INTERVENTION AND THE POLITICS OF INFORMATION: US ATTENTION TO FOREIGN CIVIL CONFLICT

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ABSTRACT

To improve scholarly understanding of the domestic drivers of third-party intervention in civil conflicts, this dissertation borrows a theoretical framework from the policy process literature. Specifically, I explain intervention through the lens of punctuated equilibrium theory (PET), a view which holds that the attention of government policymakers to most issues is persistently low but can be suddenly and dramatically mobilized. To apply this theory to the study of intervention, I collect data on US congressional speeches and US news coverage of foreign civil conflicts, 1946-1999. I then use the data to investigate the correlates of senior policymaker attention and its effects on intervention decisions. With respect to correlates, I find clear evidence that PET mechanisms motivate US congressional attention to civil conflict: I find that the distribution of change in attention to civil conflicts is leptokurtic, that civil conflicts are more likely to reach the attention of US senior policymakers if they have already reached the attention of actors lower in the policy process, and that congressional attention is subject to crowding effects. With respect to effects on policy, my findings are mixed. Congressional attention increases the likelihood of intervention when I look at all interventions but, when looking at only major interventions and controlling for prior US intervention, I find congressional attention has no statistically significant effect.

CHAPTER 1

Third-Party Intervention: The State of the Literature and a New Theoretical Explanation

Obama had written about how we should have intervened in Rwanda... But he also frequently pointed out that the people urging intervention in Syria had been silent when millions of people were killed in the Democratic Republic of Congo. "There's no way there would have been any appetite for that in Congress."

~Ben Rhodes, deputy national-security adviser for Barack Obama.

Politicians... may not have a fully analyzed and worked out logical theory on exactly what their position is on the Central African Republic, or exactly what they believe about the Rohingya in Myanmar. And the question of whether they're gonna be focusing this week on Yemen or this week on South Sudan may have nothing to do with the objective conditions on the ground in Yemen or South Sudan and may have a great deal more to do with what happens to be in the newspapers.

~Rory Stewart, British MP and International Development Secretary for Teresa May

Issues have a way of grabbing headlines and dominating the schedules of public officials when they were virtually ignored only weeks or months before.

~Frank Baumgartner and Bryan Jones, in Agendas and Instability in American Politics

Some of the deadliest conflicts since the Second World War world have been civil wars which were internationalized through the intervention of external states. Scholars have analyzed many of the characteristics of these interventions and found that they have clear effects on conflict outcomes, duration, and fatalities. It is also clear that the likelihood of third-party intervention varies greatly across conflicts. However, while scholars have identified several correlates which affect the occurrence of third-party interventions, we do not generally understand states' heterogenous responses to civil conflict. I contend that one of the major weaknesses of this literature is that, with rare exception, it has not theorized about or empirically

examined the domestic processes which determine whether a third-party state intervenes in an ongoing civil conflict. The aim of this dissertation is, therefore, to improve scholarly understanding of the domestic determinants of state intervention in civil conflicts.¹

My contribution is to import insights from the policy process literature in public policy scholarship, specifically punctuated equilibrium theory (PET), into the study of civil conflict intervention. PET explains policy outputs in terms of policymakers' information processing; the issues that states choose to address, including foreign conflicts, are the ones that senior policymakers spend their limited time and attention thinking about. In this dissertation, I argue that states are unlikely to intervene in a civil conflict if the conflict does not measurably occupy the attention of their senior policymakers but that, once a conflict has gained the attention of senior policymakers, strategic constraints will reduce the likelihood of intervention. I test this argument by analyzing the attention US policymakers pay to foreign civil conflicts and the policies the United States adopts regarding them. To this end, I use both large-N statistical methods and qualitative case studies.

The remainder of this chapter will summarize the state of scholarly knowledge about the correlates and causes of civil conflict intervention. I then review the ways in which scholars have incorporated the domestic politics of the intervener in explanations of intervention. Next, I discuss theoretical frameworks that could inform my study of the effects of domestic politics on intervention; I then introduce the punctuated equilibrium theory of policy change and use it to derive four tentative hypotheses. Finally, I describe the research methods and data collection

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¹ States are not the only international actors that intervene in civil conflicts. International organizations such as the UN undertake a significant minority of civil conflict interventions (Regan 1996, 345). However, UN intervention and the extensive scholarly literature on it are outside the scope of this dissertation.

² The concept of punctuated equilibria—which was originally conceived in evolutionary biology—has been explored in many fields, including international relations. Diehl and Goertz (2000), for example, use it in their model of the initiation and termination of enduring rivalries. My emphasis, however, is on a specific theoretical framework, based on the concept, which developed within the policy process literature.

process that I use to identify the domestic correlates of intervention and provide a brief chapter outline.

Third-Party Intervention

There is a robust quantitative literature investigating the effects of third-party intervention on civil conflict dynamics (Balch-Lindsay and Enterline 2000; Regan 2002; Collier, Hoeffler, and Soderbom 2004) and outcome (Regan 1996; Mason, Weingarten, and Fett 1999). Academic research on the subject has improved greatly in recent years with the recognition that scholars should treat conflict duration and outcome as conceptually unified (Balch-Lindsay, Enterline, and Joyce 2008; Brandt et al. 2008) and that scholars should model the characteristics of combatant groups in addition to the characteristics of states in which civil conflict takes place (Cunningham 2006; 2010; Cunningham, Gleditsch, and Salehyan 2009; Bakke, Cunningham, and Seymour 2012). Intervention scholarship has also been improved by quantitative studies on the correlates of third-party intervention. However, while these studies have advanced our knowledge, it remains the case that "comparatively little attention has been paid to explanations of why third-party states intervene in the conflicts of other states" (Stojek and Chacha 2015, 228; see also Aydin 2010, 47 and Aydin 2012, 5). The domestic drivers of intervention, in particular, remain under-examined. Aydin, whose book argues that states' intervention behavior has domestic causes, claims that international relations scholarship "downplays state preferences and domestic imperatives in decision making" (2012, 9). Below, I discuss the current state of knowledge on the correlates of third-party intervention into civil conflicts. I organize my review into two sections, based on Findley and Teo's (2006) distinction between phenomenon-centric and actor-centric research.

Phenomenon-Centric Explanations of Intervention

Research that treats civil conflicts as the unit of analysis is phenomenon-centric. Such research is poorly suited to explain "who intervenes, why, and on whose side" (Findley and Teo 2006, 828), since information about states that choose not to intervene does not appear in conflict-level data. Phenomenon-centric research is, however, well suited to ask when or under what conditions conflicts experience intervention—since these questions can be addressed at the conflict and conflict country level.

Conceptually, there are three ways that a conflict can draw outside states to intervene in it. First, if a conflict is relatively susceptible to influence, i.e., if outside action is likely to change the conflict's development and outcome, then the decision to intervene is more attractive to outside states. Second, if there are substantial rents that an outside state can acquire by intervening, intervention is more desirable and therefore more likely. Third, if a conflict creates severe negative externalities, which affect an outside state, the state may decide that non-intervention is more costly than intervening.

Conflicts are significantly more susceptible to foreign influence when there is relative parity between rebel and government forces, i.e., when the rebel side is strong. Gent (2008) argues that, regardless of what a potential intervener's preferences are for the outcome of a civil conflict, stronger rebels make its influence more significant. He theorizes that there is a selection effect at work. If a foreign power shares the preferences of the government side in a civil conflict, it will only need to intervene when the government side is seriously threatened. Since weak rebel groups, by definition, struggle to challenge the government for control of the state or its territories, they do not seriously threaten the survival of the government and the government may be able to defeat them without outside help. Likewise, a weak rebel group may not be able

to effectively challenge the government even if it does receive support from outside. When rebel groups are strong, however, it is both much more likely that a rebel-biased intervener can lead the rebels to victory and that a government-biased intervener will need to actively prevent rebel takeover of the state. Gent (2008) finds empirical evidence in support of these arguments; intervention is more likely in conflicts with strong rebels and support for strong rebels is more likely to lead to rebel victory. Other studies have arrived at similar findings (Akcinaroglu and Radziszewski 2005; Salehyan, Gleditsch, and Cunningham 2011; Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016; Ives 2019).

Other characteristics of conflicts can render them less susceptible to foreign influence and, thus, deter intervention. Conflicts that involve numerous competing factions (Cunningham 2006, 2010), rebel bases in remote regions, irregular amounts of fighting, and the use of guerilla tactics (Walter 2009) tend to be intractable and long lasting. They are both more difficult to win through outright military victory and more difficult to settle through negotiations. However, Aydin (2010) argues that a civil conflict's general susceptibility to influence is not observable. Potential interveners, therefore, must review the history of a conflict and use heuristics decision shortcuts based on prior experience—to determine their likelihood of intervention success. Conflicts that are protracted or that have seen numerous unsuccessful intervention attempts signal to potential interveners that they are difficult to influence. But, though Aydin finds support for this view, other scholars do not. Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris (2016) find that previous interventions have a positive effect on the likelihood of future interventions. Moreover, the effect that previous interventions have on the likelihood of future ones is conditioned by the actor-level relationships between prospective interveners, which I discuss in the following subsection.

Third-party states are also incentivized to intervene by more straightforward rent-seeking opportunities, such as access to natural resources—though there is some debate among scholars about the circumstances under which natural resources motivate intervention. Findley and Marineau (2015) argue that interveners loot natural resources both for their own enrichment and to finance rebel contestation of the state. They find that natural resources increase the risk of foreign intervention on the rebel side but not the government side of civil conflicts. Ross (2004) further claims that loot-seeking rebel-biased intervention can be the cause rather than result of conflict. Stojek and Chacha's (2015) analysis, using oil exports, reaches a broadly similar conclusion about the likelihood of pro-rebel intervention. It also, however, finds that oil exports are associated with a minor increase in the likelihood of pro-government intervention. Both Klosek (2020) and Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris (2016) corroborate this, finding that prospective interveners with high dependence on the oil of a civil conflict state are more likely to intervene. Lootable natural resource arguments are contested, however. Aydin (2010) finds that oil production decreases the risk of foreign intervention, and Koga (2011) finds that the relationship identified by Findley and Marineau (2015) does not hold for democracies.

Finally, third-party states may intervene in a civil conflict to prevent significant negative externalities, such as refugee flows and contagion effects, that emanate from the conflict state.

Kathman (2010) describes how the negative effects of civil conflicts can spill into the affairs of neighboring states. Refugees fleeing a conflict state can depress the economy and living standards of its neighbors; civil conflict itself can damage a regional economy; successful rebel groups can have a demonstration effect, providing an example for restive populations in neighboring states to follow; or, when an aggrieved minority is split between multiple states, rebel groups may collaborate across borders. Countries near a civil conflict state have good

reason to intervene if they expect that doing so will help mitigate these problems. Consequently, there is consistent evidence that refugee flows increase the likelihood of intervention, whether scholars measure the absolute number of refugees (Kathman 2010), or the presence of a refugee crisis (Regan 1998; Lemke and Regan 2004; Kathman 2011; Stojek and Chacha 2015). There is also fair evidence that contagion and the risk of contagion prompts states to intervene in foreign civil conflicts. Saideman (2002) finds that, in regions where many countries are experiencing civil conflict, rebel groups are more likely to receive support. Kathman (2010) creates a variable measuring the risk that each civil conflict in the international system has of infecting its neighbors and finds that contagion risk is correlated with third-party intervention. Other studies also find that regional refugee flows (Mullenbach and Matthews 2008) and contagion effects (Kathman 2011) increase the likelihood of intervention by states outside the immediate area.

Kathman (2011) also argues that states with high-casualty conflicts are more threatening to their neighbors and, thus, are more likely to experience intervention. He finds a positive relationship between conflict intensity and the likelihood of intervention, as do others (Gent 2007; Aydin 2010; Klosek 2020).³ This finding, however, is not consistent. Regan (1998) and Lemke and Regan (2004) both find that conflict intensity is associated with a reduced likelihood of intervention. Stojek and Chacha (2015) find that conflict intensity has no effect on aggregate intervention likelihood, though they do find that it increases the likelihood of rebel-biased intervention.

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³ Aydin (2010) arrives at this result in contravention of her theoretical argument that interventions in high intensity conflicts are more costly and, therefore, less likely.

Actor-Centric Explanations of Intervention

An actor-centric approach to civil conflict intervention specifies dyads of potential interveners and civil conflict states as the unit of analysis. This makes it possible to evaluate the traits of all countries that *could have* intervened in a conflict and, in doing so, allows scholars to investigate the causal effects of intervener characteristics, intervener-conflict state relationships, and relationships between interveners. I discuss the most prominent of these explanations below, which include proximity, power, alliances, rivalries, colonial ties, ethnic ties, and regime type.

One of the most consistent findings in the literature is that states close to or contiguous with a state experiencing civil conflict are more likely to intervene (Khosla 1999; Lemke and Regan 2004; Findley and Teo 2006; Gent 2007; Greig and Regan 2008; Mullenbach and Matthews 2008; Kathman 2011; Nome 2013; Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016; Bove and Böhmelt 2019; Klosek 2020). The underlying reasoning for these results is that intervention is more difficult over greater distances, and that states have greater opportunities to intervene in the civil conflicts of their immediate or nearby neighbors. To my knowledge, only three studies find otherwise. One of these, by Regan (1998), operationalizes contiguity as a conflict level variable, the number of shared borders that a state experiencing civil conflict has, which, on its face, seems a less valid measure of proximity/contiguity than those used elsewhere in the literature. The other two (Yoon 1997; Goldman 2017), drop most of the variation in distance from their data. Yoon (1997) analyzes only the United States, while Goldman (2017) confines his analysis to politically relevant dyads⁴ and states that are observed to have intervened and only investigates rebel biased interventions as a dependent variable.

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⁴ Politically relevant dyads, introduced by Lemke and Reed (2001), are the subset of state pairs that share a border or include a major power.

Investigation of power differentials between states has found similarly consistent results—and for similar reasons. Powerful states have greater opportunities to intervene in civil conflicts due to their greater monetary resources and military capabilities. Major powers are more likely to intervene in civil conflicts (Lemke and Regan 2004; Findley and Teo 2006; Kathman 2011; Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016; Bove and Böhmelt 2019)⁵ and, more generally, so are third-party states that are powerful relative to the civil conflict state (Gent 2007; Kathman 2010; Stojek and Chacha 2015; Bove and Böhmelt 2019; Klosek 2020). Nome (2013), however, finds that this relationship is only true of interventions on the government's side.

The literature also reliably finds that states intervene in civil conflicts out of a desire to help allies and punish rivals. Except for Kathman (2010), scholars have repeatedly found that alliance ties increase the likelihood of intervention (Lemke and Regan 2004; Fordham 2008; Kathman 2011, Klosek 2020), particularly government-biased intervention (Findley and Teo 2006; Stojek and Chacha 2015). Rivalries, inversely, increase the likelihood that a rival state will undertake a rebel-biased intervention (Findley and Teo 2006; Akcinaroglu and Radziszewski 2005; Salehyan, Gleditsch, and Cunningham 2011; Goldman 2017). This effect is evident in the overwhelming evidence that interventions were more likely during the Cold War (Regan 1998; Lemke and Regan 2004; Mullenbach and Matthews 2008; Kathman 2010; 2011; Stojek and Chacha 2015; Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016; Bove and Böhmelt 2019). Furthermore, as noted in the preceding sub-section, alliances and rivalries condition the effect that prior interventions have on the likelihood of future ones. Findley and Teo (2006) find that states are more likely to intervene in civil conflicts on the same side that an ally has intervened or on the

⁵ Goldman (2017) finds that major powers are less likely to intervene in support of rebel groups but, again, he confines his analysis to politically relevant dyads and states that are observed to have intervened, which likely affects his results for this control variable.

side opposite a rival, as does Ives (2019). Gent (2007) finds that states are more likely to intervene in civil conflicts when a state with divergent foreign policy preferences has done so first. Yoon (1997), Fordham (2008), and Mullenbach and Matthews (2008) all find that the United States follows this pattern, though Yoon notes that it does not apply when the prior intervention was undertaken by the Soviet Union.

Scholars have investigated the effects of other types of interstate relationships on intervention likelihood as well. Findings regarding some of these are contradictory. Colonial ties, for example, are found by several scholars to increase the likelihood of intervention (Lemke and Regan 2004; Findley and Teo 2006; Gent 2007; Kathman 2011, Klosek 2020). But others argue that, once trade ties are controlled for, which themselves increase the likelihood of intervention, colonial ties have no effect (Stojek and Chacha 2015; Chacha and Stojek 2016). Another set of scholars, however, find the trade ties have no effect (Yoon 1997) or a negative effect (Kathman 2011).

The effect of ethnic ties, on the other hand, is seldom disputed. Ethnic ties have consistently been found to increase the likelihood of intervention (Saideman 1997; Carment and James 2000; Saideman 2002; Mullenbach and Matthews 2008; Fox, James, and Li 2009; Kathman 2010; Koga 2011; Nome 2013; Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016; Bove and Böhmelt 2019), though there is some nuance to these findings and one recent study (Klosek 2020) finds that they have no effect. Saideman (2002) finds that ethnic ties increase the likelihood of third-party support for embattled ethnic minorities. Koga (2011) finds that they only increase the likelihood of rebel-biased intervention by democratic interveners. Nome (2013), however, finds evidence of a more universal effect: when either combatant in a civil conflict has ethnic ties in a neighboring state the neighbor is more likely to intervene, even when the neighboring state only

contains a marginal ethnic group without control of government. Some scholars suggest that the effects of ethnic ties are particularly strong for religiously based groups (Fox 2001; Fox, James, and Li 2009), though this is not a consistent finding (Saideman 2002), and Ives (2019) argues that only third parties where religious authority is institutionalized in the state are more likely to intervene.

A final variable, which requires an actor-centric perspective, is regime type. The most tested argument about regime type's effects on intervention is made by Hermann and Kegley (1996), who argue that democracies, while no less likely than autocracies to intervene in the affairs of other states, are less likely to experience intervention themselves. They contend that, since democracies value negotiation, mediation, and compromise, other states can solve disputes with them diplomatically and, therefore, do not need to resort to intervention or other extraordinary means of influence. Hermann and Kegley find support for this argument, as does later work by Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris (2016) and Bove and Böhmelt (2019). Lemke and Regan (2004), however, find that democracies are more likely to have third-party states intervene in their civil conflicts, while Kathman (2011) finds that democracies are more likely to intervene in the conflicts of others. Scholars considering regime type from other perspectives come to similarly contradictory conclusions. Aydin (2012) looks at the effect of joint democracy on different strategies of intervention, finding that it increases the likelihood of mediation attempts but lowers the likelihood of a biased intervention. Stojek and Chacha (2015), however, find that, while democracies have no special propensity for intervention, the interventions they do undertake tend to be government-biased interventions in fellow democracies. Mullenbach and Matthews (2008) corroborate Stojek and Chacha's results, but only look at the US.

Taking Stock

While scholars exploring the correlates of civil war intervention have come to a few consistent conclusions, most variables that are commonly included in the literature are sensitive to differences in model specification.⁶ The general consensus is that states are more likely to intervene in a civil conflict under the following conditions: when they are close to it, when they are more powerful than the belligerent parties, when they have ethnic ties to one of the belligerent parties, when one of their allies or rivals is involved in the conflict, and when the conflict is generating large numbers of refugees. However, there are some important issues with the state of research on the causes of intervention. First, some studies, especially the earlier ones, do not use actor-centric research designs and, therefore, omit or mis-specify important intervener variables (Hermann and Kegley 1996; Regan 1998; Saideman 2002; Fox, James, and Li 2009). Second, few studies conduct holistic theory building about the causes of intervention. Most advance narrow explanations based on their specific theory, be it rivalries, contagion, ethnic ties, or interest group politics (Akcinaroglu and Radziszewski 2005; Kathman 2010; Stojek and Chacha 2015; Nome 2013; Klosek 2020). Third, while the literature explores the opportunity to intervene quite well, discussions of states' motivation to intervene rely heavily on homo economicus assumptions of a narrowly self-interested utility maximizer (Ghent 2007; Aydin 2010; Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016). While such assumptions can be a useful simplifying device, it is also beneficial for research to examine motivations empirically—in this case, by investigating the domestic processes that generate them. I review the extent of knowledge about the domestic drivers of intervention in the next section.

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⁶ I would consider the following as belonging to this category: rebel group strength, previous interventions, lootable resources, contagion risk, conflict intensity, colonial ties, trade ties, and regime type.

⁷ The conceptual importance of considering opportunity and willingness in international relations scholarship is discussed at length by Most and Starr (1989).

Research on the Domestic Determinants of Intervention

A few scholars in the civil war literature have looked explicitly at the domestic politics of potential interveners as determinants of intervention, though this has been relatively infrequent and has not produced clear findings. Some of the domestic level factors which have been proposed to affect intervention likelihood are structural electoral constraints, diversionary tactics, war weariness, news media coverage, and domestic economic interests. Focusing on the United States, both Yoon (1997) and Mullenbach and Matthews (2008) hypothesize that electoral constraints will hinder intervention, suggesting that during the increased scrutiny of an election campaign or when an opposing party controls Congress, the president will be disinclined to act adventurously abroad. But, while Yoon finds that the US is less likely to undertake interventions in presidential election years, Mullenbach and Matthews find no evidence of this for either presidential or midterm elections. They do, however, find evidence that divided government decreases the likelihood of US intervention. Relatedly, Regan (2000b) finds that divided government reduces the likelihood of US policy change towards civil conflicts in which it is already involved. Evidence of diversionary tactics and war weariness is also scant. Diversionary tactics, as explained by Ostrom and Job (1986), are attempts by a leader facing an economic downturn, or other harmful development, to divert the attention of the public by deploying military forces. Mullenbach and Matthews (2008) find no evidence that civil war intervention serves this purpose, and Yoon (1997) finds that the US was less likely to intervene in civil conflicts during economic downturns. Neither study finds support for the war weariness argument either; the US was no less likely to use force after previous involvement in a protracted conflict. Indeed, Yoon finds that the US was more likely to intervene in civil conflicts in the aftermath of the Vietnam War.

News media coverage, unlike other domestic explanations of intervention, has received considerable attention, owing to extensive communication discipline scholarship on the role of news media in public life. Much of this research emphasizes humanitarian intervention, not civil war intervention, per se (Livingston 1997; P. Robinson 1999; 2000; Gilboa 2005; Balabanova 2010; Peksen, Peterson, and Drury 2014), but there is considerable overlap. There is a consensus that media coverage increases the likelihood of intervention, even when controlling for endogeneity (Bell, Frank, and Macharia 2013), but scholars disagree about why the relationship exists and the degree to which it is contingent. One line of argument, the "CNN effect", holds that news media stake an independent position on foreign policy issues and, due to the power of real-time communications technology, can exert major influence on domestic audiences and policy elites (Livingston 1997). Another view, the manufacturing consent argument, holds that news media only focuses on issues and positions that have already been articulated by policy elites, and that their coverage largely serves to persuade the public of elites' pre-existing views (Mermin 2004). A final view holds that the news media can exert an independent effect on policymakers but that the effect is context dependent. It predicts that news media will only influence policy when policy is uncertain, when news media are critical of government, and when their coverage empathizes with suffering people. P. Robinson (2000) and Balabanova (2010) both find support for the model through qualitative case studies, though Balabanova suggests that the relationship between news media and policy may not hold beyond western media outlets.

A final domestic level explanation of civil conflict intervention is articulated by Aydin (2012), who provides a thick description of the way domestic economic forces affect government decisions. She argues that the benefits of economic exchange in foreign markets are concentrated

within a subset of domestic economic actors. Intervention and other targeted security policies help these actors disproportionately. Thus, these actors organize to influence the state's intervention policies as well as economic ones. Aydin further argues that these pressures are contextual; domestic pressures vary in content and intensity based on the state's political institutions. Established democracies, she holds, follow the logic of selectorate theory (Bueno de Mesquita et al. 1999; 2002; 2003); their large winning coalitions prevent any narrow influence group from dominating policy. However, in new democracies, especially presidential ones, and in autocracies, especially personalist regimes and monarchies, elite interest groups can exert substantial influence over security policy.

Unfortunately, as Aydin recognizes, interest group influence is "less amenable to large sample empirical analysis" (2012, 51). She is only able to proxy the effects of interest group influence by investigating trade flows, foreign direct investment (FDI), and preferential trade agreements (PTAs). Conceptually, if trade and FDI are high between a civil conflict state and third-party and if PTAs have been signed, there are likely to be domestic economic interest groups which pressure the third-party to intervene. Aydin finds evidence that PTAs increase intervention likelihood overall and that FDI increases the likelihood of non-military intervention, though it decreases the likelihood of military intervention, but she does not find evidence that trade increases intervention likelihood. Klosek (2020), revisiting her arguments, finds that FDI does increase the likelihood of military intervention when using measures that specify the protection of existing investments rather than near term expansions of investment. He finds this process at work in arms sales as well; longstanding arms sales from a third-party to a conflict state increase the likelihood the third-party will intervene.

But while the domestic level explanations of civil conflict intervention explored by these scholars offer useful insights, they are greatly limited. Yoon (1997) and Mullenbach and Matthews (2008) conduct hypothesis testing but do not base it on an organizing theory, rather each study compiles a raft of testable hypotheses from the wider literatures on intervention and US politics. Aydin (2012) does devote significant effort to developing an organizing theory but does not directly test it. Finally, most studies of the effects of news media focus on humanitarian interventions rather than civil conflict interventions as a whole; many interventions into civil conflicts are not humanitarian. Consequently, there is need for an explicit, theoretically informed, exploration of the domestic drivers of civil conflict intervention.

In the next section, I briefly review the literatures in foreign policy analysis and public policy process to identify a suitable theoretical framework. I then discuss a framework, punctuated equilibrium theory, that I believe can inform further study.

Foreign Policy Analysis, Policy Process, and Punctuated Equilibrium

The foreign policy analysis (FPA) subfield of international relations is the first place to look for a theoretical framework that explains the generation of states' foreign policy. Where IR scholars have often treated international activity as taking place between states that are unitary actors, FPA is explicitly interested in domestic politics. It holds that all state behavior "is grounded in human decision makers acting singly or in groups" (Hudson 2005, 1) and stresses that the characteristics of such actors are important predictors of states' international behavior. Several productive research programs have been developed in FPA scholarship, including

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⁸ All the paradigmatic approaches to IR focus on unitary actors. See Kaarbo (2015, 192-3) for a discussion of how neorealism (Waltz 2010), neoliberalism (Keohane and Nye 2012), and constructivism (Wendt 2014) determined that the process of foreign policymaking was outside their scope.

poliheuristic theory (Mintz et al. 1997), prospect theory (McDermott 2001), bureaucratic politics (Allison 1969), operational code analysis (Walker 1983), the analogical reasoning approach (Dyson and Preston 2006), and others. However, FPA is eclectic; it contains few theoretical frameworks with sweeping explanations of foreign policy behavior. While FPA was at one time interested in producing a grand theory of comparative foreign policy (Rosenau 1968), no such theory has been realized and FPA has largely moved on to developing middle-range theory (Kaarbo 2003).

This is due to a fundamental difficulty with the study of policymaking: policy creation is complex, it involves many decision makers, and their actions are context dependent. Without falling back on simplifying assumptions, it is difficult to test policy creation hypotheses that do not require a herculean data collection project. Compelling FPA research agendas have been badly undermined by this issue. For example, the decision unit framework (Hermann and Hermann 1989) advanced a promising means of explaining foreign policymaking: it proposed that by identifying the type of actor that makes decisions in a policy area—individual, group, or multiple autonomous actors—scholars could apply the psychological and/or social characteristics appropriate to the actor's study. However, this task would have required significant labor to identify the decision units governing different areas of foreign policymaking, and such work was never undertaken. Subsequent scholarship, in its absence, could not quantify decision units and undertook further research primarily through illustrative case studies. Difficulties with the study of policymaking are not, however, confined to FPA. Scholars of the public policy process have faced similar problems but, due to major data collection efforts, have had significant success.

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⁹ See Volume 3, Number 2 of the *International Studies Review* for its issue on the decision unit framework. Except for Beasley et al. (2001), who use a non-representative sample of 65 instances of decision making regarding various foreign policy issues, all articles focus on theory building and/or rely on illustrative case studies.

Unfortunately, insights from this extensive literature have seldom been applied to research in international relations (Lentner 2006).

Policy Process Frameworks and the Punctuated Equilibrium Theory

Public policy scholars have put forth several organizing frameworks to explain the policy process, including the advocacy coalition framework (ACF), the diffusion of innovations literature (DOI), the institutional analysis and development framework (IAD), the multiple streams framework (MSF), the narrative policy framework (NPF), the punctuated equilibrium theory (PET), the policy feedback theory (PFT), and the social construction framework (SCF) (see Schlager 2007; Nowlin 2011; Cairney and Heikkila 2014; Petridou 2014). All offer insights into the way that policies are selected to address problems. As I noted, however, it is difficult to study the totality of relevant political actors in a policy area. And not all policy process frameworks have seen this work done equally well. Of the eight listed above, PET has been the most consistent source of rigorous large-n empirical scholarship on state-driven policy change. It has had nearly 30 years of empirical and theoretical development and is underpinned by the Comparative Agendas Project (2018), a vast data collection enterprise, which records attention to 21 policy areas and 220 subareas, by executives, legislatures, media, political parties, and interest groups, across 21 countries, 2 US states, and the European Union.

The initial formulation of PET, developed by Frank Baumgartner and Bryan Jones in *Agendas and Instability in American Politics*, endeavors to explain a dynamic in US politics wherein policy change is gradual or non-existent during most periods but, contrary to the

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¹⁰ ACF and MSF have both had a comparable history of active research but have seen considerably less large-n quantitative work and, in ACF's case, less application across diverse issues and national settings. See Jones et al. (2015) and Cairney and Jones (2015) for a discussion of the Multiple Streams Framework and its limitations, and Weible, Sabatier, and McQueen (2009) for a discussion of the Advocacy Coalition Framework.

expectations of then prominent gradualist scholarship (Lindblom 1959), is suddenly and unexpectedly mobilized in others. Baumgartner and Jones (1993/2009) argued that this process arises because most US policy is handled quietly, by issue-oriented policy subsystems, at a level below the attention of macropolitical institutions such as Congress and the presidency. Policy entrepreneurs who are unhappy with the status quo in an issue area can effect change by challenging the policy image—a combination of information and emotional appeals—that is prevalent in public discussion regarding their issue. They can also attempt to move their issue into another policy venue, since the United States is replete with jurisdictional overlap between its levels and branches of government. Using these strategies, policy entrepreneurs can sometimes circumvent a policy subsystem monopolized by one set of actors or policies and bring their preferred policy image to macropolitical attention. When successful, this leads to positive feedback effects and large-scale policy changes.

Jones and Baumgartner subsequently expanded on their research program by introducing the general punctuation hypothesis (Jones and Baumgartner 2005), which generalizes their US model to any arrangement "in which information flows into a policymaking system, and the system, acting on these signals from its environment, attends to the problem and acts to alleviate it" (True, Jones, and Baumgartner 2007, 176). All such systems, they claim, will exhibit patterns of stability and punctuation in their attempts to translate informational inputs into policy outputs. There are two reasons. First, human cognition limits the amount of information that key decision-makers can pay attention to, absorb, and act upon in any policymaking system. Second, formal institutional rules, such as supermajority requirements or multiple veto points, inhibit policy action; this is generally called institutional friction (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003; Baumgartner, Foucault, and François 2006; Baumgartner et al. 2009; Epp 2015; Lam and Chan

2015). Change in policy occurs when gradually building pressure from informational inputs, which is largely neglected, builds to an explosive level that can no longer be ignored, or when, in more dramatic cases, a major event that vividly symbolizes what is wrong with current policy provokes action. Baumgartner et al. (2009) refer to the resulting pattern as stick-slip dynamics and to its cause as disproportionate information processing.

The general punctuation hypothesis, Jones and Baumgartner (2005) claim, predicts that the distribution of changes in policy will be leptokurtic, i.e., the distribution will be characterized by a high concentration of observations around the mean and fatter tails than a normal distribution. If policy change were incremental rather than punctuated, they argue, we would expect policy change to be normally distributed. This is because, in an incremental system of policy change, the degree of change between two periods would be the result of many independent factors, some positive some negative, and—as the Central Limit Theorem holds the combination of large numbers of independent factors is normally distributed. Under incrementalism, then, policy change would be best characterized as a random walk over time. And, since the degrees of policy change that would result from a random walk are also normally distributed, we would expect incrementalism, given these assumptions, to be normally distributed. The general punctuations hypothesis, however, with its emphasis on drastic change, would suggest a greater proportion of very large changes than are found in a normal distribution, and a smaller proportion of medium sized changes, since issue areas in need of policy change are expected to be neglected for extended periods (Robinson et al. 2007). Empirical work on PET tests primarily for evidence of this expectation, using stochastic process methods to determine the kurtosis of change distributions in government policy and, especially, in public budgets.

Baumgartner and Jones's initial applications of PET explained policy change in the United States, and explored civilian nuclear power, pesticides, tobacco policy (Baumgartner and Jones 1993/2009) and the overall federal budget (Jones, Baumgartner, and True 1998). In each case they observed numerous periods of minor change punctuated by a few periods with very large changes. This pattern has been repeatedly corroborated by further study. In the US, scholars have identified punctuated change distributions in the national budget (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003; Jones and Baumgartner 2005; Robinson and Caver 2006), state budgets (Breunig and Koski 2006), local budgets (Jordan 2003; Robinson 2004; Robinson et al. 2007), congressional hearings and lawmaking (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003; Jones and Baumgartner 2005), state lawmaking (Boushey 2012), national executive orders (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003; Jones and Baumgartner 2005), and national regulatory change (Workman, Robinson, and Bark 2017). PET has also been applied to other democracies, including Belgium (Baumgartner et al. 2009; Jones et al. 2009), Canada (Pralle 2003; Jones et al. 2009), Denmark (Mortensen 2005; Green-Pedersen and Wilkerson 2006; Baumgartner et al. 2009; Jones et al. 2009; Breunig, Koski, and Mortensen 2010), France (Baumgartner, Foucault, and François 2006; Jones et al. 2009), Germany (Jones et al. 2009), and the UK (John and Margetts 2003; Jones et al. 2009; John and Jennings 2010; John et al. 2013), as well as to the European Union (Baumgartner, Foucault, and François 2012). Recent scholarship has also, increasingly used PET to explain policy change in autocracies and mixed regimes (Lam and Chan 2015; Chan and Zhao 2016; Baumgartner et al. 2017). In each case, results show that policy change exhibits the leptokurtic distributions expected by PET.

Insights from Punctuated Equilibrium Theory

So, how does punctuated equilibrium theory inform the study of civil conflict intervention? The first and most straightforward insight is that third-party governments' policies towards civil conflicts will follow the same pattern as policy activity in other domains. There will be long periods of equilibrium punctuated by brief periods of change; civil conflicts will grab headlines and dominate the schedules of public officials when they were virtually ignored only months before. Empirically, all civil conflict related policy outputs should have leptokurtic distributions of change. These outputs should become increasingly punctuated as they reach higher stages of policymaking. PET scholars have repeatedly observed that the outputs of actors which are closer to the production of policy have greater kurtosis (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003; Baumgartner et al. 2009; Lam and Chan 2015). For example, the outputs of news media are leptokurtic, but congressional hearings are more leptokurtic, and changes in public budgets exhibit greater kurtosis still. Lam and Chan (2015) argue that this is because the outputs at higher stages of policymaking require greater coordination and are inhibited by greater levels of institutional friction, i.e., it is much easier to publish news stories or hold hearings than it is to pass budgets.

Second, a punctuation in the outputs of actors at lower stages of policymaking will likely lead to a punctuation in the outputs of actors at higher stages. This is not a frequent argument in the literature though it is made sometimes, as for example by Lam and Chan (2015). Hypothetically, any actor may take notice of informational inputs that pass a threshold level of salience. However, the actors at the lower stages will be more likely to react due to their lower costs of action and the lower demands exerted on their attention. The action of the lower level actors then provides further signals to senior policymakers about, in this case, the humanitarian

suffering, security risk, or spoils opportunities of a civil conflict, increasing their attention to it and the likelihood of intervention.

The PET literature also contains several more specific claims about the effects of news media. Boydstun, Hardy, and Walgrave (2014) refine the measurement of these effects by showing that periods of sudden, high, and sustained media coverage of a topic, which they call "media storms," have outsize effects on public awareness and perception of issues. Walgrave et al. (2017) further observe that media storms in US news outlets directly increase the number of US Congressional hearings. An alternate argument within the PET literature (Wolfe 2012), however, is that news media can "put the brakes" on policy change by mobilizing the attention of coalitions who do not want an issue to be addressed. Thus, increased news media attention to a civil conflict could decrease rather than increase the likelihood of intervention.

Attention to civil conflicts may also be driven by domestic circumstances which focus policymakers' time towards other pressing issues—such as elections or economic downturns, and here PET scholarship offers a third insight. It would expect attention to be subject to crowding effects; since attention is a limited resource, attention paid to one issue cannot be paid to others. Jennings et al. (2011) provide an explanation of this process. They argue that policymaker attention is dominated by the core functions of government—defense, international affairs, the economy, government operations, and the rule of law—but that the salience of the core functions varies over time. At some times, one or more of the core functions of government are highly salient and crowd out other issues, at other times they are not, and attention is more diverse. I would interpret Jennings et al.'s argument to suggest that states are less likely to intervene in civil conflicts when public attention is dominated by the core functions of government.

Finally, though senior policymakers in a potential third-party intervener can be, and often are, keenly attentive to developments in an ongoing civil conflict and desire to act, they may still choose to do nothing. The findings of the intervention literature are instructive in this regard; many factors come into play in intervention decisions. A potential intervener may not have an opportunity to intervene effectively if it is far away or is unwilling to antagonize a powerful conflict state.

Research Goals, Methods, and Outline

The purpose of the preceding literature review has been to identify the limitations of scholarship on civil conflict intervention, and to show that PET is a promising theoretical framework for addressing them. In summary, I argued that the effect of domestic political processes on civil conflict intervention has been under-explored, and I proposed that investigating domestic information processing could help explain why we observe heterogenous intervention behavior from third-party interveners. My goal in this dissertation is to determine empirically whether the attention of senior policymakers explains third-party states' intervention in civil conflicts, and to identify what motivates policymakers to pay attention to some conflicts but not others.

As I discussed in the preceding section, considering international behavior from a policy change perspective is fundamentally difficult and imposes a steep empirical burden. There is an overwhelming volume of information to know about a variety of actors and the contingent nature of their behavior. Thus, the first step towards satisfying the goals of this project is to identify a set of policymakers that is narrow enough to be manageable, while also being informative about the domestic policy processes that drive third-party intervention in civil conflicts. This section

identifies a set of policymakers—the United States Congress—and presents a research methodology and operationalization of its attention that allows me to test my hypotheses.

