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**THE IMPACT OF ISLAMIC STATE ON HUMAN
SECURITY**

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Master's Thesis

Supervisor

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Signature



DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to the source of love, altruism, and generosity, the souls that reside in Paradise, my father, mother, and brother, may God have mercy on them, and to my beloved family and to all from whom I received advice and support, I present to you my scientific efforts.



PREFACE

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the people who helped me make this study a reality. I would like to express my deep gratitude to Prof. Dr. Jülide Karakoç BAKIŞ, my thesis advisor, whose dedication, guidance, and invaluable support contributed so much to my study. My boundless appreciation is owed to my family and close friends for their support and encouragement during this process. Many thanks to the Turkish people, who have welcomed me and treated me with their kindness and friendliness throughout the three years. My profound gratitude to my dear country, for which I long with all my heart.



ÖZET

İSLAM DEVLETİNİN İNSANİ GÜVENLİK ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

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Bu çalışma, İslam Devleti (İD) örgütünün insani güvenliğin yedi boyutu üzerindeki etkisini inceliyor: ekonomik güvenlik, gıda güvenliği, sağlık güvenliği, çevre güvenliği, bireysel güvenlik, toplum güvenliği ve siyasal güvenlik. 2014-2017 yılları arasında İD'nin insani güvenlik üzerindeki etkisinin analizine dayanarak, İD'nin doğrudan ve dolaylı olarak Suriye ve Irak'ta hüküm sürdüğü topraklarda insani güvensizliği artırdığını ileri sürüyorum. İnsani güvenliğin yedi boyutunun birbiriyle bağlantılı olduğu için İD'nin insani güvenliğin herhangi bir boyutu üzerindeki olumsuz etkisinin diğer boyutlarını da olumsuz bir şekilde etkilediği sonucuna varıyorum.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İnsani Güvenlik, İslam Devleti (İD), Terörizm, İSİS, Güvenlik Tehdidi.

ABSTRACT

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This study examines the impact of the Islamic State (IS) on seven aspects of human security: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security. Based on the analysis of IS's influence on human security from 2014 to 2017, I argue that IS directly and indirectly increased human insecurity in the territories it ruled in Syria and Iraq. I conclude that, since the seven human security dimensions are largely interrelated, the negative impact of IS's rules and practices on any one dimension can negatively influence other dimensions of human security as well.

Keywords: Human Security, Islamic State (IS), Terrorism, ISIS, Security Threat.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AQI	:	Al-Qaeda in Iraq
CSO	:	Civil Society Organization
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
IS	:	Islamic State
ISI	:	Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing
ISIL	:	Isalamic State of Iraq and the Levant
JTWJ	:	Jamaat Al-Tawhid Wa Al-Jihad
OODA	:	Observe, Orient, Decide, and Act
UNCED	:	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Program
UNHCR	:	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
WCED	:	World Commission on Enviroonment and Development
WSSD	:	World Summit on Sustainable Development

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 STUDY BACKGROUND

The concept of human security, which reflects the new post-Cold War security environment, has received significant interest among scholars and practitioners since the 1994 publication of the Human Development Report by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP). This report argued against the narrow definition of human security that only refers to defending a territory or homeland from external threats while ignoring ordinary people's security in everyday life (Paris, 2001, p. 89). This narrow approach to human security is based on the hegemony of the Westphalia system since the 17th century. According to this framework, nation-states constitute the dominant form of authority.

Their security is provided for via the states themselves. However, since the appearance of new threats and actors, a new, human-centered security approach has challenged this top-down, state-centered security approach (Inglehart and Norris, 2012, p. 74). Therefore, although there is no consensus on its definition, human security can be defined as the security of individuals and communities (Kaldor, Martin, and Selchow, 2007, p. 74), including “freedom from fear”, “freedom from want”, and “freedom to live with dignity”. The UNDP report defined it in terms of seven main aspects: economic, health, environmental, food, personal, political, and community (The United Nations, 1994).

The seven aspects of human security can be defined as follows (Fukuda-Parr and Messineo, 2012, p. 6). Economic security refers to feeling secure and safe in terms of finances and resources and securing access to establish a career or obtain a job. Food security refers to ensuring access to basic food and other resources for sustaining human health and physical well-being. Health security refers to ensuring free and safe access to basic healthcare programs and protective public health initiatives. Environmental security refers to safety from all natural hazards and disasters, such as catastrophic events that threaten human access to resources.

Personal security refers to a sense of safety from harmful actions that violate their rights to life, such as human rights abuses, drug abuse, crimes, child abuse, domestic violence, and self-inflicted violence. Community security refers to ensuring that groups of people sharing a standard set of practices are protected from ethnic and community-based conflict. Finally,

political security refers to having unconditional freedom of speech and the prevention of prejudice or oppression against individuals' ability to voice their opinions.

Based on this approach to human security and drawing on the seven aspects of human security, the study explores the impact of the Islamic State (IS) on human security between 2014 and 2017, which marks the most active and influential period of extremist Islamists. I argue that IS directly and indirectly increased human insecurities in the territories it ruled in Syria and Iraq between 2014 and 2017. The significance of this study lies in the fact that it determines how IS gained considerable power and authority during this period, which fueled its violent approaches to commit many attacks and crimes, causing severe human insecurities. While several studies have examined IS's impact on human security, none has revealed IS's impact on all seven aspects of human security as defined in the UNDP report. Instead, they analyzed IS's impact on each aspect separately. The present study therefore addresses all seven aspects by analyzing academic sources, such as articles and books, as well as reports and websites that provide data on the topic.

1.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

Focusing on the period 2014-2017, this study has the following three main objectives: First, thoroughly analyzing all aspects of human security, using 1994 UNDP as a conceptual basis; second, examining the role of economic, social, and political factors in the emergence of IS, and third, analyzing the negative consequences of IS's activities on each aspect of human security between 2014 and 2017.

1.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study addresses all seven aspects by analyzing academic sources, such as articles and books, as well as reports and websites that provide data on the topic. The first section focuses on IS's emergence and growth as a powerful regional actor, specifically in terms of its ideology, history, origins, and main leaders, as well as the factors and conducive conditions that allowed it to grow in the region. The second section examines the conceptual origin and content of human security, explains how it differs from conventional security approaches that deal with security at the state level, and examines various aspects of human security. The last chapter of the study examines the impact of IS on all seven aspects of human security by using several indicators for each aspect.

1.4 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

This study determines how IS gained considerable power and authority during 2014-2017, which fueled its approach of committing violent attacks and other crimes against human beings. It is significant because it details the impact of IS on all seven aspects of human security as identified by the 1994 UNDP report. It does so by addressing each aspect separately and analyzing the impact of IS on it. Most other studies have not attempted to analyze the impact of IS within this period on each aspect of human security, thereby making this work significant.

1.5 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The concept of human security was introduced in the Human Development Report published by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in 1994. The report defines human security as freedom from fear, freedom from want and freedom from indignity. The report identifies seven main aspects to the concept of human security. These aspects serve as pivotal facets of human security while reflecting the level of threat that might prevent human beings from leading a healthy life. These are economic security, health security, environmental security, food security, personal security, political security, and community security (The United Nations, 1994).

This initiative led by the United Nations has had a positive impact on political, social, and economic discourse because it identifies all facets of the threats that deprive people of a sense of security and formalized them into a comprehensive classification. Previously, for example, environmental security might not have been considered as part of human security; this demonstrates how the UNDP successfully opened the door to considering all aspects of human security, including all the environmental issues that can threaten people's security (Foster, 2013, p. 44). However, it is noteworthy that although the concept of human security which is seen as a reflection of the new post-Cold War security environment has received great interest from scholars and practitioners, many scholars doubt the validity of the concept. They argue that it is too vague to be academically scrutinized or should not obscure the importance of traditional security agendas (Paris, 2001, p 87-101). On the other hand, according to Kaldor, Martin and Selchow, human security is neither a concept defined and analyzed in academic studies nor one that has gained political emphasis from policymakers

or state officials. This is because there is a difference between knowing and saying what human security is as a term, and practicing the values that help establish, disseminate, and facilitate the development of human security amongst all human beings (Kaldor, Martin, & Selchow, 2007, p. 274).

Fukuda-Parr and Messineo (2012, p. 6) define the seven aspects of human security as follows: Economic Security: A sense that all human beings have when they feel stable in terms of finances and resources and have secure access to establishing a career or obtaining a job. Food Security: Assured access to basic food and all other resources needed to sustain health and physical well-being. Health Security: The ability to access basic healthcare programs and benefit freely and safely from preventative public health initiatives. Environmental Security: A sense of safety from all natural hazards and disasters, such as catastrophic events that threaten human beings' access to resources. Personal Security: A sense of safety from atrocious acts that violate their right to life, such as human rights abuse, drug abuse, child abuse, domestic violence, and self-inflicted violence. Community Security: The security given to a group of people who share a common set of practices against all kinds of ethnic and community-based conflict. Political Security: The level of unconditional freedom of speech given to human beings, and the prevention of any form of prejudice or oppression against their ability to voice their opinions and views. Based on these seven aspects of human security, the present study assumes that any threat directed towards one or more of these aspects should be considered a direct threat to human security.

1.6 LITERATURE REVIEW

Various studies have been conducted to analyze the impact of ISIS on human security in general. Al-Saadi (2020) reported that IS caused damage and threatened human security by committing crimes like drug trafficking. Evidence of this was that the prevalence of drugs correlates with the rise of IS in Iraq, especially in the southern governorates. This helped create a conducive environment for the emergence of various deviant behaviors and crimes. This study shows how IS damaged human security by allowing drug abuse to take place in many regions by establishing a sense of chaos and disorder amongst civilians, which specifically violates personal security.

Eklund, Degerald, Brandt, Prishchepov, and Pilesjo (2017) demonstrated the negative impact of IS's violent practices on the physical, psychological, and mental health of refugee women and children in the Middle East. The study showed that caregivers who worked with these women and children were also indirectly affected by the refugees' traumas, leading to various mental and psychological traumas, such as secondary traumatization and high workload. Thus, this study identifies the impact of IS on civilian health security. The study is also significant in analyzing the aftermath of working with refugees and the impact of trauma treatment on the caregivers themselves. This highlights how the impact of ISIS on human health reaches both patients and caregivers alike.

Denkinger et al. (2018) found that IS damaged the agricultural system in Iraq and Syria by forcing many farmers to abandon their fields and migrate to safer areas away from the armed conflict. This reduced the use of high-intensity farmland and led to farmland abandonment. The study provides evidence of the negative impact of IS on agriculture in Syria and Iraq by reducing both food security and environmental security of local people due to increased risk of desertification. Ianchovichina and Ivanic (2016) showed how the war that took place in 2014 in Iraq and Syria in which IS was heavily harmed the welfare and economic status of both countries' citizens. More specifically, per capita welfare Syria and Iraq fell by 14% and 16%, respectively. The war also affected other Levant economies like Lebanon, where per capita welfare fell by 11%. The study demonstrates that IS damaged the economic status of Iraq, Syria, and Middle East economies, which provides evidence that IS's terroristic activities are detrimental to citizens' economic security and human security in general.

According to Jabareen (2015), IS poses a major threat to the Middle East's geopolitical atmosphere, and to social norms in other Muslim countries worldwide. This is because IS rejects the concept of others"; instead, it completely excludes all non-ISIS supporters, which it describes as infidels, regardless of their political, religious, or social affiliations. For ISIS, the world includes two groups of people: the true ISIS jihadists and those who deserve to be murdered due to their opposition to ISIS doctrine. These findings demonstrate IS's impact political and community security by showing how IS jihadists reject any human being who refuses to join them or does not approve of their views. While the studies outlined above identify the impact of IS on human security from different standpoints, none of them analyze IS's impact across all seven human security aspects.

2. THE EMERGENCE OF THE ISLAMIC STATE

The current chapter explains how IS rose to power and became one of the most threatening armed groups in the Middle East. The chapter presents the history of IS and the main factors that allowed it to become a prominent regional threat and discusses its ideology that distinguishes IS from other similar groups that emerged within the same period. As Zelin (2014, p. 1) shows, IS went through a series of phases and transformations from when it first emerged in 1999 until 2013, when it became a force to be reckoned with. These changes led its leaders to change the group's name many times in accordance with the contemporary environment.

2.1 HISTORY OF ISLAMIC STATE (IS)

The emergence of IS has posed a major threat to global peace and security over the past years. These extremist group took advantage of conditions that Iraq and Syria, especially after the U.S. war on Iraq. This created a suitable environment for terrorist groups to appear and spread widely while launching many criminal attacks on defenseless people, including anyone who did not believe in their extremist beliefs and ideas. Consequently, IS became considered one of the most dangerous extremist terrorist groups in the Middle East. Its emergence went through the following five phases:

2.1.1 First Phase: Jamaat Al-Tawhid Wa Al-Jihad (Group of Monotheism and Struggle) (JTWJ) 1999-2004

A common misconception regarding the history of IS is that many believe that the group emerged in the early 2010s. However, its real origins date back to the late 1990s. As Shamsuzzoha (2015, p. 5) argues, IS did not exist in a vacuum; rather, it took several years until it gained prominence within the region. More specifically, IS was originally established under the name Jamaat Al-Tawhid Wa- Al-Jihad (JTWJ - Group of Monotheism and Struggle) in 1999 by an Al-Qaeda veteran named Abu Musab Al-Zarqawi, who had fought in Afghanistan before deciding to found the group. Since then, the idea of founding an Islamic state became the core of IS's overall ideology. After becoming its head, Abu Musab Al-Zarqawi was able to run JTWJ as an independent group operating separately from Al-Qaeda's orders and leadership. Nevertheless, the group pledged allegiance to Al-Qaeda and

its leader Osama bin Laden, as reflected in the fact that, in 2004, Zarqawi was appointed the leader of Al-Qaeda's faction in Iraq (Delemarre, 2017, p. 9-10). Although JTWJ are related to Al-Qaeda, the two groups did not officially participate in operations as one homogenous entity. Instead, JTWJ merely gained financial assistance from Al-Qaeda through monetary transactions that linked the two groups. In short, at that time, Al-Qaeda was JTWJ's ally, allowing the latter to conduct several autonomous operations (Brody, 2017, p. 10).

