

AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF NOVEL CORONAVIRUS PANDEMIC ON  
COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION

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## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of the study was to analyze the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on Collective Security in the SADC Region. The study adopted a qualitative research design. Moreover, the total sample for the study was 20 participants from the Namibian Defence Force, Ministry of International Relations and Co-operation, Namibian Police and Namibia Correctional Services as well as scholars in the field of International Relations. Furthermore, the participants were sampled through purposive sampling and the study used semi-structured open-ended interviews. The research findings revealed that, the COVID -19 pandemic has greatly affected Collective Security in the SADC Region. The Collective Security Mechanisms affected by the COVID-19 pandemic is the SADC Standby Force rapid deployment capabilities. During the pandemic, the SADC Strategic Development Plan meetings such as Strategic Indicative Plan of the Organ (SIPO) on Defence, Politics and Security were put on hold, therefore escalating the insecurity in the SADC Region. Moreover, under such circumstances the SADC member states were unable to create a stable political and security environment through which the region is able to realize its objectives of social economic development and Regional Integration. Furthermore, Collective Security was further impacted in terms of personnel; hence, some lost their loved ones from the pandemic, which therefore dampen morale for the military and health experts. In the final analysis, the study recommended, vaccination to be mandatory to all Security and health personnel to boost their immune system given the fact that they are the first line or front line workers, which increases the risks of infections. The researcher also recommends for further research on measures to prevent extremist in the SADC Region.

## TABLE CONTENTS

<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	<b>ii</b>
<b>Table Contents</b> .....	<b>iii</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	<b>vi</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	<b>vii</b>
<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS</b> .....	<b>viii</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b> .....	<b>ix</b>
<b>DEDICATION</b> .....	<b>x</b>
<b>DECLARATION</b> .....	<b>xi</b>
<b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF STUDY</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 BACKGROUND.....	4
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM .....	6
1.4 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY .....	7
1.5 SIGNIFICANT OF THE STUDY.....	7
1.6 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY .....	8
1.7 CONCLUSION .....	8
<b>CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW</b> .....	<b>9</b>
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	9
2.2 THEORY OF COLLECTIVE SECURITY .....	9
2.3 COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN AFRICA .....	10
2.4 COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION .....	15
2.5 CHALLENGES OF COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION.....	16
2.6 IMPACT OF COVID – 19 PANDEMIC ON COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION .....	18
2.7 TERRORISM IN SADC REGION .....	20
2.8 MEASURES TO MITIGATE THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 ON COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION.....	21
2.8.1 SADC Response .....	22
2.9 CONCLUSION .....	23
<b>CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b> .....	<b>24</b>

3.1 INTRODUCTION.....	24
3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN .....	24
3.3 POPULATION .....	27
3.4 SAMPLE .....	27
3.5 SAMPLING PROCEDURE.....	29
3.5.1 Purposive sampling.....	29
3.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS .....	31
3.6.1 Interviews.....	31
3.6.2 Desktop research.....	32
3.7 PROCEDURE .....	34
3.8 DATA ANALYSIS .....	34
3.9 REFLEXIVITY .....	36
3.10 TRUSTWORTHINESS.....	37
3.10.1 Credibility .....	38
3.10.2 Transferability.....	38
3.10.3 Dependability.....	39
3.10.4 Conformability of the findings .....	39
3.10.5 Validity and Reliability.....	39
3.10.6 Triangulation.....	40
3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS .....	40
3.12 CONCLUSION .....	41
<b>CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION .....</b>	<b>43</b>
4.1 INTRODUCTION.....	43
4.2 INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS.....	43
<b>Figure 2: Age group of respondents.....</b>	<b>44</b>
<b>Table 2: Level of education for each respondent .....</b>	<b>45</b>
4.3 COLLECTIVE SECURITY MECHANISMS IN THE SADC REGION .....	45
4.4 COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN SADC AND COVID-19 PANDEMIC .....	48
4.5 MITIGATION MEASURES.....	50
4.6 IMPLICATIONS OF INEFFECTIVE COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION .....	52

4.7	CONCLUSION .....	54
<b>CHAPTER FIVE: EVALUATION AND CONCLUSION .....</b>		<b>55</b>
5.1	CONCLUSION .....	55
5.2	SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS .....	56
5.3	EVALUATION OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES .....	58
5.3.1	The research addressed the following main research question: .....	58
5.4	RECOMMENDATIONS .....	62
<b>REFERENCES.....</b>		<b>63</b>
<b>APPENDIX A .....</b>		<b>71</b>
<b>APPENDIX B.....</b>		<b>72</b>
<b>APPENDIX C.....</b>		<b>74</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Composition of Sample.....	29
Table 2: Level of Education for each respondent .....	46

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Sex distribution of respondents.....	44
Figure 2: Age group of respondents.....	45

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

CDC	:	Centers for Disease Control
DRC	:	Democratic Republic of Congo
NDF	:	Namibian Defence Force
SADC	:	Southern African Development Community
SANDF	:	South African National Defence Force
SIPO	:	Strategic Indicative Plan of the Organ
UN	:	United Nations
USA	:	United States of America
WHO	:	World Health Organization

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this study to my parents, my mother Linea Shaningwa and my late father Paulus Shaningwa.

## DECLARATION

I, Naftali Shaningwa, hereby declare that the thesis titled “**An Analysis of the Impact of Novel Coronavirus Pandemic on Collective Security in the SADC Region**” is a true reflection of my own research and only submitted at the University of Namibia for Master of Arts in Security and Strategic Studies. This work or any part thereof has not been submitted for a master’s degree at any other institution of higher learning.

I, Naftali Shaningwa, grant the University of Namibia the right to reproduce this thesis in any manner, which the University of Namibia deems fit or any institution requiring it for study and research purpose.

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Signature

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Date

## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF STUDY**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

The study assessed the impact of Novel Coronavirus pandemic on Collective Security in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Region. The Novel Coronavirus also known as the Covid-19 pandemic is a worldwide pandemic of Coronavirus disease discovered in 2019 that is caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome Corona Virus (SARS-COV-2) (World Health Organization, 2021). Moreover, Covid-19 is transmitted when a person breathes in contaminated air by droplets as well as small airborne particles containing the virus. Transmission can also occur when touching contaminated surfaces containing the virus, subsequently touching the eyes, nose or mouth.

On 31 December 2019, the first case of the Novel Coronavirus was reported in Wuhan City, Hubei Province, Peoples Republic of China. The Covid-19 pandemic spread indiscriminately across all seven continents, which led to drastic steps being taken by the world leaders through the imposing of global lockdown. The magnitude of the pandemic was not only limited to health issues, but implications were far reaching on the socio-economic, political and security spheres. The Covid-19 pandemic continues to be a threat to global health, including the health of the security cluster particularly, the military personnel (Schreiber et al., 2021). Moreover, the security clusters particularly, the military personnel had to adjust to the “New normal” while maintaining the interests of the national security as well as protecting themselves while executing national duties.

Globally, the health sectors were ill-prepared to fight the unforeseen pandemic thus the health sector was overwhelmed by daily growing number of Covid-19 fatalities. During the phase Covid-19 pandemic, most public hospitals were overwhelmed, which called for the intervention of the military forces to avail medical experts and hospital facilities. The Covid-19 pandemic also exposed the preparedness and capabilities of the public and military sectors in terms of skilled personnel, lack of infrastructure and equipment to effectively respond to national and local emergencies such as pandemics and epidemics.

Additionally, the military medical facilities and personnel are not optimized for pandemic outbreaks, but rather for battlefield trauma operations (Schreiber et al., 2021). Moreover, the employment of military medical facilities and personnel in support of civilian facilities inevitably impacts on the military's ability to provide medical services to its own forces. Therefore, the military cannot expect the stretched medical and public health organisations to provide medical services to the soldiers.

The Covid-19 pandemic led to the emergence or deployment of military forces globally, with aim to curtail the spread. However, military forces could only offer assistance depending on own capabilities, like the case of developed forces like United States of America and China, medical experts were provided, members from the engineering corps were deployed to build Covid-19 wards and isolation facilities (Schreiber, 2021). Equally, the military hospitals were also open to the public to cushion the shock of overcrowded public hospitals. Soldiers were also deployed on the streets to assist civil powers to restrict movement of people.

The Covid-19 pandemic arrived at a moment when prospects for many African countries were promising. At the beginning of 2020, Africa was on a track to continue its economic expansion growth. It was projected to rise from 2.9 per cent in 2019 to 3.2 per cent in 2020, and 3.5 per cent in 2021 (UN 2020, p.8.). Important gains were being registered in poverty reduction and health indicators. Technology and innovation were also being embraced increasingly across the continent with young Africans acting as early adopters of new platforms such as mobile money. In addition, progress had been made with respect to political unity and economic integration. Furthermore, several inclusive elections for a majority of African countries were due to be held in 2020 (UN, 2020, p.10). The (UN 2020, p.8.) stated that the entry into force of the African Continental Free Trade Area (AFCFTA) in May 2019 promised to boost intra-African trade by as much as 25 per cent in 2040. Moreover, African countries enjoyed some of the highest global returns on foreign direct investment (FDI).

Certainly, impacts of Covid-19 could not be overstated with research, which indicated a potential global recession (UN, 2020 p.4). Africa was predicted to be the most affected due to losses in revenue streams and decline of 3-8% in GDP in 2020 alone (Chergui,2020. p 29). The pandemic was not just a health issue, but implications were far reaching on the socio-economic, political and security spheres. The development posed critical questions on Africa's ability to absorb the socio-economic and political consequences of Covid-19 (UN 2020, p.8.). Thus, a collective security system engaged the system of joint activities of all states over the world. Certain geographical regions were undertaken for preventing and stopping peace threats as well as repression of attack actions (UN 2020, p.8.).

## **1.2 BACKGROUND**

The first case of Covid-19 in the SADC region was reported on 14 February 2020; by 13 May, cases had been reported in all 54 countries. SADC member states acted swiftly by endorsing a joint continental strategy in February. Public health platforms were complemented and were provided by Member States and Regional Economic Communities. The African Union Chairperson, President Cyril Ramaphosa of South Africa appointed four Special Envoys to mobilize international support for Africa's efforts to address the economic fallout of Covid-19.

While African countries had responded decisively to the pandemic the numbers of cases and deaths were now relatively low. The magnitude of the challenge and the continent's underlying vulnerabilities could not be underplayed. The virus had infected 4.6 million people and claimed 311,847 lives worldwide by 18 May 2020. Corresponding figures for Africa on that date were 84,183 cases and 2,739 deaths. Seventy-five per cent of most African countries had recorded fewer than 1,000 cases while South Africa alone had reported almost twice more cases than the bottom 35 countries combined (UN, 2020, p.10).

To date, many African countries had managed the political risks associated with the measures to respond to the pandemic. Opposition to lockdowns and other restrictive measures had been sporadic and political tensions surrounding elections were kept in check. In some countries, the Covid-19 context strengthened political dialogue among national stakeholders and society-wide mobilization to support national response plans.

However, prolonged suspension of critical economic activity continued emergency measures that were associated with human rights violations, delayed electoral processes, political transitions as well as inequalities in accessing food and basic services. The poor and other vulnerable groups that included women and girls as well as children caught up in conflict were disproportionately affected. Emergency measures in some contexts, sparked unrest, (re)ignited conflicts and unsettled fragile peace processes. Hence, the political risks associated with the pandemic required close management and monitoring by national and regional actors (UN, 2020, p.15).

