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Keywords: Tehrik-i-Taliban Pakistan (TTP), Non-state Actors, Insurgency, Asymmetric Warfare, Governance Deficits

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Rise of Non-State Actors: A Case of Tehrik-i-Taliban Pakistan (TTP)



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Abstract

The emergence of non-state actors has been one of the defining contemporary security challenge in South Asia. A significant actor is Tehrik-i-Taliban Pakistan (TTP), which is the most critical insurgent group fighting against the Pakistani state. Formed in 2007, TTP has its roots in the fragmented militant groups in Pakistan's tribal zones and has developed into an organized insurgency with a focus on attacking the structures of the state. This article looks at the origins, ideological basis, operational trajectory, and the contemporary resurgence of the TTP and situates this in the context of non-state armed actors. It is posited that lack of governance, geopolitical turbulence, ideological fervor, cross-border militant safe havens and governance vacuum in the frontier regions, are the primary factors perpetuating the existence of the TTP.

Keywords: *Tehrik-i-Taliban Pakistan (TTP), Non-state Actors, Insurgency, Asymmetric Warfare, Governance Deficits*

Introduction

Non-state actors (NSAs) are organizations that exist outside of the state and have political, social, and security impact both inside and outside of a country. NSAs, unlike formal state actors, do not derive their legitimacy from a constitution, a territory, a governing authority, or a recognized state. They legally operate outside formal state structures and do not recognize, or are in conflict with, the state's monopoly over the use of force. In contemporary studies of conflict, it is clear to see the growing importance of NSAs. This is in part due to the impact NSAs have in determining the outcome of a conflict at the local, national, or international levels, despite their lack of official government affiliation (Hoffman, 2006). Insurgent groups, militias, separatist movements, and syndicates, as well as private military companies and terrorist organizations, all fall under the definition of NSAs. Perhaps the most recognized of these groups are armed non-state actors, given their use of violence to achieve political, ideological, or ethnic ends. The rise of armed non-state actors has posed a challenge to the traditional Westphalian definition of sovereignty, whereby the state is the only actor in the domains of war and peace, and in matters of internal security (Kalyvas, 2006). In modern conflicts, non-state actors are increasingly exercising state-like functions by contesting, undermining, and in some cases, supplanting state authority.



The emergence of various non-state actors on the global stage means the exploitation of governance gaps in the world's most fragile and fragmented states. Non-state actors operate in diffused governmental power settings. They are specialized in the expansion and consolidation of the operational hierarchy of most recruitment. They legally offered rival governance systems by way of social services, tax, and service disputes, and gained plethora local acquiescence compliance, or coerced (Staniland, 2014). They are much larger and more conventional military threats. Non-state actors are also larger now than they used to be due to enhanced global connectivity, global tech and rapid inter-state. Propaganda, funding, and training, and training, funding, and training have most non-state actors been provided abundant, through undedicated or lax control by any one State (Mishal & Rosenthal, 2005). As such, modern insurgencies, and most militant movements, are transnational and therefore need regional specialized, and international focus balanced counter-insurgency.

Regarding South Asia, and Pakistan particularly, there is so much security concern surrounding the emergence of non state actors (Malik & Khan, 2018). One such example is Tehrik-i-Taliban Pakistan (TTP), who helped shape the intricate and evolving landscape of militant factions in a heavily contested arena. TTP formally announced in 2007 to be an umbrella entity that had formed collaborations of various militant factions within the Pakistan tribal zones, most of which are situated in the South Waziristan and in the periphery of the Afghanistan-Pakistan border (Fair, 2015). The confluence of local tribal militancy and ideological radicalization, in tandem with the impact of regional unrest that followed the geopolitical pivots in Afghanistan post 2001, are the primary factors that contributed to the formation of TTP (Malik & Khan, 2018). Under Baitullah Mehsud, the TTP swiftly solidified itself as a dominant insurgent actor, with aspirations to consolidate a multitude of militant entities along a coherent ideological and operational line. From its very beginning, TTP saw itself as the enemy of the Pakistan state. TTP had s stated objectives of enforcing an interpretation of Sharia law and was countering the army s operations in tribal areas (Abbas, 2008).