2.1.2 Second Phase: Al-Qaeda in Iraq (AQI) 2004-2006

Zarqawi's efforts to expand did not stop at founding JTWJ as in 2004 he intended to merge with Al-Qaeda by vowing his own and his group's obedience to Osama bin Laden. This made JTWJ another faction of Al-Qaeda, with Zarqawi becoming its leader after changing its name to Al-Qaeda in Iraq (AQI), amid the U.S.-led invasion of Iraq in 2003 (Laub & Masters, 2014, p. 1). AQI remained active until October 2006 when Zarqawi was announced deceased by U.S. officials (Gorka & Gorka, 2015, p. 4-5). AQI's most infamous attack, perpetrated by Zarqawi himself, was the beheading of an American civilian called Nicholas Berg who was working in Iraq during the U.S. invasion. Berg was filmed as he was beheaded by Zarqawi, who appeared dressed in black. This marked the first of many other infamous beheadings during that time (Ahmed et al., 2016, p. 17). Zarqawi was considered one of the most extremist leaders, even by Muslims themselves, as he thought anyone who violated his directives and beliefs was an enemy and a target, just like the American enemy (Wibowo & Hapsari, 2022, p. 211).

2.1.3 Third Phase: Majlis Shura Al-Mujahedin (The Council of Muslim Guerilla Fighters) January-October 2006

After al-Zarqawi's assassination in 2006, The Council of Muslim Guerilla Fighters was formed to reorganize all the scattered al-Qaeda factions in Iraq. This council succeeded in merging with other Iraqi insurgent factions, which strengthened their ability to expand further and become more dangerous (Warsame, 2017, p. 10). The Council of Muslim Guerilla Fighters was an influential group aiming at unifying all factions of Al-Qaeda in Iraq. However, it demanded that all mujahideen (Muslim guerilla fighters) in Iraq follow the instructions of Al-Qaeda's leader, Ayman Al-Zawahri (Bunzel, 2015, p. 16).

2.1.4 Fourth Phase: Islamic State of Iraq (ISI) 2006-2013

In October 2006, the Council of Muslim Guerilla Fighters' ringleaders decided to re-organize their presence by establishing Islamic State of Iraq (ISI). At this time, the group avoided conducting attacks or other operations against either U.S. or Iraqi forces to focus internally on consolidating ISI fighters and developing new combat tactics and strategies (Stempien, 2015, p. 201).

The Council named Abu Hamza Al-Muhajir as ISI's new leader. In 2010, however, Al-Muhajir and another ringleader known as Abu Omar Al-Baghdadi were assassinated by Iraqi and U.S. forces working together. This was yet another successful strike against the group targeting its leaders, which left it again with no organized leadership.

Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi then became ISI's leader and took over its operations. Although he was supposed to reform ISI, his efforts were hampered by the increasing success of Iraqi forces and by Sunni Muslim opponents in Iraq's Anbar Province (American Foreign Policy Council, 2021, p. 5).

2.1.5 Fifth Phase: Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) 2013-Present

ISI remained in control over its operations in Iraq until 2013, which was a critical year for the group's evolution. Three years after Baghdadi took control, ISI successfully seized the important city in eastern Syria of Ar-Raqqah. This allowed ISI to expand its operations in the Levant. Having led around 13,200 militants while capturing the city, ISI gained more prominence and attracted more mujahedeen in Syria.

By 2014, it had between 50,000 and 80,000 militants serving under Baghdadi's banner. Finally, this was the spark that ignited the emergence of ISIL (Clancy, 2018, p. 2). Its victory in Raqqah was followed by another victory in Mosul in Iraq almost a year later, thereby establishing strongholds in both Iraq and Syria. It was able to add billions of dollars to its budget from taxes imposed on local people, sales of oil and antiquities, looting and extortion, and several foreign donations (Heißner, & Basra, 2017, p. 5). In short, within two years, IS became one of the world's most dominant Jihadist extremist organizations, thanks to its ability to capture important cities in Iraq and Syria, and its diverse financial portfolio based on seized oil, antiquities, and donations.

2.2 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AL-QAEDA AND IS

In 2013, IS gained full leadership autonomy from Al-Qaeda to become a separate organization that can be compared to Al-Qaeda (Sweet, 2020, p. 4). At first glance, both groups might appear similar or even identical to the common reader. However, there are five major differences between them. First, IS focused on learning from Al-Qaeda's mistakes by portraying itself as a representative of all local Sunni communities without excluding any collaborators or former Baathist affiliates (Karakoç, 2014, p. 599). Second, IS differs from Al-Qaeda as an organized group in the sense that IS can direct and prepare its own cells, thanks to the establishment of well-coordinated networks of fighters. These can then execute their planned tasks with minimal risk as opposed to Al-Qaeda, which asks its fighters to communicate frequently, which makes them more easily catchable (Arifin, 2017, p. 148). Third, ideologically, Al-Qaeda and IS differ completely. Whereas Al-Qaeda claims to adopt a moderately based religious ideology, IS represents a more extremist jihadist movement (Hernández-Campoy, 2021, p. 101).

The key signs of these differences between the two groups include outright hostility, open competition between their troops to gain global supremacy, conflict over territorial dominance, and an overall sense of suspicion and mistrust. Fourth, this hostility may also be attributed to differences between each group's main objectives. While Al-Qaeda has focused more on waging its attacks globally, IS has focused on maintaining local supremacy through establishing an Islamic caliphate in the Middle East (Parker, 2020, p. 43). The extent of these differences is highlighted by Karakoç (2014, p. 600), who explains that Al-Qaeda criticized IS for dividing Muslims due to its detrimental ideological stance. However, IS has avoided any form of ideological debate or conflict with Al-Qaeda. Instead, it shifted its focus towards gaining more dominance over nearby territories. Thus, the fifth difference between the two groups is that IS seems to favor a more systematic approach towards achieving its political objectives by controlling oil fields and extorting charities and individuals in the region. In contrast, Al-Qaeda's leaders focus more on suicide attacks against both local and international opponents. To summarize, IS initially launched its operations under the banner of Al-Qaeda and was once named AQI. However, the ideological gap and differences between the two groups' objectives encouraged IS to break free from this coalition and establish its own entity. Al-Qaeda often accuses IS of directing its attacks on Muslims in the

region instead of waging war against what it calls “infidels” around the world. IS, however, seeks to create a full-fledged local state and expand its territorial reign by attracting Muslims into its newly constructed caliphate.

2.3 IS'S IDEOLOGICAL STANCE

To understand IS’s ideological stance, it is important to clarify its basis, specifically the ideas and teachings of Salafism. According to Moreno (2017, p. 34), Salafism is a theological movement in Sunni Islam that focuses on the abolition of all forms of defilement that alter what Islam stood for during the time of the Prophet Muhammad and his righteous companions. In other words, Salafism attempts to return to Islam’s initial era and abandon all modern facets of life that changed how Islam was originally developed.

Salafism encourages IS to formulate an extreme understanding of Islam. For example, IS ideology is based on the idea that anything that does not abide by their conception of Islam should be considered “non-Muslim” and hence “polytheistic” or “shirk” (Pandey & Bansal, 2016, p. 4). Apart from IS, several movements have attempted to embody Salafist ideology by transforming it into a state system.

One prominent Salafist movement is Wahhabism, named after its founder, Muhammad Ibn Abd Al-Wahhab. He was a Muslim scholar who lived in the Arabian Peninsula during the 18th century. He successfully re-established a conservative Muslim state after forging an alliance with the founder of the first Saudi state, Muhammed Ibn Saud (Darwich, 2016, p. 37). Both Salafism and Wahhabism share the same theological structure, which totally rejects all liberal and Westernized teachings, making them radical manifestations of Islam. Salafism paved the way for the formulation of political Islam, which has changed the political structure of several states in the Middle East, which were previously secularist (Perper, 2021, p. 10).

Büyükkara (2015, p. 13) suggests that it is most logical to explain the essence of Wahhabism by considering Salafism, this is because Wahhabists, whether historically or currently, have always identified themselves as pure Salafists, whose only ideological references are the Quran - the word of Allah - and the Hadith - the words of Muhammad. Therefore, according to Büyükkara, Wahhabism and Salafism are inseparable, so Wahhabism cannot be explained without explaining Salafism. In the middle of the 1960s Salafism began to grow and gain

more followers who adopted it as their main ideology, more movements started to appear, such as Al-Salafiyya Harakiya (Active Salafism). This movement is built on the teachings of extreme scholars, such as Said Qutb, who defines Salafism in terms of several specific facets, including hakimiyya and takfir (Taylor, 2013, as cited in Arafat, 2017, p. 107). These can be outlined as follows:

Hakimiyah refers to God's sovereignty. Judging in accordance with the word of Allah is a very significant aspect of extremism in that all laws are derived from the Quran and Sunnah. Human beings are not allowed to create their own judicial system that represents the state. According to Hakimiyah, anyone who appeals to a manmade judicial system is an infidel, and those infidels must be excluded from the so-called Muslim state, which abides by the word of Allah as the only supreme judicial authority (Syauqillah & Al Faton, 2019, p. 11). As Akman and Çakirtaş (2021, p. 137) note, Salafism relies on the Quran and Hadith as the only sources for making judgments on any matter. Hence, for Salafists, it is essential to abide by the word of Allah and Muhammad to reach a consensus about all subjects.

The second key aspect of extremist Salafism adopted by IS is takfir, meaning infidel or non-believer and the denunciation of non-Muslims. Accordingly, IS denounces anyone who opposes its ideology by calling them kuffar, infidels. Under this ideological approach, there are only two types of people: true Muslims, who follow Islam's teachings and adopt its ideology; and infidels, who follow other forms of Islam or believe in different religions (Ozeren, Hekim, Elmas & Canbegi, 2016, p. 25).

The third critical concept is jihad, meaning holy struggle. By fighting non-Muslims, infidels, and disobedient Muslims through waves of near-enemy and far-enemy jihad, Salafism can be disseminated and gain more followers. Near-enemy jihad focuses on fighting infidels and disobedient Muslims residing in the Middle East specifically and the Muslim world in general; far-enemy jihad focuses on fighting non-Muslims and Westerners around the world (Hama, 2021, p. 47). Thus, Salafism is an Islamic ideology that calls for the establishment of a state run in accordance with the fundamental understanding of Islam at the time of the Prophet Muhammad and the Four Righteous Caliphs (Chitadze, 2013, p. 8). The core of IS's ideological stance is derived from this idea, as seen by its leader's wish to establish a worldwide Islamic kingdom by introducing a version of Islam that pertains to more primitive times before Islam had spread internationally to all people. IS's leader also believes that

Islam's identity was corrupted by later caliphates and states, such as the Ottoman Empire, which failed to adhere to Islam's primary teachings (Bozorgmehri, 2018, p. 1).

It would be a mistake, however, to consider IS's ideology as a replica of Al-Qaeda's, given that both reject western views, refuse to separate religion from the state, and make all political decisions in accordance with Sharia law. A key difference is that IS beliefs excessively rely on takfir: namely, denouncing Muslims as non-Muslims for committing specific behaviors. Indeed, to establish a caliphate, IS's officials excommunicated fellow Muslim brothers and several other Muslim groups, which Al-Qaeda does not necessarily follow. Eventually, such fundamental differences led Al-Qaeda to denounce IS and cut ties with its leaders completely (Jasko, Kruganski, Bin Hassan & Gunaratna, 2018, p. 12-13).

Another crucial part of IS's ideological stance is anti-Semitism, as it considers Jews a valid target for their movement. Consequently, IS's ideology encourages its followers to direct attacks towards non-Muslims in general and Jewish people in particular, based on the assumption that Jews are conspiring with most Western countries against Muslims. Therefore, according to IS, all Jews must be eradicated (Rickenbacher, 2019, p. 1). This sense of anti-Semitism was further consolidated when an IS affiliate announced in October 2015 that Jews would soon be eliminated from Jerusalem, and that the state of Israel would also cease to exist. IS's beliefs fuel its efforts to eradicate Israel and then all other Jews in the world (Bartal, 2017, p. 165).

As outlined above, IS's ideology also rests on jihad. While jihad in Islam can be both defensive and offensive, IS considers the latter form the only viable method to expand its caliphate and persuade more people to convert to Islam. Armed jihad is the basis of IS's ideological stance, which helps its leaders justify IS attacks and other operations in pursuit of regional dominance (Bin Ali, 2016, p. 2).

As Bisgin, Arslan, and Korkmaz, (2019, p. 10) point out, IS's ideology relies on constant declarations of war and chaos while using Islam as a political tool. IS, they argue, draws on four key techniques: selecting the hadiths (words of the Prophet Muhammad) and interpreting them according to their whims to justify IS practices, and invoking the concept of armed jihad to prevent opponents from weakening IS expansion.

Slavery has a significant place in IS's ideology, which its leaders use to legitimize their argument by going back to the earlier periods experienced by Islam. IS leaders believe that their ideas about slavery are well-justified because it was common during the time of the Prophet Muhammad and in all previous Islamic caliphates, the successor of the Prophet Muhammad, which makes slavery a significant aspect of Sharia law. Thus, slavery is a significant facet of IS's ideological stance because its leaders believe that for them to re-establish the "authentic" version of the Islamic caliphate, they must bring back slavery (Brown, 2018, p. 14).

