

Journal of

International Relations and Policy

(JIRP) The Role of Cyber Operations and Information Warfare in
the Strategic Calculus of State and Non-State Actors



CARI
Journals

The Role of Cyber Operations and Information Warfare in the Strategic Calculus of State and Non-State Actors

 Christian C. Madubuko

Peace & Conflict Studies, University of New England, Armidale, NSW, Australia

<https://orcid.org/0009-0001-1842-6259>

Accepted: 30th March, 2026, Received in Revised Form: 13th April, 2026, Published: 25th April, 2026



Abstract

Purpose: This research critically interrogates the strategic proliferation of cyber capabilities and information warfare within the evolving architecture of international security. It seeks to elucidate how cyber operations serve as asymmetrical instruments of coercion, deception, and ideological influence, thereby reshaping core paradigms of sovereignty, conflict, and power projection in contemporary geopolitics.

Methodology: Employing a multidisciplinary analytical framework, this study synthesises insights from strategic studies, cybersecurity theory, and international relations discourse. It undertakes a qualitative analysis of case studies involving state-sponsored cyber operations, complemented by a critical review of policy documents, legal frameworks, and scholarly debates. The research critically evaluates the normative assumptions underpinning sovereignty, attribution, and regulation, employing a constructivist lens to interrogate how norms evolve in response to technological innovation and strategic imperatives.

Findings: The findings reveal that cyber and information domains are increasingly embedded within hybrid strategies that leverage ambiguity, deniability, and asymmetry to disrupt established norms of warfare and diplomacy. Strategic motivations encompass hegemonic ambitions, the pursuit of strategic ambiguity, and the ideological dissemination of influence, often operating in a normative grey zone that complicates attribution and accountability. The analysis underscores that normative dilemmas, particularly issues of sovereignty, attribution, and the regulation of state and non-state actors, pose fundamental challenges to the development of effective international governance frameworks. The proliferation of cyber capabilities heightens risks of escalation, proliferation, and strategic instability, especially given the difficulties in establishing credible deterrence mechanisms.

Unique Contribution to Theory, Policy, and Practice: This study advances the theoretical understanding of cyber operations as integral to the ontological redefinition of sovereignty and conflict in the information age. It critically engages with constructivist and realist perspectives to interrogate how normative frameworks evolve amidst strategic ambiguity. Policy-wise, it advocates for a nuanced, multilayered approach that combines resilience-building, normative norm development, and robust multilateral institutions capable of addressing the complex, transnational nature of cyber threats. Practically, it emphasises the imperative for states and non-state actors to develop adaptive, norm-sensitive strategies that mitigate the risk of escalation while fostering a resilient international security architecture that is responsive to the diffuse and contested nature of cyber power.

Keywords: *Cyber Operations, Information Warfare, Strategic Calculus, State Actors, Non-State Actors*

Introduction

In the contemporary geopolitical landscape, the rapid development and spread of digital technologies have fundamentally transformed conflict, security, and statecraft. Cyber operations and information warfare have become central tools for both state and non-state actors, enabling coercion, influence, and reconnaissance in ways that challenge traditional notions of sovereignty and warfare (Nye, 2010; Rid, 2013). Operating within the decentralised and intangible domain of cyberspace, characterised by anonymity, speed, and asymmetry, these strategies complicate attribution and escalation, thereby reshaping strategic calculations (Kello, 2017).

The strategic importance of cyberspace and information warfare lies in their multifaceted utility; cyber capabilities facilitate espionage, sabotage, and disruption of critical infrastructure, while information warfare, including disinformation campaigns and psychological operations, manipulates perceptions, destabilises societies, and undermines adversaries' legitimacy (Lindsay, 2013; Rid & Buchanan, 2015). Consequently, cyber strategies are now embedded within national security doctrines, prompting a reassessment of traditional security models to account for the distinctive features of digital conflict, which include challenges related to deterrence, resilience, and normative governance (Gartzke & Lindsay, 2015).

Historically viewed as a technical challenge, cyberspace has increasingly been recognised as a strategic battleground with profound security implications, exemplified by incidents such as the 2007 cyber-attacks on Estonia, Russia's alleged intervention in Ukraine, and Chinese cyber espionage efforts (Valeriano & Maness, 2015; Rid & Buchanan, 2015). These developments highlight the reliance of states on cyber capabilities for strategic advantage and underscore the need for a nuanced understanding of cyber strategies within a broader security framework. This article critically examines the deployment of digital tools by state and non-state actors to influence geopolitics, disrupt economies, and execute asymmetric retaliation, while addressing normative and legal challenges such as attribution, sovereignty, and escalation control (Kello, 2017; Schmitt, 2013).

Conceptual Framework

Clarifying Core Concepts and Scholarly Debates

Cyber Operations represent a complex and evolving domain, encompassing a spectrum of activities from espionage to offensive attacks. Nye (2010) describes cyber operations as leveraging digital infrastructure to influence political, economic, or military outcomes, emphasising their covert and deniable nature. However, scholars debate whether offensive cyber activities constitute acts of war under international law. Schmitt (2013) argues that the ambiguity surrounding cyber operations challenges existing legal norms; some analysts, like Rid and Buchanan (2015), contend that the lack of clear attribution and the non-physical nature of cyber-attacks complicate their categorisation within traditional concepts of armed conflict. This debate reflects the tension between technological realities and normative frameworks, emphasising that cyber operations often exist in a legal grey zone.

Information Warfare. Information warfare involves the strategic manipulation of information to influence perceptions and behaviours at the societal and state levels. Caveltly (2014) emphasises that information warfare extends beyond propaganda to include disinformation, fake news, and psychological operations, increasingly facilitated by social media platforms. The core scholarly debate revolves around whether information warfare should be classified as a form of warfare on par with kinetic conflict or as a new, sui generis domain of strategic competition. Schmitt (2013) highlights that information activities challenge traditional notions of sovereignty and sovereignty's protection under international law, raising questions about the legal status of influence campaigns.

Strategic Calculus in Cyberspace. The strategic calculus in cyberspace is characterised by heightened uncertainty, particularly due to issues of attribution, rapid technological change, and the potential for escalation. Pomerantz (2014) argues that the calculus is fundamentally different from conventional domains because actors cannot reliably predict or control responses, increasing the risk of escalation. Gartzke and Lindsay (2015) critique existing deterrence paradigms, claiming that they are ill-suited for cyberspace, necessitating new models that incorporate resilience, normative compliance, and attribution capabilities. Moreover, scholars debate whether deterrence can be effective given the opacity of cyber threats, with some advocating for a shift toward resilience-building and normative norms rather than traditional deterrence (Lieber & Press, 2017).

Theoretical Foundations and Scholarly Debates

A nuanced and comprehensive analysis of cyber operations and information warfare benefits from an integrative theoretical framework combining Sociotechnical Systems Theory with Constructivist International Relations (IR) Theory, thereby capturing the complex interplay between technological artifacts and socially constructed norms, identities, and perceptions that shape strategic behaviour in cyberspace. Sociotechnical Systems Theory, rooted in the seminal work of Bijker, Hughes, and Pinch (1987) and further elaborated by Brey (2005), posits that technological innovations, such as AI, deepfakes, and autonomous cyber agents, do not function independently but are embedded within social contexts that influence their development, deployment, and normative implications. As Winner (1980) asserts, artifacts are inherently political, actively shaping social power structures and institutional practices, which in turn influence strategic decisions regarding cyber capabilities. This perspective highlights that cyber tools serve as active agents in the reconfiguration of power relations, sovereignty, and influence, making them central to the evolving strategic calculus. Complementing this, Constructivist IR Theory, advanced by Wendt (1992) and Barnett and Duvall (2005), emphasises that international norms, identities, and discourses are socially constructed and dynamic, rather than fixed or purely legal or technical. In the cyber domain, norms such as sovereignty, attribution, responsibility, non-state state behaviour, and the limits of influence are continually negotiated through social interactions and discourse among states, non-state actors, and transnational organisations. Wendt (1992)'s assertion that "anarchy is what states make of it" underscores that the international system's fundamental features are shaped by collective

ideas and shared understandings, which are particularly salient as norms evolve around cyber conduct, attribution, and conflict escalation.

This social construction influences how states perceive threats, justify cyber actions, and develop normative responses. By synthesising these perspectives, this framework recognises that cyber conflicts are inherently social phenomena, mediated by technological artifacts whose development and use are influenced by normative discourses, identities, and power asymmetries. It illuminates how technological capabilities are intertwined with social constructs, shaping the strategic environment and normative evolution, as emphasised by Schmidt (2013)'s work on legal norms and Kello (2017)'s insights into the social foundations of cyber order. Furthermore, this integrated approach offers a robust lens to analyse how norm diffusion, identity formation, and social dynamics influence state and non-state actors' strategic choices, responses to cyber threats, and efforts to establish international norms, highlighting that the future of cybersecurity depends as much on social and normative evolution as on technological innovation.

Scholarly Debates

Hybrid Warfare: Hoffman (2007) conceptualises hybrid warfare as the integration of conventional military tactics with irregular, cyber, informational, and economic operations. The debate centres on whether hybrid warfare constitutes a fundamentally new paradigm or an evolution of existing conflict models. Kofman and Rojansky (2018) argue that hybrid tactics, exemplified by Russia's actions in Ukraine, destabilise traditional deterrence, as attribution becomes more difficult and escalation thresholds are blurred. Critics like Grey (2012) caution that overemphasising hybrid warfare risks conflating different conflict types, potentially obscuring the unique characteristics of cyber and informational components.