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Over time, the TTP evolved into one of the most dangerous insurgent organizations operating within Pakistan. It has been responsible for numerous high-profile and large-scale attacks targeting both civilian populations and state institutions. These include suicide bombings, coordinated assaults on military installations, targeted assassinations of security personnel, and attacks on schools, markets, and religious sites. One of the most tragic examples of its violence was the attack on the Army Public School in Peshawar in 2014, which resulted in the deaths of over 130 children and led to a major shift in Pakistan's counterterrorism policy (Rana, 2014). The group's operational tactics demonstrate a strategic reliance on asymmetric warfare, where weaker actors use unconventional methods to challenge militarily superior state forces. This includes guerrilla tactics, improvised explosive devices (IEDs), and suicide attacks designed to create psychological fear and undermine public confidence in state security institutions.

TTP's activities demonstrate the evolution of non-state actor TTP. They attack the stability and power of a sovereign state. Whereas other rebel movements are short-lived, TTP, even the the face of extreme Pakistan military presence, adapts and fragments to reorganize (Rashid, 2012). TTP lost much of its territory and ability to operate, due to the large military operations in the mid 2010's, but was not extinguished. It reorganized, and changed leadership. It also changed its location to avoid capture in the borderless, OZD, where in 2021, the Taliban capture of Afghanistan gave TTP even more power and movement (ICG, 2023).

The TTP's ongoing nature illustrates an important aspect of contemporary non-state actors: the capacity to counter adaptive insurgency pressure and take advantage of different geopolitical positions. It further illustrates the purely military approaches to such threats. While you can hold down the operational capacity of a non-state actor temporarily with state-led military activity, a

lasting solution necessitates the resolution of structural problems such as governance, socioeconomic inequality, radicalization, and cross-border safe havens (Staniland, 2014). In this regard, the TTP is primarily a security problem but also a political and developmental problem, which is a symptom of the conflict-affected areas of the problems of the system.

Conceptual Framework: Non-State Actors and Insurgency

Not having legal sovereignty, constitutional legitimacy, or official mandates of governance does not preclude an NSAs (Non-State Actors) influence in socio-political structures or security concerns in a given state or across borders, (Hoffman, 2006). Typical having no formal state authority, NSAs differ from armies or any formal state institution. NSAs are not linked to a state's constitution or to international diplomacy, NSAs draw their influence from a number of sources, such as ideological legitimacy (a belief in a given ideology) that offers authority or power (usually refuses the use of violence); through local or regional support; or through powerful international (trans-boundary) networks. Not having formal state authority and the constitutional order that accompanies such authority gives NSAs the license to end state systems. Such a state of affairs is very visible in most of the weak or the conflict-plagued-world. It is a situation, that such groups utilize to their advantage, as the absence of legitimate authority in these regions (areas of conflict) to create a dominant control over the authority of the state and the people (Kalyvas, 2006).

The asymmetric strategies employed by non-state actors are one of the identifying features of non-state actors. Mack (1975) and Metz and Johnson (2001) note that asymmetrical actors, or actors that have less power in a given system, will look for unfettered confrontation, and rather than seeking a conventional "head on" confrontation with a larger state military, they will use unorthodox conflict methods such as guerrilla raiding, ambushing, sabotage, and the use of IEDs. This method of warfare is a great equalizer in countering state military power and numbers. These actors do not seek to defeat states directly in a traditional military hat they view as a defeat, but rather aim to diminish the state's power, eliminate the state's public support, and create a sustained state of disorder when they are able to disrupt a state's ability to defend or project power by attacking supply lines, downing infrastructure, and striking symbolic state core targets. Asymmetric warfare can employ a range of strategies and methods to make available countermeasures to state forces more difficult, such as using encryption and social media to intersperse propaganda and create decentralized command structures.