Moreover, by misinterpreting the Quran and Hadith, IS can create teachings that help authenticate their ideology to justify all their actions. This assumes that all IS followers must accept and adopt their interpretation of Islam as flawless (Tsongas, 2018, p. 24). Thus, IS's stance involves the creation of a new Islamic caliphate as "successor of the prophet Muhammad," which can bring people closer to what Islam used to look like during the times of the Prophet Muhammad himself and the Sahaba, those followers of Muhammad who had personal contact with him. Indeed, according to Bouzarinejad, Zarpeyma, Jahanshahi, and Marandi (2018, p. 648), the word "Salafism" is derived from the word "Salaf-Al-Salih," meaning righteous ancestors, including all Sahaba and their companions. That is, those who exemplify the manner through which Islam should be taught and adopted during modern times. From this discussion it can be concluded that IS's ideological stance revolves around several principles, including strict adherence to the supposedly authentic and ancient teachings of Salafism and Wahhabism, the selection of Hadith, and Quranic verses that justify actions and operations against all groups, or countries that oppose IS's ideology. IS's ideology has always called for re-establishing the former Islamic Caliphate by first fighting opposing Arab countries and then all Western and Jewish countries, before taking controlling of all its territory.

In accordance with its ideological stance, IS has three main objectives that reflect the practical scope of its ideology. It might seem that IS's main goal is to eliminate infidels wherever they may be, whether locally, regionally, or internationally, but in fact they also want to achieve another goal, world domination. So, IS uses extreme violence as its main method to achieve those goals (Oktav, Dal & Kurşun, 2019, p. 5-6).

As Leszek (2022, p. 71) argues, IS aims to eliminate any group of people who do not seem to adhere to its ideological position, as well as other non-Muslim groups and countries. According to IS's leaders, all those who reject its ideology must be expelled. Overall, IS's ideological stance seems to be gravitating towards excluding both non-Muslims and other Muslims in the community who do not adopt its ideology. This stance also defames other religious and cultural backgrounds, and even directly threatens the lives of these other people. This is drastically detrimental to human security in general and in the Middle East.

2.4 THE MAIN OBJECTIVES OF IS

Based on its ideological position and the use of all available and confiscated natural, monetary, and territorial resources, IS has various ambitious political, strategic, and promotional objectives.

2.4.1 Political Objectives

IS's main objective is to spread its ideological stance within the Arab and Muslim world. This objective is essential for its survival by gaining more support and recruiting more fighters. IS uses many strategies to achieve this objective, such as using online platforms and publishing propaganda magazines to communicate with as many readers and internet users as possible (El-Zouka, 2019, p. 4).

As already mentioned, IS also seeks to establish a caliphate (Akbar, 2017, p. 9-10), in which all Muslims in the Arab world would adopt IS ideology and join its army to eradicate all other jihadists and groups scattered around the Middle East who happen to have their own strategic and ideological agendas and stances. IS's goal is to unify the Muslim community into one nation under its banner and based on its ideology. In short, IS's political objectives revolve around creating a single political state system that bring all Muslims together (Vyver, 2015, p. 1312).

2.4.2 Strategic Objectives

While IS primarily aims to establish an Islamic state, it has several secondary strategic goals with a more comprehensive purpose. These include the deconstruction of other governmental systems in the Middle East and North Africa and the reconstruction of a unified Islamic nation that can expand worldwide. This would eliminate the political

structure instigated by the 1916 Sykes-Picot Agreement between the British and French by re-assigning borders between all Middle East countries, re-organizing their political structure, and learning from the previous efforts of older Islamic empires, such as the Ottoman Empire (Beer & Hariman, 2018, P. p. 2).

To achieve these objectives, IS is adopting specific military strategies to forcibly eliminate all Muslim states, starting with Iraq's government. More specifically, IS aims to cultivate the necessary conditions to accelerate the collapse of Iraq's government by breaking down its political boundaries and instigating a constant state of chaos, civil unrest, sectarian civil war, and disorder in both Iraq and across the region. IS has also established a new Islamic caliphate by systematically taking over multiple locations and areas by controlling terrain across Iraq and Syria. In these areas, it has created a government to manage the population, and a military force to defend them from external attack (Lewis, 2014, p. 1). The caliphate's prosperity is also helped by recruiting as many members as possible who can settle and become both IS soldiers and citizens.

However, these members must comply with IS's ideological stance and abide by its teachings. IS also aims to expand the caliphate's territory by gaining more support to conquer new areas. It can then turn them into emirates that follow the caliphate, so that they can be later linked with the wider Muslim community (Lewis, 2014, p. 1). IS derives its main combat strategy from the concept of guerilla warfare. That is, it commits the enemy to a long, multi-year war of attrition in which it loses substantial resources and soldiers. IS has regularly adopted this strategy throughout Iraq, especially via its military factions in provinces like Al-Anbar, Diyala, and Salah Al-Din. In addition, it adopts support tactics to enable its mujahedeen and leaders to re-group and endure a prolonged struggle. Such tactics include targeting the enemy's main military forces, including brutal executions of its captives to send a message to the rest of the army, thereby draining their morale and resources (Ashour, 2016, p. 5).

To support this combat strategy, IS applies the concept of autonomization to its troops. That is, it allows many combat units to be more self-reliant, even allowing them to become completely self-sufficient. This resilient feature enables IS to pursue and achieve tactical objectives no matter how difficult the conditions are. Consequently, IS has endured and expanded regardless of its military losses. Autonomization was highly evident in many

battles that IS fought in Iraq and Syria, such as Derna in 2016, Hajin Pocket in 2019, Mosul and Raqqa in 2017, and Homs and Al-Badiya Desert in 2020 (Ashour, 2021, p. 200). As a common theme in IS's military approach, autonomization is represented by its tendency to implement another concept, hybrid warfare. Here, IS members use information and communication technology to identify enemy areas and targets for attack, using techniques like suicide attacks that are not commonly used by organized armies (Baccaro, 2018, p. 221).

IS's generals and leaders also take advantage of environmental characteristics to resist their enemies for longer, these strategies include stationing IS mujahedeen across the contiguous terrain linking Syria and Iraq. This increases their fighting endurance, enables them to entrench effectively and reemerge after a long period of fighting. IS has also created specific groups using hit-and-run tactics and assassinations to target Sunni individuals who work closely with government forces to topple IS's reign (Hassan, 2018, p. v). IS has also instigated rural insurgencies and uprisings across the Middle East to weaken government forces in these areas and facilitate IS's plans to invade and seize them. It is also prepared for a post-caliphate situation in which it aims to hide while conducting blitzkrieg-like assassinations until re-emerging as a significant force (Hassan, 2018, p. v).

Finally, IS has increased its military power and enriched its expansion plans by appropriating resources. For example, it seized sophisticated military equipment provided by the U.S. military to Iraq's armed forces, such as armored personnel carriers, mortars, high mobility multipurpose wheeled vehicles, and other well-articulated weapons. This has given IS the opportunity to become a well-equipped army. It has also financed its expansion campaigns by seizing many resources, including oil wells in northern Iraq and in Jazira and Raqqa in Syria. This oil is then sold to smugglers and black-market in various countries, generating over \$4 million during the IS's control of the cities of Raqqa and Mosul. In 2014, IS also robbed Iraq's Central Bank of Mosul, seizing over \$425 million (Phillips, 2014, p. 352).

2.4.3 Promotional Objectives

IS's leaders try to confirm the overall image that most outsiders have of it by promoting its own propaganda. This portrays IS as a group that seeks to creating a new balance between the Muslim world and the Western/non-Muslim world, by granting the former more power than the latter. As part of this image, which makes IS appear to Muslims as their savior, it

constantly publishes online magazines to promote this image, and represent the global socio-political and economic context as a zero-sum conflict between Muslims and non-Muslims (Kaczkowski, 2019, p. 30). This is a significant objective that IS attempts to accomplish, whereby it tries to impose its dominance over the Muslim world by announcing itself as the only viable leader of this world. To highlight the benefits that IS has generated as part of promoting its productive image within the global community, IS has tried to re-construct the cities and other areas it has seized. For example, it has cultivated gardens, planted flowers, fixed damaged roads, cleaned local establishments and institutions, to serve the public (Weiss & Hassan, 2015, p. 213).

IS's favorite technique for disseminating its ideas and values across both the Middle East and North Africa and worldwide is social media and other similar online platforms. IS's propaganda tactics include media campaigns that target specific audiences to carry out specific sets of tasks. For example, its social media campaigns call on Muslim women to participate in establishing the new caliphate by attracting other women to join the group and play a significant role as wives of IS's members and mothers of a new generation of mujahedeen (Perešin, 2015, p. 32-33).

IS uses an intriguing propaganda technique, known as the OODA (Observe, Orient, Decide, and Act) loop process, as outlined below: First is Observe: during this phase, IS's digital jihadists select the most effective social media platforms to post information about the group as possible, such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and WhatsApp. They also monitor how the administrators of these platforms take down IS posts and immediately search for alternatives to posting. Second is Orient: During this phase, IS uses the new social media platforms while trying to maintain them as viable and constant promotional websites and social media services. This is done through a decentralized network of mujahedeen, who use these digital platforms and prepare them for the next phases while making sure that they will never lose them in the future. Third is Decide: Having identified the most effective social media platforms, IS selects those online platforms that (a) enables IS to maintain its promotional operations online without being taken down and (b) allows IS to quickly reach as many potential recruits as possible. The fourth is Act: In this phase, IS's digital jihadists take orders to post different types of content that give access to all information about IS in terms of its ideological stance, the benefits of joining, and the recruitment process (Shehabat

& Mitew, 2017, p. 89-91). As already mentioned, another propaganda tactic is publishing online magazines that allow all users to receive the latest news.

2.5 FACTORS LEADING TO IS'S GROWTH WITHIN THE MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA REGION

As noted previously, IS did not emerge overnight but underwent many transformations. Its origins as an independent struggle group are supposedly the U.S. invasion of Iraq in 2003 (Kalina, 2012, p. 24). Karakoç (2014, p. 598) elaborates on this factor by arguing that the U.S. invasion had a series of repercussions after the regime of Saddam Hussein, the former president of Iraq, was toppled. Iraq entered a phase of political chaos, which encouraged Iraqi Kurds to declare their own governorate in the north, named the Kurdistan Regional Government, while Jalal Talabani, a Kurd, became the new president accompanied by a Shiite prime minister. These developments provoked Iraq's Sunni community to wage armed attacks targeting Shiite and Kurdish personalities, they were determined to push all U.S. forces out of Iraq by declaring jihad and launching an anti-U.S. movement. This later became the more organized group known as AQI (Kalina, 2012, p. 24).

According to Karakoç (2014, p. 598), IS also benefitted from this political instability, turmoil, and conflict between the Sunni and Shiite/Kurdish communities by conducting a series of brutal attacks, including beheadings and mass killings. This promoted its image politically while attracting jihadists and Iraqi insurgents to join it. Another factor underlying IS's growth in the region was Al-Qaeda. To better resist the U.S. invasion, Al-Qaeda allowed IS to become one of its factions as its active affiliate in Iraq. This was evident when IS took the new title of AQI. This move was important in giving IS a more revered status than other insurgent groups and boosted its plans to expand in the region (Voynov, 2019, p. 2-3).

Several other factors also allowed IS form a more powerful militia in Iraq and allow other insurgent groups roam freely. These were ill-defined and poorly planned U.S. strategies to reinstall political stability in Iraq, its complete dismantlement of Saddam Hussein's regime, and its utter failure to establish a democratic regime (Bonsangue, 2016, p. 4). Finally, general chaos and political instability due to failing governments across the Middle East allowed IS to expand to become the region's dominant militant group (Gunaratna, 2016, p. 134).

Once IS had risen to power, it gained more authority and dominance over Syria and Iraq due to the international community's floundering response. No decision was made to launch any effective military interventions. Instead, there were only minimal activities, such as airstrikes, the placement of Kurdish and Turkish forces along Syria and Iraq's northern borders to prevent IS from expanding, and fighting between Syrian rebel fighters, the Syrian regime, and IS (Frith, 2015, p. 18). Regarding the situation in Syria, Karakoç (2014, p. 601) explains how the U.S. and its allies did not consider the necessity of organizing this the support it provided by distinguishing between different rebel groups in Syria. This failure to support Syrian rebels efficiently was another factor enabling IS to expand its territory and regional power.

Consequently, the overall political environment in Iraq specifically and the Middle East generally enabled IS to establish a de facto state. The lack of official governance and leadership in both Iraq and Syria was more than enough to enable IS to develop its own governmental structure by first seizing new cities and territories and then ruling their residents. This political environment was the outcome of Syria's civil war, which erupted in 2011, and the U.S. invasion of Iraq in 2003. This left the country in utter chaos, which in turn gave several jihadist groups, including IS, the opportunity to take control and establish their own states (Özpek & Yağış, 2018, p. 7).

Moreover, the security vacuum in Iraq during 2014 significantly helped IS to expand in the country. This vacuum came into being when Iraq's then prime minister, Nouri Al-Maliki, withdrew all of Iraq's armed forces from important cities after a widespread anti-Sunni campaign spurred by his pro-Shiite approaches and governmental practices. These had provoked Iraq's Sunnis to launch rebellions near Ramadi and in Al-Anbar province in general. The resulting chaos and unrest forced Maliki to withdraw his forces, leaving major cities and other areas in Iraq without proper security, thereby enabling IS to take control over some of these cities (Celso, 2015, p. 5). Other factor was the tendency to delegitimize Arab governments and build a new Islamic state using a strategically expansion method between different Muslim states and territories. This allowed IS to gain support and control over these areas by legitimizing its actions under the banner of its newly established de facto governments (Välimäki, 2022, p. 85).

Another factor that IS has used in its failure is globalization it has used various platforms to promote the group's activities and practices worldwide to grow and attract more fighters, jihadists, and like-minded individuals who have adopted the same ideological structure that IS follows (Botakarayev, Tolegenov, & Yusuf, 2021, p. 122).

IS's growth is also closely related to its economic stronghold, with oil as its main source of income. Oil revenues have financed its operations, including its recruitment and marketing campaigns. Furthermore, IS does not move into new territories haphazardly; rather, it always creates a strategic expansion path by pinpointing areas rich in oil and other natural resources that it can extract and sell.