Finding a Manageable Set of Policymakers

PET literature often focuses on budgetary or similarly narrow changes in specific organizations (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003; Breunig and Koski 2006; Robinson et al. 2007), single countries (Jones and Baumgartner 2005; John and Bevan 2012; Baumgartner and Jones 2015), or, since the development of the Comparative Agendas Project, small numbers of countries (Baumgartner et al. 2009; Jones et al. 2009; Jennings et al. 2011). There are good reasons for this. PET proposes a complicated policymaking process, with relevant actors scattered across multiple organs of state, and with different issue areas having different sets of relevant actors. Making cross-national comparisons is not straightforward and, while doing so would be worthwhile in understanding third-party interventions, it is beyond the capacity of a dissertation project to accomplish. Consequently, I focus on a single country, the United States, and use a subset of the policymakers who are responsible for choosing which foreign civil conflicts it selects for intervention, US Congresspersons. While this represents a considerable reduction in the breadth of actors and cases available for analysis, it is also the best practical proxy of policymaker attention if my analysis is to be constrained to one country and one set of actors.

The United States has the capability to intervene in any country in the international system, which makes every extant civil conflict an intervention opportunity for it. Consequently, since 1945, the United States has been the most frequent intervener in civil conflicts; of the 1036 cases of intervention identified in Regan's (2002) third-party intervention dataset, 244 were

undertaken by the United States. This provides considerable variability for the key dependent variable. Another advantage of focusing on the United States is that the US government keeps detailed public records of its policymakers' actions and that these records have already been transformed into manipulable data¹¹—this greatly facilitates my data collection. A final benefit of focusing on the United States is that it allows me to make explicit comparisons with previous research. In both the civil war intervention literature and the PET literature, research that is not broadly cross-national focuses on the United States more frequently than any other country. Constraining my analysis to the United States, therefore, gives this dissertation project many relevant cases and broad comparability to earlier studies without imposing onerous data collection demands.

Research Methods and Data Collection

I use primarily large-n quantitative statistical methods, but the complexity of the policy-making process requires some recourse to more textured analysis as well. This dissertation, therefore, introduces its data alongside a short case study before moving to a two-part quantitative analysis of attention and intervention in foreign civil conflicts.

I measure US attention to foreign civil conflicts, which serves alternately as a dependent and independent variable, by quantifying the amount of discussion of them in the US Congress. To do so, I transform Gentzkow, Shapiro, and Taddy's (2017) full text congressional speech data into an operational measure of congressional attention. I use simple keywords in context searches to identify when a conflict is being discussed and then count the number of speeches in each month that mention each conflict. I quantify media attention, which serves as an independent

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¹¹ Prior scholars have digitized to the *Congressional Record* using automated coding in Python (Shaffer 2017) and R (Shoub 2018, Gentzkow, Shapiro, and Taddy 2017). Each article provides detailed information on methodology.

variable in both quantitative chapters, by title searching *New York Times*, *Wall Street Journal*, and *Washington Post* articles in the *ProQuest Historical Newspapers* database. I then hand count the number of stories in each month that mention each conflict. I explain my rationale for using these data sources in detail in Chapter 2.

Chapter Outline

The preceding discussion has focused on three issues: (1) the limitations of IR literature in explaining the causes of intervention; (2) the utility of punctuated equilibrium theory, which explains state decision-making as a series of micro-level processes, for explaining intervention decisions; and (3), since PET is a positive theory, its empirical predictions and the methods I will use to test them. In summary, I will address the domestic politics gap in the civil war intervention literature by quantitatively identifying the determinants of policymaker attention to foreign civil conflicts and the degree to which it drives state intervention decisions. I will do so in the four subsequent chapters:

In chapter 2, I introduce the data that I have collected about US policymaker and media attention to foreign civil conflicts. I describe in detail my data sources and coding methodology, present descriptive statistics and visualizations of the collected data, and use the dataset in a short case study that traces the development of the Somali Civil War and how events in the conflict generated US news coverage, congressional speeches, and intervention decisions.

In chapter 3, I conduct a quantitative study that explains US policymaker attention to foreign civil conflicts. First, I use stochastic process methods to examine the distribution of change in policymaker attention to foreign civil conflicts. I then use regression analysis to determine whether media attention and media storms increase the amount of congressional

attention that is paid to civil conflicts, and whether agenda crowding decreases it. In chapter 4, I use survival modeling to test whether US congressional and media attention increase the likelihood of US intervention in foreign civil conflicts, while controlling for other common explanations within the intervention literature.

In the fifth and final chapter, I summarize my findings, discuss the empirical support that each of my arguments has received, and discuss the dissertation's ultimate contribution to the civil war and punctuated equilibrium literatures.

CHAPTER 2

Measuring Congressional and Newspaper Attention to Civil Conflicts

In this chapter I present a new dataset which quantifies the attention that US policymakers and media outlets pay to foreign civil conflicts. Specifically, it counts the monthly number of times each war-level conflict recorded in the UCDP/PRIO Armed Conflict Dataset is mentioned in House and Senate floor speeches, and it counts the monthly number of stories about each conflict that were published by the *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, and *Wall Street Journal*. Below, I describe my data sources and coding methodology, present descriptive statistics for the collected data, and use the dataset in a short case study that traces the development of the Somali Civil War and how events in the conflict generated US news coverage, congressional speeches, and intervention decisions.

First, it is necessary to restate what these counts are intended to measure. Punctuated Equilibrium Theory (PET) (Baumgartner and Jones 1993/2009) holds that senior policymakers' responses to problems are driven by disproportionate information processing. They inevitably leave most issues—foreign civil conflicts in this case—to be handled at lower levels of policymaking while they pursue their specific priorities. Policy action, in these low salience areas, is characterized by stasis and bureaucratic inertia until a major event, often one driven by the accretion of minor events, demands attention. My aim is to identify when a civil conflict is being largely ignored and when it has captured senior policymakers' attention.

Data Collection, Congressional Speeches

Congressional attention, as measured by monthly Congressional speeches, is not itself a direct cause of US intervention in foreign civil conflicts. Congress has less control of foreign policy than the President or the bureaucracy. But Congress, the President, and the political appointees in the State Department consume similar information and are attentive to a similar agenda. Congressional attention is, therefore, meant to be a proxy of the attention of these actors, which, throughout this dissertation, I refer to as senior policymaker attention. Admittedly, as a matter of practicality, it is impossible to directly measure attention; the cognitive processes governing what policymakers notice and do not notice is not available to scholars. This is true of all actors, including Congress. The reason that I measure Congressional speeches rather than the statements of actors that more directly affect foreign policy is that Congress's public statements are a more useful proxy of attention due to their greater volume and regularity. Congresspersons speak consistently and at great length every day that Congress is in session.

By comparison, the President and senior foreign policy bureaucracy speak infrequently. At an earlier stage in this research project, I used documents from the American Presidency Project to code monthly Presidential statements regarding ongoing civil conflicts. Presidential statements are not made at a consistent interval, and they follow patterns that vary by president. For example, Ronald Reagan mentioned the troubles in Northern Ireland on every St. Patrick's Day of his presidency. He did not otherwise mention the conflict frequently in public and no other President commented on the Northern Ireland conflict in the same way. The frequency at which individual political appointees make public statements is similarly limited. Actors at lower levels of the foreign policy bureaucracy, which Baumgartner and Jones (1993/2009) would

consider a part of relatively more static issue-oriented policy subsystems, are also less suited to analysis as they are less likely to directly affect changes in policy.

Though Congressional speeches are not a standard measure of attention in PET scholarship, there is precedent for it via similar measures within the literature. PET scholarship has tended to focus on budgets, from US national, state, and local ones (Jones, Baumgartner, and True 1998; Robinson and Caver 2006, Breunig and Koski 2006; Jordan 2003) to those in other developed democracies (John and Margetts 2003, Baumgartner, Foucault, and François 2006, Jones et al. 2009), to those in developing (Baumgartner et al. 2017) and authoritarian countries (Chan and Zhao 2016), but some research has applied the PET framework quite broadly. Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen (2003) investigate 15 diverse datasets for punctuated processes of change, ranging from US executive orders to Dow-Jones Industrial Average returns.

But, more relevantly, this broad-ranging strand within the PET literature has frequently included US Congressional hearings among its measures (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003; Jones and Baumgartner 2005; Green-Pedersen and Wilkerson 2006; Baumgartner et al. 2009; Hegelich, Fraune, and Knollmann 2015). Congressional hearings are importantly different from Congressional speeches, as they are formally organized and attend to a specific issue, but they are also fundamentally similar in that they capture US Congresspersons' verbal attention. I prefer Congressional speeches due to the narrow issue focus of this project and more complete availability of data. Most PET scholarship concerns change in attention across the broad policy areas categorized as 'major topics' by the Comparative Agendas Project (CAP), e.g. health, social welfare, defense. That is an appropriate choice for such studies; congressional hearings fit well within the CAP's broad topic areas. Congressional hearings are less suited to an issue as

¹² The Comparative Agendas Project captures both committee and subcommittee hearings.

narrow as civil conflicts, however. As with presidential statements, I investigated congressional hearings in an earlier stage of this project, via the *ProQuest Congressional* database. ¹³ I found that hearings about single foreign civil conflicts were quite rare, limiting variability in the data. Another issue with hearings, which I discuss further in the agenda crowding subsection of chapter 3, is that they are frequently unpublished and not publicly available, owing to sensitive or classified content, or simply because the chair chose not to have a hearing published. Committees do not need to justify a decision not to publish, and hearings often remain unpublished for several decades after they are held.

Ideally, an investigation of US policymaker attention to foreign civil conflicts would incorporate multiple government institutions and a broad range of activities—Congressional hearings, Congressional subcommittee meetings, Presidential statements, Presidential State of the Union speeches, and reporting within the State Department—in addition to Congressional hearings. But that is beyond the capacity of this data collection effort. Given the limitations of other measures, Congressional speeches are the best available proxy of senior policymaker attention.

Coding Process

Both houses of Congress keep a detailed official account of their proceedings via the *Congressional Record*. It contains the full text of every debate and procedure that takes place while congress is in session. It also contains extensions of speeches, witness testimony, or outside publications which, though not stated in full on the floor of Congress, are read into the record at the request of Congresspersons. The United States Government Publishing Office

¹³ ProQuest Congressional also captures both committee and subcommittee hearings.

publishes these documents daily while congress is in session and, at the end of each session of Congress, collects, edits, re-paginates, and indexes the daily publications into the *Congressional Record Bound Edition*. The Bound Edition is currently available from 1873 through 2016.

Although the *Congressional Record* has been digitized into searchable pdf files, its sheer volume would make it unmanageable to code without computer automation. Gentzkow, Shapiro, and Taddy (2017) have, however, produced a machine searchable corpus of the *Congressional Record Daily and Bound Editions*, 1873 through 2017. Using optical character recognition with HeinOnline scans of the print volumes, they create a series of plain text speech and metadata files. Their text processing procedure sorts each speech into its own observation using the *Congressional Record*'s standardized identification of each new speaker to determine when one speech ends, and the next speech begins. It also standardizes punctuation and whitespace and removes non-speech text, i.e., headers, footers, section headings, etc.

To transform Gentzkow, Shapiro, and Taddy's (2017) data—which consists of *millions* of observations of full text Congressional speeches¹⁴—into an operational measure of congressional attention, I use a simple method based on keywords in context searches to identify when a conflict is being discussed. I then count the number of speeches in each month that mention each conflict. To do this, I use the R software environment's Quantitative Processing of Textual Data package, or quanteda (Benoit et al. 2018). The process is conducted one conflict at a time in four steps:

First, I specify the date range of each conflict, as identified by the ACD, and remove all speeches that do not fall within the it. Second, I conduct a keywords in context search for the name of the country or region in which the conflict took place. For country names, I search for

¹⁴ The data contains 8,174,069 unique Congressional speeches between 1945 and 2000.

each name specified in Hensel's ICOW Historical State Names Data Set. So, for example, I search for both Burma and Myanmar. For conflicts over specific regions, I use the territory name specified in the ACD. I specify each search so that it will also capture the demonym of a country or region, i.e., Burman, Burmese, and Myanmarese. For countries, these are listed in Hensel's data. For regions, I use my best judgment based on the conflict descriptions in the UCDP's online database. The keyword searches return one observation each time a conflict/region is mentioned in a Congressional speech and record the 20 words that appear before the keyword and 20 words that appear after it.

Third, I use R's regular expressions functions to check whether each observation's set of 40 adjacent words contains a conflict keyword—conflict, war, refugee, guerilla, killing, fighting, rebel, violence, strife, devastation, crisis, chaos, peacekeeper, or intervention. I specify alternate characters and allow multiple endings for each keyword to ensure that plural forms and other suffixes are captured, e.g., crisis, crises, and peacekeeper, peacekeepers, peacekeeping. I also, where necessary, require whitespace before or after keywords to prevent unwanted words from being captured, i.e. I want to capture war, wars, and warfare, but not warm, award, or software. If an observation does not contain any of the specified conflict keywords, it is removed.

Fourth, I survey the remaining observations for each conflict to ensure that they are not systematically including any noise which they should not be. In some cases, this catches false drops that are straightforward to address. Some examples: the country/region search term for "India" frequently captures the state "Indiana", the "Naga" search term for India's Nagaland conflict occasionally captures "Nagasaki", and the search term for Myanmar's "Kachin" conflict occasionally returns mentions of "Kachina dolls". In each case, I specify a search exception for the term that is captured by the false drop. In other cases, the pattern of false drops is ambiguous

and requires careful judgment. The keyword "crisis" captures relevant speeches in some cases, i.e., a refugee crisis, but in other cases captures fiscal or currency crises—which it does, for example, during Argentina's Peronist conflicts. If, on balance, it seems that a conflict keyword is capturing more noise than it does signal, I exclude it from the regular expressions function. In yet other cases, the pattern of false drops is clear but laborious to exclude. The civil conflicts in Chad and the Karen region of Myanmar, for example, cannot be distinguished from personal given names in an automated way. It was necessary for me to view the results of these searches to identify and remove the obvious false drops manually. I document issues with the searches for each conflict, my solutions, and the reasoning for them in the Appendix 1.

Finally, each conflict's speech observations are appended and transformed into a monthly count. In cases where a conflict is mentioned many times within a single speech, I collapse all observations from the speech into a single observation before performing the count. The final Congressional attention variable is a count, by conflict month, of the number of discrete Congressional speeches in which the relevant country or region is mentioned in the context of conflict.

Admittedly, this coding method has some drawbacks. It does not distinguish between brief mentions and long speeches. A single sentence statement and a long pre-planned presentation are both counted as one speech. There is no straightforward way to account for this: given that conflicts are often raised as component topics within longer orations, or mentioned in lists, speeches cannot be weighted by length. Additionally, it does not capture the valence of speeches; Congresspersons could, for example, mention a conflict because they are arguing against intervention in it. While this a potential concern, it seems to occur very infrequently in practice. Having read thousands of speeches in the process of data collection, the only time I

observed comments of this nature were in discussions of the Yugoslav wars, when congresspersons occasionally accused the Clinton administration of hypocrisy due to its lack of interest in the Rwandan conflict. Finally, this approach collapses detailed and textured data into a much lower fidelity measure; though Gentzkow, Shapiro, and Taddy collect chamber, date, speaker, word count, and other metadata I do not incorporate this information or any of the texture and detail of the speeches themselves into the final data due to the sheer volume of speeches and the scope of this project.

Data Collection, Media Coverage

I collect data on news media coverage to test whether the United States is more likely to intervene in a civil conflict if the conflict involves substantial policy activity at lower levels.

Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen (2003) identify news media as the political institution at the lowest stage of the policy process, for whom changes in attention are easy and inexpensive relative to actors at higher stages. News media are, thus, the best institution to investigate to find strong evidence of this.

The convention in PET research is to measure media coverage via *New York Times* stories (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003; Jones and Baumgartner 2005; Jones et al. 2009; Walgrave et al. 2017). This is also a common tack in adjacent literatures, such as the communications scholarship on agenda setting (see Walgrave and Van Aelst 2006 for a meta-analysis). Counts or transformations of *New York Times* stories are also conventional measures of media coverage in the civil conflict and humanitarian intervention literature itself. Peksen, Peterson, and Drury (2014) count the number of *New York Times* articles concerning human rights, Regan (2000b) counts the number of column inches about civil conflict countries in the

New York Times Index, Bell, Frank, and Macharia (2013) count the difference between the number of times a civil conflict country appeared in *New York Times* headlines and the number of times it appeared in the preceding year's headlines.

There are, of course, many media outlets—print, radio, television, and online at the local, national, and international levels—and several, beyond the *New York Times*, are represented in policy and international relations scholarship. Literature on the "CNN effect", for example, relies, as one might expect, on measures of CNN coverage (Livingston 1997; P. Robinson 2000). Other scholarship quantifies media coverage by the major US networks' evening news broadcasts (Wood and Peake 1998; Edwards and Wood 1999; Knecht and Weatherford 2006), international print coverage (Balabanova 2010), or alternate domestic print outlets (Peksen, Peterson, and Drury 2014; they use *Newsweek* as well as *NYT*).

Following prior research, I collect data on *New York Times* stories, but I also collect data from the *Washington Post* and *Wall Street Journal*. Rationale for using the *New York Times*—that it is well resourced, has consistent global coverage, uses international wire services, and is a paper of record apply to these newspapers as well. Importantly, these papers span multiple political perspectives and have different areas of interest in covering international affairs that are likely also reflected among their policymaker readerships. *Wall Street Journal* coverage of the Cuban Revolution, for example, was more attentive to US business interests in Cuba and shocks to sugar commodity prices than in specific episodes of political violence, as was the New York Times. Finally, as explained below, available databases make it feasible to collect *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, *Wall Street Journal* data in tandem without substantial additional time constraints.

¹⁵ These reasons are given by Bell, Frank, and Macharia (2013)

Coding Process

To quantify news media coverage of conflicts, I used the *ProQuest Historical*Newspapers databases for the New York Times, Wall Street Journal, and Washington Post.

Records from each database are available in full text from the 1800s through the early 2000s, with the New York Times available through 2018. The full text of articles can be as brief as a few sentences or as long as several pages, but they usually consist of multiple paragraphs on a single page. Since the databases are not straightforwardly amenable to automated coding methods, I coded them by hand using search keywords and recordkeeping processes that I will describe below. But, for context, I will first describe the tools and information that ProQuest makes available.

Searches of *ProQuest Historical Newspapers* return a results page that displays metadata for each news story and links to pdf images of each story. The metadata includes the title of the news story, sometimes including a subtitle, but sometimes including only the title of a long-running column. For example, the *New York Times* has a column called "Around the World", which is sometimes listed without any further subtitle. The metadata also include the articles' date, author, and an excerpt of up to three lines of from its body, usually lines that contain one or more search terms. In many cases, though, no author or lines from the full text are displayed. Finally, words in an article's title or body metadata which match the search terms are highlighted but words in the full text pdf image usually are not.

Consequently, due to the way ProQuest's search tools differ from my *Congressional*Record search procedure, I did not use keywords in context searches to find the relevant content.

While ProQuest makes a search operator of this type available, ¹⁶ the way that it presents results

¹⁶ The operator for this is NEAR/x, where "x" is the number of words to the left and right of a search term that ProQuest is instructed to check.

makes the operator difficult to work with. I coded close to half of the relevant civil conflicts using full text keywords in context searches and found that, frequently, the search results they returned did not provide enough information to reasonably conclude whether each news story concerned the relevant conflict or was returned as a false drop. Often, the searches returned articles with ambiguous titles, no excerpted body text, and no highlighted search terms. Though I could, in principle, verify each article by reading its full text, doing so is onerously time consuming. ProQuest does not reliably display where in each article a country/region keyword is found or what conflict term it is adjacent to. It highlights some conflict keywords in the full text pdfs, i.e., it highlights "war" but does not highlight "guerilla", and only does so for articles published after 1990. Keywords in context searches are, therefore, untenable for data collection at this scale, despite the unfortunate loss of consistency in coding procedures.

I therefore replaced the keywords in context searches with title searches, the most similar feasible alternative. As with the congressional searches, I searched country and region names and a vector of conflict keywords. For conflicts fought over control of government at a national level I searched for country and demonym keywords in article titles and searched for conflict keywords in the body of articles. Searches are more complicated for conflicts fought at a regional level; because newspapers cannot expect their readerships to know where smaller regional conflicts are, they tend use region names in article titles less frequently. For region keywords, therefore, I used a more complicated search pattern. I specified for ProQuest to search simultaneously for two different patterns: 1.) a region keyword in the title, a country keyword in the body, and a conflict keyword in the body. This captures regional conflicts

whether or not newspapers consider them well-known enough to state the name of the subnational region in the article title.

The results returned by the two search methods are not identical. Though a majority of the stories captured by the title searches overlap with those returned by the keywords in context searches, each method retrieves both relevant and irrelevant articles that the other method does not. Two examples of the types of articles lost by switching to title searches are as follows: 1.) Searches for the Nagaland conflict in India, using the search term "Naga", captured several articles about "Betting Odds for Atlantic City Horse Racing"—one of the horses was named Naga and another horse, with its odds listed within 20 words adjacent to Naga, was named "War Copper". The title search for the Nagaland conflict removes these false drops since the word Naga does not appear in any of the article titles. On the other hand, some clearly relevant articles are lost. Keywords in context searches for the Biafran Conflict in Nigeria returned multiple fullpage ads which the Nigerian consulate took out in the New York Times to explain its position to the American public. Because ProQuest only titles these ads as "Display Ad 58 – No Title", title searches do not retrieve them. In aggregate, though, the two search methods are not substantially different. The Pearson's correlation of the counts generated by keywords in context searches and title searches is 0.926.¹⁷

As with congressional searches, I surveyed the results to ensure that searches were not systematically including noise which they should not be. 18 Because of the high volume of news stories and the wider scope of a newspaper's concerns, it is much more common for these searches to return non- or loosely relevant results. Most of the conflict terms have the potential to capture some pattern of non-conflict event. The keyword "killing", for example, frequently

¹⁷ The subset of conflict-months for which I conducted keywords in conflict searches is 4,761 months out of 12,919.

¹⁸ Due to the vast scale of this task, I was helped by an assistant in surveying and coding these searches.

captures plane crashes because plane crash stories tend to be reported with a country name in the title and some form of "killing X people" in the full text. Similarly, the word "crisis" captures currency crises, debt crises, and the Iran Hostage Crisis as well as civil conflict-related coup, refugee, and humanitarian crises.

To ensure that this research is replicable and transparent, I did not exclude false drops from the count of news stories at the hand coding stage. Instead, when I identified a systematic pattern of non-relevant stories, I changed the search terms to exclude them. Returning to the above examples, I did not attempt to exclude stories about plane crashes. Most such incidents only appear in the search results once and, taken as a group, do not drastically change the magnitude or timing of coverage that is captured by any search. Some crises, however, do systematically affect coverage. The conflict between the Mujahedin-e-Khalq (MEK) ¹⁹ and Iranian government, Dec 1979-1982, is vastly overshadowed by the Iran Hostage Crisis. Most search results would capture stories unrelated to the conflict—and considerably inflate the count of stories—if I did not remove them.

How to change the search terms, though, is not obvious. Removing the term "crisis" from the MEK conflict search, for example, is not sufficient to eliminate all its false drops. In each case where this issue arises I, therefore, examine several alternate sets of search terms and judge which of them captures the most signal and eliminates the most noise. For the 1979-1982 MEK conflict, the set of search terms which captures the greatest number of stories that explicitly concern MEK while minimizing the number of stories about US-Iranian conflict includes three additional search terms, "Mujahideen", "leftist", or "Marxist", and excludes the term "hostage." However, even with these amendments, the 1979-1982 MEK search has a relatively lower

¹⁹ MEK was, during this period, a revolutionary Marxist as well as Islamist organization which carried out bombings and assassinations against Khomeini's government.

fidelity than those of other conflicts in my data. I therefore take the further step of flagging it as a high noise conflict, so that it can be differentiated in quantitative analysis. News story search keywords for each conflict, exceptions to the standard keywords, and flags for high noise conflicts, are recorded in the Appendix 2.

Case Selection, Which Conflicts?

Considerable time and effort have been devoted to the identification of cases of civil conflict and what criteria scholars should use to distinguish them from other types of political violence, such as terrorism, politicide, organized crime, inter-communal violence, and interstate war. Small and Singer (1982), the founders of the Correlates of War (CoW) Project, defined wars in terms of their participants and level of violence. A civil war, in their definition, occurs between the state and a group within its borders, involves sustained conflict between organized armed groups, and passes a threshold of 1000 battle-related fatalities. Contributors to the Correlates of War Project (Sarkees and Shafer 2000; Sarkees and Wayman 2010), have subsequently refined and improved upon this definition, as have other scholars of civil conflict (Regan 1996; Doyle and Sambanis 2000; Sambanis 2004) and, in particular, the contributors to the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (Gleditsch et al. 2002; Pettersson et al. 2021).

However, there are several thorny issues which complicate the use of any operational definition of civil conflict. Sambanis contends that "it is not possible to arrive at an operational definition of civil war without adopting some ad hoc way of distinguishing it from other forms of armed conflict" (2004, 815). He identifies four operational issues which scholars have been trying to address since the CoW Project's initial definition. First, it can be difficult to determine the 'stateness' of civil conflict's participants; in cases such as Somalia no party can legitimately

claim to be the state or, in cases such as Sudan, the government outsources fighting to militias and does not directly participate in combat. Second, it is not clear what level of organized resistance is necessary for a civil conflict to be distinguished from one-sided state violence. Third, even without considering problems with unreliable reporting of battle-related fatalities, fatality thresholds will always exclude some ambiguous cases while including others based on inherently ad hoc criteria. Fourth, given that fighting in civil conflicts can pause for extended periods without a formal settlement, it is not straightforward to distinguish the end of a civil conflict from a protracted lull in combat operations. There is no one way to address these issues that is clearly correct.

In this dissertation, I use the list of civil conflicts created for the UCDP/PRIO Armed Conflict Dataset Version 19.1 (the ACD).²⁰ They define internal conflict²¹ as "a contested incompatibility that concerns government and/or territory where the use of armed force between two parties [...] results in at least 25 battle-related deaths in a calendar year" and where one side is a government, i.e. it controls the capital of the state, and the other side is one or more rebel groups (Pettersson et al. 2021). The ACD further distinguishes between internal conflicts and internationalized internal conflicts, which involve at least one foreign government's troops—and I include both types here. This internal conflict definition is importantly organized by two-party dyad and by incompatibility, not by conflict country. It focuses on conflict actors, and

²⁰ Version 19.1 was current at the time I began data collection from the *Congressional Record*; the newest version of the ACD is 21.1. Though there are numerous changes between versions, most of them were made to observations outside the scope of this project—after 1999, to interstate conflicts, or to civil conflicts that never reached 1000 battle deaths. Only three sets of changes affected relevant data: six conflicts saw changes to the names of their rebel faction (SideB), the 1992 Tajikistan conflict was changed from an internal war to an internationalized internal war, and the 1992 Croatian conflict had its intensity level raised from 25-999 battle deaths to 1000 battle deaths. None of these changes alter my conflict case selection and only one, the change to Croatia's intensity level, affects a variable that I use for quantitative analysis—and I have corrected for it.

²¹ The ACD language changed from "internal" conflict in version 19.1 to "intrastate" conflict in version 21.1; I use the common use words "civil conflict" interchangeably with these technical terms.

UCDP/PRIO goes to great effort to identify each participant in a conflict, though this can be difficult in some cases.

A civil conflict may involve many organizationally distinct rebel groups. The Syrian Civil War, for example, was judged by some observers to have seen the formation of as many as 6,000 distinct armed groups (Carter Center 2014). The ACD conceptualizes such multifarious groups by incompatibility, which can concern government or territory or both. A country can only have one incompatibility over government each year—all rebel groups that seek to oust the sitting government from power belong to this incompatibility. But a country can have multiple incompatibilities over territory if different rebel groups advocate the secession of different regions. So, returning to the example of Syria, the ACD does not specify a dyad between the government and each rebel group, it specifies four: 1.) Incompatibility over government with Syrian insurgents, the coalition of groups initially termed the Free Syrian Army;²² 2.)

Incompatibility over territory with the Islamic State, which aimed to unify Syria with its holdings in Iraq; 3.) Incompatibility over territory with the Democratic Union Party (PYD) over Rojava Kurdistan; and 4.) Incompatibility with the Syrian Democratic Forces (SDF) over Rojava Kurdistan and adjacent territories.

To maintain analytical continuity while recognizing that there are often prolonged lulls in fighting in civil conflicts, the ACD identifies conflict *episodes* as well as conflicts. For each incompatibility—which, again, to be included, must at some point provoke 25 battle deaths—the ACD specifies a conflict start date that, as precisely as possible, identifies the first battle death. Episodes within each conflict are then identified by the date when fighting first exceeds 25

²² In a rare instance, the ACD is unable to disentangle these groups and terms this faction as "Syrian insurgents."

yearly battle deaths and continue for each year that 25 additional battle deaths are sustained.²³ Conflict over a given incompatibility can pause for decades but, if new fighting concerns the same incompatibility, it is recorded as a new episode rather than a new conflict. The ACD also tracks the intensity of each conflict—whether, in a given year, it surpasses the 1000 battle-related fatality threshold and whether, by the end of that year, the cumulative total of battle deaths since the start date of the conflict has reached 1000. For this dissertation project, to make the best use of limited coding resources, my case selection does not include ACD conflicts which never surpassed the cumulative 1000 death threshold. These short or very low intensity conflicts are less likely to capture the attention dynamics of interest to this project.

I differ from the ACD in adopting Regan's (2002) unit of analysis, conflict months. While most civil conflict research uses yearly data, months are the level of analysis most appropriate to this project. Investigating either intervention or policy-maker attention at a level larger than months collapses too much of the available data. On the other hand, investigating them at a daily level of analysis would treat the available civil conflict and intervention data as having a level of detail that is frequently unavailable. The start dates and end dates of conflicts are often ambiguous as are the dates of interventions. Using daily data would also eliminate most of the variation in policy-maker attention, since the modal amount of daily public commentary on any civil conflict is, reliably, no commentary. Conceptually, then, this choice treats each month of foreign civil conflict as an intervention opportunity for the United States and as a subject for the aggregate attention and public commentary of US policymakers.

²³ There are limitations to this method: it will record an observation if there are 15 fatalities in November and 15 in December but fail to record an observation if there are 15 fatalities in December and 15 in the following January.

Descriptive Statistics and Patterns

The collected data contains 12,919 conflict-month observations across 97 conflicts and 210 conflict episodes. It covers conflicts in 65 countries, most of which fought internal wars concerning a single incompatibility. A handful of large and ethnically fragmented countries, however, saw several incompatibilities. India had 6 incompatibilities, the most, while Ethiopia had 4, Indonesia had 5, Myanmar had 5, and Russia/the USSR had 4. The Indian government, for example, fought for control of government against a Maoist insurgency, for control of its northeast territories against Naga, Assamese, and Manipuri independence movements, for control of Punjab/Khalistan against Sikh separatists, for control of Kashmir against the Jammu Kashmir Liberation Front (JKLF), and for control of Hyderabad against the Nizam of Hyderabad. One should note that these numbers only include incompatibilities which reached 1,000 cumulative battle deaths; India and several other conflict countries saw additional incompatibilities at lower levels of violence.

Figure 2-1 shows the number of ongoing conflicts across the period of study, 1946-1999. At the beginning of the post-war period the number of ongoing conflicts was relatively low, in the low teens or single digits. The number began increasing precipitously during 1960s decolonization,²⁴ continued increasing through the late 1970s, and then held steady at a number between 30 and 40 ongoing civil conflicts from 1980 to 1999. This increase in the number of ongoing civil conflicts does not reflect a large increase in the number of conflict onsets, but rather the accumulation of long intractable conflicts over time.²⁵ Figure 2-2 shows the number of

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²⁴ The ACD v19.1 classifies wars between colonial powers and their dependencies as "extrasystemic" rather than internal wars. These extrasystemic wars frequently continue as internal wars after a colony attains independence as in Angola or East Timor, which partly explains the apparent increase in ongoing conflicts in the 1960s and 1970s.

²⁵ This pattern has long been known (Fearon and Laitin 2003).

conflict initiations 1946-1999. Though the 1990s did see an increase in the frequency of conflict onset, there is not a drastic change in onsets at any point in the data.

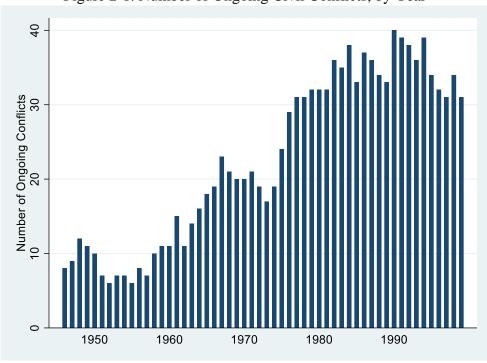
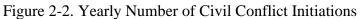
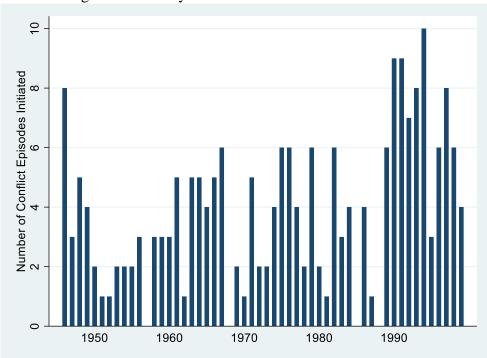


Figure 2-1. Number of Ongoing Civil Conflicts, by Year





The total number of Congressional speeches mentioning these conflicts was 26,886 and the total number of *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, and *Wall Street Journal* stories about them was 110,245. As shown in Figures 2-3 and 2-4, which indicate yearly Congressional and media conflict mentions 1946-1999, respectively, these indicators are quite noisy. Both, however, increase steadily from their low points in 1946 to their high points in the mid-1980s. This tracks loosely with the increasing number of ongoing civil conflicts, but the correspondence is not consistent.

Figure 2-5 overlays these time series to indicate their scale. As one would expect, there is always more US news coverage of foreign civil conflicts than there is Congressional attention to them. Congressional speeches peak at 1,557 civil conflict mentions in 1985, while newspaper stories peak at 4,149 civil conflict mentions in 1983. Also unsurprisingly, the two indicators follow a roughly corresponding pattern of attention. They are elevated from 1947 to 1949 during the Greek and Chinese Civil Wars. They both spike in 1964 with the deepening of US commitments in South Vietnam. They rise again in 1970-1971 as the Vietnam War spills into to Cambodia. They reach a sustained peak in the period between 1982 and 1987 with the escalation of conflict in Nicaragua, conflict in El Salvador, and 1983 Beirut barracks bombing. Finally, they both spike in 1999 as the Kosovo Conflict explodes.

Figure 2-3. Total Yearly Congressional Mentions of Civil Conflicts

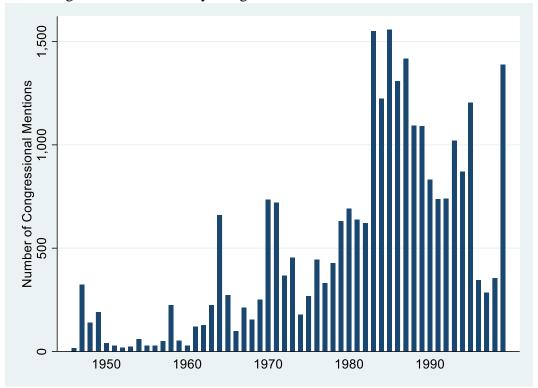
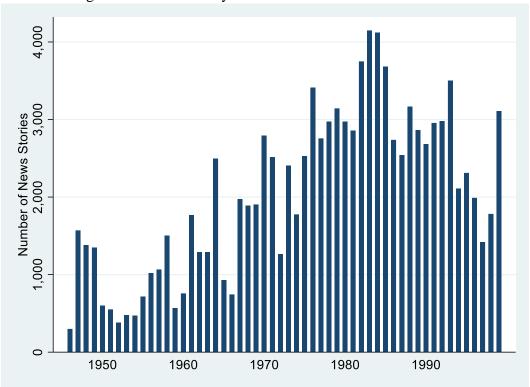


Figure 2-4. Total Yearly News Stories about Civil Conflicts



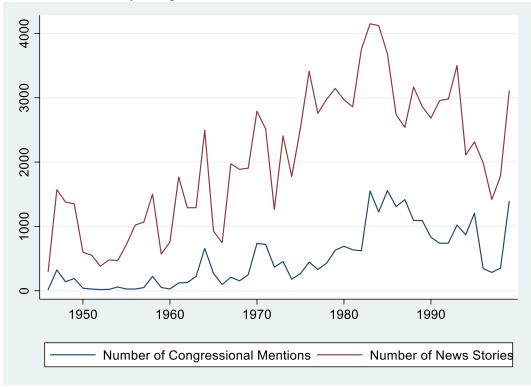


Figure 2-5. Total Yearly Congressional Mentions and News Stories about Civil Conflicts

Prior studies of the interaction between media and policymakers have observed that different states and regions are given varying levels of priority (Miklian 2008). Gonzenbach et al. (1992) claim that both the press and policymakers show a marked preference for addressing issues in Asia, Europe, and the Middle East, and devote significantly less attention to Africa and Latin America. These differences are present, to a degree, in Figures 2-6 and 2-7 below, which display the lowess smoothed (Cleveland 1979) attention of Congress and the news media, respectively, to civil conflicts within five world regions—the Americas, Europe, Africa, the Middle East, and Asia/Oceania. Both figures show *average* attention to each region, since the number of ongoing conflicts differs by region and over time, which is why the number of

²⁶ To identify these regions, I am using the loose regional groupings of the Correlates of War project, based on their numerical codes. The Americas are all ccodes below 200, Europe is ccodes between 200 and 399, Africa is ccodes between 400 and 629, the Middle East is ccodes between 630 and 699, and Asia/Oceania is ccodes 700 and above. Because my data contain no conflicts in North America or Oceania, they are not distinguished as separate regions.

mentions in these figures is smaller than in those above.

The difference in regional attention is much more pronounced in *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, and *Wall Street Journal* coverage than it is for Congressional mentions. Media coverage is greatly higher for conflicts in the Middle East and Europe, moderate for conflicts in the Americas, and consistently low for conflicts in Asia/Oceania and Africa.²⁷ Congressional mentions are moderate for conflicts in the Americas from the mid-1970s to early 1990s and high for conflicts in Europe after 1990 but are otherwise generally low and not greatly different between regions. In part, this is an artifact of the averaging I used to create these figures; there were many low coverage conflicts in Asia throughout the period of observation, and the large increase in attention to Europe is due to the few but highly covered and discussed European conflicts in the Balkans.

