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SUDAN NATIONAL HUMAN DEVELOPMENT REPORT 2012

Geography of peace: Putting human development at the centre of peace in Sudan

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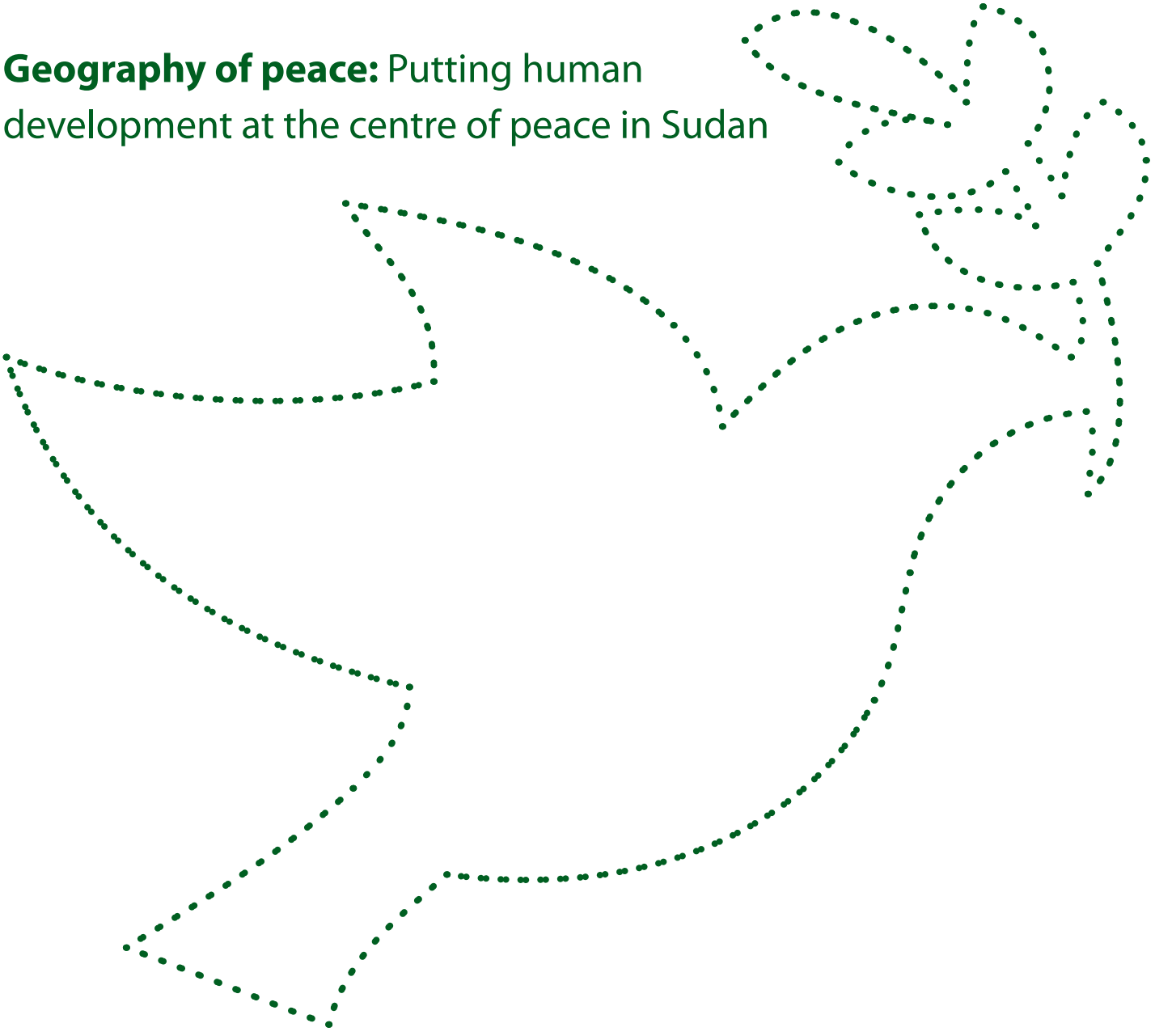

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NATIONAL *HUMAN DEVELOPMENT REPORT* 2012

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FOREWORD

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has commissioned independent annual Human Development Reports (HDRs) since 1990 with the goal of putting people at the centre of development, going beyond income as a measure of assessing people's long-term well-being. The HDRs messages and the tools to implement them have been embraced by governments and people around the developing world, as shown by the publication of many Regional and National Human Development Reports by more than 140 countries over the past two decades.

This report is the first National HDR for Sudan and is the result of extensive consultations with leading scholars, government officials and development practitioners. The report examines the relationship between human development and conflict in Sudan. It shows that where conflict surges and thrives, among and within communities, human development suffers the most. And, where conflict is not the case, opportunities to expand human freedoms, obtain better educational opportunities, greater and equitable gender participation, improved infrastructure and better health services were realized. However, in Sudan, human development and conflict remain tied together. The Sudan Human Development Report takes aim at disentangling this complex relationship.

This report comes at a critical moment in Sudan's recent history. In this new era in its history, Sudan faces an unprecedented opportunity to make and build a lasting peace – to create ways to enable its diverse people to live harmoniously together and with their neighbors and mediate differences peacefully. The report sets out a broad-based agenda for Sudan- recommending the creation and implementation of a national strategy for human development and offers a human security index to capture the effects of conflict on human development. Building and implementing a human development agenda should form the core aims of Sudan as the country moves forward.

This first Sudan Human Development Report takes stock of the gains Sudan has made in education, health and income over the last 30 years and provides key indicators and measurements to monitor the human development status for the first time in Sudan. It produces a historical trend of human well-being, sub-national measurements of welfare, and an analysis of cutting-edge development indicators such as the multidimensional poverty index. The Sudan NHDR does not however consider the changing socio-economic and political setting in the postJuly 2011 period, which was marked with considerable revenue losses as well as low FDIs, thus adversely affecting Sudan's growth and public spending.

As with all Human Development Reports, the conclusions are not in any way a statement of neither UNDP policy nor the Government of Sudan. The report aims at stimulating discussion and debate by policy-makers, practitioners and the informed public, lead to further research and analysis, and serve to guide new insights into peace and human development. In that context, we hope that it will assist Sudan in engaging a participatory and committed public dialogue for human development, at the national and sub-national levels enabling its citizens to build fulfilling lives for themselves and their children. I would like to congratulate and thank all those who took part in the preparation of the Sudan NHDR, especially the team of authors for their creative contributions, and the entire editorial team for their dedicated efforts. I am especially grateful to the independent Advisory Board, under the guidance of Her Excellency, Ms. Amira Alfadil, Minister of Welfare and Social Security, for providing quality assistance and feedback throughout the process, and to UNDP colleagues, here in Sudan and UNDP Headquarters notably the Regional Bureau of Arab States and the Human Development Report Office for their invaluable advice and support .

Ali Al – Za'tari

UN Resident and Humanitarian Coordinator
UNDP Resident Representative

FOREWORD

Within the framework of the importance which the Government of Sudan accords to the human development concept as a vital element that has its impact on the Government's strategy for the welfare of the human beings, the Council of Ministers issued Directive No. 55/2009 which entrusted the Ministry of Welfare and Social Security, the task of preparing the first Sudan National Human Development Report. Based on this Directive, the Ministry undertook the necessary actions and measures and established an Advisory Board that supervised the report process with the active participation of experts, specialists and academic institutions. The rigorous dialogue among these groups adopted the theme of the report "Peace and Human Development" which coincided with the prevailing situation in the post-era of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in Sudan.

The preparatory work began in mid 2009 with the collaborative efforts of all participants of the Advisory Board. The Gezira University was selected as a primary research body, and the independent authors' team, both were identified on the basis of criteria drawn by the Advisory Board, the membership of which included representatives of all the ministries, institutions, non-governmental organizations and experts.

The report was subjected to a process of vigorous revision through a series of workshops, by Government Ministries and the Joint Advisory Board. In addition, over eighty national and external experts actively participated in this phase, and as well the Central Bureau of Statistics assumed the responsibility of revising statistical data employed in the report.

The report and the analysis it contains present a reference document for studying ways of ensuring human development gains in support of peace building and sustainability of peace and, the drawing of guidelines for advancing the human development process and enhancing the needs of children, the elderly and those affected by the conflict. It also provides an agenda for rebuilding the systems that enhance human development in Sudan at a time when the country is entering a new phase in its path. It attempts to explore the factors which may impede the role of policies in addressing community problems. The report as well offers a sound and rich foundation for launching a constructive dialogue to assist decision-makers and community leadership in drawing policies and strategies based on methodology and scientific means by using current information and indicators drawn from the 5th National Census of 2008 and the Sudan MDG Report of2010.

I would like to extend my appreciation and gratitude to Ms. Samia Ahmed Mohamed, former Minister of Welfare and Social Security, Mr. Sami Abdeldaim, former State Minister, and Saeed Abdalla Saeed for their extensive support during the report process. Finally, I would like to thank UNDP Staff, who were actively involved in the preparation of the report, especially the HDRs Advisor Christopher Kuonqui, the Central Bureau of Statistics and all those who were directly or indirectly involved in the process. As this report is the first in the series of the National Human Development Reports, I trust that it will offer a solid and sound base for future Human Development Reports of Sudan.

Amira Elfadil

Minister
Ministry of Welfare and Social Security

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Sudan National *Human Development Report* 2012 "Geography of Peace: Putting human development at the centre of peace in Sudan" is a product of collective efforts. The first in the series of Sudan's National *Human Development Report* series, this report is the outcome of the generous contributions of many individuals and organizations which greatly enriched its aim of conducting policy research into the complex relationship of peace and human development—a relatively innovative theme in the human development approach.

The Team of Authors from the University of Gezira prepared the report, with the support of UNDP Sudan, under the leadership of former Country Director, Claudio Caldarone, and Dr. Fatima ElSheikh, Poverty Reduction, MDGs and HIV Unit, and, in partnership and cooperation with the Ministry of Welfare and Social Security.

The consistent support, encouragement and guidance provided to the Team of Authors by the Ministry of Welfare and Social Security, lead by the Minister, Ms Amira AlFadil, was especially critical to achieve the success in the report process. A special thanks to former Minister of Welfare and Social Security, Ms Samia Ahmed Mohamed, for her dedication and commitment to support the initiation of the report. Acknowledgment is extended to the former State Minister of the Ministry Sami Abdel Daim, and former Undersecretary Saeed Abdalla Saeed, and present Undersecretary Khadiga AbuAlGasim, for their strong commitment and constant support.

The Authors wish to extend their sincere appreciation to the University of Gezira Consultancy House for their support throughout the process. Gratitude is as well extended to Professor Ismail H.Hussein, former Vice-Chancellor of the University of Gezira, his successor, Professor Alamin A. AlKhalifa and Professor Mohamed Warrag Omer, present Vice-Chancellor, for their continued encouragement.

Special thanks are due to Kamal Mubark Eljack, former director of University of Gezira Consultancy House for his extensive support and to Sara Gamil Salatin for providing foremost administrative support and documentation during the report process and to M. S. Mahfouz for his contribution in the early stages of the report. Special thanks are also extended to the research assistants who helped in conducting the Focus Group Discussions in the States of Sudan.

The report team greatly acknowledges the strong commitment of Christopher Kuonqui for his strategic guidance and support to the drafting and production processes of the report. His contribution was especially central in supporting the Team of Authors in introducing a human development analysis of peace, in identifying the main messages and recommendations, and in the production of the charts and figures presented in the report as well as editing and supporting the production of the final text.

The report process

The report process spanned from March 2009 to July 2012, for Sudan before secession of the South, however this final product presents data concerning Sudan only. An Advisory Board and Steering Committee were constructed to guide the preparation of the report.

Since the inception of the report process in 2009, an advisory board, listed above, provided intellectual advice and guidance through the selection of theme, the background papers, and review of the drafts at various stages, and provided strategic overall guidance to the report. Advisory Board members, mentioned above were drawn from government ministries, civil society organizations, and non-governmental organizations.

The Steering Committee consisted of:
UNDP
Ministry of Welfare and Social Security
Ministry of International Cooperation, (now merged into Ministry of Finance and National Economy)

Team of authors

The Advisory Board and Steering Committee set out a public announcement for a team of authors of the report, which resulted in the selection of the University of Gezira team. The Team of Authors were national experts in the fields of economics, social sciences and statistics and demography and population studies includes economists, political scientists and demographers, in an effort to include multidisciplinary insights into the framing of a human development study of peace in Sudan.

Participatory consultations

From the outset, the report process involved a series of 30 participatory consultations in Khartoum, designed

to draw on the expertise of researchers, civil society advocates development practitioners and policy makers around the country. The experts include, AlSadig Babo Nimer, Ustaz AlFadil Amer, Marium ElSadig, Abu Gasim Gore, Center for Peace, Khartoum; Balgis Badri, Ahfad University for Women; National Umma Party representative, Abdel Rasoul Al Nour; State Minister of Labor, Amna Dirar; Sudanese National Council for Press and Publications, AlObeid Ahmed; Secretary General of Non- Muslims Affairs Commission, Abdul-Galil Khalifa Khogali; Head of Peace Society Bureau at Babiker Badri Scientific Society for Women Studies, Duriah Mansour AlHussein; Member of Executive Office for Darfur Peace Authority; Deputy Vice-Chancellor of Ahlyia University, Sara Nugdalla; Institute for Public Administration, Merghani Hamour; as well as representatives from: Sudanese Herds Union, Red Sea Company for Exports, East Sudan, Peace Society Bureau, Sudanese Theater for Culture and Development Research Centre, Civil Affairs Officer, UNAMID/UNAMIS, Peace Chair, UNESCO, Institute of Research and Strategic Studies, Omdurman Islamic University, Mutawinat Lawyers Group, DDR Commission, , Union of Pastoralists, Darfur Peace Network, Advisors Board for Councils, Humanitarian Commission, Ministry of Welfare, Ministry of Human Resource Development, and the Council for Strategic Planning.

Background papers

Background papers were commissioned on a number of thematic issues around peace and human development that informed the Report. Several of these papers were presented to audiences around the country as part of the consultative process. These included:

- "War, displacement and human development in Sudan" by Munzol Assal.
- "Poverty, Conflict and Human Development in Darfur" by Saif Eldin Daoud Abdel Rahman.
- "Federalism and its role in Development, Case of Sudan 1990-2010" by Hamad Omer Hawi.
- "Root Constraints of Human Development in Sudan" and "Structural Adjustment, Human Development and Capacity Building in Post-Conflict Sudan" by Abdul Hameed Elias.
- "Gender, Peace and Human Development" by Khadiga Abu Elgasim Haj Hamad.
- "Conflict and Peace Process in Eastern State" by Mohamed Taha Osman.
- "Education and peace building in Sudan" by Ibrahim Eldasis.
- "Inter-state Disparities in Human Development in Sudan: An Empirical Investigation Based on the Fifth Population Census, 2008" and "Human Development Status and Trends: An Empirical Investigation for the Case of Sudan (1975-2007)" by Mutasim Ahmed Abdelmawla.
- "The Performance of Sudan Economy (1980-2008)" by Kamal Eldin Hassan Ibrahim Eldaw.

Sincere gratitude is extended to the School of International and Public Affairs at Columbia University for contributing with background briefs to compliment the papers, to: Todd Levinson, who also served as Coordinator, Mary Moseley, Deepika Sharma, Onyekachi Madubuko, Benjamin Katz, Rhiannon Elms, Stephen Gray, Camille Ramos, Nathalie Sheppe, and Nadia Hasham, with titles:

- "Peace-building in Successful Contexts: Examples from Angola, Mozambique, and Sierra Leone and their Relevance for Sudan"
- "Legal Pluralism Explored"
- "Understanding Sudan in the context of the resource (oil) curse"
- "Regional security threats (LRA, Chad, DRC, 'Africa world war')"
- "Local Violence and Traditional Conflict Mechanisms in Southern Sudan: A Literature Review"
- "Sudan and reflections on succession"

Field research and Focus Group Discussions

Field research was a participatory process between Government and the Team of Authors. Ali Abbas, demographer, provided critical inputs and support during the process.

The field work was designed to integrate public opinion and perceptions on conflict and peace and issues of ethnicity and religion in Sudan.

The Authors of the report organized a total of 19 Focus Group Discussions, around three in each of seven States around the country: Khartoum, Gezira, Northern State, Gedarif, South Kordofan and West Darfur. The Focus Group Discussions was mainly designed to integrate public opinion and perceptions on conflict and peace as well as issues of ethnicity and religion in Sudan.

The group discussions were divided among: tribal leaders, NGOs and CSOs, Political Party Leaders, Academicians, women and youth, elderly, ex-combatants, war victims, unemployed, internally displaced persons and returnees as well as other excluded groups. Average participation was three from each group. Overall, the discussions involved collection of perceptions from 19 Focus Group Discussions with 246 participants from low to middle income groups. A total of 158 men and 88 women, aged from 20 to 70, participated in the focus groups.

An informal 'mini-survey' was as well conducted across Seven States in Sudan in order to gain insight into communities' perceptions of peace and human development. While not a representative sampling, some of the results from the 246 interviewed individuals are indicative of broader public opinion.

The report team is especially indebted to research assistants Abeer Mahjoub, Asma Algoni, Widad Ibrahim, and Ahmed Salih for their extensive contribution and field support, and, for all who participated in the interviews.

Human development seminars

There were three seminars held during the report process that provided important stimulus in the development of ideas for the drafting of the report.

The first seminar consisted of the presentation of a selection of four introductory papers around peace and human development issues in Sudan by the Authors of the report. The seminar aimed at introducing concepts of peace and versions of the Sudan economy during the last four decades. The discussion was mainly intended to inform the research process and analysis of the report. The participants were approximately 40, 10 from government departments, 9 from civil society organizations and 16 were academicians and researchers from six Research Centers in the country.

The other two seminars were presented by Mr. Christopher Kuonqui, the SNHDR Advisor. One seminar was held at the University of Khartoum with the objective of drawing attention to the concept of human development and the human development index. The participants were around 40, 25 University graduate students, five University Professors, and the rest were from the general public.

The second seminar presented by Mr. Christopher Kuonqui took place in UNDP Country Office. The seminar discussed the Human Development Index and the research areas and methodology of the report. The participants were around 25 UNDP Programme Staff.

Media

A full day seminar was presented for the representatives of media and press agencies as part of pre-launch events which took place in July 3rd, 2011. The seminar discussed the preparation process of human development reports and human development issues and reporting techniques of human development report messages. The participants were 20 media spokespersons: six local TV Stations, five Radio Stations and 10 prominent newspapers in Sudan.

Review of Sudan National Human Development Report

Statistics Team:

An independent statistical review was conducted at two stages in the report drafting to vet the use of data and statistics in the report. The statistical review team conducted three meetings with three members from the Central Bureau for Statistics in Sudan and two were Academic Statisticians in Sudan. The members are:

- Siddik Mohamed Ahmed Shaheen, University of Khartoum, Department of Econometrics
- Siddik Nasir Osman, University of Nileein, Department of Statistics and Population Studies
- Elnaeem Suliman Abbas, Central Bureau of Statistics
- Mustafa Hassan Ali Basha, Central Bureau of Statistics
- Ali Mohamed Abbas, Central Bureau of Statistics

External review team and Heads of Units team from Ministry of Welfare and Social Security

The Authors benefited from the valuable comments and inputs of the national external review team at the Ministry of Welfare and Social Security who reviewed the reports drafts, and consisted of Advisors and Heads of Units of the Ministry, and different Centers. The Team of Authors is especially grateful to: Rabab ElMahuna, Sami Mahasin Mohamed Hamid, Ibrahim Ahmed, Majdda AbdelReahman, Mohamed Abdallah, Abdalla AbdelRahman, Adam, Rabi Widaah, Salah AbdelRahman, Fatima Mohamed Ali, AbdelMutalib, Rufaida Alamin, Amel Faisal Rahma, Muna Salih, Huwaida Gasim Alkhalig, Sulaffa Abdalla, Mohamed Burhan Alsir; as well as Staff at various centers of the Ministry concerned with programmes for women, family, poverty reduction, human rights, disabled people, peace and research issues, and in health insurance and pension funds, and Population and Child Affairs Councils.

International Peer review

The report Team as well benefited from an International peer review process at various stages of drafting. These were structured around a substantive review of the material in the report, including data issues. The reviewers were international experts in conflict resolution, social statistics and economic issues and peace and development. The Peer Reviewers were:

- Ali Abdel Gadir Ali, Director, Arab Planning Institute, Kuwait
- Habib Hammam, former UNICEF Resident Representative
- Samuel K. Ewusi, United Nations Mandated University of Peace, Ethiopia
- Getachew ElTahir, Economic Advisor, UNDP
- Mohamed Abdel Gadir, IFAD, Country Programme Officer

Review UNDP RBA/RBAS and HQ/HDRO

The report draft was as well presented for technical and political review at separate stages, to the Regional Bureau for Arab and African States, UNDP, and UNDP *Human Development Report* Office (HQ/HDRO) led by Christina Carlson and Julliete Hage. Technical comments were provided by Akmal Abdurazakov, Amie Gaye, Eva Jespersen and Paola Pagliani. At both reviews substantive comments were provided.

Staff of UNDP Sudan provided special contributions for the preparation and production processes. The report team is especially grateful to Amin Sharkawi, Deputy Country Director (Programme), Auke Lootsma former Deputy Country Director (Programme), Mustafa Ghulam, Deputy Country Director (Operations), and Yakup Beris, former Assistant Deputy Country Director (Programme) for their extensive support. The team is also grateful to Ahmed Alhag for his guidance during several

stages of the preparation process, and ElMoiz Ismail, Mohamed ElSayed, Nahla Hassanein, Margunn Indreboe, Helena Puig and to Muhaned Bashier and Hiba Mohamed Asim, and the Procurement team: Mariam Boulis, Muna Ibrahim Hussameldin Mustafa, Khalid Ibrahim and Sid Ahmed Abdalla for providing critical administrative support and management services throughout the process, as well as the Communications team, Omer Rahim and Yusra Salim directed by Kumar Tiku, former communication team leader, for promoting the report.

Acknowledgements are extended to Mai Badri, present Coordinator of the project from the Ministry of Welfare and Social Security for supporting the final production of the report. Special gratitude is also extended to Awad Alawad for the Arabic translation of the text, and the Arabic Language Complex, of the University of Khartoum, for editing the Arabic translation. Finally, special thanks are due to Phoenix Design Aid for the design, layout and production of the report.

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OVERVIEW

In a new era in its history, Sudan faces an unprecedented opportunity to make and build peace—to create lasting ways to live together and mediate differences. Crafting new pathways for human freedom, relationships between its people and supporting public dialogue where Sudanese can voice their concerns in society and economy come into sight. As the first Sudan* Human Development Report *shows, peace is much more than just the absence of conflict.

Violence and human insecurity in Sudan has led to vast death, injury and suffering. Entrenched poverty, regional inequities, economic stagnation and ecological deterioration result. The impacts of war and violence – forcing families from their homes, on the unfulfilled dreams of children or the costs paid by soldiers – break the bound of what any statistic can measure. The destructive violence of human indignity left in the wake of war brush even the limits of human understanding.

The collapse of human development is both cause and consequence of violent conflict in Sudan. The choices Sudanese can make to live the lives they wish to lead, from the freedoms of walking to the local market or to put their children into schools — are cut short by violence. A brutal cycle perpetuates: diminished knowledge or abilities to enjoy fundamental rights can in turn ignite or reignite conflict. Social grievances can lead men and women to take up efforts to change their conditions and influence just institutions that advance their freedoms and opportunities.

Violence serves as a marker separating Sudanese. Where long legacies of conflict or contemporary manifestations threaten communities the most, human development tends towards some of the lowest achievements seen anywhere in the world. Where the extent of fighting did not reach, however, opportunities to expand human freedom, from constructing roads and hospitals or to build flourishing markets, were seized. Human development and violent conflict remain tied together in Sudan. The Sudan *Human Development Report* takes aim at disentangling this complex relationship.

Peace and human development

Human development is about the realization of human potential. It is about what people can do and what they can become — their capabilities — and about the freedom they have to exercise real choices in their lives. War and violence pervade all aspects of human development. The impacts may be direct, when people are killed or injured. Or they may be more indirect — when conditions of insecurity block farmers from working their lands, women from leaving their homes for fear of sexual violence or children from attending schools. When people are denied peace, their choices and freedoms are constrained. Peace provides the foundation for life, human development and human freedom.

This first report in the Sudan series establishes the roots of human development and its potential use in the study of Sudan's challenges. It emphasizes the principles and perspectives of human development: the values of equity, empowerment and sustainability that underpin the approach. Through this study, Sudan joins a network of over 600 *Human Development Reports* in applying these principles and perspective to its national challenges.

A unique tool in the human development kit is the human security concept. Human security argues for placing the human individual at the centre of security attention, rather than focusing on the rise or fall of state power alone. The risks stemming from multiple threats to the human individual and communities in Sudan emerge as a key means to understand and assess security challenges, from violent conflict to lack of adequate drinking water or access to medicines to manage disease. Human security effectively serves as the mirror of human development: while human development as an approach focuses on expanding the real freedoms people enjoy, human security ensures the protection of these freedoms.

This report contributes a conceptual framework that links the principles of human development to the

processes of making and building peace. The key insight of this framework is that high human development can help generate conditions for peacebuilding by removing economic and social injustice as a cause for grievance. And that peace in turn can help to establish human security conditions that further human development achievements. This reinforcing relationship can break the vicious cycle of low human development and conflict experienced in Sudan.

The human development backdrop in Sudan

Based on these principles and insights, the first Sudan *Human Development Report* applies the human development framework to Sudan for the first time. It offers fresh perspectives on the challenges and opportunities of peace in Sudan's contemporary social environment, while at the same time analyzing the human development backdrop in the country. New insights into the human development fabric of Sudan emerge.

Confronted by times of war and peace, the march of human development has been largely forward in the last generation in Sudan. National-level human development trends have risen. The driver of progress has been education. While the strongest social sector, significant challenges confront even education: less than half of children graduating from primary education schools fail to move on to secondary schools. And the quality of what is learned in schools remains open for improvement, as significant illiteracy rates highlight.

The report presents estimates for the first time of the human development index at state level in Sudan. The human development index is a summary measure of the ability to lead long, knowledgeable lives at an acceptable standard of living. Based on this analysis, the report shows how human development is relatively equal across Sudan's states. But this average masks some deep inequities, where at the highest and lowest extremes of human development, Sudan remains extremely unequal.

This suggests that broad-based, inclusive growth in human development opportunities is needed. The oil boom, for instance, is a key force behind the national economy. But windfall profits fail to distribute to regions, states and households across the country. As a result, human poverty remains a powerful constraint to human development. The multidimensional poverty index for Sudan, calculated based on national data sources, shows that 14 per cent of Sudanese experience multiple forms of poverty. The greatest source of deprivation is in the standard of living of Sudanese. This marks a critical warning for Sudan: inclusive human development is necessary to uplift the conditions for those vulnerable to multiple deprivations.

Many of the new data and indicators in this report are presented on an experimental basis. Applying the human development approach opens up a significant research and policy analysis program – to both extend the analysis and conclusions reached in this report, and to improve the quality of data available for human development research and policy design. Study of how human development progress in Sudan can occur equitably, large gaps between men and women can be closed and the drivers of economic growth accelerated serve as three pillars for moving a human development agenda forward.

Human costs of insecurity

Low human development achievements are both a symptom and a cause of conflict. Violent conflict affects human development in a variety of ways — from direct impacts such as death, injury and rape to the destruction of infrastructure and loss of livelihood sources. Less apparent but no less damaging effects are the emotional, social and psychosocial distress experienced by children, women and men who suffer or witness violence or are forced to flee their homes. Whether they were injured, or traumatized by campaigns of war, living in camps for displaced people, few across the country have remained immune to the effects of conflict.

The report brings the human costs of decades of insecurity in Sudan into focus. Regions and states in Sudan impacted hardest by insecurity — Darfur and the east — tend to lag behind others in health, education and income achievements. Vulnerable groups including unemployed youth, women-headed households and internally displaced people suffer especially acute human development challenges as a result of human insecurity. The geographies of violence and insecurity are necessary to understand in order to design appropriate policy responses.

As part of its research process, the report conducted a series of informal 'mini-surveys' across seven states in Sudan. While not a representative sampling, some of the results from the 246 interviewed individuals may be indicative of the broader public opinion. Participants largely agreed that more can be done to advance both peace and human development in their respective communities. Large majorities stated that peace had not yet delivered positive human development results, that government attention to the challenges of youth unemployment was inadequate, and that they did not believe national media outlets played an effective role in promoting peace and national unity. These results signal the scale of the challenges Sudan faces to produce genuine shifts in public perception.

Root causes of human insecurity

The causes of violent conflict in Sudan are sources of immense debate. The report brings a human development lens to understand the outbreak of violence, economic and political impediments to peace, and the direct and indirect human costs of insecurity. Evidence

increasingly suggests that low levels of human development and high levels of poverty and inequity act as drivers of conflict. In Sudan, this channels through the historical lineages of conflict, in ideology, identity and economic and political marginalization. In regions, states and communities where unequal access to health and education services for the poorest groups persists, the cycle of violence can contribute to instability. The lack of schools or poor education quality, together with thwarted aspirations and high levels of unemployment, can create a volatile pool of disaffected young people.

But poverty and low human development achievements are not sufficient cause to explain insecurity. Colonial roots and environmental degradation also play important roles. Sudan may be the first site of violence induced by climate change. The movement of the Sahara desert up to 150 kilometers in some locations poses a severe threat to migratory communities as they increasingly come into contact with other migratory groups or settled populations over dwindling resources. This makes environmental stewardship a central concern for peace and human development in Sudan.

The human security framework helps provide further insight into the multiple root causes of Sudan's conflicts. A holistic framework focusing on human security rather than military security is crucial for understanding the root causes of insecurity in the country. Moreover, grasping the historical, economic, political and environmental lineages of crisis helps provide insight into the necessary responses. Towards elaborating this analysis and highlighting the potential of its research, an initial version of a unique policy tool to capture the different dimensions of the challenge is proposed: a human security index.

The preliminary results of a human security index highlight that economic factors generate the greatest insecurity in today's Sudan. They also highlight the need for better quality data — improving information and knowledge on human security risks and threats. While these results are preliminary in nature, the indicator points to new avenues for research in Sudan.

Crafting a sustainable peace

The report reviews the record of elite peace agreements in Sudan and asks: why is this history mostly a history of failure? The key lesson is that signing an agreement is only the first step towards implementing peace. Applying the human development approach offers powerful new insight into this question. What emerges is that both the process and aims of human development are equally necessary for crafting sustainable peace in Sudan.

On the one hand, community involvement, participation and local voices must be included in the design of peace processes. On the other, putting the advancement of human development for all impacted by insecurity must be the top priority. Making visible a human development dividend, moreover, can be a key strategy for ensuring support for state policies and activities that reinforces peacebuilding.

Avoiding a false dawn where a shattered hope for peace results from misguided policies is crucial as Sudan moves forward. In this light, policies and institutions for human development are critical to build and maintain. Post-conflict strategies such as disarmament, demobilization and reintegration are important starting points—but much remains wanting to deliver concrete results for peace. Lessons from other countries provide some insight into how Sudan can follow pathways to peace. Customary or traditional tools for conflict resolution should also receive renewed attention in Sudan, too often excluded in favor of national peace deals.

Situations where the threat of ongoing violence exists require the establishment of participatory and open procedures including the voices of affected populations for the cessation of hostilities. By contrast, where peace agreements in Sudan have been made, just implementation and peacebuilding are required. The report shows how human development in each context must form the ultimate goal of engagement.

Towards a human development strategy

The report sets out a broad-based agenda for Sudan—recommending the creation and implementation of a national strategy for human development. Building and implementing a human development agenda should form the core objective of Sudan as the country moves forward.

As pillars for this agenda, the report prioritizes several proposals for closing gaps in economic, social, political and cultural inequalities. Increasing jobs, building schools and applying zakat (alms giving, one of the five pillars of Islam) and other national social protection strategies are key parts of this proposal. The focus should be on distributing visible human development gains to all recovering from insecurity. Ensuring that these gains do not erode as a result of violence or other social shocks is equally important.

Provisions for human development must be made in both times of peace and war, underscoring the need to protect human development during conflict and to strengthen provision for affected children and adults. The roles of unequal economic and social policies that fracture the implementation of peace and create conditions that reignite violent conflict must be tackled.

Building or rebuilding systems that facilitate human development is needed everywhere in Sudan. The report identifies problems and sets out solutions that can help make peace a force for the expansion of human choice—and how protecting choice is vital for sustaining a just peace.

This report comes at a critical moment for Sudan. The January 2011 referendum led to the call for a separate South Sudan nation—a process and outcome that must be managed peacefully. Overtures in the Darfur peace process experience a forward and backward oscillation in need of undisputed progress. Advances in Eastern Sudan after the 2006 peace amassed new financing to tackle poverty and created an improved climate for business and investment to ensure delivery of effective results for Eastern Sudanese. Disputes over lands and water among nomads and with settled communities, however, still demand lasting reconciliation.

The message this report delivers is that human development must be placed at the centre of peace in Sudan if these critical issues are to be managed to the benefit of the Sudanese people. How peace is pursued must transform. A long history of peace agreements and protocols to end violence has at best produced varied results in Sudan, replete with the frequent recurrence of large-scale violence. Conflict and disputes over resources have taken on many dimensions, often metamorphosing into identity-related or religious clashes. Sudanese impacted by war are too often excluded in the peacebuilding process — leaving leaders and elites to take decisions that affect all. What works in peace must be expanded and what does not left behind. The geography of peace must change.

The implications of this message are twofold. The Sudanese people — and especially those affected by violence and conflict — should have the freedom to openly and actively participate in the planning and implementation of peace agreements that reign over their lands and over their lives. And human development should be the very goal of peace, enabling equitable, empowered and sustainable progress in the freedoms of all Sudanese.

Realizing a human development agenda for Sudan requires putting people at the centre of peace. A reimagining of the foundations of human development is needed that is reoriented towards the provision of equitable, empowering and sustainable human development. Going beyond conditions of insecurity, Sudan must rise to meet the demands of human freedom. Looking to the present moment, this demand is more urgent than ever.

1

Peace and human development in Sudan

"Raising the level of education, ending poverty and bringing balanced development would assist in resolving conflicts."

A female focus group discussion participant in South Kordofan

1 PEACE AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IN SUDAN

With historic changes for peace sweeping the country, Sudan stands at a unique moment to set new pathways for the expansion of human choices. Deep challenges remain in Darfur and other areas to establish the basic conditions for human security. And the struggle against the scourges of illiteracy, undernourishment or being without work must also gain pace. In a new era, the call to place human development at the heart of building peace in Sudan comes with renewed urgency.

Human development is the expansion of the choices people can make to live the lives they value in their societies. It is about people actively shaping their own freedoms and the goals they wish to achieve. For over 21 years, the concept of human development has contributed to and led the evolution of new ideas, measures and policies for enhancing people's freedoms to live long, healthy and creative lives. The Sudan *Human Development Report* continues this tradition by bringing human development to the study of peace for the first time in Sudan.

This report emphasizes the critical role peacebuilding plays in ensuring human development—and the role of human development in peace in Sudan. War and violence since 1955 have indisputably slowed the human development progress of the Sudanese people. The 2005 Comprehensive Peace Agreement ending the 22-year north-south war, and the 2006 Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement, brought new chances for Sudan to take advantage of its inherent potential.

While critical, war and peace are not the sole defining features of Sudan's human development landscape. Indeed, low human development achievements in health, education and income are likely factors that continue to lock parts of the country into recurring conflict traps. These low achievements manifest themselves in many deprivations, from inability to secure food or to gain jobs, to lack of access to sanitation or electricity. Limited institutional capacities and human capabilities, moreover, reinforce transmission mechanisms that lead to human insecurity and violence. Interrogating these interrelationships and mechanisms is the focus of this report.

The first Sudan *Human Development Report* aims to serve as a point of departure for a debate on priorities and strategies for peace and human development. Human development can only take root when grounded in the experience of a people and nourished by their own social processes. Open public dialogue on human development can lead to a renewed agenda for human freedom in Sudan. Placing human development at the centre of peacebuilding and consolidation is an essential strategy.

Our starting point is that human well-being is inextricably interlinked with peace. How peace leads to human development and human development to peace matters immensely for Sudan today. The quality of institutions, principles and achievements that shape the transmission mechanisms between the two come into focus. This chapter examines the peace and human development relationships in Sudan.

1.1 The roots and ideas of human development

This first Sudan *Human Development Report* comes on the cusp of the 20th anniversary of the *Human Development Report* series. The concept of human development was introduced into the global policy dialogue with the launch of the global *Human Development Report 1990*. In the context of challenging leading perspectives focused on economic growth, human development emphasized that development is primarily and fundamentally about people. The global *Human Development Report 2010* reaffirms this view: people, not goods or resources, are the real wealth of nations.[1]

The human development perspective focuses on providing an enabling environment in which individuals can develop their full potential and lead long, productive and creative lives.[2] This approach to development has led to over 600 national-level reports that assess public policies and contribute to national development debate. Through such diverse settings, human development has proven to be an evolving idea and not a fixed, static set of precepts, robust and flexible enough to match how communities, nations and the world change over time. Applying the lens of human development generates innovative insights and policy tools to tackle newly emerging and pressing challenges in a society.

Human development sees the development enterprise as chiefly concerned with the objective of expanding human liberty and removing impediments

to its flourishing. Nobel laureate Amartya Sen argues that two separate reasons exist as to why freedom is the central component of the developmental process: progress has to be assessed in terms of whether people's freedoms are enhanced; and achievement of development thoroughly depends on the free agency of people.[3] Human development is thus ultimately both a goal and a process of empowering people to lead the lives they value by expanding their capabilities, freedoms and choices. The first Sudan *Human Development Report* represents the first full effort to apply these principles and concepts to Sudan.

Human development principles

Human development depends on plural principles such as equity, empowerment and human agency, efficiency, sustainability and respect for human rights to become relevant to local and national experiences. All human beings should enjoy equal rights and opportunities without discrimination. A young boy living in an internally displaced persons camp should not be prevented from going to school just because of where he lives. Policy decisions should also reflect the voices and perspectives of those people who are directly affected. For instance, those to be affected by peace protocols should be provided the opportunity to participate in the design and implementation of the peace.

The human development approach calls for looking at issues of equity within and across national borders in identifying development challenges and solutions. Who is benefiting or being left behind, and why? Human development places a focus on the poor and other socially, politically or economically excluded groups defined by sex, age, income, ethnicity, location, physical or mental ability and other potential markers of disadvantage. Targeted policies and increased investments need to reach vulnerable people to reduce poverty and inequity.

Empowerment is achieved when members of a society are given the resources and opportunities to participate in the development process. Participation and social inclusion also have an intrinsic value. Participation can improve the effectiveness of development solutions by supporting informed debates and decision-making, policy implementation and revision. Access to credible, authoritative and independent information is fundamental to allowing people to make informed decisions and choose behaviors that could improve their lives.

All countries face the challenge of limited capacities and financing to different degrees. Economic efficiency involves looking at whether people and institutions can be made better off by reallocating resources or goods, without making others worse off over time or across locations.

Among many features, justice entails expanding equity, sustaining outcomes over time and respecting human rights. Political freedoms such as democracy and civil liberties hold both intrinsic and instrumental values: they are goals unto themselves, but they are also means to other, broader goals as well. Democratic institutions are those generally best able to advance human development goals. Moreover, allowing people to actively participate in discussions about goals and policy is critical to designing stable institutions and policies that serve their rights and needs.

The contribution of human security

Human development places emphasis on the expansion of human freedoms. Human security, by contrast, focuses on the prevention of the erosion of freedoms; it addresses how to safeguard hard-earned advances. The two perspectives are fully complementary—indeed, one is necessary for the other.

Human security demands protection from the risks of daily insecurities, from violence and disease to inadequate access to water or sanitation that each can reverse human development achievements. Examination of the sources of insecurity of human lives, coming from violence, poverty or disease, illuminates the far-reaching role of social, economic, political and cultural influences and human securities. Human security places emphasis on how people live their lives and their day-to-day freedoms. It provides a reorganizing concept of security for the freedoms and well-being of people.

The study of threats to human development also holds the advantage of highlighting relationships among them. How poverty causes violence or the threat of violence contributes to poverty is brought into sharp refrain by attention to human security. It goes beyond, in many ways, the concept of national security that concentrates primarily on protecting what is perceived as the robustness of the power of the national state, towards safeguarding the dignity of the human individual.

Peace in everyday language usually means the cessation of conflict or violence. But the concept of peace goes beyond the absence of war.

1.2 Peace and human development: a framework

Peace in everyday language usually means the cessation of conflict or violence. But the concept of peace goes beyond the absence of war. As an ethical and moral value, peace embodies values of social justice, legality, equality and freedom that maintain a community. As a social concept, peace implies progress in culture, building human community and human organizations that can maintain or enhance social ties. Peace, from these perspectives, is an indispensable condition for basic human living and activity, without which

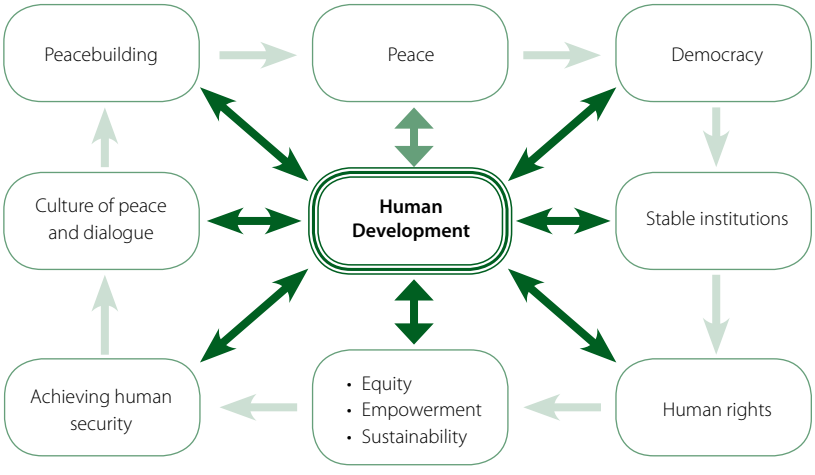
progress in social, cultural or economic development cannot be achieved.

The conceptual framework of the report places human development at the centre of peace in Sudan. In the context of forging and implementing peace agreements, this holds two central implications: the need to fulfill process freedoms, and to achieve substantive freedoms through the actualization of peace.

This report reaffirms these values. Peace can be realized only within the context of specific communities, expressing ethical and social dimensions. The extreme absence of peace represented by armed conflict kills and injures people, damages social ties and destroys natural resources and infrastructure. While the lack of peace drains resources from human well-being, peace instead facilitates stability, opportunity to transform institutions and to provide justice for human development.

Sudan is among the countries most affected by recurring armed conflicts and long civil wars. Data and statistics can to some extent paint the picture of the negative impacts of armed conflicts that obstruct the ability of local institutions to facilitate development. But building peace goes beyond this into the ethical and social aspects of human development progress intrinsic to Sudan. The parties to a conflict need to not only negotiate peace, but also build lasting ways to live together.

Figure 1.1 **Peace and human development: links and interlinkages**



Source: Team of authors

The links between peace and human development

This report provides a conceptual framework relevant to Sudan that reflects several of the powerful links between peace and human development (figure 1.1). This relationship implies that where peace exists, human development can advance. By contrast, when human development diminishes, war and threats to peace prevail (see figure 1.2).

Equity, empowerment and sustainability are key features of this framework. A significant cause of the major conflicts in Sudan has been real and perceived inequities between the small elite with wealth and power and the vast population often lacking even in the basic means of subsistence. Establishing more equitable human development is thus a critical aspect of peace in Sudan. As a non-governmental organization worker in a northern state said: "Peace is necessary for development provided that peace dividends are prudentially and fairly utilized in development projects."[4]

A key factor in establishing a positive mechanism for breaking the low human development/conflict trap is building a culture of peace. Instilling mutual recognition between individuals in a society as well as respect for identity and culture can be powerful forces that lead to resolving conflict and differences by peaceful means.

Human security in this framework acts to safeguard advances in human development. Protection from risks stemming from the several dimensions of threats that impact human development, from environmental scarcity to political participation and economic security, is crucial for prevention of reversal of human development gains. Human security also contributes, as the framework highlights, towards creating stability that protects peace and mitigates the risks of violent conflict.

Stable, effective institutions can make the difference between a virtuous peace/human development circle and a vicious human development/conflict trap. Institutions that can promote and spread equity, democracy and empowerment can serve as key ways to exit violence and human insecurity. Moreover, democracy and human rights are constitutive factors of human development that overlap with the promotion of other freedoms, such as the liberty to participate openly in one's development and society, and freedom from repression or fear.

The conceptual framework of the report places human development at the centre of peace in Sudan. In the context of forging and implementing peace agreements, this holds two central implications: the need to fulfill process freedoms, and to achieve substantive freedoms through the actualization of peace.

People affected by insecurity, war and violence should have the freedom to be a part of the process of crafting the peace. This relates to the use of the human agency in defining peace—and thus to how civil pathways can lead to a peace that is more than the absence

of violence. Forging peace in Darfur, for instance, should ensure that the affected population — not just elites and holders of public offices — feels fully involved in the process. This demands establishing peace and its implementation by discussion and debate. It is not only about putting in place political processes but ensuring that these processes are fully inclusive.[5]

From a human development perspective, peace should also be undertaken to expand the human development and real freedoms people enjoy rather than only a focus on the timelines of combatant withdrawals or ceasefires. Factors such as disarmament and reintegration are crucial means to expanding freedoms but they are not the only ones. If human development is what peace agreements advance, then there is a major argument for concentrating on that overarching objective, rather than on some particular means, or specially chosen list of instruments.

Violence and human development

The absence of violence by itself may not lead to real, substantive peace. Contemporary Darfur represents a significant example of this. Major warring groups have not engaged in destructive violence since 2007. Yet, this absence of large-scale bloodshed does not mean that the threat of violence, or even small-scale violence, has receded. Human development requires much more than the cessation of violence.

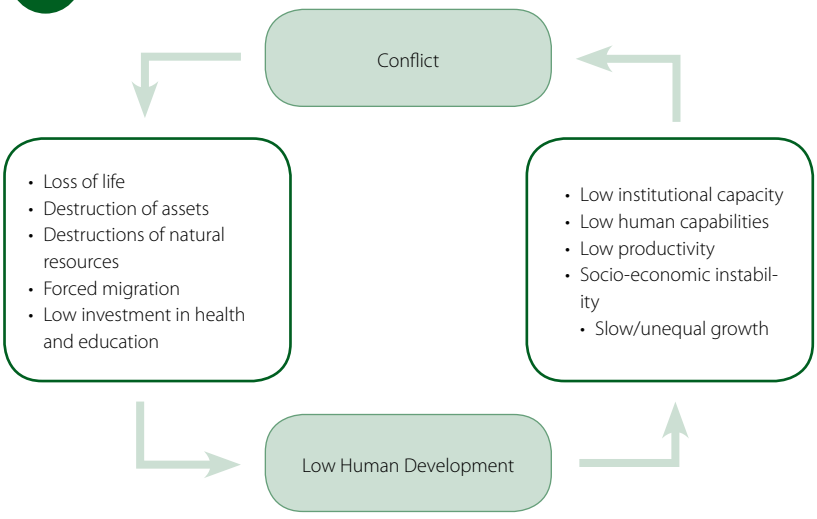
How violence ends also matters for human development. If violence ends by repression or fear, then it will not likely usher in a period of stability that facilitates human development. Similarly, if violence is replaced by conditions of small-scale human insecurities, such as restricted freedom of speech or unstable access to markets and goods, then this cannot be called a real peace either. Whether those affected are part of the process and whether their substantive freedoms are advanced as a result are key ways to monitor the end of violence and creation of sustainable peace.