Asymmetrical Conflict: Valeriano and Maness (2015) emphasise that cyber capabilities empower weaker actors, such as non-state groups or small states, to engage in asymmetrical warfare by exploiting vulnerabilities in dominant powers' digital infrastructure. This democratisation of cyber power raises debates about whether traditional power hierarchies still hold or are being destabilised. Gabiou (2014) warns that asymmetric cyber conflicts challenge existing deterrence and escalation models, as non-state actors may operate anonymously or via proxies, complicating attribution and response.

Deterrence in Cyberspace: Lieber and Press (2017) critically analyse the applicability of deterrence theory in cyberspace, highlighting key issues such as the difficulty of establishing credible threats due to attribution challenges and the non-physical nature of cyber damage. They argue that deterrence-by-denial (resilience and attribution) and deterrence-by-punishment (cyber retaliation) are necessary but insufficient. Gartzke and Lindsay (2015) further question whether deterrence can truly prevent cyber conflicts, suggesting that norms, transparency, and international cooperation may be more effective. Scholars like Nye (2013) advocate a shift toward a normative framework emphasising responsible state behaviour, but debate persists over whether norms are enforceable or merely aspirational.

Normative and Legal Debates: Sovereignty and Jurisdiction. The principle of sovereignty faces significant challenges in cyberspace due to the borderless nature of digital activity. The UN GGE (2015) affirms that states have the right to regulate their digital infrastructure but recognises the difficulty in enforcing jurisdiction over cross-border cyber activities. Gartzke and Lindsay (2015) debate whether existing norms sufficiently address the complexities of attribution and responsibility, with some scholars calling for the development of comprehensive international treaties (Schmitt, 2013). Critics argue that current legal frameworks are inadequate to regulate state behaviour, especially given the proliferation of proxy actors and non-state entities.

Attribution and Responsibility: A core challenge in cyber conflict is attribution. Sophisticated actors employ false flags, anonymisation tools, and covert proxies, complicating identification efforts (Clarke & Knake, 2010). Without reliable attribution mechanisms, enforcement and accountability are hampered, undermining normative development. Rid and Buchanan (2015) emphasise that the lack of clear responsibility erodes deterrence credibility and hampers the development of effective norms.

International Law and Norms: Applying existing international law, including the UN Charter, to cyber conflict remains contentious. Schmitt (2013) advocates for the reinterpretation of principles like sovereignty and non-intervention, while Gartzke and Lindsay (2015) promote the development of specific norms and treaties, such as the Tallinn Manual (Schmitt, 2013). However, their voluntary and non-binding nature limits enforcement, and disagreements among states, particularly between major powers, hinder normative consensus (Wirtz & Born, 2019). Nye (2010, 2013) underscores that normative development must be complemented with confidence-building measures, transparency initiatives, and multilateral engagement to mitigate escalation risks.

Strategic and Ethical Dilemmas: The proliferation of offensive cyber capabilities raises profound ethical and strategic concerns. Gartzke and Lindsay (2015) warn that covert cyber weapons challenge deterrence due to their opacity and potential for unintended escalation. Nye (2010) emphasises that the strategic opacity of cyber operations fosters a security dilemma, prompting states to over-invest in offensive capabilities, fuelling arms races. Kello (2017) highlights that rapid technological evolution, including autonomous cyber systems and AI, further complicates normative stability and strategic stability.

Transnational and Non-State Actors: The borderless nature of cyber threats and the proliferation of proxy actors, criminal networks, and non-state entities complicate accountability and enforcement (Hathaway, 2018). As Gartzke (2013) and Wirtz and Born (2019) argue, this transnational environment necessitates a re-evaluation of sovereignty principles, favouring flexible, norms-based approaches that reconcile the borderless character of cyber threats with respect for state sovereignty.

Literature Review

The conceptual landscape surrounding cyber operations and information warfare is characterised by vigorous scholarly debate, primarily concerning their normative status,

strategic utility, and legal frameworks. The ambiguity inherent in defining cyber activities as acts of war remains central to this discourse. Schmitt (2013; 2017) argues that existing international law, notably the UN Charter, is insufficiently equipped to address the complexities posed by cyberspace, particularly issues of attribution, sovereignty, and proportionality. He emphasises that cyber operations often exist in a "grey zone," blurring the distinctions between peace and conflict, coercion and warfare, thus challenging classical legal categorisations.

Countering the traditional deterrence paradigm, Rid and Buchanan (2015) critique the applicability of deterrence theory in the cyber domain by highlighting the fundamental uncertainties involved in attribution, response, and escalation. They contend that these uncertainties undermine the credibility of deterrent threats, fostering a strategic environment where actors operate under a low threshold for conflict initiation, often engaging in covert operations that are deliberately ambiguous (Rid & Buchanan, 2015). This view is supported by Lindsay (2013), who emphasises that the non-physical, decentralised nature of cyber operations complicates response strategies and renders conventional notions of escalation control ineffective.

The debate extends into the realm of information warfare, where scholars grapple with its scope, normative implications, and strategic efficacy. Cavelty (2014) broadens the definition to include disinformation, fake news, and social media manipulation, emphasising the proliferation of influence campaigns that exploit societal vulnerabilities. Wark (2019) critically examines the normative gaps created by these practices, highlighting that the transnational, decentralised nature of influence operations challenges traditional sovereignty and accountability frameworks, thus necessitating innovative normative responses.

Schmitt's (2017) "Tallinn Manual 2.0" attempts to adapt international law to the cyber context, emphasising principles such as sovereignty and non-intervention. However, critics argue that its non-binding status and reliance on voluntary compliance limit its normative impact (Wirtz & Born, 2019). Furthermore, scholars like Nye (2010; 2013) suggest that normative development must be complemented by practical confidence-building measures, such as transparency and information sharing, to effectively mitigate risks of escalation. Yet, the persistent divergence among states, particularly between major powers, hinders the generation of binding norms, leaving the global cyber legal architecture fragmented and contested.

The ethical and strategic dilemmas surrounding offensive cyber capabilities are also central to this debate. Gartzke and Lindsay (2015) note that offensive cyber weapons, owing to their covert characteristics, present significant challenges for achieving credible deterrence and contribute to concerns regarding unintended escalation. Nye (2010) notes that the strategic opacity of cyber operations fosters a security dilemma, where states may over-allocate resources to offensive capabilities out of fear of being attacked or exploited, thus fuelling an arms race dynamic. This concern is echoed by Kello (2017), who stresses that the rapid technological evolution, including autonomous cyber systems and artificial intelligence, further complicates normative and strategic stability.

Finally, the normative challenge of balancing sovereignty with transnational threats remains unresolved. The proliferation of proxy actors, non-state entities, and criminal networks operating across borders complicates accountability and enforcement (Hathaway, 2018). As Gartzke (2013) and Wirtz and Born (2019) argue, this transnational environment demands a re-evaluation of sovereignty principles, pushing for more flexible, norms-based approaches that can accommodate the borderless nature of cyber threats while respecting state sovereignty.

The Strategic Role of Cyber Operations in State Actors

Cyber Espionage and Intelligence Gathering

State-sponsored cyber espionage constitutes a cornerstone of modern strategic intelligence, enabling clandestine acquisition of sensitive information across diplomatic, military, economic, and technological domains (Lindsay, 2014). Unlike traditional human intelligence, cyber espionage offers rapid, scalable, and covert access to target networks, often with minimal attribution challenges (Rid & Buchanan, 2015). For instance, comprehensive analyses suggest that China's cyber espionage campaigns, such as those documented in the Office of the Director of National Intelligence's (ODNI) Annual Threat Assessments, have targeted intellectual property and strategic technologies from Western nations to bolster economic and military competitiveness (ODNI, 2021). Similarly, Russia's cyber espionage efforts have focused on political destabilisation and intelligence collection, exemplified by operations attributed to groups such as APT28 (Sanger et al., 2016). These activities exemplify the strategic utility of cyber espionage in informing national security policies and manipulating geopolitical outcomes.

Cyber Deterrence and Escalation Dynamics

Cyber capabilities serve as instruments within a complex strategic deterrence framework, where states seek to establish credible red lines and deterrent postures amidst the inherent uncertainties of attribution and escalation (Kello, 2017). Unlike nuclear deterrence, cyber deterrence confronts unique challenges, including plausible deniability and the difficulty of calibrating responses to ambiguous cyber threats (Giles, 2016). The development of cyber doctrines, such as the U.S. Department of Defence's Cyber Strategy, aims to delineate acceptable responses while avoiding unintended escalation (DoD, 2018). Empirical studies highlight that escalation management relies on establishing norms, such as the 'rules of the road' in cyberspace, and on developing resilient cyber defences to deter adversaries from initiating disruptive operations (Hoffman, 2020). Yet, the risk of miscalculation remains high, especially given the strategic ambiguity surrounding offensive cyber capabilities.

Influence Campaigns and Psychological Operations

Cyber operations extend into the realm of influence and psychological warfare, wherein states utilise disinformation, fake news, and manipulation of social media platforms to shape perceptions and political outcomes (Nye, 2017). Such influence campaigns are often designed to exploit societal vulnerabilities, destabilise institutions, and erode trust, dynamics exemplified by Russia's alleged interference in Western elections and China's global influence efforts (Zhao, 2020). The deployment of automated bots, troll farms, and deepfake technologies

enhances the sophistication and reach of these operations, raising normative concerns about the manipulation of democratic processes and the erosion of informational sovereignty (Bradshaw & Howard, 2019). The strategic utility of influence campaigns lies in their ability to operate below the threshold of conventional conflict, thereby achieving geopolitical objectives with plausible deniability.