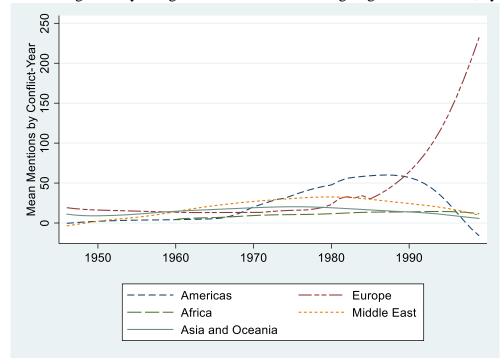


Figure 2-6. Average Yearly Congressional Mentions of Ongoing Civil Conflicts, by Region

²⁷ Note that there are no African conflicts in the data before 1960.

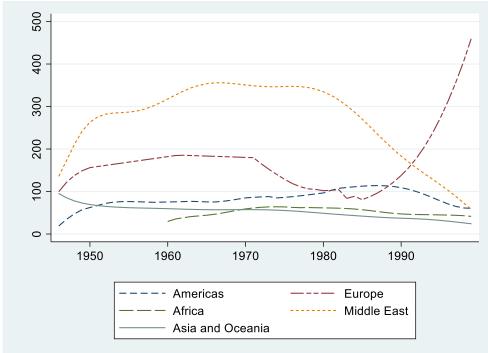


Figure 2-7. Average Yearly Media Coverage of Ongoing Civil Conflicts, by Region

Patterns in Congressional and media attention are usually similar across conflicts, but some conflicts differ. Figures 2-8 and 2-9 below show yearly Congressional and Media attention to the conflicts in Cambodia and El Salvador. In each case, yearly attention matches closely between the two, with generally fewer Congressional mentions than news stories but punctuations in attention at the same points. Figure 2-10 shows monthly Congressional and media attention to the Kosovo conflict which follows a similar pattern. The correspondence is not this close for every conflict. Monthly attention to the Chinese Civil War, as shown in Figure 2-11, differs much more between Congress and the media, with media attention high but volatile throughout the conflict and Congressional attention increasing toward its end but punctuated in some of the same months.

Figure 2-8. Attention to the Cambodian Civil War

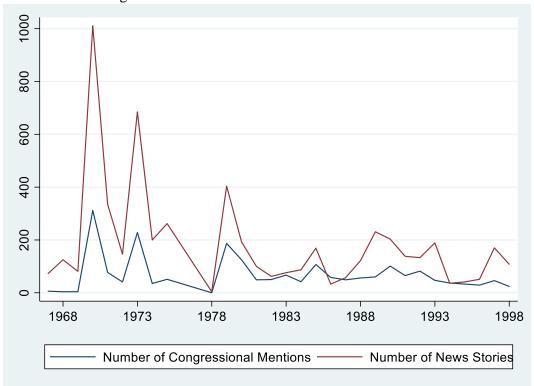


Figure 2-9. Attention to the Salvadoran Civil War

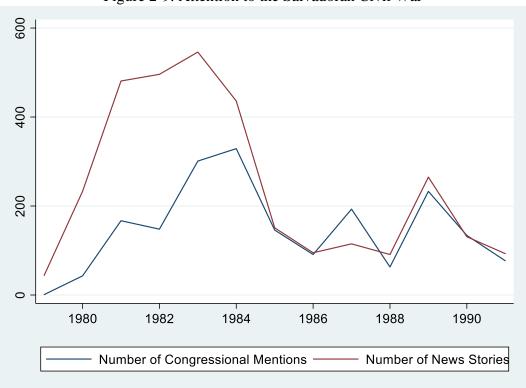


Figure 2-10. Attention to the Kosovo Conflict

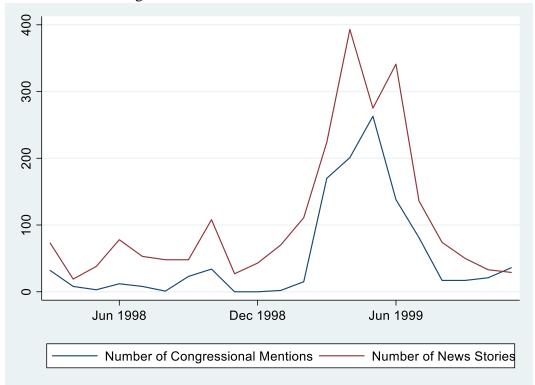
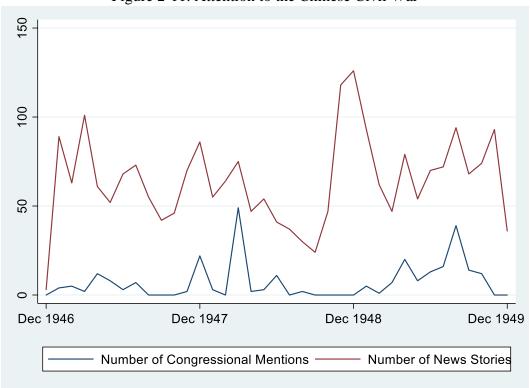


Figure 2-11. Attention to the Chinese Civil War



One conflict which exhibits a notably distinct dichotomy in amounts of Congressional and media attention is the Israeli-Palestinian Conflict. As shown in Figure 2-12 below, yearly coverage of the conflict in the *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, and *Wall Street Journal* is consistently very high, sometimes approaching *half* of all conflict coverage.²⁸ Congressional speeches mentioning the conflict are far fewer and do not rise in the same years as media coverage does.



Finally, it is important to note that many episodes of conflict are never or are very infrequently mentioned by either institution. Figure 2-13 shows yearly attention to the Rohingya Conflict in Myanmar, a conflict which, beginning in August 2017, post my observation, became

²⁸ This is partly a function of coding issues. It is difficult to construct a ProQuest search that separates the Israeli-Palestinian Conflict from other newspaper coverage of Israel without losing a substantial amount of conflict coverage. I erred on the side of including less relevant coverage but flagged the Israeli-Palestinian Conflict as a high noise conflict so that its eccentricity can be accounted for in the analysis chapters.

the subject of substantial attention. The conflict persisted above the ACD's 25 yearly battle death threshold continuously for the entirety of my period of observation, but was never mentioned in Congress and was mentioned, at most, 5 times a year the United States main newspapers of record.²⁹ This pattern is true of other conflicts similarly regarded as "peripheral" by the US Congress and media (Miklian 2008).

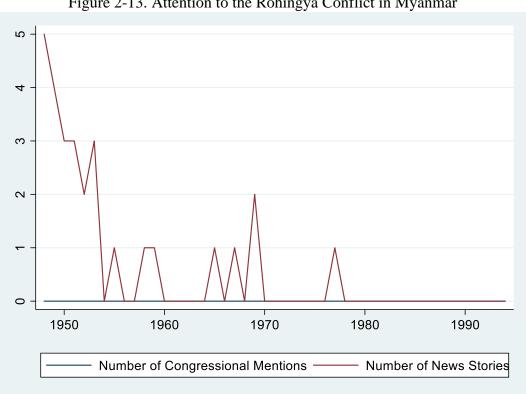


Figure 2-13. Attention to the Rohingya Conflict in Myanmar

²⁹ Burma seems to have captured the American imagination during World War II. Attention to Myanmar's five conflicts is highest in the early years of data and declines over time.

Case Study, Somalia

To investigate the interplay of conflict events, US media attention, and US Congressional attention in greater detail, I turn to the Somali Civil War. Somalia provides a key example of a "peripheral" conflict (Miklian 2008) which nonetheless prompted intense American attention. Moreover, the degree to which US media attention and public opinion drove US policy in Somalia has long been disputed (Livingston 1997, Mermin 1997, Gibbs 2000, Hildebrandt et al. 2012). This makes the Somali Civil War an ideal case for deeper examination.

Conflict for control of government in Somalia began with the 1978 failure of General Siad Barre's war with Ethiopia over Ogaden. The defeat led to increased internal criticism of Barre, a failed coup, an influx of refugees from Ogaden, and a prolonged proliferation of rebel groups. Siad Barre was driven from Mogadishu in January 1991 by the United Somali Congress (USC), but the victorious warlords could not come to a power sharing agreement. The conflict therefore continued between USC factions led by Ali Mahdi and Mohammed Farrah Aideed, precipitating a major famine, and saw an abortive attempt by Barre to retake the capital (Wilson 2007).

The UN intervened with a humanitarian relief mission in April 1992 and, when it became clear that Aideed's opposition was preventing the delivery of aid, the United States intervened in December. Aideed and Mahdi agreed to a settlement in March 1993, but it quickly broke down as Aideed stalled implementation. In October, an attempt by US forces to capture some of Aideed's aides triggered the Battle of Mogadishu, which saw 18 US soldiers and hundreds of Somalis killed. The US withdrew from the conflict on the 31st of the following March, with the UN brokering another peace agreement between Aideed and Mahdi just 7 days prior. It too broke down, and UN military and police departed in 1995 (UCDP Somalia conflict page, conflict 337).

Fighting occurred at a relatively low-level of violence throughout the conflict. The ACD codes December 1982 as the first point that it passed the 25 battle death threshold, and codes a prolonged lull in fighting between December 1984 and March 1986. Figure 2-14 shows Congressional mentions and newspaper stories about this second episode of conflict, March 1986 through December 1996. It suggests that interest in Somalia was low for the majority of the conflict episode but that news coverage increased dramatically in December 1992 with the US intervention via Operation Restore Hope, and that both Congressional and news attention increased dramatically during the Battle of Mogadishu in October 1993.

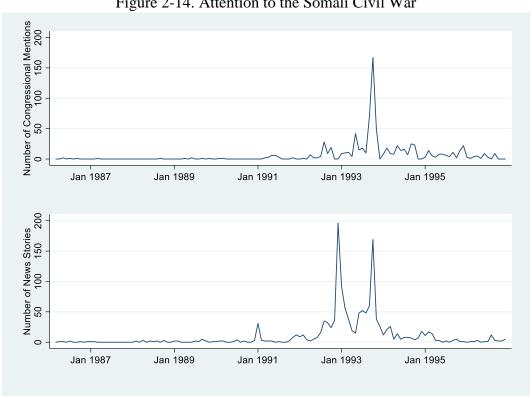


Figure 2-14. Attention to the Somali Civil War

There is an obvious connection between the number of stories in the *New York Times*, Washington Post, and Wall Street Journal and the deployment and engagement of American soldiers; the newspapers are, thus, covering the actions of US policymakers (broadly construed) not simply conflict events. For this reason, I will focus on the period prior to Operation Restore

Hope, March 1986 through November 1992, shown in greater detail in Figure 2-15. As I noted above, attention from both Congress and media is very low for most of the conflict. It escalates with the ouster of Siad Barre in January 1991, with 31 newspaper stories about the conflict. From that point, monthly newspaper coverage is sustained at middling single digit numbers and, for the first time, monthly Congressional mentions of the conflict exceed 2.

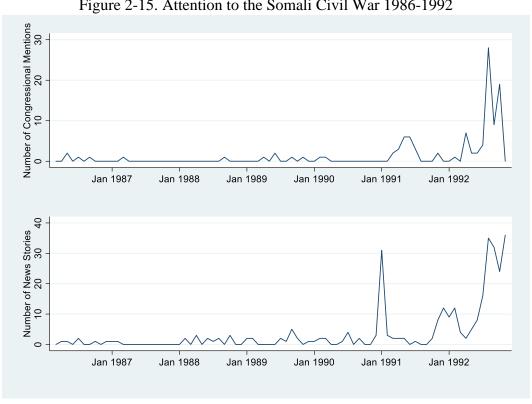


Figure 2-15. Attention to the Somali Civil War 1986-1992

There is heightened news coverage starting in November 1991 in response to escalating violence in Mogadishu, which drops briefly in March and April, and then begins rising drastically in June. Congressional discussion increases briefly in the months following Barre's ouster but then returns to a minimal level until rising drastically to 28 mentions in August, 9 in September, and 19 in October, but then drops back to zero in November. This is the extent of detail that is available from the data I have collected. But returning to *ProQuest Historical*

Newspapers and the text of the *Congressional Record Bound*, I can look into these institutions' attention in greater depth

In June 1992, the *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, and *Wall Street Journal* published 8 stories about the conflict in Somalia, 2 about the world's general indifference to the suffering of Somalia and the remaining 6 about a ship of Somali refugees being detained off the coast of Yemen. July saw the papers publish 16 stories; more about refugees and general conditions in the country, but 8 concerned UN actions—the arrival of observers and a UN vote to increase aid. There were 35 stories in August, and they began to focus on the security impediments to the expanding UN relief mission. September saw 32 stories, 7 with headlines that were explicitly about the theft and looting of UN food aid. There were 24 stories in October, with 10 on the looting of food aid and the warlords deliberately preventing aid disbursal. There was a total of 36 stories in November but, on November 26, President Bush offered to send US troops to support the aid operation. Stories after that point principally concerned a potential US deployment and responses to it. Of the 15 stories prior to the November 26th announcement, 9 concerned the failures of the UN operation and warlord interference in it. The newspapers clearly insisted that the conflict was dire and that UN actions could not meet the challenge.

As of June 1992, there were only 2 mentions of the conflict in Congress and both were tangential: Senator Patrick Leahy mentioned Somalia offhandedly on the 10th in a speech about human rights abuses in East Timor and Congressman Dante Fascell mentioned the conflict during discussion of a bill about the General Accounting Office. Mentions remained low in July, only 4, but interest picked up at the end of the month, with Senator Nancy Kassebaum advancing

a concurrent resolution³⁰ on the 31st condemning the violence, praising the UN relief workers, and urging President Bush to help improve security. She and Senator Ted Kennedy spoke at length about the humanitarian crisis and read several news articles into the record, including one from the *New York Times* titled "The Hell Called Somalia."

As previously noted, Congressional mentions rose dramatically in August, with many officials in both houses expressing support for the concurrent resolution. On August 10th, nine congressmen gave speeches in support of the resolution and had news articles from the Washington Post, Christian Science Monitor, Washington Times, and Los Angeles Times read into the record. On August 12th, Congressman Dennis Hastert gave a long speech about the history of the Somali Civil War. August also saw repeated mentions of Somalia during Senate discussions of a possible intervention in Bosnia-Herzegovina with, for example, Senator John Kerry arguing that the US should intervene in Somalia as well as Bosnia. This pattern of discourse continued into September and October, though with fewer mentions. On September 8th, for example, Senator Patrick Leahy advocated strongly for increased food aid, quoted from a New York Times article titled "Officials Say Somali Famine Is Even Worse Than Feared" and had a Washington Post article titled "Aideed: Warlord in a Famished Land" read into the record. The concurrent resolution had passed both houses by the 8th of October, which likely explains why mentions of Somalia temporarily ceased in the following month.

There are clear interconnections between congressional and media attention. Though the *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, and *Wall Street Journal* reacted to the events of the Somali Civil War earlier and to a greater degree than the US Congress, they were also quick to cover

³⁰ S.Con.Res.132 and H.Con.Res.370, respectively, "Concerning the humanitarian crisis in Somalia"; A concurrent resolution must be adopted by both houses but does not require the signature of the President and does not have the force of law. They are often used to express sentiments held by congress.

actions taken by US officials and, especially, US military activity. Likewise, Congress is clearly attentive to news media, considering the frequency with which they explicitly mentioned conflict coverage and the number of news articles they entered into the *Congressional Record*. But Congress also acted according to its own institutional processes. Congressional mentions of the Somali Civil War were made largely in context of the concurrent resolution and in thematically related Congressional actions.

It thus remains to be investigated how US policymakers and news media prioritize information about foreign civil conflicts and the degree of influence that media coverage has on policymaker attention and actions. Next, in Chapter 3 I use the data introduced above to examine the correlates of policymaker attention to foreign civil conflicts. Then in Chapter 4, I use the newspaper stories and Congressional mentions data to determine whether such attention affects US decisions to intervene in foreign civil conflicts.

CHAPTER 3

News Media and Policymaker Attention to Civil Conflicts

In this chapter, I develop the first part of the argument advanced in Chapter 1—that US senior policymakers direct their attention to foreign civil conflicts according to observable patterns that are explained by the punctuated equilibrium theory of policy process. Specifically, civil conflicts are more likely to reach the attention of senior policymakers if they have already reached the attention of actors that are lower in the policy process; civil conflicts are especially likely to reach the attention of senior policymakers during "media storms", periods of sudden, high, and sustained media coverage; and civil conflicts are more likely to reach the attention of senior policymakers when the government agenda is diverse, as opposed to when it is dominated by the core functions of government. I test these claims by conducting two quantitative analyses, first with stochastic process methods that examine the distribution of change in policymaker attention, and second with regression analysis that isolates the effect of agenda diversity and media storms on senior policymaker attention. I find evidence in support of each argument.

Literature and Hypotheses

Though I outline punctuated equilibrium theory (PET) in Chapter 1, it is important in this chapter that I build upon a clear foundation of PET literature and theory to develop the hypotheses that I test. This section therefore briefly reiterates the key ideas of PET. I then go into greater detail on the expansions and refinements of the theory, and their relevance to US policymaker attention to foreign civil conflicts.

The key observation of punctuated equilibrium theory is that while government policy on most issues tends to change gradually or not at all—being monopolized by specialists and organized interests below public or elected officials' attention—issues sometimes burst onto the agenda in periods of major policy change (Baumgartner and Jones 1993/2009). This pattern, PET holds, is driven by the disproportionate processing of information through policy systems.

Governing systems, like individuals, can only pay attention to so many things at once (True, Jones, and Baumgartner 2007, 158). The US Congress, for example, is not in session for enough hours each day to debate every issue that is important to US security and prosperity. Moreover, institutional friction from constraints such as veto players or even simple scheduling limitations can inhibit policymakers from responding to new information promptly. As a result, policy is "sticky" (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003, 152), maintaining its equilibrium until a dramatic event provokes action or a gradually building pressure reaches a level that cannot be ignored.

Baumgartner and Jones's (1993/2009) initial presentation of PET uses case studies of specific policy areas—nuclear power, tobacco, urban policy, etc.—to show this process of long periods of policy equilibria disrupted by sudden punctuations. Subsequent work, though, has tended to investigate the evidence for PET using large quantitative datasets (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003; Robinson 2004; Jones and Baumgartner 2005; Baumgartner, Foucault, and François 2006; Breunig and Koski 2006; Robinson and Caver 2006; Robinson et al. 2007; Baumgartner et al. 2009; Jones et al. 2009; Breunig, Koski, and Mortensen 2010; Baumgartner, Foucault, and François 2012; Lam and Chan 2015; Baumgartner et al. 2017). But where political scientists usually use statistical methods to make point predictions of outcome variables, this work has investigated distributions of outcome variables.

Jones and Baumgartner (2005), informed by Padgett (1980), argue that the shape of the distribution of policy changes is indicative of the decision-making process of policymakers. If policy change were incremental, we would expect policy changes to be normally distributed. They explain that this is because the traditional equation for incrementalism³¹ specifies that the degree of policy change between two periods is the result of many independent external factors. Some of these are positive and some negative and, as the Central Limit Theorem holds, the combination of large numbers of independent factors is normally distributed. Conversely, "any normal distribution of policy changes must have been generated by an incremental process" (Jones and Baumgartner 2005, 123).

But Jones and Baumgartner contend that due to the boundedly rational information processing of policy makers, the distribution of policy changes is not a result of independent external factors. Instead, policy makers use heuristics and overweight some indicators above others, or have 'solutions searching for problems' and are most attentive to the indicators that support their preferred policy. Jones and Baumgartner refer to this as disproportionate information processing. Further exacerbated by institutional friction, disproportionate information processing causes misinterpretation of information, leads to an accumulation of policy mistakes, and ultimately results in large and rapid policy corrections. The distribution that best describes the dispersion of these policy changes is a leptokurtic one rather than a normal one. A leptokurtic distribution is characterized by 1.) a sharp central peak—which captures the long periods of policymaker inattentiveness, institutional friction, and minimal change; 2.) fat tails—which capture the rapid policy reprioritization in response to major events or accumulating

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³¹ $P_t = P_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ —from Jones and Baumgartner (2005, 121)—the policy at time t is equal to the policy at time t-1 plus an adjustment term, ε , composed of many independent factors.

pressure; and 3.) weak shoulders—which capture the absence of proportionate moderate-sized policy changes.³²

Numerous studies have found evidence of leptokurtic distributions in public budgets, most using a collection of statistical tools and data visualizations called stochastic process methods.³³ The PET studies which are of greatest interest to this project, however, are those which have broadened their scope to other public outputs (though, of course, several of the studies below *also* look at budgets). Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen (2003) apply stochastic process methods to American markets, elections, news coverage, congressional hearings, executive orders, and lawmaking. Baumgartner et al. (2009) duplicate this analysis of US institutions and broaden their study to Danish and Belgian public outputs, including parliamentary elections, radio and television news coverage, demonstrations, party platforms, parliamentary questions to government ministers, non-legislative debates, bills, and government reports. Walgrave and Nuytemans (2009) apply stochastic process methods to party manifestos in 25 OECD democracies, John and Jennings (2010) do so for the UK's annual speech from the throne, and Lam and Chan (2015) apply them to legislative deliberations and executive speeches in Hong Kong both before and after its 1997 handover from Britain to China.

These studies conduct hypothesis testing principally by comparing the distributions of different public outputs. Lam and Chan (2015), for example, argue that institutional friction is greater in authoritarian regimes than in democratic systems, and show evidence of this in the differential distributions of policy outputs across multiple stages of democratization in Hong Kong. But the most frequently tested theoretical development in this work is that policy outputs

³² The leptokurtic distribution was first used to identify PET processes by Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen (2003), but the most succinct explanation of it is given by Breunig and Jones (2011, 105).

³³ See Breunig and Jones (2010) for a thorough explanation of these methods.

become increasingly punctuated as they reach higher stages of policymaking. (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003; Baumgartner et al. 2009; Lam and Chan 2015). The outputs of actors which are closer to the inputs of policy, i.e., the many normally distributed independent external factors which bear on policy decisions, are less punctuated than those that are further from them. For example, the outputs of news media—which are very close to policy inputs—exhibit some kurtosis, but the kurtosis of public budgets is far greater. Intuitively, it is much easier to publish news stories in response to an event than it is to pass a new budget in response to an event.

The face validity of this reasoning is abundantly evident in the context of civil conflicts. Though the events in a conflict are not independent—they trend in a direction: win, lose, or draw—the universe of conflict events, or any large enough sample of them, should be normally distributed around the trend. Despite this, many conflict events occur within the "fog of war"; offensives, tactical victories or defeats, human tragedies, and other events are obscured even from the combatants. Consequently, information about a conflict doesn't update in real time. International news media, which are closer to events than any institution other than a potential intervener's intelligence services, may be slow to recognize the importance of military engagements until they culminate in a major reversal of fortunes. But, even so, the institutional constraints of news media are minor, and they can update information quickly as it becomes known.³⁴ Senior policymakers, being further removed from the events of a civil conflict, need not only to overcome the fog of war but also to reprioritize their limited time and attention from other pressing public issues. In summary, conflict events (unobservable) are normally

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³⁴ Baumgartner et al. (2009) rate media coverage, i.e., *New York Times* stories, Danish radio news, and Belgian TV news in their lowest institutional friction category, with Congressional hearings and Parliamentary questions in their middling category, and budget outlays in their highest friction category.

distributed, conflict coverage is moderately leptokurtic, and policymaker attention to conflicts is highly leptokurtic. Specified in a testable form, this is:

Hypothesis 3.1a: change in news media coverage of civil conflicts is leptokurtic. *Hypothesis 3.1b*: change in senior policymaker attention to civil conflicts is leptokurtic. *Hypothesis 3.1c*: change in senior policymaker attention to civil conflicts exhibits greater kurtosis than does change in news media coverage of civil conflicts.

Additionally, scholars have made several claims in this vein beyond the observation of leptokurtic change distributions. Since Baumgartner and Jones's (1993/2009) initial presentation of PET, there has always been the implication that news media are a key agent of change—the media triggers or amplifies the positive feedback effects that lead to policy punctuations—and, moreover, Baumgartner and Jones's research makes extensive use of media coverage as found in two indexes, the *New York Times Index* and *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*. More recent literature has both upheld this view (Jones and Wolfe 2010) and complicated it (Wolfe 2012). News media are a major element in Lam and Chan's (2015) argument that, in authoritarian regimes where information at lower stages of the policy process, i.e., elections and demonstrations, is blocked by deliberate government suppression, outputs at higher levels of the policy process are more punctuated than normal. Authoritarian regimes lack "even the information to reallocate policy attention" (Lam and Chan 2015, 552). This view of news media coverage as affecting punctuations at higher stages, and not just being associated with them, can be applied more broadly.

Similar to the flow of information at the lower levels of the authoritarian policy process, information about civil conflicts can be artificially depressed. In the US, there are fewer sources

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³⁵ Wolfe (2012) argues that media can "put the brakes" on policy change. In addition to expanding the circle of potentially supportive policymakers that pay attention to an issue, media coverage mobilizes coalitions of hostile interests who do not want an issue to be addressed. However, this hostile mobilization affects the policy *outcomes* regarding an issue not *attention* to it—I therefore address her argument in chapter 4, not here.

of information available about countries regarded as "peripheral" than there are for those regarded as geostrategically important. Not only are fewer government resources devoted to understanding such countries, but news media, recognizing that there is limited demand for coverage of these places, devote fewer resources to them. For example, Miklian (2008, 406), documenting attention to the Nepalese Civil War, observes that only 7% of the sources in the Congressional Research Service's 2006 Nepal report originated from within the US government—the rest came from international news sources. And, of those international news sources, only one major organization, Agence France-Presse, had any reporters based in Kathmandu that year—the others only sent their personnel there intermittently during crisis events. The US government's limited information about peripheral countries, Miklian argues, leads to policy stagnation as well as giving the limited and unrepresentative coverage that does exert a greater than normal influence on policy. I therefore hypothesize that the divergent news coverage across civil conflicts will affect the attention of senior policymakers. Media inattention to civil conflicts should lead to policy stagnation while high amounts of media coverage should lead to surges in policymaker attention, as policymakers rapidly reassess and revise their policies.

Hypothesis 3.2: increases in media attention to a civil conflict lead to increases in policymaker attention to the conflict.

Beyond PET scholarship, of course, there is a vast literature on the agenda setting effects of news media. See, for example, Walgrave and Van Aelst (2006) for a meta-analysis. Its findings about news media's effect on government agendas have sometimes been contradictory, though newer work outside the US has more consistently shown news media to have a positive

effect on politicians' attention.³⁶ A key insight from the intersection of these literatures is that the agenda setting effects of media are non-linear. Boydstun, Hardy, and Walgrave (2014) show that "media storms", periods of sudden, high, and sustained media coverage of a topic, meaningfully differ from normal coverage and have outsize effects on public awareness and perception of issues. Walgrave et al. (2017) expand this to congressional hearings, finding that a media storm around an issue increases Congressional hearings about that topic *in addition to* the normal linear effects of increasing coverage. This observation yields hypothesis 3.3:

Hypothesis 3.3: increases in media attention to a civil conflict during a media storm lead to larger increases in policymaker attention to the conflict than do increases in media attention at other times.

Walgrave et al. (2017) also suggest that the attention environment is zero sum; when thinking about the attention that is paid to an issue of interest, it is important to consider other issues that compete for attention. They consider the zero-sum attention environment in terms of media congestion and public opinion, but here PET scholarship offers a further insight. Jennings et al. (2011) argue that policymaker attention is dominated by the core functions of government—defense, international affairs, the economy, government operations, and the rule of law—but that the salience of any of these core functions varies over time. At some times, one or more of the core functions of government are highly salient and crowd out other issues, at other times they are not, and attention is more diverse.³⁷ I would interpret Jennings et al.'s argument to suggest that policymakers are less likely to pay attention to foreign civil conflicts when the core functions of government have high salience.³⁸ This generates the following hypothesis:

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³⁶ See Walgrave et al. (2017, 550) for a more complete bibliography of this work.

³⁷ See also Boydstun, Bevan, and Thomas (2014) for further discussion of the importance and measurement of agenda diversity.

³⁸ It's possible, though, that policy towards some civil conflicts could be considered a core function of government if it were central to a country's defense or international affairs goals. I address this issue in the data section.

Hypothesis 3.4: When the attention of senior policymakers is dominated by the core functions of government, policymakers are less likely to pay attention to foreign civil conflicts.

Data and Methods

To test the above hypotheses, I collected original data from the US Congress and from three nationally circulating US newspapers: the *New York Times*, the *Washington Post*, and the *Wall Street Journal*. I measured the attention of these sources to every civil conflict recorded in the Uppsala Conflict Data Program's Armed Conflict Database between 1946 and 1999.³⁹ Chapter 2 of this dissertation includes a detailed explanation of my coding procedures for the data, but I will also reiterate my choice of measures below.

To measure senior policymaker attention to civil conflicts, I use the digitized corpus of *Congressional Record Daily* and *Bound Editions* collected by Gentzkow, Shapiro, and Taddy (2017). Their text processing procedure identifies distinct speeches using the *Congressional Record*'s standardized identification of each new speaker to determine when one speech ends, and the next speech begins. I operationalize senior policymaker attention to each foreign civil conflict by counting the number of US Congressional speeches in each month that mention a conflict keyword, i.e., war, conflict, violence, etc., within 20 words of the name of a region or nation where civil conflict is occurring. ⁴⁰ The final *Congressional Mentions* variable is a count, by conflict month, of the number of discrete Congressional speeches in which the relevant country or region is mentioned in the context of conflict.

³⁹ These dates, 1946-1999, are the range of Regan's (2002) intervention data, which is used to construct the dependent variable in chapter 4 of this dissertation. For expedience, I only collected attention data that could be used in both chapters.

⁴⁰ See Appendix 1 for a complete list of conflict regions/nations and conflict keywords.

To quantify news media coverage of civil conflicts, I searched the full text records of the *ProQuest Historical Newspapers* databases for the *New York Times*, *Wall Street Journal*, and *Washington Post*. I use title searches, searching for the same list of country and region names and vector of conflict keywords which I search in the *Congressional Record*. The final *News Media Stories* variable is a count, by conflict month, of the number of newspaper articles about a country or region which discuss violent conflict.

While it would be ideal to analyze a broader set of actors across the institutional context of multiple countries, this set of actors—at both the higher and lower levels of the policy process—is an expedient compromise. The public commentary of the US Congress and of US major newspapers is prolific enough in regularity and volume that a potentially obscure topic such as the Nepalese Civil War has the opportunity to be mentioned. Simultaneously, focusing on this relatively narrow set of actors makes data collection efforts more manageable, whereas a broader analysis of US policymakers or an analysis of media and legislatures across multiple countries would be beyond my limited resources.

Media Storms

To test for the nonlinear effects of media coverage explored by Boydstun, Hardy, and Walgrave (2014) and Walgrave et al. (2017), I derive an additional measure from the *News Media Stories* variable. Walgrave et al. (2017, 556) operationalize a media storm as a surge in attention to a topic that is 1) two-and-a-half times that of the previous week, which 2) captures at least 20% of the total front-page agenda, and 3) lasts for at least a week. Because my unit of analysis differs—I measure monthly coverage across each publication's full text—I am not able to match their coding. Instead, I specify a *Media Storm* as occurring when a civil conflict is

covered by 50 or more news stories and covered by two-and-a-half times the stories of the previous month. *Media Storm* equals 1 if these conditions obtain and 0 otherwise. ⁴¹ Admittedly, 50 news stories per month is an arbitrary threshold. I selected it because it necessitates that several days in the month would see two or more stories written about a conflict, and because 50 stories per month is an unusually high amount of conflict coverage—less than 5% of conflict-months saw 50 news stories. The criteria that a *Media Storm* must have two-and-a-half times the previous month's coverage is important because it adjusts for conflicts with persistently high coverage, such as the Chinese Civil War or Israeli-Palestinian conflict.

Agenda Crowding

In their study of agenda crowding, Jennings et al. (2011) use individual policy statements from executive speeches. For the US, this was the President's annual State of the Union address. But, while this is a sensible approach in the context of their study, it is less well suited to my analysis. Using the State of the Union Address as a proxy to measure agenda crowding among US senior policymakers while using congressional speeches as a proxy to measure attention among US senior policymakers would give this analysis an unhelpful degree of conceptual abstraction. Presupposing that the two correspond could also be factually incorrect; the goals of the president are not necessarily shared by Congress and might instead be opposed, as under divided government. Additionally, a yearly statement of agenda is not granular enough for this analysis. Would, for example, agenda crowding effects be consistent 10 months after the State of the Union speech is given or would they have deteriorated or been upended by world events?

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⁴¹ For example: If a conflict is covered by 80 stories in month *t* and 30 stories in month *t*–1 then I would code that conflict as *Media Storm*=1 for month *t*. The 80 stories in month *t* exceed the 50-story threshold and exceed 2.5*30.

Therefore, I use Comparative Agendas Project's (CAP) US Congressional Legislative Hearings dataset to measure agenda crowding instead of following the precedent set by Jennings et al. The US Congressional Legislative Hearings data is collected from Congressional Information Service abstracts and ProQuest Congressional records spanning from 1946 to 2020. It consists of one observation for each hearing held by a committee, subcommittee, task force, panel, commission, or joint committees during that period, and codes each congressional hearing according to the 19 CAP policy content codes.

I transform the data in two ways to make it a theoretically appropriate measure that matches my unit of analysis. First, I identify the proportion of monthly hearings belonging to the CAP topic categories which Jennings et al. identify as core functions of government. These are macroeconomics, defense, international affairs, and government operations. Second, I construct a 6-month running average of this proportion. So, for example, the value of the agenda crowding variable in June 1999 is the proportion of June 1999 Congressional hearings that concern the core functions of government averaged with the proportions for the months of January through May 1999.

A significant issue with the CAP Hearings data is that it does not include hearings which are unpublished. The contents of hearings that concern national security, investigations of private persons, or other matters, at the discretion of committee chairs, may not immediately be made publicly available. Often, the contents of these hearings are published later, and the CAP adds them to the Hearings dataset marked as a being initially unpublished. For the period of interest to this study, nearly all hearings from the Senate have been published. However, the Congressional

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⁴² Jennings et al. (2011) also identify law, crime, and family issues as a core function of government but, in their analysis, do not find it to have the same agenda crowding effects as the other topic categories. As a robustness check, I create and test an additional variable that includes this category. However, I do not find it to differ in sign or significance from the variable described here.

Information Service has only released House unpublished hearings through 1958. The CAP observes that the "topics with the greatest percentage of unpublished hearings are defense, public lands and water management, international affairs, and government operations", i.e., three out of the four core functions of government topics. This means that my agenda crowding variable likely underreports the degree to which Congress's agenda is dominated by the core functions of government—to the extent that there is bias in these finding, it is bias *against* my argument.

Another issue with the CAP Hearings data is that it may capture the same congressional speeches that my count of congressional speeches does. Speeches which mention foreign civil conflicts often take place in the context of hearings and, likely, in hearings which would fall under CAP's international affairs topic coding. However, many speeches about foreign civil conflicts do not take place in hearings; rather, they are made by singular congresspersons who desire to raise the issue. And, likewise, many hearings within the international affairs topic coding are not about foreign civil conflicts. CAP assigned many international affairs hearings between 1946 and 1999 with subtopic codes that do not suggest foreign civil conflict: international finance (8%), international organizations (6.5%), and diplomats (5%). The most common subtopic code is for hearings about a specific country (35%), but these too tend cover a wide variety of topics, e.g.: Anglo-American financial agreements, Israeli airstrikes on Iraq, and North Korean denuclearization. There is certainly overlap between the two measures, but it is minor.⁴³

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⁴³ As a robustness check, I create and test an additional variable that excludes every subtopic in the international affairs and defense topics that are likely to include mentions of foreign civil conflicts. I do not find it to differ in sign or significance from the variable described here either.

Control Variables

Though the question of interest in this chapter fits within the broader research on civil conflict intervention and punctuated equilibrium theory, its specificity leaves few precedents for theoretically relevant control variables. The domestic predictors of intervention identified in the civil conflict literature likely do not explain attention in the same way that they explain intervention. Likewise, because the PET literature explains policymaker attention across broad issue areas, it does not theorize why attention might vary across a topic as narrow as policymaker attention to specific foreign civil conflicts. These controls are therefore partly speculative, though I derive them from prior civil conflict scholarship.

Electoral Constraints. Prior studies of US intervention (Yoon 1997; Mullenbach and Matthews 2008) hypothesize that, during the increased scrutiny of an election campaign, the United States will be disinclined to undertake interventions. But, even more simply, elections consume policymaker attention. While it is possible that congresspersons could use a salient foreign conflict as a campaign issue, they are more likely to focus on bread-and-butter issues which are more relevant to the lives of their constituents. Following Mullenbach and Matthews (2008) I construct two dichotomous variables indicating the presence of US elections, *Presidential Election* and *Midterm Election*. I code these variables as a 1 in the 12 months prior to an election and 0 otherwise.

<u>Domestic Interest Groups</u>. Aydin (2012) argues that a country's economic activity in foreign markets is concentrated within a subset of domestic economic actors. These actors, who benefit disproportionately from such markets, therefore organize to influence government policy, especially when their interests are threatened by civil conflict.⁴⁴ I anticipate that the lobbying

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⁴⁴ However, Aydin (2012) does not expect established democracies, such as the United States, to be affected by this dynamic to the degree that new democracies or autocracies are.

efforts of these interest groups would materialize as a greater number of Congressional mentions of the civil conflicts which take place in countries where US domestic economic interest groups are numerous. I proxy this, as Aydin (2012) does, by investigating trade flows and foreign direct investment (FDI). For *Trade Flows*, I use smoothed total trade from the Correlates of War Trade Data Set. This measure sums the exports and imports between the US and each conflict country, in millions of US dollars, and smooths large spikes and dips in trade. For *Foreign Direct Investment*, I use a variable constructed in Bennett, Poast, and Stam's (2019) NewGene software, which indicates the total FDI stocks flowing from the US to each conflict country in millions of US Dollars.⁴⁵

Natural Resources. Civil conflict scholars have frequently investigated the availability of natural resources in conflict states, especially oil production, as a cause of intervention (Aydin 2010; Koga 2011; Findley and Marineau 2015; Stojek and Chacha 2015; Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016). The main theoretical claim of this literature, Findley and Marineau's (2015) argument that outside countries sometimes intervene in civil conflict states to loot their natural resources, doesn't logically apply to activities short of intervention. But, if intervention in a civil conflict to secure access to strategic natural resources is something that states do, this is also likely something that policymakers discuss prior to intervention. To measure *Lootable Natural Resources*, I use another variable constructed via NewGene which records conflict country's total natural resources rents as a percentage of GDP.