As the pandemic unfolded, we were not only likely to witness a shift in dynamics in a number of conflicts, but also a possible deterioration in UN relationships with parties in conflict and communities. Despite increased peace building efforts in recent decades, violence and conflict at times exacerbated by terrorism and the spread of violent extremism, transnational organized crime, and weak institutions continued to pose a challenge in some areas and inevitably complicated the efforts to tackle the virus. Similarly, the gaps in state authority with disregard of arms embargoes were still present in some parts of the continent. Criminal groups became more active in finding new routes and methods to traffic drugs and illicit goods, as well as prey on people's vulnerabilities caused by the loss of income (UN, 2020, p.20).

On 23 March 2020, the United Nations Secretary- General called for a global ceasefire to fight the Covid-19 pandemic. Echoing the continent's "Silencing the Guns" initiative, the Chairperson of the African Union Commission, Moussa Faki Mahamat also called for a cease-fire. The Secretary General also appealed for an end to the escalation of violence targeted at women and girls, including domestic violence as the pandemic spread. This

study therefore dwelled on examining the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on collective security in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region. (Chergui, 2020, p.29).

### **1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Collective security from SADC's perspective implied that security for one country was security for all, while conflict in one country affected other countries. In the tooth of the Covid-19 pandemic, SADC witnessed ongoing violent conflicts in Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Mozambique, and political instability in Zimbabwe that increased refugee crisis in the SADC region. Moreover, severe drought at the borders of Angola and Namibia forced Angolan nationals to enter illegally into Namibia to seek refugee' status with hope to escape destitution. These issues further contributed to massive social problems such as xenophobic attacks. The efforts to achieve this objective had been affected by the Covid-19 pandemic in many ways. This study, therefore examined the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on collective security in the SADC region.

While many SADC peace processes continued despite the Covid-19 disruptions, the pandemic introduced new risks that threatened fragile gains, which included women's leadership, participation and priorities, and disrupted momentum. This was particularly true where peace or security agreements were being negotiated, or in countries which were implementing political transitions or peace processes (Chergui, 2020, p.18). Peace building, peace keeping and mediation were affected international, national, regional, and in local capacities for good offices. Mediators and parties cancelled and postponed meetings and talks.

Key diplomatic events and other confidence building measures were affected (UN, 2020, p.10). The Covid-19 context further complicated efforts to address violent extremism. Therefore, African countries required strengthened support to sustain this engagement as they dealt with the pandemic. As such, this study examined the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on collective security in the SADC region.

#### **1.4 OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY**

The study addressed the following objectives:

- (i) To determine the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on Collective Security mechanisms in the SADC Region.
- (ii) To determine the challenges of Collective Security in the SADC Region.
- (iii) To highlight and discuss possible solutions to curb the impact of Covid-19 pandemic and promote Collective Security in the SADC Region.

#### **1.5 SIGNIFICANT OF THE STUDY**

The study will provide an in-depth understanding to other scholars and academic institutions on matters to do with collective security of the SADC region. In addition, the findings from the study will benefit policy institutions on the way forward towards the mitigation of the effects associated with Covid-19 pandemic on collective security in the SADC region. The study will provide sufficient evidence on the effects of Covid-19 on

collective security and therefore lead to more insights on what policies should be put in place.

## **1.6 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

The nature and subject area of this study made it impossible to conduct interviews with the individuals and groups across the SADC region. However, the researcher collected primary data from members from the Namibian Defence Force, Ministry of International Relations and Co-operation, Namibian Police, Correctional Services, career diplomats and renowned scholars in the field of International Relations and Strategic studies. Moreover, the targeted sample population comprised of busy professional participants. Challenges in scheduling appointments with some of the participants were faced, which presented constraints to the study. However, this was countered by scheduling prior appoints. The researcher used consent forms in order to facilitate the data gathering process to bring a comprehensive research with desired objectives. Equally, the study also relied on secondary data sources such as scholarly articles, WHO reports, documents, newspaper reports and internet sources.

## **1.7 CONCLUSION**

To recapitulate, this chapter highlighted the background of the research, the problem statement, and the objectives of the study as well as the significant of the research. All factors that hampered the smooth conduct of the research were discussed under limitations. Moreover, the study focused on both the primary and secondary data. The next chapter examined literature related to Collective Security as well as the challenges encountered amidst the Covid-19 pandemic.

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter focused on review of existing literature on collective security and Covid-19. This chapter reviewed literature on collective security in Africa, impacts of novel corona pandemic on collective security in the SADC region and possible measures to curb the effects of the pandemic.

### **2.2 THEORY OF COLLECTIVE SECURITY**

The concept of collective security has numerous definitions. Collective Security is when different countries or sovereign states enter into a pact to accept that security for one of them is a concern for all and agrees to collectively respond to any aggression or aggressor (Mwagwabi, 2017; Kahombo, 2018). This implies that, member states of a certain pact use multilateral efforts to overcome the problem of international or regional peace and security (Danchin & Fisher, 2009). This serves as solidarity of security between states concerned (Kahombo, 2018). This serves as a way of deterrence to any state that intends to violate the sovereignty of another state. Moreover, collective security also gives assurance that member countries will not go to war with each other, but will settle their disputes through peaceful means (Danchin & Fisher, 2009; Ulusoy, 2003). However, the new wars especially in the African context, it is based on intrastate conflicts.

The Theory of Collective Security was developed by Karl Deutsch in 1957 and later expanded by Adler and Barnett in 1998 (Ulusoy, 2003). After two devastating world wars, scholars in the field of International Relations saw it fit to come up with preventative measures that will bring about global peace and security. Karl Deutsch categorised

collective security into two, namely Amalgamated and Pluralistic security. Amalgamated security is when two or more sovereign states agreed to form a new larger, stronger and more thriving state. A classic example is the United States of America (USA) that is a combination of 52 states and the Federal Republic of Nigeria, which is a combination of 36 states (Alapiki, 2005). Whereas, Pluralistic security is when sovereign states agree to form a security community but individual states get to retain their independence and sovereignty. For example, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), Economic Community of West African States Monitoring Group (ECOMOG) and Southern African Development Community (SADC). The literature was centered on pluralistic security because it is more common, hence, states do not want to surrender their independence to form amalgamated security. It is believed to be more problematic; hence, some states do not share common political ideology, which makes it more difficult to reach common ground (Mwagwabi, 2017). Having said that, collective security can only be achieved when member states have attained a level of integration or a sense of common identity in order to settle disputes peacefully (Schwinger, 2012).

### **2.3 COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN AFRICA**

Collective security is based on the principle that if there is an attack on a member state, all states will have to join to stop the aggressor. In Article 51 of the UN Charter, collective security is considered a legal right, together with self-defences. Collective security had been designed mainly at the global level, but has become a prominent concept for regional and sub-regional security. Collective security was intended to deal mainly with interstate conflict, yet most armed conflicts since the Cold War have been intrastate in nature (Vogt, 2009, p.15). African countries have, therefore, adopted collective security principles to

manage both interstate and intrastate conflict. Collective security features prominently in the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA).

Since decolonization, several factors have for long inhibited a unified approach to dealing with crises and armed conflicts in Africa. These factors include post-colonial patronage, Cold War alignment and different views on security (Bach, 2014, p.20). For example, Pan-Africanists favoured the political and military unification of Africa and supported Nkrumah's proposal in 1958 for an African High Command and the inception of an African Legion (Franke, 2008, p.22). The nationalists, however, were hesitant to hand over their hard-earned sovereignty and, thus, opposed ideas of unification and collective intervention. This nationalist and internally focused view continued to strain closer security cooperation until the end of the Cold War (Franke, 2008, p 21).

The nationalist perspective has been the predominant perspective in Africa ever since the establishment of the Organisation for African Unity (OAU) in 1963 and it followed a non-interventionist approach to conflicts in Africa until 1993 (Domson-Lindsay 2015, p 31). The OAU's principle of non-interference in domestic affairs inhibited action in cases where civilians suffered at the hands of their own governments. Examples of non-interference include the Nigerian Civil War also known as the Biafra War (1967-1970) where millions starved; and the repressive rule of Idi Amin in Uganda (1971-1979) where thousands were killed (Ekwealor & Okeke-Uzodike, 2016, p 22). Not to forget the event that is still fresh in the hearts and minds of the Rwandese, the 1994 Rwanda genocide that marked the in-discriminant slaughter of over 800 000 defenceless women and children and over 2 million displaced (Onion, Sullivan & Mullen, 2009). The authors further noted that both the international community and regional community turned a blind eye when

the atrocities were being committed. This clearly showed that both the international community and regional community had no interest with what was happening in Rwanda, because in that same year the international community (UN) got involved in former Yugoslavia, where the same atrocities were being committed (Onion, Sullivan & Mullen, 2009; Joensson, 2010).

This clearly showed that, the African community should not depend on the international community for peace and security in Africa, there is need to intensify self-reliance policy through promotion of African solutions to Africa problems (Kahombo, 2018). The researcher agrees with the above stated authors, because international community only get involved when there is potential gain from the turmoil. Having said this, African states joining into collective security is the only beacon of hope for Africa. Moreover, the researcher cannot deny the success of collective security in Africa over the past decades, because there is a decline in the number of inter-state and civil wars (Joensson, 2010). This has been done through constant dialogue with warring parties and peace support as well as peace enforcement operations.

The OAU seemed to overlook serious human rights violations and to accommodate dictators. Widespread incidents of instability, such as foreign interventions, coups and mercenary activities in Africa, were stark reminders of the need for some form of collective security, especially since the OAU's security architecture had significant limitations. The African continent is still a war torn region, affected by coups, political crisis, ethnic and religious divide as well as the expansion of terrorism in many countries (Kahombo, 2018).

According to Kahombo (2018), the creation of PSC was because of the weak and ineffective OAU security system. Before the creation of AU, 186 coups were witnessed in Africa, whereby half were committed between 1980 and 1990 and confronted with 26-armed conflicts between 1963 and 2000, amounting to seven million deaths and 23 million displaced across the African continent (Kahombo, 2018). Additionally, these wars were witnessed all across the regions in Africa. Currently, we are witnessing conflict between the Ethiopian forces and Tigray region forces in the Northern region of Ethiopia. It is important to note that, the war in Ethiopia can threaten stability in the Horn of Africa, hence the war is likely to spread to other countries, and Eritrea was dragged into the war. The Ethiopian war is centred ethnic differences and non-Tigray are being massacred in the Tigray region (Verjee, 2020). The issue is going out of hand, hence almost more than 40 000 thousand Ethiopians are fleeing to neighbouring states like Sudan that is already going through their own difficulties (Verjee, 2020). Most of the African states are still suffering from the after math of the Covid-19 pandemic and the possible second wave. Furthermore, Ethiopia has an estimated population of 115 million, which is the second largest population in Africa after Nigeria (Varrella, 2021). If African states do not join forces to bring about peace in Ethiopia, millions could be displaced across the Africa continent.

Maintaining the argument on collective security in Africa, it also involves preventative diplomacy, mediation, interventions, collective sanctions and peacekeeping (Kahombo, 2018). However, collective sanction is yet to be seen in the African spectrum, hence most African states act in the interest of own states. This is due to the fact that, most African states lack the political will to show that they take the organisation seriously for the

betterment of the continent (Kahombo, 2018). For instance, in the wake of the 2017 military coup in Zimbabwe, the SADC adopted a quiet diplomacy; the only country that objected to the coup was Zambia (Mushelenga, 2019). However, the Chief of the Zimbabwean Defence Force (ZDF) stating that, Zambia should keep quiet and see how things unfold or else the ZDF will overrun or invade Zambia, openly threatened the president of Zambia (Mushelenga, 2019). This therefore, highlighted the lack of conviction for African states, the SADC to be specific to commonly stand together for the benefit of the continent.

