaker governance, or higher levels of poverty, and fragmented societies (Hegre & Sambanis, 2006).

### *Causes of Civil Wars*

#### 1. Political Factors

Political instability and authoritarian regimes are significant predictors of civil wars. Governments that exclude certain ethnic or political groups from power create grievances that may lead to rebellion (Cederman, Wimmer, & Min, 2010). Countries with weak institutions or histories of colonialism may struggle to maintain stability, as seen in many African nations (Chandra, 2004).

#### 2. Economic Factors

As per Collier and Hoeffler (2004), economic factors such as poverty, unemployment, and inequality enhances the risk of civil wars majorly. Resource-rich countries are particularly vulnerable, as competition for control of valuable resources can trigger such conflicts (see Ross, 2004). Countries like Sierra Leone and Angola, where diamonds played a key role in funding rebel groups, seem to serve as case of the issue - "resource curse."

#### 3. Social and Ethnic Factors

Ethnic diversity, particularly when combined with economic disparities along with political exclusion, can lead to civil wars too (Horowitz, 2000). The Rwandan Genocide of 1994 and the Yugoslav Wars of the 1990s, clearly demonstrate how & why ethnic tensions can spiral into full-scale civil conflicts.

#### 4. Environmental Factors

Environmental degradation and competition for resources, such as water and arable land, have also been identified as potential triggers for civil wars, especially in regions experiencing the effects of climate change (Homer-Dixon, 1999). Say, the conflict in Darfur, has been linked to desertification and competition over scarce resources (De Waal, 2007).

#### *Case Studies*

##### 1. Rwanda (1994)

The civil war and subsequent genocide in Rwanda were primarily driven by ethnic tensions between the Hutu and Tutsi groups, exacerbated by political exclusion and economic disparities. The lack of effective international intervention allowed the conflict to escalate, resulting in one of the most devastating humanitarian crises of the 20th century (Mamdani, 2001).

##### 2. Syria (2011-Present)

Syria's ongoing civil war has its roots in political repression, economic inequality, and sectarian tensions between Sunni and Alawite groups. The conflict has been prolonged by foreign intervention from multiple actors, including the U.S., Russia, and Iran (Phillips, 2016).

##### 3. Sri Lanka (1983-2009)

The Sri Lankan Civil War between the government and the Tamil Tigers was driven by ethnic tensions between the Sinhalese majority and Tamil minority. The conflict lasted for over 25 years, ending only after a brutal military offensive by the government (Uyangoda, 2010).

#### *Consequences of Civil Wars*

##### 1. Humanitarian Impact

Civil wars result in significant human suffering, including loss of life, displacement, and trauma. According to the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP), civil wars have caused millions of deaths and displaced over 65 million people globally (Pettersson & Wallensteen, 2015).

##### 2. Economic Impact

Civil wars devastate economies, leading to long-term declines in GDP, infrastructure destruction, and loss of foreign investment (Collier, 1999). Post-conflict reconstruction is often slow and costly, as seen in countries like Afghanistan and Iraq (Barakat & Zyck, 2011).

##### 3. Political Consequences

Civil wars often result in political instability, with new conflicts emerging or authoritarian regimes taking power. The post-civil war political landscape is often fragile, as evidenced by conflicts in Sudan and South Sudan (De Waal, 2005).

### *Policy Implications*

In order to prevent the outbreak of civil wars, governments and notable international organizations must address the root 'causes' of conflict, including economic inequality, political exclusion, and environmental degradation (Fearon & Laitin, 2003). Peace-building efforts should focus on strengthening institutions, promoting inclusive governance, and thereby fostering economic development (Paris, 2004).

### *Understanding Civil Wars through the "Greed vs. Grievance" Lens*

The "greed vs. grievance" debate (that we emphasized earlier) forms one of the fundamental frameworks for understanding the drivers of such conflicts. According to Collier and Hoeffler (2004), economic greed often explains the (initiation) of civil wars, especially when rebel groups exploit a country's pivotal natural resources, such as diamonds or oil. This theory was prominently illustrated in the case of Sierra Leone, where diamond mining sustained and prolonged rebel activities (Ross, 2004). Conversely, grievances related to ethnic, social, and political exclusion play a significant role in motivating insurgencies, as seen in the conflicts in Rwanda and Syria (Cederman et al., 2013).

Both perspectives, (greed and grievance), are supported by ample empirical evidence. Collier and Hoeffler's (2004) econometric model suggests that economic opportunities, such as controlling valuable commodities, have a high predictive power for the onset of civil wars. On the other hand, Kalyvas (2006) emphasizes that ethnic and political marginalization too, often lead to deep-seated resentments, which increases the likelihood of rebellion, possibly. Civil wars are often sustained by both greed and grievances, with rebels exploiting grievances methodically to mobilize local populations while using natural resources to fund their operations (Fearon, 2004).