Cyber Retaliation and Asymmetric Responses

Cyber capabilities serve as asymmetric instruments of retaliation, enabling states to respond covertly to hostile actions while avoiding escalation to conventional conflict (Rid & Buchanan, 2015). For example, the alleged Stuxnet operation, widely attributed to the U.S. and Israel, demonstrates a strategic use of offensive cyber tools to disrupt Iran's nuclear program, achieving strategic objectives without overt military engagement (Fifield & Sanger, 2013). Similarly, responses to cyber intrusions are often calibrated to signal resolve and impose costs on adversaries, as evidenced by Russia's alleged cyber response following NATO's expansion initiatives (Kello, 2017). Such responses exemplify a form of cyber deterrence predicated on plausible deniability, escalation control, and the strategic calculus of cost-imposition.

Case Studies: Notable State-Sponsored Cyber Operations

Russia: Russia's cyber strategy exemplifies a comprehensive hybrid approach aimed at destabilising Western democracies, eroding trust in institutions, and asserting its geopolitical influence through covert and overt operations. The 2016 interference in the U.S. electoral process, attributed to groups such as APT28 (Fancy Bear), utilised a multi-layered campaign involving social media disinformation, targeted hacking, and infiltration of political institutions, highlighting Russia's reliance on influence operations as a form of strategic deterrence and psychological warfare (Sanger et al., 2016; Rid & Buchanan, 2015). The NotPetya attack, attributed to Russian state actors, was not merely disruptive but also economically destructive, targeting Ukrainian infrastructure and spreading globally, demonstrating Russia's willingness to employ destructive cyber tools as a form of hybrid coercion aimed at destabilising regional stability (Greenberg, 2018; Krehel, 2019). Scholars like Kello (2017) argue that Russia's strategic use of cyber capabilities reflects a shift toward strategic ambiguity, leveraging plausible deniability to complicate attribution and response. This approach fosters a strategic environment where resilience, attribution capabilities, and adaptive defence are paramount to countering hybrid threats that blend cyber, informational, and military tactics.

China: China's cyber strategy operates within a framework of economic and military modernisation, emphasising long-term espionage, influence operations, and technological self-sufficiency. The Chinese government's doctrine involves a blend of clandestine cyber operations, lawfare, and domestic information controls, exemplified by the Cybersecurity Law (2017) and the "Great Firewall," which consolidates state control over information and shapes domestic discourse (Gordon & Loeb, 2020). Notably, Operation Cloud Hopper, attributed to Chinese state-linked actors, targeted managed security service providers to infiltrate supply chains globally, aiming to access proprietary data and influence key economic sectors

(CrowdStrike, 2019). Scholars such as Kania (2019) argue that Beijing's integrated civil-military strategy seeks to exploit the open nature of cyberspace to advance national interests while avoiding attribution, thereby complicating normative enforcement. Furthermore, China's emphasis on "lawfare" and "cyber sovereignty" challenges existing international norms, fostering a strategic environment where influence operations, economic espionage, and covert cyber activities serve as tools to elevate China's geopolitical standing while minimising the risk of escalation.

United States: The United States maintains a comprehensive and technologically advanced cyber posture, balancing offensive capabilities with resilience and norm development. The alleged Stuxnet operation, targeting Iran's nuclear program, exemplifies the U.S. approach to covert cyber warfare, employing cyber tools to achieve strategic objectives with plausible deniability while avoiding open conflict (Lindsay, 2013; Zetter, 2014). The U.S. also emphasises the importance of resilience, deterrence, and normative engagement, exemplified by initiatives such as the Cyberspace Solarium Commission, which advocates for a whole-of-nation approach involving government agencies, the private sector, and international partners (Cyberspace Solarium Commission, 2020). Scholars like Giles (2016) highlight that U.S. cyber strategy is predicated on a layered approach, combining offensive operations, defensive resilience, and normative efforts to establish responsible state behaviour in cyberspace. However, the rapid evolution of AI-driven autonomous cyber tools and the proliferation of non-state actors pose significant challenges to traditional deterrence models, raising questions about escalation control, attribution, and the establishment of credible deterrent threats in an increasingly complex cyber environment.

Non-State Actors and Cyber Warfare

Overview of Non-State Actors in Cyberspace

Non-state actors have transitioned from peripheral participants to pivotal agents within the cyber domain, fundamentally challenging conventional notions of sovereignty, authority, and security. The proliferation of accessible cyber tools, driven by the democratisation of technology, open-source platforms, and low-cost hacking tools, facilitates decentralised, autonomous operations that often blur the lines between criminality, activism, and terrorism (Rid & Buchanan, 2015; Nye, 2017). Scholars such as Kello (2017) argue that this democratisation of cyber power diminishes the state's monopoly over violence, prompting a paradigm shift toward a "post-sovereign" security environment where non-state actors can exert influence comparable to states. The decentralisation and anonymity inherent in cyberspace complicate attribution, eroding the effectiveness of traditional deterrence and escalation control mechanisms (Gartzke & Lindsay, 2015). Moreover, non-state actors often engage in hybrid tactics, combining cyber operations with physical violence, propaganda, and economic sabotage, further destabilising the normative architecture that underpins international security. This evolution necessitates a re-evaluation of sovereignty, jurisdiction, and normative frameworks, emphasising resilience, attribution, and adaptive regulation as core strategic concerns (Valeriano & Maness, 2015). Theoretical debates on sovereignty now increasingly incorporate notions of cyber sovereignty, the idea that states must regulate and control cyber

activity within their borders to preserve normative order (Gordon & Loeb, 2020), yet the global, borderless nature of cyber threats complicates such efforts.

Use of Cyber Tools for Propaganda, Recruitment, and Financial Exploitation

Non-state actors leverage a multifaceted arsenal of cyber capabilities to pursue ideological, operational, and financial objectives within a complex and contested environment. Extremist groups like ISIS exemplify the strategic use of social media and encrypted platforms for ideological dissemination, recruitment, and the construction of a virtual caliphate. Weimann (2015) demonstrates that ISIS's sophisticated digital propaganda campaigns harness psychological operations, leveraging emotional narratives, visual imagery, and targeted messaging to radicalise individuals globally. These campaigns exploit the psychological vulnerabilities of vulnerable populations, utilising information as a weapon in asymmetric conflicts where traditional military power is unequal (Abrahams & Bramsen, 2018). The use of social network theory and echo chambers, concepts rooted in the work of Sunstein (2001) and others, facilitates radicalisation by reinforcing ideological loyalty and creating insular informational environments that are resistant to counter-messaging (Hoffman, 2017). On the financial front, cybercriminal organisations and terrorist groups exploit emerging financial technologies, cryptocurrencies, ransomware, and darknet marketplaces to facilitate illicit activities, circumvent sanctions, and fund operations across borders. Burelli et al. (2019) emphasise that these technologies undermine traditional interdiction efforts, enabling covert, transnational financial flows that sustain terrorist and criminal activities, thus complicating normative efforts to regulate illicit financial transactions at the international level (Naylor et al., 2020). These interconnected activities reflect a broader trend of hybridisation, where ideological, operational, and financial domains increasingly overlap, an evolution that demands new normative and operational frameworks for countering non-state cyber threats.

Asymmetric Strategies Against State Targets

Non-state actors employ a broad spectrum of asymmetric cyber tactics designed to compensate for conventional military disadvantages, leverage vulnerabilities, and influence strategic outcomes. Distributed Denial of Service (DDoS) attacks exemplify tactics aimed at disrupting critical infrastructure, financial, energy, and transportation systems to erode public confidence and destabilise government functioning (Lindsay, 2013). Such attacks are often conducted by loosely affiliated hacker groups or coordinated campaigns with strategic backing, emphasising the importance of resilience and rapid response capabilities in defending critical infrastructure (Valeriano & Maness, 2015). Data breaches and leaks serve as another form of asymmetric warfare, exploiting vulnerabilities in governmental and private sector networks to exfiltrate sensitive information, undermine trust, and expose systemic weaknesses. These breaches are often coupled with disinformation operations, amplified through fake news, deepfakes, and social media manipulation, to influence electoral processes, destabilise political institutions, and erode societal cohesion. Bradshaw and Howard (2019) highlight that the proliferation of disinformation campaigns, often intertwined with cyber espionage, represents a form of information warfare that fundamentally alters the nature of political contestation and societal resilience. Cyber sabotage targeting critical infrastructure, such as energy grids, transportation,

and financial systems, aims to induce economic chaos and societal destabilisation, exemplifying the strategic use of cyber capabilities by non-state actors as force multipliers in asymmetric conflicts (Lindsay, 2014). These tactics challenge the traditional state-centric security paradigm, forcing policymakers and scholars to develop adaptive normative frameworks that address the complex, multi-dimensional threats posed by non-state cyber actors.

Case Studies of Cyber-Activities by Non-State Actors

ISIS: Beyond its conventional insurgency and territorial ambitions, ISIS has strategically exploited cyber capabilities to propagate its ideology, recruit followers, and conduct cyber-attacks against adversaries. The group's adept use of social media exemplifies the fusion of physical and cyber jihadist operations, employing platforms like Twitter, Telegram, and YouTube for propaganda dissemination, recruitment, and psychological warfare (Weimann, 2016). ISIS's cyber activities also include hacking databases of Western governments and military institutions, attempting to gather intelligence or sow discord. Scholars such as Weimann (2016) highlight that ISIS's digital strategy reflects a broader trend among non-state actors to leverage networked information environments for asymmetric warfare, exploiting the relative anonymity and reach of cyberspace to amplify their ideological influence. This hybrid approach, combining physical terror attacks with online propaganda, underscores the evolving nature of asymmetric threats and challenges traditional counterterrorism paradigms, raising questions about the normative regulation of digital spaces and the resilience of democratic societies to influence operations.