Another defining trait of non-state actors is the political or ideological intentions driving them. While criminal organizations may pursue financial causes, insurgent groups and terrorist organizations possess a certain political, religious, or ideological thrust, which is focused on the transformation and possible obliteration of state structures (Hoffman, 2006). These transformations can be about having a state that is theocratic or gaining self-determination, or unoccupied non-foreign persisting in the perceived. Violence, in some instances, involves ideological justification. However, in for the long haul, it is a binding commitment that is sustained by the zeal and a unifying cohesive radicalization and recruitment commitment. More often than not, ideology is a justification as to eliminate these groups to act and to control viciously and rebellious as legally in a morally or religiously cause.

Non-state actors also have a notable cross-border, decentralized mode of operation. Simplistically put, traditional military establishments are considered as imposed authority structures within a single state. In contrast, the majority of non-state actors continue to function in the face of leadership and territorial losses due to being decentralized and operationally reinforced across multiple borders (Staniland, 2014). Regarding cross-border and decentralized operational structures, members of a non-state actor can operate relatively autonomously as long as they continue to subscribe to the same ideology underpinning the parent organization. This is

sustained through the existence of safe havens/subsidiary branches of the organization in new locales, coupled with the presence of new funding sources, potential recruits, and logistical support. Because of these factors, non-state actors are able to survive in spite of isolated state-sponsored efforts to extinguish them. Such actors especially thrive in areas with little border control, as well as those experiencing political instability and conflict.

The TTP's ideological basis is a mix of a radical, anti-state interpretation of religion that is predominantly focused against the Pakistani government and the military's role in the tribal areas. From a recruitment and internal cohesion standpoint, this ideological framing is useful, as it enables the group to characterize their actions as justified in the face of an injustice or unjust foreign influence. For the most part, this ideological narrative has gained traction due to the continued regional instability, particularly in Afghanistan, which has provided both inspiration and a degree of operational freedom to the various militant actors (Rashid, 2012). Moreover, the TTP's cross-border connectivity with Afghanistan remains vital to its operational sustainability. The historically permeable Pakistan–Afghanistan border has provided militants with the ability to shelter, train, and receive logistical support to allow regrouping and re-strategizing after substantial counterinsurgency operations. This cross-border aspect of the TTP's operational capacity moves the group beyond a domestic security risk and reclassifies it as an international problem, necessitating a coordinated, transnational approach to countering the group (ICG, 2023).

These features produce what many label as hybrid warfare. The distinct features of terrorism, insurgency, and guerrilla warfare are nonsensical in this construct. Non-state actors such as the TTP practice hybrid warfare by deploying insurgency tactics, psychological operations, and state propaganda across multiple fronts to politically destabilize the state. When hybrid warfare is enacted, it is difficult for the state to counteract because the attack cannot be defined within the realm of legal and military constructs. For instance, terrorism may be the label invoked during a civilian attack, whereas a confrontation with state security of any kind may be classified as insurgency/guerrilla warfare. The strategic, operational, and tactical ambiguity leads to defining the threat in a multiple and flexible framework.

Emergence of the TTP

In late 2007 the TTP was launched by Baitullah Mehsud and involved the consolidation of several militant groups and factions operating in the Pakistani tribal areas of South Waziristan and adjoining regions.

A few of the most noted reasons for the TTP include:

Without analyzing the TTP in the context of the wider post-2001 South Asia developments, it is impossible to examine the TTP. One of the most important causes of TTP's emergence is the post-2001 South Asia regional instability following the US-led invasion of Afghanistan in response to the 9/11 terror attack. This military operation caused a displacement crisis for several militant groups, including Afghan Taliban, al-Qaeda and numerous foreign insurgents, who relocated to the porous border regions between Afghanistan and Pakistan. Pakistan's Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) composed of rugged geographic and administrative structures that provide for tribal self-governance, became a haven for these displaced militants. These groups began to reorganize and rebuild their operational and cross border insurgent networks. The Afghan conflict and its aftermath were found to positively influence the emergence of a range of militant groups and activities in Pakistan's border areas (Rashid, 2012; Fair, 2015).