### *The Role of External Actors in Civil Wars*

Foreign intervention in civil wars complicates the conflict dynamics to a large extent and prolongs their duration. In Syria, for instance, the involvement of external agents such as Russia, the United States, and Iran has escalated and prolonged the conflict beyond its original causes of domestic political repression (Phillips, 2016). Walter (1997) explains that the international community often intervenes in civil wars, either by providing support to one side or through peace-keeping efforts. However, foreign interventions can also backfire by emboldening rebel groups or destabilizing regional politics, as seen in Afghanistan.

Countries with geo-strategic importance are more likely to attract external intervention, which perhaps makes the conflicts more intractable (Doyle & Sambanis, 2000). This is evident in cases like Yemen, where the civil war somehow became a proxy conflict between Saudi Arabia and Iran, fuelling sectarian divides and prolonging the conflicts. The interaction between local, regional, and international actors in civil wars underscores the complexity of these conflicts, with each player pursuing their interests and potentially exacerbating the humanitarian crisis.

### *Patterns in the Duration of Civil Wars*

The duration of civil wars varies largely with some conflicts lasting only for a few months, while others (such as the civil war in Colombia), spanned decades (Fearon, 2004). The average duration of civil wars has seen to have increased over time, with conflicts lasting longer due to a combination of several factors, including foreign intervention, the availability of financing through natural resources, and the capacity of rebel organizations (Sambanis, 2001).

Fearon (2004) suggests that the 'type of insurgency' plays a critical role in determining the length of a civil war. Guerrilla warfare, for instance, tend to result in prolonged conflicts due to its decentralized and covert alignment, as seen in Colombia and Sri Lanka. In contrast, more conventional civil wars, such as those that involve direct confrontations between government forces and rebels, tend to be shorter but more intense (Kalyvas, 2006).

### *Impacts of Civil Wars on State Development*

#### *Economic Consequences*

Civil wars have long-lasting negative impacts on economic development, especially in countries that already struggle with poverty and inequality (Collier, 1999). War destroys infrastructure, disrupts trade, and leads to a loss of human capital. Countries emerging from civil war often find themselves in a vicious cycle of underdevelopment, with slow recovery rates. Collier and Hoeffler (2004) note that the economic damage inflicted by civil wars can take decades to repair. For instance, the war-torn economies of South Sudan and Afghanistan continue to face slow growth, high unemployment, and widespread poverty.

Post-conflict reconstruction is also expensive, with countries requiring significant foreign aid and investment to rebuild infrastructure and restore economic stability. However, foreign investment is often hesitant in post-conflict regions due to concerns over political instability and the potential for renewed violence (Barakat & Zyck, 2011). Thus, even after the formal end of a civil war, the economic consequences linger, undermining long-term development prospects.

#### *Social and Humanitarian Costs*

The social consequences of civil wars are devastating to say the least. Millions of people are compromised or displaced by these conflicts, resulting in a long-term refugee crisis for many. The humanitarian impact of civil wars is particularly severe in regions where international assistance is limited to some extent, and where displaced populations lack access to food, healthcare, and education (see Pettersson & Wallensteen, 2015).

Internally displaced persons (called IDPs) and refugees often face years to even decades, of uncertainty in living in camps or urban slums without proper integration into the host society. The long-term effects on mental health and community cohesion can be devastating, as witnessed in places like the Democratic Republic of Congo (De Waal, 2005). Children, in

essence, suffer as they lose access to education and are exposed to violence, trauma, and exploitation.

### *Political Aftermath of Civil Wars*

Post-civil war societies are often characterized by fragile peace and political instability. Peace agreements can be difficult to enforce in, and many countries experience a relapse of severe violence after the initial cessation of hostilities (Walter, 1997). This has been the case in countries like South Sudan, where the failure to implement a lasting peace deal led to renewed conflict in 2013. Post-conflict societies also often face the challenge of political fragmentation, with appreciated former rebel groups transitioning into political parties too, that may struggle to coexist with the government.

Efforts to establish lasting peace in post-civil war societies depend heavily on the ability to address the underlying grievances that caused the conflict in the first place. Political reforms, including decentralization of power and even inclusion of the minority groups, are critical for preventing a return to violence. However, implementing such reforms are often difficult in the immediate aftermath of a civil war, as political elites are reluctant to share power and former combatants remaining distrustful of the peace-process (Paris, 2004).