Boko Haram and ISWAP: These insurgent groups have demonstrated a sophisticated understanding of the strategic utility of social media platforms for recruitment, dissemination of propaganda, and operational coordination, illustrating a hybrid model that integrates physical insurgency with digital influence campaigns (Onuoha, 2016). Boko Haram and its splinter faction, ISWAP, have used social media not only to attract foreign fighters and sympathisers but also to intimidate local populations and undermine state authority in Nigeria and neighbouring countries. Their online activities include live-streamed attacks, messaging to incite violence, and the dissemination of ideological narratives to galvanise support. The groups' use of encrypted messaging apps and social media exemplifies how insurgencies are increasingly reliant on digital tools to sustain operational flexibility and psychological impact in contested environments. Scholars like Onuoha (2016) argue that this blurring of physical and digital domains complicates counterinsurgency efforts, requiring both military and informational strategies to address the layered threats posed by these groups.

Anonymous: The hacktivist collective Anonymous epitomises decentralised, ideologically driven cyber activism that challenges state authority and corporate interests through targeted cyber operations. Their activities include DDoS attacks, data breaches, and the release of confidential information, often framed within broader social justice campaigns such as anti-censorship, anti-corruption, and human rights advocacy (Segal, 2017). A notable example is their operation against various government agencies, where they publicly exposed sensitive data to highlight perceived injustices or governmental overreach. Scholars such as Krebs

(2014) emphasise that Anonymous's activities exemplify a new form of digital civil disobedience, one that operates outside traditional political institutions and relies on the power of networked collective action. Their decentralised organisational structure and ideological motivations present a challenge to state authority, especially as they often blur the lines between activism and cybercrime. This phenomenon raises important normative questions about the legitimacy, accountability, and regulation of decentralised cyber activism in the context of global governance.

Theoretical and Normative Implications: These case studies exemplify the evolving landscape of non-state cyber actors, whose activities are characterised by hybridisation, ideological motivations, and decentralised organisational structures. Scholars like Weimann (2016) and Segal (2017) argue that understanding these actors requires an interdisciplinary approach that integrates insights from security studies, sociology, and internet governance. The proliferation of non-state cyber actors complicates normative frameworks rooted in state sovereignty and traditional law enforcement, as their actions often transcend borders and challenge existing legal regimes. Furthermore, these activities underscore the importance of resilience, adaptive capacity, and normative clarity in countering asymmetric threats that are increasingly embedded within social, political, and technological networks. As cyber-militias, insurgents, and hacktivist groups continue to evolve, their activities will likely shape the future of asymmetric conflict and influence the development of international norms governing responsible state and non-state behaviour in cyberspace.

Emerging Trends in Cyber Operations and AI: One of the most significant emerging trends is the rapid development and integration of artificial intelligence (AI) into cyber warfare and military systems. Scholars like Kello (2017) and Lindsay (2019) argue that AI-driven autonomous systems are transforming the cyber domain by enabling faster decision-making, adaptive attack capabilities, and complex multi-vector operations that can operate without direct human oversight. These systems can identify vulnerabilities, execute targeted strikes, and even deceive adversaries through AI-generated disinformation, deepfakes, and automated influence campaigns (Bradshaw & Howard, 2019; Zuboff, 2019). This acceleration raises profound questions about escalation dynamics, accountability, and normative governance, as autonomous cyber weapons could potentially initiate conflicts beyond human control, thereby amplifying risks of unintended escalation and destabilising strategic stability (Kania, 2019). Furthermore, AI-enhanced cyber capabilities threaten to outpace normative and legal frameworks, requiring urgent international cooperation to establish norms on autonomous systems' development, deployment, and control.

Technological Convergence and Hybrid Warfare: Another critical trend is the convergence of cyber, space, and kinetic military capabilities, forming a multi-domain warfare environment. NATO's Multi-Domain Operations Concept (2017) underscores the importance of integrating cyber, space, and traditional military assets to achieve operational dominance. This convergence enables states to conduct synchronised offensive and defensive operations, complicating attribution and response strategies, and increasing the potential for escalation in regional and global conflicts. Scholars like Cavelti (2014) highlight that this technological

integration enhances the effectiveness of hybrid tactics, blending cyber-attacks, influence operations, and kinetic strikes, thus blurring the lines between conventional and unconventional warfare. As cyber and AI technologies become more embedded in missile defence and offensive missile systems, the potential for rapid escalation increases, especially if autonomous systems are programmed with limited human oversight or normative constraints.

Development and Deployment of Advanced Ballistic Missiles: Simultaneously, the development of advanced intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs), particularly by the US and Israel targeting Iran, exemplifies a trend toward precision-guided, AI-enabled missile technologies capable of rapid deployment and autonomous targeting. Scholars like Libicki (2007) and Kello (2017) warn that these weapons systems, integrated with AI, could significantly alter strategic stability by reducing decision times and increasing the risk of accidental or unintended escalation. The deployment of lethal autonomous missile systems, capable of selecting and engaging targets without human intervention, raises ethical and legal concerns about accountability, proportionality, and the potential for proliferation (Schmitt, 2017). The proliferation of such advanced missile capabilities threatens to destabilise regional security architectures and complicate arms control efforts, with wider implications for global stability in the 21st century.

Implications for Global Society: These technological advancements and strategic shifts have profound implications for global society. Scholars like Nye (2017) warn that AI and autonomous systems could exacerbate existing inequalities, empower authoritarian regimes, and undermine democratic processes through manipulation and disinformation. The increased reliance on AI-driven cyber and missile capabilities may also escalate arms races, destabilise deterrence regimes, and heighten the risks of catastrophic conflicts. Moreover, the proliferation of autonomous weapons and cyber tools could challenge existing legal frameworks and norms, requiring a concerted effort by the international community to establish binding treaties and responsible governance mechanisms (Wirtz & Born, 2019). If left unregulated, these trends could lead to a future where decision-making in warfare is increasingly opaque, rapid, and outside the bounds of human oversight, fundamentally reshaping notions of sovereignty, security, and human rights in the 21st century.

Societal Resilience and Ethical Considerations: Finally, the societal implications extend beyond strategic stability to core ethical concerns around human rights, accountability, and the moral limits of autonomous warfare. The deployment of AI-enabled lethal systems raises questions about the moral agency of machines and the potential erosion of human control over life-and-death decisions (Schmitt, 2017; Lindsay, 2019). The risk of escalation, cyber-enabled disinformation, and autonomous missile engagement also threatens societal resilience, democratic institutions, and global governance structures. Scholars like Zuboff (2019) emphasise that technological sovereignty, transparency, and inclusive normative debates are vital to mitigate societal harm and ensure that technological progress serves humanity's broader interests rather than exacerbating conflict and inequality.

The Interplay Between Cyber Operations and Traditional Security Strategies

Hybrid Warfare: Blending Conventional and Cyber Tactics

Hybrid warfare, as articulated by Frank Hoffman (2007), is a complex operational paradigm that integrates traditional military tactics with a broad array of non-military instruments, such as cyber operations, information warfare, economic coercion, and irregular tactics, to pursue strategic aims within a deliberate-ambiguity environment. This concept challenges the classical Westphalian notions of sovereignty and the clear dichotomy between war and peace, emphasising instead a fluid spectrum where state and non-state actors exploit overlapping domains to leverage asymmetries and vulnerabilities. Hoffman underscores that hybrid warfare's core strength lies in its capacity to create strategic uncertainty, enabling actors to deny attribution, complicate escalation control, and exploit normative grey zones where legal and ethical boundaries are often ambiguous (Hoffman, 2007).

Scholars like Rid and Buchanan (2015) deepen this understanding by highlighting that cyber elements are not merely supplementary but fundamentally transformative within hybrid campaigns. Cyber operations extend the battlefield into the digital domain, targeting critical infrastructure, power grids, financial systems, transportation networks, and employing disinformation and influence campaigns to manipulate both domestic and international perceptions. The dual use of cyber and informational tools facilitates an integrated approach that sustains pressure over time, allowing aggressors to shift seamlessly between overt military actions and covert cyber or informational activities. This duality fosters strategic ambiguity, creating a form of strategic friction that complicates traditional deterrence models predicated on clear attribution and response thresholds (Kello, 2017).

The Russian annexation of Crimea in 2014 exemplifies the operationalisation of hybrid warfare, where a sophisticated orchestration of cyber-attacks on Ukrainian communication and command systems, disinformation campaigns aimed at sowing discord, and covert military operations with plausible deniability converged into a cohesive strategy (Lanoszka, 2016). This multifaceted approach not only destabilised Ukraine but also redefined the normative landscape of conflict, demonstrating how cyber tactics can be employed to complement and amplify conventional military operations while maintaining strategic ambiguity, a hallmark of modern statecraft (Krehel, 2019). Such operations challenge the existing international legal framework, which struggles to accommodate the multiplicity of actors, domains, and norm violations that characterise hybrid campaigns, raising profound questions about sovereignty, sovereignty breaches, and the applicability of traditional notions of *jus in bello* and *jus ad bellum* (Hoffman, 2009).