Thus, it first seized oil wells in Iraq and Syria, extracted the oil, and then made deals with smuggling agencies that transported it worldwide to generate a large income. IS also extorts residents and cities for ransom payments and other monetary resources, while also receiving a significant donation from supporters who have benefitted from its expansion in the Middle East and North Africa region over a longer period (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 2022).

Another factor that contributed to IS's economic growth is extortion. This happens when IS uses its territory as a source of income through taxing the residents along with using newly plundered natural resources. IS is also brutal and violent towards those who oppose their rule over the territories it occupies to secure these sources of income in the long term. This helps IS grow and expand into more areas while funding its allies and factions internationally (Realuyo, 2016, p. 3).

The prevalence of IS's ideology amongst the variety of jihadists who join the group does not depend on any novel concept that IS itself formulated. Instead, IS has chosen to use the same arguments adopted by Salafists and Wahhabists. Therefore, its ideology alone cannot be the only factor that helped it grow in the Middle East region.

So, all these factors have given IS its infamous reputation as one of the fastest growing Jihadist extremist groups in the region, include its rapid and successful campaigns in Raqqa and Mosul and the substantial oil and financial resources that it seized over a short period of time. One might even claim that luck has been on IS's side since Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi took control over its operations.

The information presented in this chapter provided a basis for a comprehensive analysis of IS as the independent variable of this thesis. More specifically, the chapter explained how IS's influence stems from both its ideology and objectives to understand exactly how it has affected all seven aspects of human security as the dependent variable of the study, whether directly or indirectly.

The information presented in this chapter indicates that IS's rapid growth has always been related to increasingly threatening human security. This will be considered more extensively in the following chapters. Accordingly, the next chapter provides a conceptual understanding of what human security entails by defining it both narrowly and widely. The chapter also explains how it differs from other conceptual approaches addressing the conventional concept of security.

3. ORIGINS AND EVOLUTION OF THE CONCEPT OF HUMAN SECURITY

Human security is considered an emerging concept that was first coined in the early 1990s as a paradigm that was meant to replace traditional security concepts. The concept was comprehensively described in a report by the United Nations (UN) in terms of three main components: “freedom from fear”, “freedom from want”, and “freedom to live with dignity”. Human security also addresses threats that can be academically analyzed as dimensions of the overall scope of the newly presented human security paradigm (Aldaba, 2016, p. 2). The term human security was formulated in 1994 in the United Nations Development Program’s (UNDP) report, officially called the Human Development Report. Along with many other authors, Dr. Mahbub Ul-Haq, one of the UNDP administrator’s special advisers, was involved in establishing a new concept that could be used academically as an alternative to conventional security approaches from the Cold War era (Lucinescu, 2021, p. 32). The new concept has been further refined and articulated in many different reports, such as the 2003 Commission on Human Security Report, and the 2012 United Nations Secretary General’s Second Report on Human Security (Estrada-Tanck, 2013, p. 151). The term human security places more emphasis on various dimensions of individuals’ security and the personal threats that they face, given that such dimensions were overlooked by conventional security concepts that followed a state-centered approach (Estrada-Tanck, 2013, p. 151). Even before the concept was officially adopted, several integral aspects around which its conceptual essence revolves had already been addressed in the policy directions of the 1987 report of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) (The United Nations, 1987, p. 16).

The report discussed the importance of providing a comprehensive sense of security that allows the world’s people to secure food and natural resource and create a more human-friendly environment that allows people to find habitable settlements, free of pollution, and responsive to disasters. During the last decade of the 20th century, the UN heavily emphasized human development, particularly through its Human Development Report (1990, p. vii), which was created by the (UNDP). The report analyzed how the world’s citizens had been able to develop their economic and social communities since 1960 and stressed the importance of expanding human capabilities. It also provided several strategies

aiming at human development, such as policy measures for priority objectives and adjusting countries, setting global targets for human development, and other national plans for financing human development. Once again, people were a top UN priority.

In 1992, the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) (1992, p. 28) was held as a prominent Earth Summit. This further stressed the importance of providing food security and allowing every human being access to basic shelter, essential infrastructural services, education, a sense of belonging to a family in the community, employment, and healthcare. The conference provided the basis for conceptualizing human security and called for the development of an action framework that enables all individuals worldwide to cultivate a healthy lifestyle and a secure family/communal environment.

In 1994, the new concept of human security emerged. The UN released its next Human Development Report (1994, p. iii), which stated that all governments and humanitarian organizations should adopt a more people-centered security approach. This should prioritize human safety and development, instead of the state's national security as a sovereign entity given that individuals are the cornerstone of any state, and their safety reflects the safety of the whole country. The report also articulated seven specific dimensions of human security: food, economic, personal, political, environmental, community, and health security (1994, p. 24). At the UN's next World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in 2002 (2002, p. 1), human security was addressed in terms of its environmental, food, community, and economic aspects. The conference aimed at creating better well-being and livelihoods for the world's children by empowering them to create their future by protecting them against security threats, such as poverty, environmental degradation, and other patterns of unsustainable development. A fruitful collaboration between the University of Oxford and the UN (2010, p. 1) led to the initiation of the Multidimensional Poverty Index in 2010. This index helps to analyze poverty rates, strength of educational and economic status, and the existence of well-maintained and advanced healthcare systems. This enables identification of the levels of vulnerability that citizens show in different countries around the world, especially those who are deprived of their basic needs, so that policymakers can implement protective measures to restore their human security.

Food, health, and environmental security were strongly emphasized at the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (UNCSD) in 2012 (2012, p. 7) through its initiative

to maintain long-term human security. Both these aspects were incorporated into the UN General Assembly's discussions about Human Security, which acknowledged planetary threats, such as overpopulation, pandemics and epidemics, malnutrition and undernourished children, and other health-related challenges. Such threats prompted the UN to collaborate with all governments to help achieve sustainable development and eradicate poverty, hunger, and preventable diseases.

Human security was extensively emphasized in the Post-2015 Development Agenda (2015, p. 14), whereby the UN held all governments accountable for implementing social inclusion strategies and responding to human security challenges on all levels, especially in areas where natural resources are scarce and healthcare systems are not advanced enough to serve the citizens. The agenda recommended an integrated multi-level and multi-stakeholder approach to promote transformative agendas at the local level. It also addressed governments as the sole providers of their people and called for open-ended collaboration with their international partners and organizations to reach a level of transparency and accountability that would allow them to deal with all human security threats. The UN continued its efforts to improve humankind's future by releasing its agenda targeting 2030 as the year when, hopefully, all governments would adopt the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2019, p. 5). This was released as a plan requiring collaboration at both local and international levels, while strengthening universal peace and ties worldwide, by establishing democratic systems in all countries, facing ecological threats, and eradicating poverty.

The agenda made people the priority and included plans to end world hunger and extreme poverty in all forms, to ensure that all human beings can fulfill their potential, satisfy their basic needs, and live in a healthy environment, safe from discrimination and prejudice. Human security has thus evolved conceptually to become an argument, in the sense that major international humanitarian organizations, such as the UN, use its multifaceted characteristics to present new plans for the future of humanity. The concept can also help analyze the predictable threats that threaten our survival as a species. These include health hazards like pandemics and epidemics, world hunger, and poverty, and environmental threats that put the planet at risk of losing its natural resources, thereby decreasing humanity's chances to survive and achieve high levels of human security in the world's different communities.

3.1 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HUMAN SECURITY AND CONVENTIONAL SECURITY

As discussed above, human security was introduced as a new concept to replace conventional security approaches, which were directed more toward the state than people. Accordingly, the differences between human and conventional security can be thoroughly explained by considering each concept's definition, scope, actors, and methods of implementation.

3.1.1 Definition

Conventional security approaches refer to a state's militaristic capacity that allows it to withstand specific external threats to national security, primarily its borders. In that case, the state strengthens its defense forces to deter such threats (Varkkey, 2016, p. 42). Furthermore, conventional security approaches refer to the state's ability to maintain territorial dominance and integrity without being harassed by any external force that poses a threat to its sovereignty. This understanding of conventional security highlights military aggression as the most prominent form of threat that prompts the state to improve its security policies (Iqbal, 2015, p. 96). In contrast, human security refers to the sense of protection that allows individuals in the community of a country to prosper and provides them with enough freedom and human rights to lead a stable life, free from harm, health hazards, and economic crises (Gathumbi, 2018, p. 35).

Human security also refers more to individuals' levels of social and economic development. Hence, it is more often considered to be soft security. This involves constituting foreign policies aiming to provide security for every person on a developmental level. In contrast, traditional security concepts are referred to as hard security, focusing on military power and securing the state's national security (Potter, 2015, p. 45).

To sum up, as Adams (2014, p. 58-59) argues, conventional security is an approach through which the state's sovereignty and territory are safe from external military attacks. Human security is defined as a human-centered approach that emphasizes the importance of securing individuals' social and economic well-being.

3.1.2 Scope

Regarding the scope of conventional security approaches, they are formulated to analyze all aspects of regional conflict and the causes of cross-border military-related issues. They also emphasize the possibility of being threatened by another country's strategic approach to become military superior, which poses a probable threat to the national security of other nations (Krahl, 2017, p. 6-7). Therefore, it is not unusual for the conventional security discourse to revolve around subjects that pertain to peace and war discussions. This reflects the essence of the scope of conventional approaches, given that conventional security discourse is state centered (Khashimwo, 2020, p. 1516). However, the scope of human security shifts the discourse from being state-centered to people-centered because humans face an array of threats, such as hunger, poverty, and natural disasters. Thus, human security was introduced in response to the alarming increase of victims of war, civil conflict, and environmental catastrophes (Thakuri, 2018, p. 2).

In conclusion, the human security concept has extended the scope of its conventional security equivalent by allowing policymakers to compose sets of criteria and regulations that focus on both state-centered threats and the sense of security that pertains to individuals themselves (Singh, 2019, p. 60).

3.1.3 Actors

According to the conventional security approach, the government is the sole provider of security. It uses the military, police, and intelligence agencies to impose order and create internal stability by protecting the country's borders and the government's political power from any internal or external threat (Wibisono, 2017, as cited in Greenwood & Weaver, 2013, p. 41). The human security approach, on the other hand, is implemented through the cooperative efforts of each country's civil society, which is responsible for encouraging states adopt policies that facilitate the implementation of human rights, and to pay more attention to their citizen's well-being than to military power (Attiq Ur-Rehman, 2013, p. 73). Thus, conventional security approaches are implemented by the state/government using defensive measures to ensure national security, whereas human security measures are implemented by various non-governmental bodies, including non-profit organizations,

international and regional human rights agencies, and local civil communities (Share, 2021, as cited in Tadjbakhsh, 2007).

3.1.4 Means

In the conventional security approach, the only tools that can protect a country's sovereignty and borders are the state's armaments, which can be used for military and police-related purposes (Attinà, 2016, p. 175).

In contrast, the human security approach uses a plethora of means and strategies as it does not involve the use of armed force. For example, achieving human security requires development plans and initiatives to end poverty (Fukuda-Parr & Messineo, 2012, p. 4). Another tool for consolidating human security is establishing a socially responsible community that allows all individuals in society to enjoy their human rights (Amedi, 2012, p. 15). In conclusion, conventional security resorts to using offensive means, such as weapons and other hard power-related tools. For implementing human security initiatives, however, this strategy is usually avoided. This is because the means differ drastically between hard power and soft power, with the latter based on long-term preventive and cooperative measures that involve different civil agents (Ağır, 2015, p. 370).

Human security is more attentive to citizens' well-being. It involves civil-based initiatives that establish long-term social stability. In contrast, conventional security approaches address the nation without emphasizing the well-being of everyone, although that gives human security a better chance of solving human problems at different social and economic levels because state-centered conventional security approaches tend to focus on protecting the state's military forces against external threats (Suresh, 2012, p. 190).

To conclude, there are clear differences between human security and conventional security; the former targets individuals through humanitarian initiatives and plans spearheaded by non-governmental organizations and civil society agencies. These address the threats facing each person in society, such as genocide, conflict, and a lack of food, water, medications, and other resources. While conventional security approaches focus only on protecting the state as a territory on the map, using the state's military and other defensive and offensive measures to maintain the regional balance of power (Howe, 2013, p. 91). These differences between human security and conventional security have elevated human security and

encouraged various government systems and international civil organizations to embrace human security and rely on it as a guiding principle (Syed, 2014, p. 79).

3.2 DEFINITIONS OF HUMAN SECURITY

Human security refers to the provision of state-level security, whereby governments and other state-based entities ensure their survival through various strategies. This approach was characterized by its narrow scope in terms of the true comprehensive meaning of human security. During the 1990s, therefore, it became necessary to establish a wider definition (Donoso, 2016, P. 14-15). To further elaborate on this notion, the state-centered concept of human security is considered a narrow definition, because it pertains to the manner through which international political agendas were formulated by states to protect their own security. This concept dominated the political narrative for a long time (Fukuda, 2012, P. 3).

This narrow definition of human security included the extent to which each state's sovereignty is protected by major political powers, who maintain a balance between themselves and other nations, regionally and globally. During the Cold War, this realist yet narrow view of human security was commonly adopted by the two global superpowers (Singh, 2014, P. 176, as cited in Kanti, 2000). In the aftermath of the Cold War, several researchers and humanitarian organizations started to shift their focus to widening the scope of the definition of human security from a state-centered to a people-centered concept (Malsawmtluanga & Zomuanthanga, 2022, P. 138). The narrow definition of human security was later found to be unable to provide a thorough understanding of the concept of security that pertains to human beings and citizens. This is because it was meant to be a top-down approach in which the priority was protecting the state's sovereignty and the security of the country's political interests (Inglehart & Norris, 2012, P. 74).