## **Conclusion and Policy Recommendations**

Civil wars, hence, present a complex challenge for national and international actors just the same. The cross-national analysis in this essay, highlights the diverse causes and consequences of civil wars, ranging from economic greed and political grievances, to ethnic tensions and environmental degradations, to name a few. Understanding these factors is crucial for preventing future conflicts and resolving ongoing ones. Effective policies from Government, for preventing civil wars must be tailored to the specific context of each country (regions). International organizations and national governments should focus on addressing the root causes of conflict, including political exclusion, economic inequality, and environmental stressors. Additionally, peace-building efforts must be sustained and inclusive, ensuring that all stakeholders have a role in shaping the post-conflict political and economic landscape.

Foreign interventions should be carefully customized to avoid exacerbating conflicts, and efforts should be made to strengthen the capacity of national governments in order to manage internal tensions without resorting to violence. Moreover, international actors should support post-conflict reconstruction with substantial economic aid and also (to some extent) technical assistance to ensure that war-torn societies can rebuild and recover.

One of the most significant findings from analyzing cross-national civil war - is that weak institutions and governance structures exacerbate the risk of internal conflict. As Walter (2002) suggests, fragile states with corrupt or authoritarian governments are more prone to civil wars just because they fail to manage 'dissent' peacefully. Strengthening democratic institutions and

ensuring political inclusivity are perhaps key to preventing civil wars. International organizations, such as the United Nations and World Bank etc, must focus on building governance capacity mostly in at-risk countries. Technical assistance should prioritize decentralization; fostering transparency and supporting electoral processes that are free and just (Paris, 2004). In fragile states, governments should focus more on institutional reforms that promote good governance, uphold human rights, and guarantee the participation of marginalized groups in political processes. Ethnic exclusion has been found to fuel rebellion, particularly in ethnically diverse countries like Sudan and Myanmar (Cederman et al., 2010). Inclusive political processes reduce the grievances that can motivate insurgencies, allowing states to mediate disputes before they escalate into full-scale wars.

Economic disparity is another driver of civil wars. As Ross (2004) highlights that in countries rich in natural resources, such as oil, or diamonds, or minerals, rebel groups may exploit these resources to fund insurgencies to some extent. This "resource curse" creates a cycle of violence, with rebels and governments competing over control of valuable commodities. Policies aimed at mitigating economic inequality should focus on redistributing wealth more equitably, particularly in resource rich regions. This could include more robust taxation policies, fair distribution of resource revenues, and reinvesting in local communities to provide alternative livelihoods (Collier & Hoeffler, 2004).

International financial institutions should proceed to support economic reforms that promote inclusive growth measures, also create jobs, and improve living standards in conflict-prone countries or regions. Reducing economic inequality through targeted and customized social programs, investment in infrastructure, and equitable resource management can help weaken the appeal of rebel groups and thereby reduce the financial incentives for engaging in conflict (Homer-Dixon, 1999).

International peace-building efforts should prioritize long-term stability rather than focusing solely on short-term conflict cessation. Walter (1997) argues that peace agreements are often fragile unless external actors commit to long-term involvement in post-conflict societies. This includes supporting political reforms, facilitating economic development, and fostering reconciliation between warring parties. In Bosnia, for example, the Dayton Agreement succeeded because of sustained international involvement in peace enforcement and post-conflict reconstruction (Paris, 2004).

Peace agreements should incorporate provisions for power-sharing, particularly in multi-ethnic societies where political exclusion is a key driver of civil war (Woodward, 2007). International mediators must ensure that all relevant actors, including marginalized groups and civil society, are included in the negotiation process to avoid the re-emergence of grievances that could trigger future conflicts (Wucherpfennig et al., 2012).

Furthermore, peacekeeping missions can play an essential role in stabilizing post-conflict regions. The presence of neutral international forces often helps to monitor ceasefires, protect

civilians, and prevent renewed violence. However, such missions must be properly resourced and supported by the international community to be effective. For example, the United Nations-African Union Mission in Darfur (UNAMID) struggled due to insufficient resources and logistical challenges, illustrating the importance of robust international backing (Williams, 2016).

In regions where environmental stress exacerbates conflict, such as in the Sahel and parts of the Middle East, it is essential to integrate climate resilience into peacebuilding strategies. Homer-Dixon (1999) argues that environmental degradation and competition over scarce resources, like water and arable land, can lead to civil wars. The conflict in Darfur is a case in point, where desertification and droughts contributed to the outbreak of violence (De Waal, 2007).

Policymakers should focus on strengthening climate adaptation programs in conflict-prone regions, investing in sustainable agriculture, water management, and renewable energy. These efforts can reduce competition over scarce resources, helping to mitigate one of the environmental drivers of conflict. International cooperation is crucial in this regard, particularly through initiatives like the Paris Agreement, which seeks to address the broader impacts of climate change on vulnerable regions (Ross, 2004).