Despite the presence of collective security in Africa, wars are still ongoing in the African continent. One may argue, in the midst of the Covid-19 pandemic, most African states compromised on regional and national security and focused on health security. Therefore, terrorist and non-states armed groups are taking advantage of state vulnerabilities as witnessed in Mozambique and Central African Republic (CAR), but Rwanda sent forces to assist the government forces in CAR and Mozambique respectively (UNDP, 2020). With regard to Mozambique, SADC supposed to send troops; however, all that was put on hold since the Covid-19 outbreak started in 2019, but was only detected in African continent in 2020 (Du Plessis, 2020). This meant that most states had to shift focus from regional stability to national security priority in order curb national health matters. It is important to note, though one is currently facing a pandemic, one cannot compromise on regional security that might spill over to neighbouring countries like Malawi, Zimbabwe, Eswatini and South Africa (Du Plessis, 2020).

According to Iroanya (2009), Africa is considered a safe haven for terrorism, due to its poor security architecture that is often exploited by transnational terrorist groups. It could

be further argued that transnational terrorist groups are taking advantage of the relaxed security restriction due to the Covid-19 pandemic. Most African states have shifted the attention to fight the Covid-19 pandemic, therefore making the threshold high, which could be a threat to national security. It is important to note that, one cannot compromise on national security even in the teeth of a pandemic.

Appiah (2012) highlighted that, most African countries lack political will to commit troops to bring about regional stability. The international community have often taken the lead in crisis intervention, especially in the African spectrum by means of supplying troops or offering resources to the AU. Lastly, African states lack level of integration and common identity or ideology in order to settle disputes (Appiah, 2012).

#### **2.4 COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION**

SADC was established 1992, however community insecurity is witnessed since the inception (Schwinger, 2012). SADC comprise of the following countries; Angola, Botswana, Comoros, Democratic Republic of Congo, Eswatini, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Insecurity in SADC is due to the lack of common values between member states; hence some states follow authoritarian orientation, while others follow democratic orientation (Schwinger, 2012). It is often difficult to reach common ground when there is different ideology. This therefore, makes it problematic for the organisation in addressing violence and insecurity inspired by authoritarianism and tyranny in some member states. Like the case of Zimbabwe that is coupled with human right abuse, misuse of power by the ruling party Zimbabwe African National Union-

Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) and the use of the security cluster to promote or drive political agenda which therefore leads to human insecurity (Zondi, 2012; Mushelenga, 2019).

Schwager (2012) argues that, the fact that SADC lacks common values and with the existing intrastate violence within member states, it cannot be said collective security exists in SADC. The researcher concurs with the above stated author, because when war broke out in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) in 1998, SADC could not find common ground on how to solve the delicate matter in the DRC (Zondi, 2012; Mushelenga, 2019). It was against this backdrop that SADC member states like Angola, Namibia and Zimbabwe had to act unilateral to send troops in the DRC to launch a counter-invasion against Uganda and Rwanda that were believed to support the rebels (Zondi, 2012, p 19). This clearly showed that, the small regional block is partially divided and they do not serve the interest of the SADC region. Furthermore, one may assume that, there is a vacuum in collective security in SADC, hence out of 15 member states excluding the DRC only three countries decided to act. This further shows that there exist grey zones in the SADC Region with regard to collective security and terrorist groups or multinational organisations could exploit such vulnerabilities.

## **2.5 CHALLENGES OF COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION**

The issues of border disputes are likely not to end soon, however it could be curbed through the concept of collective security. Hence, states that are part of the pact are likely not to go to war against each other. However, tensions always exist regardless of being a member states. Like the case of Namibia and Botswana over the Kasikili/Sedudu island that almost brought the two countries to the verge of war in 1996, but the matter was

resolved at the International Court of Justice that ruled in favour of Botswana (Du Pisani, 2020; Mushelenga, 2019). Moreover, with the killing of four anglers from the Zambezi region by the Botswana Defence Force (BDF) at one of the shared islands, the issue is likely to reignite potential border dispute (Mwange, 2020). Having said this, SADC should carefully look at issues that could bring further instability or division in the fragile region. A region that endured 25 years of civil war in Angola, ongoing civil war DRC and the current Islamist movement in Mozambique.

Maintaining the argument of collective security challenges in SADC, there is currently an Armed Islamist Radicalization Movement in the Northern Province of Cabo Delgado in Mozambique. It is believed that, the extremist group is taking advantage of the underlying social helplessness of inequity, insecure land tenure system, distract of authorities, lack of military might from the security forces and the Covid-19 pandemic (Pirio, Pitteli & Adam, 2019; Schlein, 2020).

The SADC was preparing to deploy forces; however, it was put on hold due to the outbreak (Du Plessis, 2020). Individual states turned their focus on fighting the pandemic and left their regional guard down, which has the potential to be exploited by the extremist groups. With the ever-growing concern in Mozambique, it is likely to draw outside interference as Portugal and the European Union recently offered to train Mozambique forces against the militants (Du Plessis, 2020). In the same vein, the SADC regional power South Africa gave the notion to assist if helped was asked by Mozambique (Du Plessis, 2020). From the statement above, one could argue that South Africa would rather act unilaterally as opposed to acting multilateral under the banner of SADC collective security.

The issue of Mozambique is clearly showing that SADC is a community of insecurity. This is because SADC have shift focus to domestic affairs to fight the pandemic, therefore creating a security vacuum in the region. However, the issue is getting out of hand, which forced the international community to extend their support to the state of Mozambique. The issue of Mozambique is clearly showing the weakness and lack of political and military will by the SADC Standby Force even in the face of the pandemic.

## **2.6 IMPACT OF COVID – 19 PANDEMIC ON COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION**

The outbreak of Covid-19 had a devastating effect on the global order, affecting social, economic and political efforts across Africa. The African Union (AU) in collaboration with its partners led interventions to contain the spread of Covid-19 on the continent with the leadership rallying to ensure robust preparedness for the aftermath of the pandemic (Chergui, 2020, p.11).

The second wave of the Covid-19 pandemic caused panic across the globe. The region witnessed the reclose of international borders as a mechanism to prevent the spread of the strain of the new mutating virus (SADC, 2020). On 28 March 2020, Namibia closed its international borders, whereby non-essential vehicles from South Africa were not allowed to enter. This clearly shows that, during the tooth of the pandemic most states were realigning their focus on national interest not regional interest. However, the issue was debated by both states on how to solve this delicate matter. One may argue that, if the developed states are in a state of panic during the second wave, it is unlikely that the African states will unite for one common goal, which is to save and spare the lives of the African populous from the Covid-19 pandemic.

In addition, while the UN and AU focused on mitigating health and social-economic shock caused by the Covid-19 as well as Covid-19 pandemic impact on governance, peace and security in the African region (UNDP, 2020). In this regard, elections across few African states were postponed. The pandemic affected capacities to support peace and security efforts in Africa, including on United Nations missions and country teams and regionally led operations as well as local 44 peacemakers. The pandemic also expected on operational effectiveness of UN missions, for example through restrictions on troop's rotation, restrictions in regional travel or necessary adjustments in operational practices. Despite these constraints, UN missions continue to fulfil their mandates and are also supporting host country preparedness and response plans, for example, by providing and transporting medical equipment, raising awareness on public health measures through UN radios, working with humanitarian and other partners, as well as supporting regional coordination efforts (UN, 2020 p.12).

Furthermore, Covid-19 is still ripping through the Region, bringing about inequalities that is particularly threatening marginalized and vulnerable communities. A number of countries in the SADC Region are experiencing disturbing Human rights violations and abuses, therefore threatening peace and stability as well as hindering the effective response to Covid-19 (Amnesty International, 2020). Zimbabwe and Eswatini authorities use state security forces to harass peaceful protestors, journalists and activists (Amnesty International, 2020). Moreover, Covid-19 has exposed the fragilities of the Regional economy in the absence of adequate social policies to protect millions of people employed in the informal economy and those who lost their jobs are faced with starvation and destitution, therefore making them susceptible to join extremist groups or radicalization.

## **2.7 TERRORISM IN SADC REGION**

In various parts of the continent conflict, terrorism and the spread of violent extremism continue to take a heavy toll on communities. The group described government public health warnings and measures as illegitimate and indicated it opposed the closure of mosques and Islamic schools, making the population and communities under its control particularly vulnerable to Covid-19 infections. Al Shabaab continues its attacks in Mozambique, insurgents affiliated to the Islamic State launched unprecedented large-scale assaults in Cabo Delgado. Beyond attacks, these groups have been instrumentalizing the pandemic, propagating hatred and fundamentalism, rumours that the virus is not lethal, and further offering services and protection in areas where the State was absent. These attacks have had negative humanitarian consequences with increased IDPs and refugees (UN, 2020, p.20). It is worth noting that the conflict in Mozambique is fuelled by unequal distribution of state resource amongst the ten provinces, structural governance deficits and the lack of institutionalized dispute resolution mechanisms (UN, 2020). The Covid-19 environment is to exacerbate these tensions as communities' grapple with government responses that directly affect their ability to feed their families (Chergui, 2020, p.29).

In addition, the Covid-19 pandemic greatly affected the SADC collective security regime (SADC, 2020). The issue of deploying of forces in the Cabo Delgado Province in northern Mozambique has fallen behind schedule, therefore bringing about insecurity in the region (Du Plessis, 2020). Now, most SADC members were more focused on national interest rather than regional interest, hence most SADC states were overwhelmed with fighting the Covid-19 pandemic. These therefore created room from external intervention, which

showed weakness from the side of SADC. SADC is seen as a region that lacks political and military might to bring about security in the region.

According to Appiah (2012), SADC collective security regime could attain greater heights by improving capacity through the development of common and enhanced cooperation with the international community, hegemonic states like USA, Germany and China and allies. The agenda is driven by the regional power, like the case of SADC; the regional power is South Africa (Schwager, 2012). The SADC community have to move away from the approach of allowing the regional power to take the lead. It is difficult at times, because if the agenda is not in the benefit of the regional hegemony, it will not be pushed through. This therefore led to an issue being stagnant like the case of Mozambique, but the major delay of the issue was due to the Covid-19 pandemic which forced each SADC member state to shift focus on own domestic affairs in order to fight the pandemic.

## **2.8 MEASURES TO MITIGATE THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 ON COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION**

Scaling up the use of technology creates new opportunities to enhance the inclusivity of peace processes. These should be leveraged to ensure women's full and meaningful participation, as well as engagement of young people, and bridging some of the digital divide that may exist between urban and rural areas. Strengthening the leadership and meaningful participation of women, including in particular women frontline workers, as well as young people, in all Covid-19 related decision-making is paramount. They leverage their constituencies for a wide-range of Covid-19 related prevention work and to sustain the momentum for the implementation of peace agreements, their inclusion leads to better outcomes (UN, 2020, p.25).

### **2.8.1 SADC Response**

The SADC regional super power South Africa hosted a special summit to deliberate a regional strategy of acquiring and distributing the Covid-19 vaccines in SADC (Du Plessis, 2020). The regional power pushed the agenda with great admiration, because South Africa recorded the highest confirmed cases and the highest deaths in the region (SADC, 2020). South Africa and Botswana are two of the few countries in SADC that administered Covid-19 rapid test at the various points of entry for 180 Rand, whereby the results can be attained within 45 minutes. Such technology helped not to allow people to come with fake negative results, which therefore in danger the lives of the locals. This technology should be used by all the SADC member states to guarantee safety in the region through the control of the spread of the Covid-19 pandemic. Lastly, this increased Covid-19 testing capacity, which reduced delays at the borders (SADC, 2020).