Seeds of peace, seeds of war

High human development can lead to sustainable peace, as the conceptual framework proposed in this chapter illustrates. The opposite is also true: low human development can lock individuals and communities into cycles of violence, producing a human development-conflict trap (figure 1.2). In this sense, human development contains within it both seeds of peace and seeds of war. Human development that is equitable, leads to empowerment and is sustainable breaks the trap—and plants seeds of peace. By contrast, human development that is undertaken for the few in a society, supporting an elite's wealth and political gains, or that remains too fragile, volatile and vulnerable to reversals reinforces the fragile human development-conflict trap.

As Chapter 2 shows, Sudan's human development trends, while on the rise nationally, are also unequal and fragile. The fragile human development-conflict trap provides insight into why. Limited institutional capacities to provide human development services such as health and education matched with overall deteriorations in the broader socio-economic environment can be the transmission mechanisms that lead to conflict. In turn, violence can destroy lives, livelihoods and wealth, leading to forced displacements and obstructed investments into health and education. The cycle then restarts.

Figure 1.2 **Fragile human development-conflict trap**



Source: Kim and Conceição 2009.

1.3 Conclusion

That violence, instability and human insecurity in Sudan undermine human development may not come as a surprise to anyone. Yet, detailing the relationships — points of strength and of weakness — highlights avenues for supporting peace, and for breaking out of cycles of violence.

At the threshold of a new era, Sudan has the opportunity to fully realize its human development potential—to launch new, widespread initiatives for peace and security. Placing human development at the centre of peace entails advancing the freedom of people to participate as active agents and citizens in crafting peace in their societies, and for the expansion of their freedoms through peace. Equity, empowerment and sustainability can serve as guiding principles to engage on new pathways to human development. And human security can in turn protect advances by bringing to light risks and threats to human development stemming from violence and insecurity.

Using the fundamental concepts of peace, human development and human security offer insights into building an inclusive Sudan. The rest of this report develops these insights further.

2

Human development conditions in Sudan

2 HUMAN DEVELOPMENT CONDITIONS IN SUDAN

Human development is about what people can do or be—their capabilities to enjoy a life they value in their societies. These freedoms on average in Sudan have expanded over recent years, often in the face of severe economic, social and environmental constraints. Yet, many disadvantaged regions and states are left behind, especially those in or recovering from conflict. And insecurity has slowed overall progress. This chapter sets out these broad human development trends and factors.

Box 2.1

Human development index—concept and measure

Several attempts have been made over recent decades to develop welfare-sensitive measurements or indices of development that go beyond the gross national product. The major limitation of the gross national product is that it only measures commercial transactions in an economy, while the welfare of individuals depends on many other non-commercial goods and services. The Human Development Index (human development index) introduced in the global *Human Development Report* 1990 has received the most widespread acceptance as an alternative measure of well-being.

The human development index is an aggregate measure of three dimensions of the human development concept: living a long and healthy life, being educated and having a decent standard of living (see technical note). It combines measures of life expectancy, school enrolment, literacy and income to allow a broader view of a country's development than using income alone.

Three features set the human development index apart. First, the human development index is supplemented by other indices that give, separately, specific characteristics of development and, together, a broader picture of the development processes taking place. Second, it was developed by the Nobel laureate Amartya Sen and several leading economists as well as supported by the United Nations Development Programme and widely implemented in global debate and national *Human Development Reports*. Finally, human development is not only a new measure of development performance—it involves a new approach to development altogether.

The human development index, like the human development concept itself, is continuously evolving. The global *Human Development Report 2010* sets out a new method of calculating the human development index, adjusting the education and income indicators and the way the index is aggregated. The knowledge dimension replaced literacy with mean years of schooling; school enrolment was substituted by the years of schooling a child can expect to receive given current enrolment rates. Gross national income per capita replaced gross domestic product per capita in the standard of living dimension. Finally, a geometric mean is used to aggregate the indicators instead of a simple average. More information on these changes can be found in the global *Human Development Report 2010.*

While recognizing the importance of these changes, this first Sudan *Human Development Report* relies on the previous method of calculating the human development index, using the previous knowledge and standard of living indicators and aggregation method. This is because of one simple challenge. As discussed in box 2.2, many statistical data gaps exist in Sudan—and the new education indicators are simply not available for national or state levels.

Implementing the new human development index methodology at national, state and even district levels in Sudan points to a powerful new agenda for human development in the country (see section 6.4). We hope the first steps taken in this report provide a foundation to build on for this new wave of emerging research and policy for Sudan.

Source: UNDP 2010.

Education, health and standards of living have expanded in Sudan over the last 30 years. But progress has been severely slowed by the onset of violent conflict and the resulting impacts on institutional stability and social capital. Advances made were also often reversed due to war, drought and other social shocks, producing unsteady and fragile gains.

This recent history of fluctuations in human development illustrates the need to establish sustainable peace that allows for the expansion of the freedoms of the Sudanese people — and human security that safeguards these freedoms. While this chapter presents the overall human development conditions in Sudan, the next takes stock in more detail of how peace and security have impacted these achievements.

As the first *Human Development Report* in the Sudan series, this chapter proposes a number of innovative tools and measures for Sudan, including state-level indicators of human development, estimates on multidimensional poverty and information on differences between men and women. Through these experimental measures, the chapter sets out a foundation for future reference on the conditions and policy agenda of the human development approach as it relates to Sudan.

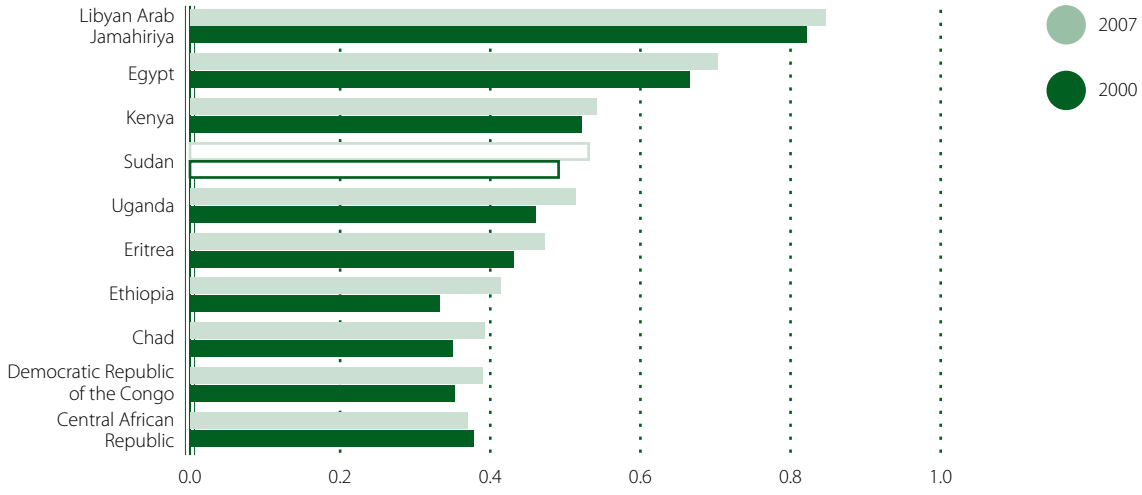
2.1 Human development in times of war and peace

Human development is about people. It is about expanding the real choices and substantive freedoms that enable them to lead lives they value. Choice and freedom in human development mean more than the absence of constraints. People whose lives are marked by insecurity, ill health or illiteracy are not in any meaningful sense free to lead the lives that they value. Human development in Sudan remains constrained by war, violence and poverty.

Over decades marred by multiple axes of insecurity and poverty, the Sudanese people have largely been occluded from undertaking high paths of human development advance. Recurring waves of drought

Figure 2.1 **Sudan among neighbors: comparisons over place and time**

Human development index value



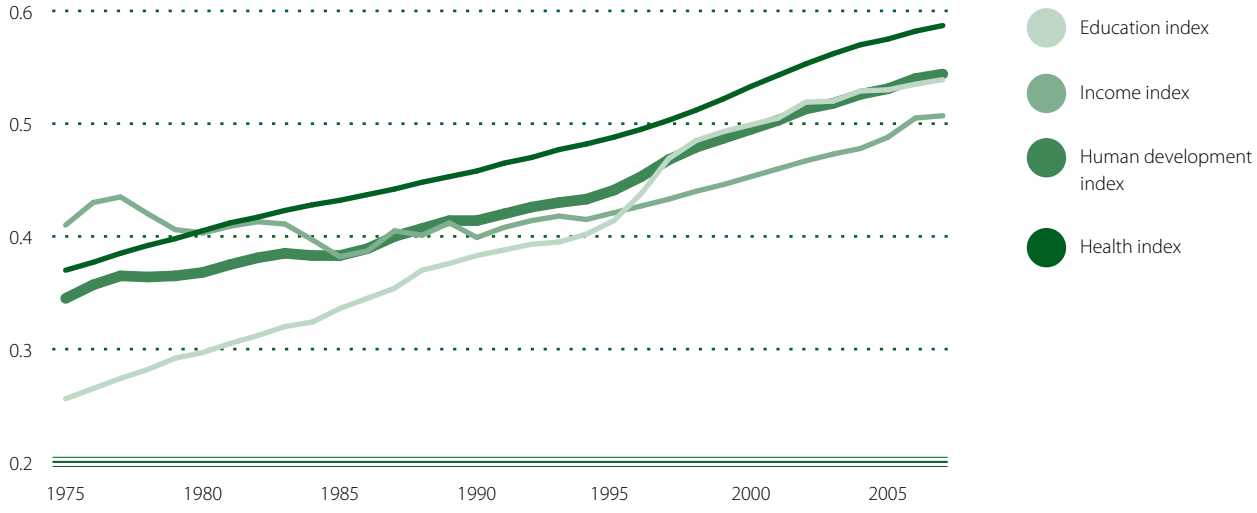
Source: UNDP 2009b

have led to media-grabbing headlines of famine and destitution. But when the media glare fades, pockets of millions of Sudanese across the country remain entrenched in deep cycles of multidimensional poverty. Favoring economic reforms and infrastructure reconstruction, successive governments in Sudan have delivered limited resources towards broader development plans. And even among these, development strategies did not give adequate consideration to human development.

The result: Sudan has far to go to advance inclusive human development. Using the human development index, a composite measure of achievements in human development (see box 2.1), Sudan ranked 161 out of 182 countries in the world for which the human development index was calculated; by 2007 Sudan ranked 150.[1]

Figure 2.2 **Expanding human development over time despite challenges**

Human development index and components, 1975-2007



Source: Statistical table 1. For reference in the chapters of this report to "Statistical table" please see the corresponding Statistical table in the annex to this report.

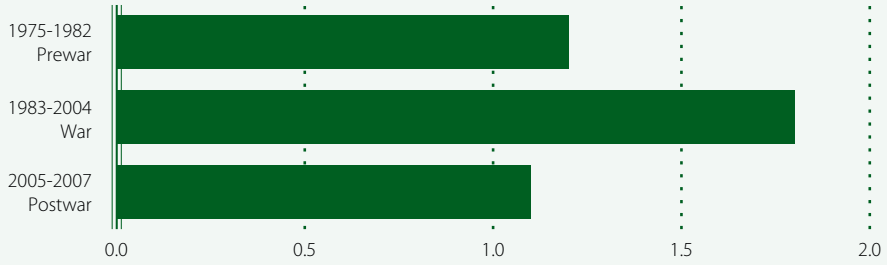
Box 2.2

Human development index during war and peace

Average human development index (HDI) value during the pre-war period 1975-1982 is estimated at 0.365.* The volatility of the contributions of all human development sub-indicators increased during the war period. The average human development index value in post-conflict Sudan is estimated at 0.539. The contributions of health, education and income to human development are estimated at 36 per cent, 33 per cent, and 31 per cent, respectively. The volatility of the contributions of all human development sub-indicators is less than 2.3 per cent. The average human development index growth rates during the three sub periods 1975-1982, 1983-2004, and 2005-2007 are estimated at 1.2 per cent, 1.8 per cent and 1.1 per cent, respectively (figure 1).

Figure 1 Average human development index growth rates 1975-2007

Human development index average annual growth rate (%)

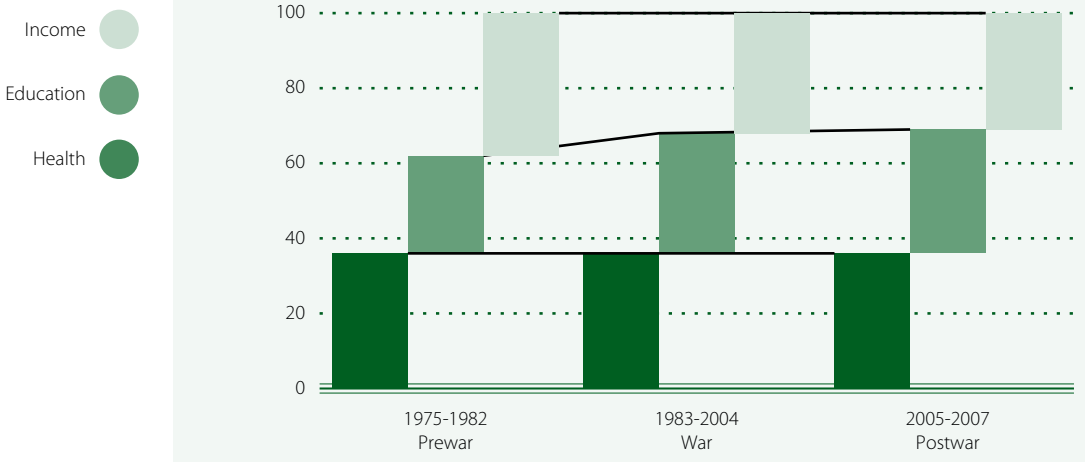


Source: Based on calculations using data of statistical table 1.

The contributions of health, education and income to human development in the pre-war period are estimated at 36 per cent, 26 per cent, and 38 per cent, respectively (figure 2). The war period 1983-2004 saw an average human development index of 0.444. The contribution of the standard of living dropped significantly from 38 per cent for the pre-war period to 31.9 per cent during war, while the contributions of health and education are estimated at 36.5 per cent and 31.6 per cent, respectively.

Figure 2 Education, health and income contributions to human development index in war and peace

Contributions to human development index (%)



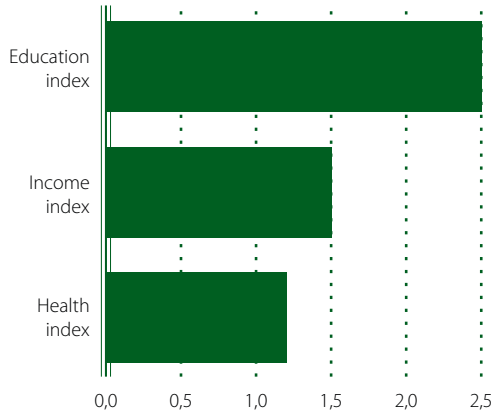
National human development index experienced the fastest growth rate during the period of war. This highlights two central issues. First, the war period in Sudan lasted nearly a generation. It encompassed long periods of intense fighting, but also of more relative stability. The tail end of the period also saw the oil boom and improvements in agriculture resulting from better rains. Second, by contrast the 2005-2007 post-war period is short. Human development index moves slowly over time, with national health and education as measured in the human development index presented in this report especially requiring several years to register changes. For further information on the calculation of the human development index in this report please see Technical note in the annex to this report.

* The 'pre-war period' is also a post-conflict period, after the South war ended in 1972.

Source: Calculated based on statistical table 1.

Figure 2.3 **Human development progress in Sudan led by education**

Ordinary least squares growth rates, 1975-2007 (%)



Source: Calculated based on statistical table 2.

This shows clear advances. In its immediate region, Sudan holds a higher national-level human development index than sub-Saharan African neighbouring countries with the exception of Kenya (figure 2.1).

Yet, among Arab states, Sudan remains the lowest ranked. And advances in Sudan's human development index since 2000 have not been as fast as in several neighbours: the short-term annual human development index growth rates for the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Chad, Ethiopia and Uganda all surpassed Sudan's growth. Ethiopia's human development index growth rate at 3.13 per cent per year is the second fastest in the world, nearly three-times the rate in Sudan.[2]

Aside from the regional context, progress on human development on average in Sudan has expanded since 1975 (figure 2.2). The human development index value growth up to the 1983 restart of civil war in Sudan and the 1983-2005 years were nearly the same, while the short postwar period from 2005-2007 exhibits a slowdown in the pattern of growth (box 2.2). The result: human development progress has been much slower, more uneven and fragile than would otherwise have been likely without war. The varying changes are reflected in the human development index components: education, health and income.

National education trends have served as the driver of human development progress in Sudan over the last three decades.[3] Combining gross enrolment ratios at all school levels and adult literacy, the education index for Sudan has grown at nearly twice the rate of other human development index components (figure 2.3). Gains in primary and tertiary enrolment are largely behind the education improvements. Slow literacy improvements, however, highlight potential challenges in the quality of education (see 'Education achievements — and gaps' in this section).

Advances in health are steady, while advances in income have been more varied. Income changes in the last three decades have experienced the most

Box 2.3 **Challenges in statistical sources**

Since independence, Sudan has conducted four population censuses in the north and one census in the north and south together. The first census was in 1955-1956. The 1973, 1983, 1993 and 2008 censuses were carried out with the United Nations Population Fund and other donor support. The first four censuses were carried out by the Department of Statistics and all of them during conflict in southern Sudan. A solid body of data from these censuses was accumulated for northern Sudan widely used by ministries, agencies and researchers.

They also provided the sampling frames for six health and demographic surveys. The Sudan Household Health Survey conducted in 2006 was the first household survey covering the whole of Sudan in two decades. Earlier data on key human development indicators for north Sudan were drawn primarily from the Safe Motherhood Survey conducted in 1999 and the Multiple Indicators Cluster Survey conducted in 2000. These surveys were conducted amid the conflict.

A challenge in filling data gaps and deficiencies in national information starts with constructing a framework closely aligned with national policies. Resource allocation and political priority are needed to generate improved statistics. One of the objectives is to enable countries to generate the required data for measuring human development and monitoring progress on achieving the Millennium Development Goals.

Several challenges need to be met. Logistical fieldwork support and data processing are very costly. Household and demographic data collection cells eliminated during the war must be replaced. And special vehicles are required to move survey teams into enumeration areas given the state of the roads in the country.

But building staff capacity for the Central Bureau for Statistics is the greatest need. Symptomatic of the challenge is that the Central Bureau for Statistics data gathering team for the 2008 census consists mostly of the same team members that conducted the 1973 census. Most members are now retired and work on a piecemeal basis, including the technical director and data processing expert. A new wave of statisticians must be prepared to meet the increasing demands for reliable and timely information and data.

complex trend of the core human development index components. Gross domestic product per capita engaged a decade's long stagnation until severe fluctuations in the mid- to late 1990s resolved into a modest but steady rise after 2000. War, drought and oil rents combined to produce these effects. The human costs of violence and insecurity are explored in more depth in Chapter 3.

A statistical measure, the human development index is sensitive to the availability and quality of data. Sudan, like many other conflict-affected and developing countries, confronts several significant challenges in statistics (box 2.3). This Sudan *Human Development Report* presents overview and detailed statistics according to the best available quality indicators.

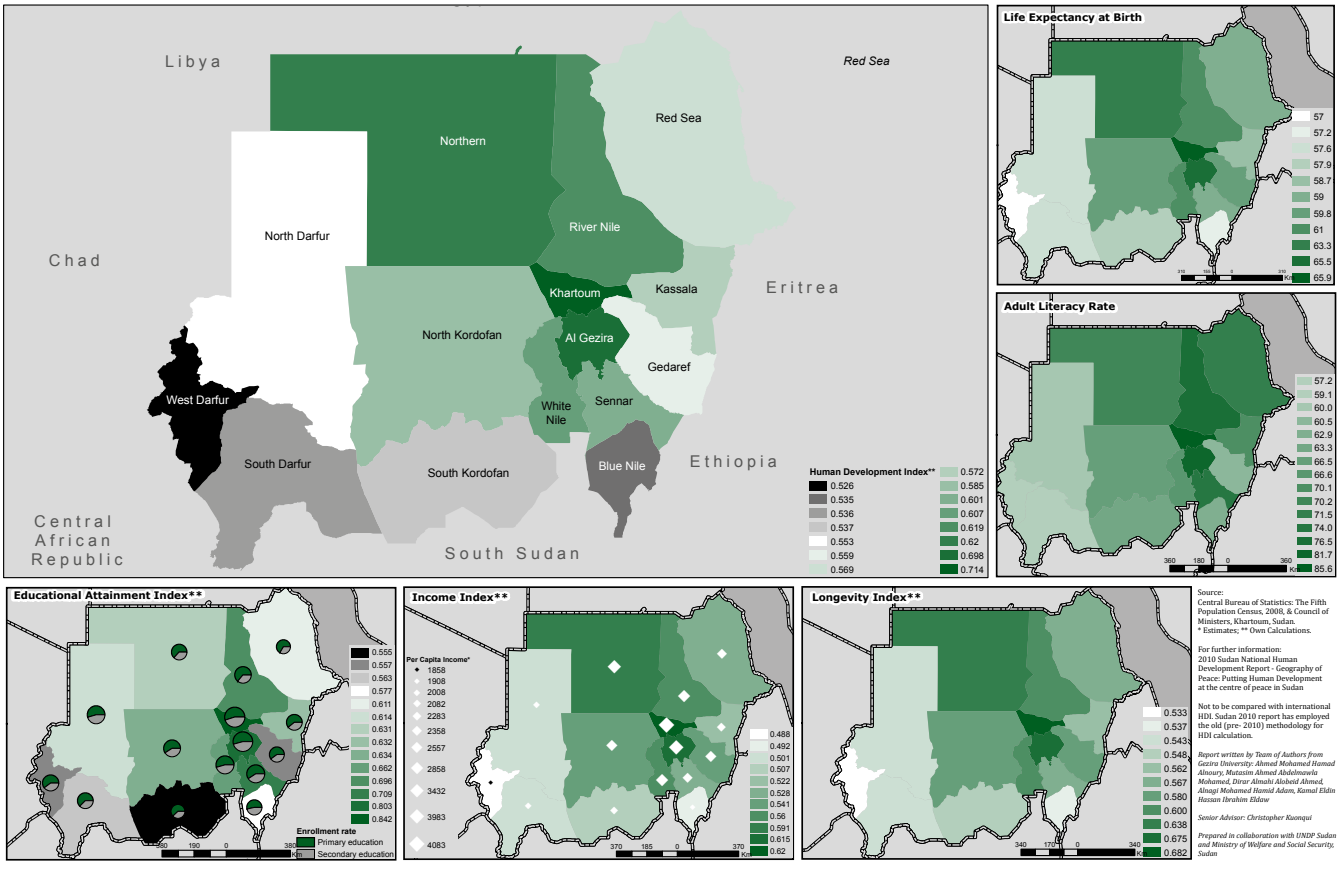
To compare Sudan to other countries we rely on internationally comparable indicators for all components. On the historical series of human development, national statistics are used to estimate the country-level value of human development index. And as explored in the next sub-section, estimation methods are undertaken to produce a first flesh proposal of a sub-national human development index.

To be sure, these indices are not presented as a final say on the human development index and its implications in Sudan, but rather with the limitations of data quality and availability in mind. We hope through our analysis to highlight the potential of human development research—and to spur improvements of statistical indicators and data availability in Sudan.

2.2 The human development backdrop in Sudan

While the human development trend over time at the country level in Sudan shows signs of recovery and growth, achievements across Sudan's regions and the 15 administrative states in the country vary.[4] At the low and high extremes of human development achievements, significant disparities exist between Sudan's states and regions.[5] But smaller variations are reflected in the middle regions (figure 2.4). Human development patterns have led to Khartoum region holding higher human development index levels than all other regions. Darfur is the only region in Sudan that is characterized by low human development.

Map 2.1 **Mapping human development in Sudan**



The same holds true for more refined comparisons of states (figure 2.5). West Darfur State holds only about three-fourths the level of human development as does Khartoum State.

All Sudan states are characterized by medium human development.[6] The designation of low, medium and high human development is little more than a defined line in the human development index data. But it provides a key means to compare states to each other, enhancing our understanding of the relative human development achievements—and deficits. The remainder of this section analyzes some of the trends in education, health and income in Sudan behind these state-level human development index achievements.

Box 2.4

State-level human development index: estimating per capita income

The data for the state-level human development index produced for this Report derive from the Fifth Population Census conducted in 2008. While the census provided significant updates to the demographic and social understanding of the country, many important gaps remain. Among the most significant is the unavailability of household and thus state-level estimates of per capita income. To overcome this limitation, this report estimates gross domestic product per capita for each state using best fit regression estimations: life expectancy and income at the national level ratios are applied to develop a proxy measure for the states.

The best fit relationship between life expectancy and income at the national level for the 1989-2008 period is applied to each state using state-specific life expectancy at birth values. This same exercise is repeated using data for the 1990-2008 period to produce per capita income for females in Sudan. The 1989-2008 and 1990-2008 reference periods is determined by the best fit and data availability.

Estimating state-level income by proxy holds limitations. First, real income variations are not captured if they were not reflected in life expectancy. Second, the true incomes of households estimated by survey and census data collection, which can differ even from gross domestic product per capita national estimates, remain unknown. Third, as the national-level multidimensional poverty results show (see section 'Multidimensional poverty index'), the standard of living across Sudan is on average far lower than health and education achievements.

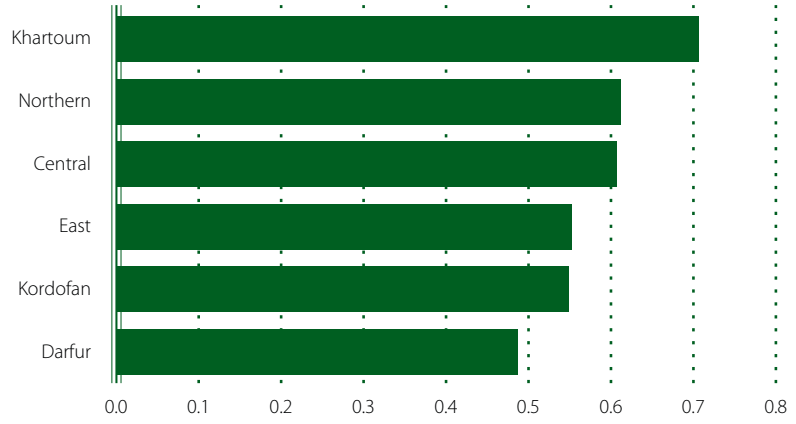
While holding limitations, the estimated per capita income results are nevertheless robust to various sensitivity checks and measures. Moreover, while not being precise reflections of income, the estimates provide close indications of the levels of per capita incomes across states. Developing proxy measure also underscores the need for more quality indicators to evaluate and monitor human development trends.

Source: Technical note.

Figure 2.4

Khartoum leads all regions in human development achievements

Human development index values by regions, 2008



Source: Statistical table 3, weighted according to population.

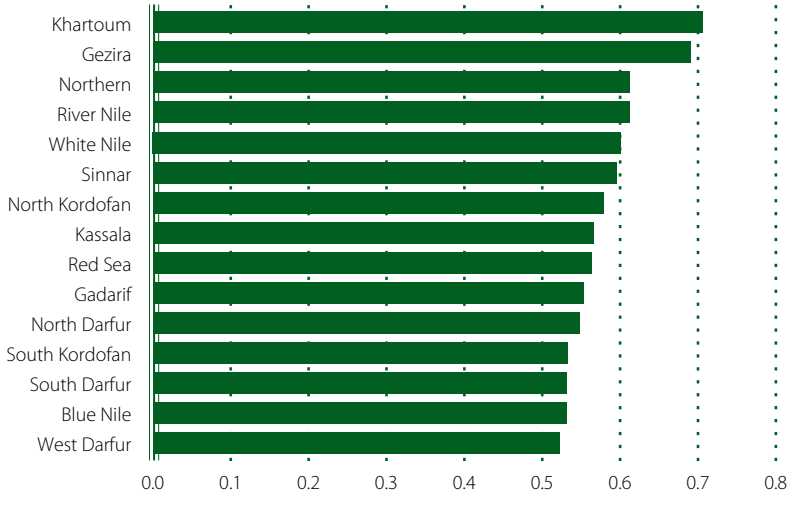
Education achievements—and gaps

The education system in Sudan has expanded over the last four decades. One of the principal causes of the expansion has been the tertiary-level enrolment. Over a five-fold increase in the number of universities and higher institutes took place across most states since 1990 (figure 2.6, panel A). As a result of this policy, a marked increase in the numbers of students entering

Figure 2.5

Human development across states

Human development index values by state, 2008

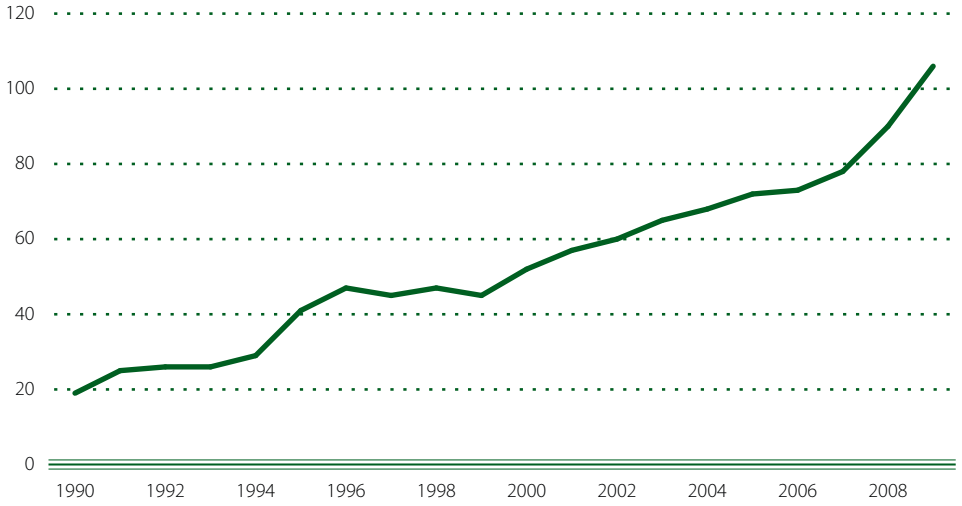


Source: Statistical table 3.

Figure 2.6 **Rising number of higher education institutions—and students**

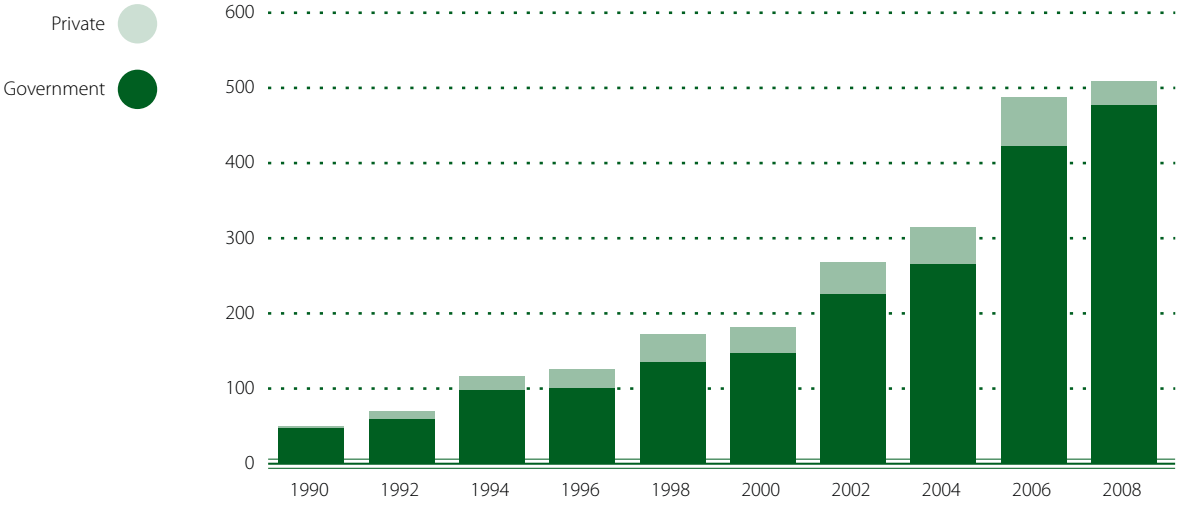
Panel A

Number of universities, 1990-2009



Panel B

Number of students intake in higher education institutions (thousands)



Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 2010.

university classes took place (figure 2.6, panel B). The majority of new students overwhelmingly elect to attend government-led higher education institutions, likely due to the cheaper fees than for private universities.

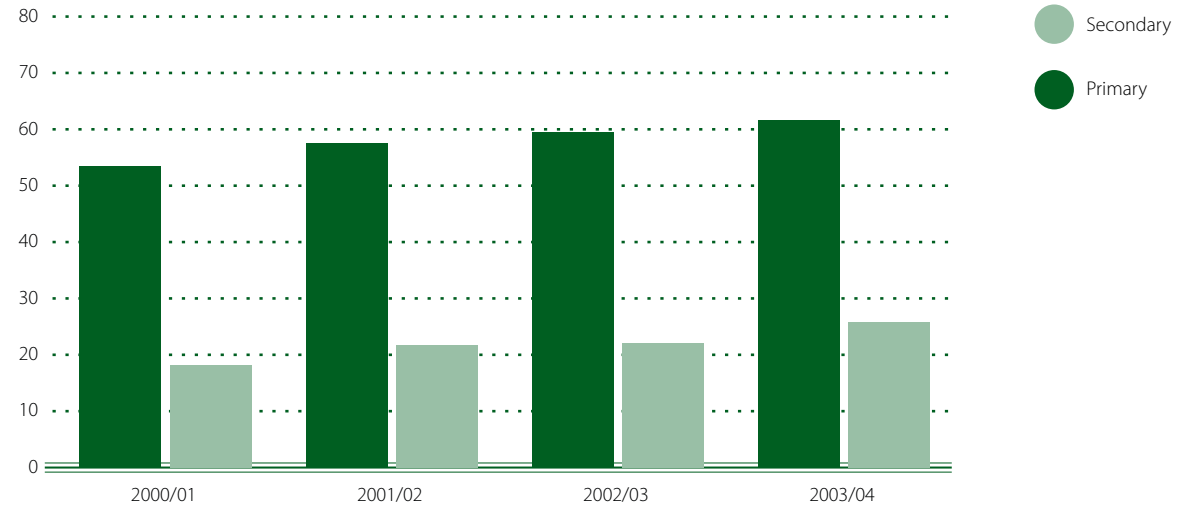
Primary enrolment is the other central factor in education advances, although at a slower pace than university-level gains. From low starting points, total gross enrolment rates in basic education stand at just two-thirds of the school-age population in the 2009/10 school year. Moreover, a significant drop-out rate shows that a large majority of children fail to advance to secondary school, with the total secondary gross enrolment rate standing at under one-third (figure 2.7).

The primary enrolment rate also varies significantly across all states in Sudan (figure 2.8). Northern Sudan states differ widely in rates—from Red Sea State, where two out five children are enrolled, to Gezira and Khartoum states, which have the highest primary enrolment rates in the country, with more than four out of five children enrolled.

Universalization of basic education faces two challenges: unavailability of schools in underdeveloped areas, and inaccessibility for poorer children

Figure 2.7 **Many students fail to advance to secondary school**

Gross enrolment ratio (%)



Source: Federal Ministry of Education, various years.

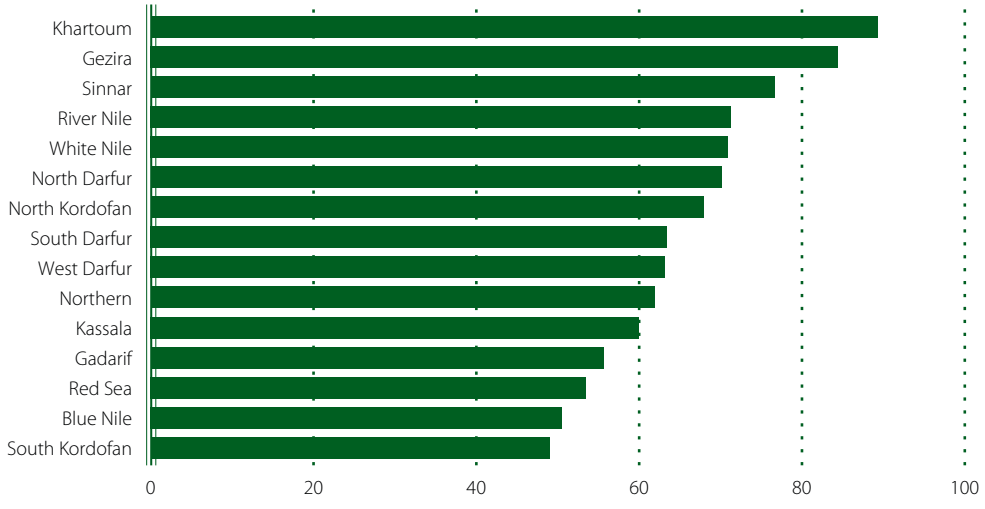
due to high school fees. These challenges are circumscribed by a general scarcity of qualified teachers to implement educational change and a growing demand for educating young children and youth. Destroyed school buildings due to the wars and natural disasters compound the scale of the challenge as well as declining foreign aid. The upshot: a reduction in the education budget to 2.8 per cent of the gross national product, and hence an overall deterioration in the quality of education.[7]

Health indicators—slow and slowing gains

Life expectancy is the broadest measure of health available to a society. From 1980 to 2007, life expectancy at birth improved in Sudan from 49.3 years to 60.2, extending by 10.9 years for the total population

Figure 2.8 **Wide primary enrolment disparities**

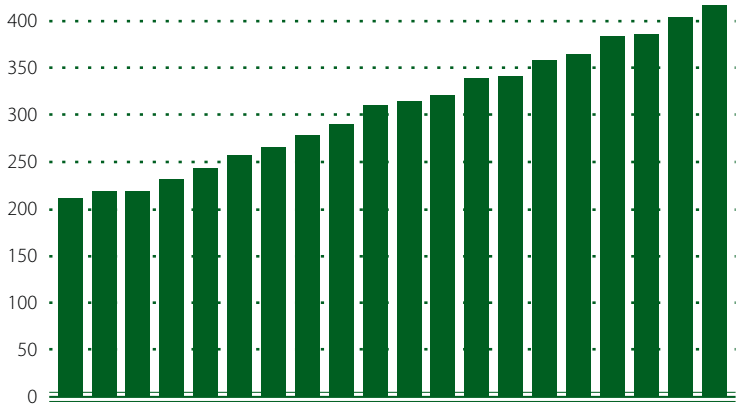
Primary education enrolment rate (%)



Source: Central Bureau of Statistic 2008.

Figure 2.9 **Steady increases in hospitals**

Number of hospitals



Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 2010.

(statistical table 1). Putting this figure into context, Egypt went from 56.6 to 69.9 in the same time, a change of 13.3 years. Ethiopia gained 12.2 years in total life expectancy.[8] Sudan's achievements were positive—but lessons from its neighbours can be applied to quicken the pace of progress.

The decades between 1990 and 2009 saw the number of hospitals nearly double, from 209 to 407 (figure 2.9). These increases in infrastructure, however, prove largely insufficient to meet population growth and demand. Moreover, the distribution of health care facilities matters as well: availability of primary health care units has been declining almost exclusively in rural areas.

Health services suffer from a number of challenges: absence of a referrals system, lack of patient transport and ambulances, weak quality work standards, weak infrastructure and distribution, few health facilities constructed to code and low quality of tertiary services, leading to patients seeking treatment abroad. Endemic to health services in Sudan is also poor integration between curative and preventive services, and general lack of vision, plans and implementation.

An accompanying trend has been an unsteady set of gains in medical staff (figure 2.10). While the numbers of medical doctors and other specialists have generally increased in the last decade, the numbers of nurses and medical assistants supporting the health system have declined. This underscores less the availability of qualified graduates than the availability of job opportunities.

During the 1990s, health policies and strategies were subjected to the effects of decentralization and public reforms. Within the health sector, the government adopted several new approaches including cost sharing, health insurance and privatization to increase health achievements. Today, three health insurance schemes coexist in Sudan: the military health insurance system, the private insurance companies, and the National Health Insurance, which is sponsored by the government and managed by the Public Corporation of Health Insurance.

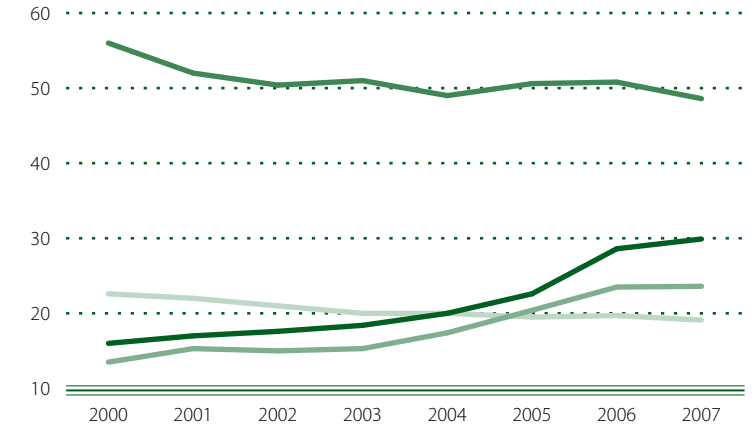
The National Health Insurance program plays a significant role in health spending. Legislation in 1994 led to the establishment of the Public Corporation of Health Insurance. The first health insurance activities started in Sinnar State in 1995. Health insurance coverage rates in 1997 are estimated at 1.5 per cent of the total population. By 2003, coverage increased nearly tenfold.

Health insurance in Sudan is financed by a premium of 10 per cent of the employees' salary, of which 60 per cent is the employer's contribution while 40 per cent is the employee's share. Premiums for the poor are covered by government programs and charities. Insured individuals register at a health centre that serves as a gatekeeper for referrals, and purchase drugs at government pharmacies, paying 25 per cent of the cost. The national health insurance program is reported to spend around US$90 million annually.[9] The Martyrs' Fund supports martyrs' families and the Zakat Fund covers the cost of insurance for poor families. In addition, the Students' Support Fund gives support to university students.

Employees in the public sector pay 4 per cent of their salaries as a premium while the government contributes by 6 per cent of the employee's salary. The National Health Insurance covers 100 per cent of the cost of medical services, while those insured pay 25 per cent of the cost of drugs. Finally, independent workers (farmers and advocates) pay a fixed sum.

Between 2005 and 2007, health insurance coverage increased from 23 per cent of the total population to 30 per cent, and expanded much more rapidly to 46 per cent in 2010 (figure 2.11). In 2009, Northern State had the highest coverage rate at just over one-half of the population insured. South Darfur and South Kordofan

Figure 2.10 **Unsteady gains in medical staff**



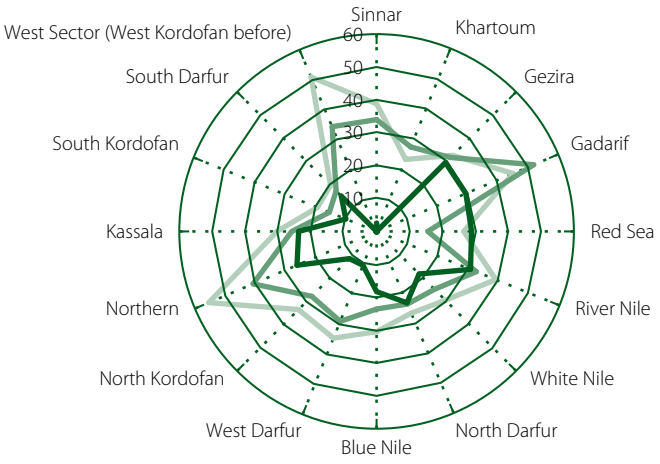
Source: Statistical table 29.

states have the least health insurance coverage at under one-fifth of their populations. One in four in Darfur as well as in Khartoum received coverage. The causes for each likely differ: on-going conflict in Darfur and many families shifting to private insurance in Khartoum.

Figure 2.11 **Government health insurance coverage**

Coverage rates by States

Population with health insurance (% of state population)



Source: Statistical tables 30 and 31.

Income poverty

Income is not a direct correlate for human development across Sudan's states. Overall human development fares worse than income in one of Sudan's six major geographical regions, namely Kordofan region (statistical table 3). Human development levels exceed income levels for Kassala, Sinnar, Blue Nile and North Darfur. These show different levels of human development achievement given income per capita. In all other states, human development is highly correlated with income. While human development levels across Sudan's states are largely consistent with income levels, no automatic link connects income wealth to well-being (figure 2.12).

Based on latest survey data, the consumption poverty line is estimated at 113.8 Sudanese pounds (SDG) per person per month.[10] Estimates suggest that 46.5 per cent of the population fall below this income poverty line. Poverty in rural areas is more than double urban poverty. Moreover, poverty levels vary greatly by state. The incidence of poverty ranges from one-fourth of the state-level populations in Khartoum to over two-thirds of North Darfurians.

Because of the different poverty lines, it is not possible to precisely compare poverty rates in Sudan to those of other countries. Although the magnitude of poverty in Sudan is high, definitively ranking these levels against those of neighbours, other conflict-affected or least developed country economies must wait until better information and statistics are able to meet policy demand. Moreover, while important, consumption poverty also only tells part of the challenges of deprivations in Sudan.

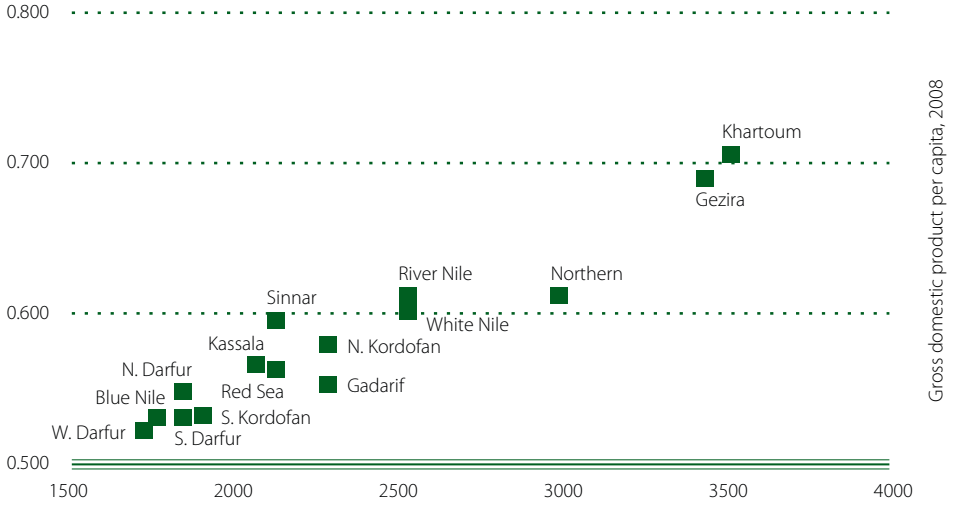
Multidimensional poverty index

Poor families and individuals tend to be poor in many dimensions at the same time, from inadequate incomes

Figure 2.12 **Income—not a perfect determinant for human development**

Human development index versus Income, Sudan States, 2008

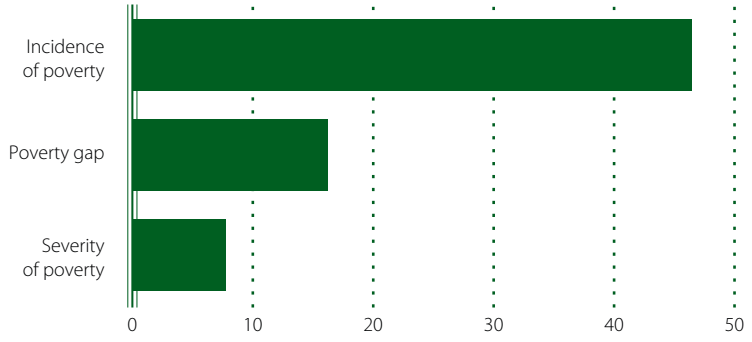
Human development index value, 2008



Source: Statistical table 3.