Reconciliation efforts are critical for achieving long-term peace in post-civil war societies. Addressing past atrocities, rebuilding trust between communities, and fostering a sense of national unity are essential steps in the healing process (Uyangoda, 2010). Transitional justice mechanisms, such as truth commissions, reparations, and trials for war crimes and the like, can help to address the grievances of victims and promote accountability for those responsible for violence (Williams, 2016). Such reconciliation programs should involve both top-down and bottom-up approaches, mostly encouraging community-based initiatives alongside all national-level efforts. In South Africa, for example, the Truth and Reconciliation Commission helped to bring closure to many victims of apartheid while promoting a narrative of national healing (Woodward, 2007). However, such processes are delicate and must be carefully managed to avoid re-igniting tensions between former combatants and communities.

## References

- Barakat, S., & Zyck, S. A. (2011). The evolution of post-conflict recovery. *Third World Quarterly*, 32(2), 259–277. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01436597.2011.560471>
- Cederman, L. E., Gleditsch, K. S., & Buhaug, H. (2013). *Inequality, grievances, and civil war*. Cambridge University Press.
- Cederman, L. E., Wimmer, A., & Min, B. (2010). Why do ethnic groups rebel? New data and analysis. *World Politics*, 62(1), 87–119. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0043887109990219>



- Chandra, K. (2004). *Why ethnic parties succeed: Patronage and ethnic headcounts in India*. Cambridge University Press.
- Collier, P. (1999). On the economic consequences of civil war. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 51(1), 168–183. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oep/51.1.168>
- Collier, P., & Hoeffler, A. (2004). Greed and grievance in civil war. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 56(4), 563–595. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oep/gpf064>
- De Waal, A. (2005). Who are the Darfurians? Arab and African identities, violence and external engagement. *African Affairs*, 104(415), 181–205. <https://doi.org/10.1093/afraf/adi012>
- De Waal, A. (2007). *Darfur: A new history of a long war*. Zed Books.
- Doyle, M. W., & Sambanis, N. (2000). International peacebuilding: A theoretical and quantitative analysis. *American Political Science Review*, 94(4), 779–801. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2586208>
- Fearon, J. D. (2004). Why do some civil wars last so much longer than others? *Journal of Peace Research*, 41(3), 275–301. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022343304043770>
- Fearon, J. D., & Laitin, D. D. (2003). Ethnicity, insurgency, and civil war. *American Political Science Review*, 97(1), 75–90. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0003055403000534>
- Hegre, H., & Sambanis, N. (2006). Sensitivity analysis of empirical results on civil war onset. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 50(4), 508–535. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022002706289303>
- Homer-Dixon, T. F. (1999). *Environment, scarcity, and violence*. Princeton University Press.
- Horowitz, D. L. (2000). *Ethnic groups in conflict*. University of California Press.
- Kalyvas, S. N. (2006). *The logic of violence in civil war*. Cambridge University Press.
- Mamdani, M. (2001). *When victims become killers: Colonialism, nativism, and the genocide in Rwanda*. Princeton University Press.
- Paris, R. (2004). *At war's end: Building peace after civil conflict*. Cambridge University Press.
- Pettersson, T., & Wallensteen, P. (2015). Armed conflicts, 1946–2014. *Journal of Peace Research*, 52(4), 536–550. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022343315595927>
- Phillips, C. (2016). *The battle for Syria: International rivalry in the new Middle East*. Yale University Press.
- Ross, M. L. (2004). How do natural resources influence civil war? Evidence from thirteen cases. *International Organization*, 58(1), 35–67. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S002081830458102X>

- Sambanis, N. (2001). Do ethnic and nonethnic civil wars have the same causes? A theoretical and empirical inquiry (part 1). *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 45(3), 259–282. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022002701045003001>
- Uyangoda, J. (2010). Politics of ethnicity in post-war Sri Lanka. *The Journal of Asian Studies*, 69(3), 641–656. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0021911810001365>
- Walter, B. F. (1997). The critical barrier to civil war settlement. *International Organization*, 51(3), 335–364. <https://doi.org/10.1162/002081897550384>
- Walter, B. F. (2002). *Committing to peace: The successful settlement of civil wars*. Princeton University Press.
- Williams, P. D. (2016). *War and conflict in Africa*. Polity Press.
- Woodward, S. L. (2007). Do the root causes of civil war matter? On using knowledge to improve peacebuilding interventions. *Journal of Intervention and Statebuilding*, 1(2), 143–170. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17502970701302789>
- Wucherpfennig, J., Metternich, N. W., Cederman, L. E., & Gleditsch, K. S. (2012). Ethnicity, the state, and the duration of civil war. *World Politics*, 64(1), 79–115. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S004388711100030X>