Furthermore, the measures introduced to limit the spread of Covid-19 pandemic such as lockdown implemented across nations had crippled the regional economy and as result, many countries have recorded negative Gross Domestic Product growth (Routh, 2020). Having said this, most states were forced to commit all their limited resources in trying to improve the dwindling health system. The Covid-19 pandemic has exposed the poor health system by state owned hospitals; that often lacked ventilators for patients in urgent need of ventilators (Kliff, Satariano, Greenberg & Kulish, 2020). In the midst of the pandemic, one cannot completely depend on external assistance, a state should mobilize own resources to save the lives of the citizens.

## **2.9 CONCLUSION**

In summary, this chapter reviewed literature related to collective security amidst the Covid-19 pandemic. Generally, this chapter examined Collective Security in Africa, impacts of Covid-19 on Collective Security in SADC as well as challenges of Collective Security in the SADC Region, which provided evidence to substantiate the findings of the study. This chapter further highlighted the measures to mitigate the impact of Collective Security in the SADC Region. The next chapter examined the methodology and design of the study.

## **CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The chapter focused on the methodology of the study. It described the methods that were used in collecting data, how the data was analyzed. It also outlined the research design employed, the target population, sample size and sampling method. Data collection procedure and analysis as well as the instruments used were also outlined. The chapter explained the research methodology used to explore the effects of the Covid-19 pandemic on collective security as well as gain additional insights on the subject. Methods to analyzed data and the description of how data was going to be managed were highlighted. The justification of the research instrument was given, data collection procedures and data presentation were also clearly explained.

The study was exploratory in nature as it sought to:

- (a) Examine the current state of collective security in the SADC region.
- (b) Determine the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on collective security in the SADC region and suggest possible solutions to curb the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on collective security in the SADC region.

### **3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

The study sought to examine the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on collective security in the SADC region. This study was exploratory in nature and followed a qualitative research design. Exploratory research is most useful in situations where limited information is available and the researcher wishes to have the flexibility to explore areas

of research (Cooper & Schindler, 2012). The goal of exploratory research was to gain better understanding on an issue or situation and it is an appropriate way to provide ground work for later more rigorous studies (Cooper & Schindler, 2012).

According to Zukauskas and Vveinhardt (2018) exploratory research is typically qualitative in nature. Qualitative research is referred to as interpretive research as its intention is to build an understanding of an issue rather than to prove a theory. This type of research has the potential to provide the researcher with rich and useful data (Creswell, 2013).

A research design refers to the logical structure to doing a research. It can also be described as the systematic plans and procedures that are put in place by a researcher to study a scientific problem (Kolbaek, 2014). The research design links the research purpose and questions to the processes for empirical data collection and analysis, thereby allowing the researcher to derive meaningful conclusions from the yielded data (Ponelis, 2015).

When conducting a study, the researcher can opt for qualitative research design, quantitative research design, or the use of both (qualitative and quantitative) research designs. While the qualitative and quantitative research paradigms may be viewed as opposites, they also serve to complement each other as each has a different set of strengths and weaknesses. The qualitative research design was adopted as the research design for this study, to explore, explain and analyze the link between the Covid-19 pandemic and collective security in SADC. Qualitative research's main purpose is to reveal the nature of certain situations, processes, relationships, systems or people. Additionally, it deals with non-measurable aspects of data. Moreover, qualitative research is concerned with

studies pertaining to people's perceptions or feelings towards certain policies, actions or other occurrences that cannot be measured numerically (Bless et al., 2006).

According to Merriam and Tisdell (2015), qualitative research is presented in the form of text, video, images, written words, phrases, symbols, etc., describing or representing people, actions, and events in social life. In comparison to quantitative research, qualitative research has guidelines that are more flexible and the outcome is not predetermined. Qualitative research also has many approaches to data analysis and most of these approaches employ naturalistic methods (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Fieldwork is an example of a naturalistic method as it allows the researcher to familiarize themselves with the people living in a specific setting (Wilson, 2012). Qualitative research is concerned with studies pertaining to people's perceptions or feelings towards certain policies, actions or other occurrences that cannot be measured numerically (Barnes, 2012).

The study adopted a Qualitative research design because it sought to understand a given research problem from the perspective of the local population it involved. It is effective in obtaining culturally specific information about the values, opinions, behaviours, and social contexts of a particular population. Qualitative research has an interpretive character, aimed at discovering the meaning events have for the individuals who experience them and the interpretations of those meanings by the researcher (Kothari & Hamel, 2014).

A qualitative research design has its advantage in exploratory research were the use of open-ended questions and probing gives participants the opportunity to respond in their own words, rather than forcing them to choose from fixed responses, as quantitative designs do. In this study, Open-ended questions evoked responses that are meaningful and

culturally salient to the participant, rich and explanatory in nature as postulated by Saunders, et. al., (2009). Another benefit of qualitative research design to this study was that, it allowed the researcher the flexibility to probe initial participant responses that is, to ask why or how. According to Kemmis & Wilkinson (2009), the researcher must listen carefully to what participants say, engage with them according to their individual personalities and styles, and use “probes” to encourage them to elaborate on their answers.

The disadvantage of the qualitative research design is that the quality of research is heavily dependent on the skills of the researcher and can be easily influenced by personal idiosyncrasies and biases of researchers (Schunk, 2009). Qualitative research design was important to this study because it served as a guide or framework that directed the research action and ensured that all aspects of the study were addressed and executed in the right sequence.

### **3.3 POPULATION**

The population for this study consisted of respondents from five organizations namely the Namibian Defence Force (NDF), Ministry of International Relations and Cooperation as well as scholars in the field of International Relations, Namibian Police and Namibian Correctional Services. The study population consisted of 50 personnel from the above stated organizations.

### **3.4 SAMPLE**

The study was mainly conducted from desktop research as well as interviews with members from NDF, Ministry of International Relations, Namibian Police and Namibia Correctional Services as well as scholars in the field of International Relations. This

implies that the results from the study on the impacts of the Covid-19 pandemic on collective security in the SADC region emerged from existing scholarly articles and reports as well as interviews. Desktop research was used to establish the academic backing of the study. Interviews were used to determine the perception of military officers on the extent to which Covid-19 has affected the military institution across the SADC region.

The size of the sample is essential in any research study, its goal is to make use of it and later infer to the entire population, as it is very costly to involve the entire population. Sample size determination is the way of opting the extent of the sample element in the research study. The study selected three (3) participants from the Ministry of International Relations and Co-operation who were involved in peace support missions and 10 participants from the NDF Generals and Senior Officers, two (2) scholars from institutions of higher learning in the field of International Relations, three (3) from the Namibian Police and two (2) from the Namibia Correctional Services. The study therefore comprised of a sample of 20 participants.

**Table 1: Composition of the sample**

<b>Ministries, Organizations and Institutions of Higher Learning</b>	<b>Sample size</b>
Ministry of International Relations and Co-operation	03
Namibian Defence Force	10
Namibian Police	03
Namibia Correctional Services	02

Scholars from International University of Management (IUM) in the field of International Relations	02
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>20</b>

### **3.5 SAMPLING PROCEDURE**

Balanskat et al., (2006) define sampling as the process in which researchers draw a sample from a targeted population of the study. A sample is a section of the researcher population that the researcher actually going to interview. A sampling technique is used for a study were a method of sampling is done with the specific purpose in mind. Sampling achieves two major goals (Etikan & Alkassim, 2016). The first is to establish a good representation of what the researcher is studying and hence reduce or eliminate biasness. Secondly is to be able to make inferences from findings based on a sample onto the larger population from which the sample was drawn (Etikan & Alkassim, 2016). Obtaining information from a sample is often more practical and accurate than obtaining the same information from the entire universe or population (Tebele & Nel, 2015). The study used purposive sampling to select 20 participants of the study, because purposive sampling allowed the researcher to select key informants or participants with relevant information to the study or who suit the participants required by the study.

#### **3.5.1 Purposive sampling**

Purposive sampling (also known as judgment, selective or subjective sampling) is a sampling technique in which researcher relies on his or her own judgment when choosing members of population to participate in the study. Black (2010) describe purposive

sampling as a technique that uses the judgment of an expert to select research subjects who fit the criteria of a specific study.

The main goal of purposive sampling in this study was to focus on particular characteristics of a population that were of interest that is NDF Generals, senior officers from the Namibian Police and Namibia Correctional Services as well as career diplomats from the Ministry of International Relations and Co-operation and scholars in the field of International Relations, which enabled the researcher to answer the study's research questions. According to Black (2010), the sample being studied is not representative of the population, but for researchers pursuing qualitative or mixed methods research designs, this is not considered a weakness. Rather, it is a choice, the purpose of which varies depending on the type of purposive sampling technique that is used (Black, 2010).

The study adopted expert sampling to come up with the relevant information from the key informants from the NDF, Namibian Police, career diplomats from the Ministry of International Relations and Co-operation and scholars in the field of International Relations who had the knowledge about collective security in Namibia and to determine their perception on the extent to which the Covid-19 pandemic has affected the military institution across the SADC region. Expert sampling is a type of purposive sampling technique that is used when the research needs to glean knowledge from individuals that have particular expertise (Etikan & Alkassim, 2016). This expertise may be required during the exploratory phase of qualitative research, highlighting potential new areas of interest or opening doors to other participants. Alternately, the particular expertise that is being investigated may form the basis of the research, requiring a focus only on individuals with such specific expertise. Expert sampling is particularly useful where there

is a lack of empirical evidence in an area and high levels of uncertainty, as well as situations where it may take a long period of time before the findings from research can be uncovered (Black, 2010).

### **3.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS**

The research instrument that the researcher made use of was the desktop study where larger information was obtained from secondary sources supplemented with information obtained from primary sources. Primary sources data was collected through interviews from members Namibian Defence Force (NDF), Ministry of International Relations and Co-operation, Namibian Police, Namibia Correctional Services and scholars in the field of International Relations. While secondary data was obtained from scholarly articles, SADC reports, WHO and Centers for Disease Control (CDC) reports.

#### **3.6.1 Interviews**

Semi-structured interviews were chosen as most appropriate for this research project, because as Creswell (2013) notes the process of participating in an interview triggers reflection for both the interviewer and interviewee. Creswell (2013) indicates that the researcher can use semi structured interviews in order to get a detailed picture of participants' beliefs, perceptions or accounts of a particular topic.

Semi-structured interviews are in-depth interviews where the respondents have to answer preset open-ended questions and thus are widely employed by different healthcare professionals in their research. Semi-structured, in-depth interviews are utilized extensively as interviewing format possibly with an individual or sometimes even with a group. Semi-structured interviews are based on semi-structured interview guide, which is

a schematic presentation of questions or topics and need to be explored by the interviewer. To achieve optimum use of interview time, interview guides serve the useful purpose of exploring many respondents more systematically and comprehensively as well as to keep the interview focused on the desired line of action (Jamshed, 2014).

The overall purpose of using semi-structured interviews for data collection in this study was to gather information from key informants who have personal experiences, attitudes, perceptions and beliefs related to the topic of interest. Researchers can use semi-structured interviews to collect new, exploratory data related to a research topic, triangulate other data sources or validate findings through member checking (respondent feedback about research results). Semi-structured interviews are an effective method for data collection when the researcher wants: firstly to collect qualitative, open-ended data; secondly to explore participant thoughts, feelings and beliefs about a particular topic; and thirdly to delve deeply into personal and sometimes sensitive issues (Malterud & Siersma, 2016).