Figure 2.13 **High poverty rates in Sudan**

Poverty rates, share of Sudan population (%)



Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 2009.

to weak shelter or an inability to access clean drinking water. This section presents a first estimation for Sudan of the newest tool in human development to capture these deprivations, the multidimensional poverty index.[11] Like the concept of human development and the human development index, multidimensional poverty and the multidimensional poverty index reflect the fact that poverty as experienced by people around the world is multifaceted, going far beyond insufficient income (see box 2.5).

The multidimensional poverty index reveals different patterns of human poverty than do income poverty measures alone. The multidimensional poverty index identifies deprivations such as poor health and nutrition, low education and skills, inadequate livelihoods, bad housing conditions, social exclusion and lack of participation in society. By capturing how many people experience overlapping deprivations and how many deprivations they face on average, the multidimensional poverty index can be used to target the multidimensional poor, track the Millennium Development Goals, and design policies that directly address the interlocking deprivations poor people experience.

Based on the multidimensional poverty index, about 8.5 per cent of Sudanese are poor in multiple dimensions, amounting to 2.8 million Sudanese (based on the 2008 National Census). This places Sudan's multidimensional poverty far below the estimated headcount poverty rate (46.5 per cent). This can be due largely to few families with no child deaths, children outside primary school age or going without safe drinking water (figure 2.14). The relationship between these measures and their policy implications are priorities for further research in applying useful lessons to alleviating other deprivations.

Of the 2.8 million Sudanese living in multidimensional poverty, the average poor person is deprived in 18.4 per cent of the 10 dimensions included in the index. Deprivations in the standard of living in Sudan contribute the greatest to poverty in Sudan, followed by deprivations in health and then education. More than one-fourth of Sudan's poor lacks access to adequate sanitation.

School dropout before completing five years of schooling is the greatest factor behind education deprivations. This again highlights the challenges not only in students graduating from primary school, but ensuring they enroll in secondary school (as shown in section 2.2). Malnourishment is the greatest threat to health in Sudan.

The results of the multidimensional poverty index highlight Sudan's poor as less deprived than their sub-Saharan Africa neighbours (figure 2.15). Yet, Sudan's multidimensional poverty index is significantly higher than its largest northern neighbour's, Egypt. This underscores some potential lessons for combating multiple deprivations across Sudan's poor that can be drawn from Egypt.

Box 2.5 **Multidimensional poverty: components and measures**

The multidimensional poverty index is the product of two numbers: the headcount or percentage of people who are poor, and the average intensity of deprivation, which reflects the proportion of dimensions in which households are deprived.

Health (each indicator weighted equally at 1/6).
- Child Mortality: (deprived if any child has died in the family).
- Nutrition: (deprived if any adult or child in the family is malnourished).

Education (each indicator weighted equally at 1/6).
Years of Schooling (deprived if no household member has completed five years of schooling)
- Child Enrolment (deprived if any school-aged child is out of school in years 1 to 8).
- Standard of Living (each of the six indicators weighted equally at 1/18).
- Electricity (deprived if the household has no electricity).
- Drinking water (deprived if the household does not have access to safe drinking water)
- Sanitation (deprived if the household's sanitation is not improved or it is improved but shared with other households).
- Flooring (deprived if the household has dirt, sand or dung floor)
- Cooking Fuel (deprived if the household cooks with dung, wood or charcoal)
- Assets (deprived if the household does not own more than one of: radio, TV, telephone, bike, motorbike, and does not own a car or tractor)

Source: Alkire and Santos 2010.

The multidimensional poverty index should rely on household-level data to calculate its results. As these are currently unavailable for Sudan, this report uses the national-level data from the 2008 census. Individual and household level allows for identification of the poor and of how many dimensions of poverty they experience before aggregating the data to compute the final index.[12] A likely result of our reliance on national-level data is that the multidimensional poverty index estimates may underestimate the index value. As with the state-level human development index, we present the multidimensional poverty index on an experimental basis. We hope the discussion illuminates pathways forward for future analysis and focuses debate on these policy tools—and the need for more data.

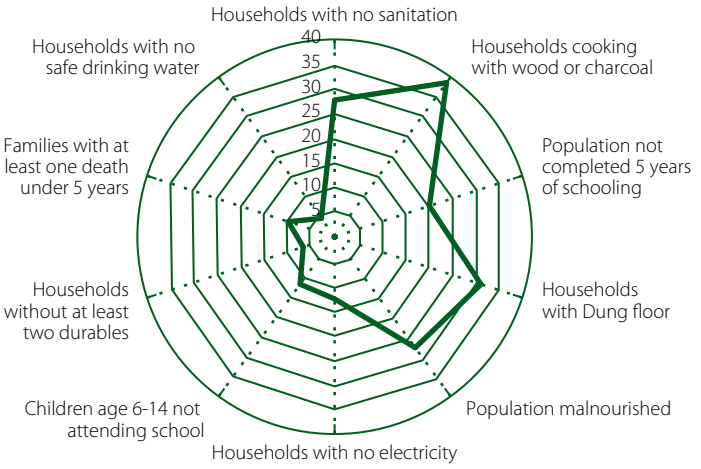
2.3 Human development: a research agenda in action

Human development is an approach to development that focuses on people, their lives and livelihoods, and their abilities to achieve what they wish to achieve. Several factors beyond peace and security influence human development. Large disparities in well-being, wealth and power in Sudan matter not only for their potential to motivate armed conflict, but also for the costs and limitations it places on all Sudanese. Differences between men and women also levy significant costs to building an inclusive society that allows for equitable human freedoms. And developing strong pathways to income growth and improved standards of living is essential for a people — now two countries — in which nearly half the population is poor. Inequality, gender differences and spurring income growth shape a forward-looking agenda for human development research and policy.

Figure 2.14 **Multiple deprivations in Sudan**

Percentage of people living without access: multidimensional poverty indicators

Share of Sudanese (%)



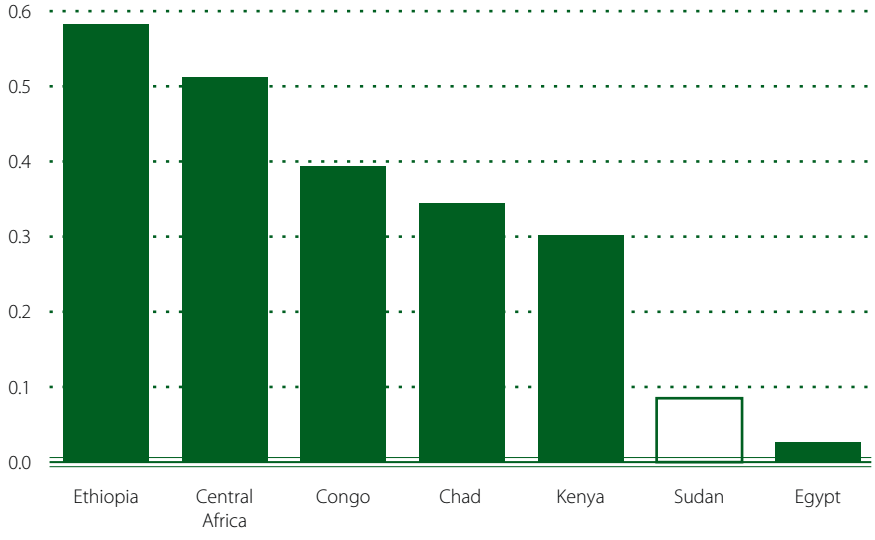
Source: Calculated based on Central Bureau of Statistics 2008.

Inequality in Sudan

Economic and policy research rely on several measures to capture inequalities in a society. Among the most commonly used is the Gini coefficient. While a complex term, the Gini coefficient reflects a simple idea:

Figure 2.15 **Sudan's multidimensional poverty compared to neighbors**

Multidimension poverty index value



Source: Calculations for Sudan based on data compiled from the Central Bureau of Statistics 2008; all other data from UNDP 2010.

the distance between indicators. The Gini coefficient varies between 0, which reflects complete equality, to 1, which indicates complete inequality. The measure captures whether a variable such as income is equally shared by all members of a society (0) or if one person has all the income and all others have none (1).

The Gini coefficient estimates for the overall level of HDI in Sudan are relatively equal at 0.039 (table 2.1). This means that the average Sudanese has an HDI level that is on average about 4% different from other Sudanese.

Table 2.1

HDI component inequities in Sudan

Gini coefficient by HDI component, 2008

Region	Longevity Index	Educational Attainment Index	Income Index	HDI
Sudan, Total	0.042	0.070	0.039	0.049

Source: Calculations based on statistical table 3.

The Gini coefficient analysis highlights that while education is the engine of human development expansion in Sudan, uneven education advances have also built the largest disparities. By contrast, income achievements are more equal, though equally low across Sudan and within its states are largely equal. Investigating how Sudan can apply its success in education and health achievements to all communities while developing an inclusive and sustainable economic growth agenda are important steps towards establishing inclusive human development policies for the country.

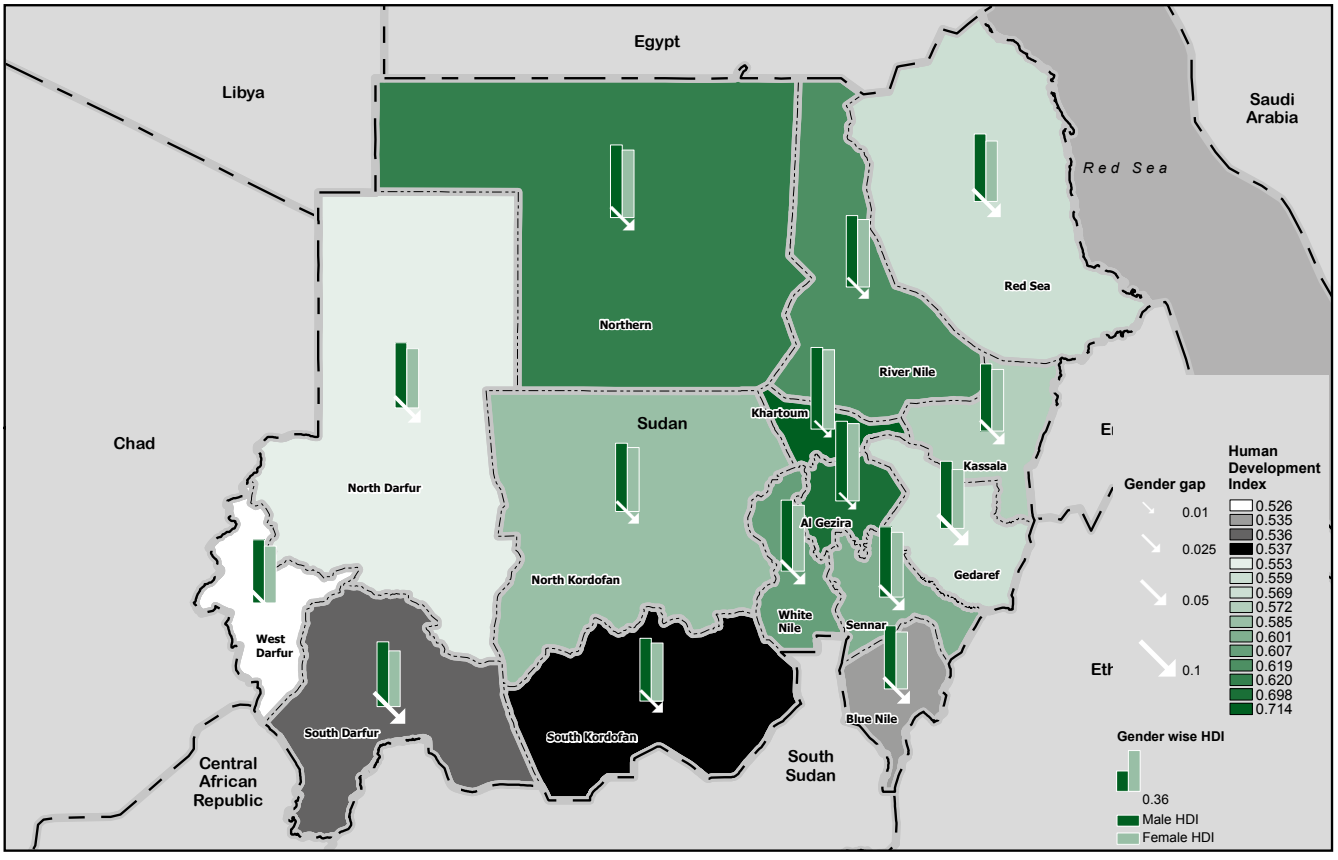
Going beyond the Gini coefficient, the inequality-adjusted human development index presented in the global *Human Development Report 2010* represents another area of productive research for an inclusive human development growth agenda moving forward. Finally, the relationships between human development levels, inequities and violent conflict need to be further examined to understand how policies for peace, security and poverty reduction can effectively complement one another.

Male and female disparities

Gender differences act as a brake on overall human development. As the global *Human Development 1995*

Map 2.2

Gender gaps across states in Sudan, 2010



on gender argues: "If development is not engendered, it is endangered."[13]

This report calculates for the first time human development index values for men and women. For Sudan states in 2008, human development for females was the highest in Khartoum State and the lowest in South Darfur (statistical table 4).

Differences between men and women are the most profound in educational attainments in Sudan. Human development index levels for men in 2008 in all Sudan States are characterized by medium human development, with Khartoum State being the highest performer and South Kordofan the lowest. Gender gaps in human development against females exist in all states (figure 2.16). This gap between men and women is likely a result of the social transformation that took place over the period of the civil war.

The gender gap for Sudan as a whole is estimated at 0.095. The gender gap is widest in South Darfur (0.132). Gender differences against females exist in human development components, except for longevity, in which females are better off than males (figure 2.16).

Progress on the human development achievements of women is not only an important end on its own, but it is valuable as a means to other ends as well. When women are knowledgeable, healthy and enjoy a decent standard of living, overall economic productivity tends to rise, maternal and infant mortality fall, and health and educational prospects of the next generation improve. Eliminating gender disparities in human development can expand human development opportunities for women, but also for men as well, through a more equal and just society.

Gender-related development index

While the human development index measures average achievement, the gender-related development index adjusts the average achievement in health, education and income by presenting the disparity in achievement between women and men. The status of females and males in each of the three dimensions is calculated and then weighted according to population. Calculations of the sub-indicators are made using the fixed minimum and maximum values as indicated in the technical notes. The gender-related development index for Sudan in 2008 is estimated at 0.527 (statistical table 7).

Drivers of growth

Three central factors serve as potential drivers of growth for the Sudanese economy: the rebirth of agriculture after decades of war, the oil boom, and the information technology service expansion. We provide an overview of trends in the economy. Pushing forward on the links between these trends and human development and on how to embark on widespread pathways that include all Sudanese into the folds of growth are priority areas for further research.

The agriculture sector contracted during the civil war period in the 1980s and 1990s as lands were destroyed and rainfalls declined. Towards the late 1990s and early 2000s, agriculture resurged owing to the improving economic, environmental and political conditions in the country. However, this share has dropped during the last seven years due to the decline of agricultural output and the remarkable increase in the share of the industrial sector. Moreover, the share of the largest sector, the services sector, dropped from about 54 per cent in 1990 to about 32 per cent in 2006. This could be attributed partially to the inclusion of some of its components into the industrial sector including electricity, water, building and construction.

The share of the industrial sector has increased remarkably since 2000 owing to the inclusion of manufacturing, building and construction, electricity and water, mining and petroleum into the sector (table 2.3). The manufacturing sector is currently weak and located in areas relatively close to the capital. During 2007, the manufacturing sector contributed to only 6.1 per cent of gross domestic product.

Table 2.2

Human development index component inequities between males and females in Sudan

Gini coefficient by human development index component, 2008

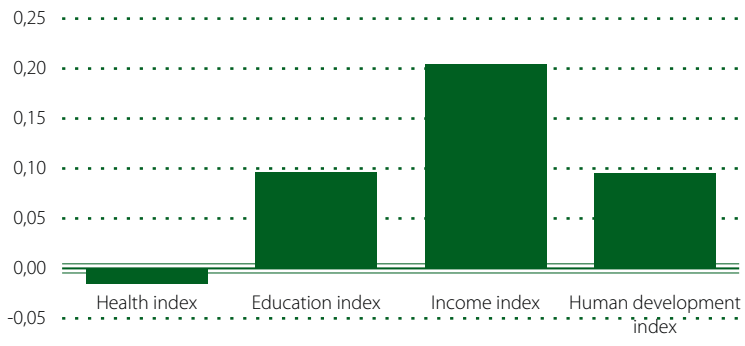
Region	Longevity Index	Educational Attainment Index	Income Index	human development index
Males	0.040	0.051	0.030	0.039
Females	0.040	0.096	0.076	0.066

Source: Calculations based on statistical tables 4 and 5.

Figure 2.16

Gender gap in human development index and components

Gap in human development index and components values between men and women, 2008



Source: Based on statistical tables 4, 5 and 6.

Table 2.3

Sector shares and average growth rates in gross domestic product by sector, 1973-2008

Average	GDP, Growth rate	Agriculture		Industry		Total Services			
						Government Services		Other Services	
		per cent	Growth	per cent	Growth	per cent	Growth	per cent	Growth
Pre Conflict, 1973- 1982	3.9	35.7	1.7	14.1	1.3	14.4	3.8	35.8	2.1
During Conflict, 1983- 2004	5.8	42.4	3.5	20.8	12.7	7.7	5.9	29.1	2.8
Post Conflict, 2005-2008	8.9	38.5	7.0	28.8	8.6	14.0	6.3	18.7	2.6

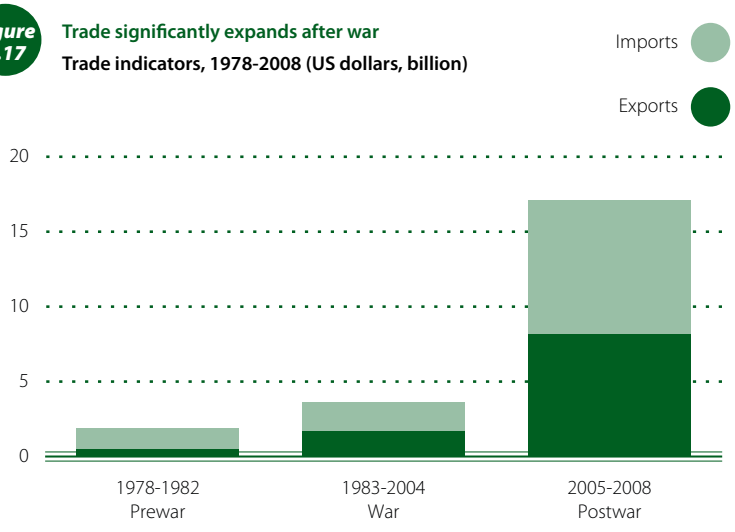
Source: Calculations based on statistical tables 8-11.

The industrial sector has been the strongest-growing sector in Sudan's economy. Growth in this sector has increased from the low rates of only 1.2 per cent and 0.7 per cent during 1980-84 and 1985-89, respectively to 46.5 per cent in 2000.[14] Since the early 1970s, the growth of the sector has ranged between 8.1 per cent and 12.7 per cent. This strong growth performance in recent years mainly stems from the country's oil industry. The potentials are enormous. Sudan had 5 billion barrels of proved oil reserves in January 2009. Yet, growth in the industrial sector did not compensate the losses in employment opportunities due to contraction of the agricultural sector during the 1980s and 1990s.

Figure 2.17

Trade significantly expands after war

Trade indicators, 1978-2008 (US dollars, billion)



Source: Statistical table 25.

The services sector contributed more than 50 per cent of gross domestic product during 1973-1982, declining to 36.8 per cent during the conflict years. This share dropped to 32.7 per cent in 2008, as the oil sector expanded more quickly. The growth rate of the services sector increased from an average of 2.6 per cent in the first half of the 1980s to reach its first two-digit rate of 10.8 per cent in 2006. This was driven by increased government services growth from 3.6 per cent during 1980-84 to 7.6 per cent in 2006.[15]

Compared to the late 1970s, exports grew by 74.7 per cent annually to reach US$ 11.7 billion by 2008. This large nominal growth (exceeding 2,000 per cent) was boosted by oil exports and international oil prices (figure 2.17). While imports grew by 37.6 per cent, it registered US$ 11.4 billion in 2008.

Conducting further research into agriculture, the oil boom, and the information technology service expansion can identify strategies for high rates of economic growth in Sudan. Moreover, high growth rates with equity would expand economic opportunities and improve standards of living for all. Finally, the links between economic growth and human development achievements also require further study within Sudan's context.

This section highlights three areas for research for Sudan: inequality, gender differences, and drivers of economic growth. Taken together, they represent a significant agenda for human development.

2.4 Millennium Development Goals and Human Development: targets and aspirations

At the Millennium Summit in 2000, heads of states and governments signed the Millennium Declaration, which embodied a global compact to halve human poverty

Box 2.6

Sudan economy in historical context

In an attempt to tackle deteriorating balance-of-payments due to losses in competitiveness, the reversal of capital flows with debt-service payments and climbing inflation, the 1989 government initiated a liberalization program announced in February 1992. The core elements of this program include deregulation of imports, foreign exchange, and prices; stabilization of the foreign exchange rate; fiscal retrenchment and strict budget cash control; privatization of non-performing public enterprises; and the encouragement of saving through reform of the financial system.

Average real gross domestic product grew at an estimated 6 per cent during 1992-2008, double the 3.1 per cent growth rate from 1980-1991. Indeed, with an average of 7.6 per cent over the period 2000-2008, gross domestic product growth in Sudan is considered among the highest rates in developing countries.

Savings as a percentage of gross domestic product remained very low compared to the investment-gross domestic product ratio. Indeed, the saving rate never exceeded 18.7 per cent over the period 1980-2008. For the whole period, the annual average saving rate is estimated at 11.5 per cent. This indicates the inability of the financial sector to mobilize adequate domestic savings to finance investment, which may be attributed to the attitudes and consumption behavior of the illiterate and poor among the majority of the population. As a result, the investment-saving (resource) gap, which is estimated at 10.4 per cent for the period 1980-2008 is getting wider over time.

These developments and policies played a positive role in stabilizing the economy and creating an environment conducive for investment and growth. Investment levels as a percentage of gross domestic product increased from 8 per cent during 1980-1984 to 23 per cent in 2004 and further to 34 per cent in 2006. It declined slightly to 30 per cent in 2008.

However, while the reforms adopted in 1992 revived growth performance and reduced fiscal imbalances, inflation rates escalated and other macroeconomic imbalances persisted. Thus, the first half of the 1990s witnessed positive though erratic growth, while the end of the decade (1996-1999) witnessed sustained and stable positive growth at progressively higher rates.

Accordingly, it is argued that this is the only half decade improvement since the 1960s during which the economy has achieved sustained positive growth, reaching the highest rate of 8.3 per cent in 2000, but declined to 4.9 per cent in 2002[17] to recover once more to 10.3 per cent in 2006 and then declined to 6.8 per cent in 2008 as a direct result of the international financial crisis.

Source: Eldaw 2010b.

by 2015. The Millennium Development Goals were later established to monitor progress on achieving this compact. The Millennium Development Goals highlight the 'distance' to be travelled to improve the lives of the world's poor. While human development is concerned with the continual expansion of human capabilities, the Millennium Development Goals provide an effective monitoring tool to achieve time-bound progress on the fight against poverty.

We estimate in this report the time horizon to meet the Millennium Development Goals targets based on available data, assuming a linear growth trend between the base year and current year indicators. Based on this analysis, the targets to halve the proportion of the population living below one dollar per day and the prevalence of underweight children under five years of age —two of the targets on the goal to halve human poverty — will likely be met on or before 2015. By contrast, under-five mortality and infant mortality feature among the targets making the slowest progress in Sudan: based on current rates of progress, halving under-five mortality will not occur until 2047, and halving infant mortality not until 2072 (table 2. 4).

All Millennium Development Goals indicators show inequalities with respect to gender, rural-urban residence, and at the regional and sub-regional level. These disparities are associated with socio-economic differences, and exacerbated by massive population movements and humanitarian crises associated with conflicts. For example, child mortality is lowest in the economically better-off north-central states, while peripheral areas experience higher mortality, with some suffering very high levels. The current situation in these areas is characterized by weakened institutional capacity and governance structures, as war has increased poverty and reduced access to basic services and infrastructure, and contributed to degradation of the environment.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter highlights the expansion of human development achievements and opportunities in Sudan—as well as some critical gaps. Education emerges as the fastest-growing sector in Sudan's human development, and the driver of its advances. But many challenges remain in universalizing basic and secondary school enrolment and advancing literacy rates. Moreover, significant levels of human development disparities exist across regions and states in Sudan.

Two issues subsequently emerge: the need to engage on new pathways for inclusive human development growth, and to continue broad-based human development research and a policy agenda moving forward.

Table 2.4

Sudan MDGs Status at a glance

Goals	Targets	Indicators	Baseline (1990)	Status in 2004	Achievement Current Level	Reference Year	2015 Target
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	Reduce by half the proportion of people living on less than a dollar-a-day	The proportion of the population below one dollar per day	-	64 per cent	25 per cent?	2009	32 per cent
		The proportion of the population below the national poverty line	90 per cent (1992)		46.50 per cent	2009	23.20 per cent
		Poverty Gap			16.20 per cent	2009	
	Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people	Poverty Severity			7.80 per cent	2009	
		Employment rate	89 per cent(1993)		83 per cent	2008	
		Proportion of own-account in total employment(workers	41.1 per cent (1993)		34 per cent	2008	
	Reduce by half, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	Proportion of contributing family workers in total employment(workers-family workers)	26 per cent (1993)		22 per cent	2008	
		Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age			31.80 per cent	2006	
		Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption	-	-	28.00 per cent	2009	
Achieve Universal primary education	Ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling	Gross enrolment in basic education	57 per cent (1990)	65.10 per cent	71.10 per cent	2009	100 per cent
		Literacy rates of 15-24 year olds, women and men	27.1 per cent (1990)	69 per cent (2008)	77.50 per cent	2009	100 per cent
Promote gender equality and empower women	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015	Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education			53.9 to 46.1 per cent	2007	100 per cent
			-secondary		51.6 to 49.4 per cent	2007	100 per cent
			-tertiary		54.1 per cent females	2008	100 per cent
		Share of women in employment in the non-agricultural sectors			59 per cent	2008	100 per cent
		Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament		9.70 per cent	25 per cent	2010	100 per cent
Reduce child mortality	Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the mortality rate among children under five	Under five mortality rate	123 (1990)	102 (2006)	102	2008	41
		Infant mortality rate	80 (1990)		71	2006	53
		Proportion of one year old children immunized against measles	50 per cent (2000)		85 per cent	2009	
Improve maternal health	Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	Maternal mortality ratio	537 (1990)		534	2006	134
		Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	24 per cent (1990)		57 per cent	2006	
Improve maternal health	Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health	Contraceptive prevalence rate (current use)	7.0 per cent (2000)		7.60 per cent	2006	
		Adolescent birth rate (12-14) years			76/1000	2008	
		Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits	70 per cent(2000)		70 per cent	2006	

Goals	Targets	Indicators	Baseline (1990)	Status in 2004	Achievement Current Level	Reference Year	2015 Target
		HIV prevalence among population aged 15-24 years			0.5 per cent males & 1.24 per cent females	2009	
	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS	Proportion of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS			4 per cent	2006	
		HIV prevalence among population aged 15-24 years			0.5 per cent for males and 1.24 per cent (combined north & south)	2009	
Combat HIV / AID, malaria and other diseases	**Achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it**	Proportion of population with advanced HIV infection with access to antiretroviral drugs			13.12 per cent	2009	
		Incidence and death rates associated with malaria	7.5 million		3.1 million reported cases		
			35,000 (2001)		8,844 death cases	2009	
	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	Proportion of children under 5 sleeping under insecticide-treated bed nets	21 per cent (2005)		41 per cent	2009	
		Incidence, prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis			120		
		Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment short course			81.80 per cent		
Ensure environmental sustainability	**Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources**	Proportion of land area covered by forest		29.6 (2004)	29.40 per cent	2010	
		CO2 emissions, total, per capita and per $1 GDP (PPP)	20.1 Gig (1995)		14.2 Gig	2010	
	Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss	Proportion of total water resources used			31.50 per cent	2010	
	Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation	Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source	64 per cent (1990)		65 per cent	2009	82 per cent
		Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility	33 per cent (1990)		42 per cent	2009	67 per cent
	In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries	Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis			Public health sector (40 per cent- 55 per cent) & private sector (90 per cent)	2009	
Develop a global partnership for development	**In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications**	Telephone lines per 100 population	2 per cent population. (2005)		0.9 per cent of populations	2009	
		Cellular subscribers per 100 population	9 per cent population (2005)		28 per cent of population	2009	
		Internet users per 100 population	8.20 per cent	-	10.4 per cent of Population	2010	
			Population				
			-2009				

Source: SPHS-2010, NBHS-2009, SHHS-2006 and Administrative data from concerned institutions

3

Human costs of insecurity

3 HUMAN COSTS OF INSECURITY

No family in Sudan is said to have been left unaffected by the country's conflicts. Violence has produced many direct and indirect impacts. The results are unequivocal: deep inequalities between regions and states in human development. From this analysis, maternal care, child health, disease vectors and nutrition must feature among the top priorities for conflict-affected Sudanese.

Peace and human security are immense factors impacting human development in Sudan. Where stability allows children to go to school, farmers to work their lands or women to participate in economic activities, human development is markedly more advanced than where violence blights these opportunities. Low human development or unequal development achievements are also often a cause for recurring violence—generating and regenerating cycles of low human development and conflict.

The direct costs of the North-South civil wars are often quoted as 1.5 million or more people dead and four million displaced. A large national and global debate on the conflict-related mortality in Darfur continues today. We explore in this chapter some of the consequences of human insecurity in Sudan. We do so with the aim of moving beyond the headline figures towards understanding the more detailed implications of insecurity on human development.

Through its focus on human capabilities, a human development approach can contribute a richer understanding of peoples' vulnerabilities—key to designing effective social protection instruments for peace.

Detailing the costs of war is undertaken with the aim of facilitating analysis and directing evidence-informed policy responses. Identification and causes of human development deficits resulting from insecurity highlight important information for policy and program development. As a result of violence, numbers of women- or child-headed households may rise, household incomes decline, or families previously doing well on development measures could have slipped backwards into the low human development traps. These households require targeted action.

But the cause of human development deficits is also critical for policy-making. Interventions in the case of mass migration are different from those when the deficit is due to mass deaths. In poor but secure areas, remittances can offset the revenue loss from migration. Yet, in conflict-affected regions, risk-mitigating strategies such as microfinance or remittances may not be functional.

A broader need to better understand links between conflict patterns and human development outcomes also exists. Through its focus on human capabilities, a human development approach can contribute a richer understanding of peoples' vulnerabilities—key to designing effective social protection instruments for peace.

Conflict and disease, in particular, interact in a vicious circle of disability. Different ecologies of violence generate overlaps with many diseases and other health factors that can act as a brake to human development. This chapter aims to set out some of the known evidence on these links and interlinkages.

3.1 Human development impacts of insecurity

The civil conflicts in Sudan erupted against the backdrop of structural deficiencies such as poverty, illiteracy, weak governance systems and inadequate human and institutional capacities. Twenty-two years of conflict inflicted major setbacks on the already fragile state, devastated the Sudanese society as a whole, and threatened to roll back the meager human development gains that were made during the peaceful years.

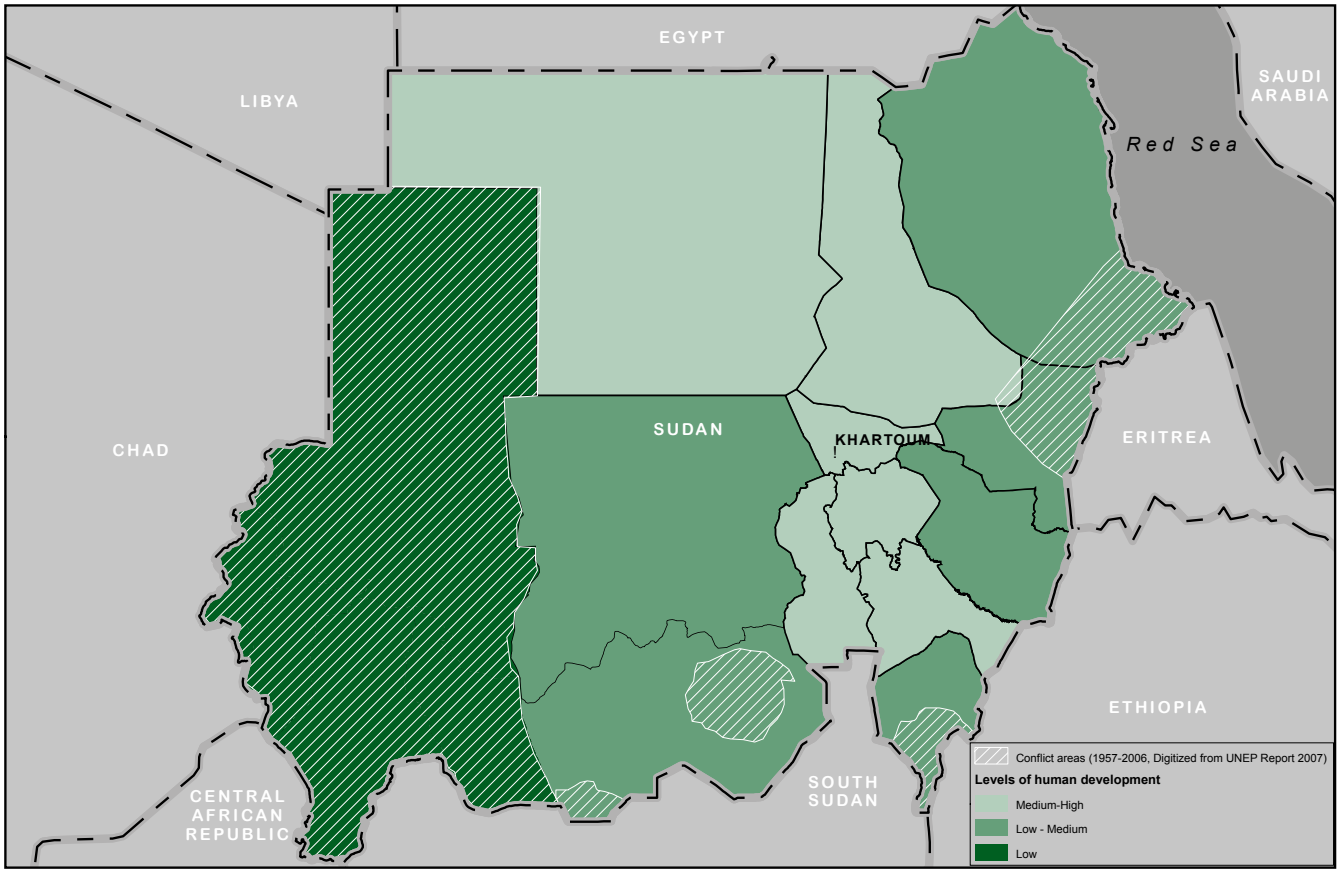
Statistics alone cannot reflect the full costs of insecurity. War humiliates and alienates civilians, deprives them of the opportunity to lead fulfilling lives, and leaves lasting psychological and social trauma in its wake. That not all of these important effects can be captured in a statistical indicator does nothing to devalue their importance for human development. We focus here on existing evidence to understand the scale of the human development challenge incurred by insecurity in Sudan. This chapter, then, presents what is only a fraction of the human development price that Sudan paid for its insecurity.

Mapping peace and human development

Mapping the relationships between peace and human development in Sudan can shed light on points of overlap and the dynamics of the relationship. As presented

Map 3.1

Complex human development-conflict relationships



Source: Statistical annex; UNEP 2007. Note: The expression of borders on this map does not reflect any designations by the University of Gezira, the Ministry of Welfare and Social Security or the United Nations. The human development index is calculated for states in 2008. The conflict areas cover the period 1957-2006.

in chapter 2, the human development index measures three core dimensions of human development: living a long and healthy life, being educated and having a decent standard of living (see section 2.1). Combining these measures provides a snapshot of the human development status of a people in a particular place and time.

Looking at the human development index can allow for comparisons between levels of human development and conflict (map 3.1). These are the areas where some of the most intense fighting in the country has taken place. By contrast, the areas in Sudan that hold the highest levels of human development achievement were less impacted by insecurity.

The human toll of violence and insecurity in Darfur over recent years has been significant. The region is characterized by low human development status. This may be due to a number of reasons, the foremost of which are the lagged effects of violence on the dimensions of human development – a country or region's human development index moves slowly over time. Resilience to insecurity and risk in the area can also play a key role.

This chapter defines 'insecurity' using the basic contours of a human security approach (see section 1.2). We focus on the risks and threats to the many dimensions of what it means to be a human being that stem from violence, conflict and war. In this fundamental sense, an individual must also be 'vulnerable' to human insecurity, that is, exposed to the risk of a decline in human development. Through this lens and the best available data, we capture the impacts of war and violence in generating human development setbacks in income and wealth, education, health and nutrition.

Income losses

Since 1955, wars and large-scale violence have impacted the income and wealth of the Sudanese people. When the Southern civil war restarted in 1983, per capita income contracted severely and led to a period of stagnation until 1993, when rains improved and a series of peace talks began (figure 3.1). These talks, however, would not produce a comprehensive ceasefire until 2000.

Figure 3.1 **Income effects of violence**

Gross domestic product per capita (PPP)

Source: Statistical table 1. For references in the chapters of this report to "Statistical table" please see the corresponding Statistical table in the annex to this report

Peace and the absence of large-scale violence were not the only factors impacting income over the last generation. Drought and famine in the mid-1980s and the 1988 floods also contributed to income and agricultural losses, while the exploitation of oil in the early 2000s added to income growth. But in key moments in Sudan's recent history, the effects of war reflect a general pattern of income losses—and the effects of peace reflect income gains.

Over the 1989-1994 period, real gross domestic product (GDP) per capita growth is estimated to have fallen between 2.71 and 2.18 percentage points per annum, averaging to a 2 per cent drop in GDP per capita per year.[1] Other estimates put income losses at eight per cent of per capita GDP.[2] Whatever the precise costs, incomes and assets were significantly depleted as direct and indirect results of violence.

Losses incurred in the wealth of families in terms of loss of sources of livelihood, education, health and water sources, Darfur lost 15 per cent of its animal wealth since the outbreak of conflict in 2003, or 3.9 million animal deaths. This totaled to an estimated US$ 722.5 million.[3] Three thousands villages and 869 major water sources have been completely or partially destroyed. Those displaced to camps go without income-generating activities.

Though women's participation in economic activities has increased as reflected in women's increased contribution to household income constituting approximately 41 per cent, a majority of women work in rural areas, in harsh conditions, in very low-paying jobs and have little control over household income and major spending decisions. For instance, about 70 per cent of the population lives in rural areas, which provides employment to 55 per cent of the total labor force and a majority of the workforce are women (78 per cent).

For urban areas in Sudan, approximately 77 per cent of women are employed, with a majority (85 per cent) working in the informal and private sectors. These women are engaged in petty trading, selling tea and food, and are usually poor, young and displaced, resulting from the lack of concrete livelihood opportunities. For those women working in the formal sector (26 per cent), few are in strategic ministerial positions (8.6 per cent) and fewer still in top professional positions (2.4 per cent), while most are middle-level professional (44 per cent) or technical positions (24 per cent), and clerical positions (35 per cent).[4]

The periods of economic decline prompted Sudanese to opt for survival strategies that in many ways contributed to escalating conflict. Rural-urban migration to the greater Khartoum metropolitan area in search of security, education and job opportunities contributed to the dramatic increase in the population of the national capital. It also stresses service provision. As early as 1993, the population of Khartoum equaled the population of the next 32 largest cities in the country.[5] The 2008 census has shown that the population growth in Khartoum has reached 8.5 per cent due to massive migration. That is because the natural population growth rate does not exceed 2.6 per cent.[6]

Education deficit

Children and their education are often among the heaviest impacted by conflict. After decades of violent conflict and human insecurity, and the years of fighting in Southern, Eastern Sudan and Darfur, these regions hold significantly worse education indicators than more

peaceful areas of Sudan. Differences between conflict and non-conflict regions reflect in school drop-out rates, outcomes of education such as literacy, and income poverty levels by head of household education achievement.

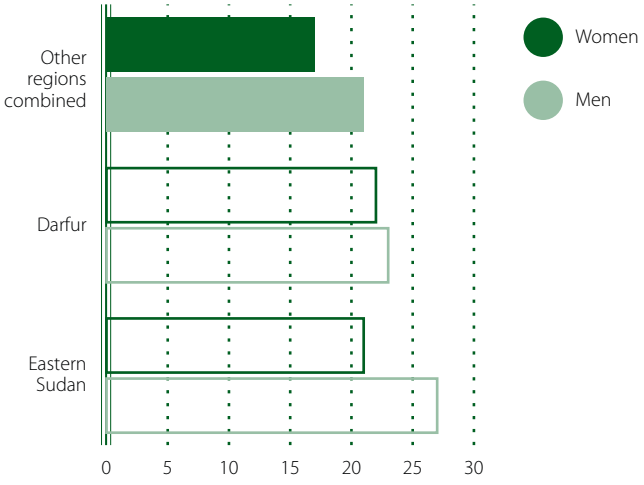
Basic school drop-out rates as a share of school-age children in conflict areas are much higher than in non-conflict regions (figure 3.2). Economic, sociocultural and religious factors often affect completion rates and some parents refuse to send children to co-education or succumb to early marriage. Furthermore, education is costly and for poor households, the cost discourages participation of girls, and increases parents' reliance on child labor to meet household needs.[7]

Literacy rates vary substantially between regions with some differential between males and females (figure 3.3). Adult literacy in Sudan remains low with only three out of five Sudanese able to read and write in 2008. This low average breaks down into a significant regional disparity. More women are also disproportionally illiterate than men in conflict-affected regions, and women in non-conflict areas. In Khartoum region, women are four times more likely to be literate than women in Darfur and Eastern Sudan.

Differences defined by conflict areas also persist within Sudan. Literacy rates are highest in Khartoum followed by Northern and Central regions. The education deficit is mainly caused by the conflicts in Darfur and Eastern Sudan. The literacy rate among the nomadic population is extremely low, at less than 10 per cent. Aside from disrupting their migratory lifestyle, the conflict also dismantled the Darfurian nomads' mobile schooling systems.

Figure 3.2 **Basic school drop-out rates worse in conflict regions**

Basic school drop-out rate (% of school age population)

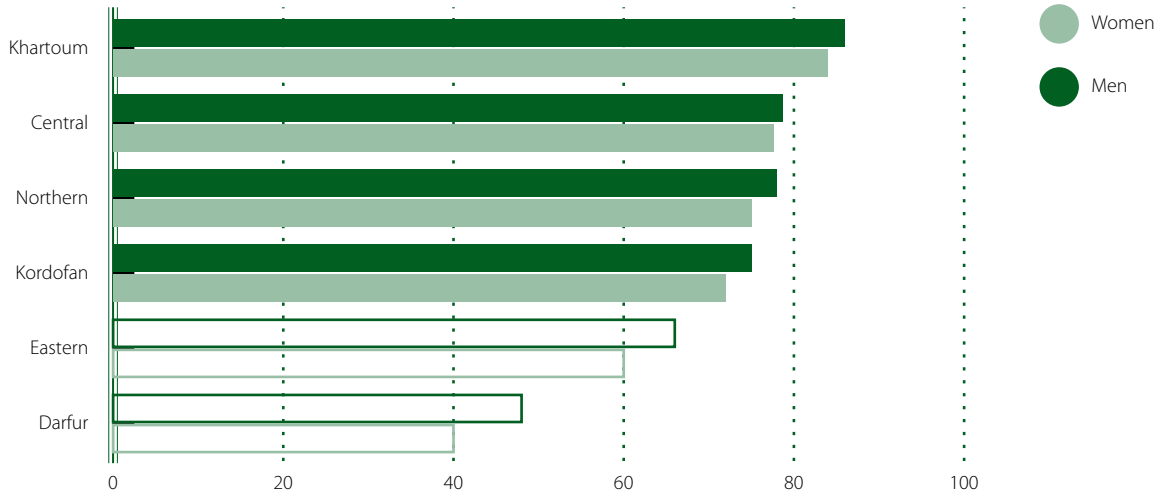


Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 2008, Table ED 4.

Within conflict areas, the poor typically are far worse off than others, and poor girls usually most disadvantaged of all. In comparison with the national average, levels of extreme education poverty are three times higher in the conflict-affected greater Darfur, where military operations have displaced more than 3 million people from ethnic minority groups.[8]

Figure 3.3 **Adult literacy rate by region**

Adult literacy rates, 2008 (%)



Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 2008, table ED 1.1.

Table 3.1

Shortage of teachers in Darfur region

Number of teachers and teacher-student ratios (Public and Private School), Darfur, 2005-2006

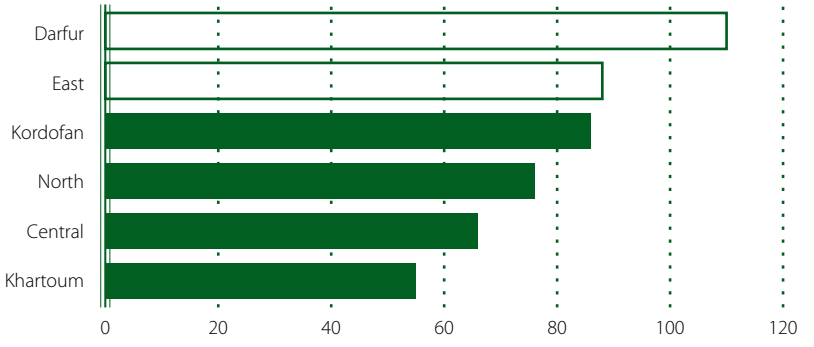
	Teachers (trained and untrained)			
	Males	Females	Total	Teacher-student ratio
North Darfur	2.909	3.870	6779	1:30
South Darfur	3.728	5.075	8803	1:31
West Darfur	1.408	1.544	2952	1:80
Total Darfur	8.045	10.489	18534	1:38

Source: World Bank 2007a.

Figure 3.4

Conflict-affected regions show highest child mortality

Under-five mortality rate, 2008 (per 1,000 live births)

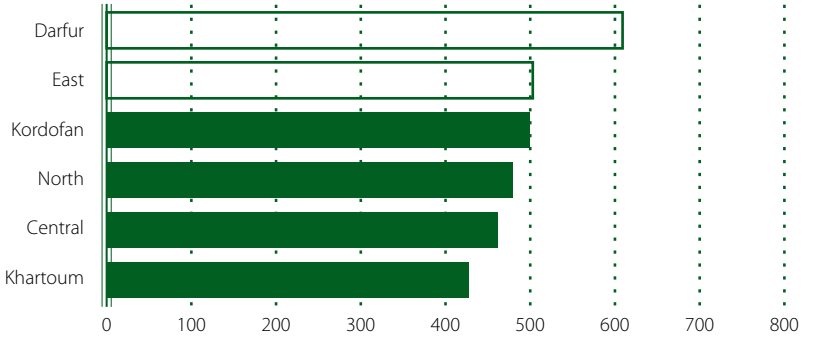


Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 2008, table F 1.1.