Aside from the external regional instability, the TTP's rise was also linked to the existing tribal and local militancy in Pakistan's border regions. There were no regional Pakistan tribes and offshoots of the TTP documented before the TTP's emergent formal tribal TTP structure in 2007.

The tribal regions had had decades of localized tribal and ideological jihadist based on the Iran-Afghan warfare of the 1980's. These militias and jihadist brigades had the networks, armories, and memberships, all skilled in the guerrilla warfare needed before 2001, after the regional collaps of the US and Soviet backed military to post Soviet Russia. The consolidation of smaller foxtrot and sect within the umbrella of the Pk TTP gave it the needed size, coordination and structure to challenge the Pk state (Abbas, [2008](#); Staniland, [2014](#)).

The gaps in governance within the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) were a primary motivator in the rise of the TTP. These areas were under the pseudo-autonomy of the FATA. FATA governance restrictions were ensured by the Frontier Crimes Regulation (FCR) and the British colonial administrative schema. This allowed a heavy reliance on self-governance by local tribes. The pseudo-self governance model was sustainable because the region had no modern challenges to security. The intransigence of the British colonial approach resulted in an absence of genuine governance by the FATA. The FATA region had almost no state infrastructure. FATA also had a complete lack of policing and no formal judicial means to enforce state inequalities. This vacuum of governane was the breeding ground for the TTP to exist and expand. The TTP were able to expropriate and implement their governance model inclusive of taxation, punishment, and control. The local people had little to no agency to resist these TTP-imposed governance systems. The absence of governane was a major element in the ability of the TTP to expand, and to capture local governance systems (International Crisis Group, [2023](#); Kalyvas [2006](#))

The Tablighi Tehreek e Pakistan's (TTP's) identity and maintenance of their insurgency are influenced by various other factors, including the origins of the TTP and its objectives. The philosophical objectives of TTP derive from a far-right, radical, fundamentalist interpretation of the Deobandi school of thought (Islam) and militant jihad which employs and encourages the use of arms, in other words, violent resistance to the Pakistan (Paki) State. It provides an ample ideological consolation to the TTP members that their acts of violence and terrorism are, in fact, not CRIMINAL acts, but acts of divinely ordained and religion-sanctioned resistance. The violent acts of the TTP are also aimed at the Paki State, which TTP regards as an official, LEGITIMATE target, because of its alleged association with the West and her military actions in the (Pakistani) tribal areas. TTP's fundamental goal is to put an end to the Paki Constitution and infuse its place with the TTP's far-right, radical, fundamentalist interpretation of *حقوق اسلامی* (Islamic law), thereby establishing a desecrated form of the Sharia which would replace the legally existing Sharia. TTP's way of thought is not limited to attack the immediate, local, or the tribal grievances only, but aims to attack and replace the entire, existing, and legally recognized political and legal system of Paki State of the Post-Colonial era. TTP's opposition to the Paki military actions in the Paki tribal areas serves the goal of establishing the societal perception that TTP is the sole, legitimate, and just protector of the local (tribal) population against the State's military actions, thereby gaining or attempting to ELIMINATE the moral support or passive compliance of the affected communities and exacerbating her self-visible perspective of resistance against the ruling system of an oppressive and externally influenced State system.

In this case, ideology is more than a system of beliefs; it is a means of recruitment, mobilization, and cohesion within an organization. For TTP, it enables sustained engagement of its members, and offers a justification for violence, and a purpose. This ideology has enabled the TTP to go beyond local grievances, developing a more organized insurgency with greater political aspirations. This results in the increased sophistication of the security threat to the state (Hoffman, [2006](#); Fair, [2015](#)).