Therefore, a wider, bottom-up approach to defining human security was needed. The first official initiative to transition to this wider, all-encompassing definition was the Human Development Report (1994, p. 24). The report stressed the importance of people's efforts to create a secure economic position for themselves and their families, in addition to their safety from environmental hazards, diseases, and ecological disasters. This transition was mostly attributed to the transformation of individuals in society from being mere objects within the political equation to being essential factors in the equation around which the concept of

human security revolves. Thanks to the prevalence of the tenets of globalization that spread across the world during the 1990s, states were partially withdrawn from policymaking, whereas individuals were more emphasized as active variables within this process. This caused the definition of human security to be extended beyond the security of the military or countries to include the security of human beings themselves (Ştefanachi, 2013, P. 7).

The comprehensive definition of human security became an effective replacement for its narrow counterpart because its wide definition encompassed three main dimensions: freedom from want, freedom from fear, and freedom to live in dignity (Matlin and Mehta, 2021, p. 25610; Pathak, 2013, p. 168). So, this definition made individuals the focus of security instead of military power and states, to deter threats to individuals' human security, such as lack of food, and environmental, economic, and health security threats. Freedom from fear requires protection against all forms of violence and crimes, or any other oppressive act that might hinder the ability to live safely without being physically endangered (Naidu, 2021, p. 79). Furthermore, given that human security can be explained and analyzed through its seven aspects, freedom from fear requires community security, political security, and personal security to protect people against forms of state oppression, physical violence, and marginalization of ethnic communities (Cook, 2015, p. 68).

Freedom from fear also explains how human beings should always be protected from all aspects of physical violence, regardless of the perpetrators, including state and non-state actors who might use inhumane means to oppress or harm people. Freedom from fear is also a mediating factor that links these three aspects of human security together, community, personal, and political security, knowing that they all cater to protecting people within a given community from violence (Tavanti & Stachowicz-Stanusch, 2013, p. 7). Such forms of violence can always be mitigated by issuing human rights declarations, and including more effective articles within these declarations that aim directly at ensuring personal, political, and community security. The relationship between freedom from fear and freedom of speech may explain why the former is linked to the declaration of human rights laws governed by an efficient judicial system, whose role is to prevent the state from following an extreme authoritative path that deprives people of their basic rights (Starkey, 2012, p. 19).

This suggests that protection is the key mechanism that can be implemented to achieve freedom from fear. Protection mechanisms include organizations that protect women and

children, women's political participation, and religious leadership in certain communities (Noviryani, 2022, p. 12). Freedom from fear can also be achieved by through appropriate initiatives related to politics and community security to the tenets stated within the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (Hernandez & Shuto, 2015, p. 65).

While freedom from want refers to allowing all individuals in society to secure their economic life and boost their financial position so that they are safe from the detrimental social and economic consequences of poverty (Howe, 2013, p. 38) In addition, freedom from want also reflects the level of financial stability and economic sufficiency that people achieve by various means, including employment. The provision of jobs as sources of income for individuals in society is a developmental strategy that prevents various social issues, such as high crime rates resulting from poverty (Hossain & Abiodun, 2015, p. 31).

Freedom from destitution can be achieved by ensuring that all basic needs are met, including access to education and employment, shelter, food, and other social services (Naidu, 2021, p. 79). Furthermore, freedom from destitution includes other aspects of human security, including economic security, environmental security, and health security. The latter refers to the critical importance of healthcare. In addition, environmental sustainability ensures people's security, as individuals cannot establish safe communities if their lives are threatened by loss of financial stability or the prevalence of infectious, contagious, and/or chronic diseases (De Bruyn, 2015, p. 26).

Freedom from fear can be achieved through long-term empowerment initiatives to create a better environment for human beings, by changing climate-related laws, and establishing waste banks and disposal sites to remove hazardous substances that threaten people's environmental and health security. Individuals can also be given access to temporary social assistance services that seek to improve their financial position (Noviryani, 2022, p. 12). Freedom from want can also be attained by allowing certain international human rights instruments to be activated, such as the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (Hernandez & Shuto, 2015, p. 65). Regarding freedom to live in dignity, this pillar of the wider concept of human security refers to the moral obligations that individuals and humanitarian organizations have toward the people, to prevent violation of their human rights, increase their sense of freedom and self-esteem, and raise awareness regarding the

significance of the adoption of human rights by all individuals within society (Kamidohzono, Gómez & Mine, 2015, p. 4).

Human security strongly emphasizes and values the essence of human dignity, at both national and individual levels. Citizens' self-determination is always an important aspect within the humanitarian sphere. This further prompts governments to respect individuals' rights to make their own decisions so that their dignity is not compromised (Muto & Mine, 2019, p. 298). Moreover, freedom to live in dignity is supported by the tenets of the framework of international human rights and international humanitarian law along with other formalized sets of laws for protecting individuals' rights to live without having their dignity abused by any form of power (Anene, 2020, p. 22). Thus, freedom to live in dignity is a principle that determines how individuals' human rights are protected by emphasizing the rule of law within a given society. Hence, the rule of law is a tool for ensuring the effective implementation of human rights, including civil, economic, cultural, political, and social aspects. Individuals cannot live in dignity without being protected by human rights laws that apply to all social classes (Sevastik, 2020, p. 136).

From the above discussion, it is evident that the narrow definition of human security is not comprehensive enough for current research because it does not emphasize the importance of individual security dimensions. Rather, it only focuses on state security in terms of sovereignty, military power, and international political position. Conversely, the wide definition of human security is suitable for the current research since it aims at analyzing the human impact of IS in terms of physical, economic, environmental, political, and health levels. This wide definition identifies the seven aspects of human security as stated within the 1994 United Nations Development Report, given that it includes three main dimensions underneath which those seven aspects are classified. The first dimension, freedom of destitution, corresponds to food, health, economic, and environmental security. The second dimension, freedom from fear, corresponds to physical and community security. The third dimension, freedom to live in dignity, pertains to political security and human rights law.

This study is comprehensive in that it analyzes various aspects of human security affected by IS. These are the threats that endanger people's food, health, economic, and environmental security. In addition, considers physical and community security, whereby existential threats further jeopardize their lives and future cultural presence. The research

also addresses the threats that prevent people from expressing and practicing their human rights freely within society.

These research facets cannot be analyzed using the narrow definition of human security, which only focuses on state security due to its limited conceptual scope. Consequently, the current study will adopt a wide definition of human security. Its comprehensive conceptual properties cover the three main security dimensions, which in turn correspond to the human security aspects through which the current research analyzes the impact of IS on human security in detail.

3.3 HUMAN SECURITY FRAMEWORK

In 1994, the United Nations Development Report (UNDP) conceptualized the term human security by expanding its theoretical structure through the specification of its scope. Instead of dealing with the concept from a one-dimensional standpoint, the report created a framework within which human security can be analyzed in detail from more than one aspect. These aspects were the seven dimensions of human security: food security, health security, economic security, personal security, political security, environmental security, and community security. Each dimension can be analyzed separately to understand how human security is influenced by or affects a given phenomenon or case.

3.3.1 Food Security

This dimension of human security refers to the level of security of access to food and other nutrients that can be consumed in sufficient quantities to ensure people's long-term survival, as one of the most basic needs for any human being. Food security can be measured using several indicators, such as nutritional status, consumption expenditure, and strategies implemented to cope with harsh conditions where food might be scarce (Mohamed, 2017, p. 87). Along with enough food resources in terms of both quantity and quality, food security also refers to access to secure purchasing options by making food items easily available and accessible in stores for all people. The government in this case can take responsibility for organizing the setting which food is grown, packaged, and sold to the public to ensure equal distribution amongst the country's citizens (Putranto, 2013, p. 90). Several socioeconomic and health-related issues can be overcome by securing access for everyone to high-quality

food resources, given that malnutrition is a problem that can be caused by food insecurity in different communities around the world (Pradeepkiran, 2019, p. 903).

3.3.2 Community Security

Community security refers to the absence of long-term multinational or multiregional conflicts between society's communal denominations. It includes protections for public and/or indigenous heritage, ethnic norms, cultural traditions, language, values, and religions against all sorts of discrimination, armed conflict, and prejudice (Le Fevre, 2016, p. 9). Community security also concerns the need for citizens to have a sense of belonging to a communal group without being discriminated against and while being protected against crime and conflict (Canfield, 2020, p. vi). In addition to keeping each community's cultural heritage protected against discrimination and defamation, community security also includes the exclusion of any forms of violence that threatens the people's safety. Certain protective measures can be taken to establish a secure community, such as keeping prisoners under strict surveillance, scanning districts for drug addicts and outlaws, and installing electronic monitoring devices in different areas around the community (Luo, Shu, Zhao, Qi & Huang, 2022, p. 9).

3.3.3 Economic Security

Economic security refers to the level of security that a specific country reaches by producing enough goods to gain competitive advantages in foreign markets, while its citizens also enjoy a stable life that meets all of their basic needs. Economic security pertains to dynamic rates of economic growth generated by favorable internal and external conditions (Eyvazova, 2020, p. 147). Indicators for analyzing economic security include individual per-capita income, local economic status, regional economic status, and the country's gross domestic product on an international level. Each indicator can also be used to facilitate the implementation of economic policies and regulations to improve economic security (Tsonkov, 2021, p. 101). For economic security to become established in a sustained manner locally and internationally, certain factors are required as sources of adequate income that allow people to easily meet their basic needs. Perhaps one of the most significant factors is employment, which is a remedy for social issues that can lead to several major complications, as poverty. Given that unemployment rates as associated with the overall

economic status of a given country, developing countries can be considered less economically secure due to high unemployment within their communities (Lokesha, 2017, p. 140).

3.3.4 Environmental Security

Environmental security, which is probably the best example of non-conventional security approaches, emphasizes the integral role of the environment in maintaining a safe and well-protected life for all human beings. Environmental security refers to eliminating ecological hazards that prevent individuals in society from establishing sustainable communities (Grumbine, 2017, p. 1).

This concept has prompted countries to pay more attention to the relationship between safe environments and safe citizens. In the 20th and 21st century, for instance, the United States of America and the European Union have been discussing the dangers of environmental disasters, including climate change, that should be dealt with using preventive strategies that must be implemented in a cooperative manner (Kantemnidis, 2021, p. 90).

Environmental security is also considered an integral aspect of human security, based on the notion that a fruitful and well-sustained environment allows citizens to establish their communal structure. Conversely, once environmental problems caused by insufficient natural resources appear, citizens lose their ability to live and communicate safely, which endangers their survival and overall security. Environmental security can be analyzed in terms of various indicators, such as environmental degradation, natural resources, and wildlife pollution (Raković & Stojanović, 2015, p. 375).

3.3.5 Health Security

Health security refers to the human ability to stay healthy, which can always be related to food security and economic security. This is because fragile states, where citizens feel less secure than in other safe states, are often characterized by a lack of administration over health and food security measures. This in turn affects the country's environmental and economic status (Quinn, Zeleny & Bencko, 2014, p. 1839).

Therefore, health security pertains to all measures taken to protect a country's citizens against diseases and other hazardous threats to their well-being and overall health. Its scope can be further expanded by including all nations under one regulative system, which leads

to the establishment of the new term universal health security. This extensive term addresses several hazardous diseases that affect the whole world and provides a framework for preventing health threats from spreading, in addition to developing preventive strategies to make people less vulnerable to such diseases and threats (International Working Group on Financing Preparedness, 2021, p. 14).

According to Heymann (2015, p. 1885), health security not only applies to infectious diseases but also covers non-communicable and chronic diseases, which can be as detrimental to people's health as their infectious counterparts. Epidemics are another international major issue that threatens people's health security. This is where universal health security strategies can come into play, ensuring that everyone can access medication, insurance, and treatment coverage.

Finally, the Nuclear Threat Initiative (2021, p. 12-13) has highlighted six major assessment categories of global health security, namely preventive measures, detection measures, response to health threats, health systems, national and international treatment norms, and risk environment.

3.3.6 Personal Security

Personal security involves ensuring that all people are safe from physical harm and human rights violations caused by internal or external threats. It encompasses the following indicators: torture, physical abuse, domestic violence, and conflicts that prevent people from living safely in their communities (Steenken, 2017, p. 210).

Accordingly, Purser (2017, p. 3) explains how personal security can be highlighted as a significant dimension of human security since it addresses all necessary conditions for individuals to thrive in their communities, free of want and fear. Personal security also covers other threats to human rights for everyone separately that everyone should practice without being oppressed or harassed.

These human rights violations can occur because of limitations within the state or from external sources. Both internal and external threats should always be addressed to ensure citizens' security against physical harm and oppression (Bin Alias, 2020, p. 8).

3.3.7 Political Security

Human security cannot be established without the attainment of political security, which helps create a conducive environment through strategic development plans and fundamental prosperity measures. Political security encompasses the means of defense against political oppression, violations of human rights declarations and policies, and militarization threats (Vhumbunu, 2019, p. 1). It is worth noting that political security and personal security can be mistakenly used interchangeably since they both pertain to human rights violations and physical violence. However, they are different in that personal security covers violence against human beings across many social settings, which do not have to be related to politics.

Political security, on the other hand, refers to protection against all forms of violence and human rights violations that only occur under politically driven circumstances, such as war, military conflict between countries, civil unrest due to revolutions and the like, and government oppression of citizens (Dung & Lan, 2015, p. 10). Moreover, political security can only be imposed by governmental systems. Thus, it reflects how human security becomes threatened when the judicial system does not implement constitutional laws that govern political security (Zia-Ur-Rehman, Nazeer & Saif ur Rehman, 2019, p. 134).

The dimensions outlined above can be used in the present study as a comprehensively formulated human security framework that highlights each dimension's set of indicators. The significance of this framework stems from the fact that it allows each dimension to be specifically analyzed in terms of a certain number of indicators. These make it easier to measure the impact of IS on human security. The information gathered from the literature extends the scope of the thesis, given that IS has impacted all seven dimensions of human security. Accordingly, Chapter III will be dedicated to analyzing the impact of IS on human security by evaluating its impact on each dimension in terms of its indicators, using an array of references from the literature.