Figure 3.5

Maternal mortality rates

Maternal mortality rate, 2008 (per 1,000 births)



Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 2008, table D 3.

Inequality associated within wider social, economic, political and gender factors operating in conflict zones also influences opportunities for education. For the poorest households, conflict often means a loss of assets and income, and with few resources to fall back on, there may be no choice but to take children out of school. In the case of gender, poverty effects interact with parental security fears over sexual violence to keep girls out of school.

The impact of conflict on teachers is a major reason for education challenges. Only 37 per cent of teachers are considered trained, having undertaken six months or more of vocational preparation. Of these, just 16 per cent are female.[9] A shortage of teachers results in few teachers available to teach each student. In the Darfur region, there is only one teacher for every 38 students (table 3.1). This ratio is the lowest in West Darfur, the most underdeveloped state in the Darfur region prior to the outbreak of conflict, with one teacher for every 80 students. Few teachers from within Darfur receive the required university education, as their own education was obstructed by violence and underdevelopment. Moreover, fighting and insecurity in the area gives teachers from other regions little incentive to move to schools in Darfur.

Health—direct and indirect impacts

Nationally, infant and child mortality rates have improved—although slowly and only slightly. Infant deaths declined from 100 per 1,000 live births in 1993 to 89 per 1,000 in 2008. Under-five mortality rates fell from 97 per 1,000 births in 1993 to 88 per 1,000 in 2008.

While child mortality rates improved for the country as a whole, conflict-impacted areas show significantly higher rates than non-conflict areas (figure 3.4). In 2008, children born in Darfur were nearly two times more likely to die before their fifth birthday than children born in Khartoum.

Reproductive health

Maternal mortality rates dropped from 534 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2006 to 436 deaths in 2008.[10] This places Sudan at a better maternal mortality rate than its neighbours.[11] But significant differentials exist between the war zones in Darfur and East Sudan compared with the rest of the country (figure 3.5). Women in Darfur are nearly 40 per cent more likely to die giving birth than women in Khartoum.

Fistula is highly prevalent, consistent with inaccessibility to emergency obstetric care, particularly at the primary and first referral level, or non-existent maternity services and with poor quality of services particularly in the conflict zones. Most women (77 per cent in Sudan and 81 per cent in Darfur) give birth at home. Contraceptive prevalence rates are extremely low (8 per cent in Sudan and 1 per cent in Darfur), with low demand for family planning services. About 57 per cent of births in Sudan and only 5 per cent of births

in Darfur are attended to by a skilled birth attendant. Approximately 37 per cent of girls get married or give birth by 18 years of age and 12 per cent get married before age 15. The teenage pregnancy rate is estimated at 104 per 1,000 in Sudan.[12]

In Sudan, only 49.2 per cent of localities have one village midwife for every 2,000 women. There is also an acute shortage in the availability of nurse midwives, such that their role in the health facility is sometimes undertaken by village midwives, and in spite of the huge production of doctors from 36 medical schools, the problems in distribution and deployment has resulted in a concentration of all health categories and specialties in urban areas with conflict areas lacking these cadres.

Women from poor households, with little to no education, and young in age have the highest risk of not using reproductive health services.[13] While only 4 per cent of women had correct knowledge of the main ways of preventing HIV transmission, this knowledge was lowest among women with low education level, and belonging to the poorest households. There are clear issues of access to services and information that are disproportionately affecting the poor which needs to be understood, researched and analyzed.

Malaria, a national success story—but conflict areas lag behind

Until recent, malaria posed serious health challenges to nearly all parts of Sudan. During the 1990s, malaria was the leading cause of death in all regions of Sudan. Health interventions through the Blue Nile Project in 1996 in Gezira state marked a new era of serious interventions to control the disease. The central government and state governments' cooperation was significant to these interventions. The result: national malaria prevalence declined from its highest recorded peak in 1996 of 33 per cent to 5 per cent in 2010 (figure 3.6).

While a successful example of cooperation and concerted policy, malaria rates exhibit significant disparities at regional levels (figure 3.7). Malaria is nearly eradicated in the Khartoum region. However, this is not the case in conflict-affected areas.

Without the coordinated efforts between central and state-level governments to reduce malaria prevalence in Sudan, today's trends would likely be significantly different. The war and overall marginalization of Darfur and some remote areas limited the reach of these policies to these areas. The positive news, however, is that a successful model to follow exists within the country.

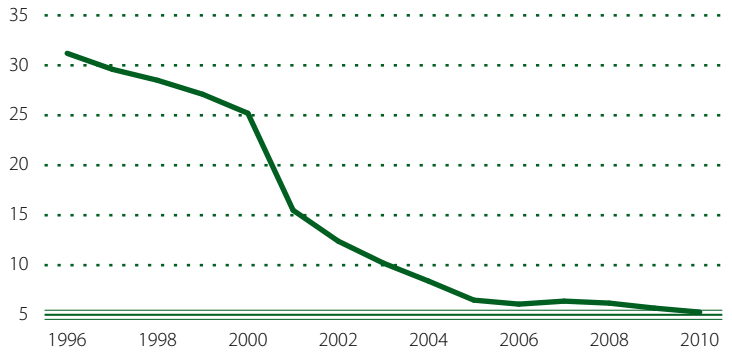
HIV/AIDS differential

In 2010, the estimated HIV/AIDS prevalence rates stood at 1.6 per cent in Sudan. This varies from less than 1 per cent in rural areas to 8 per cent in urban settings.[14] There is a high rate of awareness of HIV — 70 per cent — but comprehensive knowledge of HIV prevention is very low (4 per cent), particularly among women of reproductive age and young people (9.7 per cent).[15] Estimates suggest that HIV/AIDS rates are higher among Darfurian nomads than the national average.[16]

A recent study conducted among young people showed that of the 75 per cent sexually active male population aged 19-25, less than 1.6 per cent reported using condoms. Likewise, awareness of mother-to-child transmission of HIV is low, at 2.6 per cent. Though the HIV prevalence rates appear low and at an early stage, it is already a generalized epidemic. Large population movements/displacements resulting from internal and external conflicts, poverty and humanitarian crisis imply a high potential for further spread of HIV infection, particularly among risk groups.

Figure 3.6 **Lower national malaria prevalence…**

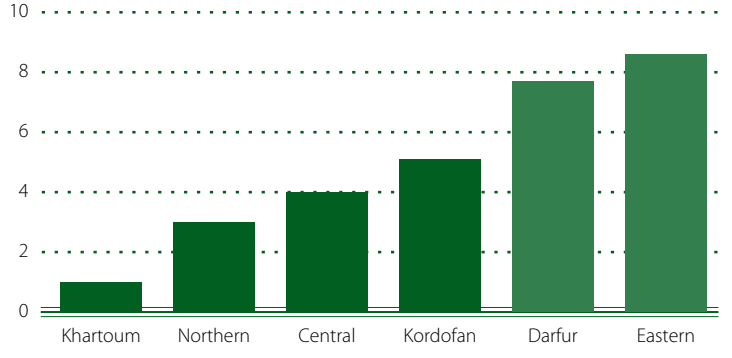
Malaria prevalence rate, 2010 (% total blood films tested nationally)



Source: Blue Nile Health Project and Federal Ministry of Health 2010.

Figure 3.7 **Malaria disparities by conflict zones**

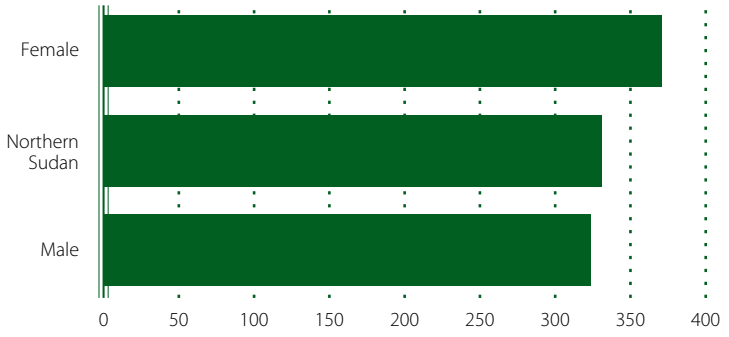
Malaria prevalence rate, 2010 (% total blood films tested nationally)



Source: Federal Ministry of Health 2010.

Figure 3.8 All women in Sudan—experience most hunger

Depth of hunger, Kcal/person/day



Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 2009.

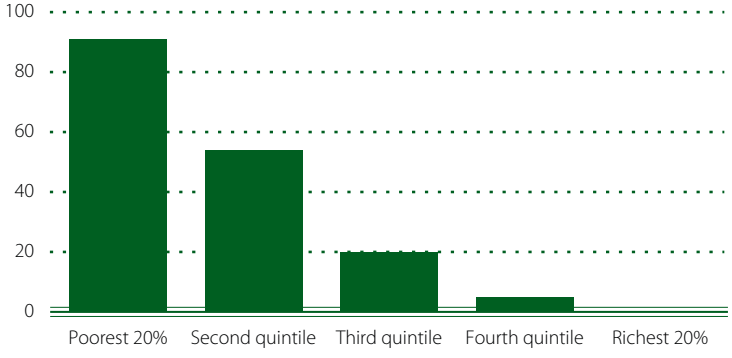
Food insecurity

Conflict disrupted the nation's food systems owing to the displacement of farming communities. This contributed to food insecurity and malnutrition. Available information shows that Darfur and large parts of Southern Kordofan remain among the most food-insecure regions in the world, with an estimated 35 per cent of the population undernourished.

The food security challenge was most pronounced in rural areas and IDP camps. At least 300,000 people were provided food assistance in several camps in Darfur states.[17] Services and assistance were also provided to the displaced people in Khartoum and other large cities. In the 2000-2004 conflict period, Darfurians relied heavily on humanitarian food aid. Food production in affected areas declined to about 20 per cent of the pre-conflict era. The regions also experienced increases in infant and maternal mortality and widespread malnutrition.

Figure 3.9 91 per cent of the poorest Sudanese are undernourished

Undermourishment by income quintile (%)



Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 2010.

One of every three Sudanese did not consume enough food in 2009. The prevalence of undernourishment for Sudan is categorized by very high severity of undernourishment, with over 20 per cent of the population suffering from food deprivation.[18] The severity of food insecurity is measured by the proportion of the population whose dietary energy consumption is below the minimum dietary energy requirement of 1751 Kilocalories per day.[19]

Variations in the depth of hunger exist across the 15 States of northern Sudan (figure 3.8). People in West Darfur state on average lacked 517 kilocalories to meet their daily nutrition needs, while the average person in Gezira state lacked 249 Kilocalories per day.[20] These variations reflect different food security management and agriculture policies as well as different levels of security and stability. While the averages suggest a widespread nutrition challenge that affects all regions in Sudan, women are disproportionally represented among those missing sufficient calories to meet their daily energy needs.

As the history of famine in Darfur shows, food insecurity results from inadequate entitlements to access food, and not the physical scarcity of food.[21] The inability to purchase food is one of the most significant factors leading to inadequate nutrition. This is borne out in Sudan today: 91 per cent of Sudan's food insecure are also among the poorest 20 per cent in the country (figure 3.9). In the second-income quintile, the prevalence of undernourishment nearly halves. Among the richest 20 per cent, no individual is likely to be undernourished.

3.2 Vulnerability—new and old challenges

In this chapter, vulnerability refers to population groups who directly or indirectly may be affected by lack of human security, physically or emotionally. The negative impact of Sudan's violent conflict precipitated a deepened situation of vulnerability among selected population groups, especially those living in the conflict zones.

Lack of gender sensitivity in traditional and modern institutions

The adoption of the National Policy for Women's Empowerment 2007 in Sudan represented a significant breakthrough in advancing gender equality and access to justice. The establishment of the national machinery for gender at the Ministry of Social Welfare, Women and Children Affairs, the formulation of a unit to combat violence against women and children through the Ministry of Justice and the appointment of *Wali* (governor) gender advisors at state levels aimed to promote access to justice and the empowerment of women. The establishment of this machinery has been the cornerstone for working on gender issues in Sudan.

Yet, change has been slow. Challenges to fulfilling and protecting women's and children's rights persist,

Table 3.2

Sudanese women in National Assembly

Year	Total number of seats	Proportion of seats held by women	Form of allocation
1958	95	None	-
1965	261	0.4%	Election
1980	368	4.9%	Appointment
1982	153	9.2%	Appointment
1986	261	0.7%	Election
1996	400	5.9%	Appointment
2004	360	9.7%	Appointment/Election
2010	451	25%	Election

Source: Sudanese Women's General Union (SWGU), 2010

including those caused by the dual system in administration of justice through formal courts and customary law, both having minimal expertise in ensuring gender-sensitive procedures. Customary laws continue to govern women and children in terms of access to land, property ownership and access to justice, particularly for cases of exploitation and sexual and gender-based violence.

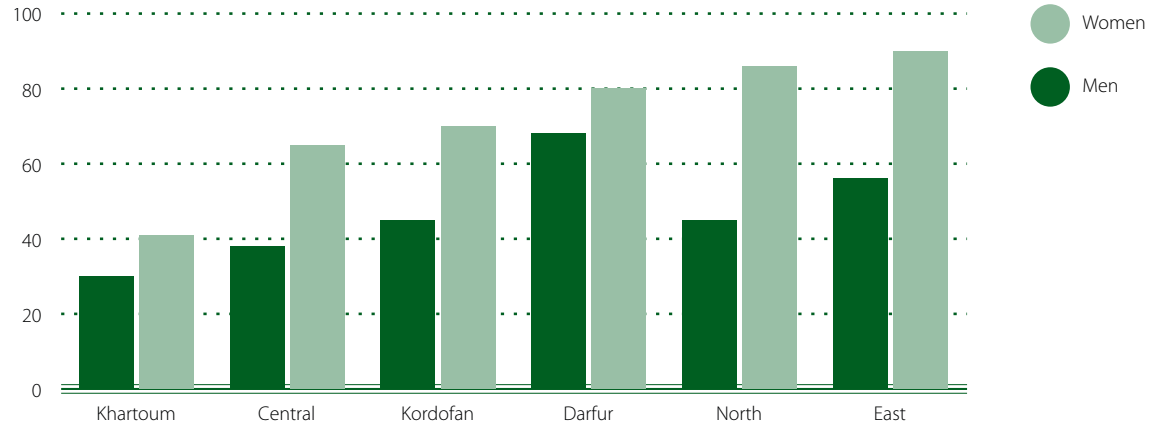
Progress on improving women's political representation has taken place. Women hold 19.7 per cent of seats in the national assembly, 8.6 per cent of ministerial posts, 6.8 per cent federal ministries and 4 per cent of council state ministries, yet a majority of women remain outside political and decision-making processes. There is need for an improved structural and resource base to promote gender equality and women's empowerment, ensuring integration and the participation of women in social and political life. Table 3.2 reflects the political participation of Sudanese women in the legislature.

Imperiled youth

A recurring challenge confronts youth in conflict and recently in post-conflict areas: finding work. This

Figure 3.10 **Out of school youth 15-24 currently unemployed by sex and region**

Out of school youth 15-24 currently unemployed by sex and region (%)



Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 2008, Table E1.

Table 3.3

Reasons for being unemployed in percentages

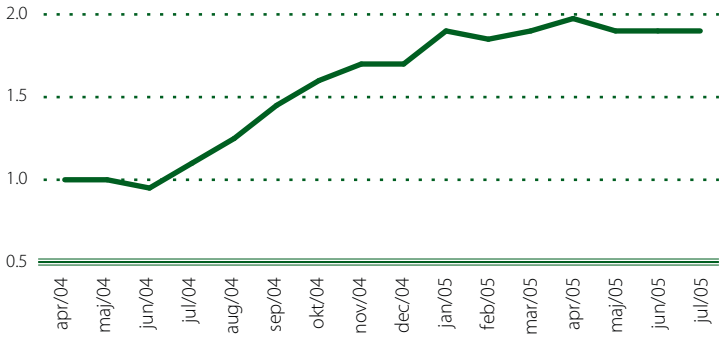
Reason for being unemployed	Age		
	10-14	15-19	20-24
Worked before and seeking work	13	6	22
Seeking work for the first time	67	70	34
No hope to find job	12	19	32
Income recipient	8	5	12
	100	100	100

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 2008, Table E1.

Figure 3.11

Internally displaced people, April 2004 – July 2005

Internally displaced persons, (million)



Source: WHO 2005.

challenge often leads to a recurring cycle in which war destroys economic institutions, markets and the opportunity for jobs, and frustrated, unemployed youth take up arms. Many studies investigate unemployed young men as a major risk factor for conflict, leading to a 5 per cent to 31 per cent increase in the chance of conflict recurrence.[22] While the causal mechanisms are increasingly challenged in the literature, lack of jobs among youth as a result of war is a significant challenge to their human development prospects—and to post-war reconstruction.

Over half of out-of-school youth across all regions in Sudan are unemployed. This youth unemployment rate varies dramatically across regions (figure 3.10). The majority of unemployed youth report that the main cause of their unemployment is that they are seeking work for the first time (table 3.3). But on average 21 per cent of the youth gave up hope of finding a job. There is an urgent need to create employment capacity in Sudan, bridging the gap between school and work.

Vocational education and training systems can support the transition from education to employment. Effective training helps align the skills of those entering the labor market with employer demand. Successful models combine education with a strong commitment to training in the workplace, and involve employers, trade unions and education authorities in curriculum design.[23]

Internally displaced

The long years of protracted conflicts in Sudan generated massive population displacement. Whole communities were uprooted and forced to take refuge in major urban centres or internal camps for displaced persons. One in five Sudanese have been estimated to have been internally displaced in 2004.

Several factors interlock to cause people to move from their home areas. After the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement in 2005, many internally displaced persons returned to southern Sudan. In 2006, six million people were displaced largely by drought, desertification, famine and flood-induced epidemics. War in Darfur and South Sudan forced people to flee their areas. For instance, 270,000 people were displaced in Darfur in 2010. At the end of 2010, at least 4.5 million people were internally displaced in Darfur, the greater Khartoum area and South Kordofan.[24]

This large-scale population displacement has implications for how internally displaced persons' needs and rights are met, and how they access health, education and water and sanitation services. While the 1983-2005 civil war displaced over 2 million southerners who sought refuge in the north, the war in Darfur since 2003 continues to displace people who are trapped within the region, and who sought refuge in the major towns in Darfur, including Alfashir, Nyala and AlGineina.

Internal displacement in Sudan is not an isolated phenomenon. It is both a result and a cause of the human insecurity in the country. Sudan has the biggest number of internally displaced persons in the world. This is indeed an indicator of the protracted crisis and malfunctioning of state institutions in the country.

Refugees from South Sudan and the displaced from Nuba Mountains primarily fled their areas as a result of civil war. They constituted the majority of internally displaced persons in Khartoum. The Dinka represented the biggest ethnic group living in the camps, especially in Jebel Awlia), followed by Nuba and other groups from Darfur and Northern Kordofan. Estimates highlight that 70 per cent of internally displaced persons are displaced by violent conflict in different parts of the country. Drought is the likely cause for most of the remaining displacement. War displaced may well exceed 90 per cent if recent internally displaced persons from Darfur are factored in. It took two decades of war in South Sudan to displace 4 million people, but less than three

years to displace two million in Darfur.[25] The upshot: civil war produces multiple effects on displacement, in terms of severity, duration and geographical location.

Internal displacement poses significant implications for the human development of the displaced, and in their home and host communities. Urbanization without integration characterizes some of the major human development challenges internally displaced persons face. Integrating displaced people into the social and political system empowers them — helping to set the foundation for peaceful coexistence between the different communities that inhabit Khartoum. Yet Khartoum's internally displaced persons are not integrated into the urban system. Mostly pastoralists or farmers, many lost their rural livelihoods before moving to Khartoum, and they were neither empowered to return to their former livelihoods nor provided with alternative means of sustainable life in the city.

The economic survival of internally displaced persons depends on the lowest end of the labor market, namely unskilled jobs with long hours, often far from their homes involving long commutes, as the cases of Jabarona and Al Fatih show. After decades of living in Khartoum, internally displaced persons are still on the periphery of Khartoum's urban system.

Children living on internally displaced camps tend to also suffer greater disease risks (figure 3.12). Compared to children under four year of age already living in the area, children age living in internally displaced persons camps in North Darfur in May-June 2005 were more than twice as likely to suffer from watery diarrhea. They were also more than three times as likely to suffer from watery diarrhea as internally displaced children living outside the camps.

Internally displaced people are not mere victims of conflict but essential actors in making and sustaining peace. Peace processes must benefit from their knowledge of local conditions, their power to generate civil society support for agreements and their willingness to return and rebuild stable societies.

Traumatic legacies of conflict

Nearly every family in Sudan incurred some kind of loss as a result of the conflicts. After local economies and lands were damaged by fighting, some family members suffered psychological stress from not knowing where their next meal would come from, or whether they would be killed at any given moment. Assets were lost either from looting, physical destruction or the collapse of the financial sector. Loss of homes and other physical assets left people with no means of sustainable livelihoods, subjecting them to higher risks of malnutrition, shorter lives, illness and illiteracy. Sudan's conflicts severely damaged the social fabric of the country.[26]

People who experience war and forced migration have a high burden of psychiatric morbidity, including post-traumatic stress disorder, which encompasses symptoms of intrusive recollections of the traumatic events, avoidance behavior, and general hyper-arousal and reduced functioning, and is associated with the experience or witnessing of life-threatening traumatic

Box 3.1

Internally displaced to Khartoum: dynamics and access to services

Since the early 1980s, Khartoum has hosted millions of internally displaced persons, especially refugees from southern Sudan. However, it is important to stress the fact that since the signing of the peace agreement in 2005, Khartoum did not witness an influx of internally displaced persons, except those who returned to Khartoum after initially returning to their areas of origin. The information in this box thus refers to internally displaced persons who were in Khartoum prior to the peace agreement.

Government policy in the 1990s was to bring internally displaced persons together in fixed locations to simplify service provision. Hundreds of thousands of internally displaced persons living in squatter settlements and unfinished buildings and construction sites were evacuated to four camps established by the government in 1992. The policy of evacuating internally displaced persons and relocating them to official camps raised concerns regarding the infrastructure needs to make the camps habitable.

The location of these camps in the outskirts of the national capital meant that internally displaced persons were cut off from the urban economy, unable to find jobs to generate income. It also implies that the displaced would have to be provided with relief food, since these camps were located far from areas where the internally displaced persons could seek work as wage laborers.

In 1992, the government established four internally displaced persons camps around Khartoum: Al Salam Omdurman (Jabarona), Al Salam Jebel Awlia, Mayo Farm, and Wad Al Bashir. In 2002, Al Fatih, north of Omdurman, was organized as an additional area to house internally displaced persons who used to squat in some already planned areas. In addition to these four camps that were recognized by the government, internally displaced persons lived in many other areas (table 1).

Table 1

IDPs in Khartoum State

Camp	Number of households	Total population	Number of primary schools	Water sources
Wad Al Bashir	7,000	45,500	4	3 containers
Al Salam	18,000	117,000	11	7 containers
Jebel Awlia	8,000	52,000	7	62 boreholes
Mayo	9,000	58,500	6	72 boreholes
Total	42,000	273,000	28	

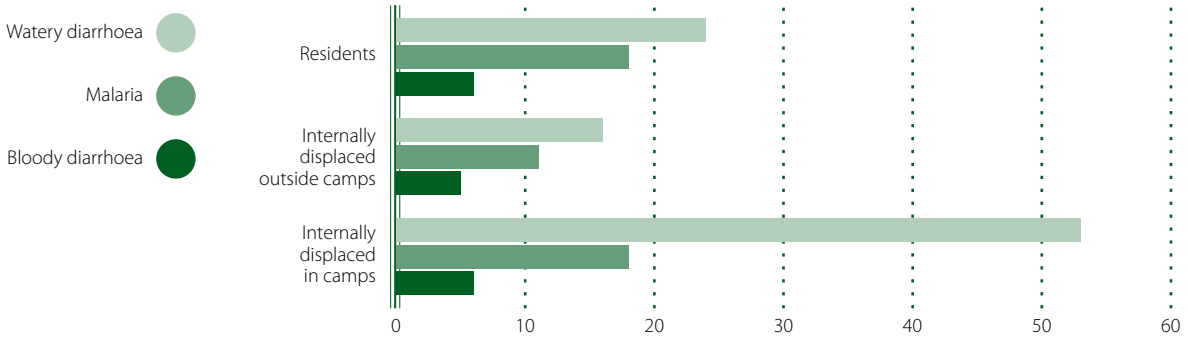
Different reports show that between 1.8 and 2 million internally displaced persons lived in Khartoum. Of these, 273,000 lived in camps, while the rest were scattered in squatter settlements and other residential areas in Khartoum. The four camps (Wad Al Bashir, Al Salam Omdurman, Jebel Awlia and Mayo Farms) hosted respectively 55,500, 117,000, 52,000 and 58,500 internally displaced persons. Women represented one third of the Khartoum internally displaced persons population. Average household size in the camps was 6-7 people. Internally displaced persons in the camps were mainly from the western and southern regions of the Sudan including greater Kordofan, greater Bahr Al Ghazal, greater Darfur, Unity and Nile states (Jonglei, Blue and Upper Nile and Unity states) and greater Equatoria.

Khartoum is marked by extreme socio-economic inequality. Rich and upper class residential areas co-exist side by side with squatter settlements and internally displaced persons camps. There is a widening gap between the rich and the poor. It is becoming one of the most expensive cities in the world. Yet, these developments do not benefit half of Khartoum's population living in the peripheries of the city. The city provides few if any services to this vast group.

Source: Assal 2008; Assal 2011; IOM 2011.

Figure 3.12 **Children living on internally displaced persons camps more at risk**

Cause specific mortality in children 0-4 years old, North Darfur, May-June 2005 (% total children 0-4 years old)



Source: WHO 2005, p. 19.

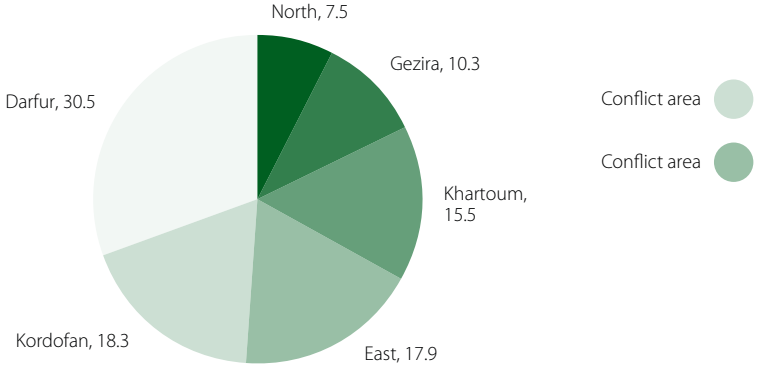
events plus physical disability. Data on psychiatric morbidity are not available.

Many former child soldiers who committed war crimes or killed and injured others can suffer from psycho-social stress related to their wartime activities. A comprehensive survey of former child combatants, mirroring a useful study conducted among former Lord's Resistance Army child soldiers in Uganda, can prove extremely useful to filling in knowledge gaps, and improve policies to target the support of former child combatants and their families.[27]

In 2008, over 61,908 people in Sudan had disabilities caused by war.[28] Darfur and South Kordofan regions have the largest share of the population with war-caused disabilities (figure 3.13). The two regions combined have nearly half the country's total war-caused disabled people. While the highest numbers of war-disabled are in the conflict areas, people in all regions of Sudan also suffer from these disabilities. The war was not fought solely by army soldiers, but also by civilians and people's defense forces (militias).

Figure 3.13 **Darfur and South Kordofan hold nearly a half of the war disabled in Sudan**

War-caused disability by region (% of total disabled by war in the country)



Source: CBS 2008, Table DS 1.

Nomads and living mode risks

Every year, one of the largest cattle migrations in the world takes place in Sudan—with more than 80 per cent of this migration passing through Southern Kordofan state. This closely intertwines conflict, personal safety and livelihood opportunities with land dispute and conflicts in Southern Kordofan.[29] The state was given special status in Sudan's Comprehensive Peace Agreement because it is considered crucial to the broader stability of the country. Disputes over land most often pit settled farmers against nomadic pastoralists along migration corridors. Based on community perceptions, land emerges as the main driver of conflict or tension in their area (map 3.2).

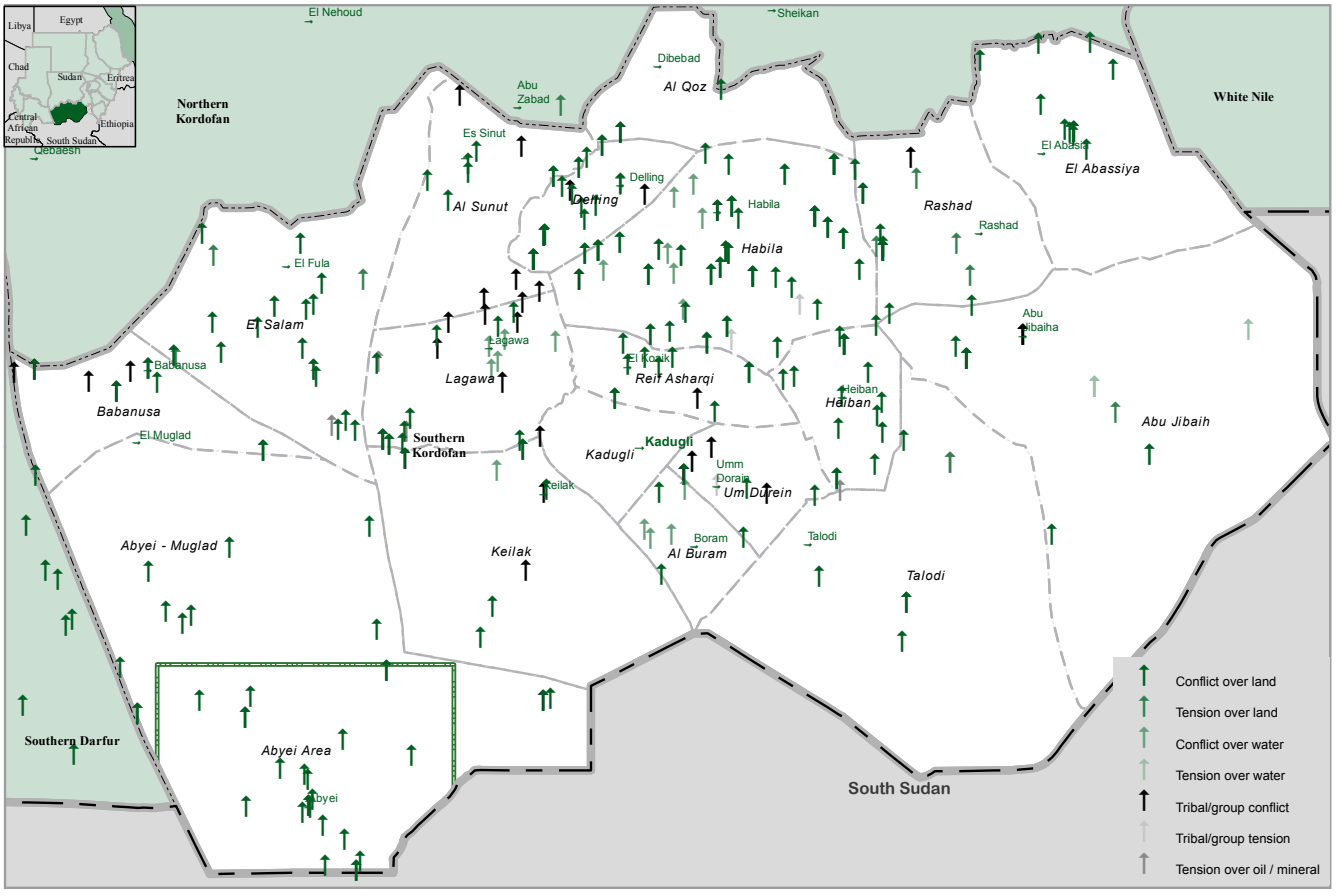
A number of sub-issues emerge under this broad indicator of conflict over landnamely, conflict over land ownership, land use and boundaries. These three sub-issues are often inter-related, mixed with conflict over other natural resources such as water, and made worse by local tribal or group divisions. The same parties may be in dispute over more than one issue. Land disputes are most often found along migration corridors or in close proximity of mechanized farming schemes.

The presence of arms in the hands of civilians is a pressing concern to many communities in Southern Kordofan. Community members report high levels of arms in the hands of civilians in Abyei-Muglad, Babanusa, Lagawa and Keilak in the west of the state, mainly along the migration corridors as illustrated in map 3.2. Arms are reportedly held by paramilitary formations, Popular Defence Forces, members of armed movements and former Sudan People's Liberation Army soldiers.

Arms presence is also subject to seasonal changes in Southern Kordofan, increasing when armed pastoralists pass through the area on their way to Unity state in

Map 3.2

Nomad migrations and tensions through Southern Kordofan



Source: Puig 2011.

the southern Sudan at the beginning of the dry season, and again on their way back at the beginning of the rainy season. The presence of arms results in a number of counter-productive activities, including murder, loss of crops to farmers, loss of cattle to herdsmen, a widespread sense of insecurity, displacement and frequent banditry.

Locations with particularly high presence of arms, according to communities, are along several migration routes:

- Fayareen route: El Tabon, Abu Betekh, Gharig, El Foda, El Hereka, Nama, Tamama.
- Awlat Kamel route: El Setat, Abyei, Dafra, Shage, Sofia, Tadama, Um Draas.
- Awlat Aomran route: Beraka, Muglad, El Mirm, Marafeen, El Dabb, Higlig, Agok.
- Misseriya Zurg routes: El Ko, El Ragefa, Mango El Daba, Umm Adara, Balala, Umm Khar.
- Misseriya Falayta routes: Abu Elkeri, Keilak, Kharasana, Marafeen.

Land disputes almost always follow or are followed by one or more related factors: land degradation, land pollution or problems of land access. Land degradation is the most common factor associated with conflict over land. Most conflicts that are not associated with one of these indicators relate to land ownership or boundaries. This explains why the related indicators do not appear in Abyei-Muglad and the Abyei Area — where conflicts are mostly about ownership or boundaries — or in Habila, reportedly primarily about ownership.

Pollution and land degradation have emerged as a key area of concern to many communities. Pollution is often linked to oil or mining activities, and appears as a risk only in the west of the state. Both pollution and land degradation affect livelihood opportunities, by restricting access to land, deteriorating existing pasture or farming land and in some areas limiting access to water.

As settled farmers and nomadic pastoralists compete over dwindling land resources, existing disputes over land are fueled further, and exacerbated by the presence of arms in the hands of civilians. This is the self-perpetuating cycle of instability in the state: land access; land degradation; livelihoods; presence of arms; conflict.

Table 3.3

Seven questions from the mini-survey

Are you satisfied with primary education?	Frequency	Percent
Satisfied	59	24.1%
Not Satisfied	172	70.2%
Did not respond	14	5.7%
Total	245	100.0%
If so, why are your reasons for dissatisfaction about primary education?	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Instability in the curricula	27	11.0%
Family challenges	4	1.6%
Teacher challenges	10	4.1%
Not enough school books	55	22.4%
Crowded classes	134	54.7%
Did not respond	15	6.1%
Total	245	100.0%
How do you rate government concern with youth unemployment?	**Frequency**	**Percent**
High	20	8.2%
Appropriate	31	12.7%
Inadequate	173	70.6%
Did not respond	21	8.6%
Total	245	100.0%
What do you think are the chances for peace and human security in the current political atmosphere?	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Very good	1	0.4%
Good	26	10.6%
Very bad	76	31.0%
Bad	104	42.4%
Did not respond	38	15.5%
Total	245	100.0%
Does youth unemployment threaten peace and security?	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	214	87.3%
No	23	9.4%
Missing	8	3.3%
Total	245	100.0%
Have peace protocols improved human development?	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	55	22.4%
No	181	73.9%
Missing	9	3.7%
Total	245	100.0%
Do the national media play an effective role in consolidating peace and national unity?	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Agree	46	18.8%
Disagree	153	62.4%
Don't know	28	11.4%
Did not answer	18	7.3%
Total	245	100.0%

3.3 Visions of peace and war

Mini-survey of perceptions on peace and human development

As part of the background research for this report, a 'mini-survey' was conducted with the participants of focus group discussions held in Khartoum, Gezira, Gedarif, Northern, South Kordofan, West Darfur and Central Equatoria states. At each site location, three separate focus group discussions took place, except in Central Equatoria, where only two sessions were possible. The Ministry of Welfare and Social Security selected the participants in each state. After focus group discussion sessions concluded, a 44-part questionnaire was administered to each participant. A total of 246 people took the questionnaire across all the seven sites (see technical note for further details).

For the analysis of the 'mini-survey' results, respondents were separated into two groups. The respondents consisted of 10 groupings: community leaders; religious representatives; senior government officials and representatives; and women and youth union leaders; women working in the informal sector; ex-combatants; small-scale farmers; internally displaced people; and small enterprise business owners. There were a total of 147 men and 98 women surveyed, totaling 245 participants. The resulting 60:40 male to female ratio was not part of the original design, but resulted from the Ministry of Welfare and Social Security selections.

Out of the 44 questions, seven received more than 50 per cent response rate. These are the responses discussed below. The low response rate is likely due to a number of factors, including the absence of an interviewer during the administration of the questionnaire.

The survey was not based on a representative sampling of any particular grouping in Sudan, nor conducted in a random fashion, aside from the random selection of the seven state sites. It is not, therefore, a viable alternative to a nationally representative survey. Rather, it aims to capture the opinion of a cross-section of Sudanese, and provides insights into the potential results of a future survey. The results speak specifically about the sample. Of a broader population, they are at best indicative of the magnitude of responses that a comprehensive perceptions survey might find. The results should be treated with these design limitations in mind.

Overview

A broadly negative perception emerges from the 245 respondents' views on peace and security in Sudan. Large majorities stated that peace had not yet delivered positive human development results, that government attention to the challenges of youth unemployment was inadequate, and that national media outlets did not play an effective role in peace and national unity. These results should be noted with caution due to the lack of representativeness in the sample and sampling methods.

Satisfaction with education

Respondents were asked whether they are satisfied with educational services in the country. The majority (70 per cent) reported dissatisfaction. Of these, over half noted crowded classes as the main reason behind their dissatisfaction about education in Sudan. Over 22 per cent mentioned the shortage of school books as the main reason, while 11 per cent mentioned instability of school curricula.

Government concern with youth unemployment

Asked whether the government is adequately concerned with youth employment, over 70 per cent of respondents said that concern was inadequate, 13 per cent that it was appropriate and 8 per cent that concern was high.

Youth unemployment as threat

Participants were asked whether youth unemployment threatens peace and security in the country and a great majority said yes (87 per cent). Only 9 per cent said no.

Chances for peace and human security

In their opinion, did respondents believe the current political atmosphere was conducive for sustainable peace and human security in Sudan? About 73 per cent mentioned that the current political atmosphere is either bad or very bad for peace and security. Less than 11 per cent believed that the current political atmosphere is good or very good for peace and human security.

Peace improving human development

Respondents were asked whether the three peace protocols in Naivasha, Abuja and Asmara positively impacted human development. The majority (73.9 per cent) answered "No," while 22.4 per cent answered "Yes."

Role of national media in peace

Respondents were asked whether the national media played an effective role in consolidating peace culture and national unity in Sudan. Over 62 per cent thought they did not.

3.4 Conclusion

Contrary to international media and other global perceptions, not all of Sudan has been at war or represents a site of extreme poverty. The inequalities of conflict have spelt inequalities in human development. Setting out the empirical evidence to substantiate this has been the task of this chapter.

A task moving forward is to create human development expansion with equity, empowerment and sustainability at its core.

4

Lineages of Sudan's insecurity

"Most disputes in Sudan are over power and wealth. Other factors are also vital in causing conflicts and violence such as: non-involvement in decision making, tribal conflicts, and unbalanced development."

Amna M.S. Dirar, State Minister of Labor

4 LINEAGES OF SUDAN'S INSECURITY

History is an often ignored face of human development. Yet opportunities and freedoms only exist in and derive from historical dynamics, political choices and social context. This chapter sets out some of the broader human security conditions in Sudan. Understanding context helps inform the construction of responses and means to alleviate human suffering. It also sets a foundation for public policies to help fulfill human potential.

Human insecurity largely characterizes Sudan's post-independence history—in multiple forms, from the violence of the gun to the indignity of famine. The two north-south civil wars since independence were punctuated only by a decade of peace from 1972 to 1983. The eastern conflict, while shorter (2000-2006), occurred alongside some of the worst human poverty rates anywhere. Darfur tensions continue today, expanding on decades of complex interrelationships. Yet, large-scale civil wars do not exhaust the nature of conflict in Sudan. These conflicts also coexist alongside longstanding social enmities between local groups, identities and geographies.

Sustainable peace should be constructed to facilitate liberty and choice for the Sudanese people, and to promote social cohesion and solidarity at local and national levels.

Several explanations have been put forward to understand insecurity in Sudan: enduring so-called 'identity' clashes between and within groups, tribes and cultures; longstanding experiences of alienation from the centres of financial and political power; overwhelming poverty in income but also in opportunities to lead knowledgeable, healthy, and cultivated lives; divisions fuelled by uneven patterns of equitable governance and development, traceable to Sudan's colonial rule; and new struggles for emerging resources like oil—and traditional ones, like water and land. At the root of all these perspectives lies a common thread: that no single doctrine explains all the causes for Sudan's civil wars and local violence.

What is added by a human development outlook? As Nobel laureate Amartya Sen argues, the human development approach can help illuminate understanding of human capabilities in a society.[1] This chapter applies the framework of human security towards grasping the challenges of peace in Sudan.

In this light, understanding peace should go beyond the concept of a military or liberal peace as the absence of war. For a majority of Sudanese, manifest theaters of violence have held profound effects, from separating families and communities to creating deep social divisions. Peace should be seen from these more profound implications, as human security instead of military security. Sustainable peace should be constructed to facilitate liberty and choice for the Sudanese people, and to promote social cohesion and solidarity at local and national levels. This framing, we argue, helps to highlight the challenges and root causes of insecurity — and thus the potential remedies.

4.1 Spheres of exclusion

According to the 2005 Joint Assessment Mission, a major statement on development cooperation after the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement, the root causes of conflicts include lack of inclusion in decision-making processes; centralized regimes resulting in development inequities; competition for water and land resources; and contestation over the Southern Kordofan, Blue Nile and Abyei areas. Eastern Sudan is also viewed as suffering political, social and economic marginalization.

The Joint Assessment Mission argued: "The longstanding conflicts contributed to regional inequalities resulting from inequitable development, socio-economic differences, population movements and humanitarian crisis, where specifically women and children have been subject to vulnerability and poverty."[2] This two-way relationship—underdevelopment as a cause of conflict, and conflict as a cause for underdevelopment—is crucial to unpack.

This analysis takes as its underlying assumption that the root causes for Sudan's conflicts – South Kordofan, East and West – is largely the same: exclusion. While important, there are, however, multiple sources of insecurity in Sudan. To recognize such multiplicity, we suggest, is to recognize the multiple responses needed.

This report largely builds on these root cause analyses of Sudan's conflicts. Our contribution is to look at these causes through the light of the human development approach. Social inclusion — and, by contrast, social exclusion — is a recent tool deployed from the

human development and capabilities approach that helps capture these root causes in a holistic perspective.

Human insecurity can involve economic, political, and spatial dimensions. Insecurity in one dimension often interlocks and reinforces exclusion in another, producing multiple overlapping sources of exclusion. Interrelating dimensions of human insecurity can over time produce significant deprivations in human well-being.

Aspects of this definition reflect the views of some focus group discussion participants. Respondents note a strong link between social exclusion and lack of opportunity and unequal access to knowledge. They also show that social exclusion is associated with the lack of capacity of excluded groups to act on their own behalf — in other terms, limited empowerment and human agency. Strikingly, the structure of social relations in addition to the commonly held view about poverty as a cause of exclusion emerged as key factors of insecurity from the participants.

Colonial roots of insecurity

Deep, historical factors contributed to civil war and underdevelopment in Sudan. The seeds of the civil war between the north and the south were planted by British colonial policy, effectively administering the south as distinct from the north with the aim to integrate the southern territory into Britain's East Africa rule. The adoption of the Closed District Ordinance was part of the colonial strategy to divide Sudan into two parts, setting into force a policy that would become reality six decades later.

The period 1899-1956, under the British colonial administration, saw the laying of the foundation of the modern economy of Sudan. The pillar of this foundation was long-staple cotton. The cotton economy and the agricultural Gezira Scheme, the largest agricultural production scheme in the country, were directly linked to the interests of the British textile industry and were aimed at providing reliable exports of raw and high-quality cotton to this industry. The emergence of the cotton-based irrigated agricultural sector during the colonial era has been associated with a whole ensemble of extractive economic institutions, especially with regard to the traditional rain-fed rural economies in the western parts of the country.

The inherited institutional structure was uneven and largely unsuitable for widespread development aimed at lifting the entire country, especially the vast majority of the population in rain-fed regions. National income estimates for 1956 show that the Blue Nile region, the heart of agricultural development during the colonial period, was relatively better than other regions of the country with a per capita gross domestic product that amounted to LS.42 (US$118), followed by the northeast region, with a per capita gross domestic product of about Ls.33 (US$ 92) and the northwest region with a per capita gross domestic product of Ls.27 (US$76).[3]

Post-independence Sudan inherited the extractive institutions built by the colonial government to serve colonial economic objectives. The early modern economic system in Sudan was constructed around irrigated agriculture and the cotton economy. State bureaucracy, infrastructure, development planning and educational and health welfare systems were geared towards this economy.

These inherited institutional structures served to perpetuate the colonial-era economic inequities, among regions in Sudan, and geographies with rain- or irrigation-fed lands. Institutional and market structure access mechanisms that remain emphasize the inventiveness of local communities in ensuring access to livelihoods and opportunities during conflicts. The colonial structures proved ill-suited for broad-based development aimed at lifting the entire economy, especially the vast majority of the population in the rain-fed regions. In the post-colonial era, these structures further fueled civil war dynamics and limited political change.[4]

Due to the political instability that engulfed the country since independence, only marginal changes were effected to this dominant development model. National rule only managed to widen the major economic disparities among the country's regions. The failure to radically restructure the development strategy and the associated institutions has not only led to disappointing development outcomes and generated poverty and deprivation, it has also contributed to the conflictive discourse of Sudanese politics.[5]

Sudan comprises one of the most diverse populations on the African continent, with a substantial variation in religion, culture, race and ethnicity. Sudan's population was estimated to be 33 million people, with approximately 40% Africans and 60% Arabs. Inter-marriages and other forms of social integration between Arabs and Africans blur these distinctions. Sudan has 527 tribes that speak over 320 different languages and dialects split into two ethnic groups: the majority of Sudanese Arabs of the largely Muslim Sudan versus the minority of Christians distributed mainly in Nuba Mountains. These two groups consist of hundreds of smaller ethnic and tribal divisions, and in the latter case, language groups.

Ninety seven per cent of the population adheres to Sunni Islam while the remainder of the population follows either animist and indigenous beliefs or Christianity present in Khartoum and in southern regions of the country bordering the South Sudan. The regional spread of the Sudanese population is, however, changing.