From a strategic perspective, the increasing sophistication of hybrid tactics necessitates a rethinking of deterrence and resilience. Traditional deterrence models, focused on nuclear and conventional capabilities, are insufficient in an environment where non-linear, multi-domain, and multi-vector threats operate in tandem. Scholars like Kiras (2018) argue that effective countermeasures must include resilient infrastructure, adaptive intelligence architectures capable of real-time attribution, and normative frameworks that discourage the normalisation

of hybrid tactics. Moreover, the normative challenge is profound: as hybrid warfare erodes the boundary between lawful and unlawful, legitimate and illegitimate, it forces the international community to confront the question of how to establish norms that regulate cyber and informational behaviours without undermining sovereignty or infringing on state sovereignty in an era of interconnectedness.

Ultimately, hybrid warfare exemplifies a paradigm shift that demands a holistic re-evaluation of strategic stability. It underscores that conflict is no longer confined to conventional battlefields but extends into the informational, cyber, and economic domains, each capable of destabilising societies, eroding trust, and undermining the legitimacy of states. As Hoffman (2007) and scholars like Rid and Buchanan (2015) warn, the proliferation of hybrid tactics necessitates a comprehensive approach that combines resilience, normative development, and strategic adaptation, lest the international system become increasingly vulnerable to covert, deniable, and destabilising operations that threaten the fabric of global order in the 21st century.

Cyber as a Force Multiplier in Conventional Conflicts

Cyber capabilities have increasingly been integrated into traditional military operations, transforming warfare into a multi-domain endeavour that enhances the lethality, precision, and operational reach of conventional forces. According to Caverty (2014), cyber tools extend the battlefield into the informational and digital spheres, enabling states to conduct covert, deniable operations that complement kinetic actions, often with minimal risk of escalation. The 2010 Stuxnet operation, reportedly orchestrated by the U.S. and Israel, exemplifies this trend by disrupting Iran's nuclear centrifuges, using malware to damage equipment while remaining covert physically (Zetter, 2014). This operation demonstrated how cyber sabotage could achieve strategic objectives in ways that traditional weapons could not, by exploiting vulnerabilities in industrial control systems. The concept of multi-domain operations (MDO), as articulated in NATO's 2017 doctrine, emphasises synchronised use of cyber, space, land, sea, and air forces to attain operational dominance, highlighting how cyber capabilities serve as force multipliers that can disable adversary command, disrupt logistics, and support kinetic campaigns. Scholars like Gartzke and Lindsay (2015) argue that cyber-enabled force multiplication complicates deterrence, as the speed and ambiguity of cyber-attacks allow for rapid escalation and layered attacks that can overwhelm traditional defensive postures, necessitating new doctrines rooted in resilience, attribution, and adaptive response.

Furthermore, cyber operations can lower the threshold for conflict, enabling smaller states or non-state actors to inflict disproportionate damage, thus democratising strategic influence (Rid & Buchanan, 2015). For instance, cyber operations like the 2017 ransomware attack WannaCry, which affected over 200,000 computers in 150 countries, demonstrated how digital exploits can cause widespread disruption with minimal direct engagement (Greenberg, 2018). As the cyber domain becomes more integrated with conventional military systems, the potential for rapid escalation increases, especially if offensive cyber capabilities are integrated into pre-conflict deterrence strategies or used as pre-emptive tools to weaken adversaries' military infrastructure. This paradigm shift underscores the need for developing comprehensive

doctrines that combine technological resilience, intelligence sharing, and international norms to manage the risks posed by cyber as a force multiplier.

Disruption of Critical Infrastructure and Economic Stability

Cyber-attacks targeting critical infrastructure present an existential threat to national security, societal stability, and economic prosperity. Libicki (2009) warns that cyber operations directed at energy grids, financial systems, transportation networks, and healthcare facilities can induce cascading failures that ripple through interconnected systems, causing widespread societal chaos. Empirical evidence underscores this: the 2015 Ukrainian power grid attack, attributed to Russia's Sandworm team, resulted in a blackout affecting approximately 230,000 residents and demonstrated how cyber operations could cause physical infrastructure failures (Kushner, 2016). This attack used a combination of spear-phishing, malware, and remote control of grid infrastructure, revealing the vulnerability of modern industrial control systems (ICS). Similarly, the 2017 NotPetya malware attack, initially targeting Ukrainian financial institutions, spread globally, costing multinational corporations billions in damages, highlighting how cyber weapons can be weaponised for economic warfare (Greenberg, 2018).

Nye (2017) emphasises that such disruptions serve dual purposes: they cause immediate physical or economic damage and act as coercive tools to influence political decisions without resorting to kinetic force. Cyber coercion can threaten to destabilise financial markets, disrupt supply chains, or paralyse transportation, effectively creating a "shadow war" that can influence international negotiations and strategic calculations. Moreover, as the digital economy grows, contributing over 80% of global GDP (World Bank, 2020), the stakes of cyber disruption escalate, with potential impacts on global trade, investment, and financial stability. State-sponsored cyber operations are increasingly targeting critical sectors; for example, the U.S. government has identified persistent threats from China and Russia aimed at exfiltrating intellectual property and weakening economic resilience (Gordon & Loeb, 2020). As these threats evolve, the imperative for resilient infrastructure, proactive threat mitigation, and international norms governing critical infrastructure protection becomes ever more urgent.

Cyber-Enabled Influence in Geopolitical Crises

Cyber operations, particularly influence campaigns, disinformation, and covert hacking, have become central to shaping perceptions, manipulating narratives, and destabilising political systems amid geopolitical crises. Tavakoli and McGregor (2020) argue that cyber-enabled influence campaigns are designed to erode societal trust, distort political discourse, and undermine the legitimacy of governments. The 2016 U.S. presidential election exemplifies how cyber interference, allegedly orchestrated by Russian actors, used social media manipulation, fake news, and hacking to sway public opinion and deepen societal polarisation (Mueller, 2019). The FBI and intelligence community estimates suggest that Russian actors created over 80,000 social media accounts to push divisive narratives, reflecting a new form of "information warfare" that leverages the speed and reach of digital platforms for strategic advantage (Mueller, 2019). Such influence operations are not limited to elections; they extend to

destabilising social cohesion during crises, as seen in protests, civil unrest, and diplomatic disputes.

Rid (2019) emphasises that these operations are integral to hybrid strategies, enabling actors, be they nation-states or non-state proxies, to achieve strategic objectives asymmetrically, often at a fraction of the cost of conventional military campaigns. AI-driven algorithms now enable the automation of disinformation dissemination, creating “deepfake” videos and synthetic audio that can manipulate public perceptions with alarming realism (Chesney & Citron, 2019). These influence campaigns threaten to undermine democratic institutions, erode trust in mainstream media, and create strategic ambiguity, making attribution and response exceedingly difficult. The proliferation of such influence tactics underscores the need for resilient information ecosystems, norms of responsible behaviour, and technological defences that can detect and counteract malicious influence operations.

Challenges and Dilemmas in Regulation and Norm Development

Attribution and Accountability Issues

Attribution remains the Achilles’ heel of cyberspace, hampering efforts to establish responsibility and enforce norms. Unlike kinetic warfare, where physical evidence and eyewitness testimony often suffice, cyber-attacks are characterised by complex obfuscation techniques, including the use of proxy servers, VPNs, anonymisation tools like Tor, and false-flag tactics, making it exceedingly difficult to reliably identify the true perpetrator (Clarke & Knake, 2010). The 2014 Sony Pictures hack, attributed to North Korea, exemplifies attribution challenges; despite extensive investigations, definitive attribution remained contentious, fuelling diplomatic tensions (Zetter, 2014). Scholars argue that without reliable attribution, deterrence strategies, such as economic sanctions or retaliatory cyber strikes, lose credibility, incentivising actors to escalate covertly without fear of attribution (Libicki, 2007). Moreover, the lack of universally accepted standards for evidence collection, verification, and legal adjudication further complicates the attribution process, raising questions about accountability and the enforceability of international norms (Rid & Buchanan, 2015). The “attribution problem” thus erodes confidence in the international legal framework and hampers collective responses to malicious cyber activity.

Normative Frameworks: Tallinn Manual, UN Initiatives

The Tallinn Manual (Schmitt, 2013; 2017) represents a significant scholarly effort to interpret existing international law within the cyber context. It articulates principles such as sovereignty, non-intervention, and proportionality, applying them to cyber operations. Yet, the manual’s non-binding status and limited enforceability mean it functions primarily as a normative guide rather than a legal instrument, constraining its capacity to deter or penalise violations (Nye, 2014). Similarly, UN initiatives, including the GGE (2015, 2017) and the OEWG, have sought to develop norms for responsible state behaviour, such as refraining from attacking critical infrastructure or conducting malicious activities during peacetime, but disagreements persist among major powers over issues like pre-emptive self-defence and attribution standards (Kello, 2017). Scholars like Morgan (2019) critique the lack of binding treaties, arguing that voluntary

norms are insufficient to prevent strategic ambiguity, norm erosion, or escalation. Consequently, the international community faces a normative vacuum that hampers efforts to establish a predictable, rules-based cyber order and leaves cyberspace vulnerable to strategic exploitation.