4. IS'S IMPACT ON HUMAN SECURITY

This section uses various indicators to examine the size of IS's impact on human security for each of the seven aspects of human security, there are different sources that provide various indicators to measure human insecurities. The UNDP report (1994) lists measures for seven aspects: economic insecurity by basic income, employment, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita, social safety nets, unemployment rates, and generalized poverty index; food insecurity by food production and availability, and access to food; health insecurity by disease rates, access to healthcare services, and infant mortality; environmental insecurity by air, water, and land pollution, natural disasters, and environmental degradation; personal insecurity by physical violence, abuse, rape, crime, societal violence, conflict homicides, and terrorism; political insecurity by democratic freedom, human freedom index, and strength of civil society; community insecurity by literacy rates, population displacement and movements, demographic stability, and ethnic and/or religious discrimination.

Similarly, the United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security (2016, p. 7) identifies the following causes of human insecurity: economic insecurity includes persistent poverty, lack of access to credit, unemployment, and lack of access to other economic opportunities; food insecurity includes hunger, sudden rises in food prices, and famine; health insecurity includes epidemics, poor sanitation, malnutrition, and lack of access to basic healthcare services; environmental insecurity includes environmental degradation, natural disasters, and resource depletion; personal insecurity includes all forms of physical violence, child labour, and human trafficking; community insecurity includes inter-ethnic, identity-based, and religious tensions, crimes, and increased terrorism; political insecurity includes political repression, lack of rule of law and justice, and human rights violations. Werther (2011, p. 26) lists the following indicators of human (in)security: GDP per capita and social nets for economic insecurity; size of population affected by natural disasters, and access to water and sanitation for environmental insecurity; percentage undernourished for adults, teens, and children less than 5 years of age for food insecurity; child mortality rate, and size of population affected by pandemics for health insecurity; size of population assisted by UNHCR for personal insecurity; the political terror scale for community insecurity; the press freedom index, and CIRI combination of indicators for economic insecurity.

This study will use the following indicators for each security aspect: persistent poverty levels, unemployment, GDP per capita, BTI-social nets and income levels for economic security; famine, sudden rises in food prices, percentage of population undernourished, food production, and food availability for food security; poor sanitation, lack of access to basic health care, child mortality rate, population affected by pandemics, and disease rates for health security; environmental degradation, resource depletion, and population affected by disasters, pollution, and land use for environmental security; physical violence, human trafficking, child labor, population assisted by UNHCR, and war for personal security; inter-ethnic tensions, religious tensions, identity-based tensions, literacy rate and population movement for community security; political repression and human rights violations, lack of rule of law and justice, press freedom index, democratic freedom, and strength of civil society for political security.

4.1 PERSONAL SECURITY

According to the UNDP (1994; 2022), personal security refers to safety from all physical forms of violence, including domestic violence, child abuse, crimes, and self-inflicted violence. Accordingly, the impact of IS on personal security can be outlined according to the following four personal (in)security indicators: physical violence, human trafficking, child labor, population assisted by UNHCR.

4.1.1 Physical Violence

IS's main strategies for capturing and interrogate individuals in Syria and Iraq include kidnapping, physical abuse, and torture Those who reveal their disagreement with IS doctrine are detained in one of many prisons and detention facilities administered by IS, where they are exposed to psychological and physical torture (Almohammad, Speckhard, & Yayla, 2017, p.2). Sinjar city, east of Mosul, Iraq, is inhabited by Yazidis, an ethnic-religious minority. Even before IS's emergence, Yazidi citizens suffered numerous violations, genocidal actions, and other forms of physical abuse. The United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHRC) officially declared these practices criminal and inhumane (Hussein & Hamad, 2021, p. 9). An official report issued by the Independent International Commission of Inquiry (United Nations Human Rights office of the High Commissioner, 2022) stated that "IS committing genocide against Yazidis", and "IS's abuse of Yazidis amounts to crimes

against humanity and war crimes”. Psychological torture methods include the threat of execution, solitary confinement, forcing detainees to watch fellow prisoners being tortured, and placing severed heads inside interrogation rooms. Physical torture methods include lashings, placing detainees on a wooden panel that severely bends their back, hanging detainees up by the hands for days, binding detainees to a chair, and using clamps on their private parts for long periods (Almohammad, Speckhard, & Yayla, 2017, p. 2).

4.1.2 Human Trafficking

Several ethnic groups that were forcibly displaced by IS officials were later enslaved and used for domestic and sexual purposes. For instance, after IS took control of the Nineveh plains and Shabak and Turkmen villages, they captured many Yazidi women and trafficked them to specific IS-controlled territories (University of Minnesota, 2022). These women were then sexually abused, forced to leave their families, and bought and sold in slavery markets throughout IS-controlled territories (Human Rights Watch, 2016). IS also trafficked women from other Middle Eastern and Western countries to use as “Jihadi Brides” for its fighters. These women were secretly displaced from their home countries to serve in Iraq and Syria, where IS dominated.

This recruitment was based on their belief that they would become part of a larger cause requiring their participation. Hence, these women believed that it was an honor for them to become wives of Jihadists. These included young women from Austria and the UK, such as Shamima Begum, Sabina Selimovic, and Samra Kesinovic, who fled their countries and were trafficked into Iraq and Syria (Binetti, 2015, p. 3). IS has also used people from non-Muslim communities for its human trafficking business as an enterprise responsible for funding its activities and practices in the region, with a total disregard for human dignity. This trafficking targets Christians and Yazidis specifically and encourages IS’s leaders to remove them from their homes in Iraq and Syria using systematic brutality to push them out and eliminate any trace of their existence in the region (Raben, 2018, p. 239).

4.1.3 Child Labor

IS has used many children for military-related functions, which can be considered the worst manifestation of child labor. In Iraq and Syria, IS capitalized on the fact that many children were forced to leave school due to IS’s prevalence in their regions.

IS officials then began indoctrinating hundreds of children, whose ages ranged from 8 to 15 years old, into the teachings of its radical Islamist approach. These children, which IS officials called “Cubs of the Caliphate”, were given monetary incentives of \$100 per month and special training. IS has trained and taught around 1,100 children for various combat duties, such as becoming human shields and suicide bombers. For instance, a 12-year-old IS affiliate was responsible for blowing himself up at a Kurdish wedding in Turkey in 2016, killing about 53 people (Middle East Institute, 2020).

4.1.4 Population Assisted by UNHCR.

Due to IS’s impact in Iraq, 4.1 million people currently need humanitarian assistance out of 39.1 million Iraqi citizens, 1.8 million of which are children while the rest include 2.1 million adults and 200,000 elderly people. About 400,000 people need camp coordination and management services, 1.3 million people need education services, 3.4 million people need emergency livelihoods services, 700,000 people need food resources, 2.4 million people need healthcare services, 2.4 million people need protection services, 2.6 million people need shelters, and 2.6 million people need water, sanitation (UNOCHA, 2021, p. 12).

The situation in Syria is no different, with an estimated 13.4 million people in need, including 13.1 million individuals needing protection, of whom 6 million are children, 6.6 million are adults, and 600,000 are elderly people. Of these, 1.9 million need camp coordination and management services, 6.9 million need education, 14.2 million, including 6.4 million children, need food resources, and 12.4 million, including 5.6 million children, need healthcare services (UNOCHA, 2021, p. 55). A Human Rights Council report (2016, p. 31-32) describes in detail IS’s human rights violations and war crimes against several minorities, particularly Iraq’s Yazidi community. IS separated the men from their families and forced them to choosing between converting to Islam or being slaughtered as infidels. IS was also responsible for committing acts of physical, psychological, and sexual violence against women and children.

4.2 POLITICAL SECURITY

The UNDP reports (1994; 2022) define political security as safety from oppression that violates people's human rights and freedom of speech. IS’s impact on political security can be described in terms of the following four political (in)security indicators: political

repression and human rights violations, lack of rule of law and justice, democratic freedom, strength of civil society.

4.2.1 Political Repression and Human Rights Violations

Once IS gained a foothold in Syria, it started to target the Shiite opposition, one of region's majority Islamic sects, as it considers them a critically threatening group to its ideology due to their Shiite-based doctrine. According to Dukhan (2021, p. 3), for example, IS agreed a political pact after entering the village of Abu Hamam in Syria, where they met several notable figures from different tribes in the village. Under the pact, the village's Shiite community had to pledge their allegiance to IS. They were then forced to work in the Al-Tank oil field, seized by IS. They were also heavily oppressed as a tool to discipline Syria's Shiites by setting an example for all tribes in other villages across Syria. IS oppression not only affects outsider communities but also its own members. IS leaders grew suspicious of many fighters after losing battles and soldiers on various fronts. In response to these suspicions, IS acted with a great deal of oppression, as evident by IS leaders' threats that traitors and spies would be killed or severely punished if they were discovered (Rosiny, 2016, p. 14). IS also politically oppressed the Kurdish community, which has long suffered political alienation in Iraq and Syria. This sense of exclusion was only intensified by the arrival and prevalence of IS troops in various territories across the region. Kurdish efforts to gain political leverage against IS required physical intervention by equipping their Peshmerga troops to defend Kurdish borders and territories. However, IS attacks against the Peshmerga resulted in 1,200 dead and around 5,900 wounded men and women fighters. Furthermore, 1.6 million Kurdish refugees from Syria and Iraq moved to Kurdistan's regional capital in Kirkuk, thereby increasing pressure on the Kurdistan Regional Government's resources (Stephens, 2015, p. 233).

4.2.2 Lack of Rule of Law and Justice

IS does not seem to conform to any body of laws regarding its interactions with other nations and groups. For instance, since its inception, IS has established negative relations with all its potential regional allies. This proves that it is politically incapable of forming alliances with other groups within the region (Ibrahim & Al-Najjar, 2015, p. 46-47). Dukhan (2021, p. 1) discusses Deir Ez-Zor as an example of IS's inability to manage critical political issues

democratically. In this Syrian city, constant oppression of the Al-Shaitat tribe prompted a revolt against IS leaders. However, IS contained the revolt in 2014 (Clapperton, Jones, & Smith, 2017, p. 1220) and then massacred 1,000 of the tribe's civilians and disarmed fighters.

According to Dogan (2019, p. 123), IS uses the concept of the caliphate, a religious political system of government in Islam, as a superficial coating beneath to hide its unjust practices those it rules. IS also spreads disunity and violence, which has made the region's political setting unstable and threatening. Through its caliphate propaganda, IS has legitimized its use of injustice rule captured territories. IS has also developed politically unstable relations other countries by disrupting the international political sphere. In 2015, for example, it condemned the Turkish government for allying with non-Muslim governmental systems and states. IS then decided to wage a media propaganda campaign against Turkey on all platforms to ignite the idea of conquering Istanbul and making it part of IS's territory (Kanat, 2015, p. 89)

4.2.3 Democratic Freedom

Among other countries politically affected by IS was Tunisia. In 2015, IS declared a series of attacks four years after the Tunisia's 2011 revolution, when Tunisians had high expectations of establishing democratic government. However, these expectations soon dissipated after IS attacks that created chaos and destroyed Tunisians' hopes of constructing a democratic nation (Andersen & Brym, 2017, p. 519). IS was also able to fight Peshmerga forces, which threatened many Kurds and violated their basic human rights, including freedom of speech and freedom of practicing their own religious beliefs and rituals. While fighting the Peshmerga, IS committed various crimes against the Kurdish minority, which further increased insecurity for the Kurds (Srivastava & Hill, 2022, p. 11-12).

4.2.4 Strength of Civil Society

Civil societies have no power to influence the political approach of IS officials in their handling of opposition groups from different ethnic and religious backgrounds. This is because civil society organizations (CSO) have no role under IS since donors and international supporters are concerned that IS might confiscate their donations and funding, thereby making them indirect IS supporters. Therefore, international supporters refrain from funding (CSO) that operate in Iraq and Syria, which has curtailed their role in the region (Khalaf, 2015, p. 5).

4.3 FOOD SECURITY

The UNDP (1994; 2022) defines food security as having access to basic food and water resources, and the means to produce and provide food to the masses. IS's impact on food security can be described in terms of the following three security indicators: food price rises, percentage of the population malnourished, and food production and availability.

4.3.1 Sudden Rise in Food Prices

IS's dominance in Iraq and the associated conflict severely impacted the Ministry of Agriculture (MOA) because it spurred a fall in oil prices that reduced the ministry's budget from \$426 million to \$142 million in 2014. This deprived Iraq of a financial buffer to withstand food price shocks, leaving the entire country extremely vulnerable to rising food prices (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 2020).

4.3.2 Percentage Undernourished

The spread of IS forces in Iraq and Syria led to malnutrition issue, intensified by other health-related factors. Around 369,000 primary caregivers, including parents and particularly mothers, receive food support for their children, whose ages range from 0 to 23 months. Meanwhile, 24,300 undernourished children aged 6-59 months receive multiple micronutrient powders while around 243 children aged 0-59 months have been diagnosed with severe-acute malnutrition that requires treatment (UNICEF, 2022, p. 3). IS imprisoned many men, women, and children in detention camps (Rodriguez, 2020, p. 3-4). These camps are found across the Arab world, including Syria, Iraq, and Libya.

4.3.3 Food Production and Food Availability

IS's emergence and dominance in the region has hindered food production in Iraq and Syria, especially Iraq. This forced the government to resort to important food because IS has obstructed farming. Therefore, the food supply was unable to meet the demands of Iraqis (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 2015). The conflict caused by IS in Iraq and Syria has also hindered the state's ability to provide food resources to the public. For instance, farmers in Nineveh, Kirkuk, and Al-Anbar, which are Iraq's key grain-producing regions, lost around one million tonnes of output because farmers could neither plant nor harvest their crops. IS also confiscated a large part of the government's grain reserve, which

it sent to Syria or sold on the market at a low price. Even when some farmers were able to plant certain crops, they could not harvest them due to a lack of tools and machinery, which IS had also confiscated (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 2015).

Food consumption was also affected negatively in Syria between 2012 and 2019 due to the civil war, which turned the country into an area of conflict, and other attacks by several groups, including IS. The food shortages in many areas of Syria were the inevitable result of the loss of major farming areas (Li et al., 2022, p. 43).