⁴⁵ NewGene is a collection of datasets compiled from other sources. This indicator (ind_total_OFI) comes from a dataset prepared and compiled by Benjamin Graham, The International Political Economy Data Resource, which is itself a collection of datasets compiled from other sources.

⁴⁶ Though looting of this nature is found by Koga (2011) to be uncharacteristic of democracies, colorful anecdotes such as US President Donald Trump's "We should have taken the oil" in reference to the US intervention in Iraq suggest that it is not entirely outside the scope of this project.

⁴⁷ This variable (natresource_r-I) is also from The International Political Economy Data Resource by NewGene. I use oil exports as an alternate specification of this variable (combinedoil_AE); the results are broadly consistent.

<u>Conflict Intensity</u>. If senior policymaker attention is, in essence, a lagging reaction to the frequency or severity of true events in a policy area, as PET holds, then it should correlate with indicators that show events are severe. For civil conflicts, the most straightforward such indicator is conflict intensity. Conflicts causing a high level of violence and destruction should *ceteris* paribus draw more attention than conflicts at a low level of violence. High intensity conflicts are more threatening to neighboring states and to international stability; civil conflict scholars have often found that conflict intensity increases intervention likelihood (Gent 2007; Aydin 2010; Kathman 2011) though that result is not consistent (Regan 1998; Lemke and Regan 2004). As an indicator of conflict intensity, I use the UCDP PRIO ACD's (2021) Intensity Level variable, which I recode as a dichotomous variable which equals 0 when a conflict has caused 25 to 999 battle deaths in a year and 1 when the conflict has caused 1000 or more battle deaths. My data are monthly, so this measure is not appropriately precise, but this is not as serious a limitation as it might appear. Most conflicts in the data are either low intensity for their entire duration or high intensity for their entire duration, such that imprecisely timed changes in conflict intensity rarely occur.

Proximity. Similarly, I would expect that senior policymakers pay greater attention to proximate conflicts. Conflicts that are contiguous or near to a potential intervener are objectively more important than distant ones since violence and destruction that occur nearby pose a greater threat. It is one of the most consistent findings in the civil conflict literature that conflicts are more likely to experience intervention from contiguous or proximate states (Khosla 1999; Lemke and Regan 2004; Findley and Teo 2006; Gent 2007; Greig and Regan 2008; Mullenbach and Matthews 2008; Kathman 2011; Nome 2013; and Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016)—though unlike senior policymaker attention, this may be due to loss of force gradient, i.e., faraway states

lack the capacity to intervene. To measure proximity, I use *Minimum Distance*—the distance between two states' nearest borders—as constructed by NewGene based on the CShapes dataset (Schvitz et al. 2022).

Power. Great power status and power differentials also figure frequently in the civil conflict intervention literature (Gent 2007; Kathman 2010; Nome 2013; Stojek and Chacha 2015). But where this literature finds interventions to be more common in the conflicts of weak states, since it is easier and less costly to exert influence over weak states, I would expect more senior policymaker attention to be paid to civil conflicts in powerful states and, especially, major powers. Not only are these conflicts likely to be more disruptive of international stability, they have more important outcomes. The Russian and Chinese civil wars, for example, were hugely consequential to world politics in a way that conflicts in smaller states never could be. I use the CINC score of each conflict country to capture *Conflict Country Power*, which is again acquired via NewGene.⁴⁸

Interstate Relationships. Considering power politics more broadly, states tend, in Homeric fashion, to help their friends and harm their enemies. The civil war intervention literature finds that interveners frequently back the government side in the civil conflicts of their allies (Findley and Teo 2006; Stojek and Chacha 2015) and the rebel side in the civil conflicts of their rivals (Akcinaroglu and Radziszewski 2005; Findley and Teo 2006). I anticipate that senior policymakers are more likely to be attentive to foreign civil conflicts in both cases—worried about 'terrorist' rebels toppling friendly governments and hopeful that 'freedom fighter' rebels will topple rival governments. I code *Alliance* dichotomously, as a 1 if the United States has a

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⁴⁸ CINC, i.e., Composite Index of National Capability, scores, from Singer, Bremer, and Stuckey (1972) are an average of six measures of states' economic and military capacity—total population, military expenditure etc.—taken as a ratio of the world total. I also used conflict countries' major power status and number of military personnel to measure power and, again, results are broadly consistent.

defense pact with each conflict country and 0 otherwise. I capture rivalry using Signorino and Ritter's (1999) weighted global S-score, which measures the foreign policy similarity between states based on the number of alliances, adjusted by ally military capability, which they share. An *S-score* of 1 indicates that two states have identical alliance portfolios, while a -1 indicates opposite portfolios, i.e., a rivalry. I collect both variables using Bennett and Stam's (2000) EUGene software. Additionally, I include a dichotomous *Cold War* variable to represent the environment of heightened rivalry and increased salience of peripheral civil conflicts prior to the collapse of the Soviet Bloc.

Prior Interventions. To account for Findley and Teo's (2006) 'actor centric' argument that third-party states react to previous interventions and, in particular, to interventions by rivals, I include several variables for prior intervention. The most precise available intervention data is Regan's (2002). He defines third-party economic and military interventions in civil conflicts as "convention breaking military and/or economic activities in the internal affairs of a foreign country targeted at the authority structures of the government with the aim of affecting the balance of power between the government and opposition forces." However, Regan's data is difficult to use in that its definition of civil conflict differs from the UCDP PRIO ACD's. Most notably, Regan uses 200 battle deaths as the threshold for war rather than 1000. I matched each of the conflicts in Regan's data with its corresponding ACD conflict. Intervention, and Prior Communist Intervention. Each variable is dichotomous, equaling 1 when there was any form of intervention in a month and 0 otherwise. Prior Communist Intervention includes interventions by all members

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⁴⁹ This matching process is not straightforward. I explain its issues in greater detail in Chapter 4.

and observers of Comecon. ⁵⁰ *Prior Intervention* indicates each conflict month that experienced a single non-communist intervention and *Prior Multi-Country Intervention* indicates months when multiple non-communist countries intervened. *Prior Intervention* and *Prior Multi-Country Intervention* are mutually exclusive, but both can occur in the same month as a *Prior Communist Intervention*. I would expect that senior policymakers in the United States are more attentive to conflicts where other states have already intervened and, especially, where rival Communist Bloc countries have intervened. And though, as Findley and Teo hold, a state might be less likely to intervene in a conflict when an ally has already done so, I would still expect the state's senior policymakers to pay greater attention.

Data Management Variables. There are two issues with the original data I have collected on news coverage and policymaker attention, which need to be accounted for in the analysis. First, countries undergoing multiple simultaneous civil conflicts are often discussed differently than countries experiencing a single conflict. Coverage of Myanmar, for example, often conceives of the conflicts of the Communist Party of Burma, Karen minority, Kachin minority, Rohingya minority, and Shan minority as a single conflict with multiple actors, mentioning these rebel groups in a list or alluding to conflict in the country in vague collective terms. I therefore attempt to control for the differing discussion of states with multiple conflicts using a dichotomous variable, *Multiple Conflicts*, which equals 1 whenever my data contain multiple observations with the same country code, year, and month. Second, as discussed in chapter 2, some conflicts are discussed by Congress or the news media in ways which make them difficult to capture with my standard search keywords. I therefore flag these conflicts using a dichotomous variable, *High Noise Conflict*, which equals 1 when my search strategy required

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⁵⁰ In my data this includes Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Albania, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, the Soviet Union, Zambia, Iraq, the Yemen People's Republic, North Korea, Laos, Vietnam, China before 1962, and Ethiopia after 1973.

substantial amendment. I record which conflicts are high noise and what search keywords I use to code them in Appendices 1 and 2.

Reverse Causality Issues

Though to this point I have asserted that news media attention affects policymaker attention, it is also possible—and has long been considered (Edwards and Wood 1999; Mermin 2004; Vliegenthart et al. 2016)—that the causal relationship could be the other way around. There is very likely some truth to this. Bell, Frank, and Macharia (2013), who assess the causal effects of news media on civil conflict intervention, find that, even though media coverage increases the likelihood of intervention, there are reciprocal effects; intervention also causes media coverage.

During the data collection for this project, it has been clear that news media cover US overseas military activity, as well as the introduction and passage of conflict-related legislation, and, on occasion, the remarks of congresspersons. But, for the most part, house and senate speeches are not important news events—far more dramatic and newsworthy incidents occur within conflicts themselves than in congressional discussion of conflicts. *Congressional Mentions* do not have a visibly large effect on *News Media Stories* to the degree that the reverse is true, whereby a substantial number of Congressional mentions of civil conflicts occur via Congresspersons reading news stories into the Congressional record.

I therefore address the effect that US interventions have on news coverage but not the effect that congressional attention has on news coverage. I do this in two ways. First, I create a variable for major US military interventions. Any intervention which Regan (2002) codes as using troops, naval forces, or air forces is included. Additionally, to capture uses of force which

Regan codes as UN interventions, but which nonetheless involved substantial US deployments, I add to his list the US interventions recorded in the Military Interventions by Powerful States dataset.⁵¹ I drop from the analysis all months occurring after one of these major military interventions. Second, I create an additional Intervention variable, *Prior US Intervention*, that equals 1 in any month that the US intervened at a lower scale, i.e., by providing loans, military equipment, foreign aid, and so on.

Stochastic Process Analysis

To test *Hypotheses 3.1a*, *3.1b*, and *3.1c*, I examine the distribution of monthly changes in *News Media Stories* and *Congressional Mentions*. PET Scholars (Jones and Baumgartner 2005, Baumgartner et al. 2009) tend to investigate change distributions in Congressional activity using a "percentage-percentage" method. That is, they convert the number of, for example, Congressional hearings about a topic into a percentage of the total number of hearings then identify the period-to-period changes in this percentage. Their method is not possible for this analysis because I do not have data on the total number of *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, and *Wall Street Journal* stories in each month. ⁵² Additionally, due to the high frequency of zero values in my data, which are not present in the budget data common to PET scholarship, neither am I able to examine percentage changes in counts. I, therefore, examine absolute changes in the monthly number of *News Media Stories* and *Congressional Mentions*.

Figure 3-1 displays the monthly changes in US *News Media Stories* about foreign civil conflicts as a histogram overlaid with a normal distribution curve that has the same mean and

⁵¹ I explain this composite US intervention variable at greater length in Chapter 4.

⁵² I do know the total number of Congressional speeches but, for comparability, I use the same measure for both change distributions in this section.

standard deviation as the data. I have truncated it at a positive and negative change of 50 news stories to maintain readability. In line with the expectations of *Hypothesis 3.1a*, the distribution of *News Media Stories* is characteristically leptokurtic. It has a sharp central peak—which captures the long periods of media inattentiveness to foreign civil conflicts with minimal change in coverage. It has thin shoulders—which indicate an absence of moderate-sized changes in coverage, i.e., when the situation on the ground in a civil conflict sees changes of moderate importance news media underreport them. It has fat tails that capture rapid and dramatic changes in coverage—which appear thin but contain numerous observations that fall *far* from the mean.

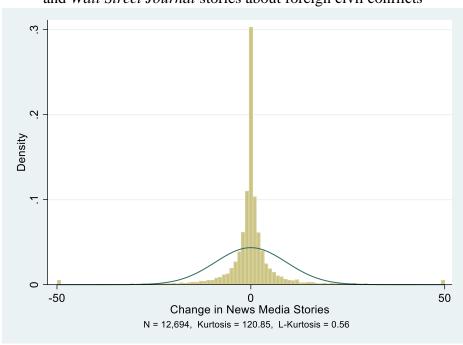


Figure 3-1. Monthly Change in *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, and *Wall Street Journal* stories about foreign civil conflicts

Figure 3-2, in the same format as Figure 3-1, displays monthly changes in *Congressional Mentions* of foreign civil conflicts. It, likewise, matches the expectations of *Hypothesis 3.1b*, with a strong central peak, weak shoulders, and fat tails, though, again, the tails are only fat in the sense that they contain observations unusually far from the mean. This suggests that the US

Congress is mostly inattentive to developments in foreign civil conflicts but rapidly reprioritizes attention to them in response to major events or the accumulating pressure of small ones.

Comparing the kurtosis values of the two distributions (printed in each figure) to evaluate

Hypothesis 3.1c, change in Congressional Mentions has a kurtosis of 302.95, which is substantially greater than the kurtosis of change in News Media Stories, at 120.85. L-kurtosis, another measure of peakedness, which PET scholars (Baumgartner et al. 2009) prefer for its reduced sensitivity to outliers, is 0.56 for News Media Stories and 0.74 for Congressional

Mentions. A Gaussian distribution has an L-kurtosis value of 0.123, so both distributions are highly leptokurtic, with Congressional Mentions exhibiting greater kurtosis than News Media
Stories. This supports Hypothesis 3.1c, suggesting that policy activity at lower stages of the policy process is less punctuated and, therefore, more sensitive to external inputs.

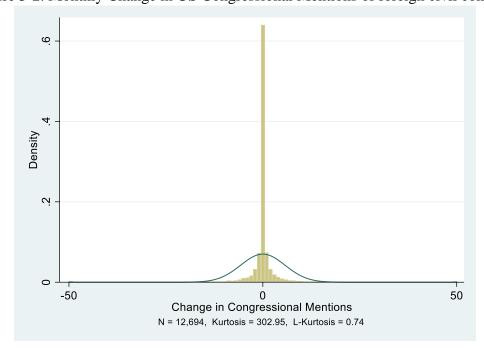


Figure 3-2. Monthly Change in US Congressional Mentions of foreign civil conflicts

⁵³ I find L-kurtosis values using Imoments, a STATA program written by Nicholas Cox, based on Hosking (1990).

Regression Analysis

To test my other hypotheses regarding the effects of news media, media storms, and agenda crowding on senior policymaker attention, I use a negative binomial regression model. Because the dependent variable, *Congressional Mentions*, is not a ratio measure—most observations are single digit integers, and relatively few values in the data exceed 100—a count model is more appropriate than OLS regression. *Congressional Mentions* is also overdispersed. The variance of Congressional Mentions is 96.6, which significantly exceeds its mean, roughly 2.1. This suggests that a negative binomial regression which models dispersion is more appropriate than a Poisson model which does not.

However, as I have noted above, *Congressional Mentions* are organized into conflict months. Observations are not independent across time, which violates standard regression assumptions. Since general use statistics software do not provide a method of estimating timeseries cross-sectional negative binomial regressions, I adopt an alternate model specification using time-series cross-sectional Poisson regression with random effects. I also cluster standard errors by conflict episode in all models.

Finally, there is an important feature of Congressional Mentions which would seriously bias this analysis's results if not adjusted for: Congresspersons cannot give speeches when Congress is not in session. I address this in two ways. First, I create an additional covariate, *Houses in Session*, and include it in the negative binomial and time-series cross-section Poisson models. While the Senate and House of Representatives tend to go into recess at roughly the same times, their recess dates do not always overlap. I used the recess dates recorded on the websites of the Senate and House to identify any full months that one or both bodies did not meet. The final variable equals 0 when neither body met during a month, a 1 when either the

House or the Senate met for at least some fraction of a month, and 2 when both bodies met during the month. Second, I estimate a zero inflated negative binomial model, which predicts zeroes in dependent variable that are generated by a process separate from the other predictors in the count model. I use the *Houses in Session* variable described here as the only variable in the inflation model.

Findings and Discussion

I find consistent evidence in support of *Hypotheses 3.2*, *3.3*, and *3.4* across all models: Increases in *News Media Stories* lead to increases in *Congressional Mentions*; *Media Storms* lead to Increases in *Congressional Mentions*; and *Agenda Crowding* leads to decreases in *Congressional Mentions*. The signs and significance of each model's control variables, however, are largely inconsistent with my expectations—most are not statistically significant and a few, such as *Foreign Direct Investment*, are in the opposite of the expected direction. The results of the random effects Poisson, negative binomial, and zero inflated negative binomial models are summarized in **Table 3.1** below. Additionally—because count model coefficients report the effects of each independent variable on the log of the dependent variable, numbers which are not straightforwardly interpretable—I report exponentiated coefficients, also termed incidence rate ratios. They are displayed in **Table 3.2**.

Table 3-1. Effects of Media Coverage, Media Storms, and Agenda Crowding on Congressional Mentions of Foreign Civil Conflict

VARIABLES	Model 1: Random Effects Poisson	Model 2: Random Effects Poisson Excluding Major US	Model 3: Negative Binomial	Model 4: Negative Binomial Excluding Major US	Model 5: Zero Inflated Negative Binomial	Model 6: Zero Inflated Negative Binomial Excluding Major US
		Interventions		Interventions		Interventions
News Media Stories	0.0126***	0.0139***	0.0493***	0.0478***	0.0497***	0.0482***
	(0.00235)	(0.00177)	(0.0109)	(0.0140)	(0.0111)	(0.0144)
Media Storm = 1	1.099***	0.949***	1.750***	2.036***	1.739**	2.073***
	(0.292)	(0.234)	(0.632)	(0.410)	(0.681)	(0.408)
News Media Stories * Media Storm Agenda Crowding	-0.00605**	-0.00853***	-0.0352***	-0.0386***	-0.0352***	-0.0393***
	(0.00282)	(0.00174)	(0.00763)	(0.0106)	(0.00753)	(0.0111)
	-1.415**	-1.854**	-3.260***	-2.946***	-3.303***	-2.997***
	(0.565)	(0.736)	(0.951)	(1.131)	(0.957)	(1.139)
Presidential Election	-0.0383	0.00365	-0.0991	-0.0958	-0.0973	-0.0939
	(0.0736)	(0.0683)	(0.0622)	(0.0681)	(0.0628)	(0.0688)
Midterm Election	-0.00542	0.0367	-0.00618	0.00149	-0.00657	0.00167
	(0.0656)	(0.0920)	(0.0567)	(0.0627)	(0.0581)	(0.0645)
Trade Flows	4.16e-05	5.61e-05*	6.37e-05	8.16e-05*	6.30e-05	8.06e-05*
	(2.82e-05)	(2.96e-05)	(3.89e-05)	(4.46e-05)	(3.90e-05)	(4.46e-05)
Foreign Direct Investment	-2.67e-05***	-2.99e-05*	-3.88e-05*	-4.84e-05**	-3.86e-05*	-4.81e-05**
	(8.87e-06)	(1.80e-05)	(2.01e-05)	(2.28e-05)	(2.01e-05)	(2.29e-05)
Lootable Natural Resources	-0.0116	-0.00346	-0.0167	-0.0104	-0.0172*	-0.0108
	(0.00795)	(0.00711)	(0.0102)	(0.0103)	(0.00989)	(0.00998)
Intensity Level	0.315*	0.349**	0.970***	0.918***	0.969***	0.915***
•	(0.171)	(0.159)	(0.256)	(0.290)	(0.256)	(0.289)
Minimum Distance	-2.46e-05	-2.46e-05	1.89e-05	1.88e-05	2.10e-05	2.08e-05
	(3.09e-05)	(1.68e-05)	(7.65e-05)	(7.63e-05)	(7.66e-05)	(7.64e-05)
Conflict Country Power	-11.97	2.362	-14.54*	-16.90*	-14.35	-16.64*
•	(72.14)	(201.7)	(8.640)	(10.08)	(8.753)	(10.12)
Alliance	-0.501*	-0.0458	0.606	0.586	0.618	0.604
	(0.303)	(0.628)	(0.825)	(0.872)	(0.824)	(0.872)
S-score	2.089**	1.017	0.174	0.425	0.183	0.423
	(0.956)	(0.999)	(1.316)	(1.411)	(1.322)	(1.416)
Cold War	-0.160	0.133	-0.528**	-0.626***	-0.523**	-0.619**
	(0.328)	(0.345)	(0.246)	(0.243)	(0.246)	(0.242)
Prior Intervention	0.251*	-0.169	0.148	0.316	0.142	0.316
	(0.144)	(0.115)	(0.205)	(0.204)	(0.206)	(0.204)
Prior Multi-Country Intervention	0.123	-0.385	-0.107	-0.127	-0.0970	-0.105
	(0.481)	(0.310)	(0.310)	(0.346)	(0.315)	(0.350)
Prior Communist Intervention	0.313**	0.586***	0.981***	1.276***	0.994***	1.278***
	(0.128)	(0.182)	(0.212)	(0.202)	(0.211)	(0.203)
Houses In Session	3.124***	2.681***	3.005***	2.705***	-4.622***†	-4.239***†
	(0.264)	(0.190)	(0.229)	(0.184)	(0.401)	(0.292)
Multiple Conflicts High Noise Conflict	0.351	0.450	-0.893***	-0.793**	-0.892***	-0.793**
	(0.317)	(0.392)	(0.325)	(0.326)	(0.325)	(0.327)
	0.309	0.472	-0.0719	0.0154	-0.0803	0.00682
	(1.463)	(1.157)	(0.332)	(0.362)	(0.332)	(0.361)
Prior US Intervention	0.127	0.233*	0.639***	0.953***	0.650***	0.949***
	(0.240)	(0.135)	(0.214)	(0.267)	(0.217)	(0.269)
Constant	-5.788***	-5.449***	-6.199***	-5.765***	-0.182	-0.344
	(1.630)	(1.898)	(1.050)	(1.122)	(0.926)	(1.076)
Observations	12,895	11,646	12,895	11,646	12,895	11,646
Number of Conflict Episodes	208	203	208	203	208	203

Robust standard errors in parentheses, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1, † inflation model coefficients

Table 3-2. Effects of Media Coverage, Media Storms, and Agenda Crowding on Congressional Mentions of Foreign Civil Conflict, Incidence Rate Ratios

VARIABLES	Model 1:	Model 2:	Model 3:	Model 4:	Model 5:	Model 6:
	Random Effects Poisson	Random Effects Poisson	Negative Binomial	Negative Binomial	Zero Inflated Negative Binomial	Zero Inflated Negative Binomia Excluding Major US
	POISSOII	Excluding Major US		Excluding Major US	Negative Billollilai	<u> </u>
N M- di- Ct	1.013***	Interventions 1.014***	1.051***	Interventions 1.049***	1.051***	Interventions 1.049***
News Media Stories						
Madia Sterry 1	(0.00238)	(0.00179)	(0.0114)	(0.0147)	(0.0117)	(0.0151)
Media Storm = 1	3.000***	2.584***	5.755***	7.660***	5.690**	7.945***
News Media Stories * Media Storm	(0.875)	(0.605) 0.992***	(3.637) 0.965***	(3.142) 0.962***	(3.874) 0.965***	(3.244) 0.961***
	0.994**					
Agenda Crowding	(0.00280) 0.243**	(0.00173) 0.157**	(0.00736) 0.0384***	(0.0102) 0.0525***	(0.00727) 0.0368***	(0.0107) 0.0500***
Presidential Election	(0.137) 0.962	(0.115)	(0.0365) 0.906	(0.0594)	(0.0352) 0.907	(0.0569) 0.910
		1.004		0.909		
M: 44 E1+:	(0.0708)	(0.0685)	(0.0563)	(0.0619)	(0.0570)	(0.0626)
Midterm Election	0.995	1.037	0.994	1.001	0.993	1.002
T 1 T	(0.0653)	(0.0955)	(0.0564)	(0.0628)	(0.0577)	(0.0646)
Trade Flows	1.000	1.000*	1.000	1.000*	1.000	1.000*
	(2.82e-05)	(2.96e-05)	(3.89e-05)	(4.46e-05)	(3.90e-05)	(4.46e-05)
Foreign Direct Investment	1.000***	1.000*	1.000*	1.000**	1.000*	1.000**
*	(8.87e-06)	(1.80e-05)	(2.01e-05)	(2.28e-05)	(2.01e-05)	(2.29e-05)
Lootable Natural Resources	0.988	0.997	0.983	0.990	0.983*	0.989
	(0.00786)	(0.00709)	(0.0101)	(0.0102)	(0.00972)	(0.00987)
Intensity Level	1.370*	1.418**	2.639***	2.503***	2.634***	2.496***
	(0.235)	(0.225)	(0.676)	(0.725)	(0.674)	(0.722)
Minimum Distance	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	(3.09e-05)	(1.68e-05)	(7.65e-05)	(7.63e-05)	(7.66e-05)	(7.64e-05)
Conflict Country Power	6.32e-06	10.61	4.85e-07*	4.57e-08*	5.89e-07	5.93e-08*
	(0.000456)	(2,140)	(4.19e-06)	(4.60e-07)	(5.15e-06)	(6.00e-07)
Alliance	0.606*	0.955	1.834	1.796	1.856	1.830
	(0.184)	(0.600)	(1.513)	(1.567)	(1.530)	(1.595)
S-score	8.077**	2.764	1.190	1.529	1.201	1.527
	(7.725)	(2.762)	(1.566)	(2.159)	(1.589)	(2.163)
Cold War	0.853	1.142	0.590**	0.535***	0.593**	0.538**
	(0.279)	(0.394)	(0.145)	(0.130)	(0.146)	(0.130)
Prior Intervention	1.286*	0.844	1.159	1.371	1.152	1.372
	(0.185)	(0.0972)	(0.238)	(0.279)	(0.237)	(0.280)
Prior Multi-Country Intervention	1.131	0.680	0.899	0.881	0.908	0.900
	(0.544)	(0.211)	(0.279)	(0.304)	(0.286)	(0.315)
Prior Communist Intervention	1.368**	1.797***	2.668***	3.584***	2.703***	3.590***
	(0.175)	(0.327)	(0.566)	(0.725)	(0.571)	(0.728)
Houses In Session	22.74***	14.59***	20.20***	14.95***	0.00983***†	0.0144***†
	(5.993)	(2.770)	(4.616)	(2.748)	(0.00394)	(0.00421)
Multiple Conflicts	1.421	1.569	0.410***	0.452**	0.410***	0.452**
	(0.450)	(0.615)	(0.133)	(0.148)	(0.133)	(0.148)
High Noise Conflict	1.362	1.603	0.931	1.016	0.923	1.007
	(1.994)	(1.854)	(0.309)	(0.367)	(0.306)	(0.364)
Prior US Intervention	1.135	1.262*	1.894***	2.592***	1.915***	2.583***
	(0.272)	(0.170)	(0.405)	(0.693)	(0.416)	(0.695)
Constant	0.00307***	0.00430***	0.00203***	0.00314***	0.834	0.709
	(0.00500)	(0.00816)	(0.00213)	(0.00352)	(0.772)	(0.763)
Observations	12,895	11,646	12,895	11,646	12,895	11,646
Number of Conflict Episodes	208	203	208	203	208	203

Robust standard errors in parentheses, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1, † inflation model coefficients

In both sets of regression tables, models 1 and 2 display results for random effects

Poisson, which mitigate temporal dependence, models 3 and 4 display the negative binomial
regression results, which address the overdispersion of the dependent variable, and models 5 and
6 display the zero inflated negative binomial regression results. Models 1, 3, and 5 include all
conflict months observed in my data, while models 2, 4, and 6 exclude all conflict months that
occurred after a major US intervention, i.e., an intervention involving the direct use of troops,
air, or naval forces. For the remainder of this section, I focus on the results of model 4 as I
believe they are the closest approximation of the real world.

News Media Stories have a positive effect on Congressional Mentions that is significant at the 99% confidence level across all models. However, the substantive effect of News Media Stories is relatively small. In model 4, a one unit increase in News Media Stories leads only to a 4.9% increase in Congressional Mentions. However, because News Media Stories is part of an interaction term with Media Storm, this relationship is only true when Media Storm = 0, i.e., when there are less than 50 News Media Stories in a month. The coefficient of Media Storm is positive and significant across all models, but because it only captures the effect of Media Storm when News Media Stories = 0, which is not a sensical value, this is not informative. I therefore present an interaction effect plot, Figure 3.3, which shows the effect of News Media Stories on Congressional Mentions both in the presence and absence of a Media Storm.

As Figure 3.3 shows, the effect of *News Media Stories* is relatively small in the absence of a *Media Storm* but increases substantially when a *Media Storm* occurs. It is difficult to observe at the scale shown in the figure, but the 95% confidence intervals of the pre-*Media Storm* effect of *News Media Stories* does not overlap with the post-*Media Storm* effect of *News*

⁵⁴ See Braumoeller (2004) for a more detailed explanation of interaction term interpretation.

Media Stories. Confidence intervals widen immensely at higher values of *News Media Stories* because, though the maximum value of *News Media Stories* is 396, there are few observations of *News Media Stories* above 50, less than 5% of all observations.

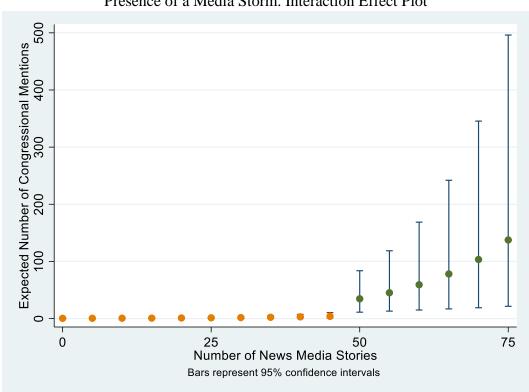
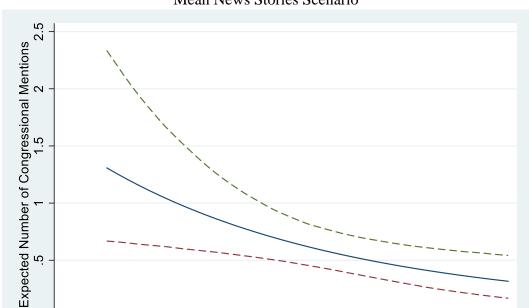


Figure 3-3. Effect of News Media Stories on Congressional Attention, Conditional on the Presence of a Media Storm. Interaction Effect Plot

This finding shows strong support for *Hypothesis 3.2*, that increases in media attention to foreign civil conflicts lead to increases in policymaker attention. In all models and across both levels of the non-linear relationship, *News Media Coverage* has a positive and statistically significant effect on *Congressional Mentions*. News media, rather than simply reacting to conflict events more smoothly than Congress does, has a direct effect on congressional attention. This finding also supports *Hypothesis 3.3*, that media storms amplify the positive effect of media attention on policymakers, and corroborates the arguments made by Walgrave et al. (2017).

Agenda Crowding also affects Congressional Mentions in the expected direction. In all models, it is negative and significant at the 99% confidence level. This means that, as Congressional attention becomes dominated by an increasingly large proportion of hearings about the core functions of government—macroeconomics, defense, international affairs, and government operations—Congress pays less attention to foreign civil conflicts. Moreover, the effect of Agenda Crowding is quite large: a one-unit change in Agenda Crowding, i.e., when Congress changes from holding no hearings about the core functions of government to holding all hearings about the core functions of government, Congress will mention a foreign civil conflict only 5.25% as many times—almost 95% less. It should be noted, however, that the range of the Agenda Crowding variable is 0.15 to 0.63; the effect of Agenda Crowding is not quite as large as Table 3-2 suggests.

To examine the effect of *Agenda Crowding* on *Congressional Attention* in greater detail, I simulate its substantive effects using STATA's user written Clarify package (King, Tomz, and Wittenburg 2000). Figure 3-4 displays the simulated effect of *Agenda Crowding* on *Congressional Mentions* when holding all other variables at their mean. The effect is statistically significant but not substantively large, which makes sense in that congressional attention to most civil conflicts in most months is very low. A change from the minimum to the maximum value of *Agenda Crowding* decreases the number of *Congressional Mentions* by roughly one mention.



.3

.5

.6

.4

Proportion of Agenda Dominated by Core Functions of Government

Dashed lines represent 95% confidence intervals

.2

.1

Figure 3-4. Effect of Agenda Crowding on Congressional Attention, Mean News Stories Scenario

Figure 3-5 shows the effect of *Agenda Crowding* in a higher salience scenario. It displays the simulated effect of *Agenda Crowding* on *Congressional Mentions* in the presence of a *Media Storm* for a conflict which has exceeded 1000 battlefield fatalities, holding all other variables at their means. The substantive effect of *Agenda Crowding* is larger, reducing *Congressional Mentions* by 15 between its minimum and maximum values, but the 95% confidence intervals overlap, suggesting the effect is not statistically significant. Again, this makes some sense. In an environment where a militarily serious foreign conflict is being heavily covered by the media, congresspersons' attention cannot be entirely diverted from it by the core functions of government. Tentatively, these results show support for *Hypothesis 3.4*, that when the attention of senior policymakers is dominated by the core functions of government, policymakers are less likely to pay attention to foreign civil conflicts.

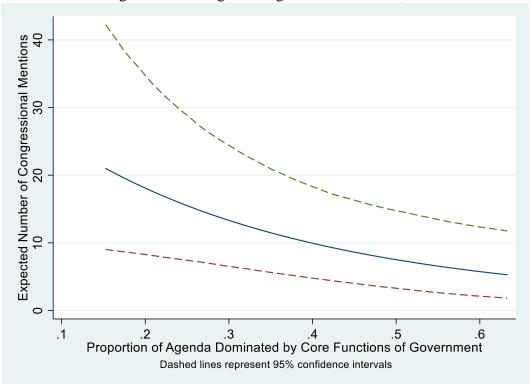


Figure 3-5. Effect of Agenda Crowding on Congressional Attention, Media Storm Scenario

Turning to the control variables, only four theoretically relevant variables are statistically significant in the anticipated direction: *Trade Flows, Intensity Level*, and *Prior Communist Intervention. Trade Flows* is only statistically significant at the 90% confidence level and only in models 2, 4, and 6, which exclude conflict months that occurred after major US intervention, providing weak evidence that, when civil conflict breaks out in a country that has strong trade ties with the US, congresspersons are more inclined to pay attention to it. *Intensity Level* is statistically significant across all models and its substantive effect is large. According to the results of model 4, when a conflict crosses the threshold from 25-999 battle deaths to 1000+ battle deaths, *Congressional Mentions* of the conflict increase by 250.3%. *Prior Communist Intervention* has a similarly large effect. It is statistically significant across all models and, in model 4, increases *Congressional Mentions* by 358.4%.

Several control variables are, however, statistically significant but signed in the direction opposite my expectations. Increases in *Foreign Direct Investment*, *Lootable Natural Resources*, and *Conflict Country Power* all decrease the number of *Congressional Mentions*. So does a US defensive *Alliance* with the conflict state, or the fraught geopolitical circumstances of the *Cold War*. However, few of these findings are consistent across all models and none are consistent across all models at the 95% confidence level. Only the counterintuitive results for *Foreign Direct Investment* are consistent across all models, suggesting that as FDI in a country increases US congresspersons are less attentive to conflicts occurring in the country. *Cold War* is negative and significant at the 95% confidence level or greater in four models, 3, 4, 5, and 6, suggesting that congresspersons were less interested in conflicts that occurred during the Cold War. This unexpected finding, though, is likely explained by the influence of *Prior Communist Intervention*: the variation in US congressional attention to civil conflicts pre- and post-Cold War is being subsumed by the measure that records actual communist interventions.

Conclusions

In this chapter, I argued that civil conflicts are more likely to reach the attention of senior policymakers if they have already reached the attention of actors that are lower in the policy process, that civil conflicts are especially likely to reach the attention of senior policymakers during media storms, and that civil conflicts are more likely to reach the attention of senior policymakers when the government agenda is not dominated by the core functions of government. My findings support each of these arguments, suggesting that the disproportionate information processing and punctuated policy activity which PET scholars have discovered in public budgets are applicable to the study of civil conflict intervention. US policymaker attention

to foreign civil conflicts seems to follow the same pattern of prolonged disinterest punctuated by frantic activity that is engendered in other broader policy areas. But the more important question remains to be answered: Does this process also drive intervention decisions up to and including the deployment of US troops? I endeavor to answer this question in chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

Effects of US Policymaker Attention on Civil Conflict Intervention

In chapter 3 I showed that, in the case of the United States, senior policymaker attention to foreign civil conflicts is consistent with the expectations of punctuated equilibrium theory (PET). Civil conflicts appear more likely to reach the attention of US senior policymakers if they have already reached the attention of actors that are lower in the policy process. The more salient question, however, is whether these differences in policymaker attention affect the likelihood of direct intervention in civil conflicts. In this chapter, I therefore develop the second part of the argument advanced in chapter 1, that the US is more likely to intervene in foreign civil conflicts when US senior policymakers are attentive to them, but that attention is not a sufficient cause of intervention. Even if senior policymaker attention to a conflict is high, the US may choose to do nothing when its opportunity to influence the conflict's outcome is limited or highly costly.

This chapter proceeds first by discussing PET arguments about the domestic motivation for US intervention in foreign civil conflicts. I then argue that intervention decisions are inhibited by factors that limit US opportunity to both intervene and affect conflict outcomes. In the third section, I explain my data and statistical methodology. The fourth section presents results. And, in the final section, I discuss the insights and limitations of my findings and how they inform the civil conflict intervention literature.

How Information Processing Affects Intervention

PET scholarship conceives of policy change as a process "in which information flows into a policymaking system, and the system, acting on these signals from its environment, attends to the problem and acts to alleviate it" (True, Jones, and Baumgartner 2007, 176). But policy changes are not immediate or proportionate: policy is sticky. Boundedly rational policymakers are always confronted with more issues than they can feasibly address and must selectively ignore or deprioritize most issues. Similarly, institutional constraints and bureaucratic inertia impose friction on decisions which depart from the status quo. Policy, therefore, changes disproportionately to the severity of a problem. It occurs when pressure from informational inputs about the problem builds to a level that can no longer be ignored or leads to a singular dramatic event that demands a response. PET therefore expects that policy is held in equilibrium most of the time but is punctuated by brief periods of major change. ⁵⁵

As several scholars in the PET literature have shown (Jones, Sulkin, and Larsen 2003; Baumgartner et al. 2009; Lam and Chan 2015)—and as I found in chapter 3 of this project—the punctuatedness of different policy outcomes varies by their proximity to informational inputs and the degree of friction they impose on decision making. Outputs such as news media stories, which are subject to minimal institutional friction, respond promptly to world events and other revelations of policy-relevant information. Change in news stories is therefore less punctuated than US congressional speeches, which are subject to moderate institutional friction, or US federal budgets, which are subject to high institutional friction.

⁵⁵ This is the general punctuation hypothesis of PET (Jones and Baumgartner 2005). Baumgartner and Jones's (1993/2009) initial presentation of the theory is more US-centric and conceptually and descriptively dense.