Although the findings of Matthew Lange and Andrew Dawson (2007) provide evidence that a history of colonialism did not increase the likelihood of rebellion and that a history of overseas colonialism promoted inter-communal conflict, the results for civil war provide

Box 4.1

Historical perspective of human insecurity in Sudan

The earliest history of the area known as Sudan indicates the presence of African hunter-gatherers living in the vicinity of Khartoum. Despite contact with civilizations to the north, the arid areas separating Egypt from its neighbour discouraged the pre-dynastic Egyptians from settling in the area. This eventually changed following Egyptian military expeditions into the area in search of slaves and building materials for the royal tombs.

The result was the emergence of an Egyptian-Nubian culture in areas around Khartoum, with indigenous African groups settling around Aswan in the north and Kush in the south. The separation of what is today northern and southern Sudan was further entrenched by the Assyrian invasion of Egypt in the seventh century that resulted in the Kushites withdrawing deeper into the south to escape the might of the Assyrian army.

This separation endured as Christian and Islamic influences spread through the region, with a series of small independent kingdoms, principalities, tribal entities and clans living in uneasy coexistence until Egypt conquered and unified the northern part of the country in 1821. In time, Muhammed ibn Abdella (Almahdi) proclaimed himself the Mahdi ("the expected one"), uniting sections of central and western Sudan. He then led a successful rebellion that resulted in the fall of Khartoum in 1885. The Mahdi died a short time later and an invading Anglo-Egyptian army, under Lord Kitchener, regained Khartoum. This resulted in a condominium, or joint Anglo-Egyptian authority, with the administration being left to the British.

The condominium rule of the British Colonial Authorities followed a policy of closed areas with the purpose of separating southern Sudan from northern Sudan. In southern Sudan, they began to support Christian missionaries and established a number of churches. A number of pagan tribes in the south thereafter converted to Christianity. This marked the beginning of Christianity in the south, eventually transforming into one of the factors in Sudan's decades-long conflict. The British colonial apparatus included Arab elite in Khartoum into the colonial administration process, while governing the south according to British and Christian ideals.

In 1892, Belgium advanced from the former Belgian Congo (later Zaire, then the Democratic Republic of the Congo) to capture Western Equatoria up to the border of Mongalla—establishing the Lado Enclave as part of the Belgian Congo. During the same period, France led by Major Marchand occupied large parts of southern Sudan (Bahr el Ghazal, Western Upper Nile up to Fashoda). By 1896, France had established firm administration systems in these areas.

Another French expedition that started off in 1897 from Djibouti moving through Ethiopia and along the Baro and Sobat rivers failed to link up with the Fashoda expedition. The French had wanted to annex southern Sudan to the French territories in West Africa. An international conflict developed between the British and the French over southern Sudan, commonly known as the Fashoda Incident.

In 1898, Sudan was re-conquered by joint British and Egyptian forces resulting in the signing of the Condominium Agreement between the British and the Egyptians to administer Sudan.

In 1899, the British and the French concluded an agreement in Europe that made the French pull out of southern Sudan, handing over its portion of the south to the same authorities who were already in control of north Sudan. A similar incident took place in 1910 when the Belgians withdrew from the Lado Enclave after an agreement was concluded in 1896 stipulating that the enclave was to be handed over to the British after the death of King Leopold. The king died in 1910. The withdrawal of the French and Belgians from southern Sudan ceded the territory to the British.

Source: Montreal Research Group on Ethnic Conflict 2011.

less powerful evidence but suggest that both overseas and internal colonialism potentially promoted this type of violence.

Countries with histories of either internal or external colonialism are twice as likely to have experienced civil war between 1960 and 1999 relative to non-colonies. Moreover, the identity of the colonial power appears to have affected the likelihood of civil war. Similar to communal conflict, we therefore provide evidence that scholars studying the historic effects of colonialism on civil violence must pay attention to the identity of the colonizer.

Economic factors that predispose to war (conflict)

Four economic hypotheses exist in the literature to explain intra-state wars: group motivation, private motivation, failure of the social contract, and environmental degradation.[6]

- *Group motivation hypothesis*. Since internal wars primarily consist of violence between groups, group motives, resentments and ambitions provide the basis for war. Income, cultural, territorial and other social markers can divide groups but violence only becomes a viable course of action when differences in political and economic power occur. In these situations, deprived groups are likely to seek (or be persuaded by their leaders to seek) redress. Where political reform proves to be not possible, war may result. Fighting along group lines—termed 'horizontal inequalities,'—thus can transform into major causes of war.
- *Grievance hypothesis*. War brings benefits to individuals as well as costs, which can motivate people

to fight. Young uneducated men, in particular, may gain employment as soldiers. War also generates opportunities to loot, profiteer from shortages and from aid, trade arms, and to carry out illicit production and trade in drugs, diamonds, timber, and other commodities. Where alternative opportunities are few, because of low incomes and poor employment, and the possibilities of enrichment by war are considerable, the incidence and duration of wars are likely to be greater. This 'greed hypothesis' has its base in rational choice economics.

- *Failure of the social contract*. Social stability is based on a hypothetical social contract between the people and the government. People accept state authority so long as the state delivers services and provides reasonable economic conditions (employment and incomes). With economic stagnation or decline, and worsening state services, the social contract breaks down, and violence results. Hence high and rising levels of poverty and a decline in state services would be expected to cause conflict.
- *Green war hypothesis*. This hypothesis mainly points to environmental degradation as a source of poverty and cause of conflict. For example, rising population pressure and falling agricultural productivity may lead to land disputes. Growing scarcity of water may provoke conflict. This hypothesis contradicts the view that people fight to secure control over environmental riches.

These four hypotheses are not mutually exclusive. The historical north-south conflict in Sudan is an example of both horizontal inequality (with people in the south heavily deprived) and powerful private gains that perpetuate the struggle. Similarly, grievances and the green war hypothesis both apply to the conflict in Darfur. The degrees to which each hypothesis explains violent conflict also can interrelate and shift over time.

Environmental dimensions of war (conflict)

Many reasons exist for the Darfur conflicts. Climate change figures among them. As the United Nations Environment Programme's 2007 post-conflict environmental assessment of Sudan argues: "There is a very strong link between land degradation, desertification and conflict in Darfur. Northern Darfur — where exponential population growth and related environmental stress have created the conditions for conflicts to be triggered and sustained by political, tribal or ethnic differences — can be considered a tragic example of the social breakdown that can result from ecological collapse."[7]

Darfur has a long history of conflicts over natural resources. Grazing and water rights, land, and administrative boundaries have been the subject of many

Table 4.1

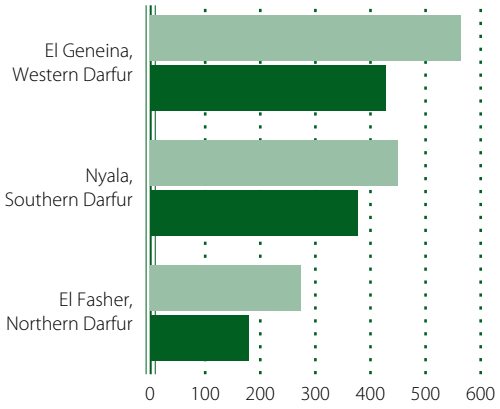
A long history of local conflict over natural resources

	Groups involved	Year	Main cause of conflict
1.	Kababish, Kawahla, Berti and Medoub	1932	Grazing and water rights
2.	Kababish, Medoub and Zyadiya	1957	Grazing and water rights
3.	Rezeigat, Baggara and Maalia	1968	Local politics of administration
4.	Beni Helba, Zyadiya and Mahriya	1976	Grazing and water rights
5.	Northern Rezeigat (Abbala) and Dago	1976	Grazing and water rights
6.	N Rezeigat (Abbala) and Bargo	1978	Grazing and water rights
7.	N Rezeigat and Gimir	1978	Grazing and water rights
8.	N Rezeigat and Fur	1980	Grazing and water rights
9.	N Rezeigat (Abbala) and Bargo	1980	Grazing and water rights
10.	Taaisha and Salamat	1980	Local politics of administration
11.	Kababish, Berti and Ziyadiya	1981	Grazing and water rights
12.	N Rezeigat and Beni Helba	1982	Grazing and water rights
13.	Kababish, Kawahla, Berti and Medoub	1982	Grazing and water rights
14.	Rezeigat and Mysseriya	1983	Grazing and water rights
15.	Kababish, Berti and Medoub	1984	Grazing and water rights
16.	Rezeigat and Mysseriya	1984	Grazing and water rights
17.	Gimir and Fallata (Fulani)	1987	Administrative boundaries
18.	Kababish, Kawahla, Berti and Medoub	1987	Grazing and water rights
19.	Fur and Bidayat	1989	Armed robberies
20.	Arab and Fur	1989	Grazing, cross-boundary politics
21.	Zaghawa and Gimir	1990	Administrative boundaries
22.	Zaghawa and Gimir	1990	Administrative boundaries
23.	Taaisha and Gimir	1990	Land
24.	Bargo and Rezeigat	1990	Grazing and water rights
25.	Zaghawa and Maalia	1991	Land
26.	Zaghawa and Marareit	1991	Grazing and water rights
27.	Zaghawa and Beni Hussein	1991	Grazing and water rights
28.	Zaghawa, Mima and Birgid	1991	Grazing and water rights
29.	Zaghawa and Birgid	1991	Grazing and water rights
30.	Zaghawa and Birgid	1991	Grazing and water rights
31.	Fur and Turgum	1991	Land
32.	Zaghawa and Arab	1994	Grazing and water rights
33.	Zaghawa Sudan and Zaghawa Chad	1994	Power and politics
34.	Masalit and Arab	1996	Grazing, administration
35.	Zaghawa and Rezeigat	1997	Local politics
36.	Kababish Arabs and Midoub	1997	Grazing and water rights
37.	Masalit and Arab	1996	Grazing, administration
38.	Zaghawa and Gimir	1999	Grazing, administration
39.	Fur and Arab	2000	Grazing, politics, armed robberies

Source: UNEP 2007.

Figure 4.1 **Declining rainfall patterns**

Average annual rainfall (millimeters)



Source: UNEP 2007, p. 60.

disputes and outbreaks of violence over decades of history (table 4.1). Armed robberies, however, and local power disputes also often overlap with the struggle over resources. What is clear is that long histories of conflicts also have long histories of resolution. Much can be drawn from these interactions to inform contemporary reconciliation efforts.

Environmental resources and land in Darfur also have come under increased pressures in recent decades. The movement of the Sahara desert up to 150 kilometers south has forced *Baggara* (cattle herders) and *Abbala* (camel herders) into greater conflict with one another as well as with settled communities.[8] Declining and more volatile rainfall patterns are also occurring (figure 4.1). These changes combine to generate the conditions for increased competition over land and resources.

The Zaghawa have a saying that "the world dies from the north," referring to the long desiccation of their desert homelands. Climatic and environmental changes have larger human impacts today than in the past, because Darfur is home to many more people. At independence in 1956, the population was 1.3 million. Today it is over 6 million.

In the Kordofan region of Sudan, an increase in temperature of 1.5 degrees centigrade between 2030 and 2060 would reduce average rainfall by 5 per cent.[9] This is projected to lead to a drop in agricultural production and a decrease in the production of maize by up to 70 per cent of recent levels. These future trends show how potential insecurity challenges may also arise.

Environmental changes and resource scarcity conflicts must be tackled in a holistic manner. Environmental degradation and ecologically sustainable rural development should be placed at the forefront

Box 4.2 **Drought as a lineage of conflict**

The 1980s drought led to famine, displacement and armed conflict on a much larger scale than in the 1970s. While differences in drought intensity affected the changes, structural shifts in social institutions and patterns of conflict mediated how these effects were managed.

Table 1

Shifts in drought management capacity and regional context…

…in the 1970s…	…to the 1980s
Agricultural food production oriented toward internal markets	Food production geared toward exports
Regional food and other reserves mitigated drought impact	Food and reserves depleted
Local traditional administration still functioning and supportive	Local traditional administration abolished
No large-scale warfare in Sudan or neighboring countries	Civil war between North and South Sudan; Chad-Libyan conflict emerged

With the onset of the 1980s drought, rural economies were more severely impacted, livestock began to die in larger numbers and livestock owners were increasingly forced to exhaust their remaining livestock. But drought and harvest failure were not the only causes of famine. Many city merchants turned away from the collapsing rural economy. Moreover, the significant lack of political contract to prevent and monitor famine between the rural Darfurian population and the Khartoum political elite contributed to the conditions for famine. At this point, rural society was ripe for dislocation, turbulence, and ultimately war.

Source: Suliman 2008.

Box 4.3

Small-scale conflicts: historical lens of local conflict in Eastern Sudan

Recent political opposition from the Beja has arisen in response to a number of factors, These include: the effects of famines, floods, and migration; flows of refugees from Eritrea and Ethiopia and internally displaced persons into the east from conflict in and around Sudan; and direct and indirect political, cultural, and economic exclusion due to interrupted education and health programs accompanying these unstable circumstances.

Because the Beja are predominantly pastoralist, competition over natural resources, chiefly land and water, is the major cause of virtually all forms of inter-group, inter-communal and intra-communal conflicts. Land use and claims to its ownership are governed by certain customary rules, the violation of which also brings about the eruption of conflict.

There are certain symbolic gestures outsiders must perform in accordance with tradition to demonstrate recognition of the right of ownership of the group or household claiming this. In the case of land being cultivated or wells used by outsiders or non-group members, the latter have to pay a small amount of produce or money to those claiming ownership of land; this is called *gudab*.

Accordingly, forms of conflict in eastern Sudan can be subdivided into three main categories:

- Inter-tribal conflicts, between Beja tribes and tribes other than Beja, principally the Rashaida.
- Inter-tribal conflicts among the Beja tribes.
- Intra-tribal conflict: conflicts that occur within the tribe between clans and lineage groups belonging to the same tribe.

With certain exceptions, these three forms of conflict are usually associated with land ownership, land use, land borders and conformity to the rules governing access to land and its use.

Peaceful coexistence between the Rashaida and Hadandawa was confirmed by an agreement between the two tribes signed in 1933. The Rashaida agreed to the following terms of the agreement:

- They recognize Hadandawa ownership of the land and water the Rashaida use and have no objection to this arrangement.
- They concede that they have access to water only from certain wells.
- They agree to graze their livestock only on certain pasturelands.
- They accept that if they are allowed to cultivate the rain-fed lands of the Hadandawa they must pay to the owner (be it a subtribe or an individual) a specified amount of money and a certain amount of produce according to custom (gudab).
- They agree to abide by the instructions of the Hadandawa tribal leaders with regard to wadi cultivation. They must obtain permission from the owner of the land, the tribal leader in the area or the deputies of the nazir.
- The Rashaida have no right to pasturage, arable land or water in times of drought.

Political parties became involved in the conflict between the Rashaida and Hadandawa, with two major parties, the Democratic Unionist Party and the Umma, aligned behind the opposing groups. The vacillation in government policy partly reflected these opposing positions. All Beja tribes fiercely resisted the creation of a Rashaida local administration and a large demonstration was planned for June 30, 1989. That same day, however, the military seized power in Khartoum, a move that eclipsed local differences for the time being. Over the following decade, local and national power politics interacted closely in the dispute as to whether nazara, the highest local authority figure, should be appointed for the Rashaida.

In 1990, the new regime partly retained the power of the traditional tribal leaders and the Rashaida administration was re-established formally established following negotiations between the government and tribal leaders. The new Rashaida administration has a structure similar to that of the *nazara*. During the period 1992-1996, however, a West Kassala Local Council for the Rashaida, with demarcated borders, started to take shape on land which is claimed by other Beja tribes including the Hadandawa and Bani Amir.

Source: Young 2007.

of peacebuilding activities in Sudan. This can entail a major awareness-raising exercise by United Nations Environmental Programme and the international community in Sudan, and will need to be incorporated into response strategies for bodies such as the African Union, the United Nations Development Group and the United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations.

Similarly, natural resource assessment and management expertise should be increasingly included into peace building and peacekeeping efforts as well. The United Nations Environment Programme or other organizations would provide technical assistance to the existing actors in this area for the south, east and Darfur, joining in the decision-making process. This should include significant direct support to governments and to both the African Union Mission to Sudan and the United Nations political missions to Sudan.[10]

The famine of 1984-1985 both accentuated and altered the social, economic and political changes happening in Darfur. Research conducted into the famine during 1985-1987 reflected the astonishing resilience and survival skills of the Darfur people.

Local conflicts

Over the course of two civil wars in Sudan (1956–1972 and 1983–2005) many of the protocol areas (Abyie, South Kordofan and Blue Nile States), the Eastern Front and Darfur, experienced multiple and parallel local conflicts. These conflicts still cast a long shadow over human security today. The 2005 Comprehensive Peace Agreement did not sufficiently address the underlying causes and dynamics of these disputes (box 4.3).[11]

Table 4.2

Human security indicators: a proposal

Dimension	Indicator	Value (%)	Average	Source
	Employment (%)	84.6		Census, 2008
Economic security	Social safety net "Zakat" for the poorest and poor (including elderly) (% total population) actually covered	20		Federal Zakat Chamber Report,2009
	Social safety net "Social security" (% total population) = 67% covered * 80% employed	64.1	*0.45*	MWSS Performance annual Report, 2010
	Inflation rate (proxy rate of change of food prices) (%)	11.2		CBS, 2009
Food security	Achievement: per capita calorie intake as % of the requirements per day	94	*0.830*	Based on CBS, 2008, measured as achievements: per capita calorie intake as % of the requirements per day
	Nourished population (%)	72		Based on Census, 2008
Health security	Percentage of population free of malaria	96	*0.875*	Blue Nile Health Project and Federal Ministry of Health, 2010.
	Health coverage as % of total population	79		Based on CBS, Census 2008
Environmental security	Access to safe water (%)	95.4	*0.839*	Census, 2008
	Access to Sanitation (%)	72.3		Census, 2008
Personal security	Probability of not being victim of a violent crime (including robbery, road accidents: deaths, injuries and damages)	98	*0.982*	Based CBS, Statistical series, 2010
Community security	Likelihood of not being an internally displaced person (%)	92	*0.461*	WFP, FAO, SHHS, UNMAO, CENSUS,IOM, 2009
	Number of soldier, police and security per person (0.00784) = 307000/39154000	0.0079		W.B, 2008, news paper 2011.
Political security	Percentage of political achievements in the following components: government stability, socioeconomic conditions, investment profile, internal conflict, external conflict, corruption, military in politics, religion in politics, law and order, ethnic tensions, democratic accountability, and bureaucracy quality.	42.8	*0.428*	The Political Risk Services (PRS) Group: International Country Risk Guide (ICRG) – researcher's dataset, 2009.
Human Security Index (weighted average)			*0.695*	

See Technical note in the annex to this report for the methodology.

4.2 Poverty, inequality, destitution: causes or symptoms?

Poverty, and political, social, and economic inequalities between regions of Sudan predispose its people to conflict. That poverty leads to grievances that ignite conflict is largely accepted wisdom in development research and theory.[12] Yet realities of many civil conflicts and outbreaks of violence have little to do with poverty and economic underdevelopment. Statistical and quantitative models of economic causes of civil conflicts may not tell the whole story and capture all these variables. Sudan's conflicts represent a challenge to the simplicity of these explanations of violence, with many factors including tribal and local struggles, politicized identity conflicts, national power sharing, and social exclusion.

Food security

Lack of food has been the source of many past and recent conflicts. Food insecurity has clearly been a factor behind outbreaks of social unrest or worse, yet conflict also has induced notable instances of food insecurity. Conflict often involves competition over control of the factors of food production, primarily land and water in Sudan. It is critical to break the vicious circle of conflict and food insecurity, especially in rural areas that tend to be poorer and more dependent on agriculture for both food and livelihoods.[13]

Food aid is the typical instrument used to limit immediate food insecurity impacts of conflict, and continues to alleviate even greater harm to innocent people in many situations of conflict. Food aid can assist in transitions to longer-term agricultural productivity growth and local market development. However, it is not likely to be possible to significantly reduce conflict in fragile and poor countries on a sustained basis without significant new investment and partnerships in key areas of agriculture and rural development.

4.3 Human security in Sudan

Formulated in the early years of the United Nations Development Programme's *Human Development Report*, the concept of human security poses salient questions to researchers and policy makers. The primary goal of human security is to place the human individual at the heart of economic policy. The United Nations Development Programme's *Human Development Report 1994* describes the conventional concerns of the language of 'security' as circumscribed by the narrow terms of 'security of territory' from external aggression or as protection of national interest. According to the human security perspective, this notion of national security ignores the unit that should be at the core of security, the human individual—sovereignty is paramount in human life, and not defined by the physical, financial or ideological borders of any specific nation-state. In the report's words, human security entails "a concern with human life and dignity."[14]

What are we to be secured from? By the report's analysis, local and global threats affect the human individual. The more localized threats can be understood in relation to the seven values of human security, summarized as threats to:

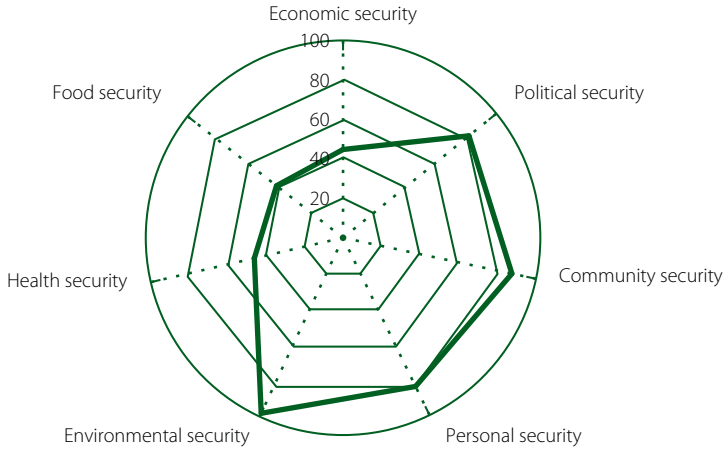
- Economic security: lack of productive and remunerative employment, precarious employment, absence of publicly financed safety nets.
- Food security: lack of food entitlements including insufficient access to assets, work, and assured incomes.
- Health security: infectious and parasitic diseases, diseases of the circulatory system and cancers, lack of safe water, air pollution, lack of access to health care.
- Environmental security: declining water availability, water pollution, declining arable land, deforestation, desertification, air pollution, natural disasters.
- Personal security: violent crime, drug trafficking, violence and abuse of children and women.
- Community security: breakdown of the family, collapse of traditional languages and cultures, ethnic discrimination and strife, genocide and ethnic cleansing.
- Political security: government repression, systematic human rights violations, militarization.

This seven-tiered layering of threats constitutes the dimensions or domains of human security: without security in one of these domains, overall security diminishes.

The 2003 Commission on Human Security Report provides an additional element to the conception of human security. It argues that human security should be seen as the inverse of human development. While human development focuses on the 'up side' of development, the pursuit and expansion of human capabilities, human security by contrast should attend to the 'negative' side of human capabilities, that is, the prevention of deprivation of human capabilities.[15]

The terrain of human security thus consists of securing and protecting human choice and freedom (human development). As such, the two ideas shape opposite sides of the same conceptual coin: without human security, the negative approach to the prevention of the erosion of human freedom, there is no human development, the positive approach to the expansion of human choice and liberty.

Figure 4.2 **Contribution of human security dimensions to the proposed human security index**



Source: based on table 4.2 in this chapter.

Human security: dimensions and measures

Human security is also defined as the liberation of human beings from those intense, extensive, prolonged, and comprehensive threats to which their lives and freedom are vulnerable.[16] As a rich, complex concept, no single set of indicators or measures of human security have come to the forefront of policy debate.

This part of the report aims to fill in this gap. Following on from the foundations and concepts of human security, we present a preliminary proposal on a human security index tailored to Sudan's context and conditions as an innovative policy tool, and to contribute to global debate on human development-related concepts and measures.

The human security index proposal is grounded in the seven dimensions of human security: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security. Each dimension is equally weighted; each indicator within a dimension is also equally weighted (table 4.2).

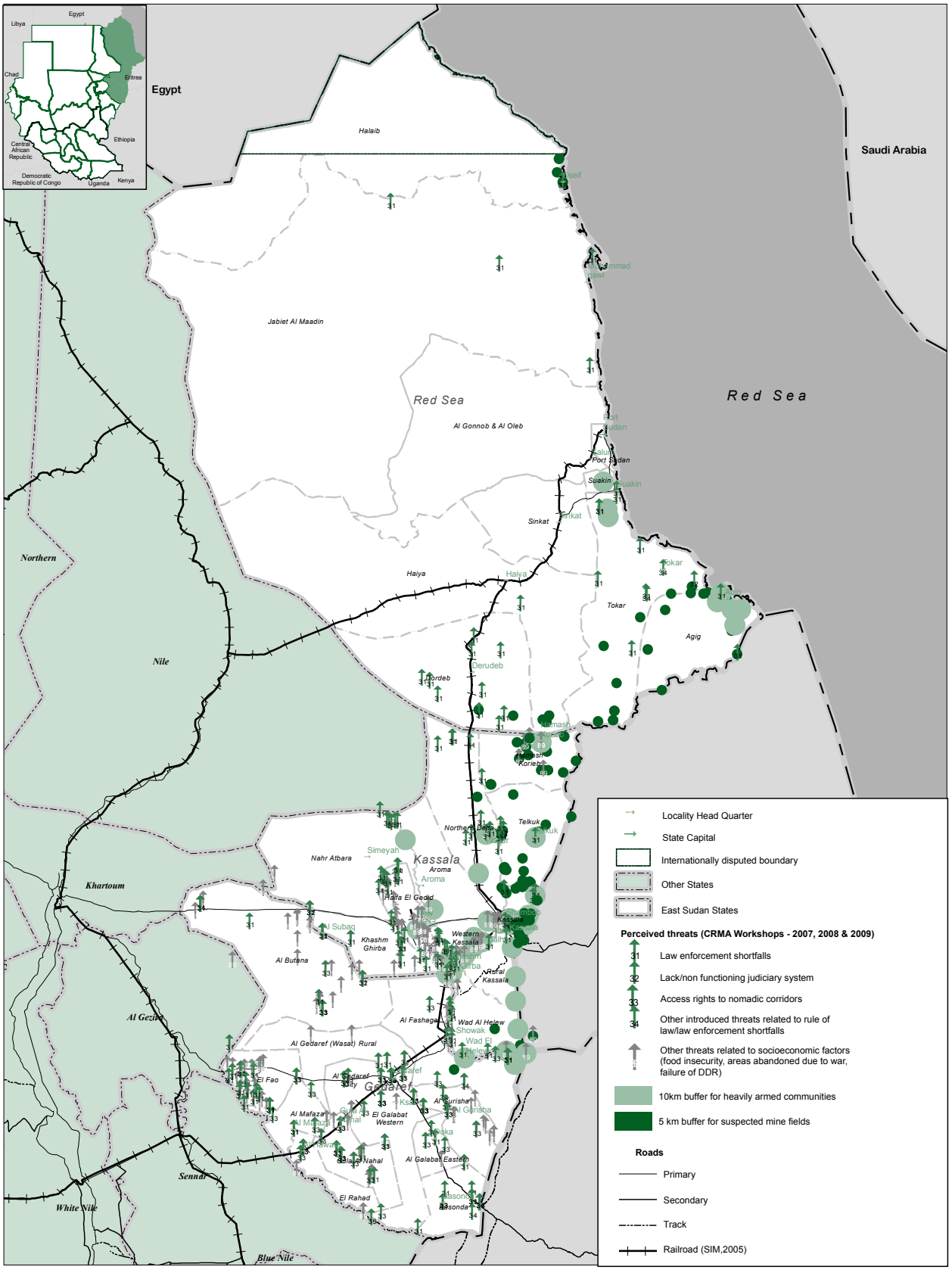
The human security index proposal for Sudan is estimated at 0.695. Six out of seven dimensions of the index represent a percentage out of the total population. However, the political security components are not representative of a share of total population. This makes interpretation of this index difficult in the absence of other countries and sub-national indexes to compare and substantiate the value of the index. The exercise, nevertheless, highlights potential ways forward in human security and policy tools methodologies.

The dimensions of human security facilitate a process of zoning in on specific elements of the index (figure 4.2). For instance, study of the lowest contributing indicator to the human security index proposal highlights the economic dimension as the weakest link in Sudan's human security. This is due to the high unemployment rate at 20 per cent and double-digit inflation. Further, and by contrast, the political security contributes only 8.82 per cent to the human security proposal, which requires more efforts to be exerted to improve the quality of institutions.

Four areas for future work on extensions and improvements of a human security index include: time horizon, data quality and availability, choice of indicators,

Map 4.1

Challenges to peace and recovery in war-affected communities of East Sudan



and spatial comparability. All data selected for the index proposal are for the period 2008-2010, meaning that the index reflects only the situation during this particular snapshot of human security in time. Some improvements and advances over recent years not reflected in the current index proposal include development of a legislative framework on human rights protection and inclusion on the national security agenda, and increased training for security forces and judicial bodies on human rights principles.

The quality and availability of data is also crucial. For instance, access to *safe* water as a percentage of total population is estimated by the 2008 census at 95.4 per cent as a national source whereas access to *improved* water is estimated at 56 per cent by the United Nations. Likewise, in the absence of any comparator regions, states or countries, it is difficult to determine meaningful interpretation of the results at this stage.

The choice of indicators highlights a general lack of quality data. Other potential indicators, if developed, could include: a measure of the disparity between members of a dominant social group and members of other social groupings, or members of minorities with respect to being a victim of violence (personal insecurity), of civil liberties and political rights or a measure of the share of the population incarcerated for political crimes (political insecurity). Other research avenues include applying the human security index proposal on regional and state levels.

Human security perceptions and challenges in Eastern Sudan

War-affected communities of Eastern Sudan confront several challenges including recovery, development, and political and economic marginalization. Relevant research presents community perceptions in the region. The result: community perceptions of rankings of chronic poverty, food insecurity and lack of access to basic services as leading obstacles in Eastern Sudan (map 4.1).

Conflicts that took place in the southern localities of Eastern Sudan pose negative costs in the area. During the second half of the 1990s, heavy fighting caused widespread forced displacement and the complete destruction of many towns and villages. Returnees face a severe lack of basic services, no viable markets and limited livelihoods opportunities. The continued presence of landmines, particularly in rural areas, has affected previously fertile agricultural lands, posing a serious threat to livestock and limiting the willingness of international actors to launch recovery and development programmes in the area.

As populations were forced to access resources beyond their local communities, the resource base along the borders experienced increased pressure and challenges to the rule of law and security of the area ensued. Another detrimental effect of the war has been severe deforestation and environmental degradation as well as the spread of mesquite and lack of sufficient water sources. These now pose a key obstacle to the rehabilitation of sustainable livelihoods in the region.

4.4 Conclusion

Sudan's conflicts hold multiple lineages across time and space. A blend of approaches is essential to promote sustainable peacebuilding. Leading explanations of Sudan's civil wars and internal conflicts tend to emphasize one aspect of the root causes over another. This poverty of understanding lends itself to unhelpful framings of the nature and scale of the peace and human development challenges.

Environmental dimensions of Sudan's conflicts, especially in the ongoing crisis in Darfur, are critical elements to address. The dynamics of climate change will likely continue to bring uncertain patterns of risk into play in Sudan—possibly the first country where climate change contributed to violence.

Poverty, inequality and low human development are factors that contribute to the cycle of violence in Sudan. The starting point of the cycle, however, remains largely indeterminate. Low levels of development act as obstacles to successful peacebuilding. Yet patterns of development that meet the needs of ordinary people can weaken the position of those who gain from the benefits of war. Widespread perceptions from diverse Sudanese highlight that peace will not be achieved unless the grievances of the marginalized and the benefits accruing from violence are addressed.

Land rights management is a cornerstone of social management and poverty reduction in agrarian states like Sudan. While Sudan needs an overall framework for land management, the adoption of localized and community-based approaches is essential.

Most international investment in peacebuilding takes place at the state level. Despite political and other constraints, there is both scope and need for local-level peacebuilding and reconciliation work and for rebuilding state-society relations through bottom-up processes. Aid strategies need to be designed to support such processes.

In Sudan, this would include providing opportunities to bring about changes through development of systems that are fairer to the poorest and most marginalized communities. It also implies that increased focus must be placed on low-intensity and local conflicts that nevertheless destabilize social and formal institutions. These struggles are often over access to land, and agricultural and pastoral resources and can establish swathes of discontent, interact with poverty and environmental scarcity dynamics and ignite or be linked into greater conflicts.

For Sudan to solve future conflict, it should not depend on government and elite agreements that have not succeeded in the past. Instead, participation of civil society and particularly local people and traditional local administrations at the level of *sheihks* and *omdas* is essential.

5

Crafting peace in fragile times

"What has been achieved in Sudan is only a partial peace. Agreements which have been signed do not achieve peace. Beloved areas in Sudan still suffer from conflicts and violence. I believe that equitable and balanced development is a top priority for achieving a sustainable settlement and peace."

Former Consultant to the Governor, State of South Kordofan, March 2011

5 CRAFTING PEACE IN FRAGILE TIMES

Throughout Sudan's history, agreement between powerful leaders and elites has been a common strategy to prevent large-scale violence. While this type of agreement establishes security for some time, violence generally recurs. From a human development lens, peace must be crafted with the key aim to further the freedoms and human security of a people. It must also deliver equitable human development dividends to all after conflict.

Human development places human beings at the centre of development and social processes. In the context of forging and implementing peace agreements, this holds two central implications: the need to fulfill process freedoms and substantive freedoms through peace.

Human development, then, sees the peace enterprise as being chiefly concerned with the objective of expanding human liberty and removing impediments to its flourishing.

People affected by insecurity, war and violence should have the freedom to be a part of the *process* of crafting peace. Forging peace in Darfur, for instance, should ensure that the affected population — not just elites and holders of public office — feel fully involved in the process. This demands establishing peace and its implementation by discussion, debate and active participation and inclusion of the many voices of the affected communities.

Peace should also be undertaken to expand the human development people enjoy, rather than simply focus on the timelines of combatant withdrawals or ceasefires. Factors such as disarmament and reintegration are crucial means to expanding freedoms but are not the only ones. If human development is what peace agreements advance, then there is a major argument for concentrating on that overarching objective, rather than on some particular means, or specially chosen list of instruments.

Human development, then, sees the peace enterprise as being chiefly concerned with the objective of expanding human liberty and removing impediments to its flourishing. Crafting peace should focus on *process* and *substantive* freedoms. This insight provides the means to assess peace: whether achievement of peace includes the free agency of people and is done by participatory processes, and whether progress on implementing peace is undertaken in terms of enhancing the freedoms that people have.

Human development does not provide a simple answer to what should shape the specific details of an agreement. But it provides the insight that whatever the specific features and timelines, peace agreements should look forward to equitable, empowered and sustainable human development.

This chapter first analyses the history of peace agreements in Sudan. It then studies the tools used to prevent conflict and brings insights from traditional conflict resolution mechanisms and lessons from other countries to bear on the challenge of averting the relapse of war. While noting the immense economic and infrastructure gains in recent years, the chapter goes on to highlight new challenges that need to be tackled for building human development and a just peace out of the ashes of conflict.

5.1 Forging agreements

Signing peace agreements is not always a sustainable strategy to end violent conflict: nearly half of all post-conflict peace agreements revert to conflict within five years.[1] Peace is thus not finalized with an agreement, and signing ceremonies often only represent the starting point of a long process. Peace, security and development are long-term endeavors that must be consistently, strategically and flexibly pursued and advanced throughout all of Sudan, its people, and over time.

Peace agreements offer a mechanism for laying the foundation for a state-building. They set out a web of rules that determine the functions of stakeholders, including the exercise of, limits to and transfer of authority, the use of force, and the allocation and regulation of resources. While often complicated due to the legacies of tensions during ceasefire or the peace signing phase, economic recovery holds a significant value for peace. And negotiations can lay a foundation for post-conflict political and economic transitions that can form the foundation for a new society.

Peace agreements in effect constitute a universe of political thought and practice. This dominant framework for pursuing peace often leads to exhausted efforts to negotiate political settlements as the only solution to violence. Words in these agreements carry enormous weight, as they bind parties to common purpose, and provide direction for the future. But as the history of peace agreements in Sudan largely shows, these efforts frequently result in the resurgence of conflict. In this context, we review recent major peace agreements in Sudan — both successful and failed — and ask how lessons from these agreements can be applied to achieve sustainable peace in Darfur.

Box 5.1

The Comprehensive Peace Agreement in Sudan

The Sudan Comprehensive Peace Agreement, consisting of a permanent ceasefire agreement, together with an agreement on implementation modalities of the Protocols and Agreements, and a cover sheet on these modalities, were agreed on December 31, 2004 and formally signed on January 9, 2005.

The Comprehensive Peace Agreement, commonly referred to as the Naivasha Agreement, was signed on January 9, 2005 by the Government of Sudan and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army. The agreement marked the end of the two-decade-long Second Sudanese Civil War. The bilateral accord outlined a six-year interim period to settle disputes over resources, power, the role of religion, and southern self-determination that have persisted since Sudanese independence. The interim period was designed to make unity attractive to the parties, culminating in a democratic national election and referendum on self-determination for the people of southern Sudan.

The Naivasha Agreement outlined comprehensive security, wealth-sharing, and power-sharing provisions while addressing the status of oil-rich Abyei, Southern Kordofan and Blue Nile. The parties agreed to form a Government of National Unity and to establish a semi-autonomous Government of Southern Sudan. They also committed to reconfiguring the distribution of national wealth, particularly petroleum revenue. To build trust between the parties and guarantee stability, both sides agreed to the cessation of hostilities and to the reorganization and redeployment of the armed forces.

Source: Comprehensive Peace Agreement 2005.

Comprehensive Peace Agreement

Since signing the peace agreement, there has been no return to large-scale armed conflict between the Government of Sudan and the Government of South Sudan (see box 5.1). The referendum on South Sudan's independence also took place in a peaceful manner in January 2011 as agreed. Yet, some difficulties with implementation have been continuous, including a lack of wealth-sharing transparency, inconsistent national census, and disputed national and state election results in 2010. Moreover, as of the time of writing in April 2011, the parties have yet to agree on a recognized north-south border or the status of the transitional protocol areas.

The internal commitments of the involved parties matched with international monitoring systems figure as the key reasons for the CPA success. The enhanced political will to address crucial issues such as the right of self-determination of South Sudan created a climate conducive for the parties to cooperate. Moreover, the international presence including Arab League support, Intergovernmental Authority on Development oversight, donor country involvement, the presence of United Nations agencies, senior African leaders and non-governmental organizations each played significant roles in the CPA's ongoing success in ending large-scale conflict.

Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement

Eastern Sudan, comprising the three states of Kassala, Red Sea, and Gedarif, holds some of the most marginalized regions in Sudan. The extent of eastern Sudan marginalization led to the creation of the Beja Congress, an armed and political movement, in 1958 and the development of low-intensity conflict in 1997. In 2005, the Beja Congress joined forces with Rashaida Free Lions, a rebel group, and other small groups to form the Eastern Front.

A peace agreement between the Eastern Front and the Government of Sudan was signed in October 2006 to end the fighting. Yet the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement represented to many more than an agreement to stop fighting. The rights conferred on the region's inhabitants were viewed as a prime example of this. Equality before the law and freedom of movement and religion were strongly emphasized in the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement. Others noted the value of the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement in recognizing the grievances voiced by the eastern population.

The Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement can be considered a blueprint for regional development—an opportunity to overcome human poverty and social exclusion. The main components of the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement — power sharing, wealth sharing, and security guarantees — were among the first steps in ending Eastern Sudan's human insecurity.

A key aspect of the power-sharing arrangements in the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement is the nomination of representatives from the Eastern Front to serve at various levels of national, state and local governments. This signified the unity of the eastern rebel leaders. Moreover, the creation of a development fund was a visible tool to address the core economic and political marginalization of eastern Sudan (see box 5.2). Therefore, the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement is taken as a development tool for East Sudan.

Additionally, the implementation of the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement's security arrangements has made the most progress of all provisions. Former combatants with the Eastern Front are in designated camps in eastern Sudan, where they are being registered as part of the disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration process. Within this overall framework, the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement commits the Government of Sudan and the Eastern Front to organize a Consultative Conference on the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement in order to disseminate information on and galvanize support for the agreement, promote its implementation and provide a forum for discussion among stakeholders.[2]

Box 5.2

Financing reconstruction and development in Eastern Sudan

One of the major outcomes of the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement was the establishment of Eastern Sudan Reconstruction and Development Fund. The fund is to disburse its resources over a five-year period, focusing on services provisions, institutional capacities and human resources development, paying particular attention to war-affected areas and internally displace people. Established in 2007, the Eastern Sudan Reconstruction and Development Fund aims to deliver annual allocations of $125 million until 2011, to a total of $600 million. A December 2010 International Donors and Investors Conference on East Sudan held in Kuwait also achieved pledges of $3 billion from 42 countries.

The Eastern Sudan Reconstruction and Development Fund would be managed by a committee headed by the Ministry of Finance and National Economy and staffed by the governors of the states of eastern Sudan and Eastern Front representatives as well as two national experts appointed by the president. This central-state governing mechanism is anticipated to develop fresh insights into the development needs of the eastern Sudanese people.

A potential tool from a conflict-affected country that holds potential appeal to the formation and implementation of reconstruction and development strategies in eastern Sudan and elsewhere is Afghanistan's National Solidarity Program. Created by former Finance Minister Ashraf Ghani and touted as the "largest people's project" in Afghan history, the National Solidarity Program aims to support Afghan communities in identifying, planning, managing and monitoring their own development projects. The core mechanism is that communities organize themselves to govern the finance received from the government—determining development investing needs and monitoring expenditures.

While some limitations must be overcome, including negotiating local power-sharing, enhancing women's participation, and the cross-community need to plan projects such as upstream and downstream irrigation canals, the National Solidarity Program provides a powerful alternative for community-led and accountable development. It is also, moreover, a major lesson arising from a recent conflict-affected society in the global south.

Source: Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement 2006; UNDP 2010; Ghani and Lockhart 2008; National Solidarity Program; Kakar 2005

The Eastern Sudan States Coordinating Council is a body established by the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement signed by the Government of Sudan and the rebel Eastern Front in June 2006. It seeks to enhance cooperation between the three eastern states of the Republic of Sudan; Kassala, Red Sea and Gadarif. The agreement also established an Eastern Sudan Reconstruction and Development Fund to support wealth-sharing between the central government and the three states. It requires the President of Sudan to appoint one Assistant to the President from nominees presented by the Eastern Front.

Table 5.1

Satisfaction with the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	43	71.7
No	17	28.3
Total	60	100.0

Source: Assal and Ali 2007, p. 6.

Although many launched the creation of the development fund, there were concerns that it would be insufficient, used improperly, or exclude input from local communities and councils. To ensure effective use of the funds, some supported the adoption of a development map for eastern Sudan to identify priorities in the region. In addition, others advocated the participation of all stakeholders, in particular local and communities, in determining priorities.

A 60-person, non-representative survey in Gedaref in April 2007 highlighted that most respondents (72 per cent) were overall satisfied with the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement (table 5.1). The majority of respondents stated that they were satisfied because the agreement brought an end to the conflict in eastern Sudan and served as a step towards preserving the rights of marginalized groups, particularly in relation to power- and wealth-sharing. Others were satisfied that, if implemented smoothly, the agreement would help eliminate tribalism and racism, and create a space for development and rebuilding Sudan. If these findings hold true for broader population opinion, then they are salient indications of how the Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement largely continues to shape peace in the east.

The Eastern Sudan Peace Agreement illustrates a development solution for the cessation of violence. These twin lessons can be applied to establishing peace in Darfur.

The Darfur Peace Agreement

The Darfur Peace Agreement was signed in Abuja, Nigeria, on 5 May 2006, by the Government of Sudan and one rebel group, the Sudan Liberation Army. Notably, the two other main rebel groups at the time, the Sudan Liberation Army and the Justice and Equality Movement, rejected the agreement. Modeled in part after the Comprehensive Peace Agreement, the Darfur Peace Agreement focused on issues of power-sharing, wealth-sharing and security.

Two key features continue to hamper Darfur peace efforts. First is the rebel groups' disharmony and political splintering. Second is the overwhelming lack of community involvement and participation. Each of these challenges at its root recycle the fundamental causes for grievances—injustice, underdevelopment and lack of human choice and security.

A representative survey of 1,872 adult civilians in all 12 Darfurian refugee camps in eastern Chad found that respondents believed disarmament and the provision of security were the most important conditions for peace in Darfur.[3] Two thirds of refugees stated that they had previously heard of the Darfur Peace Agreement. The vast majority believed that the Darfur Peace Agreement was very unfair, citing insufficient security and disarmament most frequently as the agreement's greatest weakness. The lack of justice and inadequate compensation of victims were also strongly noted.

Peacekeeping—a necessary force?

Peacekeeping rose with the establishment of the United Nations after the Second World War. Since the end of the cold war, it has evolved rapidly from a primarily military model of observing ceasefires after interstate wars, to incorporate a complex model of military and civilian actors working together to build peace in the aftermath of civil conflict.

Peacekeeping at its core can be viewed as the "deployment of international personnel to help maintain peace and security in the aftermath of war."[4] This definition includes the deployment of traditional peacekeeping forces, as well as military observers, peace enforcement missions and multidimensional peacekeeping operations. While peacekeeping is largely a role of outsiders to a conflict, requiring the collaboration of many stakeholders, it is the affected people's participation that sustains the peace.

International peacekeeping remains subject to some considerable debate in terms of its success. Several post-Cold War interventions in 'peacekeeping' or 'peace enforcement' amounted to what can be labeled as 'war-making' — as the use of force was threatened to enforce disarmament or no-fly zones. In many of these instances, peacekeeping proved ineffective, most tragically exemplified by the Rwandan genocide. However, other operations such as in Timor-Leste were more successful in fostering peace through consent, peace-making negotiations and active implementation of peace agreements.[5]

In this context, clearly tracking evidence and introducing rigor into assessments of the peacekeeping situation in Darfur holds much potential to advance cases of 'success' over those of 'failure.' Evidenced-based peacekeeping, thus, should become a key priority for maintaining information on violent incidents, data on sexual violence and other conflict-related indicators.[6] This can offer a significant measure for maintaining effective peacekeeping in Sudan.

5.2 Preventing conflict relapse

Many organizations and individuals work to prevent the outbreak of armed conflict, or to prevent it from spreading once an outbreak was unavoidable. Several strategies for preventing war and conflict exist.

Some build their hopes on common security and disarmament perspectives. Others believe outside actors can oversee the implementation of peace agreements and monitor hostilities. Still others focus on expanding development, civil society and social movements as the key to conflict prevention. The likelihood is that all of these efforts are needed to stem the outbreak of violence. As former UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan noted: "The aim [of conflict prevention] must be to create a synergy with those civil society groups that are bridge-builders, truth-finders, watchdogs, human rights defenders, and agents of social protection and economic revitalization."[7]

Box 5.3

Darfur peace talks must focus on process and aims of human development

The Government of Qatar-hosted peace talks commenced in Doha in February 2009 between the Government of Sudan and the Justice and Equality Movement. The talks are still ongoing and mediated by the African Union/United Nations Joint Mediation Support Team. The Justice and Equality Movement withdrew from negotiations in March 2009.

Negotiations between the Justice and Equality Movement and the government restarted nearly a year later with the signing of a framework agreement in February 2010 that pledged power- and wealth-sharing, restitution for victims, a two-month ceasefire and the release of Justice and Equality Movement prisoners. However, talks yielded no significant results by the deadline set before the national elections. In early 2010, negotiations commenced between the newly formed Liberation and Justice Movement and the Government of Sudan and ran parallel to Justice and Equality Movement negotiations in Doha. As of June 2010, the Justice and Equality Movement had withdrawn from all negotiations.