### **3.6.2 Desktop research**

As depicted by name, Desktop Research is the research technique that is mainly acquired by sitting at a desk. Desktop research is involved in collecting data from existing resources. In a time where vast amounts of data are being collected and archived by researchers all over the world, the practicality of utilizing existing data for research is becoming more prevalent (Andrews et al., 2012). The utilization of this existing data provides a viable option for researchers who may have limited time and resources (Andrews et al., 2012). There are two types of desk research techniques namely Internal

Desk Research and Online Desk Research, whereby both are supplemented by government published data (Kim & Croft, 2013).

**(a) Internal Desk Research**

Internal desk research can be treated as the most reasonable starting point of research for any organization. Much Information could be generated internally within the organization as a course of normal process. The main advantage here in performing internal desk research is that it involves internal and existing organizational resources to organize the collected data in such a way that it is not only efficient but also usable. Internal desk research is comparatively very cheap and effective as internal recourses are deputed and the expenditure in getting data from outside is less (Kim & Croft, 2013).

**(b) Online Desk Research**

There is incredible amount of data available online on internet. It is important for organization to be information specific while fetching out this information as there are billions of pages available on internet. There could be two approaches for digging out the relevant information from internet, one is directly browsing the specific information from industrial, marketing or business sites and extracting the information out of these sites. Secondly, using the internet sources such as Google Scholar, SCOPUS, EBOHSCO and JSTOR. The important aspect here is to refine the searching techniques in such a way that results are promising and relevant.

**(c) Government published data**

Government usually publishes a great extent of data online that can be used in the research process. This data is related to social, financial and economic aspects. The government

websites are mostly free to access and contains most prominent information. Thus, this could be the cheapest medium of gathering the information. The major benefits associated with secondary analysis are the cost effectiveness and convenience it provides (Johnston, 2014). Since someone else has already collected the data, the researcher does not have to devote financial resources to collect data. When good secondary data is available, researchers can gain access to and utilize high quality larger datasets, such as those collected by funded studies or agencies that involve larger samples and contain substantial breadth.

### **3.7 PROCEDURE**

After obtaining permission from the University of Namibia, an interview sheet including open-ended questions used to conduct the interviews in the present country. A semi-structured interview guides were sent to participants via online to fill in and to give their opinions on the subject matter. Due to Covid-19 restrictions, the researcher refrained from conducting face-to-face interviews. Desktop research commenced with reviewing online reports, government publications, WHO and scholarly articles on the impact of Covid-19 on collective security in the SADC region.

### **3.8 DATA ANALYSIS**

According to Creswell (2013) data analysis is the “process of systematically searching and arranging the material or data that you accumulate to increase your own understanding and to enable you to present what you have discovered to others”. Data analysis entails categorizing, ordering, manipulating and summarizing data to find answers to the research question (Harding & Whitehead, 2013). In this study, the process of data analysis involved

transforming data into research results through making succinct statements out of huge piles of data. Data analysis is therefore critical to the successful completion of a research inquiry as Harding and Whitehead (2013) argue that a researcher may fail to interpret research data or to draw conclusions and make recommendations if s/he does not understand how to analyse data. Similar arguments were highlighted by Flick (2014) who argued that, whatever the data are, it is their analysis that forms the outcomes of the research.

Qualitative data analysis is the process in which we move from the raw data that have been collected as part of the research study and use it to provide explanations, understanding and interpretation of the phenomena, people and situations which we are studying (Suter, 2012). The aim of analyzing qualitative data in this study was to examine the meaningful and symbolic content of that which is found within. Data analysis generally involves holistically identifying patterns, categories and themes. This is aimed to form an understanding of how participants make meaning of the research question, the collected data studied thoroughly to seek its relation to the research questions trying to make meaning it offer comprehending the data presentation. Qualitative data analysis is the process of systematically organizing the interview scripts, field notes and other accumulated materials until they understand in such a way they address the research questions and present create understanding to others (Gibbs, 2018).

Qualitative data which were collected from open-ended items in the semi-structured interview schedule were analysed thematically using content analysis, as themes and sub themes emerged from the data. The responses from subjects were put into categories according to the emerging themes. This allowed objective and critical interpretation, so as

to make decisions that were valid for proper conclusion and recommendations of the study.

Secondary data from websites and scholarly articles/reports was also reviewed and analyzed using content analysis that helped the researcher to broadly identify key concepts and factors related to the dimensions, code and categorize keywords, and identify patterns within and across the data.

### **3.9 REFLEXIVITY**

Qualitative researchers often engage in exploring their positionality in reference to a phenomenon and the people experiencing it. The subjective nature of qualitative research is recognized by establishing how one's identity (that is, gender identity, gender presentation, class, education, sexual orientation, race, ethnicity, age, language and culture) and contextual (that is, immigration and status) positionality contribute to the construction of the research process and findings. This positionality can be explored through the use of reflexivity (Swaminathan & Mulvihill, 2018).

Roulston (2010) defined reflexivity in research as “the researcher’s ability to be able to self-consciously refer to him or herself in relation to the production of knowledge about research topics” (p. 116). Therefore, reflexivity aided the researcher in exploring their positionality and understand how it constructs knowledge. Reflexivity goes beyond “reflection” in that it explores our relationship with others (that is, research participants and site) (Roulston, 2010). Creswell and Poth (2018) add that the positionality of the researcher would influence all aspects of the research study.

A reason to engage in reflexivity was to ensure that the researcher did not perpetuating oppressive structures within the research study and towards participants (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). In this study, trustworthiness was another reason for engaging into reflexivity. Trustworthiness in qualitative research alludes to how well a study aligns with its purpose and design. This is especially important for qualitative research since the researcher is a tool for data gathering and analysis. Moreover, unlike most quantitative research, qualitative research findings may not be replicable nor generalizable. Hence, trustworthiness in qualitative research should be established through credibility, transferability, and dependability.

To achieve reflexivity, the researcher wrote down the assumptions and presuppositions about the topic under study and revisited them throughout the research process. By considering the effectiveness, conduct and process of data collection, the researcher revised the methodology to take into account such issues as ethics, power relations. The researcher also kept a diary of his thoughts and feelings about the research process. Qualitative research is inherently subjective, no matter how well the project is designed. It can be challenging to control bias in qualitative studies, which is why the researcher incorporated reflexivity into the research process.

### **3.10 TRUSTWORTHINESS**

The accuracy of a qualitative study is ensured through trustworthiness, defined as the extent to which the data and data analysis are believable and trustworthy (Rose & Johnson, 2020). Rose and Johnson (2020) suggest that, the trustworthiness of qualitative research can be established by using four strategies discussed below:

### **3.10.1 Credibility**

Credibility of the research demands that the methodology chosen should be well explicated and justified (Roller & Lavrakas, 2015). Credibility establishes whether the research findings represent plausible information drawn from the participants' original data and is a correct interpretation of the participants' original views. Credibility in qualitative research is defined as the extent to which the data and data analysis are believable and trustworthy (Roller & Lavrakas, 2015). The researcher considered member checking into the findings to establish credibility.

### **3.10.2 Transferability**

Rose and Johnson (2020) advocates that transferability is achieved by providing a detailed, rich, thick description of the settings studied to provide readers with adequate information for easy generalization to other known settings. The researcher enhanced transferability by detailing the research method and context of the study. Researchers operating within the qualitative research methodology often find themselves battling to justify the applicability of their findings to other comparable contexts. As such, the usual way for researchers is to try and collect data on the same questions from multiple sources believing that findings obtained from such sources can be transferred with greater confidence (Suter, 2012). The researcher made efforts to make the current study transferrable by collecting, analyzing and crosschecking a variety of data on a single aspect from multiple sources.

### **3.10.3 Dependability**

Dependability refers to the stability of data over time and the extent to which research findings can be replicated with similar subjects in a similar context (Ponelis, 2015). To achieve dependability, the researcher explained the theory behind the study; used multiple methods of data collection (triangulation); and comprehensively explained data collection procedures to allow for auditing which consists of the researcher's documentation of data, methods and layout of project.

### **3.10.4 Conformability of the findings**

Conformability is the degree to which the research findings can be confirmed or corroborated by others (Rose & Johnson, 2020). To ensure conformability, the researcher strived to remain objective throughout the study in order to overcome any form of biased or subjective results.

### **3.10.5 Validity and Reliability**

Kothari and Hamel (2014) asserts that reliability is the ability for a research to be replicated if it is carried out under similar conditions elsewhere. According to Creswell (2013), validity is concerned with ensuring that a question measures or describes what it intends to find. Considering trustworthiness of a study, Saunders (2009) states that it is important to gain a high validity and that trustworthiness can be further described in terms of relevance and validity where relevance covers how relevant the theoretical framework and empirical finding are concerning the purpose and problem of the study. To achieve reliability, the researcher provided clear and comprehensive explanations about the

systematic procedures that were followed in gathering, analyzing and interpreting the data to allow for auditing which consists of the researcher's documentation of data, methods and layout of project.

### **3.10.6 Triangulation**

Creswell (2013) holds that triangulation is also often cited as one of the most important ways to improve the trustworthiness of and main ways of 'validating' qualitative research evidence and increase confidence in research findings. To ensure trustworthiness, the researcher used two research instruments for data collection as well as using both primary and secondary data collection methods to inform this study.

## **3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

The study followed the following ethical considerations:

### **(a) Protecting the rights of the institutions**

A written or oral informed consent was obtained from all participants. Participants were informed of their right to withdraw at any time during the interviews and they were informed that there would be no adverse consequences for withdrawing or refusing to participate in the study. Therefore, the researcher explained the purpose and objectives of the study before obtaining the consent of the participants. As Kothari and Hamel (2014) have argued that, if they are unaware of many of the ramifications of the situation being explored, important data will be missed that perhaps would have a significant bearing on the case.

**(b) Right to privacy**

The participants were informed about their rights in the study, which included the right to withdraw from the study, the right not to provide information if they are not willing or comfortable.

**(c) Right to anonymity and confidentiality**

Anonymity is defined as the degree to which the identity of a message source is unknown and not specified, therefore if one has less knowledge about a source it becomes harder to specify who the source is among all the respondents (Whelan, 2007). During the study, all participants were assured the rule of anonymity, as the participant's name did not appear in the semi-structured interview guide.

**(d) Data storage**

Data collected from the interviews was stored in locked cabinet only accessed by the researcher.

### **3.12 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, the research methodology was discussed. The study was exploratory and qualitative in nature as its objectives were to examine the current state of collective security in the SADC region and determine the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on collective security in the SADC region; therefore, the study adopted a qualitative research design. Qualitative research design was chosen because of its advantage in exploratory research were the use of open-ended questions and probing gives participants the opportunity to respond in their own words. Following qualitative research design was the sample

population. Participants from the study were drawn from the Namibia Defence Forces, the Ministry of International Relations and Co-operation, Namibian Police, Namibia Correctional Services as well as scholars from institutions of higher learning in the field of International Relations.