IS has used various military tactics, such as weaponizing water resources for human sustenance to force their enemies to surrender and succumb to their will. These strategies include cutting the flow of water from one area to another to deprive their enemies of access to fresh water and contaminating rivers to make their water unsuitable for human consumption. In 2015, for example, IS captured the Ramadi Dam on the Euphrates River in Iraq and diverted its flow into Lake Habbaniyah in western Iraq, which causing water shortages in agricultural areas (Mazlum, 2018, p. 117). IS also targeted the agricultural resources of specific minority communities, causing major food shortages and other economic complications (Hosseini, 2019, p. 200). For example, IS burned the crops and farmland of the Kakai community, a non-Muslim religious minority in Kirkuk, Iraq, to prevent them producing wheat and barley.

The conflict instigated by IS led to the emergence of other problems that affected people's food security in the region, especially in Iraq. This first affected the agricultural sector with the destruction of multiple water systems including irrigation facilities, which damaged agricultural infrastructure and reduced agricultural productivity. Eventually, communities ran out of food due to the massive loss of farmland and livestock grazing areas (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2018, p. vii).

Food shortages and the insufficient economic capacity to purchase food products became a significant issue in Iraq after IS first gained power as a regional Jihadist group. This is evidenced by the fact that the proportion of Iraqis reporting difficulty in accessing enough food to survive increased drastically from 12% in 2009 to 48% in 2015 (Barcelona Centre for International Affairs, 2022). IS gave no importance to establishing a balance between local food consumption and the exportable surplus of grains and other food products. As Jaafar and Woertz (2016, p. 26) note, IS's priority was not to provide equitable and

accessible food security for all citizens in the areas and cities it had seized. Hence, although wheat production in these areas reached 2.45 million tonnes, domestic consumption was only 0.85 million tons whereas at least 1.6 million tons was exported (Jaafar and Woertz, 2016, p. 26). This demonstrates that IS had no intention of safeguarding food allocation across all the different population groups in areas under its control.

4.4 HEALTH SECURITY

The UNDP (1994; 2022) defines health security as safety from diseases and the provision of and easy access to healthcare services. IS's impact on health security can be considered in terms of the following four health (in)security indicators: poor sanitation, lack of access to basic health care, child mortality, and diseases.

4.4.1 Poor Sanitation

Hundreds of thousands of people suffered from poor sanitation in Iraq and Syria due to the many crises that affected the two countries, one of which was the conflict caused by IS in the region. This in turn damaged the healthcare infrastructure, leaving these people without proper sanitation and hygiene supplies. Over 1.6 million people were left in need of water, sanitation, and hygiene supplies, which caused challenges regarding gaining access to healthcare and hygiene services in Syria and Iraq due to IS's impact (UNICEF, 2022, p. 3).

4.4.2 Lack of Access to Basic Health Care

The conflict caused by IS in Iraq and Syria has left 1.7 million individuals in need of healthcare services and health-related interventions (UNICEF, 2022, p. 2). A key reason for the prevalence of low-quality healthcare services across IS-controlled areas is that the group prohibited employees and healthcare workers from fully communicating with one another, failed to provide proper workplace environments for healthcare workers, and issued a new law that to separate the sexes in workplaces. IS also placed its version of morality police, known as "Al-Hesba" throughout healthcare facilities, which prevented healthcare workers from doing their jobs efficiently (Michlig, 2019, p. 1). Lafta, Al-Nuaimib, Sultan, Rihawa, and Bumham (2021, p. 1) found that the ability of people in the city of Mosul, Iraq, to gain access to healthcare services was heavily impacted by the prevalence of IS and the conflict

caused by its forces. This impact took its particularly on pregnant women and care-seeking adults, whose vulnerability to non-communicable diseases spiked to 43.5% from 22%.

4.4.3 Child Mortality

The continuous lack of medical resources in IS detention camps caused the death of many children because they were denied access to adequate healthcare and dying from various causes. For instance, about 200 Syrian children were affected by the disease-infested environment within IS detention camps and died in a series of typhoid outbreaks and other illnesses. Syrian refugees affected by IS were forced to leave their homes and move to refugee camps. Shortly after their arrival, 100 children died of hypothermia as they could not survive the harsh and extremely cold winter weather (Rodriguez, 2020, p. 3-4).

4.4.4 Disease

Adults and children alike were affected by IS's presence of in several Iraqi cities, especially Mosul. Several communicable and non-communicable diseases were prevalent in the city due to the lack of medical care because of the poor-quality healthcare system and inability of healthcare facilities to provide treatment for all patients. The most common diseases that patients in Mosul and Iraq suffered from under IS control included respiratory complaints, gastrointestinal diseases, and emotional and behavioral disorders (Lafta, 2019, p. 1).

Non-communicable diseases are also widespread amongst Yazidi refugees who were forced to leave their homes because of IS's military presence. Due to severely limited access to high-quality healthcare services, absence of prescription medications, and inability to pay for most medications, 40% of Yazidi refugees suffered from non-communicable diseases demographic and lifestyle changes. There is an increasing burden of non-communicable diseases in populations worldwide. This epidemiological shift poses new challenges for humanitarian agencies and host country governments. Non-communicable diseases (NCDs) require more complex diagnostic and management capacity than many common communicable diseases in the absence of regular care and access to medications, (Cetorelli, Burnham &Shabila, 2017, p. 7) (Cetorelli, Burnham &Shabila, 2017, p. 7).

In addition, the lack of sufficient healthcare services was accompanied by a shortage of healthcare staff, and inability to gain access to different types of medication. The prolonged

conflict caused by IS and other groups in Syria and Iraq has hampered the ability of hospitals and other medical facilities to save lives and treat patients (Cousins, 2014, p. 943). IS's military tactics of weaponizing water resources, particularly water contamination strategies, has affected many people. Cholera has become a common threat to their health as a contagious bacterial disease. Other health-related complications affecting people living under IS rule include a lack of hygiene and infectious diseases from drinking and using inadequately treated and contaminated water resources (Morrison, 2016, p. 4).

4.5 COMMUNITY SECURITY

The UNDP (1994; 2022) defines community security as safety from discrimination against religious and ethnic groups, and all tensions based on racism and exclusion of these groups. Accordingly, the impact of IS on community security can be outlined according to the following three community (in)security indicators: religious and identity-based tensions, literacy rate, and population movements.

4.5.1 Religious and Identity-Based Tensions

IS made sure that its message was disseminated and that it was seen to eliminate other religious groups that refused to convert to Islam, all under its leaders' ethnic cleansing policy. The message was that these groups were not welcome in IS-controlled areas, and if they choose to stay without converting to Islam then their places of worship and cultural heritage would be destroyed as well. The city of Mosul witnessed some of the most intense cultural and ethnic cleansing as IS destroyed non-Muslim communities' places of worship because it considers the Shiite community as non-Muslim (Amnesty, 2014, p. 22-23).

IS creates an anti-Shia framing by combining theological problems, Middle East socio-political conditions, and end-time eschatological beliefs. Theologically, ISIS believes that the Shia are an apostate group that deserves to be fought. Sociopolitically, IS accuses Shia groups of working with foreign countries to fight Islam (Wibowo & Hapsari, 2022, p. 211).

Consequently, after taking control of Mosul on June 10, 2014, IS targeted ethnic groups based on their religious affiliations, including Shia, Christians, and Yazidis. The same year, it also advanced into other regions in Tal Afar, Kirkuk, and Duhok, causing many citizens to panic and flee due to the threats posed by IS dominance. For instance, IS reportedly killed

more than 40 Shia Turkmen just 6 days after seizing Mosul and killed 83 Shia Shabaks between June 13th and July 10th. After taking over Omarkan, a village in Gogjuli, IS pillaged it, set fire to its shrines, demolished its mosques, seized 35 men, and forced families to flee the village (Human Rights Watch, 2014). IS also targeted monotheistic communities to erase their cultural heritage and practices, especially Assyrian, Chaldean, and Syriac ethnicities. IS attacked many villages and regions inhabited by these Christian communities in the Nineveh plains, marked their houses with the word “Nasrani”, which is a derogatory term for Christian, and forced them to choose between converting to Islam, paying tribute, or being massacred.

In its commitment to mass ethnic cleansing, IS has nearly eliminated all traces of Christian communities in territories under its control, forcing Christians to flee their homes for fear of being killed by IS fighters (University of Minnesota, 2022). Among many examples are the destruction of the Shiite Mosque Tal 'Afar, the destruction of the Virgin Mary statue in Tahira church, the demolition of the Prophet Jonah's tomb, the destruction of the Yazidi Three Sisters Temples and Sheikh Mand Temple in Sinjar, the destruction of the Kakai Mazar Yad Gar, along with other Shiite temples and mosques in Mosul, northern Iraq, including Redha Maqam (Amnesty, 2014, p. 22-23).

According to Kontogianni (2019, p. 28), IS is the first group in the region to implement cultural cleansing in such an organized and motivated manner. Indeed, it established a specific group of fighters called “Kata'ibTaswiyya”, which means the factions of demolition, whose sole purpose is to destroy archeological sites. These factions have been responsible for destroying various archeological sites in Syria and Iraq that were significant cultural assets. For example, they targeted the ancient city of Palmyra in Syria, knowing how culturally valuable it was to Syrians (Doppelhofer, 2018, p. 1). After IS captured the city on May 20th, 2015, many families abandoned their homes and migrated to Al-Quaryaten in southeastern Homs (UNHR, 2015, p. 7).

IS then used explosives to demolish the city's ancient ruins, tombs, and temples, while antiquities and monuments in Palmyra Museum were vandalized or destroyed. The city is now back under Syrian military control after it was recaptured in 2017 (Mudie, 2018, p.146). Aside from targeting communities' cultural heritage, IS also destroyed communities physically. It targeted Yazidi women as the ones responsible for preserving the Yazidi race

biologically through reproduction. IS also aimed to destroy the Yazidi community's cultural heritage by dismantling the Yazidi family unit to prevent family members from passing down cultural heritage, such as the language (Walling, 2022, p. 61). Finally, in areas captured by IS, the Muslim community itself was subject to restrictions that prohibited community gatherings to sever cultural ties between community members (Benni, 2017, p. 188).

4.5.2 Literacy Rate

IS damaged children's access to education in the areas they seized and dominated. In the long term, the inability of these children to gain access to a decent education due to IS's impact on their regions will increase illiteracy rates. For example, around 355,000 children were deprived of education in Iraq due to IS control over their regions. These children could not continue their formal education because their parents believed that it was too dangerous for them to go to school due to the threat by the presence of IS fighters. Although the children still received basic education in displacement camps, they could not keep up with the level of education provided in educational institutions in governorates (UNCHR, 2020, p. 4).

4.5.3 Population Movements

IS caused mass displacement of residents from villages and towns seeking a safer life in other places around Iraq and Syria. By the end of 2019, 1.4 million individuals, 658,000 of which are children, had been internally displaced by the end of the year 2019 (Reliefweb, 2020). In terms of population movements, Iraq was the country most affected by IS, with 982,000 families forced to leave their homes and villages due to IS attacks in 2014. Of these, around 480,000 individuals from Al-Anbar governorate were internally displaced during the first half of 2014, 505,482 people left Mosul during the second half of 2014, and 728,700 were internally displaced from Mount Sinjar and the Nineveh plains during August 2014. In 2016 and 2017, between 83,000 and 1 million people were internally displaced in central Iraq and 1.4 million in south Iraq. Although over 4.6 million people eventually returned to their homes, 1.2 million people are still internally displaced (UNDP, 2022, pp. 13-14).

4.6 ECONOMIC SECURITY

The UNDP (1994; 2022) defines economic security as safety from lack of social safety nets, unemployment, and other problems affecting individual livelihoods. Accordingly, the

impact of IS on economic security can be outlined according to four economic (in)security indicators: persistent poverty, unemployment, GDP per capita, and income levels.

4.6.1 Persistent Poverty

The growth of IS in the region and the spread of its fighters to key cities across the Middle East, especially in Syria and Iraq, has both affected their economies and threatened the global connections of international trade. Inter-regional trade and deep trade integration initiatives depend on a secure economy. However, IS's presence in the Middle East prevented such initiatives being implemented (Ianchovichina & Ivanic, 2014). IS's emergence and prevalence in Iraq and Syria contributed to increasing rates of persistent poverty. While the major cause of the unprecedented rise in poverty in Syria, with 90% of Syrians living below the poverty line, was the civil war that broke out since 2011, IS also played a role (Euro-Med Human Rights Monitor, 2022).

The same cannot be said about Iraq because IS played a major role in rising poverty rates. Overall, poverty rates in Iraq decreased from 19% to 15% in 2014. However, due to the conflict caused by IS, this increased to 22.5% across Iraq overall and to 41.2% in regions directly affected by IS. They reached an estimated 20.5%, in 2014, indicating that IS was causing increased poverty amongst Iraqis by 7% and 20.6% respectively. These rates were found in governorates in central, north, and south Iraq, along with Kurdistan and the capital city of Baghdad (Ministry of Planning, 2015, pp. 7-9).

4.6.2 Unemployment

IS's impact on the economies of crisis-stricken countries like Syria and Iraq is reflected in many indicators, such as diminishing trading opportunities for goods and services, disrupted public investment projects that damage the economy, supply-side shocks due to rising violence caused by IS, growing unemployment, and plummeting wages due to internally displaced refugees entering the job market in a disorganized manner (Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2015).

In 2014, unemployment rates increased in Iraq due to the crisis caused by IS, with 800,000 more people aged 15-63 losing the chance to find jobs in multiple industries. The

unemployment rate in the construction sector rose to 45%, along with the industrial sector, and other sectors (Ministry of Planning, 2015, p. 6).

4.6.3 GDP Per Capita

Broadly speaking, IS has damaged the economy of various countries, which have paid the cost of IS's criminal acts and attacks committed worldwide. These countries have prepared several deterrent strategies in response to IS's increasing power in the region. The international community had to pay billions of dollars over the years to protect itself from IS and assist citizens in fighting against them. In 2014, this cost peaked at \$104 billion (Institute for Economics & Peace, 2017, p. 80).