Scholars in this literature, Lam and Chan (2015) for example, argue further that policy actors close to the informational inputs of policy affect the behavior of actors higher in the policy process. My finding in chapter 3 that *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, and *Wall Street Journal* stories are associated with an increase in Congressional mentions of foreign civil conflicts is consistent with this view. In chapter 4, I therefore expand this argument to decisions made at the highest levels of the policy process, in this case, unilateral interventions in civil conflicts. I expect that an intervention in a foreign civil conflict is more likely when the conflict receives a high degree of attention at lower levels of the policy process.

Hypothesis 4.1: increases in policymaker attention to a civil conflict lead to an increase in the likelihood of intervention in the conflict.

Hypothesis 4.2: increases in media attention to a civil conflict lead to an increase in the likelihood of intervention in the conflict.

An alternate argument within the PET literature (Wolfe 2012) is that news media can "put the brakes" on policy change. When new or increased media information about an issue disrupts the existing equilibrium, it has the possibility to generate a negative feedback loop instead of a positive one, since, in addition to expanding the circle of potentially supportive policymakers that pay attention to an issue, media coverage mobilizes coalitions of hostile interests who do not want the issue to be addressed. Consequently, increased news media attention to an issue may decrease rather than increase the likelihood of policy action. Wolfe's (2012) research focuses on Congressional activity as the outcome variable, so it doesn't address whether Congressional attention itself could mobilize hostile coalitions independent of media coverage doing so. My expectation is that it would not—that by the time a foreign civil conflict has reached Congress's agenda, interest groups hostile to intervention would either already have attempted to exert their influence and failed, or would, at that late stage, be struggling for

influence in a crowded field with minimal effect. To accommodate this alternate argument, I include an opposed hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4.3: an increase in media attention to a civil conflict leads to a decrease in the likelihood of intervention in the conflict.

Opportunities for Intervention

This project's information processing explanation of civil conflict intervention has been an attempt to understand states' *willingness* to intervene—which, at the domestic level, is a relatively less developed area within the intervention literature. But, in keeping with Most and Starr's (1989) dichotomy, I must address *opportunity* as well as *willingness* to explain political outcomes. Even if a state desires to intervene in an ongoing civil conflict, it must also have the opportunity to intervene; both conditions are necessary "at *some threshold level*" (Most and Star 1989, 41, emphasis theirs). And, with respect to opportunity, the literature has two clear findings. A potential intervener may not have an opportunity to intervene effectively 1.) if it is far away or non-contiguous and 2.) if it lacks military and economic power relative to the target.

Proximity

One of the most consistent findings in the literature is that states close to or contiguous with a state experiencing civil conflict are more likely to intervene (Khosla 1999; Lemke and Regan 2004; Findley and Teo 2006; Gent 2007; Greig and Regan 2008; Mullenbach and Matthews 2008; Kathman 2011; Nome 2013; and Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016). States that are not neighbors with or in the immediate vicinity of a civil conflict state may not be able to intervene militarily. Even among states that can project force at great distances, the loss of force gradient will make intervention more difficult over greater distances. Similarly, states will likely

have diminished economic leverage to influence distant civil conflicts owing to lower levels of trade and investment interdependence between themselves and the conflict state.

However, the United States is unusual in the length of its military's reach and the degree of its overseas economic influence, so distance may affect the United States differently than it does other potential interveners. Prior studies of US intervention specifically have sometimes found evidence that proximity affects US intervention behavior (Mullenbach and Matthews 2008) and sometimes not (Yoon 1997). But conceptually, distance should inhibit US interventions, even if the effect is attenuated. The United States can, and recently has, intervened in conflicts geographically distant from it—but these interventions have been logistically complicated. US supply lines to Afghanistan through Central Asia via the Northern Distribution Network are on their face more complicated than supply lines to an intervention in the Caribbean would be. I therefore expect that an intervention in a foreign civil conflict is less likely when the conflict occurs in a distant state.

Hypothesis 4.4: an increase in distance between a civil conflict state and a potential intervener leads to a decrease in the likelihood of intervention in the conflict.

Power

The literature also consistently finds that states are more likely to intervene if they are economically and militarily powerful, either in absolute terms (Lemke and Regan 2004; Findley and Teo 2006; Kathman 2011; Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016) or relative to a civil conflict state (Gent 2007; Kathman 2010; Stojek and Chacha 2015). Powerful states have greater opportunity to intervene in civil conflicts due to their greater resources and capabilities. They also have a greater opportunity to influence the outcome of a conflict when intervening in the affairs of a relatively weak state—if the government side of a conflict is strong enough that it

cannot be meaningfully threatened by the rebel side there is little incentive for a third-party state to intervene on either side (see Gent 2008, though his emphasis is on rebel group strength).

Because the United States is a major power, has the greatest GDP, and has the best resourced military during the period of study, my analysis necessarily focuses on the power of civil conflict states rather than that of the intervener. I expect that the United States is more likely to intervene in the conflicts of small and/or weak states, since the outcomes of their conflicts are relatively easier to influence. Inversely, I expect that the United States is unlikely to intervene in the civil conflicts of other powerful states—partly because powerful allies are strong enough not to need direct support and partly because the great powers of the post-war period have been nuclear armed, which makes intervention high risk in addition to being low utility. This generates the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4.5: intervention is more likely in civil conflicts that occur in less powerful states.

Data and Methods

To test these hypotheses, I use the original data I have collected from the US Congress, a modified version or Regan's (2002) third-party intervention data, and several academic datasets—principally from the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP) and Correlates of War Project (CoW). Chapter 2 of this dissertation includes a detailed explanation of my coding procedures for the congressional attention data. The other data I explain below.

Case Selection and Unit of Analysis

For a list of civil conflicts, I use the UCDP Armed Conflict Dataset (ACD). UCDP defines internal conflict as "a contested incompatibility that concerns government and/or

territory where the use of armed force between two parties [...] results in at least 25 battlerelated deaths in a calendar year" and where one side is a government, and the other side is one
or more rebel groups (Pettersson et al. 2021). However, to maintain consistency with the
availability of the congressional attention variable I collected, I do not include every conflict
which meets this minimal battle death threshold. Instead, I include only the conflicts which the
ACD records as reaching a cumulative total of 1000 battle deaths at some point in their
duration. This yields a list of 96 civil conflicts split across 209 distinct conflict episodes i.e., the
First and Second Chechen Wars are separate conflict episodes but belong to the same conflict. I
split each of these conflict episodes into conflict-episode-months to match the specificity of my
congressional mentions and third-party intervention data.

Method of Analysis

Though congressional attention may have an instantaneous, near term, or lagged monthly effect on intervention, it also has cumulative effects on intervention likelihood over the longer term which cannot be captured via OLS or MLE approaches. I therefore use Cox proportional hazards models to determine the effects of US policymaker attention on the time to civil conflict intervention. I prefer the Cox semi-parametric model over parameterized models because I lack any theoretical grounds to assume that my covariates' effects are monotonic.

The reason I do not use a competing risks model to account for the target of each intervention i.e., government side, rebel side, or neutral, is that doing so would not be an appropriate test of my hypotheses. Congresspersons know which side in a conflict they would like to support—but, unfortunately, that valence is not captured by my data. I do not consider it

⁵⁶ UCDP/PRIO records this information in the ACD's *cumulative_intensity* variable.

appropriate to draw conclusions about the directional effects of congressional or media attention on intervention given that their preferences differ by conflict and that said preferences could—given sufficient resources—be measured. I specify my hypotheses accordingly, and Cox proportional hazards models are the appropriate test of them.

Dependent Variable, US Intervention

While multiple high quality intervention datasets are now available to conflict scholars, such as the UCDP External Support Dataset (Högbladh, Pettersson, and Themnér 2011) and the International Military Intervention Dataset (Pearson and Bauman 1993, Pickering and Kisangani 2009), I prefer Regan's (2002) intervention data for its balance of detail and breadth. Regan defines third-party interventions in civil conflicts as "convention breaking military and/or economic activities in the internal affairs of a foreign country targeted at the authority structures of the government with the aim of affecting the balance of power between the government and opposition forces." and he records 1036 such interventions in 54 years of monthly data, 1946 through 1999. Regan includes both military and economic interventions as well as subcategories within these—whether, for example, military interventions were undertaken directly with ground troops or at a less invasive level such as the provision of military equipment.

However, the format of Regan's data posed some significant difficulties for its use with this project. He creates his own list of civil conflicts using a 200 battle death threshold that differs from both the UCDP and CoW coding. But, while Regan's data contains several variables to describe the nature of each conflict—rebel group names (frequently acronyms), rebel operational goals, linkages to prior conflicts—these fields are sometimes missing and are not always clear. As a result it can be difficult to definitively identify conflicts in Regan's data,

especially in cases when a country's government was opposed by multiple rebel groups fighting over different territory or issues.⁵⁷

Consequently, when I collected the congressional mentions data for this project, I found that Regan's list of conflicts did not contain the thick descriptive information that I needed to parse between congressional mentions of specific civil conflicts and mentions of other conflict phenomena i.e., interstate wars, one sided violence, colonial wars, or different civil conflicts within the same state. Therefore, as outlined in chapter 2, I collected my data based on the list of civil conflicts in the UCDP ACD. This, however, required that I match the conflicts in Regan's data with those in the ACD, which I did with the aid of UCDP's encyclopedic country, conflict, and conflict actor records. Of the 151 conflicts in Regan's data, I matched 122 to ACD conflict episodes. Further documentation of this matching is available in Appendix 3.

In constructing the US intervention variable, I include all interventions in Regan's data that are recorded as having been undertaken by the United States. However, this leaves out some important cases. For example, Regan records Operation Deliberate Force in Bosnia and Operation Allied Force in Kosovo as being UN interventions. Though these operations were undertaken under the auspices of an international organization, they nonetheless included substantial deployments of American soldiers. To ensure that I include these interventions and others that are absent from Regan's data—while avoiding arbitrary ad hoc coding decisions—I incorporate data from the Military Interventions by Powerful States (MIPS) dataset. MIPS records deployments of regular military personnel by the US, UK, France, China, and USSR,

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⁵⁷ There are also a few cases with incorrect identifying information. For example, conflict 630 in Regan's (2002) data is listed as an ethnic conflict in the Republic of Congo from August 1998 to the end of the observed period in December 1999, but it lists its rebel groups as the MLC, RCD, and AFDL. Though there was a civil conflict in the Republic of Congo at that time, the start date and rebel group names are clearly those of the Second Congo War in the *Democratic Republic of Congo*. Reagan's conflicts 620, 838, 866, and 972 are similarly confused between the Republic of Congo and DRC.

aimed at attaining "immediate-term political objectives" against "foreign adversaries," 1946 through 2003. MIPS adds 6 civil conflict interventions to my data that are not captured by Regan.⁵⁸

Congressional and News Media Attention

To test the hypotheses 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3 I use original data collected from the US Congress and from three nationally circulating US newspapers: the *New York Times*, the *Washington Post*, and the *Wall Street Journal*. I measure the attention of these sources to the civil conflicts recorded in the Uppsala Conflict Data Program's Armed Conflict Database between 1946 and 1999.

To capture senior policymaker attention to civil conflicts, I search congressional speeches in the digitized corpus of the *Congressional Record Daily* and *Bound Editions* collected by Gentzkow, Shapiro, and Taddy (2017). I operationalize senior policymaker attention to each foreign civil conflict by counting the number of US Congressional speeches in each month that mention a conflict keyword, i.e., war, conflict, violence, etc., within 20 words of the name of a region or nation where civil conflict is occurring.⁵⁹ The final *Congressional Mentions* variable is a count, by conflict month, of the number of discrete congressional speeches in which the relevant country or region is mentioned in the context of conflict.

To avoid biasing *Congressional Mentions*, I include it with another measure *Houses in Session*, which equals 0 in months when neither house met, a 1 when either the House or the

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⁵⁸ These are US support for the Greek Civil War counterinsurgency, Operation Southern Watch in Iraq, US intervention in the Lebanese Civil War, US support for the Laotian Government against the Pathet Lao, and the aforementioned Operations Deliberate Force and Allied Force.

⁵⁹ See Appendix 1 for a complete list of conflict regions/nations and conflict keywords.

Senate met for some fraction of a month, and 2 when both houses met during the month. 60 Congresspersons cannot give speeches when Congress is not in session, even if a conflict remains at the fore of congresspersons' minds—and this could structurally depress the number of mentions I can observe. I use the recess dates recorded on the websites of the Senate and House to identify any full months that one or both bodies did not meet.

To capture news media coverage of civil conflicts, I conduct title searches in *ProQuest Historical Newspapers* using the same list of country and region names and vector of conflict keywords. The final *News Media Stories* variable is a count, by conflict month, of the number of newspaper articles about a country or region which discuss violent conflict. My coding methodology is explained at length in chapter 2.

Proximity

To test *Hypothesis 4.4*, I use *Minimum Distance*, a measure of the distance between two states at their nearest border. I obtain it from NewGene (Bennett, Poast, and Stam 2019), an automated dataset construction tool compiled from several academic data sources. The variable originates from CShapes (Schvitz et al. 2022), which is a GIS dataset containing historical maps of independent states and dependent territories. While CShapes carefully records the dates of all territorial changes, NewGene's data is yearly, and, as a result, my values of this variable across conflict-months are only accurate to the current year. But though the post-war period saw great upheaval, most states' borders most of the time do not change and changes in most state's borders will have only a minor effect on the measure relative to their distance to the United States.

⁶⁰ The Senate and House go into recess at roughly the same times, but their recess dates do not always overlap.

Power

To test *Hypothesis 4.5*, I use the CINC score of each conflict country to capture *Conflict Country Power*, which is again acquired via NewGene. CINC scores, or Composite Index of National Capability (Singer, Bremer, and Stuckey 1972), are an average of six measures of states' capability. They include a state's military power via measures of military expenditures and military personnel, its economic power via measures of iron and steel production and commercial fuel consumption, and its demographic power via measures of total population and urban population. The average of these measures is then transformed into a ratio of the world total to capture the relationship of each state's power to the power of other states.

An alternate variable that is frequently used in the literature is major power status, usually the major power status of the intervener (Lemke and Regan 2004; Findley and Teo 2006; Kathman 2011; Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016). That approach is not appropriate here, as the intervener is always the United States. Moreover, the United States never intervened in a civil conflict in the territory of a major power during the 1946-1999 period. This is not due to pacific conditions within the major powers. China, France, Russia, and the United Kingdom⁶¹ are all included in the UCDP ACD as having had one or more civil conflicts during that time. Tellingly, the United States did intervene in China during the Chinese Civil War—when China, according to CoW coding, was not a major power.

Reverse Causality Issues

I have, to this point, asserted that news media and policymaker attention increases intervention likelihood. However, it is also likely that there are effects in the opposite direction.

⁶¹ These countries are the only major powers that appear in my data—as coded by CoW and obtained via NewGene.

When the US intervenes in a conflict, especially when it does so with military forces, Congress and the media are far more likely to comment on the conflict. This has come across clearly in my coding of both and is observed in the wider literature. Bell, Frank, and Macharia (2013), for example, find that even though media coverage increases the likelihood of intervention, there are reciprocal effects; intervention also increases media coverage. I must account for this.

I attempt to do so using two different approaches. The first treats intervention as I have described it above; it treats all incidences of intervention as failure outcomes and then excludes observations that occur after the first intervention. With this approach, the model drops observations in which Congress or news media discuss US-centric conflict events such as US troop casualties. It also drops observations in which Congress or news media discusses an ongoing intervention, how it is faring, and whether to escalate or reduce assistance to the supported side—policy changes which would constitute additional instances of US intervention according to Regan's (2002) coding.

For the second approach, I create an alternate outcome variable, *Major US Intervention*, that only treats interventions utilizing US military combatants as failure outcomes. It includes any intervention which Regan (2002) codes as using troops, naval forces, or air forces, or which I added from the MIPS dataset. For this approach, I include an additional control variable, *Prior US Intervention*, that equals 1 during every month after the US intervenes at a lower scale, i.e., by providing loans, military equipment, foreign aid, and so on. This approach, like the first, drops observations in which Congress or news media discuss US troop casualties. However, it retains observations that occur after lower scale US interventions, i.e., conflict-months in which Congress or news media are likely discussing the ongoing intervention, how it is faring, and whether to escalate. If *Congressional Mentions* and/or *News Media Stories* are driven by the

ongoing lower scale intervention and do not have an independent effect on the likelihood of *Major US Intervention*, then the *Prior US Intervention* variable should subsume their effects.

The difference between the two approaches in, for example, the conflict between the government of Peru and Peru's Shining Path guerrillas is as follows: The US first intervened in the conflict in July 1984, by providing a monetary grant to the Peruvian government. The US then intervened a second time in August 1985, by providing the government with air force support. In the first model, the intervention in July 1984 is coded as a failure outcome and is the last observation of the conflict. In the second model, the intervention in August 1985 is coded as the failure outcome—also the last observation—and *Prior US Intervention* is coded as a "1" for all observations July 1984 through August 1985, inclusive. Due to this difference in failure dates, the two models use different subsets of the data. The first contains 36 incidences of failure across 209 conflict episodes and drops 2,942 post-failure conflict-month observations of the 12,903 total observations. The second contains 22 incidences of failure and drops 1,227 post-failure conflict-month observations.

Control Variables⁶³

<u>Elections</u>. Prior studies of US intervention (Yoon 1997; Mullenbach and Matthews 2008) hypothesize that, during the increased scrutiny of an election campaign, the United States will be disinclined to undertake interventions. During elections, Presidents and Congresspersons are more likely to devote their time to campaigning than to pursuing major policy initiatives and are

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⁶² Due to missing data, there are fewer observations and fewer incidences of failure in the final models than I report here. I include these numbers rather than the final ones to be more transparent about missing data issues.

⁶³ There are three sets of variables which are important in the literature—and which I discuss in Chapter 1—but that I do not include here: *Ethnic Ties*, *Refugee Flows*, and *Contagion Risk*. I neglected to include them because data were difficult to obtain and/or transform and because none of these variables is critical to the argument I am testing.

more likely to focus their policymaking on bread-and-butter issues which can directly improve the public's approval, rather than engaging in risky foreign policy actions. Following Mullenbach and Matthews (2008) I construct two dichotomous variables indicating the presence of US elections, *Presidential Election* and *Midterm Election*. I code these variables as a 1 in the 12 months prior to an election and 0 otherwise.

Control of Government. Another domestic political variable investigated in studies of US intervention is which parties control the Presidency, Senate, and House of Representatives and, specifically, whether said parties differ. If the President faces a Congress where one or both houses is controlled by the opposing party, he/she is less likely to intervene in a foreign conflict, either because Congress is more willing to exercise "checks and balances" on the president's use of force (Mullenbach and Matthews 2008) or because intervention—a risky policy choice with a chance of dramatic failure—has greater downsides when government is divided (Regan 2000). I code this variable, *Unified Government*, in the same way as Mullenbach and Matthews (2008) do. It is a dichotomous measure that equals 1 whenever the Presidency and both houses of Congress are controlled by the same party. I do so using records from the US House of Representatives website, "Party Government since 1857," (https://history.house.gov/Institution/Presidents-Coinciding/Party-Government/).

War Weariness. "Vietnam syndrome" appears as an explanation of US intervention in both the CNN effect literature (Livingston 1997) and the intervention literature (Yoon 1997, Pickering 2002, Mullenbach and Matthews 2008). In short, this view holds that, after major wars and especially after negative war outcomes, the public loses its appetite for further overseas interventions. None of these studies find empirical support for the argument and, interestingly, Pickering (2002) observes that states which suffer many military defeats are *more* likely to

undertake military interventions. I code *War Weariness* in the same way as Mullenbach and Matthews (2008); it is a dichotomous measure which equals 1 for 5 years after the conclusion of a major war—a category in which they include the Korean War, the Vietnam War, and the Gulf War.

Domestic Interest Groups. Aydin (2012) argues that a country's economic activity in foreign markets is concentrated within a subset of domestic economic actors. These actors, who benefit disproportionately from such markets, therefore organize to influence government policy, especially when their interests are threatened by civil conflict.⁶⁴ I anticipate that the lobbying efforts of these interest groups would result in a greater likelihood of US intervention in civil conflicts where their interests are at stake. I proxy this, as Aydin (2012) does, by investigating trade flows and foreign direct investment (FDI). For *Trade Flows*, I use smoothed total trade from the Correlates of War Trade Data Set. This measure sums the exports and imports between the US and each conflict country, in millions of US dollars, and smooths large spikes and dips in trade. For *Foreign Direct Investment*, I use a variable constructed in Bennett, Poast, and Stam's (2019) NewGene software, which indicates the total FDI stocks flowing from the US to each conflict country in millions of US Dollars.

Natural Resources. Civil conflict scholars have frequently investigated the availability of natural resources in conflict states, especially oil production, as a cause of intervention (Aydin 2010; Koga 2011; Findley and Marineau 2015; Stojek and Chacha 2015; Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016). The main theoretical claim of this literature is Findley and Marineau's (2015) argument that outside countries sometimes intervene in civil conflict states to loot or secure access to natural resources. And though looting of this nature is found by Koga (2011) to be

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⁶⁴ However, Aydin (2012) does not expect established democracies, such as the United States, to be affected by this dynamic to the degree that new democracies or autocracies are.

uncharacteristic of democracies, it is also a frequently raised contemporary criticism of US foreign policy. To measure *Lootable Natural Resources*, I use another variable constructed via NewGene which records a conflict country's total natural resources rents as a percentage of GDP.⁶⁵

Conflict Intensity. Civil conflict scholars have often found that conflict intensity increases intervention likelihood (Gent 2007; Aydin 2010; Kathman 2011) though not consistently (Regan 1998; Lemke and Regan 2004). High intensity conflicts are more likely to cause negative externalities, such as conflict spill over, refugee outflows, or regional economic instability, especially for nearby states. Third parties are, therefore, inclined to intervene in hopes of preventing these effects. To measure conflict intensity, I use the UCDP ACD's (2021) *Intensity Level* variable, which I recode as a dichotomous variable which equals 0 when a conflict has caused 25 to 999 battle deaths in a year and 1 when the conflict has caused 1000 or more battle deaths. My data are monthly, so this measure is not appropriately precise, but this is not as serious a limitation as it might appear. Most conflicts in the data are either low intensity for their entire duration or high intensity for their entire duration, such that imprecisely timed changes in conflict intensity rarely occur.

<u>Interstate Relationships</u>. States, unsurprisingly, tend to help their friends and oppose their enemies. Concordantly, the civil war intervention literature tends to find that interveners back the government side in the civil conflicts of their allies (Findley and Teo 2006; Stojek and Chacha 2015) and the rebel side in the civil conflicts of their rivals (Akcinaroglu and Radziszewski 2005; Findley and Teo 2006). There is little reason to expect different foreign policy behavior by the United States—and, indeed, this is a sentiment I noticed quite frequently while coding

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⁶⁵ This variable (*natresource_r-I*) is also from The International Political Economy Data Resource by NewGene. I use oil exports as an alternate specification of this variable (*combinedoil_AE*); the results are broadly consistent.

Congressional Mentions. Congresspersons are quite attentive to which countries are on the US's side and are discerning of their deservingness of support to the point that members of Congress routinely keep score of which countries vote for American resolutions at the UN.

I attempt to capture this outlook in three ways, by measuring rivalry, alliances, and accounting for cold war politics. I measure rivalry using Signorino and Ritter's (1999) weighted global S-score, which measures the foreign policy similarity between states based on the number of alliances, adjusted by ally military capability, which they share. An *S-score* of 1 indicates that two states have identical alliance portfolios, while a -1 indicates opposite portfolios, i.e., a rivalry. I code *Alliance* dichotomously, as a 1 if the United States has a defense pact with each conflict country and 0 otherwise. I collect both variables using Bennett and Stam's (2000) EUGene software. The *Cold War* variable is a hand coded dichotomous variable that equals 1 in all months prior to the collapse of the Berlin Wall.

Regime Type. The most tested argument about regime type's effects on intervention is that democracies are less likely to experience intervention than other states (Hermann and Kegley 1996, Lemke and Regan 2004, Bove, Gleditsch, and Sekeris 2016). As Hermann and Kegley (1996) contend, democracies value negotiation, mediation, and compromise, which enables other states to solve disputes with them diplomatically, thus avoiding intervention and other extraordinary means of influence. Findings are contested, however, and several other relationships have been theorized (Kathman 2011; Aydin 2012; Stojek and Chacha 2015). Unfortunately, because the intervener in my data does not vary, I am only able to investigate the effects of the regime type of the conflict state. To do this, I use the revised combined *Polity IV Score*, which is an interval variable ranging from 10 to -10, with 10 being a full democracy. As with several of the aforementioned variables, I collect *Polity IV Score* using NewGene.

Prior Interventions. To account for Findley and Teo's (2006) 'actor centric' argument that third-party states react to previous interventions and, in particular, to interventions by rivals, I include several variables for prior intervention. Here I again use Regan's (2002) intervention data, with which I construct three prior intervener variables: *Prior Intervention, Prior Multi-Country Intervention*, and *Prior Communist Intervention*. Each variable is dichotomous, equaling 1 when there was any form of intervention in a month and 0 otherwise. *Prior Communist Intervention* includes interventions by all members and observers of Comecon. ⁶⁶ *Prior Intervention* indicates each conflict month that experienced a single non-communist intervention and *Prior Multi-Country Intervention* are mutually exclusive, but both can occur in the same month as a *Prior Communist Intervention*. I expect that the United States is less likely to intervene in conflicts where other states have already intervened, due to the intractability of those conflicts, but more likely to intervene where Communist Bloc countries have intervened.

Results

Table 4-1 displays results for both modeling approaches: Model 1 shows the effects of covariates on *US Intervention*, while Model 2 shows the effects of covariates on *Major US Intervention* while controlling for *Prior US Intervention*. For transparency and ease of interpretation, I display both coefficients and hazard ratios. In the remainder of this section, I interpret at length the findings for each relevant variable in the table—many of which are counterintuitive. In brief: I find moderate but nuanced evidence supporting *Hypothesis 4.1*, clear

⁶⁶ In my data this includes Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Albania, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, the Soviet Union, Zambia, Iraq, the Yemen People's Republic, North Korea, Laos, Vietnam, China before 1962, and Ethiopia after 1973.

evidence in support of *Hypothesis 4.2*, no evidence supporting the other hypotheses, and limited results conforming to the expectations of the wider literature.

Hypothesis 4.1, that an increase in Congressional attention leads to an increase in the chance of intervention in a civil conflict, is supported only in Model 1. When I specify the outcome variable as all *US Interventions*, each mention of a foreign civil conflict by a US Congressperson, results in a 4.8% increase in the risk of intervention over the baseline hazard rate. This result is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. However, when I specify the outcome variable as Major US Interventions, Congressional Mentions is not significant, though it still has a positive effect. This suggests that congressional attention does not presage large and costly interventions in the way that it does lower scale ones. Additionally, the inclusion of *Prior US Intervention* in this model, and its positive sign—significant at the 95% confidence level and increasing the hazard of intervention roughly 700%—suggests that some of Congress' attention to conflicts is explained by existing US intervention commitments and, thus, does not have an independent effect on major military actions. For context, roughly one in three major US interventions was preceded by an intervention at a smaller scale. Alternately, this result may stem from the limitations of my chosen measure. Congress is not the decisive actor in US foreign policymaking; perhaps its attention is not a suitable proxy for the attention of US senior policymakers, generally.

Table 4-1. Effects of Congressional Mentions and Media Coverage on Time to Intervention

VARIABLES	Model 1: US	S Interventions	Model 2: Majo	Model 2: Major US Interventions			
	Coefficients	Hazard Ratios	Coefficients	Hazard Ratios			
Congressional Mentions	0.0464***	1.048***	0.0150	1.015			
Congressional Mentions	(0.0178)	(0.0187)	(0.0197)	(0.0200)			
Houses in Session	0.759	2.135	0.629	1.876			
Houses in Session	(0.551)	(1.178)	(0.613)	(1.149)			
News Media Stories	0.0248***	1.025***	0.0495***	1.051***			
Tiows Media Stories	(0.00839)	(0.00860)	(0.0114)	(0.0120)			
Minimum Distance	-5.94e-05	1.000	2.88e-05	1.000			
William Distance	(0.000104)	(0.000104)	(0.000189)	(0.000189)			
Conflict Country Power	10.85	51,648	28.84*	3.333e+12*			
	(12.58)	(649,940)	(17.25)	(5.751e+13)			
Presidential Election	-0.0806	0.923	-0.0379	0.963			
1100.00111111 210011011	(0.499)	(0.460)	(0.738)	(0.710)			
Midterm Election	0.375	1.455	-0.348	0.706			
	(0.449)	(0.654)	(0.664)	(0.468)			
Unified Government	0.287	1.332	0.502	1.651			
	(0.426)	(0.568)	(0.626)	(1.034)			
War Weariness	-0.877*	0.416*	-1.377*	0.252*			
	(0.511)	(0.213)	(0.720)	(0.182)			
Trade Flows	-0.000164	1.000	-0.000443	1.000			
	(0.000191)	(0.000191)	(0.000326)	(0.000326)			
Foreign Direct Investment	7.05e-05	1.000	0.000186	1.000			
C	(9.57e-05)	(9.57e-05)	(0.000146)	(0.000146)			
Lootable Natural Resources	0.0173	1.017	-0.0585	0.943			
	(0.0348)	(0.0354)	(0.0687)	(0.0648)			
Conflict Country Oil Exports	-0.0704	0.932	0.0206	1.021			
	(0.0801)	(0.0747)	(0.0611)	(0.0624)			
Intensity Level	0.736*	2.088*	0.0224	1.023			
	(0.401)	(0.838)	(0.613)	(0.627)			
Alliance	1.600	4.954	1.670	5.312			
	(1.305)	(6.465)	(2.217)	(11.78)			
S-score	-0.281	0.755	-1.345	0.261			
	(1.794)	(1.355)	(3.202)	(0.834)			
Cold War	0.999	2.716	-1.391*	0.249*			
	(0.720)	(1.956)	(0.845)	(0.210)			
Conflict Country Polity Score	-0.0405	0.960	-0.0396	0.961			
	(0.0347)	(0.0333)	(0.0546)	(0.0524)			
Prior Non-Combatant US Intervention			2.080**	8.005**			
			(0.821)	(6.571)			
Prior Intervention	1.260*	3.525*	0.778	2.178			
	(0.751)	(2.646)	(1.046)	(2.279)			
Prior Multi-Country Intervention	2.283***	9.809***	0.747	2.110			
D. G. C.	(0.771)	(7.565)	(1.323)	(2.792)			
Prior Communist Intervention	-0.857	0.424	-34.65	0			
	(1.159)	(0.492)	(2.181e+07)	(3.26e-08)			
Number of Subjects	1	.98		198			
Number of Failures		35	21				
Observations		747	1	1,462			
FD 11 1' 1 CC' '			0.04 data 0.04	-, · -			

Table displays coefficients, standard errors in parentheses, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Hypothesis 4.2, that an increase in News Media Stories about civil conflicts increases the US propensity to intervene in them, is supported by both models. In Model 1, each story results in a 2.5% increase in the risk of intervention over the baseline hazard rate and, in Model 2, each story results in 5.1% increase in risk. Both results are statistically significant at the 99% confidence level. This corresponds to prior findings, such as Bell, Frank, and Macharia (2013), that news media influences intervention behavior, even in the presence of prior interventions' reciprocal effects. The opposed Hypothesis 4.3, anticipating that media coverage will mobilize opponents of interventions, inversely, does not find support.

Hypothesis 4.4, that the likelihood of third-party intervention in civil conflicts decreases as a function of the conflict states' distance, finds no support. It is negatively signed in Model 1, but contrary to expectations is positively signed in Model 2. However, Minimum Distance does not attain statistical significance in either model. This suggests that the US may, indeed, be unusual in its capacity and inclination to project force abroad.

Hypothesis 4.5, that intervention is more likely to occur in the conflicts of less powerful states, is not supported. In Model 1, Conflict Country Power is positive, but not statistically significant. In Model 2, however, Conflict Country Power is positive and also statistically significant at a 99% confidence level. This is unexpected, it suggests that the US has a higher chance of intervening in powerful countries rather than weak ones. However, my earlier observation should be noted again here: the United States never intervened in the civil conflict of a great power during the period of study. Moreover, the CINC scores of all but one of the conflict states in which the US did undertake a major intervention are below the mean CINC score value in the data.

I find few of the other included variables to be statistically significant. *War Weariness* has a negative effect on intervention, which is significant at the 90% confidence level in both models. *Area Intensity Level* has a positive effect in Model 1 that is significant at the 90% confidence level; there is a 108.8% increased chance over the baseline hazard rate that the US will intervene in a conflict with 1000 or more battle deaths as compared to one with 25 to 1000 battle deaths. *Cold War* was negative and significant at the 90% confidence level in Model 2 but not Model 1, suggesting that the US was less likely to undertake interventions with combat forces during the Cold War but was not less likely to undertake less invasive interventions. Finally, *Prior Intervention* and *Prior Multi-Country Intervention* are positive and significant in Model 1 but not Model 2. I did not have strong expectations regarding the non-communist intervention variables; I interpret this finding as suggesting that the US wants to exert influence on civil conflicts that become internationalized but prefers not to risk its combat forces in doing so.

Conclusions

In this chapter, I have argued that the US is more likely to intervene in foreign civil conflicts when US senior policymakers are attentive to them and when there is attention to them at lower levels of the policy process—but that attention is not a sufficient cause of intervention. My results regarding these arguments are mixed. I find that attention among actors close to the informational inputs of policy i.e., national US newspapers, is consistently associated with an increase in US overseas interventions. I do not find such a clear relationship among the senior

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⁶⁷ War Weariness likely attains significance due to bias from missing data. It does not attain significance in either model when *Conflict Country Polity Score* is dropped, which is the only variable with a large amount of missing data. Excluding it recovers 218 observations, one of which saw a major US military intervention (Yugoslavia).

policymakers I analyzed in this study. The attention of the US Congress is also associated with an increase in US overseas interventions but, when looking exclusively at US decisions to use ground, air, and naval combat forces overseas, Congress's attention is not so decisive. Even more unexpectedly, I did not find evidence that opportunity factors, such as loss of force gradient, inhibit intervention.

Overall, however, these results show that actors and actions nearer the informational inputs of policy do affect outputs at higher levels of the policy process—as anticipated in the PET literature—but that their effects are not as straightforwardly proportionate to their position in the policy process as my argument anticipated. The strong effects I find regarding media attention are noteworthy for their correspondence with longstanding "CNN effect" arguments, as well as their consistency with prior intervention studies which have investigated it. Though these results show the limitations of the data I have collected, I also believe they show promise for the importation of PET theory into civil conflict scholarship and, perhaps, other areas of international relations research.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusions, Limitations, and Contribution

Before proceeding to discuss my overall findings and the larger implications of this project, I should offer a brief review of what I have done in each chapter of the dissertation: In Chapter 1 I identified an area of weakness in the scholarship on third-party intervention in civil conflicts, namely that, beyond micro theories, it rarely explores the domestic factors which affect third party states' willingness to intervene. I proposed to import the insights of a theory of the policy process, punctuated equilibrium theory (PET), to shore up this weakness. In chapter 2, I introduced a new dataset, in which I collected records of US congressional mentions and US newspaper stories about overseas civil conflicts.

In chapter 3 I showed that, in the case of the United States, senior policymaker attention to foreign civil conflicts matches the expectations of punctuated equilibrium theory. Civil conflicts appear more likely to reach the attention of US senior policymakers if they have already reached the attention of actors that are lower in the policy process. In chapter 4, I argued that the US is more likely to intervene in foreign civil conflicts when US senior policymakers are attentive to them but that, even so, the US may do nothing when its opportunity to influence a conflict's outcome is limited or highly costly. My evidence in support of Chapter 4's argument, however, was mixed. These chapters' findings tentatively suggest that US policymaker attention to foreign civil conflicts is consistent with the disproportionate information processing mechanisms PET scholars have discovered in public budgets, with periods of prolonged disinterest punctuated by frantic activity.

In this final chapter, I summarize my findings and discuss the dissertation's contribution to the civil conflict intervention and punctuated equilibrium literatures. There are, importantly, some weaknesses with this research project, both in terms of the data I collected and the research methodology I used. Therefore, in the interest of academic honesty, I proceed by reflecting on the complexities of third-party intervention research, broadly, and on my observations about the behavior of media and policymakers during the protracted data collection effort I undertook for the project.

The Complexities of Intervention Research

Intervention is a complicated phenomenon to study. Just as many earlier scholars were limited by phenomenon-centric research designs, my work is limited by large and theoretically important omissions. Interventions are heterogenous both in terms of the policy tools that are used to undertake them—soldiers, sanctions, monetary support, etc.—and their ultimate goals—defend/overthrow a government, mitigate human suffering, loot the target state, and so on. Third party interveners' choices between these policies and orientations toward these goals differ in theoretically important ways, which have been modelled in prior research and which are not addressed here. Moreover, I have ignored the large but related literatures on conflict mediation and international peacekeeping—policy tools that use different mechanisms, as they require consent from warring parties, but that are, from the perspective of US policymakers, very much substitutable with the forms of intervention analyzed here. Choosing to send soldiers and offering to mediate are part of the same decision calculus.

Finally, I have treated one of the most important elements of conflict dynamics, prior intervention by other third parties, in a relatively facile way, categorizing a given month's

intervention(s) as communist bloc, non-communist bloc, or multiple simultaneous non-communist bloc. This approach seems sensible on its face—the Cold War period has frequently been characterized as battle of "proxy wars" between the great powers—and is appropriate to my unit of analysis. However, prior interventions and who undertakes them, when, in what way, and on whose side, make up a large part of how conflicts are viewed, since they are nested within a broader geopolitical context. Using the data I collected, I am unable to differentiate between the prior interventions of, for example, South Africa versus Angola, or the interventions of many third parties at cross purposes, as in the DRC, versus multiple third parties acting in concert. The monthly nature of my research design makes it quite difficult to incorporate this important complexity.

The Nuance of Measuring Political Phenomena

Data collection in the social sciences is an onerous enterprise. The scale of political behavior in any domain is vast and the distinctions between different types of political phenomena can be quite ambiguous. So, of course, the data introduced in this dissertation has many limitations which doubtless affect my findings.

The most obvious limitation is the small set of policy actors for whom I have collected data. I make the case in Chapter 1 that, given my limited data collection resources, the US Congress is the best institution to analyze to measure the attention of senior policymakers to foreign civil conflicts. I argue that the United States is the country that has undertaken the most interventions, and that Congress is the organ of US government for which data has the greatest availability and variability. This, of course, leaves a lot of countries and policy actors out. In the US, it omits the President and executive branch's foreign policy bureaucracy, which are usually

regarded as the country's main actors in foreign policy. Similarly, I use news media as a proxy for 'actors at lower levels of the policy process.' This too subsumes many different policy actors. And, even within media, it omits radio, television, and online news sources. These are, however, opportunities for future development rather than critical issues for the project.