According to the focus group discussions held for this Sudan *Human Development Report*, very few of the interviewed Darfurian refugees thought the Doha negotiations would result in peace. The mediation and successful implementation of a just peace agreement, however, offers hope for breaking long-standing cycles of violence that haunt many war-inflicted communities in Darfur. But one central caveat must be fulfilled: the talks must focus on both the process and the aims of human development.

Furthering peace dialogue in Darfur should be founded on the expansion of human choice and social and political inclusion. This means that the process should include clear consultative meetings and means of actively engaging the participation of Darfurians in the design of a peace agreement. Further, the peace process should maintain as its key aims the facilitation of human development freedoms for all in Darfur, with special focus on the most disadvantaged. At its heart, the process must emphasize the human development of the people who the peace is meant to serve: Darfurians themselves.

Source: Flint 2010; Focus Group Discussions, March 2011.

Table 5.2

Demobilization, disarmament, and reintegration funding requirements

Contributor	Value (US$)
Multi-Year Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Programme budget	430,143,959
Government contribution	45,000,000
United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations assessed budget	99,000,000
World Food Programme	36,000,000
United Nation's Children Fund	30,000,000
Total voluntary donor contribution	385,143,959

Source: Government of National Unity 2008.

Disarmament, demobilization, reintegration

Demobilization process and reinsertion benefits alone are estimated at US$ 135 million.[8] The budget for the reintegration component is a further US$ 430 million. The Government of National Unity agreed to contribute US$ 45 million, leaving donors to provide US$ 385 million (table 5.2).

The demobilization and disarmament process was officially launched in Sudan in February 2009. Within a

Box 5.4

Peacekeeping cross-country lessons: Angola, Mozambique, Sierra Leone

Several peacekeeping experiences from recent African countries can provide useful insights and analysis into the Sudanese peace context. Angola, Mozambique and Sierra Leone highlight some of these important lessons.

Angola: including women's participation
Angola holds at least one critical lesson for Sudan from an earlier failed peace process. While the 1994 Lusaka Protocol offered the promise of peace, the country soon fell back into conflict. One key factor in this was the exclusion of gender-related provisions. Without the involvement of women in the peace delegation, internal displacement, sexual and physical abuses by rebel and Angolan security forces, maternal health, and girls' education were given insufficient attention. While ex-combatants received the lion's share of attention, resources to assist the thousands of women affected by violence remained missing. This lesson should be applied to Darfur and broader peace contexts where efforts should be made to ensure women's participation in the crafting of peace.

Mozambique—clearing landmines and rebel integration
Two central takeaway lessons from Mozambique can be grafted to Sudan's challenges: clearing landmines and including rebels into formal governance.

Sudan is believed to contain the third highest amount of landmines in Africa, ranking just below Angola and Mozambique. Given the length of the conflict in Sudan, several organizations have already begun efforts to clear the land in Red Sea, South Kordofan, Blue Nile, and Kassala states. As in Mozambique, donor organizations should consider reinforcing the work of the Landmines Commission in Southern Sudan and the UN Mine Action Office, and avoid duplicating the work with new initiatives. The government should consider using landmine clearing as a means to employ citizens.

Perhaps the central lesson to draw from the Mozambican peacebuilding process is the importance of incorporating a rebel movement into a political party. Although the success of a rebel group's transition is largely attributed to the cooperation of its leaders in the process, policymakers and analysts should look for ways to ensure powerful insurgent groups are given a voice in the political process in order to build a lasting peace.

Sierra Leone—peacekeeping and United Nations deployment
Among the most relevant post-conflict experiences for Sudan is that of Sierra Leone. One key lesson is to avoid the use of poorly equipped peacekeeping troops donated by neighbouring and foreign countries. Another trap to avoid is that of insufficient funds: the UN had difficulties locating the funds needed to support a successful plan. The rebel forces seized on this to announce that disarmament, demobilization and reintegration incentives would be insufficient for soldiers—complicating the post-conflict context.

Lack of initial interest from major powers hindered the peacebuilding process, as the humanitarian and security situation in Sierra Leone deteriorated while the world's attention focused elsewhere (on late 1990s Kosovo). Moreover, the UN peacekeeping mission proceeded under 'best-case scenario assumptions.' It assumed the Revolutionary United Front would comply with the peace agreement. When the Revolutionary United Front reneged on the agreement and resumed fighting three years later, peacekeeping forces were unprepared.

Sierra Leone was the first attempt to bridge the gap between peace and development by means of an integrated mission. The experience of appointing the Resident Coordinator as the Deputy Special Representative of the Secretary-General, supported by an integrated task force at United Nations Headquarters, allowed the development community to work closely with peacekeepers in a mutually supportive fashion; this helped to strengthen coherence and coordination in dealing with transition issues and those relating to the reconstruction of the country.

Sierra Leone also offers some lessons with regard to the cooperation between the United Nations and a regional organization. While a peacekeeping force of 17,500 provided stability in the country, the Special Representative of the Secretary-General, together with the Government of Sierra Leone and Economic Community of West African States, helped to promote political reconciliation, including by supporting the transformation of the Revolutionary United Front into a political party. This integrated approach has now been replicated in Angola, Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire and Liberia.

Source: Moseley 2011; United Nations 2004, p.p. 8-9; Steinberg 2007.

period of roughly two years, a total of 38,440 former combatants have been demobilized, leaving nearly 60,000 left to be included into the program (table 5.3).

Upon demobilization, sustainable livelihood support is offered to ex-combatants to help them reintegrate into their communities as civilians. While ex-combatants from Sudan's Armed Forces are eligible for pension support, such assistance is not yet provided for Sudan People's Liberation Army veterans. International professionals organize and deliver training packages covering a wide array of sectors, from agriculture and animal husbandry to vocational skills, small business ownership and formal education skills, if needed. The training may also include some elements of formal education, if required, such as literacy and numeracy courses. A total of nearly 7,647 ex-combatants completed reintegration training in Sudan through January 2011 (table 5.4).

Key challenges

A number of factors limit the ability of local communities to absorb ex-combatants and women associated with armed forces in Sudan. Moreover, these communities were also often severely impact by war itself. As the longest-running war in Africa, the civil war damaged social ties, at times leveled complete villages and killed or displaced combatants' families.

Former combatants who joined as children or young men and women also did not achieve an adult status in their communities or sacrificed their education to join the war efforts. Returning to a traditional village also presents former combatants with the challenge of adapting their potentially alien habits and ideas gained from outside their home communities.

Demobilization, disarmament and reintegration programmes reflect a new idea in the global peace and development debate. Many of those who work on demobilization, disarmament and reintegration programs in Sudan transported concepts and strategies from Afghanistan and elsewhere. But there is significant lack of evidence that demobilization, disarmament and reintegration strategies are truly effective—as the persisting crisis in Afghanistan suggests. Yet in Sudan, we can hope that the results of demobilization, disarmament and reintegration prove more beneficial than only providing a new data point for assessing this approach as a peace program.

Meeting the challenges

Improving content, quality and timing of training packages is also a key step forward. Reintegration should establish fixed standards in terms of length and content and begin training in early stages, right after demobilization and not only at the reintegration stage. Psychosocial and counseling services are also critical to provide as needed by ex-combatants. Ensuring equity in who gets disarmed and who receives DDR services is also

essential. When some groups are disarmed and others are not, renewed violence can occur.

The case for development as conflict prevention

Research demonstrates that civil society plays different roles in various transition phases. Its success is contingent on a variety of factors, among them its strength and capacity to fulfill the right functions at the right time, the incorporation of democratic procedures in its own structure and organization, especially after immediate system change, the extent of bridging societal divides by inclusive membership as well as the 'civility' of its actions.

This must be seen within the context of other factors and power structures civil society has to interact. Civil society also receives support during or in the immediate aftermath of armed conflict. This has to take into consideration that armed conflict dramatically changes the life of all people at all levels, from individual changes in attitudes and behavior (trust and confidence) over economic and social change, to ultimate shifts of power relations in communities, regions and the society as a whole.

This also changes the enabling environment for civil society (security, legal situation and law enforcement), basic issues and actors. It is almost self-evident that "civil society tends to shrink in a war situation, as the space for popular, voluntary and independent organizing diminishes." Civil society can play different roles. The most important are protection of citizens, monitoring for accountability, socialization, building community, intermediation and facilitation between citizens and state.

Local conflict resolution mechanisms

Focus on reconciliation rather than punishment

Traditional principles of conflict resolution in many parts of Sudan aim to maintain and enhance social and public order through customary law rather than promoting formal justice mechanisms, statutory law and the overall modern rule of law system. Many communities and localities rely on a resolution process to a conflict rather than a legal, punitive settlement. The traditional principles pay attention to group unity, to reconciling the conflicted individuals or groups and to their peaceful reintegration into the community.

Cultural traditions, practices and signs of reconciliation

Reconciled groups usually abandon their old conflicts and live together in an environment of mutual respect. Tolerance plays an important role in social reconciliation and conflict preventions with many symbols and practices that demonstrate the desire of parties to move past their grievances. Some communities, for example, come together with shrubs of grass or olive wreaths as a sign of peacemaking and coexistence. Although they were conflicting parties, they show signs and willingness for reconciliation as performed by elders' interventions. In Metekkel, a vast low-lying territory north of the Blue Nile River on the Ethiopia-Sudan border, the Gumuz and other highland communities use various symbols of reconciliation to resolve differences.

Table 5.3

Status of demobilization, 23 January 2011

Demobilization site	Total anticipated caseload	Total demobilization to date
North of Sudan	52,629	27,418

Source: Nicholas 2011, p.27.

Table 5.4

Reintegration program, 23 January 2011

	Total Mobilization	Total who have registered or currently on training	Total who have completed reintegration training
Sudan	27,418	8,115	7,647

Source: Nicholas 2011, p.34.

Local council mechanisms

The Nuba people in northern Sudan practice different reconciliation systems. For arbitrations they use the Ajaweed council — a reconciliation council of elders. The council arbitrates the society at a family level, household level, clan level and ethnic group level. It is therefore an important reconciliation process at the grassroots level. The council members would bring the conflicting parties together to reach a fair settlement and reconciliation. What is interesting in the traditional Sudanese principles of conflict resolution is that the conflicting parties are given equal rights to present their cases. Religious councils in some cases also participate in the mediation process.

In the Nuba Mountains, if the Ajaweed councils fail to resolve an issue, it is passed on to the Muslim Sheikh council. Muslim traditional resolution systems have different stages of development until finally the Amir looks into the case. However, conflicts are usually resolved at the Ajaweed council without a need to forward them to the Amir. For each of the various causes of conflicts, there are various mechanisms of resolution in many African counties. Among the Nuba, in the case of murder conflicts, there is a *dia* mechanism where the relatives of the murderer are required to pay blood money. Once again the elders arbitrate the conflicting groups and set the fines, usually payment of a limited number of cows. This ends the conflict.[9]

Community parties involved in the conflict are reconciled to maintain social cohesion, and a culture of vendetta is avoided. The symbolic rituals and environments in which these traditional principles are performed could vary from one ethnic group to another, but the central idea is to end conflicts and introduce an environment of respect.

Dialogue with established local authorities and tribal leaders has to be established to redefine the roles of civil society, community-based organizations, traditional leaders and their institutions, for the establishment of confidence between the partners, institutions and stakeholders in conflict resolution. Careful consultation is also needed when formulating a land policy. Finding settlement locations for returning refugees and securing grazing rights for pastoralists are all crucial for peacebuilding in Sudan.

5.3 Beyond liberal peace: from war to human development

One of the key challenges confronting Sudan is the creation and maintenance of a system of governance that promotes and sustains human development — especially for the poorest and most marginalized individuals and families. Governance can be seen as the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels. It comprises the mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate differences.

The central global peacebuilding perspective focuses on what can be called building a 'liberal peace.' Liberal peace embraces democracy, human rights, market liberalization and the integration of societies into globalization, self-determination, and the idea of the state and citizenship. Most recent internationally sponsored peace processes are informed by these values, assumed to be constitutive of modern, stable societies. These are widely shared values and indeed inform the core of the modern state and global order. But the agenda of liberal peace has produced at best equivocal success in international peace processes. Moreover, the implementation of the liberal peace agenda raises several challenges and questions in especially fragile, low human development countries.

Pace and sequencing are chief among them. The process of political and economic liberalization is inherently disorderly. Where fundamental levels of social trust remain ruptured, forging too quickly into globalization-led patterns of economic growth force a young or fragile nation's goods and services to compete with the likely more highly refined exports of neighbours or more developed economies. Internally, this can exacerbate social tensions and undermine the prospects for stable peace in the fragile conditions that typically exist in countries emerging from civil war. Defining democracy by the measure of votes and multi-party elections can lead to holding elections before transparent and open democratic institutions are established that can manage the procedure. The set of liberal values are desired — the form of implementation of the agenda, however, should come under closer scrutiny for Sudan as it remains affected by violence and fragility.

The challenges of the liberal peace agenda also questions with renewed emphasis whether governments and the governed can effectively develop and use the architecture of the state and the workings of institutions to establish enduring peace. Institutions are only effective to the extent that they are known, understood, accepted, implemented and habituated.

Critical to an institution's value is its legitimacy, which can be enhanced through the participatory process for its creation, the representativeness of its procedures, and the effectiveness of its outcomes. When citizens feel ownership over an institution, when it effectively connects to their historical and cultural past, and when it brings them tangible benefits, they value it more and are more likely to perceive it as legitimate.[10] In this way, an institution's strength is based on the value it provides through its functioning and through the relationships it sustains. As a result, institutions can also strengthen a nation's social fabric by fostering effective inter-communal and state-society relations.

Building peace

Peacebuilding can be located within a larger security and development framework, and plays a vital role in resolving multi-layered, highly localized conflicts. Relying on military solutions and security forces to contain violence has proven largely ineffective and leads to high peacemaking costs if root causes remain unresolved.[11] In addition to enhancing security, peacebuilding also supports development. Quality conflict management institutions are clear determinants of steady economic growth.[12] Effective management of intra- and cross-ethnic groups and relationships can also contribute to underdevelopment and low economic growth.[13] Peacemaking institutions are thus critical to making progress in furthering peace, security and development in Sudan.

Peacebuilding includes but is not limited to a long list of activities bordering reconstruction, development and security functions: reintegrating former combatants into civilian society, strengthening the rule of law, training and restructuring local police, judicial and penal reform; improving respect for human rights through the monitoring, education and investigation of past and existing abuses; providing technical assistance for democratic development; and promoting conflict resolution and reconciliation. Essential complements to effective peacebuilding include anticorruption practices, demining programs, and action against infectious

diseases including those commonly spread during war, such as HIV/AIDS.[14]

Focusing on national agreements and procedures should not overlook the consequences of local dimensions of violence — allowing local conflicts to persist can lead to renewed violence at the local level that in turn can resume civil wars.[15] If past grievances and outstanding issues go unresolved, social cleavages will remain in the form of latent conflicts waiting to be provoked by natural or manmade events. This has been repeatedly evident in Darfur. The drying of the desert in northern Darfur led to changes in nomadic patterns and made resources scarcer, creating conditions for conflict.[16] Similarly, droughts in the 1970s provoked violent conflict between the Miseriyya and Dinka in Abyei.

Localized peacebuilding institutions should be created that can help heal issues of the past through reconciliation, negotiate contemporary issues including land ownership, grazing rights, and political power, and foster inter-communal culture and systematic processes for resolving issues and making future decisions. But to move beyond local results to national results, more such peace settlements will be needed wherever historical grievances, aggravating incidents, and core issues persist.

Reintegrating internally displaced

In the months before and after the January 2011 referendum, informal and formal returns of both refugees and internally displaced people to and within Sudan increased significantly. The Government of Sudan and international agencies shifted their focus to the reintegration of returnees (who mostly moved to their areas of origin in southern Sudan from Khartoum and other areas in northern Sudan). Challenges in expanding access to clean water, primary health care and education, micro-credit schemes and jobs limit these efforts.

Livelihood opportunities for returnees and receiving communities remain focused on subsistence agriculture and small commerce, which fail to guarantee adequate food. Unable to find work or secure food, many choose to return back to where they were displaced or drift towards urban areas. A holistic reintegration strategy and accompanying resources are urgently needed to help the millions of people who have returned to rebuild their lives, obtain basic services and access livelihoods.

Enable women to participate in reintegration

Increasing access to basic services will help expand women's ability to participate in reintegration. Without water points, health care, and educational services, the burden of their traditional role in the household and their overall vulnerability increase tremendously. Payment for childbirth services can be out of reach for many women and families. Current levels of service provision limit women from fully participating in social, economic and political reintegration. Moreover, vocational training programs that are available mainly in urban areas fail to take into account limitations on women's time and freedom of movement, and so often remain inaccessible to women in practice.

There have been advances at the policy level for women in Sudan, but funding is needed to implement new policies. A gender policy has been passed by Parliament, a Standard Operating Procedures framework on gender-based violence has been developed, and women and children's desks are being set up in police stations.

"Involving local community members, particularly women, in peace process would assist in ending conflict and achieving sustainable peace."

—Internally displaced woman, West Darfur, April 2011[17]

Customary law, tribal structures and modernity

Question of rule of law and legal pluralism

The notion of one state, one law, evolved from legal pluralism as a means to secure power and authority as states extended their authority over vast territories. But it is not natural; rather it is a socially constructed, accepted norm: "Any socially pluralistic society inevitably contains elements of legal pluralism that results from development and enforcement of locally accepted norms."[18] The sanctification of authoritarian chiefs as sole native authority, a version that negates the multitude and complexity of pre-colonial authorities, is but one example of this selective interpretation of traditional law. The creation and codification of ethnic/racial cleavages meant that "indignity becomes the litmus test for rights under post-colonial states" — a legacy that continues to inhibit social development in Africa today.[19]

Legal pluralism has recently drawn significant attention. The inability to successfully impose transplanted legal monism has led development experts and academics to seriously re-evaluate the viability of legal pluralism as a stand-alone alternative. A major argument for legal plurality is that it already exists and, in most areas, functions well. This is of particular value in emerging states. In these areas, customary law can be leveraged to successfully complement and effectively extend state authority to the front line, especially when state resources are insufficient to extend the legal system. Devolving authority to the local level not only relieves the state of a heavy administrative burden but

also legitimizes it in the eyes of its constituents. By accepting and building on customary law structures, the state can greatly enhance its power and legitimacy by taking advantage of the greater popular legitimacy of customary law.

Before embracing legal pluralism, states must commit to a systematic review of customary codes to understand their content and whose interests they represent. The purpose of this is twofold. On the one hand, states must identify traditional norms that violate universal state and international rights; and on the other they must acquire a deep appreciation for the constructs that give rise to cultural norms. Understanding why these norms and ideas exist can help to set about reforming them. The choice to recognize non-state legal systems must be a rational and not a moral decision. This means avoiding the temptation to classify all legal codes that fall outside of the formal state system as traditional and recognizing the role power and interest play in the quest for recognition.

Several recent examples illustrate the benefits — and challenges — of legal pluralism in post-conflict contexts.

Mozambique

In October 1992, the Mozambique government and the Resistencia Nacional Mozambicana signed a peace agreement that effectively ended a civil war that had lasted 17 years since Mozambique gained its independence from Portugal. Signatories agreed on a ceasefire, disarmament and demobilization, and multiparty elections. Missing from the plan was a policy to address the abuses and crimes perpetrated during the civil war. The 'forgive and forget' mantra was made official only 10 days after the agreement was signed, when the Mozambican government promulgated a law that granted amnesty for crimes committed between 1979 and 1992. This policy of denial received no major public criticism or demands for criminal justice.

With no state-orchestrated steps to foster reconciliation or hold anyone accountable, some communities used their own sociocultural methods for post-conflict healing. A traditional healing practice, magamba, confronted war-related wounds in a holistic way that went beyond healing and into the realm of restorative justice.

Reintegration of former war combatants alongside an internal transitional justice mechanism was enough for Mozambique to sustain peace on the ground. Instead of international indictments and tribunals, assistance in peacebuilding came in the form of the United Nations Operation in Mozambique, whose primary objectives were to restore order and provide humanitarian assistance after the agreement was signed. Mozambique's transition out of civil war was largely successful and correlated with a complete lack of criminal justice. These decisions resulted in both a peaceful transition and local traditions taking the place of a reconciliatory process for a significant number of victims.

Rwanda

The initial response to the Rwandan genocide by the international community and the Rwanda Patriotic Front was criminal justice in the form of the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, established through a United Nations Security Council Resolution, unlike the restorative approach taken in South Africa with the Truth and Reconciliation Commission.

Many Rwandans have criticized the tribunal as being inefficient, time-consuming, expensive, and at odds with Rwandan customs. Having grown considerably since its inception in 1996, the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda's biennial budget for 2010-2011 was $245,295,800, yet it completed only 30 cases, seven of which were guilty pleas. It is no surprise that this tribunal has been viewed in a negative light based on the staggering costs and low number of judgments issued when so many other pressing needs exist in a country where over 60 per cent of individuals live in poverty.

In addition to the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, the Rwandan people turned inward to confront the aftermath of genocide by installing traditional *gacaca* courts to prosecute perpetrators. The widespread emergence of these customary institutions took the place of an incapacitated state justice system. While *gacaca's* origins emphasized both restorative and retributive tendencies, the *gacaca* activities following the genocide sought prosecution and punishment, aligned with the national agenda to end a culture of impunity. Although this internally driven process valued accountability and truth, it diverged from its traditional origins of reconciliation between families and individuals. Retributive justice reigned internally while millions of Hutu refugees who had fled after the Rwanda Patriotic Front took power faced continual violence and deplorable living conditions in refugee camps in neighbouring countries.

While there are several different conclusions that can be made based on the outcomes of Rwanda's transitional justice model, policy makers, academics, and lawyers must acknowledge that although mass violence did not destabilize a fragile state in the aftermath of 1994, proxy conflicts and spillover atrocities have been well documented in the greater region between Tutsi and Hutu groups.

For the victims of Darfur violence and the political leaders involved in peace talks, the priorities of peace generally centre on power sharing, security, economic stability, and political and civil rights. While negotiations over power sharing and land reforms highlighted much of the focus of the peace talks in Doha, issues of justice and reconciliation must not be overlooked. Potential disagreements over justice issues present significant roadblocks for the peace process and re-emphasize the need to address justice in mapping out a plan for the future.

While truth commissions may have yielded some positive results in South Africa, there is no reliable

evidence that they will be successful in a Darfurian context. If these commissions do surface, it will be imperative that they are constructed internally with the input of all parties affected by the conflict, so that stakeholders take on responsibility and ownership of all reconciliation efforts.

Improvements to the way aid agencies engage their constituents can also lead to better results for peacebuilding. A new challenge is the way in which security concerns have forced aid organizations, donors and UN agencies to retreat behind fortified compounds (box 5.5). Changes in how aid agencies collect knowledge and interact with their constituents can itself go a long distance towards better lessons for peacebuilding.

5.4 Conclusion

The international community can play an important role in supporting the people of Sudan to promote national reconciliation, as well as lasting peace and stability, and to build a nation with high human development. At the same time, there are roles for outsiders to play in most conflict situations. A neutral mediator can effectively bring conflicting parties together to initiate a dialogue process. A mediator from outside the conflict may be able to gain the trust, respect and confidence of the parties sufficiently to get them to sit down and start thinking about solutions.

To support implementation of agreements, outside actors can perform numerous tasks such as:

- support implementation of the ceasefire agreement and investigate violations;
- observe and monitor movement of armed groups and redeployment of forces;
- assist in the implementation of the disarmament, demobilization and reintegration programme;
- assist parties in promoting understanding of the peace process by means of an effective public information campaign;
- assist the parties in addressing the need for inclusive approaches, including the role of women, towards reconciliation and peacebuilding.

While these specific points can prove helpful to craft and sustain peace for human development in Sudan, a single broader challenge also tends to affect international assistance: coordination. Donors, the United Nations agencies, non-governmental organizations and others must maintain a coordinated perspective on support to peace processes. This is crucial for providing consistent and dependable aid and technical assistance. Linked to this, providing sufficient aid to fill in financing gaps is also necessary (see section 6.4).

The ultimate responsibility does, however, rest with national, state and local communities. People in the conflict, including conflict actors but also the people caught in violence, are the key players who can solve conflict. External actors cannot impose a solution that can be expected to last. Because people need to be brought into a solution, they need to understand it, and they need to know that it is in their best interests. Sudanese communities must also organize themselves and build effective institutions to manage international assistance in fair and equitable ways.

Sustainable pathways to peace should be state-sponsored and supported in order to connect local communities to the state and to one another. This can help to foster a sense of ownership and the idea that they are collaborating on a common project. By establishing institutional and state-building approaches to constructive peacemaking at the community, cross-community, state and national levels, peacemaking can transform into human development.

Box 5.5

The fortified aid compound

Paradoxically, after the rise of peace in Sudan, donors, United Nations agencies, international non-governmental organizations and other development actors, moved their operations into fortified compounds, behind large walls with barbed wire and strengthened double gates. These aid compounds stand as visible islands of modernity with electricity, Internet and safe water — existing in stark contrast to the ocean of poverty, disease and underdevelopment outside.

This fortified aid compound has been transported as war zone lessons from attacks on aid workers in Afghanistan, Iraq and elsewhere. While necessary in many regards in these locations, the implementation of these models of physical and lived architecture holds the powerful effect of separating deliverers of aid from the targets of their delivery — the people of Sudan. This holds implications not only for the knowledge effects of aid delivery, but for the resulting images and perceptions produced across a society viewing such fortified compounds from the outside.

A clear mandate for protecting aid staff is undoubtedly necessary. Yet, closing the gap between aid and humanitarian workers and the Sudanese people in the physical terrain of delivering aid can hold a striking implication. It holds potential to create and sustain trust as well as to avoid unintended perceptions of inequality between humans delivering aid and humans receiving it.

Source: Duffield 2011; Ghani and Lockhart 2008; Smirl 2008.

6

A human development agenda

6 A HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AGENDA

This report calls for a national human development strategy owned and shared by the people of Sudan. Focusing on the demands of human development offers a clear strategy for peace-building. But strategies are not ends in themselves—they are means to an end. The end of a national strategy should be a human development and sustainability agenda linked to a shared national vision. Constructing such an agenda could guide efforts to establish sustainable peace and human development in Sudan.

The foregoing analysis in this report underscores the interrelationships between peace and human development in Sudan. It has reached several conclusions:

- In the face of war, human insecurity and famine, Sudan as a whole has made steady, long-term advances in education and health over recent decades. Education especially has seen the most gains as the largest contributor to human development progress.
- Yet, income, adult literacy, secondary school dropouts and maternal and child health are among the farthest lagging indicators in conflict or recently post-conflict areas. These threaten to continue to lock significant parts of Sudan into low human development-conflict traps.
- Standard of living and income-related poverty are the most severe deprivations for Sudan's multidimensional poor—those who experience overlapping deprivations in standard of living, health and education. While further sub-national analysis is needed, the multidimensional poor also likely live in insecure, violent regions.
- Economic, political and cultural exclusion, environmental scarcity, and land and cattle disputes are among the lead causes of human insecurity in Sudan.
- The process and objectives of Sudan's national peace agreements have tended to focus on pacts among elites, insufficiently including conflict-affected people and communities in their design and implementation.
- This neglect effectively voids the agency of the individuals, families and communities most affected by violence to participate in their own peace and development.

The report has also introduced key innovative measurements. A state-level human development index has for the first time been estimated highlighting disparities in core health, education and standard of living achievements. The multidimensional poverty index is also calculated for the first time in Sudan, showing new avenues for research on the relationships between the deprived of income poor and other dimensions. This report also makes an innovative contribution with the proposal of a human security index tailored to Sudan. While in preliminary stages, we show the potential of a policy and advocacy index focused on peace and human security challenges in Sudan. The new applied measures and innovations have been introduced on an experimental basis and will be reviewed in the light of public dialogue and debate on the improvement of data, indicators and future research.

These findings carry implications for the peace and human development agenda in Sudan. Based on the foregoing analysis, this chapter sets out three pillars that can serve as the foundation for a national human development strategy. First, policies to address the root causes of Sudan's conflict and human insecurity should aim to redress economic, political, social and cultural forms of exclusion. Second, ensuring transition from a war economy to a peace economy is critical to advance and protect fragile human development achievements. This should include building visible human development dividends in areas where conflict has receded as well as protecting human development achievements where it persists. Finally, crafting and implementing peace agreements with human development as the primary goal can help put an end to ongoing conflicts and to ensure enduring peace.

6.1 Inclusive human development

A national dialogue between the government, various political groupings and civil society representatives continues with the central aim of providing a consultative platform for representatives to discuss national priorities. The concept of inclusion in this report holds potential to contribute to this national dialogue process.

Human development can help improve our understanding of social issues and policies. While this report

undertakes a preliminary application of the concept of social inclusion to Sudan's conditions, further efforts are needed to investigate the uses of the concept in more detail. We set out two key approaches: expanding rates of social inclusion, and strategies for preventing social *exclusion*. The first is focused on inclusive human development growth, the latter on protecting erosion of fundamental human security.

Introducing a nationally driven human development agenda can build on the powerful momentum of change in Sudan. This agenda should address medium- and long-term national stability needs and development objectives. As the country exits destructive cycles of war, human development strategies in Sudan should evolve around the separate but related processes for remedying economic, social and political exclusion.

Economic inclusion

Human development aims to fulfill human potential through investing in the opportunities open to all in a society, and by supporting individuals in creating development and jobs to widen their choices. Pro-poor growth or inclusive human development is a pace and pattern of growth that helps the least well-off woman, man or child to participate in, contribute to and benefit from enhanced opportunities to lead lives they wish to lead. As chapter 2 shows, the benefits of human development require more equal distribution across Sudan's peoples. Supporting every Sudanese to be included into the folds of the country's immense economic growth is a key approach for building peace.

Developing effective strategies to reduce poverty requires an understanding of who the poor are and how they earn their livelihoods. The poor are not a homogenous group—poverty incidence varies with gender, social group, regions and urban or rural lifestyle. Poor men and women pursue a diversity of strategies to earn their livelihoods, especially in the face of insecurity. Increasing pro-poor growth must account for these different income-earning mechanisms. A thorough understanding of the growth, inequality and poverty experience is essential for adapting strategies to Sudan. While this report aims to provide a foundation for such analysis, it also highlights areas where further insights into these questions in Sudan remain wanting.

But a caution prevails. Sudan is not a 'terra rasa' or 'empty territory' where the latest development concepts may be experimented. Indeed, the recent history of the concept of 'pro-poor growth' in Sudan belies this view. Existing political and institutional forces must be grappled with in grafting even such objective strategy as pro-poor growth. Little institutional consensus within government and donor actors exists on what the concept might mean. Moreover, capacity to measure pro-poor growth and spending in much of Sudan remains limited. And concrete results continue to fail to meet Sudan's development expectations, with the Multi-Donor Trust Fund struggling to coalesce into a single aid instrument, and economic policies often emphasizing liberalization and privatization without addressing distribution.[1]

Bearing this context in mind, this report focuses on three areas for economic inclusion as a core part of constructing peace in Sudan: creating more jobs, expanding microfinance access and encouraging foreign direct investment.

Creating jobs

Livelihoods and employment are key parts of a peacebuilding strategy for Sudan. This perspective strongly resonated within the focus group discussions undertaken for this report.

In 2009, the unemployment rate was around 17 per cent of the labor force, demonstrating the need to create at least 2.8 million jobs in the country to have full employment opportunities for both women and men.[2]

Introducing a nationally driven human development agenda can build on the powerful momentum of change in Sudan.

- *Agriculture jobs*. The agricultural sector has been in decline in recent years in Sudan. Reviving agriculture through employment creation and project rehabilitation can encourage workers to enter the sector. Cutting the bureaucratic red tape to starting an agricultural small- or medium-sized business would also incentivize entry into the agricultural job sector.
- *Telecommunications jobs*. Telecommunications is among the fastest growing sectors in Sudan over the past decade. The mobile sector represents about 3.5 per cent of 2008 gross domestic product or SDG 5 billion, with an additional value estimated up to 1 per cent higher.[3] In the same year, the mobile sector created 41,200 full-time jobs. This underscores significant opportunities for more jobs to deliver services to private businesses, manufacturing, and information technology firms as well as to government offices, schools, hospitals and security services.
- *Jobs for university graduates*. This report calls for increased coordination between the High Council for the Employment of the Graduates, the National Fund for the Employment of Graduates and the Ministries of Social Welfare, Agriculture, Industry and Youth and Sports in addition to financial institutions to enhance university student training opportunities and to build partnerships to facilitate graduates finding jobs in the private and public sectors.

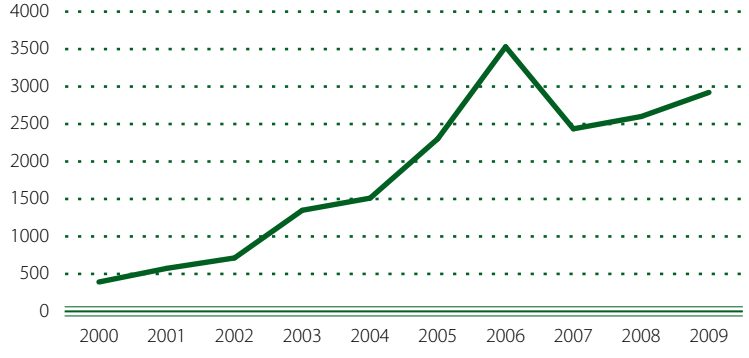
Table 6.1
Microfinance performance in Sudan, 2009

Item	Amount
Gross Loan Portfolio	US$ 3.9 Million
Average Loan Balance per Borrower	US$ 298.5 Million
Total Assets	US$ 15.8 Million
Number of Active Borrowers	20,266
Deposits	US$ 678,739.5
Number of Depositors	22,303

Source: Mixmarket 2011.

The overall business environment must also have stable, efficient and accountable institutions to enable the market to perform effectively for job creation. As the state holds the primary responsibility for creating such an enabling environment for producers, we identify three broad roles it should play. First, the state should focus on delivering a stable macroeconomic environment and efficient monitoring institutions. Second, it should also provide incentives for promoting adequate production and the transfer of technology through training, education, and research and development. And third, the state should supply a level of public services and goods such as roads, electricity and communication networks sufficient to generate spillover effects and economies of scale, and to serve as complementary inputs to the development process.

Figure 6.1
Foreign direct investment 2000-2009
Foreign direct investment (US$ millions)



Source: Central Bank of Sudan 2010.

Access to microfinance

Microfinance – providing small loans to borrowers lacking conventional collateral – has recently attracted significant attention in Sudan. While new evidence emerges on the impact of microfinance in India, Bangladesh and elsewhere, microfinance initiatives remain as powerful tools to help the poor achieve means to build businesses and subsequently improve their living standards.

On August 26, 2008, the government of Sudan launched Family Bank, Sudan's first microfinance bank. Unlike existing microfinance institutions that only offer loans, Family Bank provides a range of banking services to low-income residents, including savings accounts, insurance, money transfers and credits of up to US$ 5,000. As of 2009, total microfinance loans amounted to US$ 3.9 million and reached over 20,000 borrowers.

Three important steps can advance microfinance as a tool for the poor in Sudan. First, creating an enabling policy, legal and regulatory framework is critical to scale-up microfinance projects. Second and equally important is the need to ensure proper targeting of clients. Finally, expanding microfinance to more states is important to enlarging its poverty reduction potential. Recent initiatives focus on providing microfinance especially to conflict areas.[4] This additionally makes microfinance a potential force for peace.

Foreign direct investment

Increasing inflows of foreign direct investment to Sudan can help build infrastructure, establish businesses and create jobs for Sudanese. In this context, encouraging low barriers to capital investments to invest in Sudanese markets can help facilitate development. Due to instability, however, foreign direct investment has held a complex relationship with Sudan. Foreign direct investment grew at an annual average of 82.3 per cent from 2000 to2005 to over US$ 3.5 billion in 2006 (figure 6.1). China, Malaysia and India were the leading investors in Sudan. Partially due to foreign pressure to divest from the Sudanese economy, foreign direct investment dropped significantly in 2007.

Attracting foreign investment has been an immense driver of economic growth in many emerging economies, especially as observed in the Asian tigers over the recent decades. Learning from their experiences, Sudan can use foreign direct investment to its advantage in infrastructure and job creation in sectors ranging from banking to agriculture.

Social inclusion

Improving equity in access to education and health services should serve as a key pillar to close gaps in human development as well as to break low human development-conflict traps still remaining in many pockets of Sudan. Providing the required finance and infrastructure to educate out-of-school children and

scaling-up food-for-education programs is needed to meet core priorities on education.

Over 1.4 million children in Sudan are unable to go to basic schools (see section 2.1 for further discussion). Globally, the average estimated cost of sending a child to school for one year is US$ 11-17.[5] Given the infrastructure demand, over US$ 32 million is required to put each out-of-school child into classes for one year. This is equivalent to just 14 hours of oil revenue.

As chapter 2 highlights, over 1.4 million students drop out after graduating from basic school, failing to move on to secondary education. What drives the secondary school drop-out rate? Several statistics suggest that the scarcity of secondary schools in Sudan is the primary cause. In the 2008/2009 school year, there were 18,000 basic-level schools in Sudan, with an average of 321 students per school. By contrast, there were just 3,600 secondary level schools (3,416 academic, 170 technical, and 14 Islamic studies), although the students-per-school ratio dropped to around 235 students per school.[6] This highlights the need to build more secondary schools to meet student demand.

A food-for-education program adopted in Red Sea state has helped to get more students into schools as well. The number of families receiving food increased from 36,078 in 2006 to 51,593 in 2010, with the number of schools covered expanding from 254 to 271 in 2010. The program covered 92 per cent of students in 2007, increasing to 94 per cent in 2010.[7] The average cost of food per pupil is estimated at 23 SDG per month.

While full evaluations are currently ongoing, early results suggest the program has been an overall success. Basic level school absentee rates dropped from 35 per cent in 2010 to 7 per cent in 2011.[8] To guarantee students stay in school, a potential strategy would be to link food provision with attendance. Plans to initiate a similar food-for-education program in Kassala state are underway.

Political inclusion

A key factor behind recurring war and violence in Sudan has been political marginalization. Many respondents in the focus group discussions and interviews undertaken for this report conveyed a widespread perception of political exclusion, where the average citizen fails to have the opportunity to voice his or her concerns in an open public dialogue. As a former minister of social affairs in South Kordofan stated, "The primary threat in Sudan is political stability. How can we stop the bloodshed running in some parts of the country? To us, in South Kordofan, the unbalanced development, human security, making the coming state election a success and implementing popular consultation and providing basic services are the major and primary challenges."[9]

Rule of law, transparency and democracy are three principles to guide increased political inclusion in Sudan. Severely impacted by decades of war, the rule of law and institutions of justice need to be strengthened in Sudan. Violence and conflict have too often served to resolve disputes rather than peaceful institutions. A culture of impunity characterizes Sudan's political culture of patronage. No society can advance in a terrain of lawlessness and continued conflict. Respect for human rights and peaceful coexistence under a regime of freedom and rule of law are the foundations on which democratic societies are built.

To meet the political challenge in Sudan, a number of actions are required, including strengthening strategic thinking and the risk-coping capacity of government, and training and sensitizing politicians, legislators and bureaucrats on issues relating to stimulating and sustaining peace and enhancing human development. It would also involve building on local ownership and focusing on reinforcing the capacities of local and district governments as well as traditional institutions. This would include operationalizing the quarter-century strategic plan.

The issue of deep-rooted corruption must also be tackled. The existing legal framework which supports the pillars of integrity and anti-corruption is inadequate because of poor infrastructure, limited resources and lack of will. Besides the negative effects of the civil conflicts on corruption, pervasive unemployment and desperation has only helped feed and reinforce its prevalence.

Rule of law, transparency and democracy are three principles to guide increased political inclusion in Sudan. Severely impacted by decades of war, the rule of law and institutions of justice need to be strengthened in Sudan.

The challenge must be met on two fronts: reforming and strengthening the pillars of integrity, and fighting poverty. Recent construction of a national anti-corruption policy needs to gain headway in Sudan to prevent the spread of corruption and to investigate cases and prosecute as appropriate.

Given the current state of knowledge, democracy, with all its defects, remains the best form of governance known to humanity. Democracy is the liberal ground upon which freedom, the rule of law, justice and fairness to all in Sudan can grow. Democracy in Sudan needs be adapted and advanced with the people of Sudan over time. Democracy provides the groundwork on which to construct and further the Sudanese nation-state.

Cultural inclusion

Sudan hosts very rich cultural resources. Cultural heritage, in both tangible and intangible forms, is a basis of the identity of the Sudanese people — an essential factor for reconciliation. The Sudanese are divided among 16 major ethnic groups, 527 subgroups and speak more than 320 languages and dialects. Sudan is one of the richest African countries in terms of archaeological sites, largely unexplored.

In view of its religious diversity, Sudan observes both Muslim and Christian holidays. Identifying ethnic groups in Sudan was made more complicated by the multifaceted character of internal divisions among Arabic-speaking Muslims, the largest population that may be considered a single ethnic group. The distinction between Sudan's Muslim and non-Muslim people has been of considerable importance in the country's history and provides a preliminary ordering of the ethnic groups. It does not, however, correspond in any simple way to distinctions based on linguistic, cultural, or racial criteria nor to social or political solidarity.

Each major ethnic group and historical region has its own special forms of cultural expression, and the linguistic diversity of the country provides the basis for a richly varied written and oral literature. One of the most important forms of cultural expression among non-literate groups is oral tradition.

How to manage cultural diversity becomes a core challenge of cultural inclusion in Sudan. Diversity must be celebrated as a source of strength and enrichment. But within a discourse of hegemony, exclusion, and assumptions of homogeneity, diversity becomes a liability and a hazard or a discourse of discord, and in the worse circumstances, it is a discourse of rejection.[10]

Cultural diversity is central to the capacity of people to live as they would like. The advance of cultural diversity must be a central aspect of human development, and this requires going beyond social, political and economic opportunities since they do not guarantee cultural liberty. Cultural liberty is about allowing people the freedom to choose their identities and to lead the lives they value without being excluded from other choices important to them, such as those for education, health or job opportunities. As a community leader in Dongla, Northern state put it: "The tribal, ethnical and cultural diversity, are bounties of Allah and should be acknowledged. Good management of this diversity is necessary to preserve the rights of all."[11]

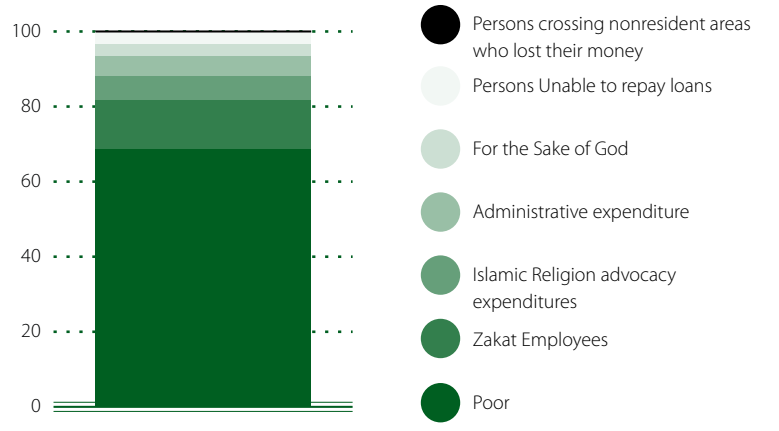
Festivals, ceremonies, seminars, workshops and lectures focusing on the themes of culture, peace and pluralism can be organized to celebrate diversity. The role of the state (the media and school curriculums program in basic and secondary schools) and civil society and NGOs in Sudan has provided capacity-building and training, as well as technical assistance to Sudanese civil society and cultural stakeholders, to enhance peace dialogue among different communities. The intention has been to strengthen skills and capacity-building while protecting the multi-cultural heritage of the country in achieving sustainable pace and human development in contemporary Sudan.

Media also can play a significant role in communication, cross-cultural sharing and building social capital and trust. This can go a long way towards supporting peace processes. Some current challenges in media must be overcome. As a senior social affairs minister interviewed for this report put it: "Mass media, through their various means and channels, are only directed and controlled media. They do not reflect and address all Sudanese communities. Therefore, they are not playing their fully required role in disseminating a culture of peace in the country."[12]

Figure 6.2 ***Zakat*—an important tool for social inclusion…**

***Zakat* to major recipient types, 2009**

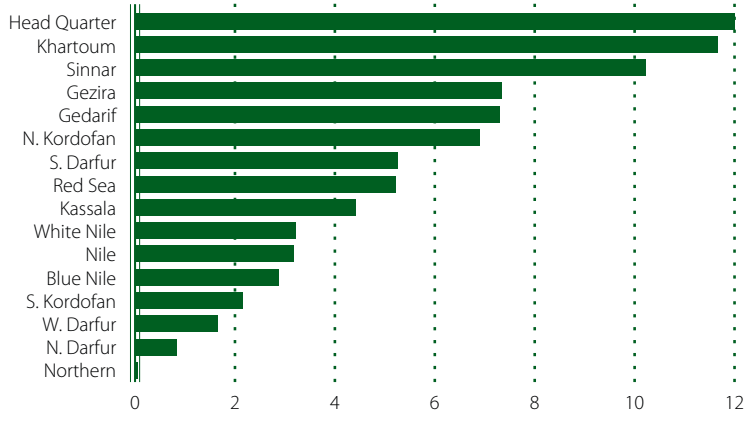
Zakat received (% of total *zakat*)



Source: Federal Chamber of Zakat *2009.*

Figure 6.3 **Recipients of *zakat* funds**

***Zakat* expenditure, 2008 (SDG millions)**



Source: Federal Chamber of Zakat *2008.*

Support and training can be provided to media to help them play a more robust and fully effective role in peacebuilding.

Preventing erosion of human development gains

The above section explores means to use the expansion of human development as a tool for social inclusion and peace. This section looks at the opposite concern: how social policies can prevent the erosion of hard-earned human development gains.

Existing social safety nets include health insurance for low-income families, covering 22 per cent of wage earners.[13] Pension and social security covers 10 per cent of the population in Sudan.[14] Official assistance in the form of government trust funds under *Zakat* and *Awqaf* covers about 75 per cent of the poor and vulnerable populations, especially homeless, widows, the divorced, elderly and orphans.[15]

Zakat, one of the five pillars of Islam, is a religious obligation on Muslims to pay a prescribed percentage of their wealth to specified categories in their society, when their wealth exceeds a certain limit. The objective is to redistribute wealth from wealthy households to the income poor. Whether through practice of faith or finance, *zakat* should favor social responsibility and community development.

Nearly every major city in northern Sudan holds a *Zakat* Chamber that distributes money, goods and access to some basic services to qualifying applicants based on household wealth, family size and whether the household head is a woman or an orphan. Household surveys are also conducted in the villages and localities to help locate recipients. Unfortunately the official statistics do not break down the distribution of fund by region, state or mode of living.

Sudan uses *Zakat* funds as finance and faith. Its distribution largely goes to the income poor (figure 6.2). But *Zakat* in Sudan can also be used to enhance human development. *Zakat* financing can target three new areas: building hospitals, schools and housing in deprived communities; improving agricultural productivity for food security; and for disaster relief and emergencies. To help support human development, *Zakat* must be collected and managed efficiently. *Zakat* funds can also complement other safety nets such as the National Health Insurance and National Solidarity (*takaful*) Fund. Ensuring taxation of private *Shari'a*-compliant small- and medium-size enterprise can help to increase the size of available *zakat* funds.