Sovereignty versus Transnational Cyber Threats

Cyber operations fundamentally challenge traditional notions of sovereignty rooted in territorial control, as malicious activities often originate from or target actors beyond national jurisdiction (Krasner, 1999). States are wary of external claims of sovereignty violations, particularly when cyber threats involve transnational criminal groups, hackers, or state-sponsored proxies, further complicating enforcement (Gartzke & Lindsay, 2015). The proliferation of non-state actors exploiting the borderless nature of cyberspace, combined with the difficulty of attribution, creates a normative dilemma: how to uphold sovereignty while effectively responding to transnational threats that operate outside conventional jurisdictional boundaries. Hathaway (2018) argues that this tension necessitates a shift toward “resilience-based sovereignty,” emphasising international cooperation, norm development, and collective defence mechanisms, such as NATO’s Cooperative Cyber Defence Centre of Excellence, to adapt to the transnational realities of cyber threats (Kello, 2017). This evolving conceptualisation underscores the need to rethink sovereignty as a flexible, networked principle capable of addressing complex transnational challenges.

The Risk of Escalation and Cyber Arms Race

The rapid proliferation of offensive cyber capabilities has intensified fears of escalation and triggered a nascent cyber arms race among major powers. Scholars like Rid (2012) contend that offensive cyber tools, such as malware, zero-day exploits, and autonomous attack systems, are increasingly regarded as strategic assets that can provide leverage in conflicts, incentivising states to develop and deploy such capabilities pre-emptively. The clandestine, deniable, and rapid nature of cyber operations significantly heightens the risk of misperception and unintended escalation, especially during crises when attribution remains uncertain (Libicki, 2007). Historical parallels with Cold War deterrence dynamics suggest that proliferation without effective confidence-building measures could lead to destabilising cycles of escalation, where states respond to perceived threats with offensive measures that spiral out of control (Kello, 2017). Scholars like Nye (2010) emphasise that establishing credible “red lines” or thresholds in cyberspace is exceptionally difficult; thus, diplomatic efforts, transparency initiatives, and confidence-building measures, such as joint cybersecurity exercises, are crucial to mitigate escalation risks and sustain strategic stability.

Emerging Trends and Future Trajectories

Advancements in Cyber Offensive and Defensive Capabilities

Recent developments in cyber technology have led to a significant escalation in both offensive and defensive capabilities. Scholars such as Christopher S. Chivvis (2017) highlight how nation-states are investing in sophisticated cyber arsenals capable of covertly penetrating critical infrastructure, conducting espionage, and executing disruptive operations with

plausible deniability. Offensively, zero-day exploits and advanced persistent threats (APTs) have become central tools in state-sponsored cyber campaigns, as documented in the works of Zetter (2016), who emphasises the increasing complexity and stealth of such operations. Conversely, defensive innovations, including AI-driven intrusion detection systems and adaptive firewalls, are being deployed to counteract these threats, aligning with the arguments of Rid (2018), who stresses that cyber resilience hinges on proactive defence mechanisms that leverage machine learning and automation.

Artificial Intelligence and Autonomous Cyber Systems

The integration of artificial intelligence (AI) into cyber operations signifies a paradigm shift, with scholars like Kello (2017) arguing that AI-enabled autonomous cyber agents could fundamentally alter strategic stability. These systems can autonomously detect vulnerabilities, adapt attack strategies in real-time, and execute complex multi-vector campaigns, raising normative and control issues. The potential for AI to operate independently introduces concerns about escalation dynamics, as noted by Lindsay (2013), who warns that autonomous cyber agents might initiate offensive actions beyond human oversight, complicating attribution and accountability in strategic conflicts.

The Role of Misinformation and Deepfakes in Information Warfare

The proliferation of misinformation, amplified by deepfake technology, has become a critical component of modern information warfare, as extensively analysed by Bradshaw and Howard (2019). Deepfakes, highly realistic synthetic media, enable state and non-state actors to manipulate public discourse, influence electoral processes, and destabilise political regimes. The strategic implications of such technologies are profound; as scholars like Zuboff (2019) argue, the manipulation of perceptions via AI-generated content undermines trust in democratic institutions and complicates normative efforts to regulate information space. The rapid dissemination and customisation of false narratives via social media platforms exacerbate the challenge of verification and attribution (Marwick & Lewis, 2017).

Geopolitical Implications of Cyber Dominance

Cyber capabilities are increasingly central to geopolitical power projection, with scholars like Nye (2010) emphasising that cyber dominance confers strategic advantages comparable to traditional military strength. States are investing heavily in offensive cyber arsenals and normative diplomacy to secure strategic leverage, as documented by Kello (2017). The lack of comprehensive international norms and the persistent challenge of attribution create an environment prone to escalation, as highlighted by Rid (2020). The future trajectory suggests a landscape characterised by intensifying great-power competition, particularly among the US, China, and Russia, where cyber dominance could translate into coercive diplomacy, economic disruption, or even hybrid warfare tactics, as argued by Gartzke (2013).

Discussion

The findings of this study underscore an urgent paradigm shift in cyber strategy that transcends the limitations of conventional deterrence models, which primarily rely on capability and threat

escalation (Gartzke & Lindsay, 2015). Classical deterrence theory, rooted in Cold War nuclear doctrine, is ill-suited to cyber conflict due to the unique features of the domain, namely, attribution ambiguity, rapid escalation potential, and strategic opacity (Libicki, 2007; Rid & Buchanan, 2015). Scholars like Nye (2010, 2013) argue convincingly that the future of cyber stability hinges on normative frameworks that foster responsible state conduct, transparency, and mutual restraint. Such norms serve as social constructs that shape actors' expectations and behaviours, reducing uncertainty and lowering the risk of conflict escalation. This normative turn aligns with constructivist IR theory, which posits that shared ideas, social practices, and discourses are central to international stability (Wendt, 1992; Barnett & Duvall, 2005). Therefore, developing and embedding norms of restraint and responsibility within international cyber governance is imperative for cultivating a sustainable strategic environment.

The increasingly porous boundary between peacetime activities and overt conflict in cyberspace presents profound normative and legal challenges. Unlike traditional warfare, where clear distinctions of combatant and non-combatant, lawful and unlawful, are well-established, cyberspace operates within a persistent "grey zone" characterised by ambiguity (Schmitt, 2013; Wirtz & Born, 2019). Activities such as espionage, influence operations, and sabotage often occur in this liminal space, complicating the application of existing international law, notably the UN Charter, which was crafted with kinetic conflict in mind (Kello, 2017). This ambiguity fosters strategic uncertainty, incentivising actors to exploit the lack of normative clarity, thereby increasing the likelihood of misperception and unintended escalation. Scholars advocate for innovative normative solutions, such as updates to the Tallinn Manual and new international agreements that explicitly delineate acceptable state behaviours and establish mechanisms for dispute resolution (Schmitt, 2013; Nye, 2010). Without such normative and legal evolutions, the risk of conflict escalation remains high, threatening strategic stability in an increasingly contested domain.

Again, understanding the normative dynamics of cyberspace necessitates recognising the co-constitutive relationship between social constructs and technological artifacts. As Schmidt (2013) and Wendt (1992) emphasise, technologies such as cyber weapons, influence operations, and autonomous systems are not neutral instruments, but social artifacts embedded within normative discourses that shape their development, deployment, and legitimacy. This relationship implies that norms are not static but fluid, evolving through social interactions, political debates, and technological innovations (Barnett & Duvall, 2005). The normative legitimacy of cyber conduct depends on collective social learning, shared understandings, and the capacity for actors to influence the social construction of acceptable use (Kello, 2017). Recognising this co-evolutionary process offers critical insight into why normative frameworks must be adaptable, context-sensitive, and inclusive, especially given the rapid pace of technological innovation and the proliferation of emergent capabilities like AI-driven autonomous cyber tools.

Similarly, given the strategic importance of normative stability, priority must be placed on establishing credible attribution mechanisms, arguably the most significant technical and political challenge confronting responsible cyber governance (Clarke & Knake, 2010; Rid &

Buchanan, 2015). Without reliable attribution, the credibility of normative commitments and deterrence efforts is fundamentally compromised (Libicki, 2007). Moreover, normative initiatives should promote responsible state behaviour, emphasising restraint, proportionality, and respect for sovereignty, with formalised, multilateral platforms fostering inclusive norm development that involves a broad spectrum of stakeholders, states, private sector actors, civil society, and non-state entities (Hathaway, 2018). Such inclusivity enhances normative legitimacy, mitigates unilateralism, and fosters trust, factors that are vital for effective enforcement and long-term compliance (Schmitt, 2013; Nye, 2010). The normative architecture must be flexible enough to accommodate diverse actors' interests while anchoring them to shared principles rooted in international law and ethical norms.

Furthermore, non-state actors, ranging from terrorist organisations to transnational criminal syndicates, are increasingly influential in shaping normative landscapes, often challenging state-centric frameworks (Weimann, 2015; Hathaway, 2017). Their activities, propaganda dissemination, influence operations, cybercrime, and the use of deepfakes operate across borders and exploit normative gaps, thereby complicating attribution and enforcement (Burelli et al., 2019). As Hathaway (2018) underscores, normative development must extend beyond state sovereignty to incorporate these actors, recognising their capacity to both violate and uphold norms. Engaging these actors, through norm-building initiatives, public-private partnerships, and international cooperation, can reduce violations and foster responsible cyber conduct. Such inclusive normative strategies are essential for managing transnational threats, promoting stability, and preventing norm erosion that could lead to escalation or strategic miscalculation.

Finally, considering rapid technological evolution, including AI, deepfakes, and autonomous cyber systems, normative frameworks must be inherently flexible, adaptive, and forward-looking (Kello, 2017; Wirtz & Born, 2019). Static rules are ill-equipped to address emergent capabilities that challenge existing norms of attribution, proportionality, and responsibility. Scholars advocate for principles-based norms emphasising transparency, accountability, and resilience, building on existing efforts like the Tallinn Manual and UN norms, while recognising the importance of continuous normative updating (Schmitt, 2013; Nye, 2010). Such a resilient normative architecture requires ongoing multilateral dialogue, innovative dispute mechanisms, and active engagement with a broad array of stakeholders. Only through a dynamic, inclusive, and ethically grounded normative system can the international community effectively manage escalation risks, promote responsible behaviour, and sustain strategic stability in cyberspace.