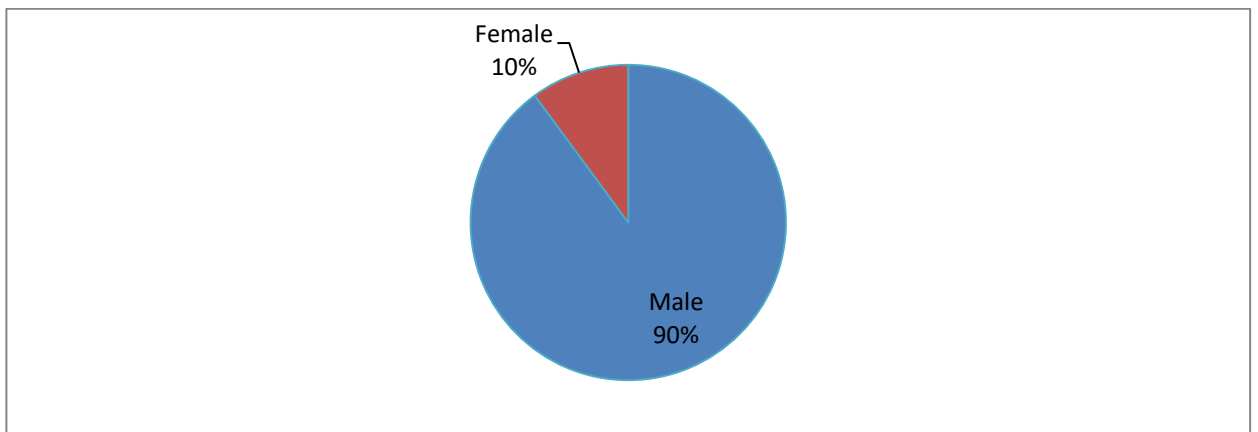
The chapter also outlined that a sample size of 20 was chosen using the purposive sampling method, specifically expert sampling method. The reason behind purposive was revealed in this chapter as that, purposive sampling allowed for the selection of key informants with knowledge about the subject under study. Following the sampling procedure, the chapter highlighted that semi-structured interviews and desk research were adopted to facilitate the process of collecting data. An interview guide was prepared which comprised of open-ended questions. Face-to-face interview were refrained from in this particular study. The chapter outlined that data collection began after permission from the University of Namibia. Data collected was analyzed using content analysis. Data quality issues were addressed in the chapter that is reflexivity and trustworthiness. At the end, the chapter discussed the ethical considerations, which the researcher followed through the data collection process. The next chapter presents the analysis of data, interpretation and discussion.

## CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

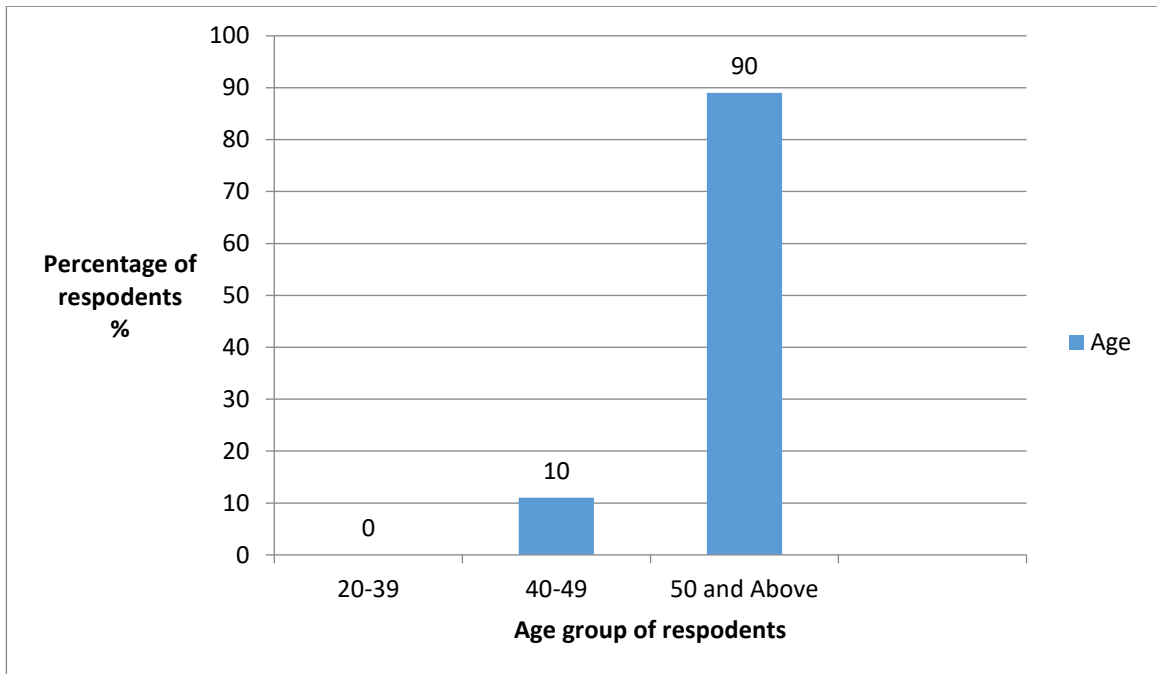
This chapter presents the findings of the study collected through semi-structured interviews, reviewing scholarly articles and SADC reports. 20 participants were interviewed, comprising of General and Senior Officers from the Namibian Defence Force (NDF), Namibian Police and Correctional Services; Military Attaché and Scholars in the field of International Relations, Strategic and Security Studies as well as career diplomats from the Ministry of International Relations and Co-operations. The participants were selected through purposive sampling method based on their expertise. The purpose of the study was to investigate and analyse the effects of Covid-19 pandemic on Collective security in the SADC region and come up with possible measures to mitigate those effects. The findings are based on the views, opinions and perceptions of the above state respondents. Furthermore, the data was presented in themes for the purpose of content analysis, in order to draw conclusion.

### 4.2 INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS



**Figure 1: Sex distribution of respondents**

Pie chart above shows the sex distribution of respondents that participated in the study. From the twenty respondents that participated in the semi-structured open-ended interviews, eighteen were male which made up 90% with two females, which constitute 10%. The results show that more male took part in the research as more male are in the Security and International Relations arena compared to female counterpart. Therefore, the findings of the study had views, opinions and perceptions from both sexes.



**Figure 2: Age group of respondents**

Graph shows the age groups of the participants that participated in the semi-structured open-ended interviews. Interestingly, there was no participants between the age group of 20-39, only 10% was between the age group of 40-49 years, 90% of the participants were aged 50 years and above. The results indicate that vastly experienced people took part in the study. This also shows that, the participants are seasoned career officers in the field of Security and International Relations.

**Table 2: Level of education for each respondent**

<b>Level of education</b>	<b>Number of respondents</b>	<b>Percentage of respondents %</b>
Diploma	02	10%
Honours Degree	03	15%
Master's Degree	10	50%
PhD	05	25%
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.1.4 shows the education level of respondents, the study revealed that about 10% had Diploma and 15 % had Honours Degree, while 50% had Master's Degree, 25% had PHD qualification. A higher percentage of respondents with Master's Degree imply that the participants have a wealth of knowledge and are able to give objective opinions and views that is relevant of the study. The second highest was 25% had PHD qualification meaning that they contributed highly to the existing body of knowledge. The study further revealed that the participants had 25 years and above of experience meaning that, the participants were greatly exposed and they engaged with other organizations both International and Regional. Moreover, the participants also had a background on the SADC Collective Security Architecture; hence, they served on the SADC Defence Organ.

#### **4.3 COLLECTIVE SECURITY MECHANISMS IN THE SADC REGION**

The study revealed that the Collective Security Mechanisms under threat from Covid-19 is the SADC Standby Force rapid deployment capabilities. During the face of the pandemic, the SADC Strategic Development Plan meetings such as Strategic Indicative Plan of the Organ (SIPO) on Defence, Politics and Security had to be put on hold, therefore escalating the insecurity in the SADC Region. Moreover, under such circumstances the SADC member states were unable to create a stable political and security environment

through which the region is able to realize its objectives of social economic development and Regional Integration.

These therefore indicates that, the Collective Security tool itself is under threat to maintain peace and stability in the SADC Region. The results also point out that, the economy of some SADC member states have been affected by the Covid – 19 Pandemic. Therefore, some member states could not pledge or deploy troops in Mozambique, hence it is often costly to deploy troops or war is a very expensive expedition. Like the case of Namibia, they could not send troops given the high cost incursion, they only managed to commit a cash amount of N\$ 5.8 Million Namibian Dollars which is approximately US\$ 389 511.88 US Dollars, while neighbors South Africa and Botswana deployed troops.

The study further revealed that the other mechanism affected is the SADC Committee of Ambassadors and Higher Commissions which usually takes place annually in the region has been postponed due to the outbreak of the Covid-19, therefore affecting the interoperability of SADC member states to tackle issues that are grievous concern in the Region. The main role of the Committee is to advise the SADC National Committees on issues related to the implementation of SADC programs and activities. They also consider matters related to the implementation of the Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP) and the Strategic Plan of the Organ (SIPO) and make appropriate recommendations to the SADC National Committees. By postponing these key organs, therefore provides the inability for the SADC Collective Security Architecture to act swiftly to matters that threatens security matters in the SADC Region.

In addition, SADC Forces military training exercise was hampered by the pandemic. Hence, the SADC Forces need harmonized training exercise to harness combat readiness and interoperability amongst forces. However, this can only be achieved through constant joint exercises and training as well as a harmonized doctrine. Therefore, absence of training and joint exercise directly affects military readiness of SADC troops. The SADC regional peacekeeping training center in Harare, Zimbabwe has not trained Military and Police personnel this year due to Covid-19 pandemic implications, which further dampen the interoperability between agencies. Additionally, the initial effects of Covid-19 pandemic have been on the Security Sector in terms of infections, deaths and overstretched security systems. This is because the Security and Health Sector was at the forefront in trying to enforce Covid-19 restrictions, with aim to curtail the spread.

The study further indicates that SADC health system was overwhelmed by the pandemic. This meant that SADC member states medical systems were not prepared for the pandemic of such nature, which led to a reactive stand. This also showed the military health experts should be better prepared to provide assistance the national health sector. However, South African National Defence Force (SANDF) Medical team stepped up to the challenge by providing leadership and guidance to South Africa health system and the population at large, but the same could not be said for the Namibian Defence Force (NDF) due to the lack of medical equipment, resources and medical experts. Most SADC member states channeled financial resources to the health sector, therefore forgoing the element of Collective Security in the region.

In analyzing the data, it can be inferred that the Covid-19 did not only negatively impacted Collective Security mechanism in the region, but also the whole life of the citizens of

member states within SADC Region. Moreover, the inability of SADC to respond to security threats such as the extremist group in the Cabo Del Delgado province in Mozambique has been compromised due to lock down and loss of unemployment as well as income caused by redirecting financial and human resources to contain the pandemic. Therefore, reducing the pledged equipment and personnel compromised the interoperability of SADC Standby Force, which brings about insecurity in the Region.

#### **4.4 COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN SADC AND COVID-19 PANDEMIC**

All respondents indicated that, the current SADC Collective Security is greatly impacted by the Covid-19 pandemic. SADC states are unable to come together to plan and deliberate on SADC issues that threatens Regional security. Moreover, joint military training/ exercise held periodically by SADC was put on hold due to the pandemic. These therefore affected the combat readiness and interoperability for the SADC Standby Force.

Furthermore, evidence suggest that the situation in Mozambique, Cabo Delgado Province could not be solved due to the protracted effect of the Covid-19 Pandemic. With the decline in economic activities and commodity prices, the governments are expected to fall drastically. This also affected the funding that was supposed to be channeled to military armaments and training of personnel. As the case of sending Regional Forces or troops to Mozambique is costly, making it difficult for some member states to pledge troops or financial support. It is further believed that, due to the inability of the SADC Standby Force to act swiftly escalated the situation in Mozambique, hence the insurgence took advantage SADC unorganized approach.