The greater limitation, as I see it, is the way that policy actors tend to talk about international affairs. Having reviewed thousands of news stories and congressional speeches, I noticed, from my perspective, a frustrating tendency in their style of discourse. While political science scholars are very fastidious about defining phenomena, drawing clear distinctions, and sorting things into typologies, policymakers are not. In their public remarks, policymakers do not, as a group, make clear distinctions between civil wars, coups, terrorism, and violence carried out between substate groups. Sometimes, they mention organized anti-state violence in the same breath as an economic (Argentina) or refugee (Ethiopia) crisis or refer ambiguously to instability, potentially using this term in referring to either of the preceding two. They tend to talk about violence in different ways for different conflicts and in different decades.

This imposes uncertainty in my measures. I have conceptualized civil conflict as a coherent policy issue when, potentially, it may be bundled with other issues and/or allotted to different policy actors on an idiosyncratic basis. Social science is probabilistic, and this could simply be a stochastic process. But perhaps the way a conflict is discussed affects decisions about intervention beyond what could be captured via any control variable. Does it matter, say, that news stories and congressional mentions about the civil conflicts in Ethiopia were overshadowed by mentions of Ethiopia's refugee crisis, over and above the presence of the refugee crisis itself? Not all conflicts that generate refugee crises, after all, are discussed as such.

Summary of Results

Though I have reservations about the data and about my simplified modeling of thirdparty intervention, the findings of the project are mostly consistent with expectations. In Chapter
3, I find support for **Hypotheses 3.1a**, **3.1b**, and **3.1c**: both news media and Congress are
characterized by long periods of inattention to foreign civil conflicts punctuated by rapid and
dramatic changes in attention and, moreover, the attention of Congress is more steeply
punctuated than that of news media. Also in chapter 3, I find consistent evidence in support of **Hypotheses 3.2**, and **3.3**: increases in Media Coverage of civil conflicts lead to increases in
congressional attention; these increases in congressional attention are heightened during "media
storms", periods of sudden, high, sustained coverage; and media storms themselves
independently increase congressional attention. I also identify a condition that restricts
congressional attention to foreign civil conflicts, finding support for **Hypotheses 3.4**, that said
attention decreases when Congress' agenda is crowded with higher priority issues, such as
defense, macroeconomics, and government operations.

Likewise, in Chapter 4, I find support for my core arguments, though it is not quite as consistent. **Hypothesis 4.1**, that an increase in congressional attention to a civil conflict leads to an increase in the chance of intervention, finds mixed support, varying by model specification. **Hypothesis 4.2**, that an increase in *News Media Stories* increases the propensity of intervention, finds clear and consistent support (with the reversed **Hypothesis, 4.3**, that an increase in media attention to a civil conflict leads to a decrease in the likelihood of intervention in the conflict finding no support). In sum, this suggests that attention from policy actors makes civil conflicts likelier targets of intervention. Unexpectedly, however, I find no evidence that opportunity

factors affect intervention. Neither *Hypothesis 4.4*, that distance reduces intervention likelihood, nor *Hypothesis 4.5*, that weaker states are more prone to third-party intervention, finds support.

What conclusions is it reasonable for me to draw from these results? First, since I could not undertake an analysis of the intervention behavior of multiple countries or investigate more than two sets of policy actors within the United States, these results are inherently tentative. The strong relationship I observed between news media coverage and both US congressional speeches and material US interventions might be driven by an alternate causal process, as advanced in, for example, the *CNN effect* scholarship. It's also uncertain whether this relationship persists across different countries, into time periods beyond 1946-1999, or across other types of news media. Likewise, it is unknown whether my less consistent finding of a positive relationship between congressional attention and intervention likelihood applies to other US senior policymakers. The relationship could, perhaps, be stronger within the foreign policy bureaucracy or among the president and his/her senior advisors. What I believe my results do suggest, is that the PET arguments I have advanced are a reasonable potential explanation of third-party intervention in civil conflicts and may be worthy of further development.

Regarding my intervention opportunity hypotheses and insignificant findings for several of the theoretically important variables in the intervention literature, I must conclude that they represent, in part, the uniqueness of the United States as an intervener. The United States is a military and economic outlier during the period of observation, which likely reduces the impact of the opportunity variables I used. These results would, as with those above, benefit from being compared across countries. It is also possible that, if I had modeled conflict outcomes and actors in a different way, for example by articulating which side in each conflict the US and prior third parties supported, my findings might have been more consistent with prior literature. I therefore

regard these hypotheses findings' applicability to intervention research with a modicum of skepticism.

Contribution and Discussion

Though I am circumspect in drawing generalizations from my findings, I believe this project has, as intended, aided the development of an underexplored facet of the third-party intervention literature. I have advanced a more gestalt view of the domestic drivers of intervention than is commonly included in third-party intervention research, one which is theoretically informed by a deep body of public policy scholarship. I would not presently claim that punctuated equilibrium theory is superior to other domestic level explanations of intervention behavior, but I believe that I have demonstrated its potential utility. My strong findings in Chapter 3 and for news media in Chapter 4 indicate that there is some substance to the arguments I have articulated. There is potential for exploring them further through both more sophisticated research designs and further data collection efforts.

I have also contributed to the PET literature by applying the theory to a new domain. As I illustrated in Chapter 1, PET has been used broadly, across many countries, multiple institutions within countries, and across many policy areas. Despite this breadth, it is seldom used to study specific issue areas in foreign policy, and, to my knowledge, this is the first time it has been used in the study of third-party intervention in civil conflicts. Admittedly, I do not conceptually expand upon the theory, but I do test it in new ways as, for example, with hypothesis 3.4 on the attention constraining effects of agenda crowding. This, perhaps, shows the potential of applying PET insights to international relations research in other policy areas as well.

Finally, I would like to return to an observation I made in Chapter 1 about the foreign policy analysis (FPA) subfield of international relations. I claimed that compelling FPA research agendas had been stymied by the inherent complexity of policymaking; policy creation involves many decision makers taking actions that are context dependent, and it is difficult to test policy creation hypotheses without undertaking immense data collection projects. In this dissertation, I was able to draw upon an immense data collection effort, the Comparative Agendas Project, and to undertake my own limited but nonetheless expansive data collection.⁶⁸ In my view, this demonstrates both the promise and feasibility of ambitious data collection in the study of policymaking,

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⁶⁸ I read, skimmed, spot checked, or otherwise reviewed the 26,886 congressional speeches and 110,167 newspaper stories which appear in my analysis dataset, along with the thousands of non-relevant or ambiguous speeches and stories which I excluded from my data along the way.

Appendix 1: Congressional Record Searches

I collected congressional speeches data from Gentzkow, Shapiro, and Taddy's (2017) machine searchable corpus of the *Congressional Record Daily* and *Congressional Record Bound Editions*. This appendix records the keywords in context searches that I conducted for each conflict episode using the quanteda text analysis package for the R statistical computing environment.

Conflict ID: The UCDP ACD numerical identifier for each conflict.

- Episode ID: Though the UCDP ACD identifies separate episodes within conflicts, it does not assign identifiers to them. These are identifiers I created to distinguish between episodes. They consist of the ACD conflict code and, for episodes after the first, an arbitrary decimal value.
- Country and Region/Faction: This is a common usage name of the country where a conflict was fought. For countries with multiple regional conflicts, I also include the name of a subregion, faction, or group to help identify each conflict-episode.
- Date Range: These are the dates of each conflict episode, as identified by the ACD, in YYYY-MM-DD format.
- High Noise: Some conflict episodes are discussed by Congress or the news media in ways which make them difficult to capture with my standard search keywords. 1's in this column indicate conflict episodes I flag as High Noise in the regression analyses of chapters 3 and 4.
- Speeches Found: Several of my searches did not capture any results. Either 1.) Congress did not meet on the days the conflict occurred, 2.) Congress did not mention the country or region during the dates of the conflict, or 3.) I determined by reading the returned results that the keywords were capturing something other than speeches about the conflict episode, i.e., "Kachina dolls" rather than Myanmar's "Kachin" conflict, and I could not devise an alternate search strategy that would capture speeches about the conflict. 1's in this column indicate that the search did return relevant results.
- Location Keywords: This is a list of the terms for which I conducted keywords in context searches. For country names, I search for each name specified in Hensel's ICOW Historical State Names Data Set, i.e., I search for both Burma and Myanmar. For conflicts over specific regions, I use the territory name specified in the ACD. Each search is specified such that it will capture the demonym of a country or region as well as its name, i.e., Burman, Burmese, and Myanmarese. I use special characters for string manipulation where necessary, i.e., Burm[ae] to capture both Burman and Burmese. For countries, demonyms are listed in Hensel's data. For regions, I use my best judgment based on the conflict descriptions in the UCDP's online database. An "n/a" in this

category usually means that Congress did not meet on the days the conflict occurred and no search was possible.

Conflict Keywords: This is a record of the terms I searched within the 20 words before and 20 words after each mention of a conflict country returned via keywords in context search. For a "standard" search, the terms are: conflict, war, refugee, guerilla, killing, fighting, rebel, violence, strife, devastation, crisis, chaos, peacekeeper, or intervention. An "n/a" in this category usually means that Congress did not mention the relevant country or region during the dates of the conflict, but there are other reasons which I explain in the Notes column. Alternately, I specify the full list of search terms which I used. As with location keywords, I use special characters for string manipulation. A standard search is specified as: [Cc]onflict|\\s[Ww]ar\\s[Ww]ar\\s[Ww]ar[sf]|[Rr]efuge|[Gg]uerrilla|[Kk]illing|[Ff]ighting| [Rr]ebel|[Vv]iolen|[Ss]trife|[Dd]evast|[Cc]ris[ei]s|[Cc]hao|[Pp]eacekeep|[Ii]nterven, where each "|" is the logical operator OR.

Additional Keywords: I survey the results of each search to ensure they are not systematically capturing noise they should not be. Where this column says something is "Removed", I have dropped search results containing the listed terms. Where I note I "Require" terms, it means that I have dropped search results that do not contain the listed terms. In the few cases where I note that I "Recovered" terms, it means that, after several terms were removed, I subsequently searched within the observations that were removed for mentions I wanted to retain, adding what is returned back into my other search results.

Notes: This column elaborates on patterns in the results of different conflict episodes, quirks of searches, or why I modified a search in the way I did.

Conflict ID	Episode ID	Country and Region/Faction	Date Range	High Noise	Speeches Found	Location Keywords	Conflict Keywords	Additional Keywords	Notes
200	200	Bolivia	1946-07-21	N	N	n/a	n/a		
200	200.002	Bolivia	1952-04-09— 1952-04-12	N	N	Bolivia	n/a		
200	200.025	Bolivia	1967-03-31— 1967-10-16	N	Υ	Bolivia	standard		
202	202	China	1946-12-31— 1949-12-08	N	Υ	Chin[ae]	standard		
203	203	Greece	1946-03-31— 1949-10-16	N	Υ	Gree[ck]	standard		
205	205	Iran, Kurd	1946-05-31— 1946-12-16	N	N	Iran Persia Kurd	standard		
205	205.004	Iran, Kurd	1966-12-31— 1968-12-31	N	N	Iran Persia Kurd	standard		
205	205.086	Iran, Kurd	1979-12-31— 1988-12-31	N	N	Kurd	standard		The search only captured speeches about the Iran-Iraq War
205	205.165	Iran, Kurd	1990-07-10— 1990-08-17	N	N	Kurd	standard		
205	205.18	Iran, Kurd	1993-09-12— 1993-11-11	N	N	Kurd	standard		
205	205.218	Iran, Kurd	1996-07-28	N	N	n/a	n/a		
209	209	Philippines	1946-07-31— 1954-12-31	N	Υ	Philippines Filipino	standard		
209	209.033	Philippines	1969-09-30— 1995-11-29	N	Υ	Philippines Filipino	standard		

209	209.244	Philippines	1997-11-23— 1997-12-30	N	N	Philippines Filipino	n/a		Congress only met on one day during this period, and none of the 53 speeches on that day mentioned the Philippines
209	209.267	Philippines	1999-06-06— 1999-12-31	N	N	Philippines Filipino	standard	Removed: [Ww]orld\\s[Ww] ar	There is nothing relevant to the CPP conflict in this time period
210	210	Estonia	1946-12-31— 1948-12-31	N	N	Estonia Eesti Esthonia	standard		Soviet annexation of Estonia is mentioned repeatedly, but no mention is made of local resistance
212	212	Lithuania	1946-06-30— 1948-12-31	N	N	Lithuania	standard		Soviet annexation of Lithuania is mentioned, but no mention is made of local resistance
213	213	Ukraine	1946-12-31— 1950-12-31	N	N	Ukraine Ukrainian	standard		There is no mention of Ukrainian rebels fighting against the Soviets
217	217	China, Taiwan	1947-02-28— 1947-03-24	N	N	Taiwan Taipei Formosa	n/a		There are no mentions of this conflict
220	220	Paraguay	1947-03-31— 1947-08-21	N	Y	Paragua[iy]	n/a		Partly hand-coded based on subjective judgment
220	220.007	Paraguay	1954-05-05	N	N	Paragua[iy]	n/a		
220	220.03	Paraguay	1989-02-03	N	N	n/a	n/a		

221	221	Myanmar, Karen	1949-01-15— 1992-11-22	N	Y	Karen Kayin	standard		Partly hand-coded to remove speeches with the women's name "Karen"
221	221.21	Myanmar, Karen	1994-12-31— 1995-07-13	N	Υ	Karen Kayin	standard		
221	221.24	Myanmar, Karen	1997-02-23— 1998-07-14	N	Y	Karen Kayin	standard		Partly hand-coded to remove speeches with the women's name "Karen"
222	222	Myanmar	1948-02-29— 1988-12-31	N	Y	Myanmar Burm[ae]	standard	Removed: [Ww]orld\\s[Ww] ar	
222	222.165	Myanmar	1990-12-31— 1992-12-31	N	Υ	Myanmar Burm[ae]	standard		Difficult to distinguish this conflict from others occurring in Myanmar
222	222.215	Myanmar	1994-12-31	N	N	n/a	n/a		
223	223	Myanmar, Rohingya	1948-01-31— 1961-11-15	N	N	Arakan Rakhin Rohingy	n/a		
223	223.056	Myanmar, Rohingya	1964-12-31— 1978-12-31	N	N	Arakan Rakhin Rohingy	n/a		
223	223.128	Myanmar, Rohingya	1991-12-29	N	N	n/a	n/a		
223	223.199	Myanmar, Rohingya	1994-05-15— 1994-06-23	N	N	Arakan Rakhin Rohingy	n/a		
225	225	Costa Rica	1948-03-03— 1948-04-20	N	N	n/a	n/a		

227	227	India	1948-09-18— 1951-12-31	N	N	India	standard	Removed: Indiana Indian	The standard search for this conflict captures "Indiana" and "Indians" (i.e. Native Americans) and several speeches about World War 2. After reading 158 observations returned by the modified search, I determined that none were about this conflict.
227	227.024	India	1969-12-31— 1971-12-31	Y	Y	India	standard	Removed: Indiana Indian [Ww]orld\\s[Ww]a r Pakistan	The standard search for this conflict captures "Indiana" and "Indians" (i.e. Native Americans) and several speeches about World War 2 and Pakistan.
227	227.1	India	1991-07-16— 1994-12-02	N	N	India	standard	Removed: Indiana Indian [Ww]orld\\s[Ww]a r Pakistan	The standard search for this conflict captures "Indiana" and "Indians" (i.e. Native Americans) and several speeches about World War 2 and Pakistan. After checking the results of the modified search manually, I determined that none were about this anti-communist conflict

227	227.234	India	1996-04-03— 1999-12-31	N	N	India	standard	Removed: Indiana Indian [Ww]orld\\s[Ww]a r Pakistan	See above
230	230	Yemen	1948-03-15	N	N	Yemen	n/a		
230	230.009	Yemen	1962-10-31— 1970-05-23	N	Y	Yemen	standard		These speeches disproportionately mention Nasser's intervention in Yemen, but they are clearly about this conflict
230	230.091	Yemen	1979-03-31— 1982-05-31	Υ	N	Yemen	standard		All the speeches captured by this search concerned Marxism in South Yemen and did not mention civil conflict in North Yemen
231	231	Myanmar, Kachin	1949-01-15— 1950-05-05	N	N	Kachin	n/a		
231	231.018	Myanmar, Kachin	1961-02-28— 1992-12-31	N	Υ	Kachin	n/a	Removed: Kachina	There are several speeches capturing "Kachina" dolls, about Hopi Indian traditions
233	233	Guatemala	1949-07-18— 1949-07-19	N	N	Guatemala	n/a		
233	233.014	Guatemala	1954-06-18— 1954-06-27	N	Υ	Guatemala	standard		
233	233.031	Guatemala	1963-07-31— 1963-12-31	N	N	Guatemala	standard		
233	233.067	Guatemala	1965-12-31— 1995-12-31	N	Y	Guatemala	standard		

234	234	Israel	1949-12-31— 1996-09-30	Y	Y	Isra[ei]l	[Tt]errori [Cc]onflict \\s[Ww]ar\\s \\s[Ww]ar[sf] [Gg]uerrilla [Kk]illing [Ff]ighting [Rr]ebel [Vv]iolen [Ss]trife [Dd]evast [Cc]ris[ei]s [Cc]hao [Pp]eacekeep [Ii]nterven	Require: Palestini [Tt]error i [Rr]efugee [Gg] uerrilla	There standard search captures many speeches about conflicts other than the Arab Israeli one, which had to be excluded
236	236	China, Tibet	1950-10-07— 1950-10-09	N	N	n/a	n/a		
236	236.019	China, Tibet	1956-05-31— 1956-12-31	N	Υ	Tibet	n/a		
236	236.039	China, Tibet	1959-03-10— 1959-04-23	N	Υ	Tibet	n/a		All the speeches returned by the location keyword concerned Chinese action in Tibet; there was no need to search by conflict terms
237	237	Indonesia, Moluccas	1950-08-05— 1950-11-15	N	N	Molucca Maluku	n/a		
240	240	Thailand	1951-06-30— 1951-07-01	N	N	Thai Siam	n/a		
240	240.23	Thailand	1974-10-31— 1982-12-31	Y	Y	Thai Siam	[Cc]onflict \\s[Ww]ar[s]ar\\s \\s[Ww]ar[s]f] [Gg]uerrilla [Kk]illing [Ff]ighting [Rr]ebel [Vv]iolen [Ss]trife [Dd]evast [Cc]ris[ei]s [Cc]hao [Pp]eacekeep [Ii]nterven		Many of the speeches captured by the standard search concern Vietnamese refugees fleeing to Thailand, so I drop "refuge" from the list of conflict keywords

242	242	Cuba	1953-07-26— 1953-07-27	N	N	Cuba	n/a	
242	242.027	Cuba	1956-12-05— 1958-12-31	N	Y	Cuba	standard	The standard search captures several speeches about the Spanish American War, which I dropped by hand
242	242.046	Cuba	1961-04-17— 1961-04-20	N	Y	Cuba	standard	The standard search captures several speeches about sugar imports and vague references to news stories about Castro, which I dropped by hand
243	243	Indonesia, Dar- ul Islam	1953-12-31	N	N	n/a	n/a	
243	243.029	Indonesia, Dar- ul Islam	1958-04-17— 1961-12-31	N	Y	Indonesia	standard	Some speeches captured by this search were not clearly about the conflict but I chose not to modify the search

247	247	Argentina	1955-06-16— 1955-09-19	N	Υ	Argentin	n/a		The speeches captured by this search are about religious freedom and dictatorship; there was no discussion of the coup because Congress was not in session when it happened in September. I have therefore dropped them
247	247.034	Argentina	1963-04-02— 1963-09-22	N	Υ	Argentin	standard		I removed by hand all speeches that were not about the failed coup/violence
247	247.064	Argentina	1974-08-11— 1977-12-31	N	Y	Argentin	standard		I removed by hand all the speeches that were not about the fighting against Peron
249	249	Vietnam	1955-04-30— 1964-12-31	Υ	Υ	Vietnam	standard		There is a clear issue with reverse causality in this conflict; Congress is commenting on the standing US forces in South Vietnam
251	251	India, Nagaland	1956-12-31— 1959-12-31	N	N	Naga	n/a		There were no speeches apart from those containing "Nagasaki"
251	251.05	India, Nagaland	1961-12-31— 1968-06-15	N	N	Naga	n/a	Removed: Nagasaki	There were no speeches apart from those containing "Nagasaki" or other Japanese words

251	251.085	India, Nagaland	1992-08-05— 1997-07-22	N	Υ	Nagas Nagaland	n/a	Removed: Nagas[ahk]	The standard search captures several speeches about Nagasaki but also some about the Nagaland conflict
259	259	Iraq	1958-07-14— 1959-03-10	N	Y	Ira[qk]	standard		I removed speeches that were not about Qasim's coup by hand
259	259.048	Iraq	1963-02-08— 1963-11-20	N	N	Ira[qk]	standard		
259	259.066	Iraq	1982-08-01— 1984-12-31	Y	N	Ira[qk]	standard	Removed: _ [Ww]ar Require: [Gg]uerrilla [Rr]e bel [Ss]trife SCIRI [Ss]hi[ai']	This search mostly captures speeches about the Iran-Iraq War but, even excluding them, I couldn't find any speeches about SCIRI
259	259.152	Iraq	1987-12-31	N	N	n/a	n/a		
259	259.16	Iraq	1991-04-24— 1996-10-25	Y	Y	Ira[qk]	standard	Require: [Gg]uerrilla [Rr]e bel [Ss]trife SCIRI [Ss]hi[ai'] [Ss]ou th	I specified this search to capture rebel activity in the south but, though speeches mention rebels, they never mention SCIRI
260	260	Lebanon	1958-05-15— 1958-07-31	N	Υ	L[ei]ban[eo] Lubnan	standard		
260	260.045	Lebanon	1975-09-09— 1976-10-21	N	Υ	L[ei]ban[eo] Lubnan	standard		
260	260.121	Lebanon	1982-09-01— 1986-12-31	N	Υ	L[ei]ban[eo] Lubnan	standard		
260	260.156	Lebanon	1989-03-14— 1990-10-13	N	Y	L[ei]ban[eo] Lubnan	standard		

			1959-11-12—						
262	262	Laos	1961-04-26	N	Υ	Lao[st]	standard		
262	262.054	Laos	1963-12-31— 1973-09-14	N	Y	Lao[st]	standard		
262	262.108	Laos	1989-08-25— 1990-04-10	N	Υ	Lao[st]	standard		
264	264	Myanmar, Shan	1959-11-22— 1970-12-31	N	N	Shan AND Shan\\s	n/a		
264	264.093	Myanmar, Shan	1972-12-31— 1973-12-31	N	N	Shan AND Shan\\s	n/a		
264	264.11	Myanmar, Shan	1976-08-31— 1988-12-31	N	N	Shan AND Shan\\s	n/a		
264	264.165	Myanmar, Shan	1993-07-16— 1999-12-31	N	N	Shan AND Shan\\s	standard		
267	267	Ethiopia	1960-12-17	Υ	N	n/a	n/a		
267	267.052	Ethiopia	1976-06-02— 1991-06-02	Y	Y	Ethiopia	standard	Removed: Somali Ogaden C uba Soviet Eritr	This search captures a lot of mentions of other conflicts (war with Somalia, civil conflict in Ogaden, Cuban and Soviet intervention) than the EPRDF vs. government one; since there is no search that excludes this noise while keeping all the signal, I use the simplest solution
269	269	Nepal	1960-02-29— 1962-12-31	N	N	Nepal	standard		
269	269.063	Nepal	1996-08-23— 1999-12-31	N	N	Nepal	standard		

270	270	France, OAS	1961-04-22— 1962-06-30	N	N	Fr[ae]nc[eh]	standard		No speeches were about the rightist OAS rebels
271	271	Iraq, Kurd	1961-12-31— 1970-03-11	N	Y	Kurd	n/a		I removed by hand all the speeches that were not about the Iraq vs. Kurd conflict; disturbingly, there were several speeches in which congresspersons blamed the Kurds for perpetrating the Armenian genocide
271	271.09	Iraq, Kurd	1973-07-31— 1992-03-13	Υ	Υ	Iraq AND [Kk]urd	standard		
271	271.201	Iraq, Kurd	1995-03-14— 1996-09-30	Υ	Υ	Iraq AND [Kk]urd	standard		
275	275	Ethiopia, Eritrea	1964-03-15— 1991-05-31	N	Υ	Eritrea Erithrea Ertra Iritriya	standard		
282	282	Sudan	1963-12-31— 1972-01-31	N	Υ	Sudan Soudan	standard		I removed speeches that were not about Sudan vs SSLM
283	283	DRC	1964-01-31— 1965-12-31	N	Υ	Congo Zair	standard	Removed: [Bb]razzaville	The standard search captures stories about Congo-Brazzaville
283	283.074	DRC	1967-07-05— 1967-11-05	N	Υ	Congo Zair	standard		

283	283.082	DRC	1977-04-30— 1978-06-15	N	Y	Congo Zair	Angola Shaba Cub a [Cc]onflict \\s[Ww]ar\\s \\s[Ww] ar[sf] [Rr]efuge [G g]uerrilla [Kk]illing [Ff]ighting [Rr]eb el [Vv]iolen [Ss]tri fe [Dd]evast [Cc]ri s[ei]s [Cc]hao [Pp] eacekeep [li]nterv en	
283	283.126	DRC	1996-10-19— 1999-12-31	N	Y	Congo Zair	Mobutu Kabila AF DL [Cc]onflict \\s[Ww]ar\\s \\s[Ww] ar[sf] [Rr]efuge [G g]uerrilla [Kk]illing [Ff]ighting [Rr]eb el [Vv]iolen [Ss]tri fe [Dd]evast [Cc]ri s[ei]s [Cc]hao [Pp] eacekeep [li]nterv en	
287	287	Burundi	1965-10-19	N	N	Burundi	n/a	
287	287.072	Burundi	1991-11-27— 1992-04-14	N	N	Burundi	n/a	
287	287.203	Burundi	1994-10-18— 1999-12-31	N	Υ	Burundi	standard	
288	288	Chad	1966-07-31— 1972-11-24	N	Y	Chad Tasad Tchad	standard	I removed by hand speeches that were not about Chad vs First Liberation Army

288	288.105	Chad	1976-02-18— 1984-12-31	N	Y	Chad Tasad Tchad	standard	Removed: Chadha Chada C hadwick Chadds	The standard search captures speeches with the name "Chad" as well as references to a "Chadha" court case
288	288.152	Chad	1986-12-31— 1987-11-01	N	Y	Chad Tasad Tchad	standard	Removed: Chadha Chada	See above
288	288.159	Chad	1989-03-03— 1994-12-31	N	Y	Chad Tasad Tchad	standard	Removed: Chades	See above
288	288.236	Chad	1997-10-30— 1999-12-31	N	N	Chad Tasad Tchad	standard		
289	289	Colombia	1964-12-31— 1999-12-31	N	Y	Colombia	standard		Much of this discussion was about drug trafficking but, with Colombia's rebel groups financing themselves via cocaine, I chose not to modify the search
291	291	Indonesia, West Papua	1965-07-28— 1965-12-31	N	N	Papua	n/a		
291	291.074	Indonesia, West Papua	1967-12-31— 1969-12-31	N	N	Papua	n/a		
291	291.088	Indonesia, West Papua	1976-12-31— 1978-12-31	N	N	Papua	standard		
291	291.128	Indonesia, West Papua	1981-12-31	N	N	n/a	n/a		
291	291.139	Indonesia, West Papua	1984-12-31	N	N	n/a	n/a		
292	292	Peru	1965-08-03— 1965-12-31	N	N	Peru	standard		

292	292.074	Peru	1982-08-22— 1999-11-26	N	Y	Peru Perou	standard		I removed by hand speeches that were not about the Shining Path, mostly mentions of historical wars and debt crisis, but as with Colombia I kept the anti- drugs speeches
297	297	Nigeria	1966-01-15— 1966-07-29	N	N	Nigeria	standard		
298	298	Namibia	1966-12-31— 1988-08-08	N	Υ	Namibia	standard		
299	299	Syria	1966-02-23	N	N	Syria	n/a		
299	299.075	Syria	1979-06-16— 1982-02-02	N	N	Syria	standard		
300	300	Cambodia	1967-05-31— 1975-04-17	Y	Y	Cambo[dj] Kampuchea Khmer	Rouge [Cc]onflict \\s[Ww]ar\\s \\s[Ww]ar[sf] [Rr]efug e [Gg]uerrilla [Kk]i lling [Ff]ighting [R r]ebel [Vv]iolen [S s]trife [Dd]evast [Cc]ris[ei]s [Cc]hao [Pp]eacekeep [li] nterven	Removed: Viet [Oo]peration s [ii]nterven [ii]n va[ds] [Bb]order Nixon [Pp]residen t [Tt]roops [Aa]r my [Ff]orces [Ss] anctu [Ss]upply [Bb]ases [Ee]xtens ion [Ee]xpan[ds] [Ee]scalat [Bb]roa den [Ww]ide[nr] Tonkin \\sHo\\s Recovered: [Rr]ouge Sihanou k Lon\\sNol [Ww]ar\\sin\\s_ [Ww] ar\\sfor\\s_	To exclude Vietnam War spillover from this search, I dropped references to Vietnam and the Ho Chi Minh Trail, but then, to avoid loss of signal, I recovered from the dropped speeches any that specifically mention the Khmer Rouge, Prince Sihanouk, or General Lon Nol

300	300.116	Cambodia	1978-12-30— 1998-10-24	N	Υ	Cambo[dj] Kampuchea Khmer	standard		Many of these speeches mention Vietnam but, unlike the prior episode in this conflict, they are appropriate to include due to the Vietnamese intervention in Cambodia's civil conflict
303	303	Nigeria, Biafra	1967-07-06— 1970-01-12	N	Y	Biafra	standard		
308	308	Philippines, Mindanao	1970-08-20— 1990-08-02	Υ	Y	Mindanao	n/a		
308	308.179	Philippines, Mindanao	1993-02-09— 1999-12-31	N	N	Mindanao	n/a		
309	309	Sudan	1971-07-22	N	N	Sudan Soudan	n/a		
309	309.09	Sudan	1976-07-02	N	N	Sudan Soudan	n/a		
309	309.12	Sudan	1983-05-17— 1999-12-31	N	Y	Sudan Soudan	standard	Removed: Ethiop Recovered: [Rr]efuge [Ff]ood [Ss]tarv [Ff]amin e [Cc]risis	There's a lot of overlap between the conflicts in Ethiopia and Sudan. I removed the earlier speeches that are about African food or refugee crises rather than violent conflict then recovered the speeches mentioning Sudan's conflict in the context of Ethiopian refugees
312	312	Pakistan	1971-03-26— 1971-12-16	N	Y	Pakistan	standard		

313	313	Sri Lanka, JVP	1971-04-30— 1971-06-09	N	Y	Lanka Ceylon	n/a		I removed by hand speeches that were not about the JVP
313	313.095	Sri Lanka, JVP	1989-02-13— 1990-02-23	N	N	Lanka Ceylon	standard		None of the recovered speeches concerned the JVP, most mention Tamils
314	314	Uganda	1971-01-29— 1972-09-20	N	Υ	Uganda	standard		
314	314.103	Uganda	1974-03-23	N	N	n/a	n/a		
314	314.111	Uganda	1979-01-22— 1992-08-09	N	Υ	Uganda	standard		
314	314.206	Uganda	1994-02-21— 1999-12-31	N	Υ	Uganda	standard		
315	315	UK, Northern Ireland	1971-08-31— 1991-11-26	N	Y	Ireland Irish	standard	Require: [Nn]orthern	I searched for "Ireland" and required results to include "northern" because including UK or United Kingdom in the search only increases noise
315	315.195	UK, Northern Ireland	1998-08-15	N	N	n/a	n/a		
316	316	El Salvador	1972-03-25	N	N	n/a	n/a		
316	316.102	El Salvador	1979-09-14— 1991-11-18	N	Y	Salvador	standard	Require: El	Using El Salvador in the search causes issues with whitespace, but searching without "El" captures a lot of speeches mentioning the Spanish given name "Salvador"

318	318	Zimbabwe	1967-09-05— 1968-12-31	N	Y	Rhodesia	standard		Several of these speeches capture "economic war" but that seems relevant to the conflict, so I do not exclude the term
318	318.086	Zimbabwe	1973-04-04— 1979-12-21	N	Y	Zimbabwe Rhodesia	standard		
322	322	Banglaadesh, Chittagong	1975-02-28— 1991-12-31	N	Y	Chittagong	n/a	Require: hill	There were very few speeches mentioning Chittagong, so I used a term which captures the one relevant speech
325	325	Pakistan, Baloch	1974-12-31— 1977-07-05	N	N	Baloch	n/a		
327	327	Angola	1975-11-11— 1995-12-24	N	Y	Angola Portuguese West Africa	standard		
327	327.246	Angola	1998-05-02— 1999-12-31	N	Y	Angola	standard		I removed by hand the speeches that mentioned Angola but were about other African conflicts
329	329	Ethiopia, Ogaden	1964-01-11— 1964-12-31	N	N	Ogaden	n/a		
329	329.07	Ethiopia, Ogaden	1976-10-31— 1983-12-31	N	Y	Ogaden	standard		Many of these speeches mention Ethiopia-Somalia conflict, but that is due to the Somali supported insurgency in Ogaden, so it is appropriate to retain them

329	329.15	Ethiopia, Ogaden	1993-10-13— 1994-02-26	N	N	Ogaden	standard		
329	329.226	Ethiopia, Ogaden	1996-08-09— 1996-12-31	N	N	Ogaden	n/a		
329	329.259	Ethiopia, Ogaden	1998-12-31— 1999-12-31	N	N	Ogaden	n/a		
330	330	Indonesia, East Timor	1975-07-12— 1988-12-31	N	Y	Timor	n/a		Timor is never mentioned outside the context of its conflict, so there is no need to use the conflict keywords
330	330.165	Indonesia, East Timor	1992-12-15	N	N	n/a	n/a		
330	330.213	Indonesia, East Timor	1997-05-31— 1999-09-22	N	Υ	Timor	n/a		See above
331	331	Morocco, Western Sahara	1975-11-04— 1989-11-16	Y	Y	Sahara Sahrawi	[Cc]onflict \\s[Ww]ar[s f] [Rr]efuge [Gg]u errilla [Kk]illing [F f]ighting [Rr]ebel [Vv]iolen [Ss]trife [Dd]evast [Cc]ris[e i]s [Cc]hao [Pp]ea cekeep [li]nterven Polisario	Require: Western	It is difficult to discriminate between speeches about this conflict and those about the conflict between Polisario and Mauritania
332	332	Mozambique	1977-12-31— 1992-10-19	N	Υ	Mo[cz]ambi	standard		
333	333	Afghanistan	1978-04-27— 1999-12-31	N	Υ	Afghan	standard		
336	336	Nicaragua	1977-10-10— 1979-07-19	N	Υ	Nicara[gh]ua	standard		

336	336.13	Nicaragua	1982-04-17— 1990-04-15	N	Υ	Nicara[gh]ua	standard		
337	337	Somalia	1982-12-31— 1984-12-31	N	Y	Somali Soomali	standard		I removed by hand the speeches that were not about Somalia vs. SNM/SSDF
337	337.152	Somalia	1986-03-03— 1996-12-20	N	Υ	Somali	standard		
338	338	Iran, MEK	1979-12-31— 1982-12-31	Y	N	Iran Persia	standard		I did not find any speeches about Iran vs. MEK
338	338.146	Iran, MEK	1986-12-31— 1988-12-31	Υ	N	Iran Persia	standard		See above
338	338.165	Iran, MEK	1991-04-03	N	N	n/a	n/a		
338	338.187	Iran, MEK	1993-04-09— 1993-12-11	Y	Y	Iran Persia	standard	Removed: _ Gulf	Most speeches captured by the standard search were about the Gulf War, I removed them and also removed by hand the speeches that were not about Iran vs. MEK
338	338.221	Iran, MEK	1997-02-18— 1997-11-02	Υ	Υ	Iran Persia	standard	Removed: _ [GgC]ul[fl]	See above
338	338.264	Iran, MEK	1999-11-25— 1999-12-31	Υ	N	Iran Persia	n/a		
341	341	Liberia	1980-04-12— 1980-04-14	N	N	n/a	n/a		
341	341.135	Liberia	1989-12-26— 1990-12-31	N	Υ	Liberia	standard		
347	347	India, Manipur	1982-07-31— 1988-12-31	N	N	Manipur	n/a		

347	347.165	India, Manipur	1993-12-31— 1996-12-19	N	N	Manipur	standard		
347	347.256	India, Manipur	1998-12-31— 1999-12-31	N	N	Manipur	standard		
351	351	India, Punjab	1983-12-31— 1993-12-24	N	Y	Punjab Khalistan	standard		
352	352	Sri Lanka, Tamil	1984-09-01— 1999-12-31	N	Y	Lanka	standard		
353	353	Cameroon	1960-01-31— 1961-12-31	N	N	Camero[ou]n Kamerun	standard		
353	353.057	Cameroon	1984-04-06— 1984-04-09	N	N	Camero[ou]n Kamerun	n/a		
354	354	Turkey	1984-08-15— 1999-12-31	N	Υ	Turk[ei]	[Cc]onflict \\s[Ww]ar\s \\s[Ww]ar[sf] [Gg]uerrilla [Kk]illing [Ff]ighting [Rr]ebel [Vv]iolen [Ss]trife [Dd]evast [Cc]ris[ei]s [Cc]hao [Pp]eacekeep [li]nterven	Removed: Iraq Require: [Kk]urd	Searching for "Kurd" doesn't work because it overwhelmingly finds speeches about the Kurds in Iraq; additionally, many of these speeches are about refugees unrelated to the Turkey vs Kurd conflict, so I exclude the "refuge" keyword from this search
359	359	Yemen	1986-01-13— 1986-01-20	N	N	n/a	n/a		

364	364	India, Kashmir	1990-02-12— 1999-12-31	Y	Y	Kashmir	standard	This search for this conflict is very noisy, I captured some speeches about interstate war, some intrastate, some human rights; the discussion runs such that there is no easy way to refine the search
365	365	India, Assam	1990-11-30	N	N	n/a	n/a	
365	365.184	India, Assam	1994-12-31— 1999-12-31	N	N	Assam	standard	
366	366	Indonesia, Aceh	1990-06-06— 1991-12-28	N	N	Aceh	n/a	
366	366.198	Indonesia, Aceh	1999-06-01— 1999-12-31	N	Y	Aceh	n/a	The two speeches captured by the location keyword are relevant, so no conflict keywords are necessary
374	374	Rwanda	1990-10-03— 1994-07-04	N	Y	R[uw]anda	standard	
374	374.229	Rwanda	1996-07-12— 1999-12-31	N	Y	R[uw]anda	ALiR [Mm]ilitants [Cc]onflict \\s[Ww]ar\\s \\s[Ww]ar[s]f] [Rr]efuge [Gg]u errilla [Kk]illing [F f]ighting [Rr]ebel [Vv]iolen [Ss]trife [Dd]evast [Cc]ris[e i]s [Cc]hao [Pp]ea cekeep [Ii]nterven	I added terms to this search so that it captures speeches about the Rwanda vs. ALIR conflict in addition to mentions of the genocide