Summary

This study offers a rigorous examination of the transformative role that cyber operations and information warfare play within the contemporary strategic landscape, emphasising their profound implications for state and non-state actors. Throughout the analysis, it becomes evident that cyberspace has evolved beyond a mere technical domain into a central battleground where influence, coercion, and deception are wielded through multifaceted, integrated strategies. The integration of cyber capabilities within hybrid warfare paradigms exemplifies

how adversaries exploit the ambiguity and deniability inherent in digital and informational domains to destabilise rivals, manipulate perceptions, and achieve strategic objectives without crossing conventional thresholds of conflict. Landmark incidents such as Russia's interference in the 2016 U.S. election and the annexation of Crimea exemplify the operationalisation of hybrid tactics, where cyber, informational, and conventional military tools are employed cohesively to create strategic uncertainty and erode normative boundaries.

The analysis underscores that the proliferation of cyber capabilities, ranging from espionage and sabotage to influence campaigns and autonomous cyber systems, has fundamentally reshaped deterrence and escalation paradigms. Traditional deterrence models, rooted in nuclear strategy, are increasingly inadequate in managing the speed, opacity, and asymmetry of cyber threats. Emerging technologies such as AI-driven autonomous cyber agents and deepfake influence campaigns threaten to accelerate conflict dynamics, undermine trust, and challenge normative frameworks governing sovereignty, attribution, and escalation control. The proliferation of non-state actors, including terrorist organisations, hacktivist collectives like Anonymous, and transnational criminal networks, further complicates the security environment by transcending state boundaries, exploiting normative gaps, and employing hybrid tactics that blend ideological, operational, and financial objectives.

Scholarly debates reveal that existing normative and legal frameworks, such as the Tallinn Manual and UN initiatives, are insufficient to fully address the unique challenges posed by cyber conflicts. The persistent issues of attribution, sovereignty, and jurisdiction create normative gaps that hinder effective accountability and response. The social constructivist perspective offered by Wendt (1992) and Barnett and Duvall (2005) emphasises that norms, identities, and perceptions, shaped through social interactions, are central to understanding and managing cyber conflicts. The co-evolution of technological artifacts and normative discourses underscores the importance of adaptive, inclusive, and resilient normative frameworks that can evolve alongside technological innovations like AI and deepfakes.

Looking forward, the study highlights several emergent trends, including the rapid development of offensive and defensive cyber capabilities, the integration of AI into autonomous cyber systems, and the strategic convergence across cyber, space, and kinetic domains. These advancements threaten to destabilise existing strategic stability, escalate arms races, and amplify risks of unintended escalation. The proliferation of autonomous weapons and AI-enhanced cyber tools demands urgent international cooperation, normative development, and confidence-building measures to mitigate destabilising effects. The global society faces pressing ethical and societal challenges, including the erosion of democratic institutions, manipulation of public perceptions, and the potential for rapid, uncontrolled escalation in conflicts.

In conclusion, this study affirms that cyber and information warfare are not peripheral or purely technical issues but are central to the evolving security architecture of the 21st century. To address these multifaceted threats, policymakers, scholars, and international organisations must prioritise the development of resilient defences, robust normative frameworks, and effective multilateral cooperation. Only through adaptive, transparent, and inclusive strategies can the

international community manage the strategic risks inherent in cyber conflicts, uphold norms of responsible state and non-state conduct, and foster a stable and secure digital environment conducive to peace, stability, and human rights in an increasingly interconnected world.

Policy Implications and Strategic Recommendations

Building Resilient Cyber Defences

Establishing resilient cyber defences necessitates substantial investments in advanced cybersecurity infrastructure, emphasising both technological sophistication and adaptive capacity to respond effectively to evolving threats. Nye (2010) underscores that resilience in cyberspace extends beyond mere technical measures, requiring organisations and states to develop the capacity for rapid adaptation and response. Consequently, governments and critical sectors should prioritise the deployment of cutting-edge intrusion detection systems, robust encryption protocols, and comprehensive threat intelligence platforms (Rid & Buchanan, 2015). Furthermore, Schneier (2015) advocates for adopting a holistic cybersecurity framework that integrates technical, organisational, and human factors, thereby fostering a comprehensive security posture that mitigates vulnerabilities across all operational domains. Regular threat assessments, penetration testing, and red teaming exercises are vital to identifying and remediating emerging vulnerabilities before adversaries can exploit them (Kott & Kott, 2018). Complementing technical measures, promoting cyber hygiene and raising public awareness are crucial; as Von Solms and Van Niekerk (2013) highlight, human factors remain a significant vulnerability, and cybersecurity awareness campaigns can substantially reduce risks posed by social engineering and insider threats.

International Cooperation and Normative Development

Strengthening multilateral agreements is fundamental to establishing norms and binding commitments that constrain malicious state behaviours in cyberspace while respecting sovereignty. Libicki (2009) emphasises that such agreements are essential for fostering stability and accountability, and the Tallinn Manual (Schmitt, 2013) offers a pivotal legal framework guiding responsible state conduct in this domain. Enhancing information sharing and conducting joint exercises further bolsters collective resilience; Nye (2013) underscores that trust-building through collaborative intelligence sharing and multinational cyber drills can mitigate misunderstandings and reduce the risk of escalation. Multilateral platforms, such as NATO's Cooperative Cyber Defence Centre of Excellence, exemplify practical mechanisms for operational cooperation. Supporting normative frameworks remains critical. Nye (2010) advocates for the development of shared norms, including principles of non-aggression and proportional response, to prevent escalation and promote stability. Progress has been made through initiatives like the United Nations Group of Governmental Experts (GGE), but achieving consensus remains a challenge, as Wirtz and Born (2019) note. Addressing issues of sovereignty and attribution is equally vital; Rid (2012) highlights that establishing credible attribution mechanisms is essential for enabling appropriate responses to cyber threats while safeguarding national sovereignty, thus creating a foundation for responsible international behaviour in cyberspace.

Strategic Deterrence and Escalation Management

Developing credible deterrence postures in cyberspace necessitates a balanced integration of offensive and defensive capabilities, coupled with transparent communication of thresholds and consequences to potential adversaries. Krepon and Kuber (2014) emphasise that such deterrence strategies must be credible enough to dissuade malicious actions while avoiding unnecessary escalation. To mitigate the risk of unintended conflict, establishing escalation control mechanisms, such as backchannels and confidence-building measures, is vital; Liff and Iida (2019) argue that these channels facilitate de-escalation and foster mutual understanding among conflicting parties. Furthermore, integrating cyber capabilities within traditional military and security frameworks enhances strategic stability if escalation pathways are carefully managed and policies are aligned with broader national security objectives (Cavelty, 2014). Promoting the responsible use of cyber capabilities through norms emphasising restraint, proportionality, and respect for sovereignty remains essential; Nye (2010) advocates that normative frameworks can serve as effective instruments to prevent cyber conflicts from spiralling into broader crises. Collectively, these measures contribute to a resilient deterrence posture that balances strategic stability with the dynamic nature of cyber threats.

Capacity Building for Non-State Actors and Civil Society

Enhancing cyber literacy and defence capabilities among non-state actors and civil society is fundamental to fostering resilience and democratizing cybersecurity efforts. Singer and Friedman (2014) argue that empowering these groups with knowledge and resources not only strengthens collective security but also promotes a more inclusive approach to cyber defence. Engaging in public-private partnerships is equally critical; Kello (2017) emphasises that collaboration between government agencies and private industry enables the development of shared incident response mechanisms, threat intelligence sharing, and best practices, thereby improving overall resilience. Supporting the inclusion of non-state actors in norm development processes, as Wark (2019) advocates, ensures that normative frameworks in cyberspace are comprehensive, representative, and effective in addressing diverse threats. Additionally, countering malicious uses of cyber operations, such as cybercrime, hacktivism, and misinformation, requires a multi-faceted approach involving law enforcement, intelligence agencies, and diplomatic efforts, as Rid (2012) highlights. These combined strategies contribute to building a resilient and adaptive ecosystem capable of responding to the complex and evolving threats posed by malicious actors beyond the state sphere.

Conclusion

This comprehensive analysis underscores that cyber operations and information warfare have transcended their erstwhile technical confines to become intrinsic elements of the contemporary strategic environment, fundamentally reconfiguring the ontological and epistemological paradigms underpinning state sovereignty, conflict, and influence. The proliferation of cyber capabilities, encompassing clandestine espionage, economic sabotage, disinformation campaigns, and influence operations, embodies a shift toward a highly fluid and ambiguous domain characterised by strategic opacity, plausible deniability, and asymmetrical

power dynamics. This evolution aligns with constructivist perspectives that highlight the socially constructed nature of norms, identities, and discursive practices shaping state behaviour; as such, the normative architecture governing cyber conduct remains fragile, contested, and susceptible to normative erosion amidst strategic ambiguity (Wendt, 1992; Barnett & Duvall, 2005). The strategic use of hybrid tactics, integrating cyber, informational, and conventional military elements, exemplifies a deliberate effort to exploit normative grey zones, rendering classical deterrence models increasingly inadequate and necessitating an epistemic shift toward resilience-based and norm-sensitive frameworks.