The creation of Collective Security is a Regional arrangement of which can affect bilateral or multilateral amongst member states should one of them be unable to fulfil its obligations due to stretched resources by Covid-19. Moreover, the Mozambique crisis has seen a slow response by some of SADC countries to pledge or deploy the required contingent troops, as a result non-Regional states such as United States of America (USA), Portugal and Rwanda have rendered assistance in form of training and troops to address the dire situation in Mozambique. Furthermore, private security contractors also offered services to the Mozambique government forces by means of providing personnel and assets such as helicopters to evacuate civilians from the war infested province of Cabo Delgado. Interestingly, SADC pledged a Battalion strength, which is approximately 950 troops including air and sea assets comprising of South Africa, Zimbabwe, Botswana and Lesotho forces, while Rwanda pledged 1000 troops. This is an indication of SADC's lack of capacity to address own problems in a timely manner.

The study further revealed that, mitigating Covid-19 requires dedicated funding to buy vaccines and to launch sensitization campaign to educate the public. Therefore, military budgets have been slashed as a result affecting combat readiness. This constrains the military to work with fewer resources such as serviceable combat vehicles, aircrafts, armed boats and other military equipment that will assist in the success of the operation. An ill-equipped force is often associated with low morale by soldiers and the morale is further dampened by loss of loved ones to the pandemic, thus therefore affecting their psychological well-being. This will eventually negatively affect the soldier's performance, leading to unethical leadership and practice in the operational area.

In the final analysis, Collective Security in the SADC Region is greatly impacted by the pandemic. Making reference to financial and human resources, for instance if 100 soldiers tested positive with Covid-19, it is often difficult to replace 100 soldiers on one go which in the end impact the Collective Security to be maintained in SADC particularly in countries like Mozambique and Democratic Republic of Congo.

#### **4.5 MITIGATION MEASURES**

All respondents indicated that, the possible measures to mitigate the influence of Covid-19 pandemic on Collective Security is compulsory vaccination for all Collective Security personnel and health providers with exception of those with underlying conditions based on a Medical Doctors recommendation. Moreover, continuation of health restriction until such a time the pandemic decline or reach a controllable stage. This should become the new norm; however, economic activities should get back to normal in order to allow economic recovery for SADC member states by also following the protocols provided by the World Health Organizations. This involves the facilitation or relaxing movement of goods and services.

In addition, there is also need for frequent interactions of Commanders virtually as physical interactions are greatly affected by Covid-19, in this way Commanders can continue to share ideas on how to tackle insecurity that exist in the Region. Moreover, there is need to operationalize SADC Health Command Centre to manage and contain the spread of Covid-19 as a matter of urgency.

Furthermore, there is need to fully equip the SADC Standby Force in order to enhance rapid deployment capabilities. This can be achieved by not only depending on

membership funding but by engaging or joining partnership with military advanced states like USA, Russia and China in terms of offering training and sponsoring equipment to the SADC Standby Force. Moreover, the SADC Standby Force should have an operationally ready Brigade on a rotational basis stationed at the SADC Headquarter Gaborone, Botswana in order to prevent the reactive stance of only sourcing for man power when a situation escalate. However, this can only be achieved through political and economic will, which can foster resource mobilization.

The study further revealed that Collective Security can improved by allowing the Regional Bloc to embark on producing drugs for vaccination and treatment. Moreover, they can motivate or urge all personnel of the Collective Security in the Region to be vaccinated in order to reduce the risk of getting seriously ill once contracting the pandemic. Furthermore, the SADC member states can also identify agricultural projects to ensure food security is attained in the Region. In addition, cross border trading and tourism should take effect to allow for economic recovery, which will therefore allow for the reallocation of resources to intensify security in the SADC Region. However, the SADC Regional Bloc should be cognizant of the fact that, the Covid-19 variants are ever mutating, therefore all tourist entering the country are to present their full vaccination card.

Additionally, the Regional bloc should create an interstate initiative of bilateral nature involving stakeholders and academicians to advocate for comprehensive Collective Security arrangements. This will include but not limited to a consolidated Disaster Management Mechanism at the Regional level to combat the pandemic effects. There is also need for a collaborative research that involves keeping database for regular

assessment on issues affecting Regional Security situation such as terrorism, floods, drought, fire outbreaks or pandemics.

Furthermore, Collective Security can be improved by sharing of intelligence information in order to prevent duplication of information with limited or scarce resources. The SADC member states must pledge in diversity to ensure optimal usage of resources. This therefore implies that, member states should pledge in areas where they feel strong. For example, Angolan Defence Force is known for its Airlift or Air Transport and Artillery capabilities, while SANDF is known for its states of the art Military Field Hospital capabilities, whereby other states can pledge manpower or money that could be used to sustain the operation.

Collective Security can also be improved by maximizing the benefits of technological revolution like the use of virtual tools in the SADC Region while mitigating or cushioning and preventing the dangers presented in the Region. With this approach, there will be less disruption to the Collective Security architecture.

#### **4.6 IMPLICATIONS OF INEFFECTIVE COLLECTIVE SECURITY IN THE SADC REGION**

The ineffective Collective Security will expose the SADC Region and individual states issues such as increased illegal migration, smuggling of illicit drugs and weapons, which will increase terrorists' activities, armed robberies such as cash in transit heist, extremist infiltration to cause riots as currently experienced in South Africa, Malawi and Eswatini. The study also revealed that, the likely Security implications of ineffective Collective Security in the SADC Region led to an influx of extremist groups in the Region and overspill to neighboring countries like Malawi, therefore amounting to further insecurity

in the Region. This finding confirms the findings in the study carried out by (Domson-Lindsay, 2015).

The study also revealed that, states that are sufficiently resourced try to dominate less resourced states, which could lead to loss in sovereignty. This is because the sufficiently resourced country will do what they want, knowing that no action will be taken against them at Regional level, given SADC's inability to act swiftly.

Furthermore, ineffective Collective Security in SADC will undermine their ability to bring about peace in the Region. This will therefore bring in non-Regional actors to bring about peace in the Region. Like case of Mozambique, SADC took long to act which brought in the USA and Portugal offering training and equipment. This also saw the inclusion of private security companies offering assistance to government forces and Rwanda sending 1000 troops, which is more the 950 pledged troops by SADC. This is a clear indication that, SADC countries are not able to solve their own problems, which means they lack a unified stand. Referring to a similar controversy during the 1998-2002 DRC war whereby non-SADC states namely Rwanda and Uganda conspiracy of supporting rebels with aim to overthrow the late Laurent Kabila or the DRC government. SADC member states was divided in the matter, some did not see the need for a military intervention, while some saw otherwise. Therefore, individual member states namely Angola, Namibia and Zimbabwe intervened under the banner of SADC in order to prevent the war from spreading to neighboring countries. This could have led to economic down turn resulting in hunger and increase in number of refugees in politically stable countries like Namibia, South Africa and Botswana.

Moreover, division of SADC member states is caused by individual states policy. For example, in the case of Botswana shoot to kill policy on another nation create conflict attribute and behaviors that could lead to manifestation of war. Many Namibian nationals in the Zambezi Region have lost their lives by the hands of BDF soldiers resulting in division between the two SADC member states.

#### **4.7 CONCLUSION**

To sum up, this chapter presented results and discussed impacts of Covid-19 on Collective Security in the SADC Region. Among the issues that strongly emerged from the discussions are that closure of borders, restriction of movements, delay in decision making, individual state policies. Others include diversion of funds from military budgets due to economic constraints, and rapid rate of infections, hospitalizations and deaths. These issues had serious impact on combat readiness of Defence forces in the SADC region. Impact of the global pandemic on individual states by extension means ineffective collective security in the region. In the chapter that follows, the conclusion of the findings is presented. These entail a summary of previous chapters and evaluation of research questions.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: EVALUATION AND CONCLUSION**

### **5.1 CONCLUSION**

This chapter deals with the summary of the findings, conclusion and recommendation based on the aspects on the impacts of the Covid-19 pandemic on Collective Security in the SADC Region. In summary, the researcher attempted to base the arguments on ineffective Collective Security linked to the Covid-19 pandemic. Undeniably, the study gives a brief understanding about the likely implication of ineffective Collective Security amidst the Covid-19 within the SADC Region. The results of the study understand the following findings:

The Covid-19 pandemic has greatly affected Collective Security in SADC. The study revealed that the Collective Security Mechanisms affected from Covid-19 is the SADC Standby Force rapid deployment capabilities. At height of the pandemic outbreak, the SADC Strategic Development Plan meetings such as Strategic Indicative Plan of the Organ (SIPO) on Defence, Politics and Security had to be put on hold, therefore escalating the insecurity in the SADC Region. Moreover, under such circumstances the SADC member states were unable to create a stable political and security environment through which the region is able to realize its objectives of social economic development and Regional Integration. Moreover, Collective Security was further impacted in terms of personnel; hence, some lost their loved ones from the pandemic, which therefore dampen morale for the military and health experts.

During the study, it was impossible to separate political, economic and military factors from Collective Security. Hence, all agenda were driven from political level and cascaded

down to the economic and financial undertakings. It could be argued that, funds were diverted from military expenditure to cater for medical sector and social issues in order to cushion the overwhelming shock of the pandemic. Therefore, states moved from Regionalism to individualism in order to try to contain the pandemic in the own country. With doing, it escalated the situation in Mozambique, which brought in non-SADC states foreign actors. SADC states eventually deployed but not all member states could pledge troops or financial resources given the devastating effect of the pandemic. Lastly, inability of SADC to act swiftly to security issues should serve as a lesson learned in a sense that, even in the tooth of a pandemic one cannot compromise on Regional Security.

## **5.2 SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS**

Chapter one of this study discussed the background of the Covid-19 pandemic, which broke out in 2019 whereby the effects were felt globally. This therefore led to drastic measure from world leaders to cushion the shock of the Covid-19 pandemic. Individual states had to channel resources towards the health sector, therefore foregoing collective security in respective regions, particularly the SADC Region.

Chapter two focused on reviewing literature related to collective security amidst the Covid-19 pandemic. Generally, this chapter examined Collective Security in Africa, impacts of Covid-19 on Collective Security in SADC as well as challenges of Collective Security in the SADC Region, which provided evidence to substantiate the findings of the study. This chapter further highlighted the measures to mitigate the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on Collective Security in the SADC Region.

Chapter three discussed the research methodology applied during the study. The study adopted a qualitative research design, which examined the current state of collective security in the SADC region and determine the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on collective security in the SADC region. The study sampled of 20 participants and data was collected from five organizations namely the NDF, Ministry of International Relations and Co-operation, Namibian Police and Namibia Correctional Services as well as scholars from institutions of higher learning through open-ended interviews.

Chapter four presented the research findings, whereby the main research finding was that the SADC Standby Force rapid deployment capabilities was greatly affected by the Covid-19 pandemic. The findings also revealed that Collective Security was further impacted in terms of personnel; hence, some lost their loved once from the pandemic, which therefore dampen morale for the military and health experts. Equally, personnel from the security cluster also perished in numbers, due to the fact that they were at the forefront to enforce Covid-19 restrictions. Furthermore, the study also revealed that health of the military personnel was affected, hence the Namibian Defence Force as well as the Namibian Police lost a number of serving and retired officers. Many were also hospitalized with severe symptoms. Such issues therefore affected the mobilization of the SADC Standby Force as well as the readiness of individual states military force.

Chapter five evaluated the main research objective and draw conclusion that the SADC Region Collective Security was greatly affected by the Covid-19. The was evident with the issue of Mozambique, hence the inability of SADC Standby Force to react to the matter in a timely manner brought in non-Regional states such as USA, Portugal and Rwanda to assist Mozambique Government Forces. Furthermore, the extremist group in

Mozambique capitalized on SADC Collective Security vacuum to take over the Cabo Delgado Province. In addition, SADC military joint exercise and training was put on hold amidst the pandemic, therefore affecting interoperability amongst SADC states.