Benni and Tănase (2017, p. 188) show that IS damages the economies and domestic and international financial status of the countries it operates. This is indicated by IS's illegal search for funding in its first major operation after capturing Mosul, when it stole \$450 million from a bank. In addition, it used ransoms, theft, and high taxes that caused economic insecurity.

IS both directly and indirectly affected per capita income in countries across the Middle East and North Africa region. In particular, the wars waged by IS prompted Syrians and Iraqis to flee to Turkey, Egypt, Jordan, and Lebanon, which in turn reduced their per capita income by 0.5%, 0.1%, 1.4%, and 10.6%, respectively. Meanwhile, per capita income decreased in Syria and Iraq by 14% and 16%, respectively (Ianchovichina & Ivanic, 2017, p. 2).

4.6.4 Income Levels

The conflict caused by IS reduced average income in Iraq due to rising unemployment and loss of jobs and job opportunities in IS-controlled territories. Income levels also decreased because Iraqis lost property. Accordingly, the number of Iraqis living in poverty increased by 2.8 million due to conflict caused by IS, with around 4 out of 10 displaced individuals suffering poverty (Ministry of Planning, 2015, p. 9).

Syria's overall economy was also affected by IS's rise to power, which reduced property ownership consistent with decreasing rates of demand for land. This decline can be attributed to the mass exodus of refugees who abandoned their homes to start new lives abroad (Ianchovichina & Ivanic, 2014). In cities and other areas controlled by IS, the local

economies were re-structured in line with IS's ideology and funding agenda. They became more dependent on a similar taxation system to that of Al-Qaeda. IS imposed economic control by taxing goods and services, such as electricity, healthcare, education, as well as requiring monthly Zakat payments and other monthly levies. In short, IS changed the way people pay for community services and imposed stricter tax regulations (UN-Habitat, 2016, p. 38).

4.7 ENVIRONMENTAL SECURITY

The UNDP (1994; 2022) defines environmental security as safety from natural resource depletion and scarcity, along with other forms of environmental degradation. Accordingly, the impact of IS on environmental security can be outlined according to the following three environmental (in)security indicators: environmental degradation, resource depletion, and pollution.

4.7.1 Environmental Degradation

IS's presence in Iraq and increasing conflicts with other factions accelerated most of Iraq's environmental problems, including degradation and air and water pollution (Higginbotham, 2018). IS's use of water resources as a weapon, which harms human health, damages agriculture, and reduces access to food, can also have disastrous environmental consequences. Since IS control of territory in Syria and Iraq, focused on dams as the next step toward total domination over countries. It used dams as militarized facilities to change the course of its wars and influence the enemy's strategic decisions (Lossow, 2016, p. 1).

4.7.2 Resource Depletion

IS deprived the residents in many cities and regions across Iraq and Syria of one of the most crucial resources, water. It interfered with water resources, which further deepened the impact of the water crises that these countries already struggle with. The following timeline indicates how water resources were reduced and almost entirely depleted (strategic Foresight Group, 2014, p. 17). During the first half of 2014, IS flooded around 22 villages in Iraq using water as a weapon. In May 2014, its attacks drained Lake Assad in Rakka, Syria. In August 2014, it cut off water supplies to a small town in Qaraqosh, Iraq. In June 2014, it cut off water supplies to Mosul in Nineveh, Iraq.

4.7.3 Pollution

Another hazard was pollution due to IS's use of heavy artillery and disorganized management of oil wells and refineries in Syria and Iraq. Regarding artillery, IS used bombs in Syria, such as bombing Homs, to cause as much damage as possible in the shortest time. This left a lingering cloud of CO₂ and other emissions, thereby polluting the air and the environment (Gaafar, 2021, p. 6). IS also polluted water sources by establishing makeshift oil refineries to use oil and sell it quickly. This reckless decision produced several damaged refineries that caused a trail of oil spills, and damaged wells, trucks, tanks, and pipelines. These all played a role in polluting the water and releasing hazardous substances that can further damage the environment in the future (Gaafar, 2021, p. 6).

In 2014, for example, an oil pipeline constructed near the Tigris River exploded, causing a major oil spill that contaminated 70 square km of the water surface. This spill later ignited, which reduced the amount of water pollution but made matters worse due to thick black clouds of hazardous substances that increased air pollution, making it difficult for many cities like Baghdad to supply water and cross the river (Al-Lami, Ati & Aswad, 2019, p. 6028). The environmental situation was further complicated in the summer of 2016 when IS was forced out of many areas it had once controlled in Iraq. In response, IS followed a scorched earth policy of destroying oil wells by setting them alight. This released chemically hazardous substances, such as nitrogen dioxide, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, carbon monoxide, sulfur dioxide, and poisonous heavy metals like nickel, lead, and vanadium (Abd Almohsen, 2018).

Another source of pollution at this time was IS fighters' tactic of burning tires in the city streets of Ramadi to conceal their presence from enemy aircraft and complete their retreat. They then detonated critical facilities, such as pesticide plants, which contaminated the air with a concoction of smoke, dust, and poisonous fumes, and created significant risks for local people and the surrounding environment (United Nations Environment Programme, 2018). Pollution caused by oil spills was also responsible for destroying vast areas of farmland and damaged grazing areas, making it impossible for animals and livestock to survive. Farmland was also damaged, which reduced farmers' productivity or forced them to abandon their farms altogether (Gaafar, 2021, p. 6). From this documentary analysis to review the literature, it is evident that IS has impacted all seven aspects of human security.

Furthermore, these effects are correlated with one another through various causal correlations. That is, human security aspects can be threatened when other aspects are affected by IS actions. Environmental security, for example, is closely related to food and health security because environmental contamination can easily lead to mass degradation and loss of cropland. This in turn leads to widespread waves of food shortages and increased risk of infections and diseases.

IS's impact on environmental security has cumulative consequences that can contribute to degrading cropland and water resources in Syria and Iraq, particularly IS's weaponization of dams and preventing people from accessing natural resources. IS's approach caused a major irrigation crisis, which makes it extremely difficult for people to grow crops and feed their families. Therefore, environmental damage crosses over to food security by depriving people of essential environmental elements that secure their basic food consumption needs.

IS also damaged the farmland of specific communities to pressure them into converting to Islam or simply accelerate their demise. Thus, lack of food resources and malnutrition are critical issues that cause many children to die, and others to become extremely sick from diseases and malnutrition. Furthermore, IS caused a great deal of pollution in all the cities it controlled and pushed many citizens and farmers out of their home regions. This further exacerbated the problem of farmland degradation, leading to major health complications, thereby demonstrating a causal correlation between health security and food security.

IS has exacerbated this problem by denying access to medical treatment. IS's impact on health security was mediated by their tendency to prevent healthcare workers and medics from doing their jobs in a safe and well-equipped environment. Moreover, children suffered both non-communicable and contagious diseases, which were sometimes fatal. It is thus noteworthy that IS affected, directly or indirectly, all dimensions of human security through its violent acts. This makes it difficult to categorize its impact within a particular human insecurity category. For example, personal security is closely related to community security because the torture that someone endures could be based on the torturer's intention to eliminate that person's race, culture, or religion. Being directly affected by violence and abuse threatens the very essence of human security, which is the ability to live safely.

The effects of physical abuse and torture may often never heal, and accompany the victim for years, manifested in symptoms of PTSD and other psychological complications. This indicates how critical personal security is.

Major international humanitarian councils and organizations have not viewed IS's impacts on civilians as just a threat. Rather, they have gone beyond that by labeling them as war crimes and human rights violations. That is, community security can be affected physically through ethnic or cultural/religious cleansing, or intangibly against several communities, such as the Shiites, Yazidis, Kakai, and Christians. This indicates how both personal security and community security are correlated in the sense that an effect on one can easily influence the other. When IS targets a group of people based on their religious or cultural background, they also threaten their personal security; when they attack, torture, or abuse them, either physically or psychologically, they also violate their basic human rights, making it difficult for them to live safely within their community.

Another intangible threat against both community and environmental security is IS's destruction of archeological sites. This is something that IS has done throughout the Middle East. On the other hand, political security is closely related to economic security because IS's impact on political security can consequently impact economic security. For example, when the country's political security is at risk, its ability to produce revenues and maintain its international trade relations become at risk as well.

IS causes political insecurity by diminishing the essence of democracy and keeping society in a constant state of inner conflict. IS uses political tactics to affect people's sense of stability and security within their countries. It replaces laws with newly formulated ones that match its extremist militant ideology. IS also imposes high taxation and engages in extortion, in addition to stealing large financial resources from banks in Iraq and Syria. Taking advantage of a poorly managed political situation can compromise the economic security of both individuals and the whole community. International trade is affected by IS's activities, which prevents the affected country from financially developing, which in turn drastically reduces per capita income.

Thus, the unstable political atmosphere in Syria and Iraq due to IS's presence damages the economic status of these countries. Political security is normally affected before economic security because the provision of a democratic and stable society, secure from conflict,

enables the cultivation of economic prosperity. For example, although Iraq is an oil-rich country, IS compromised its political security, which transformed it into a struggling country economically. Personal security refers to safety from physical threats, such as death, torture, ethnic cleansing, and inhumane imprisonment, whereas community security protects any group of individuals against all threats to eradicate their culture or ethnic presence. These two definitions are correlated as the impact on either of them can cause the other to be affected as well.

IS has undermined environmental security by causing significant water and soil pollution, using water sources as a weapon to prevent citizens from growing their crops, and causing degradation and loss of farmland in many areas. Damage to farmland has also impacted food security, exposing citizens, especially children, to starvation by causing waves of food shortages across Syria and Iraq, and endangering people's ability to water and grow crops to feed themselves and their families.

IS has damaged health security by terrorizing doctors and other medical staff, causing a severe shortage in healthcare providers, increasing diseases and epidemics, and causing healthcare service and aid shortages throughout Syria and Iraq. Environmental security pertains to citizens' security against the ramifications of any form of a natural or man-made catastrophic events, such as degradation. This affects both health security and food security by cutting access to the natural resources that are essential for irrigation and agriculture, and healthcare services.

IS's impact on environmental security prevents people from being protected against contagious diseases and pandemics that endanger their health and well-being, while the lack of food and water resources impedes their easy access to them. Therefore, IS's impact on environmental security exacerbates its impacts on both health and food security. IS has impaired political security by eradicating democracy and preventing anyone from opposing their doctrine or ideas about Islam, threatening citizens' dignity by stopping them from living a decent and humane life that fulfills their basic needs, and waging propaganda campaigns against ethnic groups, communities, and even countries that oppose their doctrine. This has also affected economic security by damaging the trading system connecting Syria and Iraq, drastically reducing per capita income and citizens' purchasing power, and stealing financial and natural resources from banks and oil refineries.

5. CONCLUSION

This study analyzed the impact of IS's practices on human security. It revealed that IS's actions and attitudes towards local inhabitants in the territories under its domination have increased human insecurities in Syria and Iraq. Local people under IS's rule lacked political, community, personal security, food, environmental, health, and economic security. The power vacuum that ensued in the aftermath of the U.S. invasion of Iraq, which led to the overthrowing of the Saddam Hussein regime, enabled IS to rapidly become a powerful Islamist organization. Through its tactics and violent activities, IS became a very challenging actor to almost every dimension of human security indicated in the 1994 UNDP report.

Regarding personal security, all the indicators of indicators became common practice between 2014 and 2017, such as physical violence, human trafficking, child labor, physical violence comprising kidnapping, physical abuse, and torture. IS used human trafficking as a source of income, enslaving women and abusing children for their labor. This conclusion is also supported by the percentage of the population needing UNHCR assistance. All the indicators show that the IS had a significant negative impact on personal security. Regarding economic security, IS's negative impact can be assessed by the level of persistent poverty, unemployment, and low GDP per capita, BTI-social nets, and income levels. IS's presence in Syria and Iraq reduced economic activities by significantly decreasing trading opportunities of goods and services and in foreign direct investment in the region. IS's rule also increased unemployment in Syria and Iraq by damaging personal income levels. However, no reports stated exactly what the social safety net rate was in Iraq and Syria before and after IS became dominant in the region.

IS's rule also damaged food security, which is also closely related to economic security and shares some common indicators. For example, there was a sudden rise in food prices during IS's dominance, particularly in Iraq. Food production and availability were also negatively impacted in Syria and Iraq. IS's brutal tactics, such as weaponizing water resources by cutting water flows and contaminating water supplies, also exacerbated food insecurity for local people. However, there is no evidence that the conflict caused by IS caused a large-scale famine in either Iraq or Syria.

A similar conclusion can be reached regarding health security, which is highly related to food security, economic security, and environmental security. The number of people suffering from poor sanitation increased during IS's rule in Iraq and Syria. Children's and adults' health was also negatively impacted by the lack of healthcare services and reduced quality of life for all individuals along with an increase in disease in IS-controlled regions. Nevertheless, there were no epidemics after IS encroached different territories in Iraq and Syria.

Regarding environmental security, IS negatively affected environmental security by increasing pollution, resource depletion, and environmental degradation. IS's contamination of water supplies as a weapon negatively affected not only health and food security but also environmental security. However, regarding one of the indicators of environmental security, population affected by disasters, could not be assessed because of IS's encroachment into different territories in Iraq and Syria. Furthermore, there are no reports of IS mismanagement of land use. Regarding community security, IS significantly challenged community security by targeting ethnic and religious groups, such as Yazidis and Shiites, that do not conform to their ideologies. The study shows that, during IS's rule, religious and related identity-based tensions increased due to its violent attacks against ethnic and religious groups. Finally, as it is closely linked to personal security and community security, political security was one of the most severely affected security aspects under IS rule between 2014 and 2017. Without political freedom, democratic rule of law and justice during this period, the level of political oppression for opponents and human rights violations increased under IS rule, which allowed no place for the presence of civil society.

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