Operational Evolution

The following phase is fragmentation and adaptation. It illustrates the metamorphosis of the TTP organization as new military pressures and leadership decapitations occur. As the military leadership is weakened, the group's fragmentation occurs as splintered divisions develop, each with different alignments and levels of adherence to the leadership. Some of the splintered divisions then aligned with ISKP and other rival militant organizations due to believe to be better provided leadership. There was considerable strategic recalibration and organizational stress to address the fragmentation within the militant environment. Despite fragmentation and division within the group, the TTP structure was capable of remaining operational. The Pakistan-Afghanistan border region was the primary case of the operational activity for the TTP structure. Operational activity for the core structure of TTP is a case of deep and meaningful organizational flexibility envisioning the armed non-state actors as able to regenerate and reallocate with constraints. Fragmented networks conceptually allow many of the decentralized and remaining factions to inflict low-intensity continual attacks, recruitment, and ideologically oriented attacks. All of this is without the total and dominant presence of a centralized leadership of the group (Fair, [2015](#); International Crisis Group, [2023](#)).

The most recent resurgence phase (2021–present) registers heightened activity of the TTP, linked to the geopolitical factors regarding the US troop withdrawal and Afghan Taliban takeover in 2021. The TTP's strategic operating environment has undergone significant changes allowing continuous cross border movements and providing the TTP with the requisite safe havens. Consequently, high intensity attacks have been directed at the Pakistan security apparatus and law enforcement in the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and the adjoining border districts. Despite the nebulous direct ties, the TTP's ideological similarities with the Afghan Taliban have resulted in increased coordination of attacks. These conditions have allowed the TTP to revive its recruitment and supply networks that were dismantled during previous counter insurgency operations. During this phase of the insurgency, the cyclical pattern of decline and resurgence of the TTP has revealed the increased complexity of the insurgency (ICG, [2023](#); Rashid, [2012](#)).

Factors Driving the Rise of the TTP

Structural, ideological, and policy-related factors that influence the insurgent environment explain the re-emergence and operational capability of the Tehrik-i-Taliban Pakistan (TTP). One of the most important variables is the existence of cross-border safe havens along the Pakistan–Afghanistan borderline (Malik & Khan 2018). The nature of the border is especially porous in the mountains, which has allowed armed groups to move freely to and from the two countries. These regions are hard to monitor and control from the substandard roads, weak border control, and the tough terrain. This means that militants can re-organize and prepare for new military operations, set up new training camps, and plan new operations in countries that are “not allowed.” This ability to move cross-border not only assists in the survival of the TTP but also makes counterinsurgency that much harder, as operations in one border side would not be able to fully destroy networks that would immediately relocate into the adjacent border side and re-emerge later (Rashid, [2012](#); International Crisis Group, [2023](#)).

An important element explaining the TTP's increased activity is the ideological spiration which is, to a degree, based on the success of the Afghan Taliban. The Taliban's reclaiming authority in Afghanistan in 2021 has been strategically and psychologically significant to the TTP and other groups in the region. For a number of sympathizers and members of the TTP, the Afghan Taliban's success is the first of many dominoes to fall after demonstrating the prospective success of a long-term insurgency against an international-stakeholder-supported state. This made the TTP's ideological motivation stronger, which made morale boost amongst fighters and made recruitment

narratives better. The two groups' similar and aligned Deobandi and jihadist thought made the TTP's motivation to learn from the Taliban's governance and organizational military resilience that much stronger. The relationship is structured, but the symbolic and ideological influence is significant in shaping TTP's operational confidence (Fair, 2015; Abbas, 2008).