By means of comparing available data, Sinnar state holds 87,645 poor recipients of *zakat*, while North Darfur holds 8,248 (statistical tables). Zakat expenditure per poor person per year in Red Sea state stands at 262 SDG. Nile state receives 71 SDG per poor recipient per year. The numbers of poor recipients for Khartoum, West Darfur and Northern states were unavailable for this report.

Table 6.2

Available data on zakat expenditures

State	*Zakat* expenditure (thousands)	Number of poor *zakat* recipients	*Zakat* expenditure per poor recipient (SDG/person)
Blue Nile	2,870	34,501	83.19
Gedarif	7,303	87,280	83.67
Gezira	7,341	47,653	154.04
Kassala	4,416	46,578	94.81
Khartoum	11,660	..	..
N. Darfur	838	8,248	101.63
N. Kordofan	6,893	68,568	100.53
Nile	3,169	44,473	71.26
Northern	42	..	..
Red Sea	5,221	19,903	262.32
S. Kordofan	2,143	23,538	91.04
S. Darfur	5,259	61,081	86.10
Sinnar	10,219	87,645	116.60
W. Darfur	1,642	..	..
White Nile	3,205	42,181	75.97
Total	144,668	571,649	253.11

Source: Federal Chamber of Zakat *2008.*

Influence of Waqf *on socio-economic development*

In Arabic, *waqf* means 'hold, confinement or prohibition.' In Islamic practice, waqf means donating personal property for charitable use. Although *waqf* applies to non-perishable properties like fixed property, land or buildings, it can be applied to cash, books, shares, stocks and other assets.

Waqf plays a number of roles in Sudanese society. For Muslims, it helps motivate moral and religious convictions. *Waqf* redistributes personal property and can help to create jobs. In addition, *waqf* contributes to health, education, urbanization and public works. Finally, *waqf* performs as a social safety net against economic risks.

The Ministry of *Irshad* and *Waqf* at the federal level and similar ministries at state levels administer waqf donations. The National Congress passed and approved an Islamic National *Waqf* law to legislate, monitor and

supervise *waqf* activities. More data needs to be collected on *waqf* as insufficient information is publicly available. But beyond this, *waqf* should be managed prudently and rationally by the new government institutions.

6.2 Recovering from devastation

The second pillar of a national human development strategy for Sudan proposed by this report focuses on post-conflict recovery. Sudan has already committed to strategies of disarmament, the peaceful resolution of conflict and institutional development as the foundations on which peace, human security and conflict prevention should be built.

With these commitments in mind, recovering from cycles of violence and poverty should focus on transition to a new human development-based economy, building infrastructure to connect people and markets, and protecting human development and security in areas of the country still struggling to extinguish the flames of conflict.

Rather, progress is ongoing, takes place through multiple processes of institutional transformation and state formation, and is underpinned by power struggles and elite bargaining. Usually occurring in medium- to long-term horizons and not in the short-term, these processes suggest the need for planning realistic time frames.

Political economy of transition

How can Sudan move from an economy of war to an economy at peace? As Chapter 5 proposes, closing the gap between expectations and human development dividends is needed. Beyond this, concrete tools can be employed to consolidate the spaces of a new economy oriented towards inclusive human development. Reforming public sector capacity to oversee this transition is one such critical tool.

The policy and institutional environment of the public sector has widespread influence on any economy. The environment needs to be assessed with focus on regulatory, legal and budgetary frameworks. Regulatory and legal frameworks in Sudan require redefining or strengthening the mandates, structures and functions of ministries and agencies as well as the rules and regulations governing their activities. The relationship between the public sector, non-governmental and independent organizations and the private sector must also be renewed. Reforming budgetary frameworks requires assessing procedures and allocation mechanisms that affect resource availability, the share of salaries in operating budgets and the adequacy of non-salary budget allocations that provide people with access to the equipment and materials they need in order to perform their tasks.

Another area for assessment is the pay and incentive system, a critical element of development since incentives affect each individual's performance, motivation and willingness to remain in the public sector or even in the country. The assessment of the pay and incentive system involves an indication of the adequacy of overall levels of earnings in relation to the cost of living and how these have been changing over time, plus an assessment of the relative salaries for key categories of professional workers in the private sector compared with the public sector.

In the case of Sudan, where salary levels of public sector employees are scarcely sufficient to meet a basic standard of living, it is unlikely that development strategies will succeed unless there is serious commitment to reforms of public sector salary and personnel policies and major changes in personnel management systems. Human development requires a fundamental change in approach to public sector reform, with an emphasis on creating the conditions for a capable government rather than on particular quantitative targets for either the number of civil servants or the size of the public sector salary bill.

The nature and trajectory of transitions from 'war' to 'peace' requires careful scrutiny. While the word 'transition' implies a linear process from one state to another, from conflict to stability and development, in practice this is rarely if ever the case. Rather, progress is ongoing, takes place through multiple processes of institutional transformation and state formation, and is underpinned by power struggles and elite bargaining. Usually occurring in medium- to long-term horizons and not in the short-term, these processes suggest the need for planning realistic time frames.

Managing expectations of what is realistically achievable, and the limits of what donors and other external actors can contribute to these essentially domestic processes, is also crucial. In these contexts the pursuit of 'quick wins' or ideal governance reforms may need to be put on hold or paced. While elections themselves are not necessarily the problem, how and when an election is held can be very significant. A gradualist approach may be needed. In effect, while lessons can be drawn from other societies, no one-size-fits-all approach can work to effectively advance human development in Sudan.

The challenge is to manage the tensions between different spheres of action effectively and to make informed decisions about sequencing and prioritization. This demands effective and principled coordination between different players engaged in fragile contexts,

and thorough analysis of the trade-offs between different approaches and programs. To reconcile Sudanese society while expanding human capabilities, principles of equity, empowerment and sustainability must be applied to develop policies to advance the well-being of all Sudanese.

Connecting people, goods and places

In both South Kordofan and Darfur, the roads and infrastructure are poorly developed and what is there is in poor condition. Apart from Kadogly, there is no master plan for a road network in South Kordofan. In Darfur, the major roads connecting main cities in the region are not completed. This has seriously hampered recovery and delayed peace and human development initiatives in conflict regions.

Railroads and aviation play key roles in connecting Sudanese to one another and to markets. Sudan Railways Corporation is one of the largest networks in Africa. Of its 4,578 km network, a little over a third is not operational, though it used to provide connection throughout the country. The Civil Aviation Authority is the central organization for aviation in Sudan, and responsible for the development and operation of all air traffic. The organization was recently moved to the office of the president and as a result is financially more autonomous than before and operating relatively independently in the performance of most of its duties.

The Civil Aviation Authority has already embarked on a development plan for airports and air navigation in Darfur. For human development, the following are recommendations for needed road and airways infrastructure:

- There is an urgent need to strengthen capacity of the roads network all over the country.
- The vastness of the country combined with the extremely poor state of the roads network suggests that railways represent strong opportunities for transport needs.
- Given the size of Sudan and the poorly developed roads and rail system, an effective aviation system will be crucial over the coming years to ensure secure and reliable movements of persons and goods across large distances.
- Railways, roads and airways can help to build and sustain peace in eastern Sudan and make the chances of peace real in Darfur.

Development during conflict

Armed violence imperils development. Efforts to reduce such conflict—that address both the supply of and demand for such conflict within an overall human security framework—are fundamental to helping Sudan meet its development aspirations. This report argues that poverty reduction strategies should include specific interventions directly aimed at enhancing peace and security in Sudan. These efforts should be more fully integrated into national and international development strategies, with a focus on creating enabling conditions for the achievement of the development projects in the country.

The security of persons, property and assets, and the protection of human rights are fundamental to sustainable development and a pre-condition for people to improve their lives, particularly the poor. Assets include public goods such as common water points, access roads and social infrastructure. Development aims to support and help create the conditions for dynamic and representative governing structures capable of managing change and resolving disputes through peaceful means. Poorly functioning security systems can create or destroy prospects for peace, and social and economic progress. There is growing concern over the interaction between development and security and the role this plays in shaping people's lives.

Peace processes are a long neglected development opportunity. For many bilateral and multilateral development agencies, conflict situations are often perceived to be outside their mandate; some withdraw in the face of rising levels of armed violence and do not want to place staff and resources at risk; yet others make development engagements dependent on the formal ending of hostilities through a peace agreement. Such attitudes towards peace processes and engagement in conflict situations are often justified with reference to the bounds of institutional mandates, the rejection of politicizing aid, and the difficulty of cooperating with rebel groups.

The traditional understanding of the role of development agencies during armed conflict and in peacemaking have become increasingly overtaken by the realities on the ground as well as the evolution of development policy. Development agencies often maintain operations in countries that slide into armed conflict as well as in non-conflict countries with high levels of instability and criminal violence. There has also been an ever-increasing awareness of the nexus between development and security that many development agencies embrace.

Peace, security and stability are the preconditions and basis for development and cooperation in Sudan. These core ideas are inseparably interlinked. Lack of democracy, denial of personal liberty and abuse of human rights are causes of insecurity. As this report argues, the concept of security transcends military considerations and includes conflict prevention, containment and resolution, all of which relate to the aim of collective continental security.

Human security also embraces all aspects of society, including the economic, political and social dimensions of the individual, family and community, to take in national and regional stability. The report posits that the security of a nation must be construed in terms of the security of the individual citizen, not only to live in peace but also to have access to the basic necessities

of life, to participate freely in the affairs of society and to enjoy fundamental human rights.

6.3 Implementing peace for human development

Peacebuilding is a complex process requiring long-term commitment. We suggest in this report that the failure to place the provision of inclusive human development gains at the heart of peace implementation is a severe limitation to the peace processes in Sudan.

The first step is to achieve comprehensive peace in Darfur. Across infrastructure sectors in greater Darfur, more detailed assessment of physical and institutional needs and completing the prioritization of large-scale investment, policy programs and institutional development. Key priority actions for peace in Darfur include:

- Support activities that promote basic safety, such as regional linkages and access to basic education, basic services and employment.
- Avoid short-term activities that exclude long-term development. This would give the government and stakeholders time to agree on policies and institutional frameworks critical for the role of government, private sector, non-governmental organizations and communities in service provision.
- Prioritize technical assistance to prepare for future investment and the creation of institutional capacity and new regulatory frameworks.
- Support restoration and improvements and/or better operation and maintenance of existing service facilities.
- For new investments, give priority to projects providing upgrading or the use of spot improvement approaches to maximize impact and visibility.

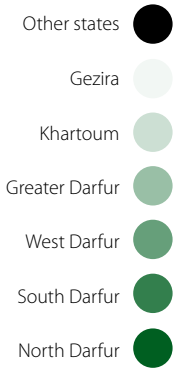
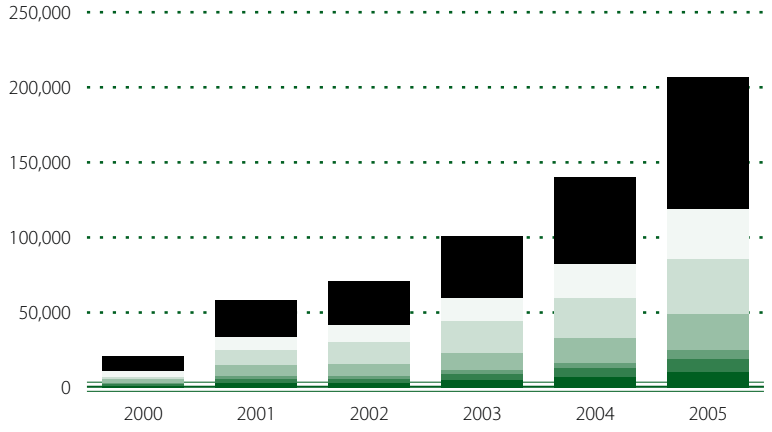


Figure 6.4 Federal transfers to the states 2000-2006

Federal budget transfers to states (SDG million)



Source: World Bank 2007c.

The challenge now is for the government and private sector to build necessary capacities to enable individuals, organizations and communities to reconcile the nation, manage conflict and maintain peace in non-violent ways. In most self-achieving societies, there are mechanisms (such as effective police, transparent courts, free and fair elections) to manage conflict and maintain order. Strengthening these and other peacebuilding and conflict-management mechanisms should be integral parts of the national human development agenda in post-conflict Sudan.

Conflict prevention and peacebuilding

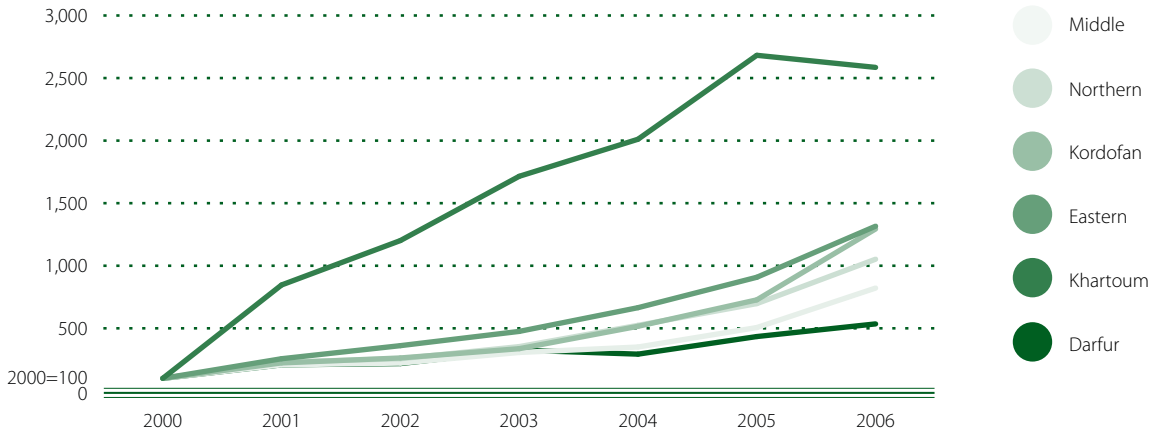
While the peace in Sudan has made great progress, threats to peace and security still remain in Darfur and parts of Sudan. Border tensions with the southern Sudan will likely continue. To prevent a recurrence of conflict, the government, working within sub-regional structures such as the Nile Basin States and Economic Community of North-East African States, must be alert to any threat to peace and security. Expertise and information will need to be shared regarding civilian police activities, disarmament, demobilization, reintegration and rehabilitation programs, humanitarian operations and human rights protection. Equally important are the root sources of conflict. Efforts will be needed to resolve outstanding and potential conflicts among ethnic and social groups within the country.

Governance reform and capacity-building needs assessment

Given the history of bad governance, current efforts at reforming the system must claim the urgent attention of the government and be brought to their logical conclusion as a matter of policy. As a priority, targeted reform interventions must be mounted on several fronts.

- Bloated public institutions and agencies need to be streamlined, with duplication and redundancies in personnel functions harmonized.
- Inadequate remuneration and benefit packages for public employees must be enhanced to support basic requirements of survival and strengthen commitment and dedication as well as contribute to the eradication of corruption.
- The critical shortage of requisite inclusion policies to organize and manage the governance process must be dealt with, prioritizing key posts first.
- Policy analysis and development management capacity must be strengthened, including the establishment of an autonomous policy research and analysis entity.
- A country needs assessment should be undertaken as a first step towards outlining a national human development program oriented towards peace and security.

Figure 6.5 **Per capita federal transfers to the States 2000-2006**
Index (2000 = 100)



Source: World Bank 2007c.

6.4 Financing inclusive human development

Spending priorities matter for human development

More than 80 per cent of total revenues are collected by States' governments, which also undertake priorities, planning and supervision of development projects. However, funding remains federal. It is also observed that total transfers to States are increasing over time and place. In addition, the States with highest economic and human development tend to receive the largest total federal transfers (figure 6.4). Darfur, for instance, had a relatively smaller share of public expenditure, of which the major portion financed wages and salaries. Impacted by conflict, the region lacks basic infrastructure and services, which make it a priority area for funds.

The pattern of government spending going to already significant economic areas is also reflected when adjusted by per capita transfers (figure 6.5). The largest gains in per capita federal transfers from 2000 to 2006 went to Khartoum, giving the state the largest share of fiscal devolution. Moreover, Khartoum also receives funds for development (budget classification chapter three) as well as for wages and salaries (chapter one)—the only state to do so. All other States only receive federal budget transfers for wages and salaries.

Spending on defense and security has tended to exceed spending on social services (figure 6.6). Security and defense spending on its own has been declining from its 1999. This is as a result of the end of civil war with the south through the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement in 2005. Yet, the benefits remain to be further reflected in social services spending.

Public health spending increased through to 2008 in Sudan (figure 6.7), but at an annual federal health per capita spending of 265 SDG (for 2000-2003), government health spending in Sudan ranks among the lowest in the world. Private health spending is also quickly increasing, nearly doubling from 2005 to 2009.

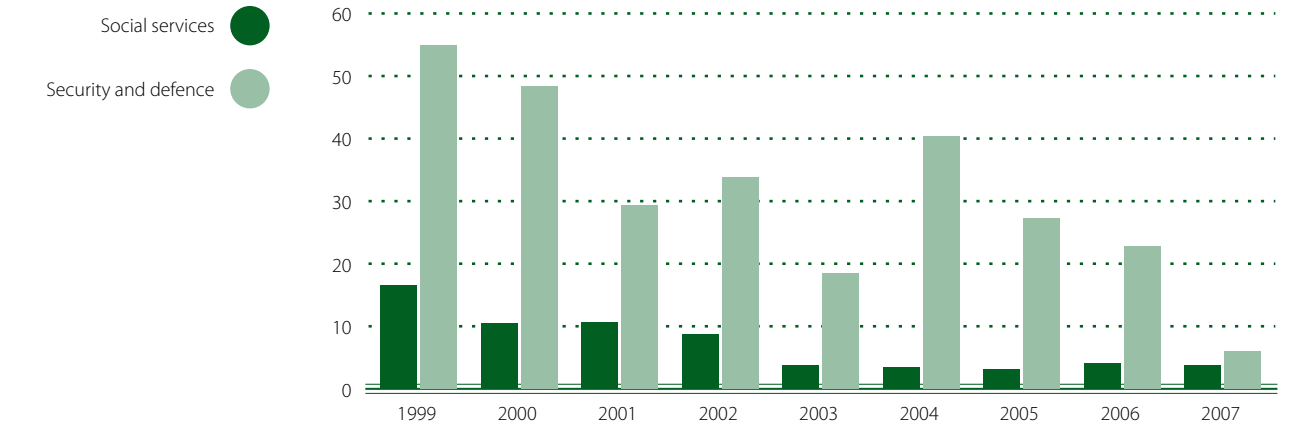
Some central priorities for public spending should be implemented:

- Transparency and priorities in budget spending and national revenue must increase. Transparency concerning oil revenues, production and prices is also a necessary step for creating accountability systems for how public funds are spent.
- Specific shares of state-level resources should remain in the states. Resources from some regions are regularly treated as national income, such as South Kordofan's forestry resources. While sharing of state wealth with other regions in Sudan is beneficial for areas without resources, defined principles for wealth-sharing must be clearly formulated and communicated to the public.
- State and federal government coordination is essential to ensure effective spending and reduce competition and risks of potential disputes. State-level institutions such as the State Support Funds should be strengthened to perform this role.
- Public spending should be allocated according to the core human development principles of equity, empowerment and sustainability. Areas of human development including education and health should be prioritized according to evidence such as provided in this report.
- States must be given the power to establish development projects and impose taxes for human development purposes while developing

Figure 6.6 **Defense and security spending exceeds social services spending**

Percentage of total government expenditure

Spending (% of total government expenditure)



Source: Calculated based on statistical table 27.

progressive taxation rules for small- and medium-sized firms to encourage private sector development.

- Budget transfers should efficiently target conflict areas.

Building capacity

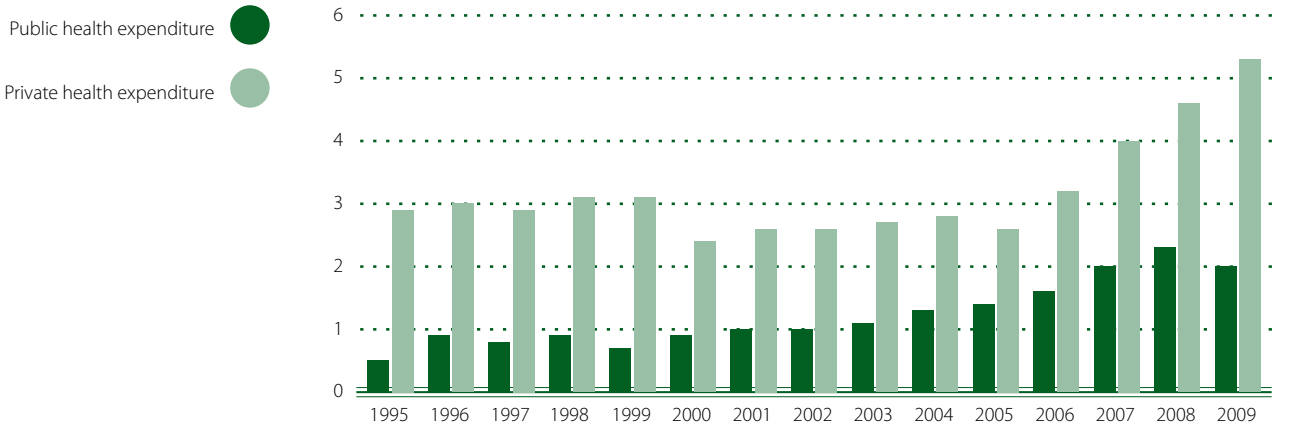
Building capacity to manage humanitarian, aid and government resources is a crucial priority for Sudan. Yet, many policy and decision makers and civil society have little understanding of the institutional and physical challenges in planning, procuring and implementing infrastructure projects under conflict conditions in Darfur and eastern Sudan. State-level agencies and organizations in these areas receive tremendous pressure from project beneficiaries and donors to quickly deliver infrastructure results. Institutional constraints must be overcome to allow for development to contribute to sustaining peace.

Capacity development refers to the ability of individuals and communities to address and fulfill essential needs beyond the narrow preoccupation with

Figure 6.7 **Public and private health spending in Sudan**

Percent of GDP, 1995-2009

Public and private health expenditures (% of gross domestic product)



Source: World Bank 2011.

the provision of basic education, training and the use of technical assistance. It now involves building human, organizational and societal capacities within a broader governance framework to empower people.

Two critical challenges exist in building individual capacities. First, proper planning and programming of present and future human capital stock, flow and skills is needed. Further, specialized training exercises need to be designed and implemented as well as general and professional education put in place to meet reconstruction needs. Public and private partnerships between universities, government agencies and businesses can help build curricula and resources to meet market demand.

Emerging from destructive violence presents a host of immediate and long-term national challenges. These challenges should be clearly articulated, prioritized and sequenced within the framework of a broad national recovery and development agenda. Priorities for this agenda could include:

- Targeting technical skills, including civil works, construction, environmental and sanitation planning in order to rebuild infrastructure. This can significantly contribute to towards restoring social capital and community cooperation.
- Strengthening national development management capacities in order to bolster strategic thinking and the capacity of politicians, legislators and bureaucrats on issues relating to human development and responsible government.

Humanitarian—risk or threat?

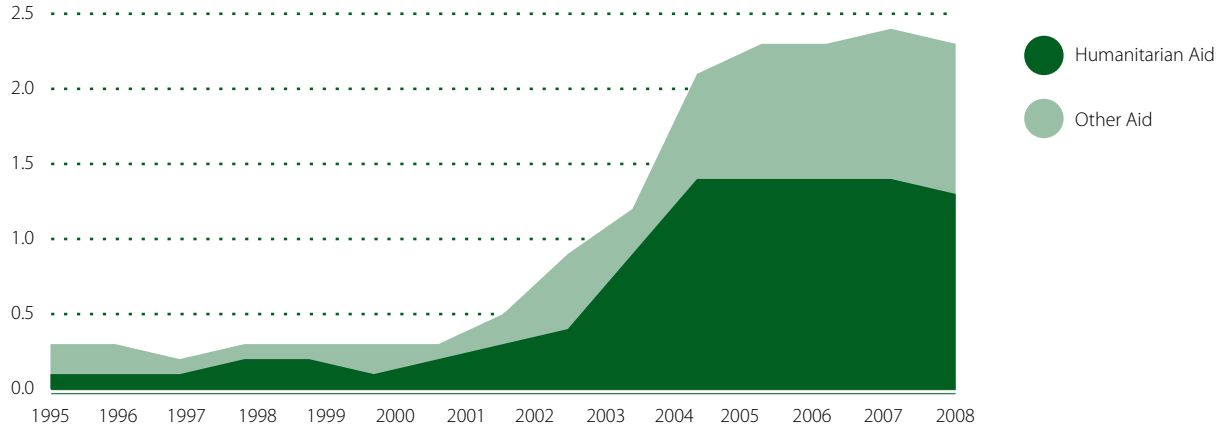
In the humanitarian disasters of Darfur and eastern Sudan, famine, drought, and displacement are significant insecurity factors. The rural population's self-sufficiency, trade patterns and modes of subsistence are reflections of local geography and sociocultural practices. Decades of ecological, political and social challenges produce many overlapping complex emergency challenges.

The majority of aid in Sudan since 1995 has focused on humanitarian assistance (figure 6.8). This is especially the case since 2005. Humanitarian aid has helped to bridge low government expenditure on social services during the conflicts in southern Sudan and Darfur. Emergency aid for internally displaced persons camps in Darfur is a forced necessity in view of ongoing combat, displacement, and the pressures of scarcity. Humanitarian aid in these special circumstances is needed — and has proven effective at helping people to survive severe insecurity shocks.

But in focusing on humanitarian crises, relief strategies often overlook the long-term human development and the reconstruction of livelihoods. Over the last two decades, dependency on relief services for day-to-day survival has increased. The current approach focuses on importing mass quantities of food and medical supplies to save lives today. In areas of Sudan as in other emergency contexts, this approach has controversially led to increased aid dependency. One of the central questions for aid and humanitarian actors in Sudan is how to best support, rebuild and facilitate livelihood strategies instead.

An initial step is to re-evaluate the relationships between self-sufficiency, cultural vitality and long-term survival. Relief operations currently focus on the day-to-day survival of victim populations. Phasing out emergency aid and transitioning into longer-term development aid should also be put in place—aiming to help restore people's self-sufficiency.

Figure 6.8 Humanitarian aid dominates most external assistance



Source: Statistical table 28.

6.5 Summary of recommendations

The following summarizes the key Sudan *Human Development Report 2010* recommendations.

- To redress economic exclusion, the report recommends creating jobs, utilizing microfinance projects and attracting more foreign direct investment.
- Budget transfers for states to build more schools and hospitals can help close gaps in social services.
- For enhancing political inclusion, the report recommends that efficient and transparent institutions under the umbrella of good governance should be given more capacity.
- Concerning cultural inclusion, it is highly recommend that cultural reconciliation, cultural liberty and cultural appreciation should be given high priority in policy agenda.
- *Zakat* funds should complement other safety nets such as the National Health Insurance, Social Insurance Fund and National Solidarity (*takaful*) Fund to work as a tool for human development. It is also recommended that to widen the scope of *zakat* collection, private *Shari'a*-compliant small- and medium-size enterprise can help to increase the size of available *zakat* funds. *Waqf* institutions should be managed and administered prudentially and efficiently to have their share in human development.
- In relation to building peace for human development, it is recommended that restoring social capital by mobilizing and developing targeted human skills should be given high priority. It is also recommended that governance reform is instituted, concentrating on strengthening the rule of law and justice, transparency and accountability in the use of national resources.
- Concerning the importance of transportation, the report recommends that building capacity for roads, railways and aviation is essential.
- For ensuring development process during conflict, the report recommends that poverty reduction strategies should include specific interventions directly aimed at enhancing peace and security in conflict areas in Sudan. The report also recommends that the security of persons, property and assets, and the protection of human rights are fundamental to sustainable human development.
- For achieving peace for human development, the report recommends avoiding short-term activities that exclude long-term options that have not yet been evaluated in Sudan and support activities that foster safety.
- For improving the level of governance and capacity building, the report recommends that policy analysis and development management capacity must be enhanced and a country needs assessment should be undertaken as a first step towards outlining a national human development program oriented towards peace and security.
- For a fair policy of public finance the report recommends that there should be transparency and priorities in spending concerning the budget and the national revenue. It also recommends that a fair share of public expenditure should be allocated for human development pillars, particularly health and education. It also recommends that states must be given the power to establish development projects and impose taxes for human development purposes and more budget transfers should favor conflict areas in the country.
- Relief operations should focus on the day-to-day survival of victim populations, while aiming to help restore their self-sufficiency.
- Significant challenges in data quality and quantity in Sudan are acutely highlighted by this report. Mean years of schooling and income per capita at state and locality levels should be priority areas of household survey data collection in order for Sudan to keep up with the changes in the global debate on human development and its measurement.

Strategic framework for human development in Sudan

This report proposes that the above recommendations be incorporated as the central pillars of a human development strategic framework for Sudan. This proposal should be guided by key guidelines, ideas and principles. Such a human development framework should:

- Adopt the Sudan *Human Development Report 2010* as a foundational situational analysis for the framework. It can be used to determine opportunities, threats, strengths and weaknesses in current human development levels in Sudan.
- The analysis we set out in this report also provides a basis for setting broad human development targets for Sudan.
- The human development strategic framework should also set clear, quantifiable and time-bound goals, purposes, output and activities for the strategy.
- Policies and programs should be designed and implemented by local government institutions to build human development capacities and capabilities at local levels.
- Evidence-based systems should be put into place to monitor and evaluate outputs through verifiable, quantitative indicators and measures from the start.
- Monitoring and evaluation of progress towards achieving short-, medium-, and long-term goals as well as the strategy as a whole is vital to demonstrating the effectiveness and impact of a human development framework for Sudan.

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Statistical tables

Statistical Table (1)

Human development index and components for Sudan, 1975-2007

Years	Adult Literacy Rate	Combined gross enrollment rate primary, secondary and tertiary	Life Expectancy at Birth	GDP per capita (PPP)	Education index	Longevity index	Income index	Human development index value
1975	28.0	20.9	47.2	1.161	0.256	0.370	0.410	0.345
1976	29.1a	21.2	47.6	1.313	0.265	0.377	0.430	0.357
1977	30.1	21.9	48.1	1.352	0.274	0.385	0.435	0.365
1978	31.0	22.6	48.5	1.233	0.282	0.392	0.420	0.364
1979	32.3	22.9	48.9	1.134	0.292	0.398	0.406	0.365
1980	33.3	22.6	49.3	1.115	0.297	0.405	0.403	0.368
1981	34.2a	23.0	49.7	1.159	0.305	0.412	0.409	0.375
1982	35.1	23.4	50.0	1.187	0.312	0.417	0.413	0.381
1983	36.3	23.3	50.4	1.173	0.320	0.423	0.411	0.385
1984	37.0	23.3	50.7	1.080	0.324	0.428	0.397	0.383
1985	38.4	24.0	50.9	985	0.336	0.432	0.382	0.383
1986	39.7a	24.0	51.2	1.013	0.345	0.437	0.387	0.389
1987	40.9	24.5	51.5	1.132	0.354	0.442	0.405	0.400
1988	42.5	26.0	51.9	1.106	0.370	0.448	0.401	0.407
1989	42.5	27.7	52.2	1.180	0.376	0.453	0.412	0.414
1990	43.0	29.0	52.5	1.092	0.383	0.458	0.399	0.414
1991	43.0	30.5	52.9	1.147	0.388	0.465	0.408	0.420
1992	43.4b	31.0b	53.2	1.194	0.393	0.470	0.414	0.426
1993	43.8	31.0b	53.6	1.219	0.395	0.477	0.418	0.430
1994	44.8b	31.0b	53.9	1.202	0.402	0.482	0.415	0.433
1995	46.1b	32.0b	54.3	1.244	0.414	0.488	0.421	0.441
1996	49.0	33.3	54.7	1.286	0.438	0.495	0.427	0.453
1997	53.3b	34.0b	55.2	1.336	0.469	0.503	0.433	0.468
1998	55.7b	34.0b	55.7	1.389	0.485	0.512	0.440	0.479
1999	56.9b	34.0b	56.3	1.445	0.493	0.522	0.446	0.487
2000	57.8b	34.0b	57.0	1.506	0.499	0.533	0.453	0.495
2001	58.8b	34.0b	57.6	1.567	0.505	0.543	0.460	0.503
2002	59.9b	34.0b	58.2	1.636	0.519	0.553	0.467	0.513
2003	59.0b	38.0b	58.7	1.695	0.520	0.562	0.473	0.518
2004	60.9b	37.0b	59.2	1.750	0.529	0.570	0.478	0.526
2005	60.9b	37.3b	59.5	1.853	0.530	0.575	0.488	0.531
2006	60.9	38.6	59.9	2.050	0.535	0.582	0.505	0.540
2007	60.9b	39.9b	60.2	2.086	0.539	0.587	0.507	0.544

Columns 1 and 2: *aPopulation Division of the United Nations, bUNESCO Institute for Statistics. Data are compiled from Sudan Ministry of Education and Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research where international data sources were not available.* ***Columns 3 and 4:*** *World Bank 2011.*

See Technical Annex for details on calculating the human development index.

Statistical Table (2)

Life Expectancy at Birth and Per Capita GDP (PPP) for Females in Sudan (1990-2008)

Years	(1) Life Expectancy at Birth	(2) Per Capita GDP (PPP)
1990	54.1	415
1991	54.4	436
1992	54.8	453
1993	55.2	560
1994	55.5	560
1995	55.9	573
1996	56.4	593
1997	56.8	638
1998	57.4	647
1999	57.9	689
2000	58.5	718
2001	59.1	754
2002	59.7	792
2003	60.2	822
2004	60.7	710
2005	61.1	751
2006	61.5	861
2007	61.9	1042
2008	62.2	1276

Source: (1): World Bank 2011.

(2): Compiled from UNDP Human Development Reports (Various Issues) and Abdelmawla (2010).

Statistical Table (3)

HDI Indicators and HDI Indices by States (Total), 2008

State	Adult Literacy Rate	Primary Education Enrollment Rate	Secondary Education Enrollment Rate	Life Expectancy at Birth	Per Capita Income (PPP)*	Longevity Index**	Educational Attainment Index**	Income Index**	HDI**	Income Rank Minus HDI Rank**
Northern	70.2	61.9	35.9	63.3	2988	0.638	0.631	0.567	0.612	3-3 = 0
River Nile	76.5	71.3	40.1	61	2528	0.6	0.696	0.54	0.612	4-4 = 0
Red Sea	71.5	53.5	27.1	59	2128	0.567	0.611	0.511	0.563	8-9 = -1
Kassala	70.1	60	38.6	58.7	2068	0.562	0.632	0.506	0.566	10-8 = 2
Gadarif	60.5	55.6	36.3	59.8	2288	0.58	0.557	0.523	0.553	6-10 = -4
Khartoum	85.6	89.3	73.3	65.9	3508	0.682	0.842	0.594	0.706	1-1 = 0
Gezira	81.7	84.4	70.7	65.5	3428	0.675	0.803	0.59	0.69	2-2 = 0
Sinnar	74	76.6	52.7	59	2128	0.567	0.709	0.511	0.595	9-6 = 3
Blue Nile	62.9	50.5	44.3	57.2	1768	0.537	0.577	0.48	0.531	14-13 = 1
White Nile	66.6	70.9	60.1	61	2528	0.6	0.662	0.54	0.601	5-5 = 0
North Kordofan	66.5	67.9	46.6	59.8	2288	0.58	0.634	0.523	0.579	7-7 = 0
South Kordofan	63 .3	49	30.5	57.9	1908	0.548	0.555	0.493	0.532	11-12 = -1
North Darfur	60	70.1	58.5	57.6	1848	0.543	0.614	0.487	0.548	12-11 = 1
West Darfur	57.2	63.2	42	57	1728	0.533	0.557	0.476	0.522	15-15 = 0
South Darfur	59.1	63.4	37.8	57.6	1848	0.543	0.563	0.487	0.531	13-14 = 2
Sudan						0.584	0.643	0.522	0.583	

HDI Indicators and HDI Indices by Regions (Total), 2008

Northern	76.0	67.2	38.2	61.5	2628	0.608	0.682	0.546	0.612	2 – 2 = 0
East	74.0	56.5	33.2	57.1	1748	0.535	0.643	0.478	0.552	5 – 4 = 1
Khartoum	85.6	89.3	73.3	65.9	3508	0.682	0.842	0.594	0.706	1 – 1 = 0
Central	70.0	74.9	63.7	60.5	2428	0.592	0.698	0.533	0.607	3 – 3 = 0
Kordofan	63.0	60.3	39.4	58.5	2028	0.558	0.586	0.503	0.549	4 – 5 = -1
Darfur	44.0	65.5	44.7	56.3	1588	0.522	0.477	0.462	0.487	6 – 6 = 0

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics: The Fifth Population Census, 2008, Council of Ministers, Khartoum, Sudan.

** Estimates.*

*** Authors' calculations.*

a Aggregates calculated based on regional averages estimated in the Census.

Statistical Table (4)

HDI Indicators and HDI Indices for Females by States, 2008

State	Adult literacy Rate	Primary Education Enrollment Rate	Secondary Education Enrollment Rate	Life Expectancy at Birth	Per Capita Income (PPP)*	Longevity Index**	Educational Attainment Index**	Income Index**	HDI**	Income Rank Minus HDI Rank**
Northern	65.9	58.2	34.4	63.7	1544	0.645	0.594	0.457	0.565	3-3 = 0
River Nile	75.4	66.7	38.9	61.1	1173	0.602	0.679	0.411	0.564	5-4 = 1
Red Sea	66.3	43.4	22.1	59.1	887	0.568	0.551	0.365	0.495	9-9 = 0
Kassala	65.2	55.2	36.5	59.1	887	0.568	0.588	0.365	0.507	10-8 = 2
Gadarif	50.4	50	33.4	60.1	1030	0.585	0.475	0.39	0.483	7-10 = -3
Khartoum	85	88.4	71.2	66.4	1930	0.69	0.833	0.494	0.672	1-1 = 0
Gezira	80.4	82.3	70	65.9	1859	0.682	0.79	0.488	0.653	2-2 = 0
Sinnar	69.3	74.3	50.3	59.2	901	0.57	0.67	0.367	0.536	8-6 = 2
Blue Nile	56.6	45.3	35.2	57.8	701	0.547	0.511	0.325	0.461	14-13 = 1
White Nile	61.7	66.5	54.3	61.7	1259	0.612	0.613	0.423	0.549	4-5 = -1
North Kordofan	62.4	64.3	40.6	60.6	1101	0.593	0.591	0.401	0.528	6-7 = -1
South Kordofan	58.5	43.2	26.5	58.8	844	0.563	0.506	0.356	0.475	11-12 = -1
North Darfur	52.4	68.5	53.4	58.2	759	0.553	0.553	0.338	0.481	13-11 = 2
West Darfur	48.6	57.3	39.9	58.3	773	0.555	0.486	0.342	0.461	12-14 = -2
South Darfur	49.8	56.3	32.5	57.8	701	0.547	0.48	0.325	0.451	15-15 = 0
Sudan						0.592	0.595	0.39	0.525	

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics: The Fifth Population Census, 2008.

** Estimates.*

*** Authors' calculations.*

Statistical Table (5)

HDI Indicators and HDI Indices for Males by States, 2008

State	Adult Literacy Rate	Primary Education Enrollment Rate	Secondary Education Enrollment Rate	Life Expectancy	Per Capita Income (PPP)*	Longevity Index**	Educational Attainment Index**	Income Index**	HDI**	Income Rank Minus HDI Rank**
Northern	75.4	65.8	37.7	62.8	4432	0.63	0.675	0.633	0.646	3-3 = 0
River Nile	77.6	75.9	41.3	60.9	3883	0.598	0.713	0.611	0.641	4-4 = 0
Red Sea	76.8	64.3	32.2	58.8	3369	0.563	0.673	0.588	0.608	8-8 = 0
Kassala	74.9	63.2	40	58.2	3249	0.553	0.671	0.581	0.602	10-9 = 1
Gadarif	70.6	61.2	39	59.4	3546	0.573	0.638	0.596	0.602	6-10 = -4
Khartoum	86.1	90.1	75.2	65.3	5086	0.672	0.85	0.656	0.726	1-1 = 0
Gezira	83	86.3	71.3	64.2	4997	0.653	0.816	0.653	0.708	2-2 = 0
Sinnar	78.7	78.8	55.3	58.8	3355	0.563	0.748	0.587	0.633	9-6 = 3
Blue Nile	69.1	55.5	49.7	56.6	2835	0.527	0.636	0.559	0.574	14-13 = 1
White Nile	71.5	75.2	67.1	60.3	3797	0.588	0.714	0.607	0.637	5-5 = 0
North Kordofan	70.5	71.2	54.4	59	3475	0.567	0.679	0.593	0.613	7-7 = 0
South Kordofan	68.1	54.9	34.5	57.1	2972	0.535	0.603	0.567	0.568	12-15 = -3
North Darfur	67.5	71.5	63.4	57	2937	0.533	0.675	0.565	0.591	13-11 = 2
West Darfur	65.8	68.6	43.2	57.7	2683	0.545	0.625	0.549	0.573	15-14 = 1
South Darfur	68.5	70	42.1	57.3	2995	0.538	0.644	0.568	0.583	11-12 = -1
Sudan						0.576	0.691	0.594	0.620	

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics: The Fifth Population Census, 2008.

** Estimates.*

*** Authors' calculations.*

Statistical Table (6)

Gender Gap in HDI by States, 2008

State	Males HDI	Females HDI	Gender Gap in HDI
Northern	0.646	0.565	0.081
River Nile	0.641	0.564	0.077
Red Sea	0.608	0.495	0.113
Kassala	0.602	0.507	0.095
Gadarif	0.602	0.483	0.119
Khartoum	0.726	0.672	0.054
Gezira	0.708	0.653	0.055
Sinnar	0.633	0.536	0.097
Blue Nile	0.574	0.461	0.113
White Nile	0.637	0.549	0.088
North Kordofan	0.613	0.528	0.085
South Kordofan	0.568	0.475	0.093
North Darfur	0.591	0.481	0.11
West Darfur	0.573	0.461	0.112
South Darfur	0.583	0.451	0.132
Sudan	0.62	0.525	0.095

Source: Authors' calculations based on appendices (4) and (5).

Statistical Table (7)

Gender-related Development Indicators for Sudan, 2008

Indicators	Value
Male life expectancy at birth	57.5
Female life expectancy at birth	58.5
Male adult literacy rate (%)	65.5
Female adult literacy rate (%)	53.7
Male gross enrollment rate (primary and secondary education) (%)	50.3
Female gross enrollment rate (primary and secondary education) (%)	42.5

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics: The Fifth Population Census, 2008

Statistical Table (8)

Detailed Sector Shares (%) in GDP by Kind, 1973/74 -1980/81

Year	Agric.	Mining And Quarrying	Manu-facturing And Handy-Crafts	Electricity And Water		Build-ing And Const.	Com-merce Restau-rant And Hotels	Trans-port And Comm.	Finance Insurance Real estate & Business Ser.	Com-munity, Social And Personal Services	Nominal Financial Institu-tion	Govt. Ser-vices	Private Non-Profit Services To H/Hs.	Import Duties	GRAND TOTAL
				Elect-ricity	Water										
Pre Conflict															
1973/74	41.4	0.3	8.6	1.5		4.9	14.1	6	7.7	1.3	-1.2	10.2	1	4.2	100
1974/75	38.7	0.3	9.2	1.4		4.3	16.2	5.9	7.4	1.1	-1.3	10	0.9	5.9	100
1975/76	34	0.3	8.4	0.5	1	4.8	17.1	10.4	7.5	1	-1.1	9.3	0.8	6	100
1976/77	35.2	0.1	8.2	0.3	1.1	4.4	19	9.7	7.3	1.2	-1.4	9.3	0.9	4.7	100
1977/78	36.5	0.1	7.5	0.3	1	4.1	19.2	9.7	6.6	1.1	-1.3	9.1	0.9	5.2	100
1978/79	34.1	0.1	8.7	0.3	1.1	3.8	19.7	11.2	6.7	1.3	-1.3	8.7	1	4.6	100
1979/80	31.3	0.1	8.5	0.6	0.6	4.8	17.1	11.7	8.8	1.6	-1.3	9.8	1.5	4.9	100
1980/81	32.1	0.1	8	0.4	0.6	5.4	14.4	11.4	10.5	1.5	-1.6	10	1.5	5.7	100
Period average	35.4	0.2	8.4	0.7	0.9	4.6	17.1	9.5	7.8	1.3	-1.3	9.6	1.1	5.2	100

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Report 2007, National Accounts Administration, Khartoum, Sudan.

Statistical Table (9)

Detailed Sector Shares (%) in GDP by Kind, 1981/82-1998

Year	Agric.	Mining And Quarrying	Manufacturing And Handy-Crafts	Electricity And Water		Building And Const.	Commerce Restaurant And Hotels	Transport And Comm.	Finance Insurance Real estate & Business Ser.	Community, Social And Personal Services	Nominal Financial Institution	Govt. Services	Private Non-Profit Services To H/Hs.	Import Duties	GRAND TOTAL
				Electricity	Water										
Pre Conflict															
1981/82	36.6	0.1	8	0.2	0.9	5.4	13	10	11.1	1.4	-1.5	8.3	1.1	5.4	100
1982/83	32.5	0.1	7.9	0.1	0.8	6.3	15.5	9.8	12	1.5	-1.4	8.1	1.1	5.7	100
Period Average	35.2	0.2	8.3	0.6	0.9	4.8	16.5	9.6	8.6	1.3	-1.3	9.3	1.1	5.2	100
During Conflict															
1983/84	30.3	0	8.5	0.5	1	5.5	17.7	9.4	11.3	1.5	-1.2	8.6	1.31	5.5	100
1984/85	27.5	0	9.1	0.7	1	5.4	21.5	8.1	12.4	1.6	-0.9	7.2	1.37	5	100
1985/86	31.1	0	8	0.6	1.1	5	21.6	7	12	1.6	-0.9	7	1.29	4.7	100
1986/87	37.7	0.03	5.6	0.5	0.9	4.3	21.5	11.4	9.4	1.2	-0.7	4.5	0.9	2.6	100
1987/88	38.2	0.1	7.3	0.3	1.07	4.4	17.9	12	8.4	0.9	-0.9	5.7	0.8	3.9	100
1988/89	40.3	0.06	6.9	0.1	1.1	3.1	23.3	9.6	6.4	1.2	-0.8	4.9	1.1	3	100
1989/90	35.4	0.09	6.7	0.3	0.8	5	24.6	7.9	7.1	2	-0.8	6.2	1.9	2.4	100
1990/91	41.3	0.09	5.2	0.2	0.8	5.2	21.2	7.7	8.6	2.1	-0.5	4	2	2.2	100
1991/92	39.9	0.1	6.2	0.3	0.8	4.6	23	6.9	10.2	2.1	-2.2	4	1.9	2.2	100
1992/93	38.3	0.3	5.2	0.3	0.9	4.7	28	5.7	7.4	1.9	-0.9	3.5	1.8	2.9	100
1993/94	41.1	0.3	5	0.2	0.8	6	23.1	6.9	8.1	2.5	-0.7	2.7	2.3	1.7	100
1994/95	44.4	0.3	6.8	0.1	0.7	4.2	18	11.5	5.6	2.2	-0.7	2.3	2	2.6	100
1996	40.3	0.4	7.8	0	0.7	4.3	18	11.2	8.7	2.3	-0.6	2.7	1.8	2.3	100
1997	45.6	0.3	6.4	0	0.6	3.7	16.3	9.6	8.1	2.1	-0.8	3.1	1.9	3	100
1998	39.7	0.3	6	0.1	0.6	9.2	16.9	11.8	8.1	2.1	-1.1	3.1	1.6	1.9	100
Period Average	38.1	0.2	6.7	0.3	0.9	5	20.8	9.1	8.8	1.8	-0.9	4.6	1.6	3.1	100

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Report 2007, National Accounts Administration, Khartoum, Sudan.