375	375	Senegal, Casamance	1990-08-31— 1990-12-31	N	N	Senegal AND Casamance	n/a		
375	375.185	Senegal, Casamance	1992-09-01— 1993-11-16	N	N	Senegal AND Casamance	standard		
375	375.219	Senegal, Casamance	1995-04-27— 1995-12-01	N	N	Senegal AND Casamance	n/a		
375	375.245	Senegal, Casamance	1997-03-18— 1998-11-02	N	N	Senegal AND Casamance	standard		
382	382	Sierra Leone	1991-04-01— 1999-12-31	N	Υ	Sierra _\\sLeone	standard		
385	385	Yugoslavia, Croat	1991-07-27— 1992-04-06	N	Υ	Croat	standard		
386	386	Algeria	1991-12-09— 1999-12-31	N	Y	Algeri[ea]	standard	Removed: Morocc	I removed by hand the speeches that were about Western Sahara rather than Algeria vs AQIM and GIA
388	388	Azerbaijan, Nagorno Karabakh	1991-12-30— 1994-07-15	N	Y	Artsakh Nagorno Karabakh	standard		
388	388.23	Azerbaijan, Nagorno Karabakh	1997-04-20— 1998-12-31	N	Y	Artsakh Nagorno Karabakh	standard		Some relevant speeches are lost after filtering by conflict keywords
389	389	Yugoslavia, Bosnia	1992-04-30— 1995-12-31	Y	Y	Bosnia Her[cz]eg	standard		This conflict is difficult to distinguish from the Czech vs Bosniak and Czech vs Serb conflicts
390	390	Croatia	1992-05-17— 1993-12-13	Y	Y	Croat	standard		I removed by hand the speeches that were not about Croatia vs Serbian Republic of Krajina

390	390.222	Croatia	1995-05-01— 1995-09-06	Υ	Υ	Croat	standard	See above
391	391	Egypt	1993-03-10— 1998-11-02	N	Y	Egypt	[Tt]error [Cc]onflic t \\s[Ww]ar\\s \\s [Ww]ar[sf] [Rr]efu ge [Gg]uerrilla [Kk]illing [Ff]ighting [Rr]ebel [Vv]iolen [Ss]trife [Dd]evast [Cc]ris[ei]s [Cc]hao [Pp]eacekeep [li] nterven	It is difficult for searches to parse between speeches about this conflict, involving Egypt vs al-Gamaa al-Islamiyya, and terrorism and the Arab-Israeli conflict
392	392	Georgia, Abkhazia	1992-08-17— 1993-11-29	N	Y	Abkhazia	n/a	The speeches captured by the location keyword are relevant, so no conflict keywords are necessary
395	395	Tajikistan	1992-05-10— 1998-11-16	N	Υ	T[ao]j[io]k Tad[jz]ikistan	standard	
401	401	Russia, Chechnya	1994-11-26— 1996-11-08	N	Y	Chech[en]	n/a	The speeches captured by the location keyword are relevant, so no conflict keywords are necessary
401	401.254	Russia, Chechnya	1999-08-11— 1999-12-31	N	Υ	Chech[en]	n/a	See above
402	402	Yemen	1994-04-28— 1994-07-04	N	Υ	Yemen	standard	
404	404	Pakistan, Karachi	1990-02-11	N	N	n/a	n/a	

404	404.174	Pakistan, Karachi	1994-05-03— 1996-09-04	N	N	Pakistan	standard	This search did not return any speeches about the Pakistan vs MQM conflict; most are about Kashmir
408	408	Republic of Congo	1993-11-11— 1993-12-27	N	N	Congo	n/a	
408	408.224	Republic of Congo	1997-06-06— 1999-12-31	N	Y	Congo	standard	It is difficult to disentangle the Republic of Congo/Congo Brazzaville from the DRC; I removed by hand the speeches that are about DRC rather than Congo Brazzaville vs. Cocoyes/Ninjas/Ntsiloulo us
412	412	Serbia, Kosovo	1998-03-06— 1999-11-21	N	Υ	Kosov[ao]	standard	
413	413	Ethiopia, Oromo	1977-12-31— 1978-12-31	N	N	Orom[io]	n/a	
413	413.128	Ethiopia, Oromo	1980-12-31— 1981-12-31	N	N	Orom[io]	n/a	
413	413.139	Ethiopia, Oromo	1983-07-31— 1992-06-30	N	Υ	Orom[io]	n/a	The single speech that is captured by the location keyword is relevant, so no conflict keywords are necessary
413	413.204	Ethiopia, Oromo	1994-12-31— 1995-12-31	N	N	Orom[io]	n/a	
413	413.247	Ethiopia, Oromo	1998-12-31— 1999-12-31	N	Υ	Orom[io]	n/a	See above

426	426	Lebanon	1990-07-10— 1999-12-30	N	Υ	Lebanon	Israel Hezbollah [Cc]onflict \\s[Ww] ar\\s \\s[Ww]ar[sf]] [Rr]efuge [Gg]ue rrilla [Kk]illing [Ff] ighting [Rr]ebel [V v]iolen [Ss]trife [D d]evast [Cc]ris[ei]s [Cc]hao [Pp]eace keep [Ii]nterven		Speeches about this conflict, Israel vs. Hezbollah, are difficult to distinguish from ones about past Middle Eastern conflicts and about a hostage crisis in Lebanon
428	428	Mauritania, Western Sahara	1975-12-19— 1978-12-31	Υ	Y	Sahrawi Sahara	standard	Require: [Ww]estern	It is difficult to discriminate between speeches about this conflict and those about the conflict between Polisario and Morocco
11884	11884	India, Hyderabad	1947-06-30— 1948-09-18	N	N	Hydera	n/a		

Appendix 2: ProQuest Searches

I collected news media stories from the *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, and *Wall Street Journal* using *ProQuest Historical Newspapers* searches. This appendix records the keywords and operators that I used for each conflict episode search.

- Conflict ID: The UCDP ACD numerical identifier for each conflict.
- Episode ID: Though the UCDP ACD identifies separate episodes within conflicts, it does not assign identifiers to them. These are identifiers I created to distinguish between episodes. They consist of the ACD conflict code and, for episodes after the first, an arbitrary decimal value.
- Country and Region/Faction: This is a common usage name of the country where a conflict was fought. For countries with multiple regional conflicts, I also include the name of a subregion, faction, or group to help identify each conflict-episode.
- Date Range: These are the dates of each conflict episode, as identified by the ACD, in YYYY-MM-DD format.
- High Noise: Some conflict episodes are discussed by Congress or the news media in ways which make them difficult to capture with my standard search keywords. 1's in this column indicate conflict episodes I flag as High Noise in the regression analyses of chapters 3 and 4.
- Search Pattern: This column categorizes the type of search in the Exact Search Terms column. "Country" searches for a country name within the title field of each news article, i.e., ti(Bolivia*). "Country and Region" searches for one of two possible conditions 1.) a country name within the title field and a region or faction name within the body, or 2.) a region or faction name within the title field and a country name within the body, i.e., (ti(Iraq*) AND (Kurd)) OR (ti(Kurd) AND (Iraq*)). A "Special" search does not follow either pattern, and is explained in the Notes column.
- Exact Search Terms: These are the fully specified searches which I entered in the search field of ProQuest. They include both country/region keywords and conflict keywords. For country/region keywords, I search for the country names specified in Hensel's ICOW Historical State Names Data Set and the territory names specified in the ACD. Each search is written such that it will capture the demonym of a country or region as well as its name, i.e., Burman, Burmese, and Myanmarese. For "Country" and "Country and Region" searches, I use the following conflict keywords: conflict, war, refugee, guerilla, killing, fighting, rebel, violence, strife, devastation, crisis, chaos, peacekeeper, or intervention. Asterisks are a truncation character, used to retrieve up to 5 unspecified characters, helpful for capturing plurals and other alternate word forms.

Question marks are a wildcard character that returns strings with any single character in the question mark's place.

Notes: This column elaborates on patterns in the results of different conflict episodes, quirks of searches, or why I modified a search in the way I did.

Conflict ID	Episode ID	Country and Region/Faction	Date Range	High Noise	Search Pattern	Exact Search Terms	Notes
200	200	Bolivia	1946-07-21	N	Country	ti(Bolivia*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR Cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
200	200	Bolivia	1952-04- 09— 1952-04-12	N	Country	ti(Bolivia*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR Cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
200	200.03	Bolivia	1967-03- 31— 1967-10-16	N	Country	ti(Bolivia*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR Cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
202	202	China	1946-12- 31— 1949-12-08	N	Country	ti(China* OR Chinese) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR Cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT (Fr?nc* AND Indo*)	
203	203	Greece	1946-03- 31— 1949-10-16	N	Special	ti(Greece OR Greek) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (Communis* OR Left* OR Red* OR EAM OR "National Liberation Front" OR ELAS)	The country search captures too many articles that mention World War 2
205	205	Iran, Kurd	1946-05- 31— 1946-12-16	N	Country and Region	((ti(Iran* OR Persia*) AND (Kurd*)) OR (ti(Kurd*) AND (Iran* OR Persia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

205	205	Iran, Kurd	1966-12- 31— 1968-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Iran* OR Persia*) AND (Kurd*)) OR (ti(Kurd*) AND (Iran* OR Persia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
205	205.09	Iran, Kurd	1979-12- 31— 1988-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Iran* OR Persia*) AND (Kurd*)) OR (ti(Kurd*) AND (Iran* OR Persia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
205	205.17	Iran, Kurd	1990-07- 10— 1990-08-17	N	Country and Region	((ti(Iran* OR Persia*) AND (Kurd*)) OR (ti(Kurd*) AND (Iran* OR Persia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
205	205.18	Iran, Kurd	1993-09- 12— 1993-11-11	N	Country and Region	((ti(Iran* OR Persia*) AND (Kurd*)) OR (ti(Kurd*) AND (Iran* OR Persia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
205	205.22	Iran, Kurd	1996-07-28	N	Special	ti(Iran OR Persia OR Kurd) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	Too few stories are captured by the country and region search
209	209	Philippines	1946-07- 31— 1954-12-31	N	Special	ti(Philippine* OR Filipin*) AND (Huk[*9])	Coverage is very noisy; "war" captures World War 2 and Spanish American War stories, and the Philippines has idiosyncratically high coverage

209	209.03	Philippines	1969-09- 30— 1995-11-29	N	Special	ti(Philippine* OR Filipin*) AND (huk[*9] OR "New People*" OR NPA OR CPP OR "Communist Party of the Philippines" OR "communist guerrilla*" OR "communist rebel*")	Coverage is very noisy; "war" captures World War 2, Vietnam War, and Spanish American War stories, "crisis" captures a debt crisis, and the Philippines has idiosyncratically high coverage
209	209.24	Philippines	1997-11- 23— 1997-12-30	N	Special	ti(Philippine* OR Filipin*) AND (huk[*9] OR "New People*" OR NPA OR CPP OR "Communist Party of the Philippines" OR "communist guerrilla*" OR "communist rebel*")	Coverage is very noisy; "war" captures World War 2, "crisis" captures the Asian financial crisis, and the Philippines has idiosyncratically high coverage
209	209.27	Philippines	1999-06- 06— 1999-12-31	N	Special	ti(Philippine* OR Filipin*) AND (huk[*9] OR "New People*" OR NPA OR CPP OR "Communist Party of the Philippines" OR "communist guerrilla*" OR "communist rebel*")	Coverage is very noisy; the Philippines has idiosyncratically high coverage
210	210	Estonia	1946-12- 31— 1948-12-31	N	Country	ti(Estonia* OR Eesti* OR Esthonia*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
212	212	Lithuania	1946-06- 30— 1948-12-31	N	Country	ti(Lithuania*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
213	213	Ukraine	1946-12- 31— 1950-12-31	N	Country	ti(Ukrain*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
217	217	China, Taiwan	1947-02- 28— 1947-03-24	N	Country	ti(Taiwan* OR Taipei OR Formosa*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

220	220	Paraguay	1947-03- 31— 1947-08-21	N	Country	ti(Paragua*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
220	220.01	Paraguay	1954-05-05	N	Country	ti(Paragua*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
220	220.03	Paraguay	1989-02-03	N	Country	ti(Paragua*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
221	221	Myanmar, Karen	1949-01- 15— 1992-11-22	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Karen OR Kayin)) OR (ti(Karen OR Kayin) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
221	221.21	Myanmar, Karen	1994-12- 31— 1995-07-13	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Karen OR Kayin)) OR (ti(Karen OR Kayin) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
221	221.24	Myanmar, Karen	1997-02- 23— 1998-07-14	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Karen OR Kayin)) OR (ti(Karen OR Kayin) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

222	222	Myanmar	1948-02- 29— 1988-12-31	N	Special	(Burm* OR Myanmar) NEAR/20 (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND Communist NEAR/10 (Burm* OR Myanmar OR Rangoon) NOT (Chin* AND Nationalist*)	The country search captures Myanmar's many ethnic conflicts, as well as Chinese Nationalist guerillas attacking Communist China from bases within Myanmar
222	222.17	Myanmar	1990-12- 31— 1992-12-31	N	Special	ti(Burm* OR Myanma*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (Communis* OR (Student* Democratic Front) OR ABSDF) NOT Movie	The country search captures Myanmar's many ethnic conflicts
222	222.22	Myanmar	1994-12-31	N	Special	(Burm* OR Myanma*) NEAR/20 (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR Cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	See above
223	223	Myanmar, Rohingya	1948-01- 31— 1961-11-15	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Arakan* OR Rakhin* OR Rohingy*)) OR (ti(Arakan* OR Rakhin* OR Rohingy*) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
223	223.06	Myanmar, Rohingya	1964-12- 31— 1978-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Arakan* OR Rakhin* OR Rohingy*)) OR (ti(Arakan* OR Rakhin* OR Rohingy*) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

223	223.13	Myanmar, Rohingya	1991-12-29	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Arakan* OR Rakhin* OR Rohingy*)) OR (ti(Arakan* OR Rakhin* OR Rohingy*) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
223	223.2	Myanmar, Rohingya	1994-05- 15— 1994-06-23	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Arakan* OR Rakhin* OR Rohingy*)) OR (ti(Arakan* OR Rakhin* OR Rohingy*) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
225	225	Costa Rica	1948-03- 03— 1948-04-20	N	Country	ti(Costa) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
227	227	India	1948-09- 18— 1951-12-31	N	Special	ti(India*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (Communist* OR Maoist* OR Naxal* OR Marxist*) NOT (Kashmir* OR Korea* OR Burm* OR Chin*)	Country searches are ineffective; they capture India's ethnic conflicts and India's involvement in conflicts elsewhere in Asia
227	227.02	India	1969-12- 31— 1971-12-31	Y	Special	ti(India*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (Communist* OR Maoist* OR Naxal* OR Marxist*)	Country searches capture a lot of false drops about India's conflict with Pakistan

227	227.1	India	1991-07- 16— 1994-12-02	N	Special	ti(India*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (Communist* OR Maoist* OR Naxal* OR Marxist*)	Country searches are ineffective; they capture India's ethnic conflicts
227	227.23	India	1996-04- 03— 1999-12-31	N	Special	ti(India*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (Communist* OR Maoist* OR Naxal* OR Marxist*)	See above
230	230	Yemen	1948-03-15	N	Country	ti(Yemen) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
230	230.01	Yemen	1962-10- 31— 1970-05-23	N	Country	ti(Yemen) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
230	230.09	Yemen	1979-03- 31— 1982-05-31	Y	Country	ti(Yemen) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This search captures interstate North vs South Yemen conflict which is difficult to exclude
231	231	Myanmar, Kachin	1949-01- 15— 1950-05-05	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Kachin*)) OR (ti(Kachin*) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

231	231.02	Myanmar, Kachin	1961-02- 28— 1992-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Kachin*)) OR (ti(Kachin*) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
233	233	Guatemala	1949-07- 18— 1949-07-19	N	Country	ti(Guatemala*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
233	233.01	Guatemala	1954-06- 18— 1954-06-27	N	Country	ti(Guatemala*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
233	233.03	Guatemala	1963-07- 31— 1963-12-31	N	Country	ti(Guatemala*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
233	233.07	Guatemala	1965-12- 31— 1995-12-31	N	Country	ti(Guatemala*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
234	234	Israel	1949-12- 31— 1996-09-30	Υ	Country	ti(Isra?I*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This search captures many articles about wider Middle Eastern conflict; I tried several different search methods, but all of them drop a significant proportion of relevant stories
236	236	China, Tibet	1950-10- 07— 1950-10-09	N	Country and Region	((ti(China OR Chinese) AND (Tibet*)) OR (ti(Tibet*) AND (China OR Chinese))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

236	236.02	China, Tibet	1956-05- 31— 1956-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(China OR Chinese) AND (Tibet*)) OR (ti(Tibet*) AND (China OR Chinese))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
236	236.04	China, Tibet	1959-03- 10— 1959-04-23	N	Country and Region	((ti(China OR Chinese) AND (Tibet*)) OR (ti(Tibet*) AND (China OR Chinese))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
237	237	Indonesia, Moluccas	1950-08- 05— 1950-11-15	N	Country and Region	((ti(Indonesia*) AND (Molucca* OR Maluku* OR Amboin*)) OR (ti(Molucca* OR Maluku* OR Amboin*) AND (Indonesia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	Many news stories refer to this conflict by its location in Amboina Island
240	240	Thailand	1951-06- 30— 1951-07-01	N	Special	ti(Thai* OR Siam*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT (refuge*)	The country search captures too many stories about refugees from Vietnam
240	240.23	Thailand	1974-10- 31— 1982-12-31	Y	Special	ti(Thai* OR Siam*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT (refuge*)	Many of these stories are false drops about refugees from Vietnam, coups, or sports rather than the conflict between Thailand and its Communist Party
242	242	Cuba	1953-07- 26— 1953-07-27	N	Country	ti(Cuba*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

242	242.03	Cuba	1956-12- 05— 1958-12-31	N	Country	ti(Cuba*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
242	242.05	Cuba	1961-04- 17— 1961-04-20	N	Country	ti(Cuba*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
243	243	Indonesia, Dar-ul Islam	1953-12-31	N	Country	ti(Indonesia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
243	243.03	Indonesia, Dar-ul Islam	1958-04- 17— 1961-12-31	N	Country	ti(Indonesia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT (iraq* OR guinea)	
247	247	Argentina	1955-06- 16— 1955-09-19	N	Country	ti(Argentin*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
247	247.03	Argentina	1963-04- 02— 1963-09-22	N	Special	ti(Argentin*) AND (conflict* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	The standard country search captures a lot of economic, oil, political, or cabinet crises; I tried several search methods, but they all capture a large amount of noise after the initial coup in Aprilthis truncated list of conflict keywords performs the best without being overcomplicated

247	247.06	Argentina	1974-08- 11— 1977-12-31	N	Country	ti(Argentin*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
249	249	Vietnam	1955-04- 30— 1964-12-31	Y	Country	ti(Viet*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	Vietnam had very high coverage; spot checks suggest that most stories capture the communist insurgency, but it is time prohibitive to check every story
251	251	India, Nagaland	1956-12- 31— 1959-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(India*) AND (Naga OR Nagas OR Nagaland)) OR (ti(Naga OR Nagas OR Nagaland) AND (India))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
251	251.05	India, Nagaland	1961-12- 31—1968- 06-15	N	Country and Region	((ti(India*) AND (Naga OR Nagas OR Nagaland)) OR (ti(Naga OR Nagas OR Nagaland) AND (India))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
251	251.09	India, Nagaland	1992-08- 05— 1997-07-22	N	Country and Region	((ti(India*) AND (Naga OR Nagas OR Nagaland)) OR (ti(Naga OR Nagas OR Nagaland) AND (India))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
259	259	Iraq	1958-07- 14— 1959-03-10	N	Country	ti(Iraq*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

259	259.05	Iraq	1963-02- 08— 1963-11-20	N	Special	ti(Iraq*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT kurd*	In the standard country search, stories between the Feb. and Nov. coups are of dubious relevance; about 2/3 are about the Kurdish conflict with little or no mention of contestation over the Iraqi state
259	259.07	Iraq	1982-08- 01— 1984-12-31	Y	Country	ti(Iraq*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	SCIRI's guerrilla campaign is nearly totally lost in the Iran-Iraq War coverage and Iraqi-Kurdish conflict coverage
259	259.15	Iraq	1987-12-31	N	Country	ti(Iraq*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
259	259.16	Iraq	1991-04- 24— 1996-10-25	Y	Special	ti(Iraq*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND shi* NOT kurd*	most stories captured by a standard country search are about the Gulf War, Gulf War refugees, nuclear weapons, or Kurds; this altered search still captures a lot of noise
260	260	Lebanon	1958-05- 15— 1958-07-31	N	Country	ti(L?ban* OR Lubnan) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
260	260.05	Lebanon	1975-09- 09— 1976-10-21	N	Country	ti(L?ban* OR Lubnan) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
260	260.12	Lebanon	1982-09- 01— 1986-12-31	N	Country	ti(L?ban* OR Lubnan) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

260	260.16	Lebanon	1989-03- 14— 1990-10-13	N	Country	ti(L?ban* OR Lubnan) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
262	262	Laos	1959-11- 12— 1961-04-26	N	Country	ti(Lao*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
262	262.05	Laos	1963-12- 31— 1973-09-14	N	Country	ti(Lao*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
262	262.11	Laos	1989-08- 25— 1990-04-10	N	Country	ti(Lao*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
264	264	Myanmar, Shan	1959-11- 22— 1970-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Shan)) OR (ti(Shan) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
264	264.09	Myanmar, Shan	1972-12- 31— 1973-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Shan)) OR (ti(Shan) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

264	264.11	Myanmar, Shan	1976-08- 31— 1988-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Shan)) OR (ti(Shan) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
264	264.17	Myanmar, Shan	1993-07- 16— 1999-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Burm* OR Myanmar) AND (Shan)) OR (ti(Shan) AND (Burm* OR Myanmar))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
267	267	Ethiopia	1960-12-17	Y	Country	ti(Ethiopia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	See below
267	267.05	Ethiopia	1976-06- 02— 1991-06-02	Y	Country	ti(Ethiopia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT china*	This country search captures Ethiopia's war with Somalia, the famine in Ethiopia, and Ethiopia's many ethnic conflicts, but there is no effective way to exclude them
269	269	Nepal	1960-02- 29— 1962-12-31	N	Special	ti(Nepal*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT chin*	The standard country search captures many false drops; excluding China helps remove most of the irrelevant coverage
269	269.06	Nepal	1996-08- 23— 1999-12-31	N	Country	ti(Nepal*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

270	270	France, OAS	1961-04- 22— 1962-06-30	N	Country	ti(France OR French) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This conflict involves a rightist army coup in Algeria; there are many stories about it and the subsequent bombings in France, but there are also stories about the Muslim insurgency, World War 2, Vietnam, and the Bizerte crisis in Tunisia
271	271	Iraq, Kurd	1961-12- 31— 1970-03-11	N	Country and Region	((ti(Iraq*) AND (Kurd)) OR (ti(Kurd) AND (Iraq*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
271	271.09	Iraq, Kurd	1973-07- 31— 1992-03-13	Y	Special	((ti(Iraq*) AND (Kurd)) OR (ti(Kurd) AND (Iraq*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT (Ayatollah)	Coverage of this conflict gets subsumed into Iran-Iraq war coverage between 1981 and 1988, and the search captures some stories about Kurds in other areas
271	271.2	Iraq, Kurd	1995-03- 14— 1996-09-30	Y	Country and Region	((ti(Iraq*) AND (Kurd)) OR (ti(Kurd) AND (Iraq*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	Several of these stories, particularly at the beginning of the conflict are about Kurds fighting the Turkish government
275	275	Ethiopia, Eritrea	1964-03- 15— 1991-05-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Ethiopia*) AND (Eritrea* OR Erithrea* OR Ertra* OR Iritriya*)) OR (ti(Eritrea* OR Erithrea* OR Ertra* OR Iritriya*) AND (Ethiopia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

282	282	Sudan	1963-12- 31— 1972-01-31	N	Country	ti(Sudan* OR Soudan*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
283	283	DRC	1964-01- 31— 1965-12-31	N	Special	ti(congo* OR zaire*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT brazzaville	The standard country search captures too many stories about the similarly named Republic of Congo
283	283.07	DRC	1967-07- 05— 1967-11-05	N	Special	ti(congo* OR zaire*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT brazzaville	See above
283	283.08	DRC	1977-04- 30— 1978-06-15	N	Special	ti(congo* OR zaire*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT brazzaville	See above
283	283.13	DRC	1996-10- 19— 1999-12-31	N	Country	ti(congo* OR zaire*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
287	287	Burundi	1965-10-19	N	Country	ti(Burundi*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
287	287.07	Burundi	1991-11- 27— 1992-04-14	N	Country	ti(Burundi*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

287	287.2	Burundi	1994-10- 18— 1999-12-31	N	Country	ti(Burundi*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
288	288	Chad	1966-07- 31— 1972-11-24	N	Country	ti(Chad* OR Tasad* OR Tchad*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
288	288.11	Chad	1976-02- 18— 1984-12-31	N	Country	ti(Chad* OR Tasad* OR Tchad*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
288	288.15	Chad	1986-12- 31— 1987-11-01	N	Country	ti(Chad* OR Tasad* OR Tchad*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
288	288.16	Chad	1989-03- 03— 1994-12-31	N	Country	ti(Chad* OR Tasad* OR Tchad*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
288	288.24	Chad	1997-10- 30— 1999-12-31	N	Country	ti(Chad* OR Tasad* OR Tchad*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

289	289	Colombia	1964-12- 31— 1999-12-31	N	Special	ti(Colombia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT ((drug* OR coca*) NOT (guerrilla* OR rebel*))	The standard country search captures may war on drugs articles; this search helps remove some of them
291	291	Indonesia, West Papua	1965-07- 28— 1965-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Indonesia*) AND (Papua* OR Irian)) OR (ti(Papua* OR Irian) AND (Indonesia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	I added Irian as a search term because it is the Indonesian name for the island of New Guinea
291	291.07	Indonesia, West Papua	1967-12- 31— 1969-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Indonesia*) AND (Papua* OR Irian)) OR (ti(Papua* OR Irian) AND (Indonesia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	See above
291	291.09	Indonesia, West Papua	1976-12- 31— 1978-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Indonesia*) AND (Papua* OR Irian)) OR (ti(Papua* OR Irian) AND (Indonesia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	See above
291	291.13	Indonesia, West Papua	1981-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Indonesia*) AND (Papua* OR Irian)) OR (ti(Papua* OR Irian) AND (Indonesia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	See above

291	291.14	Indonesia, West Papua	1984-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Indonesia*) AND (Papua* OR Irian)) OR (ti(Papua* OR Irian) AND (Indonesia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	See above
292	292	Peru	1965-08- 03— 1965-12-31	N	Country	ti(Peru) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
292	292.07	Peru	1982-08- 22— 1999-11-26	N	Country	ti(Peru* OR Perou*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
297	297	Nigeria	1966-01- 15— 1966-07-29	N	Country	ti(Nigeria*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
298	298	Namibia	1966-12- 31— 1988-08-08	N	Special	ti(Namibia* OR "South West Africa*") AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	Namibia was sometimes called South West Africa at the time of the conflict
299	299	Syria	1966-02-23	N	Country	ti(Syria*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
299	299.08	Syria	1979-06- 16— 1982-02-02	N	Special	((ti(Syria*) AND (Brotherhood*)) OR (ti(Brotherhood*) AND (Syria*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	The standard country search captures Middle Eastern conflicts other than Syria's conflict with the Muslim brotherhood

300	300	Cambodia	1967-05- 31— 1975-04-17	Y	Country	ti(Cambo* OR Kampuchea* OR Khmer*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	Coverage of Cambodia is quite ambiguous due to it connection with the Vietnam War; the Khmer Rouge are often called "communists" making many stories mentioning them indistinguishable from stories about the Viet Cong
300	300.12	Cambodia	1978-12- 30— 1998-10-24	N	Country	ti(Cambo* OR Kampuchea* OR Khmer*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
303	303	Nigeria, Biafra	1967-07- 06— 1970-01-12	N	Country and Region	((ti(Nigeria*) AND (Biafra*)) OR (ti(Biafra*) AND (Nigeria*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
308	308	Philippines, Mindanao	1970-08- 20— 1990-08-02	Υ	Country and Region	((ti(Philippin*) AND (Mindanao*)) OR (ti(Mindanao*) AND (Philippin*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This country and region search captures several stories about the CPP conflict instead of the MILF secessionist conflict
308	308.18	Philippines, Mindanao	1993-02- 09— 1999-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Philippin*) AND (Mindanao*)) OR (ti(Mindanao*) AND (Philippin*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

309	309	Sudan	1971-07-22	N	Country	ti(Sudan* OR Soudan*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
309	309.09	Sudan	1976-07-02	N	Country	ti(Sudan* OR Soudan*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
309	309.12	Sudan	1983-05- 17— 1999-12-31	N	Country	ti(Sudan* OR Soudan*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
312	312	Pakistan	1971-03- 26— 1971-12-16	N	Country	ti(Pakistan*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
313	313	Sri Lanka, JVP	1971-04- 30— 1971-06-09	N	Country	ti(Lanka* OR Ceylon*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This is the JVP conflict not LTTE; fortunately, a standard country search captures JVP stories and not Sinhala vs Tamil ones
313	313.1	Sri Lanka, JVP	1989-02- 13— 1990-02-23	N	Special	ti(Lanka* OR Ceylon*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND "liberation front"	This is about the JVP ("People's Liberation Front") not the LTTE; additional terms are needed to exclude stories about the Tamil conflict
314	314	Uganda	1971-01- 29— 1972-09-20	N	Country	ti(Uganda*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This search captures several stories about political issues surrounding Asians in Uganda
314	314.1	Uganda	1974-03-23	N	Country	ti(Uganda*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

314	314.11	Uganda	1979-01- 22— 1992-08-09	N	Country	ti(Uganda*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
314	314.21	Uganda	1994-02- 21— 1999-12-31	N	Country	ti(Uganda*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
315	315	UK, Northern Ireland	1971-08- 31— 1991-11-26	N	Special	ti(Ireland OR Irish) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (north* OR ulster* OR belfast*) NOT (notre dame)	A standard country and region search captures more than 200 stories about Notre Dame's "Fighting Irish" football team
315	315.2	UK, Northern Ireland	1998-08-15	N	Country	ti(Ireland OR Irish) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
316	316	El Salvador	1972-03-25	N	Country	ti(Salvador) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
316	316.1	El Salvador	1979-09- 14— 1991-11-18	N	Country	ti(Salvador) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
318	318	Zimbabwe	1967-09- 05— 1968-12-31	N	Country	ti(Rhodesia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

318	318.09	Zimbabwe	1973-04- 04— 1979-12-21	N	Country	ti(Rhodesia* OR Zimbabwe*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
322	322	Banglaadesh, Chittagong	1975-02- 28— 1991-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Bangladesh*) AND (Chittagon*)) OR (ti(Chittagon*) AND (Bangladesh*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
325	325	Pakistan, Baloch	1974-12- 31— 1977-07-05	N	Special	ti(Bal?ch*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	I used a more permissive search than the standard country and region one, since it captures few stories
327	327	Angola	1975-11- 11— 1995-12-24	N	Country	ti(Angola*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
327	327.25	Angola	1998-05- 02— 1999-12-31	N	Country	ti(Angola*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
329	329	Ethiopia, Ogaden	1964-01- 11— 1964-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Ethiopia*) AND (Ogaden)) OR (ti(Ogaden) AND (Ethiopia*))) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
329	329.07	Ethiopia, Ogaden	1976-10- 31— 1983-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Ethiopia*) AND (Ogaden)) OR (ti(Ogaden) AND (Ethiopia*))) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

329	329.15	Ethiopia, Ogaden	1993-10- 13— 1994-02-26	N	Country and Region	((ti(Ethiopia*) AND (Ogaden)) OR (ti(Ogaden) AND (Ethiopia*))) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
329	329.23	Ethiopia, Ogaden	1996-08- 09— 1996-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Ethiopia*) AND (Ogaden)) OR (ti(Ogaden) AND (Ethiopia*))) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
329	329.26	Ethiopia, Ogaden	1998-12- 31— 1999-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Ethiopia*) AND (Ogaden)) OR (ti(Ogaden) AND (Ethiopia*))) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
330	330	Indonesia, East Timor	1975-07- 12— 1988-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Indonesia*) AND (Timor OR Timorese)) OR (ti(Timor OR Timorese) AND (Indonesia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
330	330.17	Indonesia, East Timor	1992-12-15	N	Country and Region	((ti(Indonesia*) AND (Timor OR Timorese)) OR (ti(Timor OR Timorese) AND (Indonesia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
330	330.21	Indonesia, East Timor	1997-05- 31— 1999-09-22	N	Country and Region	((ti(Indonesia*) AND (Timor OR Timorese)) OR (ti(Timor OR Timorese) AND (Indonesia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

331	Morocco, Western Sahara	1975-11- 04— 1989-11-16	Υ	Country and Region	((ti(Morocc*) AND (Sahara* OR Sahrawi*)) OR (ti(Sahara* OR Sahrawi*) AND (Morocc*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	It is difficult to discriminate between coverage of this conflict and coverage of the conflict beween Polisario and Mauritania
332	Mozambique	1977-12- 31— 1992-10-19	N	Country	ti(Mo?ambi*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
333	Afghanistan	1978-04- 27— 1999-12-31	N	Country	ti(Afghan*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
336	Nicaragua	1977-10- 10— 1979-07-19	N	Country	ti(Nicara?ua*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
336.13	Nicaragua	1982-04- 17— 1990-04-15	N	Country	ti(Nicara?ua*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
337	Somalia	1982-12- 31— 1984-12-31	N	Country	ti(Somali*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
337.15	Somalia	1986-03- 03— 1996-12-20	N	Country	ti(Somali*) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
	332 333 336 336.13	331 Western Sahara 332 Mozambique 333 Afghanistan 336 Nicaragua 337 Somalia	331 Western Sahara 04— 1989-11-16 332 Mozambique 1977-12- 31— 1992-10-19 333 Afghanistan 1978-04- 27— 1999-12-31 336 Nicaragua 1977-10- 10— 1979-07-19 336.13 Nicaragua 1982-04- 17— 1990-04-15 337 Somalia 1982-12- 31— 1984-12-31 337.15 Somalia 1986-03- 03—	331 Western Sahara 04— Y 1989-11-16 Y 1989-11-16 Y 1989-11-16 Y 1977-12- 31— N 1992-10-19 N 1978-04- 27— N 1999-12-31 N 1979-07-19 N 1979-07-19 N 1982-04- 17— N 1990-04-15 N 1982-12- 31— N 1984-12-31 N 1984-12-31 N 1986-03- 03— N	331 Western Sahara 04— 1989-11-16 Y and Region 332 Mozambique 1977-12-31— N Country 333 Afghanistan 1978-04-27— N Pop-12-31 N Country 336 Nicaragua 1977-10-10— N Pop-07-19 N Country 336.13 Nicaragua 1982-04-17— N Pop-04-15 N Country 337 Somalia 1982-12-31— N Pop-04-15 N Country 337.15 Somalia 1986-03-03-03— N Country	Morocco, Western Sahara 1975-11-

338	338	Iran, MEK	1979-12- 31— 1982-12-31	Y	Special	ti(Iran* OR Persia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (mujah?d* OR leftist* OR marx*) NOT hostage*	The standard country search captures too many stories about the Iranian Revolution and Iran Hostage Crisis; it needs to be focused on a specific group, the Mujahidin e Khalq, Marxist/leftist Islamists
338	338.15	Iran, MEK	1986-12- 31— 1988-12-31	Y	Special	ti(Iran* OR Persia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (mujah?d* OR leftist* OR marx*)	See above, but also Iran-Contras and Iran-Iraq War
338	338.17	Iran, MEK	1991-04-03	N	Country	ti(Iran* OR Persia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	Using the more complex pattern is unnecessary because of the episode's short duration
338	338.19	Iran, MEK	1993-04- 09— 1993-12-11	Y	Special	ti(Iran* OR Persia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (mujah?d* OR leftist* OR marx*)	See above, but also nuclear weapons and the Gulf War
338	338.22	Iran, MEK	1997-02- 18— 1997-11-02	Y	Special	ti(Iran* OR Persia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (mujah?d* OR leftist* OR marx*)	See above
338	338.26	Iran, MEK	1999-11- 25— 1999-12-31	Y	Special	ti(Iran* OR Persia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (mujah?d* OR leftist* OR marx*)	See above

341	341	Liberia	1980-04- 12— 1980-04-14	N	Country	ti(Liberia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
341	341.14	Liberia	1989-12- 26— 1990-12-31	N	Country	ti(Liberia*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
347	347	India, Manipur	1982-07- 31— 1988-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(India*) AND (Manipur*)) OR (ti(Manipur*) AND (India*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
347	347.17	India, Manipur	1993-12- 31— 1996-12-19	N	Country and Region	((ti(India*) AND (Manipur*)) OR (ti(Manipur*) AND (India*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
347	347.26	India, Manipur	1998-12- 31— 1999-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(India*) AND (Manipur*)) OR (ti(Manipur*) AND (India*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
351	351	India, Punjab	1983-12- 31— 1993-12-24	N	Country and Region	((ti(india*) AND (punjab* OR khalistan*)) OR (ti(punjab* OR khalistan*) AND (india*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This search captures some mentions of the Kashmir and Assam conflicts, but not many

352	352	Sri Lanka, Tamil	1984-09- 01— 1999-12-31	N	Special	ti(Lanka*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) NOT ("liberation front" NOT tamil*)	This standard country search captures a handful of stories about the JVP ("People's Liberation Front") which need to be excluded
353	353	Cameroon	1960-01- 31— 1961-12-31	N	Country	ti(Cameroon* OR Cameroun* OR Kamerun*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
353	353.06	Cameroon	1984-04- 06— 1984-04-09	N	Country	ti(Cameroon* OR Cameroun* OR Kamerun*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
354	354	Turkey	1984-08- 15— 1999-12-31	N	Special	ti(Turk*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (Kurd*)	The standard country search captures coups and other regional violence
359	359	Yemen	1986-01- 13— 1986-01-20	N	Country	ti(Yemen*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
364	364	India, Kashmir	1990-02- 12— 1999-12-31	Y	Country and Region	((ti(India*) AND (Kashmir*)) OR (ti(Kashmir*) AND (India*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This search partly captures conflict between India and Pakistan (particularly from May 1998), elections, and Hindu- Muslim violence
365	365	India, Assam	1990-11-30	N	Country and Region	((ti(India*) AND (Assam*)) OR (ti(Assam*) AND (India*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