### **5.3 EVALUATION OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The following research objectives were posted at the beginning of the study:

#### **5.3.1 The research addressed the following main research question:**

**Objective 1:** To determine the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on collective security mechanisms in the SADC region.

This objective was determined by looking at Collective Security mechanisms that were affected amidst the Covid-19 pandemic. The study revealed that Collective Security Mechanisms affected by Covid-19 was the SADC Standby Force rapid deployment capabilities. During the face of the pandemic, the SADC Strategic Development Plan meetings such as Strategic Indicative Plan of the Organ (SIPO) on Defence, Politics and Security had to be put on hold, therefore escalating the insecurity in the SADC Region. Moreover, under such circumstances individual SADC member states were more concerned about national survival than regional survival. They were unable to create regional pandemic preventive agenda in light with regional political and security arrangements through which the region is able to realize its objectives of social economic development and Regional Integration. Moreover, the Collective Security is further impacted in terms of personnel; hence, some lost their loved ones from the pandemic, which therefore dampen morale for the military and health experts. To a reasonable degree therefore, the first objective of the study was realized.

**Objective 2:** To determine the challenges of collective security in the SADC region.

To realize this objective, the study focused on issues that determine combat readiness of national and regional armed forces such as military exercises, equipment testing, field medical team training, etc. In this regard, findings show that SADC Standby Force's yearly military training exercises were hampered by the pandemic. SADC Forces need harmonized training exercises to harness combat readiness. However, this can only be achieved through constant joint exercises and training. Therefore, absence of training and joint exercises directly affected military readiness of SADC troops. The SADC regional peacekeeping training centre in Harare, Zimbabwe did not train Military and Police personnel in 2020 and 2021 year due to Covid-19 pandemic implications. Furthermore, the initial effects of Covid-19 pandemic have been on the Security Sector in terms of infections, deaths and overstretched security systems. This is because the Security Sector and the Health Sector was at the forefront in trying to enforce Covid-19 restrictions.

The study further indicated that SADC health system was overwhelmed by the pandemic. This meant that SADC member states medical systems were not prepared for the pandemic of such nature, which led to a reactive stand. This also showed the Military health experts should be better prepared to provide assistance the national health sector. However, South African National Defence Force (SANDF) Medical team stepped up to the challenge provides leadership and guidance to South Africa health system, but the same could not be said for the Namibian Defence Force (NDF) due to the lack of medical equipment, resources and medical experts. Most SADC member states channelled

financial resources to the health sector, therefore forgoing the element of Collective Security in the region.

These factors point to the fact that both national defences in region as well as the regional standby force were severely affected by COVID 19 pandemic. It can therefore be argued that this objective was largely realized.

**Objective 3:** To highlight and discuss possible solutions to curb the impact of Covid-19 pandemic and promote collective security in the SADC region.

All respondents indicated that, the possible measures to mitigate the influence of Covid-19 pandemic on Collective Security is compulsory vaccination for all Collective Security personnel and health providers with exception of those with underlying conditions based on a Medical Doctors recommendations. Moreover, continuation of health restriction until such a time the pandemic disappears. This should become the new norm; however, economic activities should get back to normal in order to allow economic recovery for SADC member states by also following the protocols provided by the World Health Organizations. This involves the facilitation or relaxing movement of goods and services.

In addition, there is also need for frequent interactions of Commanders virtually as physical interactions are greatly affected by Covid-19, in this way Commanders can continue to share ideas on how to tackle insecurity that exist in the Region. Moreover, there is need to operationalize SADC Health Command Centre to manage and contain the spread of Covid-19 as a matter of urgency.

Furthermore, there is need to fully equip the SADC Standby Force in order to enhance rapid deployment capabilities. This can be achieved by not only depending on membership funding but by engaging or joining partnership with military advanced states like USA, Russia and China in terms of offering training and sponsoring equipment to the SADC Standby Force. Moreover, the SADC Standby Force should have an operationally ready Brigade on a rotational basis stationed at the SADC Headquarter Gaborone, Botswana in order to prevent the reactive stance of only sourcing for man power when a situation escalate. However, this can only be achieved through political and economic will, which can foster resource mobilization.

The study revealed that Collective Security can be improved by allowing the Regional Bloc to embark on producing drugs for vaccination and treatment. Moreover, they can motivate or urge all personnel of the Collective Security in the Region to be vaccinated in order to reduce the risk of getting seriously once contracting the pandemic. Furthermore, the SADC member states can also identify agricultural projects to ensure food security is attained in the Region. In addition, cross border trading and tourism should take effect to allow for economic recovery, which will therefore allow for the reallocation of resources to intensify security in the SADC Region. However, the SADC Regional Bloc should be cognizant of the fact that, the Covid-19 variants are ever mutating, therefore all tourist entering should present their full vaccination card.

Suggestions proffered by study participants, strongly indicates that the third objective of the study was largely realized.

## 5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the evaluation of research objectives based on findings from data analysis. The following recommendations are proposed.

- There is need for a clear demonstration of Political, Economic and Military will by all states to bring about peace and security in the SADC Region.
- Due to SADC's inability to act swiftly and decisively, it is recommended that, Brigade strength to be stationed at the SADC Headquarters in Gaborone to be ready for any deployment.
- The SADC member states need to move away from individualism to regionalism through political, economic and military integration.
- Given the constant danger the Collective Security element is exposed to during the face of the pandemic, it is recommended that, vaccination to be mandatory to all Security and health personnel.
- The researcher recommends for a further research on measures to prevent extremist in the SADC Region.

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Hsu Liu Oft

for urgent action

19/21  
07/21

Brig Gen



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11<sup>th</sup> May, 2021

Dear Sir/Madam

**APPENDIX A**

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH**

Research is an integral part of postgraduate studies at the University of Namibia (UNAM). It is carried out in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Postgraduate degrees. Against this background, I write to kindly request your permission to allow Shanigwa. N (Student number:201601647) who is completing his/her Master of Security Studies (MASSS) degree at the School of Military Science, UNAM, carry out studies in your facility.

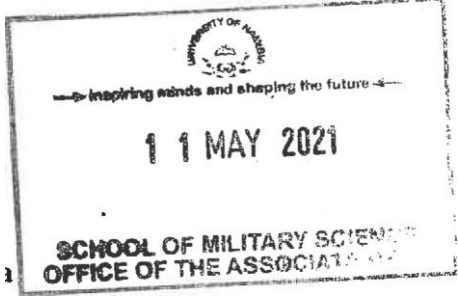
The titled of the study is, An Analysis of the Impact of Novel Coronavirus Pandemic on Collective Security in the SADC Region. The student uses the methods of questionnaire and interview to collect data from stakeholders in the border areas under your control. The data collected will be used specifically for academic purposes and will not be passed on to a third party in accordance with research ethics and UNAM's confidentiality policy.

It would be highly appreciated if your good office would facilitate the student's study by granting him permission to carry out his/her study in your organization. I thank you for your continued support and kind consideration of our request.

Yours Sincerely

Dr. *Obinna*

Obinna  
Acting Associate Dean  
School of Military Science  
University of Namibia, Windhoek



Iroanya Richard

**APPENDIX B**



**NAMIBIAN DEFENCE FORCE**

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Fax: (061) 204 2124 Private Bag 13307 E-mail Address: edefence@mod.gov.va  
WINDHOEK Brig Gen E. Hauanga

Enquiries: .....

CDF/3/2/5/14


22 July 2021

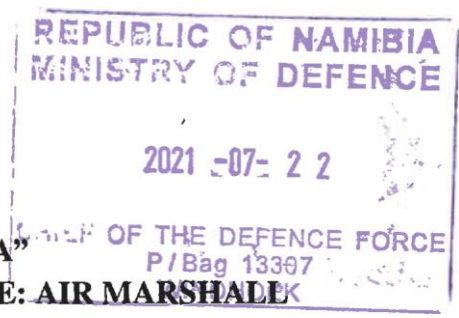
Our Ref: ..... Your Ref:.....

See Distribution

**RE: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT AN ACADEMIC RESEARCH**

1. The student 17100602 Lt Col Shaningwa N, student number 201601647, studying at the University of Namibia, towards Master of Arts in Security and Strategic Studies (MASSS), with the Faculty of Science, School of Military Science, is hereby granted permission to conduct an academic research at DHQ.:
2. The research topic concerned is titled: "An Analysis of the Impact of Novel Coronavirus Pandemic on Collective Security in the SADC Region."
3. Therefore, render him your support in this regard especially in the area where our internal information is not highly classified. This permission does not allow in any form, hard or soft to publish information acquired through your research, without obtaining prior authorization from my office.

For   
MK PINEHAS "psc" "Bcom" "MBA"  
CHIEF OF THE DEFENCE FORCE: AIR MARSHAL



*Handwritten signature*

- Enclosures: a. Letter from UNAM  
b. Research Proposal  
c. Research Questionnaire  
d. Research Timetable Programme

## APPENDIX C

### Interview Guide



**Research Topic:** An Analysis of the Impact of Novel Coronavirus Pandemic on  
Collective Security in the SADC Region

**Research questions:**

The research will address the following main research question: **What are the main Collective Security mechanisms in the SADC region under threat from COVID - 19?**

Supporting questions will be:

- ✓ What effects has COVID -19 pandemic brought on Collective Security in SADC region?
- ✓ What measures can be embarked on to mitigate the influence of COVID – 19 pandemics on Collective Security in the SADC region?

### **Potential participants for the study**

- ✓ Renowned Scholars in the field of International Relations, Strategic and Security Studies.
- ✓ General Officers in the NDF both active and retired.
- ✓ Experts or Career Diplomats from the Ministry of International Relations and Cooperation.

### **Open ended interview: For participants**

Sir, I am 17100602 Lieutenant Colonel Naftali Shaningwa a member of the Namibian Defence Force (NDF) from the Directorate of Logistics, a master student at the University of Namibia (UNAM) studying towards a Master's degree in Security and Strategic Studies (MASSS), in the department of Security and Strategic Studies.

As part of my studies at the University of Namibia, I am conducting research **on the Impact of Novel Coronavirus Pandemic on Collective Security in the SADC Region**. The impact of COVID -19 cannot be overstated with research indicating a potential global recession. African is predicted to be the most affected due to losses in revenue streams and decline of 3-8% in GDP in 2020 alone. The pandemic is just not a health issue, the implications are far reaching on the socio-economic, political and security spheres. Particularly the Collective Security System as a tool to maintain peace and security in the SADC Region.

I just want to confirm from security experts, the likely impact of the COVID – 19 pandemics on Collective Security in the SADC Region. Therefore, I will be asking a few questions on the impacts of the COVID – 19 on Collective Security.

**Questionnaire: (General Officers, Renowned Scholars and Career Diplomats)**

**Questionnaire Number:.....**

**Date:.....**

**(Please answer the following questions)**

1. How long have you been working in the field of security?

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2. How do you understand the term Collective Security?

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3. What are the main Collective Security mechanisms in the SADC Region under threat from COVID – 19?

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4. In your opinion, is the current SADC Collective Security impacted by the COVID – 19 pandemics?

Yes

No

5. To what extend is Collective Security in the SADC affected by the COVID -19 pandemic?

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6. How do you think Collective Security can be improved in the context of COVID – 19 Pandemic?

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7. In your opinion, what possible measures can mitigate the influence of COVID pandemic on Collective Security in the SADC region?

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8. What are the likely security implications of ineffective Collective Security in the SADC Region?

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**Thank you for your participation sir...**