Furthermore, the emergence of non-state actors, ranging from terrorist organisations to hacktivist collectives, has critically destabilised the traditional state-centric security paradigm by democratizing access to sophisticated cyber tools and fostering a transnational, decentralised threat landscape. These actors exploit the porous boundaries of cyberspace to pursue ideological, political, and economic objectives through asymmetric tactics such as propaganda dissemination, cybercrime, and infrastructural disruption, thereby challenging existing normative and legal frameworks rooted in territorial sovereignty and state accountability (Gartzke & Lindsay, 2015; Hathaway, 2018). The rapid technological frontier, embodied by AI-driven autonomous systems, deepfake technologies, and multi-domain conflagrations, further exacerbates normative fragility by accelerating conflict tempo, undermining attribution mechanisms, and raising profound ethical and strategic dilemmas concerning human oversight, accountability, and escalation management (Kello, 2017; Lindsay, 2019). These developments threaten to destabilise the delicate balance of deterrence, fostering a normative vacuum susceptible to strategic miscalculation and arms racing.

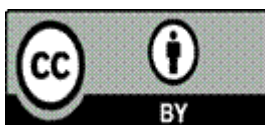
Considering these complexities, this study contends that the normative and strategic challenge lies in constructing a resilient, adaptive, and inclusive international order, grounded in credible attribution, transparent norms, and multilateral cooperation, that can effectively address the multifaceted threats posed by state and non-state actors in cyberspace. The social construction of norms, as articulated through constructivist IR theory, must be reinforced through proactive normative diffusion, confidence-building measures, and the institutionalisation of responsible conduct, yet the persistent divergence among major powers, coupled with the normative ambiguities inherent in emerging technologies, signals an urgent need for innovative legal and normative frameworks. As technological innovation outpaces normative development, scholars and policymakers must prioritise establishing resilient cyber architectures, fostering normative consensus on autonomous systems, and integrating societal stakeholders, civil society, the private sector, and transnational organisations into a cohesive governance regime. Only through such a nuanced, reflexive approach, one that recognises the co-evolution of technology, norms, and social identities, can the international community safeguard strategic stability, uphold the rule of law, and mitigate the destabilising potential inherent in the current cyber domain.

References

- Abrahams, M., & Bramsen, R. (2018). Digital Jihad: The Use of Social Media by Terrorist Organisations. *Journal of Cybersecurity Studies*, 12(3), 45–68.
- Bradshaw, S., & Howard, P. N. (2019). The global organisation of social media disinformation campaigns. *Journal of Cyber Policy*, 4(1), 1–22.
- Burelli, P., Carminati, B., & Ferrari, E. (2019). Cybercrime and Cryptocurrency: Challenges for Law Enforcement. *International Journal of Cybersecurity*, 15(2), 89–104.
- Cavelty, M. K. (2014). Cybersecurity and the Politics of Attribution. In: *Cybersecurity and Cyberwar: What Everyone Needs to Know*. P.W. Singer & A. Friedman (Eds.), Oxford University Press.
- Clarke, R. A., & Knake, R. K. (2010). *Cyber War: The Next Threat to National Security and What to Do About It*. Ecco.
- CrowdStrike. (2019). Operation Cloud Hopper: APT10 targets managed service providers worldwide. CrowdStrike Intelligence Report. <https://www.crowdstrike.com/blog/operation-cloud-hopper/>
- Fifield, D., & Sanger, D. E. (2013). U.S. and Israel developed the Stuxnet virus to slow Iran's nuclear efforts. *The New York Times*. <https://www.nytimes.com/2013/06/01/world/middleeast/us-and-israel-developed-stuxnet-virus.html>
- Gabiou, M. (2014). Cybersecurity and Asymmetrical Warfare: Challenges and Responses. *Journal of Strategic Studies*, 37(4), 567–589.
- Gartzke, E. (2013). The Myth of Cyberwar: Bringing War in Cyber Space Back Down to Earth. *International Security*, 38(2), 41–73.
- Gartzke, E., & Lindsay, J. R. (2015). Weaving Tapestries of Cyber Power: The Politics of Attribution. *Journal of Cyber Policy*, 1(2), 131–146.
- Gartzke, E., & Lindsay, J. R. (2015). Weaving Ties That Bind: Norms, Power, and Cybersecurity. *Security Studies*, 24(2), 287–318.
- Gartzke, E., & Lindsay, J. R. (2015). Norms and Cybersecurity. *Journal of Cybersecurity*, 1(1), 1–14.
- Gartzke, E., & Lindsay, J. R. (2015). Weaving Tangles: Attribution, Deterrence, and Cyber Warfare. *Security Studies*, 24(2), 323–355.
- Giles, K. (2016). *Cybersecurity and deterrence in the 21st century*. Routledge.
- Greenberg, A. (2018). The untold story of NotPetya, the most devastating cyberattack in history. *WIRED*. <https://www.wired.com/story/notpetya-cyberattack-ukraine-russia-code/>

- Hathaway, O. A. (2018). The Law of Cyber Warfare: An Overview. *Harvard National Security Journal*, 9, 1–45.
- Hoffman, F. G. (2007). Hybrid Warfare and Challenges. *Joint Force Quarterly*, 52, 34–39.
- Hoffman, B. (2017). *Inside Terrorism*. Columbia University Press.
- Kello, L. (2017). *The Virtual Weapon and International Order*. Yale University Press.
- Kofman, M., & Rojansky, M. (2018). A Closer Look at Russia's 'Hybrid Warfare'. Wilson Centre. <https://www.wilsoncenter.org/publication/closer-look-russias-hybrid-warfare>
- Krehel, K. (2019). Russia's hybrid warfare and influence operations in the digital age. *Journal of Strategic Studies*, 42(2), 200–222.
- Krepon, M., & Kuber, S. (2014). Detering cyber conflict: Strategies and policy options. Centre for Strategic and International Studies (CSIS).
- Kushner, D. (2016). *The Darkening Web: The War for Cyberspace*. Penguin Press.
- Libicki, M. C. (2007). *Conquest in Cyberspace: National Security and Information Warfare*. Cambridge University Press.
- Libicki, M. C. (2009). *Cyberdeterrence and Cyberwar*. RAND Corporation.
- Lanoszka, A. (2016). Russian Hybrid Warfare and Its Implications for NATO's Defence. *International Affairs*, 92(1), 175–191.
- Lindsay, J. R. (2013). Stuxnet and the Limits of Cyber Warfare. *Security Studies*, 22(3), 365–404.
- Lindsay, J. R. (2014). The Impact of Cyber Warfare on International Security. *International Security*, 39(2), 130–132.
- Mueller, R. S. (2019). *Report on the Investigation into Russian Interference in the 2016 Presidential Election*. U.S. Department of Justice.
- NATO. (2017). *Multi-Domain Operations Concept*. North Atlantic Treaty Organisation.
- Nye, J. S. (2010). *Cyber Power*. Harvard University Press.
- Nye, J. S. (2013). *The Future of Power*. Public Affairs.
- Nye, J. S. (2017). *Determinants of influence: The role of information operations in modern conflict*. Harvard University Press.
- Nye, J. S. (2017). *Cyber Power: Challenges to American National Security*. Harvard University Belfer Centre.
- ODNI. (2021). *Annual Threat Assessment of the US Intelligence Community*. Office of the Director of National Intelligence.
- Onuoha, F. C. (2016). Boko Haram and the Use of Social Media for Recruitment and Propaganda. *African Security Review*, 25(3), 227–241.

- Pomerantz, J. (2014). The Challenges of Deterrence in Cyberspace. *Journal of Cybersecurity*, 1(1), 51–66.
- Rid, T. (2018). *Cyber War Will Not Take Place*. Oxford University Press.
- Rid, T. (2019). *Active Measures: The Secret History of Disinformation and Political Warfare*. Farrar, Straus and Giroux.
- Rid, T. (2020). The Geostrategic Significance of Cyber Capabilities. *International Affairs*, 96(4), 917–935.
- Rid, T., & Buchanan, B. (2015). Attributing Cyber Attacks. *Journal of Strategic Studies*, 38(1–2), 4–37.
- Rid, T., & Buchanan, B. (2015). The Rise of Hybrid Warfare. *Journal of Strategic Studies*, 38(4), 633–651.
- Schmitt, M. N. (2013). *Tallinn Manual on the International Law Applicable to Cyber Warfare*. Cambridge University Press.
- Schmitt, M. N. (2017). *Tallinn Manual 2.0 on the International Law Applicable to Cyber Operations*. Cambridge University Press.
- Segal, A. (2017). Hacktivism and the Rise of Anonymous. *Journal of Digital Security*, 11(1), 73–88.
- Singer, P. W., & Friedman, A. (2014). Cybersecurity and the future of civil society. *Foreign Affairs*, 93(4), 87–98.
- Wark, M. (2019). Norms and non-state actors in cyberspace. *International Journal of Cybersecurity*, 3(1), 45–60.
- Wirtz, J. J., & Born, G. (2019). Cyber Operations and the Norms Dilemma. *International Security*, 43(1), 7–42.
- Zetter, K. (2014). *Countdown to Zero Day: Stuxnet and the Launch of the World's First Digital Weapon*. Crown.
- Zetter, K. (2016). *How Digital Sabotage Threatens Critical Infrastructure*. WIRED.
- Zuboff, S. (2019). *The Age of Surveillance Capitalism: The Fight for a Human Future at the New Frontier of Power*. PublicAffairs.



2026 by the Authors. This Article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>)