365	365.18	India, Assam	1994-12- 31— 1999-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(India*) AND (Assam*)) OR (ti(Assam*) AND (India*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
366	366	Indonesia, Aceh	1990-06- 06— 1991-12-28	N	Country and Region	((ti(Indonesia*) AND (Aceh*)) OR (ti(Aceh*) AND (Indonesia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
366	366.2	Indonesia, Aceh	1999-06- 01— 1999-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Indonesia*) AND (Aceh*)) OR (ti(Aceh*) AND (Indonesia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
374	374	Rwanda	1990-10- 03— 1994-07-04	N	Country	ti(Rwanda*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
374	374.23	Rwanda	1996-07- 12— 1999-12-31	N	Country	ti(Rwanda*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
375	375	Senegal, Casamance	1990-08- 31— 1990-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Senegal*) AND (Casamance*)) OR (ti(Casamance*) AND (Senegal*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

375	375.19	Senegal, Casamance	1992-09- 01— 1993-11-16	N	Country and Region	((ti(Senegal*) AND (Casamance*)) OR (ti(Casamance*) AND (Senegal*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
375	375.22	Senegal, Casamance	1995-04- 27— 1995-12-01	N	Country and Region	((ti(Senegal*) AND (Casamance*)) OR (ti(Casamance*) AND (Senegal*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
375	375.25	Senegal, Casamance	1997-03- 18— 1998-11-02	N	Country and Region	((ti(Senegal*) AND (Casamance*)) OR (ti(Casamance*) AND (Senegal*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
382	382	Sierra Leone	1991-04- 01— 1999-12-31	N	Country	ti(Sierra Leone*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
385	385	Yugoslavia, Croat	1991-07- 27— 1992-04-06	N	Country and Region	((ti(Yugoslav*) AND (Croat*)) OR (ti(Croat*) AND (Yugoslav*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
386	386	Algeria	1991-12- 09— 1999-12-31	N	Country	ti(algeria*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

3	388	388	Azerbaijan, Nagorno Karabakh	1991-12- 30— 1994-07-15	N	Special	((ti(azerbaijan* OR armenia*) AND (artsakh* OR nagorno* OR karabakh*)) OR (ti(artsakh* OR nagorno* OR karabakh*) AND (azerbaijan* OR armenia*))) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	Because of Armenia's intervention in Nagorno Karabakh, many of these stories feature Armenia in the headline rather than Azerbaijan
3	388	388.23	Azerbaijan, Nagorno Karabakh	1997-04- 20— 1998-12-31	N	Special	((ti(azerbaijan* OR armenia*) AND (artsakh* OR nagorno* OR karabakh*)) OR (ti(artsakh* OR nagorno* OR karabakh*) AND (azerbaijan* OR armenia*))) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	See above
3	389	389	Yugoslavia, Bosnia	1992-04- 30— 1995-12-31	Y	Country and Region	((ti(Yugoslav*) AND (Bosnia* OR Her?eg*)) OR (ti(Bosnia* OR Her?eg*) AND (Yugoslav*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This conflict is difficult to distinguish from the Czech vs Bosniak and Czech vs Serb conflicts
3	390	390	Croatia	1992-05- 17— 1993-12-13	Y	Country	ti(croat*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This search captures Croat vs. Muslim violence in Bosnia in addition to the Croat vs. Serb conflict in Croatia
3	390	390.22	Croatia	1995-05- 01— 1995-09-06	Y	Country	ti(croat*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This search captures the Bosnian conflict in addition to the Croat vs. Republic of Krajina conflict in Croatia; it isn't possible to definitively distinguish the two conflicts

391	391	Egypt	1993-03- 10— 1998-11-02	N	Country	ti(Egypt*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
392	392	Georgia, Abkhazia	1992-08- 17— 1993-11-29	N	Country and Region	((ti(Georgia*) AND (Abkhazia*)) OR (ti(Abkhazia*) AND (Georgia*))) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
395	395	Tajikistan	1992-05- 10— 1998-11-16	N	Country	ti(Tajik* OR Tadjikistan* OR Tadzhikistan* OR Tojokiston* OR Tojokistan*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
401	401	Russia, Chechnya	1994-11- 26— 1996-11-08	N	Special	ti(Chech*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	Including Russia in this search captures too many stories about other post-Soviet conflicts
401	401.25	Russia, Chechnya	1999-08- 11— 1999-12-31	N	Special	ti(Chech*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	See above
402	402	Yemen	1994-04- 28— 1994-07-04	N	Country	ti(Yemen*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
404	404	Pakistan, Karachi	1990-02-11	N	Special	ti(pakistan* OR karachi*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	I used a more permissive search than the standard country and region one, since it captures no stories

404	404.17	Pakistan, Karachi	1994-05- 03— 1996-09-04	N	Special	ti(karachi*) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	This search does not include Pakistan, as in a standard country and region search; doing so captures several Kashmir, nuclear weapons, India-Pakistan, and Pakistani elections stories that are not relevant
408	408	Republic of Congo	1993-11- 11— 1993-12-27	N	Country	ti("congo") AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
408	408.22	Republic of Congo	1997-06- 06— 1999-12-31	N	Special	ti(congo OR brazzaville) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (sassou* OR nguessou* OR lissouba* OR kolelas*)	This conflict needed to be parsed from the DRC conflict that occurred concurrently
412	412	Serbia, Kosovo	1998-03- 06— 1999-11-21	N	Country and Region	((ti(serb* OR yugoslav*) AND (kosov*)) OR (ti(kosov*) AND (serb* OR yugoslav*))) AND (conflict* OR war OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
413	413	Ethiopia, Oromo	1977-12- 31— 1978-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Ethiopia*) AND (Orom*)) OR (ti(Orom*) AND (Ethiopia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
413	413.13	Ethiopia, Oromo	1980-12- 31— 1981-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Ethiopia*) AND (Orom*)) OR (ti(Orom*) AND (Ethiopia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

413	413.14	Ethiopia, Oromo	1983-07- 31— 1992-06-30	N	Country and Region	((ti(Ethiopia*) AND (Orom*)) OR (ti(Orom*) AND (Ethiopia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
413	413.2	Ethiopia, Oromo	1994-12- 31— 1995-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Ethiopia*) AND (Orom*)) OR (ti(Orom*) AND (Ethiopia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
413	413.25	Ethiopia, Oromo	1998-12- 31— 1999-12-31	N	Country and Region	((ti(Ethiopia*) AND (Orom*)) OR (ti(Orom*) AND (Ethiopia*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	
426	426	Lebanon	1990-07- 10— 1999-12-30	N	Special	ti(L?ban* OR Lubnan) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*) AND (Shia OR Shiite OR Hezbollah OR "south lebanese" OR "south lebanon")	Many of these stories cover Israel fighting Lebanese rebels, since Israel backed the South Lebanon Army against Shia rebels backed by Syria
428	428	Mauritania, Western Sahara	1975-12- 19— 1978-12-31	Υ	Country and Region	((ti(Maur?tan*) AND (Sahara* OR Sahrawi*)) OR (ti(Sahara* OR Sahrawi*) AND (Maur?tan*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	It is difficult to discriminate between coverage of this conflict and coverage of the conflict between Polisario and Morocco
11884	11884	India, Hyderabad	1947-06- 30— 1948-09-18	N	Country and Region	((ti(India*) AND (Hydera*)) OR (ti(Assam*) AND (India*))) AND (conflict* OR war* OR refuge* OR guerrilla* OR killing* OR fighting* OR rebel* OR violen* OR strife* OR devast* OR cris?s* OR chao* OR peacekeep* OR interven*)	

Appendix 3: UCDP ACD & Regan (2002) Conflict Listing

I collect intervention data principally from Regan (2000) but collect conflict dates and characteristics from the ACD. Because Regan uses his own coding scheme for civil wars, setting the threshold of battle deaths at 200 over conflict duration, his conflict records do not match one to one with the subset of ACD conflicts I have used—those which surpassed a 1000 battle death threshold. I have therefore matched each conflict in Regan's data with the corresponding ACD conflict, to the best of my ability. This appendix shows all the matched conflicts. Those conflicts from Regan's data which do not appear are predominantly very low intensity conflicts.

Ccode: The CoW numerical identifier for each country.

Country: This is a common usage name of the country where a conflict was fought.

Region / Faction: For conflicts that took place in a subregion, or where identifying the relevant group was important for matching conflict episodes between the ACD and Regan's data, I include the name of a sub-region, faction, or group.

ACD Conflict ID: The UCDP ACD numerical identifier for each conflict.

Episode ID: Though the UCDP ACD identifies separate episodes within conflicts, it does not assign identifiers to them. These are identifiers I created to distinguish between episodes. They consist of the ACD conflict code and, for episodes after the first, an arbitrary decimal value.

ACD Years: These are the rough dates of each conflict episode, as identified by the ACD.

Regan Conflict ID: Regan's numerical identifier for each conflict.

Regan Years: These are the rough dates of each conflict episode, as identified by the Regan.

Notes: This column elaborates on the differences between Regan and the ACD's codings and/or lists the information in Regan's data that I used to identify a conflict. If I observed errors in Regan's conflict records, it is noted in here as well.

Ccode	Country	Region / Faction	ACD Conflict ID	Episode ID	ACD Years	Regan Conflict ID	Regan Years	Notes
						901	1978-1992	Afghan civil war; this one ends in Apr 1992 because that's when President Najibullah resigned
700	Afghanistan		333	333	1978-1999	977	1992-1999	Afghan civil war continues between Hekmatyar and Dostum, these are one conflict in ACDthis one starts in Apr 1992
615	Algeria		386	386	1991-1999	984	1992-1999	Algerian Civil War (gov vs. Islamists)
540	Angola		327	327	1975-1995	897	1975-1991	Angolan UNITA, FNLA, MPLA- government conflict, linked with 982
540	Angola		327	327.246	1998-1999	982	1992-1999	Regan lists this as UNITA vs. MLLP-LP
160	Argentina		247	247	1955			There is no conflict in Argentina in Regan's data
160	Argentina		247	247.034	1963			There is no conflict in Argentina in Regan's data
160	Argentina		247	247.064	1974-1977			There is no conflict in Argentina in Regan's data
373	Azerbaijan	Nagorno Karabakh	388	388	1991-1994	962	1991-1999	The Republic of Nagorno vs. New
373	Azerbaijan	Nagorno Karabakh	388	388.23	1997-1998	302	1551-1555	Azerbaijan Party-ruling party
771	Bangladesh	Chittagong	322	322	1975-1991	884	1971-1998	No groups listed, but this is a "2", an ethnic conflict, which mostly overlaps the ACD dates
145	Bolivia		200	200	1946	785	1946	The other two Bolivia conflicts (200.002, 200.025) are missing from Regan's data
145	Bolivia		200	200.002	1952			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Bolivia one
145	Bolivia		200	200.025	1967			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Bolivia one
346	Bosnia Herzegovina		389	389	1992-1995	973	1992-1995	This is the only Bosnia conflict, and its dates match ACD 346

	516	Burundi		287	287	1965			Regan lists conflicts in Burundi in 1972 and 1988, but none in 1965 (1965 was a Hutu military uprising)
Ì	516	Burundi		287	287.072	1991-1992	970	1991-1992	Dates match with ACD 287.072
Ì	516	Burundi		287	287.203	1994-1999	610	1996-1999	Dates match with ACD 287.203
ľ	811	Cambodia		300	300	1967-1975	871	1970-1975	Dates match with ACD 300
							908	1978-1991	Dates match with ACD 300.116
	811	Cambodia		300	300.116	1978-1998	991	1992-1998	Dates match with ACD 300.116. These conflicts are bifurcated in Regan's data because there was a (unsuccessful) UNbrokered peace agreement in 1991
	471	Cameroon		353	353	1960-1961			There is no conflict in Cameroon in Regan's data
	471	Cameroon		353	353.057	1984			There is no conflict in Cameroon in Regan's data
	483	Chad		288	288	1966-1972	858	1965-1972	Dates match with ACD 288
	483	Chad		288	288.105	1976-1984	903	1978-1982	Dates match with ACD 288.105
	483	Chad		288	288.152	1986-1987	934	1983-1988	Dates overlap with both ACD 288.105 and 288.152
Ì	483	Chad		288	288.159	1989-1994	989	1991-1995	Dates match with ACD 288.159
	483	Chad		288	288.236	1997-1999			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Chad one
	710	China		202	202	1946-1949	784	1946-1950	Chinese Civil War
	710	China	Taiwan	217	217	1947	788	1947	Conflict between Nationalists and locals in Taiwan
	710	China	Tibet	236	236	1950			A later Tibet conflict appears in Regan's data, but this one does not
	710	China	Tibet	236	236.019	1956			A later Tibet conflict appears in Regan's data, but this one does not
	710	China	Tibet	236	236.039	1959	830	1959	Chinese occupation of Tibet; the prior two episodes from the ACD are not in Regan's data

	100	Colombia	289	289	1964-1999	802	1949-1965	Dates match with ACD 289; this might be incorrect but the overlap has no interventions
						936	1984-1999	Dates match with ACD 289
	94	Costa Rica	225	225	1948	793	1948	Costa Rica vs National Liberation Army
	344	Croatia	390	390	1992-1993			There is no conflict in Croatia in Regan's data after it broke away from Yugoslavia
	344	Croatia	390	390.222	1995			There is no conflict in Croatia in Regan's data after it broke away from Yugoslavia
	40	Cuba	242	242	1953			A later Cuba conflict appears in Regan's data, but this one does not
	40	Cuba	242	242.027	1956-1958	829	1958-1959	Cuban Revolution; the dates don't matchin ACD they are 1956-1958
	40	Cuba	242	242.046	1961			An earlier Cuba conflict appears in Regan's data, but this one does not
105	490	DRC	283	283	1964-1965	838	1960-1965	No groups listed, ethnic conflict, not linked, start 7/60 end 11/65this is a DRC conflict, the 1961 Congo crisis, which Regan has mislabeled as a Republic of Congo conflict
	490	DRC	283	283.074	1967	866	1967	Regional military faction, MPR-ruling party, ideological conflict, linked to 838, start 7/67 end 11/67this is a DRC conflict, the 1967 Stanleyville mutinies, which Regan has mislabeled as a Republic of Congo conflict

	400	0 DRC		283	283.082	1977-1978	899	1977	FLNC-opposite party, MPR-ruling party, ethnic conflict, ends in May 1977 so there is overlap with the ACD conflict-this is the Shaba I conflict; the ACD doesn't separate it from the Shaba II conflict
	490						902	1978-1979	FLNC-opposite, MPR-ruling party, ethnic conflict, linked to 899, starts in May 1978 so there is overlap with the ACD conflictthis is the Shaba II conflict; the ACD doesn't separate it from the Shaba I conflict
	490	DRC		283 2	283.126	1996-1999	620	1996-1997	No group listed (there is a placeholder, "4444"), ethnic conflict, not linked, start 10/96 end 5/97this is a DRC conflict, the First Congo War, which Regan has mislabeled as a Republic of Congo conflict (the interveners match)
							630	1998-1999	MLC, RCD, AFDL, ethnic conflict, start 8/98 end 12/99this is a DRC conflict, the Second Congo War, which Regan has mislabeled as a Republic of Congo conflict
	651	Egypt	The Islamic Group	391	391	1993-1998	978	1992-1999	typeiden=1, religious; this is Egypt vs. Islamists
	92	El Salvador		316	316	1972			A later El Salvador conflict appears in Regan's data, but this one does not
	92	El Salvador		316	316.102	1979-1991	910	1979-1991	Dates match with ACD 316.102
	531	Eritrea		275	275	1964-1991	845	1962-1991	No groups listed, ethnic conflict, linked to 948this must be the one ACD codes as Eritreia. It's an ethnic conflict with the same end date (5/91)

	366	Estonia		210	210	1946-1948			There is no conflict in Estonia in Regan's data
	530	Ethiopia	For control of gov	267	267	1960			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Ethiopia one
	530	Ethiopia	For control of gov	267	267.052	1976-1991	948	1988-1991	EPRDF, WPE-ruling, ideological conflict, linked to 845this is the Derg/Communist conflict
10	530	Ethiopia	Ogaden	329	329	1964	840	1963-1964	Monarchy-ruling group, ethnic conflict, linked to 898this seems to be the Ogaden conflict; the Ogaden Liberation Front launched an armed rebellion in 1963; in Regan, it starts 6/63 and ends 3/64
	530	Ethiopia	Ogaden	329	329.07	1976-1983	898	1977-1986	WSLF (Western Somali Liberation Front), COPWE (Derg/Communist), ethnic conflict, linked to 840this is the Ogaden conflict
]	530	Ethiopia	Ogaden	329	329.15	1993-1994			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Ethiopia/Ogaden one
	530	Ethiopia	Ogaden	329	329.226	1996			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Ethiopia/Ogaden one
	530	Ethiopia	Ogaden	329	329.259	1998-1999			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Ethiopia/Ogaden one
	530	Ethiopia	Oromo Region	413	413	1977-1978			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Ethiopia/Oromo one
	530	Ethiopia	Oromo Region	413	413.128	1980-1981			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Ethiopia/Oromo one
	530	Ethiopia	Oromo Region	413	413.139	1983-1992			No groups listed, ethnic conflict, not
	530	Ethiopia	Oromo Region	413	413.204	1994-1995			linked to anything, begins 6/92 ends
	530	Ethiopia	Oromo Region	413	413.247	1998-1999	981	1992-1999	12/99this is probably the Oromo Liberation Front; they had a falling out with the EPRDF in June 1992 but were fighting Derg before that and fought in intermittent episodes after 1992

	220	France	OAS (Algeria)	270	270	1961-1962			There is no conflict in France in Regan's data
	372	Georgia	Abkhazia	392	392	1992-1993	993	1992-1994	Abkhazia Secessionist, Free Georgia Coalition, CUG-ruling party, ideological conflict, not linked to anything, starts 1/92 ends 4/94the ACD conflict is about the Abkhazia conflict specifically, not Ossetia
	350	Greece		203	203	1946-1949	781	1944-1949	Greek Civil War
	90	Guatemala		233	233	1949			Later Guatemala conflicts appear in Regan's data, but this one does not
	90	Guatemala		233	233.014	1954	817	1954	Guatemala vs Forces of Carlos Castillo Armas
	90	Guatemala		233	233.031	1963			233.031 and 233.067, which are
_	90	Guatemala		233	233.067	1965-1995	863	1960-1995	Guatemala vs FAR I in 1963, and the Guatemalan Civil War 1965-1995, respectively
00	750	India	Communists	227	227	1948-1951			All Indian conflicts in Regan's data are ethnic or religious, and don't match this ACD one
	750	India	Communists	227	227.024	1969-1971			All Indian conflicts in Regan's data are ethnic or religious, and don't match this ACD one
	750	India	Communists	227	227.1	1991-1994			All Indian conflicts in Regan's data are ethnic or religious, and don't match this ACD one
	750	India	Communists	227	227.234	1996-1999			All Indian conflicts in Regan's data are ethnic or religious, and don't match this ACD one
	750	India	Naga Region	251	251	1956-1959			NNC (Naga National Council)-opposite,
	750	India	Naga Region	251	251.05	1961-1968	818	1955-1964	Congress Party-ruling, ethnic conflict, not linked to anything, start 3/55 end 8/64

750	India	Naga Region	251	251.085	1992-1997			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this India/Nagaland one
750	India	Manipur	347	347	1982-1988			There is no conflict in India/Manipur in Regan's data
750	India	Manipur	347	347.165	1993-1996			There is no conflict in India/Manipur in Regan's data
750	India	Manipur	347	347.256	1998-1999			There is no conflict in India/Manipur in Regan's data
750	India	Punjab (Sikhs)	351	351	1983-1993			There is no conflict in India/Punjab in Regan's data
750	India	Kashmir	364	364	1990-1999	994	1989-1999	No groups listed, ethnic conflict, not linked to anything, start 12/89 end 12/99this must be the Kashmir conflict; armed conflict with the JKLF first started in 1989
750	India	Assam	365	365	1990			There is no conflict in India/Assam in Regan's data
750	India	Assam	365	365.184	1994-1999			There is no conflict in India/Assam in Regan's data
750	India	Hyderabad	11884	11884	1947-1948			There is no conflict in Regan's data with dates matching this India/Hyderabad one
850	Indonesia	Moluccas Islands	237	237	1950	805	1950	No groups listed, religious conflict. Linked to 823, start 4/50 end 11/50this must be the South Moluccas conflict, as there is no other date overlap; the Republic of South Maluku declared independence in April 1950
850	Indonesia	Darul Islam	243	243	1953	814	1953	Moslem Dar-ul Islam, religious conflict. Linked to 823, start 9/53 end 11/53this is an Islamist vs. central government conflict

						1		
850	Indonesia	Darul Islam	243	243.029	1958-1961	823	1956-1960	no groups listed, ideological conflict. Linked to 814, start 12/56 end 12/60I am not sure what conflict this is, this is a guess
850	Indonesia	West Papua	291	291	1965			By the process of elimination, none of the remaining Regan conflicts in Indonesia could be this one
850	Indonesia	West Papua	291	291.074	1967-1969			By the process of elimination, none of the remaining Regan conflicts in Indonesia could be this one
850	Indonesia	West Papua	291	291.088	1976-1978			By the process of elimination, none of the remaining Regan conflicts in Indonesia could be this one
850	Indonesia	West Papua	291	291.128	1981			By the process of elimination, none of the remaining Regan conflicts in Indonesia could be this one
850	Indonesia	West Papua	291	291.139	1984			By the process of elimination, none of the remaining Regan conflicts in Indonesia could be this one
850	Indonesia	Timor	330	330	1975-1988			End 10/99, start 12/75, Fretilin, Golka-
850	Indonesia	Timor	330	330.165	1992	896	1975-1999	ruling, ethnic conflict, no linked
850	Indonesia	Timor	330	330.213	1997-1999	1		conflictsthis is the East Timor conflict
850	Indonesia	Aceh	366	366	1990-1991			The Free Aceh Movement, ethnic
850	Indonesia	Aceh	366	366.198	1999	895	1975-1999	conflict, no linked conflicts, start 6/75 end 12/99this is the conflict in Aceh, GAM declared an independent Aceh in December 1976 but not much happened until 1989
630	Iran	Kurdish Region	205	205	1946			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iran/Kurds one
630	Iran	Kurdish Region	205	205.004	1966-1968			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iran/Kurds one

630	Iran	Kurdish Region	205	205.086	1979-1988	963	1979-1982	Iranian government, Kurds, ethnic conflict, not linked to anything, start 3/79 end 12/82
630	Iran	Kurdish Region	205	205.165	1990			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iran/Kurds one
630	Iran	Kurdish Region	205	205.18	1993			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iran/Kurds one
630	Iran	Kurdish Region	205	205.218	1996			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iran/Kurds one
630	Iran	MEK	338	338	1979-1982	922	1981-1983	No groups listed, ideological conflict, linked 904, start 6/81 end 4/83
630	Iran	MEK	338	338.146	1986-1988			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iran/MEK one
630	Iran	MEK	338	338.165	1991			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iran/MEK one
630	Iran	MEK	338	338.187	1993			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iran/MEK one
630	Iran	MEK	338	338.221	1997			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iran/MEK one
630	Iran	MEK	338	338.264	1999			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iran/MEK one
645	Iraq	SCIRI	259	259	1958-1959	832	1959	This is most likely Iraq vs. military faction (forces of Abdul Wahab al-Shawaf); it's the only one with fitting dates, also typeiden is "3" ideological so it's not the Kurdish conflict
645	Iraq	SCIRI	259	259.048	1963			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iraq one
645	Iraq	SCIRI	259	259.066	1982-1984			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iraq one
645	Iraq	SCIRI	259	259.152	1987			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Iraq one

645	Iraq	SCIRI	259	259.16	1991-1996	971	1991-1999	This is uncertain; the best date overlap for a non-Kurdish conflict in ACD is Iraq vs. SCIRI (1991-1996), but Regan lists the groups as INA, SAIRI, and NPPF and the typeiden as "1" religiousit seems like they are the 1991 Iraqi uprisings that began in the immediate aftermath of the Gulf War, and then Regan has them running through to a SCIRI conflict
645	Iraq	Kurdish Region	271	271	1961-1970	842	1961-1966	No groups listed; this conflict is "linked" to conflict 832 but its typeiden is "2", ethnic, most likely it is Iraq vs KDP in Kurdistanthe opposition size and casualties are comparable to those listed in Wikipedia (UCDP doesn't have casualty numbers prior to 1975)
645	Iraq	Kurdish Region	271	271.09	1973-1992	891	1974-1975	This is Iraq vs PUK in Kurdistan; it has the closest date match in the ACD (1973-1992), typeiden is "2", i.e. ethnic, and it's liked to 842
645	Iraq	Kurdish Region	271	271.201	1995-1996	941	1980-1999	This is also Iraq vs. PUK in Kurdistan (Regan has PUK listed explicitly), but it overlaps with both ACD 271.09 (1973-1992) and ACD 271.201 (1995-1996)
666	Israel		234	234	1949-1996			There is no conflict in Israel in Regan's data
812	Laos		262	262	1959-1961	841	1959-1962	Laos vs. Pathet Lao (ACD 1959-1961)
812	Laos		262	262.054	1963-1973	850	1963-1973	Laos vs. Pathet Lao (ACD 1963-1973)
812	Laos		262	262.108	1989-1990			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Laos one
660	Lebanon		260	260	1958	826	1958	Lebanon vs Independent Nasserite Movement, matching dates

660	Lebanon		260	260.045	1975-1976			Typeiden is "1", religious (ACD says
660	Lebanon		260	260.121	1982-1986			these were fought by sectarian militias),
660	Lebanon		260	260.156	1989-1990	882	1975-1999	and it's linked to conflict 826. I think this is all ACD's subsequent Lebanon
660	Lebanon	Israel vs. Hezbollah	426	426	1990-1999			conflicts: 1975-1976, 1982-1986, 1989- 1990 AND Israel vs Hezbollah 1990-1999
450	Liberia		341	341	1980			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Liberia one
450	Liberia		341	341.135	1989-1990	997	1989-1991	ULIMO, INPFL, NPFL, ethnic conflict, start 12/89 end 10/91Regan has broken the conflict into two pieces, this piece is INPFL which disbanded peacefully in 1991this one matches the ACD dates better, so I am matching it instead of the other
368	Lithuania		212	212	1946-1948			there is no conflict in Lithuania in Regan's data
435	Mauritania	Western Sahara	428	428	1975-1978	893	1975-1979	This must be the conflict with Polisario in Western Sahara
600	Morocco	Western Sahara	331	331	1975-1989	894	1975-1999	This must be the conflict with Polisario in Western Sahara
541	Mozambique		332	332	1977-1992	913	1979-1993	This is FRELIMO vs. RENAMO
775	Myanmar	Karen Region	221	221	1949-1992			Regan might have combined this conflict with the contemporaneous Shan conflict, but there's no way to know
775	Myanmar	Karen Region	221	221.21	1994-1995			Regan might have combined this conflict with the contemporaneous Shan conflict, but there's no way to know
775	Myanmar	Karen Region	221	221.24	1997-1998			Regan might have combined this conflict with the contemporaneous Shan conflict, but there's no way to know

775	Myanmar	Communists	222	222	1948-1988	869	1968-1980	No groups listed, ideological, linked to 933, start 3/68 end 10/80I think this is CPB, it seems like this starts from a 1968 new year's offensive by the CPB in the north with Chinese supportit ends around the time of the May 1980 unilateral government ceasefire
775	Myanmar	Communists	222	222.165	1990-1992	933	1983-1992	No groups listed, ideological conflict, linked to 869, start 2/83 end 12/92this must be the CPB too; the CPB vs government conflict continued but these specific dates don't match anything I can find; it's possible this is the All Students' Democratic Front
775	Myanmar	Communists	222	222.215	1994			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Myanmar one
775	Myanmar	Rohingya Region	223	223	1948-1961			Regan might have combined this conflict with the contemporaneous Shan conflict, but there's no way to know
775	Myanmar	Rohingya Region	223	223.056	1964-1978			Regan might have combined this conflict with the contemporaneous Shan conflict, but there's no way to know
775	Myanmar	Rohingya Region	223	223.128	1991			Regan might have combined this conflict with the contemporaneous Shan conflict, but there's no way to know
775	Myanmar	Rohingya Region	223	223.199	1994			Regan might have combined this conflict with the contemporaneous Shan conflict, but there's no way to know
775	Myanmar	Kachin Region	231	231	1949-1950			Regan might have combined this conflict with the contemporaneous Shan conflict, but there's no way to know

775	Myanmar	Kachin Region	231	231.018	1961-1992			Regan might have combined this conflict with the contemporaneous Shan conflict, but there's no way to know
775	Myanmar	Shan Region	264	264	1959-1970			SSA (Shan State Army), KNN, NLM,
775	Myanmar	Shan Region	264	264.093	1972-1973			ethnic conflict, linked to 869, start 9/48
775	Myanmar	Shan Region	264	264.11	1976-1988	799	1948-1999	end 12/99this seems like catchall for all Myanmar's ethnic secessionist
775	Myanmar	Shan Region	264	264.165	1993-1999	799	1948-1999	parties, but because Regan used two acronyms that I cannot find elsewhere, it's difficult to tell
565	Namibia		298	298	1966-1988			There is no conflict in Namibia in Regan's data
790	Nepal		269	269	1960-1962			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Nepal one
790	Nepal		269	269.063	1996-1999	999	1996-1999	Nepal vs. Communist Party of Nepal- Maoist (CPN-M)
93	Nicaragua		336	336	1977-1979	907	1978-1979	Dates overlap with ACD 336
93	Nicaragua		336	336.13	1982-1990	928	1982-1990	Dates overlap with ACD 336.13
475	Nigeria		297	297	1966			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Nigeria one (it was a coup)
475	Nigeria	Biafra	303	303	1967-1970	864	1967-1970	Iko tribes, ethnic conflict, no links, start 7/67 end 1/70I am matching this Regan conflict to the ACD one because the ethnic group name is a near match (should be Igbo not Iko)
770	Pakistan		312	312	1971			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Pakistan one

770	Pakistan	Baloch	325	325	1974-1977	890	1973-1977	United Democratic Front, Tamet Islam Party, National Awani Party, Pakistan People's Party-ruling party, ethnic conflict, linked to 880this is the Baloch separatist conflict, the National Awami Party was the one that contested the central government, and the ACD records that they received support from Afghanistan
770	Pakistan	Karachi	404	404	1990			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Pakistan one
770	Pakistan	Karachi	404	404.174	1994-1996			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Pakistan one
150	Paraguay		220	220	1947	787	1947	The other Paraguay conflicts (220.007, 220.03) are missing from Regan's data
150	Paraguay		220	220.007	1954			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Paraguay one
150	Paraguay		220	220.03	1989			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Paraguay one
135	Peru		292	292	1965			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Peru one
135	Peru		292	292.074	1982-1999	925	1982-1999	Dates match with ACD 292
840	Philippines	Huk Communists	209	209	1946-1954	808	1948-1954	Hukbalahaps (PKM), ideological conflict- -this is the Huk Rebellion
840	Philippines	Huk Communists	209	209.033	1969-1995			CPP (Communist Party of the
840	Philippines	Huk Communists	209	209.244	1997	887	1972-1999	Philippines), NPA, NDF, ideological
840	Philippines	Huk Communists	209	209.267	1999			conflict, linked to 888, start 7/72 end 12/99
840	Philippines	Mindanao	308	308	1970-1990	888	1971-1999	MILF, MNLF, NLF, ethnic conflictthe
840	Philippines	Mindanao	308	308.179	1993-1999		13,1 1333	conflict with MILF in Mindanao

	484	Republic of the Congo		408	408	1993	972	1992-1997	No groups listed, ethnic conflict, not linked to the prior Congo or DRC conflicts, start 9/92 end 1/97this must be the Republic of Congo post-election militia strife, but Regan has labeled it as DRC
	484	Republic of the Congo		408	408.224	1997-1999	615	1997	CMODID-pro government, FDP- opposition, UPADS-ruling party, ethnic conflict, not linked, start 6/97 end 10/97UPADS is a Republic of Congo ruling party
	365	Russia	Chechnya	401	401	1994-1996	988	1994-1996	First Chechen War, the second one must have been too recent for Regan, writing in 2000
	365	Russia	Chechnya	401	401.254	1999			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Russia one
	517	Rwanda		374	374	1990-1994	952	1990-1994	The Rwandan Civil War
1	517	Rwanda		374	374.229	1996-1999			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Rwanda one
	433	Senegal	Casamance	375	375	1990			There is no conflict in Senegal in Regan's data
	433	Senegal	Casamance	375	375.185	1992-1993			There is no conflict in Senegal in Regan's data
	433	Senegal	Casamance	375	375.219	1995			There is no conflict in Senegal in Regan's data
	433	Senegal	Casamance	375	375.245	1997-1998			There is no conflict in Senegal in Regan's data
	345	Serbia	Kosovo	412	412	1998-1999	600	1998-1999	KLM, SPS, ethnic conflict, not linked, start 1/98 end 6/99the Kosovo Conflict
	451	Sierra Leone		382	382	1991-1999	996	1991-1999	This is the only Sierra Leone conflict, and its dates match ACD 451

520	Somalia		337	337	1982-1984	931	1982-1991	SNM, SRSP-ruling party, ethnic conflict, not linked to anything, start 1/82 end 1/91
520	Somalia		337	337.152	1986-1996	966	1991-1999	SNA, SPM, USC-ruling party, ethnic conflict, linked 931, start 9/91 end 12/99
780	Sri Lanka	JVP	313	313	1971	883	1971	No groups listed, ideological conflict, linked to 944, start 4/71 end 5/71
780	Sri Lanka	JVP	313	313.095	1989-1990	944	1987-1989	No groups listed, ideological conflict, linked 934, start 9/87 end 12/89
780	Sri Lanka	LTTE	352	352	1984-1999	930	1981-1999	LTTE-opposite, People's Alliance-ruling, ethnic conflict, linked 944, start 6/81 end 12/99
625	Sudan	South Sudan	282	282	1963-1972	853	1963-1972	Anya-Nya, Sudanese Socialist Union- ruling, religious, linked 937, start 9/63 end 2/72
625	Sudan	SPLM/A	309	309	1971			The later Sudan SPLM/A conflict appears in Regan's data, but this one does not-coup against Jafaar Nimeiri and SSU
625	Sudan	SPLM/A	309	309.09	1976			The later Sudan SPLM/A conflict appears in Regan's data, but this one does not-another coup against Nimeiri
625	Sudan	SPLM/A	309	309.12	1983-1999	937	1983-1999	SPLA, DUP, NIF-ruling group, religious conflict, linked 853, start 11/83 end 12/99this matches the groups in ACD 309.12
652	Syria		299	299	1966			There is no conflict in Syria in Regan's data
652	Syria		299	299.075	1979-1982			There is no conflict in Syria in Regan's data
702	Tajikistan		395	395	1992-1998	976	1992-1999	This is the only Tajikistan conflict, and its dates match ACD 395

	800	Thailand		240	240	1951			The later Thailand conflict appears in Regan's data, but this one does not
	800	Thailand		240	240.23	1974-1982	861	1965-1985	Thailand vs Communist Party of Thailand, the dates between ACD (1974- 1982) and Regan don't match well
	640	Turkey		354	354	1984-1999	967	1984-1999	This is the only Turkey conflict, and its dates match ACD 354
	500	Uganda		314	314	1971-1972	881	1971-1972	Supporters of Obotes, Idi Amin - Military Government, ethnic conflict, linked 862, start 1/71 end 10/72
	500	Uganda		314	314.103	1974			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this Uganda oneit was a failed coup
	500	Uganda		314	314.111	1979-1992	995	1978-1979	UNLF, Government (Idi Amin), ethnic conflict, start 10/78 end 6/79this is the UNLF invasion that initiated major fighting in Uganda
							919	1981-1986	URM, URA, UFM, UNLF-ruling party, ethnic conflict, not linked, start 2/81 end 1/86Regan has broken this conflict into 3 partsthis one, I think, corresponds to a rebel split
							945	1986-1988	UPDM, NRM, ethnic conflict, linked 919, start 8/86 end 6/88Regan has broken this conflict into 3 partsthis one corresponds to an offensive launched by the UPDA in august 1986
	500	Uganda		314	314.206	1994-1999			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Uganda one
	200	UK	Northern Ireland	315	315	1971-1991	872	1968-1994	Sectarian groups, INLA, IRA, RUC, religious conflict
	200	UK	Northern Ireland	315	315.195	1998			There is no conflict in in Regan's data that matches this Northern Ireland one

369	Ukraine		213	213	1946-1950			There is no conflict in Ukraine in Regan's data
816	Vietnam		249	249	1955-1964	835	1960-1965	Vietnam war, the dates don't match, in ACD they are 1955-1964, also note that 817 is South Vietnam
678	Yemen	North Yemen	230	230	1948	790	1948	No groups identified, ideological conflict, linked 847, start 2/48 end 3/48-North Yemen vs Royalists
678	Yemen	North Yemen	230	230.009	1962-1970	847	1962-1970	Royalist for king, military coup government, ideological conflict, linked to 943, start 9/62 end 4/70North Yemen vs Royalists
678	Yemen	North Yemen	230	230.091	1979-1982			There is no conflict in Regan's data that matches this North Yemen one
680	Yemen	South Yemen	359	359	1986	943	1986	No groups listed, ideological conflict, not linked, start 1/86 end 1/86 preemptive government countercoup against YSP, Yemen Socialist Party
679	Yemen	North vs South	402	402	1994	986	1994	No groups listed, ideological conflict, not linked, start 4/94 end 7/94Yemen (North Yemen) vs Democratic Republic of Yemen in South Yemen
345	Yugoslavia	Croatia	385	385	1991-1992	964	1990-1992	Serbia, JNA, Croatia, ethnic conflict, not linked, start 8/90 end 1/92
552	Zimbabwe		318	318	1967-1968			The later Rhodesia/Zimbabwe conflict appears in Regan's data, but this one does not
552	Zimbabwe		318	318.086	1973-1979	889	1972-1979	PF (Patriotic Front), RF (Rhodesian Front)-ruling white group, ethnic conflict

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