The enduring recruitment and expansion of militants in Pakistan's border regions is due in part to gaps in governance. For historically gauging governance the state's presence to the formal reach of jurisdiction and state enforcement, judicial, and administrative services in areas of former federally administered tribal areas (FATA). Non-state actors often impose systems of informal justice and their own systems of local control and administrative dispute resolution in order to fill the control gap. The lack of governance creates order via state and the trust to the contrary the state will be relied upon or called upon to support the governance citizens. The gaps in governance presents socially the order and support politically and governance the authority to use coercion and to insurrection and to socially the support to order and to provide governance the authority to use. The TTP has exploited gaps in governance by coercion and selective provision of services to penetrate local structures and to gain authority. The structure and use of coercion to socially support is governance element and insufficient to control and consistent to be used of informal and local resolution systems and remain order (Kalyvas, 2006; Staniland, 2014).

Alongside governance problems, the socioeconomic situation in the Frontier regions of Pakistan plays an important role in the recruitment of militants. Widespread poverty, high unemployment, insufficient educational infrastructure, and overall lack of socioeconomic development, create additional marginalization, which can lead to radicalization. For instance, many people living in the poverty-stricken regions tend to regard militant organizations as an alternative source to gain financial, and social status, as well as group identity. The lack of sustainable economic socioeconomic development opportunities, creates a sense of isolation and resentment towards the state, which can be manipulated by extremist groups. The TTP has always recruited most of its personnel from the poor socioeconomic groups, and has been able to justify the recruitment by claiming to fight the system of marginalization and injustice. Although, poverty in isolation cannot be the cause of extremism, it in conjunction with lack of peace and some loose ideological beliefs, significantly increases the risk of radicalization (Fair, 2015; Rashid, 2012).

Another major factor behind the TTP's continued resilience is the fragmented counterterrorism policy adopted over time. Pakistan's response to militancy has often oscillated between large-scale military operations and attempts at negotiated settlements, resulting in an inconsistent and sometimes contradictory policy framework. While military operations such as Zarb-e-Azb significantly weakened militant infrastructure, subsequent peace talks and ceasefire attempts have at times allowed militant groups to regroup and reorganize. This lack of a sustained and unified counterterrorism strategy has created strategic space for the TTP to re-establish networks during periods of reduced military pressure. Furthermore, coordination challenges between civilian and military institutions, as well as shifting political priorities, have contributed to policy inconsistency. In counterinsurgency theory, such inconsistency is particularly problematic, as it allows non-state actors to exploit temporary gaps in enforcement and adapt their strategies accordingly (ICG, 2023; Staniland, 2014).

Impact on Pakistan's Security

The Tehrik-i-Taliban Pakistan (TTP) poses a multidimensional security threat to Pakistan, affecting not only the country's internal security architecture but also its regional diplomatic environment and long-term political stability (Malik & Khan, 2018). One of the most immediate and visible threats is the increased frequency of attacks on military and police installations. The TTP has consistently targeted security forces through coordinated assaults, ambushes, suicide attacks, and

improvised explosive devices (IEDs). These attacks are designed to weaken the operational capacity of state security institutions, lower morale among personnel, and demonstrate the group's continued relevance as an insurgent force. By directly challenging the monopoly of the state over the use of force, such attacks undermine the credibility of law enforcement agencies and increase the overall cost of maintaining internal security (Fair, 2015; Abbas, 2008).

Another significant consequence of TTP activity is the rise in civilian casualties and population displacement. Civilians often become the primary victims of insurgent violence due to targeted bombings in public spaces, markets, schools, and religious gatherings. In addition to direct casualties, prolonged insecurity forces internal displacement, as communities flee conflict-affected areas in search of safety. This displacement not only creates humanitarian challenges but also places additional pressure on urban centers, which must absorb large populations of internally displaced persons (IDPs). The disruption of normal social and economic life contributes to long-term instability and deepens grievances among affected populations, which can further fuel cycles of violence and radicalization (International Crisis Group, 2023).

The Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KP) and neighboring border region destabilization is also fueled by TTP. KP is located next to the Afghanistan border, and insurgent infiltration is aided by the region's socio-political issues, rough geography, and rugged terrain. Militant activity hinders state power, and government disinterest in the area. Continuation of this cycle further underdevelops KP, and weakens the already lacking integrated border community and migrants to the government in the settlement. While public offerings are still poor and further weakening the area, newer terror capabilities of migrants will continue to arrive (Rashid, 2012).

The TTP has done nothing but strain Pakistan and Afghanistan relations (Malik & Khan). Tension has arisen from TTP safe havens and suspected cross-border movements. Pakistan has worried about militant groups launching attacks in Pakistan from within Afghanistan. Afghanistan has denied and fumbled these allegations. Distrust has stalled counterterrorism and border management cooperation. Fragile diplomatic relations have escalated in tension affecting trade, security coordination, and regional stability. Pakistan and Afghanistan have not been able to create a unified border management and counterterrorism framework to mitigate the threat of TTP (ICG, 2023).

In addition, the TTP plays a pivotal part in destabilising the internal political sphere of Pakistan. The ongoing militant attacks sustain a climate of uncertainty and instability, which undermines governance and policymaking, as well as public trust in state institutions. This leads to the distortion of policymaking and the overstretching of institutions, as political leaders are compelled to respond to short-term security concerns at the expense of longer-term developmental goals. Also, the felt public insecurity can erode political legitimacy; when people lose faith in the government's capacity to manage civil disorder, the politicians lose power as well. In sustained cases, militant terrorism can fracture the political discourse and internal divisions more broadly, in the policy debate surrounding the counter-terrorism, the deal, or the bomb. The above demonstrates the impact that insurgent organisations have on the political environment, without the need to control specific territories or have formal governance structures (Staniland, 2014).

An unprecedented TTP attack surge for Pakistan in over 10 years has occurred in the last few years. Increased attacks bordering the country, guerrilla style attacks in urban centers, and better operational synergy across the board, has been seen. Prior attacks were better planned in terms of attack target & stationing. Analysts point towards the 2021 shifts in Afghan politics & the regional instability it ensued, as one of the many factors of the reorganized militant networks & utilized cross border safe havens. The renewed violence demonstrates the group's flexibility and resilience, as well as the limitations of prior arm militant counterinsurgency gains. It reflects the considerable

non-state actor role in destabilizing the region in the context of dominating military pressure coupled with counter terrorism ops.

Conclusion

Tehrik-i-Taliban Pakistan (TTP) demonstrates how a non-state actor can develop as a result of defined governance in an area and ongoing conflict. Out of various groups in the overarching region of Pakistan's tribal areas, the TTP has consolidated its position and was able to gain Pakistan's state authority. When advanced in non-state in a region where a state had authority in determining governance, these groups can begin to develop. The TTP has been able to recruit most of its members from the lower socio-economic background of the region, where literacy levels are low, and the population support is largely ignorant Muslims. It has been able to almost exclusively support its recruitment through a narrowly religious theocracy which justified violence as a rebellion - in contrast, and use of the Pakistani a quasi- regime. The weak governance of Pakistan's borders allowed uprising to provide support - almost an entire vacuum to the region, the TTP was able to direct focus and operational abilities to dominate the region completely. The lack of established institutions, the site of order and the state of underdevelopment provided the TTP and operational support the influence over control the borders in the region. The instability in the region and especially Afghanistan has enabled militant consolidation, the TTP has been able to recruit and expand.

The multifaceted nature of the TTP's enduring presence distinguishes the challenge from being a mere security concern and frames it more as a structural and geopolitical obstruction. It's because of this persistence, that the complexity of counterinsurgency measures must evolve, moving beyond a purely militarized approach. Addressing governance, socioeconomic imbalances, and ideological radicalization, as well as fostering regional collaboration, is vital to mitigate the enduring causes of militancy and counter the emergence of similar non-state entities in the future.

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