Statistical Table (10)

Detailed Sector Shares (%) in GDP by Kind, 1999 – 2004

Kind of Economic Activity		1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	Period Average
Agriculture, Livestock, Forestry & Fishing		36.7	35.7	35.8	37.7	38.4	34.0	36.4
Petroleum		1.5	6.8	6.8	6.7	6.8	6.9	5.9
Other Mining and Quarrying		0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Manufacturing and Handicrafts		5.9	6.7	8.2	9.3	8.7	9.4	8.0
Electricity and Water		0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.2	1.2	0.7
Building and Construction		6.1	3.4	3.7	4.0	3.8	3.8	4.1
Commerce, Restaurant and Hotels	**During Conflict cont.**	17.0	16.8	15.8	14.7	15.5	15.7	15.9
Transport and Communication		14.4	11.9	10.6	8.5	10.0	12.2	11.3
Finance, Insurance, Real-estate & Business Services		8.2	8.3	7.8	8.6	7.9	7.8	8.1
Community ,Social and Personal Services		2.2	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.3	1.8
Nominal Financial Institutions		-0.5	-0.6	-0.4	-0.6	-0.7	-0.8	-0.6
Government Services		3.8	4.2	5.5	5.1	4.9	5.6	4.8
Private non-profit services to Households		1.8	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.4
Import Duties		1.9	2.2	2.0	2.2	1.5	1.7	1.9
GDP Total		100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Report 2007, National Accounts Administration, Khartoum, Sudan.

Statistical Table (11)

Detailed Sector Shares (%) in GDP by Kind, 2005 – 2008

Kind of Economic Activity		1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	Period Average
Agriculture, Livestock, Forestry & Fishing		33.2	31.8	35.6	36.1	34.2	34.0	36.4
Petroleum		7.5	10.3	14.1	17	12.2	6.9	5.9
Other Mining and Quarrying		0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3
Manufacturing and Handicrafts		8.5	7.9	7.8	7.3	7.9	9.4	8.0
Electricity and Water		1.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	1.2	0.7
Building and Construction		4.5	4.3	3.8	3.5	4.0	3.8	4.1
Commerce, Restaurant and Hotels	**During Conflict cont.**	14.7	15	14	13.5	14.3	15.7	15.9
Transport and Communication		14.6	12.9	8.1	7.5	10.8	12.2	11.3
Finance, Insurance, Real-estate & Business Services		7.7	8.1	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.8	8.1
Community ,Social and Personal Services		1.2	1.1	1.1	1	1.1	1.3	1.8
Nominal Financial Institutions		-1	-1.4	-1.1	-1.1	-1.2	-0.8	-0.6
Government Services		5	6.8	6.1	6.1	6.0	5.6	4.8
Private non-profit services to Households		0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.4
Import Duties		1.8	1.8	1.7	0.2	1.4	1.7	1.9
Grand Total		100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Report 2007, and Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Administration, Khartoum, Sudan.

Statistical Table (12)

Detailed Sector Growth Rates in GDP (Nominal) by Kind, 1972/73-1980/81

Year	Agric.	Mining And Quarrying	Manu-facturing And Handy-Crafts	Electricity And Water		Build-ing And Const.	Com-merce Restau-rant And Hotels	Trans-port And Comm.	Finance Insurance Real estate & Business Ser.	Com-munity, Social And Personal Services	Nominal Financial Institu-tion	Govt. Ser-vices	Private Non-Profit Services To H/Hs.	Import Duties	GRAND TOTAL
				Elect-ricity	Water										
1972/73	41.3	12.9	3.7	3.6		18.2	1.8	19.9	18.6	103.9	-2.8	5.6	6.5	1.1	19.3
1973/74	49.9	17.1	35.0	6.3		95.5	23.0	21.6	95.3	0.6	49.0	22.0	5.2	14.8	39.0
1974/75	13.3	12.2	29.0	12.4		6.6	39.6	19.5	16.4	7.7	22.6	18.2	6.6	68.8	21.2
1975/76	7.3	19.6	12.5	-56.0		36.6	28.6	115.2	24.6	13.7	6.8	13.4	13.2	23.9	22.3
1976/77	31.2	-72.7	23.1	-15.2	36.6	16.3	41.2	17.8	20.5	52.4	64.0	27.1	50.0	-0.2	26.6
1977/78	27.6	13.3	12.3	10.3	12.8	14.8	24.8	23.2	14.6	10.7	11.7	19.9	12.3	36.0	23.2
1978/79	5.6	111.8	31.3	22.1	15.4	4.6	15.4	30.3	14.2	28.3	11.8	8.1	28.5	0.5	12.9
1979/80	11.9	5.6	19.1	145.7	-27.5	53.1	5.7	27.4	59.5	57.4	24.8	38.7	86.4	28.8	22.1
1980/81	28.0	7.9	17.3	-18.2	16.4	41.4	5.0	21.8	49.2	18.0	53.4	26.1	24.6	44.8	24.6
Period average	24.0	14.2	20.4	12.3	10.7	31.9	20.6	33.0	34.8	32.5	26.8	19.9	24.0	14.2	20.4

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Report 2007, National Accounts Administration, Khartoum, Sudan.

Statistical Table (13)

Detailed Sector Growth Rates in GDP by Kind, 1982/83-1998

Year	Agric.	Mining And Quarrying	Manu-facturing And Handy-Crafts	Electricity And Water		Build-ing And Const.	Com-merce Restau-rant And Hotels	Trans-port And Comm.	Finance Insurance Real estate & Business Ser.	Com-munity, Social And Personal Services	Nominal Financial Institu-tion	Govt. Ser-vices	Private Non-Profit Services To H/Hs.	Import Duties	GDP
				Elect-ricity	Water										
Pre Conflict															
1982/83	-8.9	35.1	8.7	60.1	7.3	18.0	6.2	1.3	3.6	10.9	-13.5	14.7	6.1	8.3	2.1
1983/84	-4.6	-14.0	-1.2	25.8	8.2	-16.0	-15.0	-0.8	0.4	2.3	9.1	17.9	6.1	-36.9	-5.0
Period Average	-6.8	10.6	3.8	43.0	7.8	1.0	-4.4	0.3	2.0	6.6	-2.2	16.3	6.1	-14.3	-1.5
During Conflict															
1984/85	-12.2	-4.7	3.6	45.0	-1.1	-7.4	6.2	-10.4	-0.6	2.7	-8.9	-11.9	-1.6	-19.2	-6.3
1985/86	16.5	0.0	-5.7	-17.4	10.2	-12.9	-5.3	33.1	-1.3	5.3	-4.0	-4.6	-0.7	-13.1	5.4
1986/87	9.5	-36.6	20.5	1.8	-6.2	20.4	61.2	-4.3	20.8	4.3	2.7	-6.7	4.0	-18.4	14.2
1987/88	-12.5	30.8	3.0	4.1	11.0	-4.9	-7.7	8.1	5.8	-1.8	10.0	4.6	4.1	155.7	-0.3
1988/89	32.8	41.2	0.1	6.5	3.5	-6.6	-1.1	-12.7	29.6	4.4	6.5	4.0	3.7	-58.4	8.9
1989/90	-20.2	50.0	-11.3	4.3	-5.9	25.1	-13.5	-1.4	-2.3	4.4	-18.5	54.1	3.6	-35.1	-5.5
1990/91	-1.3	9.7	3.7	7.7	5.8	44.4	4.2	40.5	-17.6	4.7	20.9	21.6	3.6	69.0	7.5
1991/92	24.5	89.9	29.9	61.8	2.7	-42.8	46.9	7.9	-8.6	-1.7	70.3	-39.9	3.3	47.0	6.6
1992/93	1.6	5.3	-2.2	28.6	3.3	32.1	1.6	5.8	17.3	2.2	33.8	3.1	2.3	9.9	4.6
1993/94	-3.7	15.8	-12.0	-9.9	3.2	7.2	4.4	1.4	14.1	7.6	-23.1	5.3	2.3	-29.7	1.0
1994/95	6.0	6.0	6.0	5.9	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
1996	44.6	77.3	36.6	-102.0	177.9	-57.6	-24.5	-8.7	14.4	3.3	7.7	15.1	-1.1	-8.0	11.6
1997	9.7	6.4	1.5	52.9	6.5	7.1	3.5	-1.3	2.0	3.0	45.0	23.6	2.8	3.4	6.1
1998	6.8	29.5	7.4	92.3	2.7	161.4	-0.3	-0.7	14.5	2.8	30.0	1.4	2.8	22.6	8.2
Period average	7.3	22.9	5.8	13.0	14.8	12.2	5.8	4.5	6.7	3.4	12.7	5.4	2.5	9.4	4.9

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Report 2007, National Accounts Administration, Khartoum, Sudan.

Statistical Table (14)

Detailed Sector Growth Rates and GDP by Kind, 1999 -2004

Kind of Economic Activity		1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	Period Average
Agriculture, Livestock, Forestry & Fishing		3.1	7.6	6.6	2.2	10.6	-7.8	3.7
Petroleum			264.7	17.1	13.3	22.6	10.2	65.6
Other Mining and Quarrying		-3.0	6.5	-18.4	4.3	3.6	-22.0	-4.8
Manufacturing and Handicrafts		3.4	24.2	21.3	26.3	-12.1	2.3	10.9
Electricity and Water		5.2	-17.8	-0.8	8.3	-9.7	57.5	7.1
Building and Construction		-37.4	-24.8	30.9	5.5	13.7	18.1	1.0
Commerce, Restaurant and Hotels	**During Conflict cont.**	0.9	1.4	2.8	2.7	9.1	-3.3	2.3
Transport and Communication		-0.1	6.0	-1.1	25.5	8.4	9.8	8.1
Finance, Insurance, Real-estate & Business Services		2.4	-0.6	8.2	4.9	12.9	-4.3	3.9
Community ,Social and Personal Services		4.4	9.3	6.5	5.3	12.4	0.2	6.4
Nominal Financial Institutions		-43.7	-1.0	-7.9	36.8	37.5	-2.5	3.2
Government Services		13.0	-4.0	36.3	-13.5	4.3	64.2	16.7
Private non-profit services to Households		5.5	5.5	3.4	4.2	15.9	-0.7	5.6
Import Duties		-18.7	5.4	-9.2	32.1	21.4	26.3	9.5
GDP		4.2	8.4	10.8	6.0	6.3	5.1	6.8

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Report 2007, National Accounts Administration, Khartoum, Sudan.

Statistical Table (15)

Detailed Sector Growth Rates and GDP by Kind, 2005 – 2008

Kind of Economic Activity		1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	Period Average
Agriculture, Livestock, Forestry & Fishing		4.8	9.2	-5.4	5.0	3.4	34.0	36.4
Petroleum		11.7	38.1	33.1	-5.3	19.4	6.9	5.9
Other Mining and Quarrying		16.0	-33.8	-13.5	-12.1	-10.9	0.2	0.3
Manufacturing and Handicrafts		3.1	2.0	19.0	0.1	6.1	9.4	8.0
Electricity and Water		13.0	9.8	6.0	8.2	9.3	1.2	0.7
Building and Construction		19.9	5.5	8.3	2.7	9.1	3.8	4.1
Commerce, Restaurant and Hotels	**During Conflict cont.**	5.6	6.1	6.3	6.7	6.2	15.7	15.9
Transport and Communication		8.5	-1.1	11.6	-13.3	1.4	12.2	11.3
Finance, Insurance, Real-estate & Business Services		6.8	6.0	1.2	5.8	5.0	7.8	8.1
Community ,Social and Personal Services		5.9	3.4	3.0	0.7	3.3	1.3	1.8
Nominal Financial Institutions		2.4	39.1	-4.5	9.3	11.6	-0.8	-0.6
Government Services		1.5	-3.7	1.3	11.7	2.7	5.6	4.8
Private non-profit services to Households		4.1	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.8	1.0	1.4
Import Duties		-10.8	19.9	2.9	2.8	3.7	1.7	1.9
GDP		5.6	6.5	5.7	2.2	5.0	100	100

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Report 2007, and Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Administration, Khartoum, Sudan.

Statistical Table (16)

Selected External Sector Indicators, 1978-2009 (000 SDG)
At current prices

Particular/year	Exports	Re-exports	Imports	Trade Balance
Pre-conflict				
1978	183	1	329	-145
79	253	1	473	-219
80	292	5	856	-559
81	280	5	918	-633
82	487	6	1556	-1063
83	679	21	1752	-1052
During conflict				
84	713	25	1605	-867
85	523	27	2080	-1530
86	809	38	1569	-722
87	1283	19	2429	-1127
88	2290	48	4917	-2579
89	3032	59	5261	-2170
90	3526	72	5062	-1464
91	5083	68	13621	-8470
92	25141	185	100078	-74752
93	49656	339	192774	-142779
94	111464	1822	370301	-257015
95	350075	50	617905	-267780
96	539069	1166	1327278	-787043
97	769528	2830	2573221	-1800863
98	1006928	66670	4133746	-3060148
99	1853219	11706	3942447	-2077522
2000	4832563	50092	4261840	620815
2001	4687155	169173	5064689	-208361
2002	5287200	276894	6046458	-482364
2003	6450880	352114	7552848	-749854
2004	8735308	579301	10204753	-890144
Post-conflict				
2005	10601781	361295	16982709	-6019633
2006	11575244	299826	19111890	-7236820
2007	17893359	135885	19254382	-1225138
2008	24612008	71597	25930776	-1247171
2009	17135786	125319	19064247	-1803142

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Report 2007, and Central Bureau of Statistics, National Accounts Administration, Khartoum, Sudan.

Statistical Table (17)

Selected Public Finance Indicators, 1981-2008 (In Billions SDG)

Particulars	1981 - 1983	1984 - 1994	1995 - 1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	During Conflict Average	2005	2006	2007	2008	Post Conflict Average	Grand Average
Ordinary Public Revenues	0.12	0.31	1.14	3.3	3.6	4.7	7	10.2	4.3	12.2	15.1	19.31	26.42	18.3	7.6
Total Expenditure	0.25	0.58	1.31	3.5	3.9	5.2	7.4	11	4.7	13.8	18.3	19.84	24.33	19.1	8
Fiscal Balance	-0.13	-0.27	-0.2	-0.2	-0.3	-0.5	-0.4	-0.8	-0.4	-1.6	-3.2	-0.53	2.09	-0.8	-0.4
Revenue / GDP Ratio%	11.38	8.6	6.6	11.6	11.2	12.2	16.7	19.2	12.3	18.9	20	20.09	21.39	20.1	14.6
Expenditure / GDP Ratio%	17.26	20.18	7.7	12.2	12	13.4	17.5	20.7	14.8	21.5	22.9	26.09	23.02	23.4	18.5
Fiscal Balance /GDP Ratio%	-6.1	-8.2	-1.1	-0.6	-0.8	-1.2	-0.8	-1.5	-2	-2.6	-4.39	-5.4	-1.4	-3.4	-3.9

Source: Ministry of Finance and National Economy (1975-2008), Mahran (2007), Saber (2009), Eldaw (2010b) and authors' calculations.

Statistical Table (18)

Sudan Macroeconomic Indicators, 1972-2008

Period	Saving/GDP Ratio (%)	Investment/GDP Ratio (%)	GDP Growth Rate (%)	Inflation Rate (%)	Nominal Exchange Rate Depreciation (%)
Pre Conflict					
1972 - 1983	7.3	12.7	3.8	19.6	9.2
1980-1983	4.8	7.7	3.7	38.4	7.5
Period average	6	10.3	3.6	28.5	8.5
During Conflict					
1984-1989	5.7	9.9	2.3	65.3	74.2
1990-1995	11.5	18	5.1	105.4	165.9
1996-1999	11.2	22.8	6.6	52.7	34.5
2000	8.9	22.6	8.3	8.1	0.1
2001	8.2	17.6	6.4	4.9	0.006
2002	13.4	19.4	4.9	8.3	0.014
2003	15.3	20	6.1	7.4	-0.006
2004	18.7	22.6	7.2	8.4	-0.01
Period average	11.6	19.1	5.9	32.6	34.3
Post Conflict					
2005	14.8	38	8.1	8.5	-0.05
2006	13.6	34.3	10.3	7.2	-0.053
2007	13.3	34.1	10.2	9.8	-0.032
2008	12.7	30.2	6.8	14.3	0.001
Period average	13.6	34.2	8.9	10	-0.034
Grand average	10.4	21.2	6.1	23.7	14.3

Source: Bank of Sudan annual reports (Various Issues), IMF (2006), Sudan Economic Report (2009), Saber (2009) and authors' calculations.

Statistical Table (19)

Banking Finance by Sector (%), 1995 -2008

Year	Agriculture	Industry	Exports	Imports	Domestic Trade	Other Sectors	Total
1995-99	29.1	17.6	20.3	3.8	4.2	25	100
2000-04	14.6	12.3	15.4	5.2	21.1	31.4	100
Period average	21.9	15	17.9	4.5	12.7	28.2	100
Post Conflict							
2005	6.5	14.8	6.4	2.6	31.8	37.9	100
2006	11.9	9.3	4	2.5	22.5	49.8	100
2007	9.3	9.9	2.4	14.9	19.9	43.6	100
2008	10.7	9.3	2.2	12.3	18.6	46.9	100
Period average	9.6	10.8	3.8	8.1	23.2	44.6	100
Grand average	12.1	11.6	9.6	6.6	22.2	38	100

Source: Bank of Sudan Annual Reports, various issues.

Statistical Table (20)

Sudan MDGs status at a glance (before 9 th July 2011)

Goals	Targets	Indicators
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	Reduce by half the proportion of people living 0n less than a dollar-a-day	The proportion of the population below one dollar per day
		Employment-rate
		Proportion of own-account in total employment
		Proportion of family workers in total employment
	Reduce by half, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age
Achieve Universal primary education	Ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling	Gross enrolment in Basic education
		Proportion of pupils who reach last grade of basic education
Promote gender equality and empower women	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015	Ratio of girls to boys in Basic education
		Proportion of seats held by women in parliaments
Reduce child mortality	Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the mortality rate among children under five	Under five mortality rate per(000) live birth
		Infant mortality rate per(000) live birth
		Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
	Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health	Contraceptive prevalence rate
		Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits
Combat HIV / AID, malaria and other diseases	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/ AIDS	HIV prevalence among population aged 15-49 years
	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	Proportion of children under 5 sleeping under insecticide-treated bed nets
		Proportion of children under 5 sleeping under insecticide-treated bed nets
	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	Proportion of children under 5 with fever who are treated with appropriate anti-malarial drugs
		Incidence, prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis
Ensure environmental sustainability	Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources	Proportion of land area covered by forest
		CO2 emissions, total, per capita and per $1 GDP (PPP)
	Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss	Proportion of total water resources used
	Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation	Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source
		Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility
	In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications	Telephone lines per 100 population
		Cellular subscribers per 100 population
		Internet users per 100 population

Sources: SPHS-2010, NBHS-2009, SHHS-2006 and National Population Council General Secretariat (NPC/GS), Khartoum, Sudan.

** World Bank, World Development Indicators database, 2010*

***, ***: Authors' calculations based on the growth rates of the end points*

Status	Achievement		2015 Target	Projection 2015**	Horizon***
	Current Level	Reference Year			
90 (1990)	49%	2009	45%	40.3	
83.8 (2005)	84%	2008		84	
	34%	2008			
	31%	2008			
54.7 (1990)	31% (medium	2006	27.35	22.5	
GER 53.1 (1995)	(76.3%).	2008	100%	92.6	2018
36 (2000)*	70%	2008	100%		2013
77 (1990)*	90%	2009	100%	94.4	2022
5 (1995)*	25%	2010 (elections)	50	41.6	2017
124 (1990)*	90	2008	41.3	78.1	2047
120 (1993)	100	2008	40	65	2072
69 (1990)*	49.20%	2006		40.6	
9 (1990)*	7.60%	2006		6.9	
70 (1990)*	69.60%	2006		69.3	
0.8 (1990)*	1.4*	2009	0.4	1.8	
	27.60%	2006			
	27.60%	2006			
	54.20%	2006			
	2.20%	2007			
32 (1990)*	29.60%	2009		28.9	
20.1 Gig (1995)	14.2 Gig	2010		12.6	
	31.50%	2010			
56.1 (2006)	57*	2009		58.7	
31.4% (2006)	34*	2009		39.9	
2% (2005)	0.90%	2009		0.24	
9% (2005)	28%	2009		125.5	
N.A	8.2%	2009			

Statistical Table (21)

Sudan MDGs Status at a glance

Goals	Targets	Indicators
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	Reduce by half the proportion of people living on less than a dollar-a-day	The proportion of the population below one dollar per day
		The proportion of the population below the national poverty line
		Poverty Gap
		Poverty Severity
	Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people	Employment rate
		Proportion of own-account in total employment(workers
		Proportion of contributing family workers in total employment(workers-family workers)
	Reduce by half, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age
		Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption
Achieve Universal primary education	Ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling	Gross enrolment in basic education
		Literacy rates of 15-24 year olds, women and men
Promote gender equality and empower women	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015	Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education
		Share of women in employment in the non-agricultural sectors
		Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament
Reduce child mortality	Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the mortality rate among children under five	Under five mortality rate
		Infant mortality rate
		Proportion of one year old children immunized against measles
Improve maternal health	Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	Maternal mortality ratio
		Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
	Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health	Contraceptive prevalence rate (current use)
		Adolescent birth rate (12-14) years
		Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits

Baseline (1990)	Status in 2004	Achievement		2015 Target
		Current Level	Reference Year	
-	64%	25%?	2009	32%
90% (1992)		46.50%	2009	23,20%
		16.20%	2009	
		7.80%	2009	
89 %(1993)		83%	2008	
41.1% (1993)		34%	2008	
26% (1993)		22%	2008	
		31.80%	2006	
-	-	28.00%	2009	
57% (1990)	65.10%	71.10%	2009	100%
27.1% (1990)	69% (2008)	77.50%	2009	100%
		53.9 to 46.1%	2007	100%
-secondary		51.6 to 49.4%	2007	100%
-tertiary		54.1% females	2008	100%
		59%	2008	100%
	9.70%	25%	2010	100%
123 (1990)	102 (2006)	102	2008	41
80 (1990)		71	2006	53
50% (2000)		85%	2009	
537 (1990)		534	2006	134
24% (1990)		57%	2006	
7.0% (2000)		7.60%	2006	
		76/1000	2008	
70%(2000)		70%	2006	

Statistical Table (21) cont.

Sudan MDGs Status at a glance

Goals	Targets	Indicators
Combat HIV / AID, malaria and other diseases	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS	HIV prevalence among population aged 15-24 years
		Proportion of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS
	Achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it	HIV prevalence among population aged 15-24 years
		Proportion of population with advanced HIV infection with access to antiretroviral drugs
	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	Incidence and death rates associated with malaria
		Proportion of children under 5 sleeping under insecticide-treated bed nets
		Incidence, prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis
		Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment short course
Ensure environmental sustainability	Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources	Proportion of land area covered by forest
		CO2 emissions, total, per capita and per $1 GDP (PPP)
	Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss	Proportion of total water resources used
	Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation	Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source
		Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility
	In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries	Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis
Develop a global partnership for development	In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications	Telephone lines per 100 population
		Cellular subscribers per 100 population
		Internet users per 100 population

Source: SPHS-2010, NBHS-2009, SHHS-2006 and Administrative data from concerned institutions

Baseline (1990)	Status in 2004	Achievement		2015 Target
		Current Level	Reference Year	
		0.5% males & 1.24% females	2009	
		4%	2006	
		0.5% for males and 1.24% (combined north & south)	2009	
		13.12%	2009	
7.5 million		3.1 million reported cases		
35.000 (2001)		8.844 death cases	2009	
21% (2005)		41%	2009	
		120		
		81.80%		
	29.6 (2004)	29.40%	2010	
20.1 Gig (1995)		14.2 Gig	2010	
		31.50%	2010	
64% (1990)		65%	2009	82%
33% (1990)		42%	2009	67%
		Public health sector (40%- 55%) & private sector (90%)	2009	
2% population. (2005)		0.9 % of populations	2009	
9% population (2005)		28 % of population	2009	
8.20%				
Population	-	10.4 % of Population	2010	
-2009				

Statistical Table (22)

Some Demographic Characteristics (1983 -2008)

Indicator	1983	2000	2005	2007	2008
Demographic Indicator					
Population, total (millions)	20.6	34.9	36.6a	38.3a	39.15
Population growth (annual %)	2.4	2.3	2.1	2.2	2.2
Health Indicators					
Life expectancy at birth, total (years)	47.5	56	57	58	59.5
Total fertility rate (births per woman)	6.7	5.1	4.5	4.2	5.7
Adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15-19)	114	76	62	57	69
Contraceptive prevalence (% of women ages 15- 49)	7.2	7	-	-	12
Births attended by skilled health staff (% of total)	32	87	-	-	59
Mortality rate, unader-5 (per 1,000)	117.8	115	110	109	100
Malnutrition prevalence, weight for age (% of children under 5)	28	38	-	-	32
Immunization, measles (% of children ages 12-23 months)	76.41	58	69	79	92.1b
Education indicators					
Primary completion rate, total (% of relevant age group)	23	37	47	50	67
Ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education (%)	12	-	45	46	46
Prevalence of HIV, total (% of population ages 15-49)	0	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.6c

Source: World Development Indicators database, September 2009 and CBS (2000, 2009).

Notes:

a. Downward projection from the fifth population Census 2008.

b Forward projection from SHHS, 2006 (94).

c Estimate.

Statistical Table (23)

Sector Shares (%) in GDP, 1973-2008

Period	Agriculture	Industry	Services		
			Total Services	Government Services	Other Services
Pre Conflict (1973 – 1982)	35.7	14.1	50.2	14.4	35.8
During Conflict (1983 – 2004)	42.4	20.8	36.8	7.7	29.1
2008	*38.1*	*29.2*	*32.7*	*14*	*18.7*
Post Conflict (2005 -2008) Period average	38.5	28.8	32.7	14	18.7
Grand average	40.1	21.2	38.7	10.7	28

Source: Authors' calculations based on data of appendices (8-11).

Statistical Table (24)

Real GDP and Sector Growth (%), 1972-2008

Period	GDP	Agriculture	Industry	Services		
				Total Services	Government Services	Other Services
Pre Conflict (1972 – 1982)	3.9	1.7	1.3	2.7	3.8	2.1
During Conflict (1983 – 2004)	*5.8*	*3.5*	*12.7*	*3.3*	*5.9*	*2.8*
2008	6.8	7.8	6.1	8.2	5.8	2.4
Post Conflict (2005 -2008) Period average	8.9	7	8.6	9.6	6.3	2.6
Grand average	6.2	4	7.5	5.2	5.3	2.5

Source: Authors' calculations based on data of appendices (12-15).

Statistical Table (25)

Selected External Sector Indicators, 1978-2008 (Billion US Dollars)

Particulars	Pre- Conflict 1978/79 -1982	During Conflict Average (1983-2004)	2008	Post Conflict Average (2005-2008)	Grand Average
Exports	0.5	1.7	11.7	8.2	3.5
Imports	1.4	1.9	11.4	8.9	3.9
Trade Balance	-0.9	-0.2	0.3	-0.5	-0.4

Source: Authors' calculations based on data of appendix (16).

Statistical Table (26)

Nominal per Capita GDP, Nominal GDP and National Income (NI), (1990-2009)

Year	Per capita nominal GDP a	GDP b	NI b
1990	4.8	0.11	0.102
1991	8.1	0.193	0.178
1992	17.2	0.422	0.396
1993	37.6	0.948	0.887
1994	72.5	1.881	1.737
1995	151.7	4.05	3.829
1996	375.9	10.478	9.568
1997	563.7	16.137	14.971
1998	743.7	21.936	20.272
1999	892.3	27.059	24.922
2000	1083.1	33.663	29.218
2001	1274	40.659	36.238
2002	1457.4	47.756	42.44
2003	1656.4	55.734	49.24
2004	1991.2	68.721	60.48
2005	2421.2	85.707	74.87
2006	2719	98.719	86.53
2007	3059.2	114.01	105.5
2008	3262.6	127.75	110.06
2009	3685.7	148.14	129.5

Source: CBS Statistical Series (1990-2009), Dec 2010.

Notes: a (SDG). b (Billion SDG) .

Statistical Table (27)

Current Government Expenditure, Expenditure on Social Services, and Expenditure on Defence and Security (Billion Sudanese Dinars) in Sudan (1999-2009)

Years	Current Government Expenditure	Social Services		Defence and Security	
		Current Expenditure	Share (%)*	Current Expenditure	Share (%)*
1999	1975	328	16.6	1085	54.9
2000	3125	324	10.4	1510	48.3
2001	3428	364	10.6	1004	29.3
2002	3770	327	8.7	1276	33.8
2003	5633	208	3.7	1039	18.4
2004	7936	271	3.4	3200	40.3
2005	10435	327	3.1	2838	27.2
2006	14713	582	4	3338	22.7
2007	17403	669	3.8	1044	6
2008	22725	1142	5	-	-
2009	20696	476	2.3	-	-

Sources: Central Bank of Sudan Annual Report (2009).

**: Authors' calculations.*

Statistical Table (28)

Trends in Total Humanitarian Aid and Other Aid to Sudan from All Donors, US $ Billion (Constant 2008 Prices) Excluding Debt Relief (1995-2009)

Years	Total Aid	Humanitarian Aid		Other Aid	
		Amount	Share (%)*	Amount	Share (%)*
1995	0.3	0.1	33.3	0.2	66.7
1996	0.3	0.1	33.3	0.2	66.7
1997	0.2	0.1	50	0.1	50
1998	0.3	0.2	66.7	0.1	33.3
1999	0.3	0.2	66.7	0.1	33.3
2000	0.3	0.1	33.3	0.2	66.7
2001	0.3	0.2	66.7	0.1	33.3
2002	0.5	0.3	60	0.2	40
2003	0.9	0.4	44.4	0.5	55.6
2004	1.2	0.9	75	0.3	25
2005	2.1	1.4	66.7	0.7	33.3
2006	2.3	1.4	60.9	0.9	39.1
2007	2.3	1.4	60.9	0.9	39.1
2008	2.4	1.4	58.3	1	41.7
2009	2.3	1.3	56.5	1	43.5
Average			55.5		44.5

Sources: Development Initiatives based on OECD, the Development Assistance Committee (DAC).

**: Authors' calculations*

Statistical Table (29)

Health Manpower in Sudan per 100,000 Populations (2000-2007)

Specialization	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
General Doctors	16	17	17.6	18.4	20	22.6	24.2	25.6
Medical Specialists/ Consultants	2.6	3	3	3.1	3.3	3.6	4.5	4.6
Dentists	0.7	1	0.6	0.7	0.8	1	1.1	1.6
Pharmacists	1	2	2	2	2	2.5	3.2	1.9
Medical Assistants	22.6	22	21	20	20	19.5	19.7	19.1
Technicians	9.2	9.3	9.4	9.5	11.3	13.3	14.7	15.5
Nurses	56	52	50.4	51	49	50.6	50.8	48.6
Public Health Officers	1.4	1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.9	2.3

Source: Federal Ministry of Health-Information Centre.

Statistical Table (30)

States Enrolled under the Umbrella of Health Insurance and Beneficiaries for the Year (2005)

State	Population	No. of Covered	% of Coverage
Sinnar	1209406	278070	23.0
Khartoum	4002348	1459142	36.5
Gezira	3687568	1129990	30.6
Gadarif	1490494	233830	15.7
Red Sea	739300	207418	28.1
River Nile	921552	250437	27.2
White Nile	1310000	252271	19.3
North Darfur	1329319	306093	23.0
Blue Nile	433736	89255	20.6
West Darfur	918428	96128	10.5
North Kordofan	1105232	248502	22.5
Northern	620000	131793	21.3
Kassala	1209406	200003	16.5
South Kordofan	800000	246134	30.8
South Darfur	2002285	110050	5.5

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics. 2008. Statistical Yearbook 2008. Khartoum, Council of Ministers.

** Authors' calculations.*

Statistical Table (31)

Health Insurance in Sudan, 2007-2009

State	No. of covered 2007	Total Population 2007	% of Coverage 2007	No. of covered 2008	Total Population 2008	% of Coverage 2008	No. of covered 2009	Total Population 2009	% of Coverage 2009
Sinnar	35546	1404	2.5%	436881	1285	34.0%	513361	1323	38.8%
Khartoum	NA	6203	NA	1459142	5274	27.7%	1282614	5428	23.6%
Gezira	1223385	4130	29.6%	1137960	3575	31.8%	1202218	3680	32.7%
Gadarif	543457	1843	29.5%	699532	1348	51.9%	626325	1388	45.1%
Red Sea	214093	740	28.9%	218051	1396	15.6%	380124	1437	26.5%
River Nile	316058	1026	30.8%	365881	1120	32.7%	450805	1153	39.1%
White Nile	322456	1762	18.3%	431447	1730	24.9%	527667	1781	29.6%
North Darfur	429464	1821	23.6%	506534	2113	24.0%	587716	2175	27.0%
Blue Nile	142900	783	18.3%	196260	832	23.6%	261275	856	30.5%
West Darfur	206476	1863	11.1%	385936	1308	29.5%	471277	1346	35.0%
North Kordofan	282728	2424	11.7%	814427	2920	27.9%	1009014	3006	33.6%
Northern	172027	654	26.3%	285425	699	40.8%	398335	719	55.4%
Kassala	414826	1752	23.7%	461734	1789	25.8%	558375	1842	30.3%
South Kordofan	172014	1704	10.1%	217460	1406	15.5%	280661	1447	19.4%
South Darfur	535105	3514	15.2%	711792	4093	17.4%	833342	4213	19.8%
West Sector (West Kordofan before)	NA	NA	NA	124626	360	34.6%	183565	360	51.0%

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics: Statistical Yearbook 2009. Khartoum, Council of Ministers. http://www.cbs.gov.sd Accessed 7 May 2011.

** NA: Not Available.*

Statistical Table (32)

Detailed Proposal for Human Security Index (HSI) for Sudan

Dimension / Indicator	Value (1)	Average (2)	Weight (3)	Operation (4 = (1)*(3))	Dimension Index (∑of (4) / 7)
Economic security			**0.143**		
Employment (%)	0.846		0.25	0.212	
Social safety net "Zakat" for the poorest and poor including elderly (% total population)	0.19	**0.45**	0.25	0.048	**0.064**
Social safety net "Social security" (% total population) = 67% covered * 80% employed	0.641		0.25	0.160	
Inflation rate	0.112		0.25	0.028	
Food security			**0.143**		
Per capita calorie intake a	0.94	**0.83**	0.5	0.47	**0.119**
Nourished children (%)	0.72		0.5	0.361	
Health security			**0.143**		
Health coverage as % of total population	0.79	**0.875**	0.5	0.395	**0.125**
Percentage of population free of malaria	0.96		0.5	0.48	
Environmental security			**0.143**		
Access to safe water (%)	0.954	**0.839**	0.5	0.477	**0.120**
Access to Sanitation (%)	0.723		0.5	0.362	
Personal security		**0.982**	**0.143**		**0.140**
Probability of not being victim of a violent crime (including robbery, road accidents: deaths, injuries and damages)	0.982		1.0	0.982	
Community security			**0.143**		
Probability of not being an IDP	0.92	**0.461**	0.5	0.458	**0.066**
Number of soldiers , police and security force per person (0.00316) = 307000/39154000	0.008		0.5	0.004	
Political Security		**0.428**	**0.143**		**0.061**
Political achievement by component (12 items, see statistical table 33).	0.428		1.0	0.428	
Human Security Index (weighted average)		**0.695**	-		

Note:

a Measured as achievement: per capita calorie intake as % of the requirements per day.

Statistical Table (33)

Sudan's Political Risk Points by Component, 2009

Component	Full score	Estimated achievement
Government stability	12	8.3
Socioeconomic conditions	12	2.2
Investment profile	12	7.5
Internal conflict	12	6
External conflict	12	9
Corruption	6	1
Military in politics	6	0
Religion in politics	6	2
Law and order	6	2.5
Ethnic tensions	6	1.5
Democratic accountability	6	1.8
Bureaucracy quality	4	1
Total points	100	42.8

Source: The Political Risk Services (PRS) Group: International Country Risk Guide (ICRG) – Researcher's Dataset.

Statistical Table (34)

Main Cereals Production in Thousand Tons

Year	Sorghum	Wheat	Millet	Sesame	Groundnut
1970/71	1,535	163	439	297	339
1971/72	1,592	124	441	296	387
1972/73	1,301	152	355	340	569
1973/74	1,691	235	285	244	553
1974/75	1,456	269	403	224	928
1975/76	2,143	263	388	233	782
1976/77	2,606	289	449	237	734
1977/78	2,082	312	500	263	1032
1978/79	2,353	165	552	216	806
1979/80	1,461	231	309	222	858
1980/81	2,084	218	335	221	712
1981/82	3,335	142	509	242	738
1982/83	1,884	176	227	140	455
1983/84	1,806	157	314	206	405
1984/85	1,097	79	168	130	378
1985/86	3,597	199	417	134	286
1986/87	3,277	157	285	216	379
1987/88	1,363	181	153	233	432
1988/89	4,425	247	495	194	587
1989/90	1,536	409	161	140	218
1990/91	1,180	686	85	80	123
1991/92	3,581	895	308	97	180
1992/93	4,042	453	449	266	380
1993/94	2,386	475	221	175	428
1994/95	3,648	448	973	170	714
1995/96	2,450	527	385	313	738
1996/97	4,179	642	440	416	518
1997/98	2,807	535	643	281	1104
1998/99	4,284	172	667	262	776
1999/2000	2,347	214	499	329	1047
2000/2001	2,491	303	481	283	947
2001/2002	7,201	247	578	269	990
2002/2003	2,825	331	581	122	555
2003/2004	4,690	398	791	400	790
2004/2005	2,678	364	287	277	520
2005/2006	4,356	401	687	400	555
2006/2007	5,011	680	797	242	523
2007/2008	3869	587	721	350	716

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, CBS Statistical series 1990-2009

Technical Annex

Calculating human development indices in Sudan

The first Human Development Report (HDR, 1990) defined human development as the process of enlarging people's choices. It focused on the idea that development involves much more than an increase in per capita income. It thus introduced a new measure of development, the Human Development Index, which included indicators of health and education, in addition to income as an alternative to the simple per capita income measure. It was found that the classification of countries on the human development scale differed significantly from that on the per capita income scale. The report also introduced the idea that the political, economic and social freedoms are important to the sustainability of development.

Development for the people means ensuring that the economic growth they generate is distributed widely and fairly, while development by the people means giving everyone a chance to participate

Human development is the process of enlarging people's choices. These choices are created by expanding human capabilities to the fullest and putting these capabilities to their best possible use in all spheres – economic, social, cultural and political, among others. These capabilities are to lead along and healthy life, to be knowledgeable and to have access to resources required for a decent standard of living (UNDP, 1993).

Human development is development of the people for the people by the people. Development of the people means investing in human capabilities, whether in education or health or skills, so that they can work productively and creatively. Development for the people means ensuring that the economic growth they generate is distributed widely and fairly, while development by the people means giving everyone a chance to participate. The most efficient form of participation through the market is access to productive and remunerative employment. So, the main objective of human development strategies must be to generate productive employment (UNDP, 1993).

The human development index (HDI) is a summary measure of human development. It measures the average achievements in a country in three basic dimensions of human development:

- A long and healthy life, as measured by life expectancy at birth.
- Knowledge, as measured by the adult literacy rate (with two-thirds weight) and the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrollment ratio (with one-third weight).
- A decent standard of living, as measured by GDP per capita (PPP US$).

The standard UNDP benchmarks for the calculation of HDI can be summarized as follows: For each capability, and each country, region or state, a normalized indicator, Iij is obtained as shown below, where X is the value of the indicator of capability and Xmax and Xmin are respectively the maximum and minimum values of these indicators:

$$I_{ij} = [X_{ij} - X\ min]/[X\ max - X\ min]$$

For the income dimension, it is the logarithm of income that is used in the computation of the index. According to UNDP (2003) "income serves as a surrogate for all dimensions of human development not reflected in a long life and in knowledge. Income is adjusted because achieving a respectable level of human development does not require unlimited income". The HDI for country j is obtained as the simple average of the normalized capability indicators as follows:

$$HDI_j = 1/3\ (\Sigma_i\ I_{ij})$$

According to UNDP (2005), the goalposts for calculating HDI are as follows:

- Life expectancy at birth (years): max = 85; min = 25;
- Adult literacy rate (%): max = 100; min = 0;
- Combined gross enrolment ratio (%): max= 100; min = 0;
- GDP per capita (PPP US$): max = 40000; min = 100.

The above mentioned formula will be used for the calculation of HDI in Sudan over the period (1975-2007) and at State level using data of Sudan's Fifth Population Census, 2008.

To examine the contributions of longevity (health), educational attainment, and income (standard of living) to HDI in Sudan, we firstly calculate the simple averages (means) of each of these variables. We also calculate the coefficient of variation as a measure of variability in relation to the mean for each indicator. Furthermore, the least squares growth rate, g, will be estimated for all human development sub indicators by fitting a least – squares linear regression trend line to the logarithmic annual values of the variable in the relevant period.

The coefficient of variation is a summary measure built on other calculations namely, the standard deviation and the mean. The formula for calculating the coefficient of variation (C.V) is as follows:

$$C.V = (S/\bar{x})*100 \qquad (1)$$

Where S is the standard deviation and $\bar{x}$ is the mean of the variable. Thus, the coefficient of variation is equal to the standard deviation divided by the mean, multiplied

by 100 (to produce a percentage). Tables 1-4 illustrate the means and contribution of factors to HDI in Sudan, where the figures inside the parentheses are the standard deviations and those inside the square brackets are the coefficients of variation.

The trend estimate of the HDI and its sub-indicators is based on the standard inverse semi-logarithmic trend equation in the natural logarithm. More specifically, the regression takes the form:

$$\text{Ln } X = a + bt \qquad (2)$$

In equation (2), X is the dependent variable, t is time, while a and b are the regression parameters to be estimated. The growth rate (g) of the variable of concern is then calculated as follows:

$$g = (eb - 1) \times 100 \qquad (3)$$

Where (e = 2.71828) is Euler's constant and b is the trend coefficient. Assuming that geometric growth is the appropriate "model" for the data, the least – squares estimate of the growth rate is consistent and efficient.

By applying the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) technique, the trend equation for the human development sub -indicators and HDI in Sudan over the period (1975-2007) are estimated. The estimation results are given in (table 5), where the figures inside the parentheses are the t-ratios of the estimated trend coefficients and those inside the square brackets are the significance levels.

The estimation results reveal that each of the human development indicators in Sudan as well as HDI exhibited a positive trend. Furthermore, all trend coefficients are statistically significant at the 1% level as indicated by the t-ratios. However, the magnitude of the trend coefficients is so small. In view of the estimated F-ratios, it is clear that all regression equations are significant at the 1% level.

Thus, as with simple regression, it is natural to observe that the trend coefficients are significant at 1%. After solving the autocorrelation problem for all estimated equations, the Durbin – Watson statistic (D.W) indicates that there is no serial correlation problem at the 1% level in all estimated equations. According to the results of (Table (5)) and using the formula in equation (3), the compound growth rates of longevity, educational attainment, and standard of living (income) are estimated at (1.2%), (2.5%), and (1.5%), respectively. The compound growth rate of the HDI in Sudan over the period (1975-2007) is estimated at (1.73%) per annum, which is quite small.

For the calculation of HDI at States level, data of the 5th Population Census (2008) are employed. It is worth mentioning that, no data are found available for per capita income by States. However, per capita income for each State is estimated using an appropriate statistical method. Firstly, life expectancy at birth (total) is regressed

Table 1

Means and Contributions of Factors to HDI in Sudan (1975-1982)

	Longevity	Educational Attainment	Standard of Living	HDI
Mean	0.394 (0.017) [0.043]	0.285 (0.020) [0.070]	0.416 (0.012) [0.029]	0.365 (0.011) [0.030]
Shares (%)	36.0	26.0	38.0	100.0

Source: The Calculations are based on data of statistical table (1).

Table 2

Means and Contributions of Factors to HDI in Sudan (1983-2004)

	Longevity	Educational Attainment	Standard of Living	HDI
Mean	0.486 (0.046) [0.095]	0.421 (0.070) [0.166]	0.425 (0.028) [0.066]	0.444 (0.047) [0.106]
Shares (%)	36.5	31.6	31.9	100.0

Source: The Calculations are based on data of statistical table (1).

Table 3

Means and Contributions of Factors to HDI in Sudan (2005-2007)

	Longevity	Educational Attainment	Standard of Living	HDI
Mean	0.581 (0.006) [0.010]	0.535 (0.005) [0.009]	(0.500) (0.011) [0.022]	0.539 (0.007) [0.013]
Shares (%)	36.0	33.0	31.0	100.0

Source: The Calculations are based on data of statistical table (1)

Table 4

Means and Contributions of Factors to HDI in Sudan (1975-2007)

	Longevity	Educational Attainment	Standard of Living	HDI
Mean	0.473 (0.065) [0.137]	0.398 (0.093) [0.234]	0.429 (0.033) [0.077]	0.433 (0.061) [0.141]
Shares (%)	36.0	31.0	33.0	100.0

Source: The Calculations are based on data of statistical table (1).

on per capita income in Sudan. The best fit for the estimated equation is found during the period (1986-2008). Then, the estimated equation is solved to obtain per capita income in Sudan as a function of life expectancy (total). Accordingly, per capita income for each State is estimated based on life expectancy at birth for the State.

Table 5

Estimated Exponential Functions for Human Development Indicators in Sudan (1975-2007)

Indicator	Constant a	Coefficient b	F-Ratio	R^2	D.W.
Longevity	3.61	0.0121 (11.8) [0.000]	127.8 [0.000]	0.827	1.5
Education	3.24	0.0247 (66.5) [0.000]	246.9 [0.000]	0.998	2.4
Income	3.42	0.0147 (3.3) [0.000]	11.0 [0.000]	0.275	2.3
HDI	3.45	0.0164 (11.0) [0.000]	125.3 [0.000]	0.805	2.1

Source: SPSS output based on data of statistical table (1).

Table 6

Estimated Function for the Regression of Life Expectancy at Birth on Per Capita Income in Sudan (1989-2008)

Dependent Variable	Constant a	Estimated Coefficient of (y)	F-Ratio	R2	D.W.
H	48.36 (19.66) [0.000]	0.005 (4.61) [0.000]	634.42 [0.000]	0.987	1.20

Source: SPSS output based on data of statistical table (1).

Table 7

Estimated Function for the Regression of Life Expectancy at Birth (Females) on Per Capita Income for Females in Sudan (1990-2008)

Dependent Variable	Constant a	Estimated Coefficient of (yf)	F-Ratio	R2	D.W.
H_f	52.89 (42.89) [0.000]	0.007 (4.52) [0.000]	22.01 [0.000]	0.86	1.86

Source: SPSS output based on data of statistical table (2).

By applying the (OLS) technique, life expectancy at birth (total) denoted by (H) is regressed on per capita income (y) in Sudan as shown in the following table (after solving the autocorrelation problem), where the figures inside the parentheses are the t-ratios of the estimated coefficient and those inside the square brackets are the significance levels.

Solving the estimated equation above for (y) yields:

$$y = [H - 48.36]/0.005$$

To estimate per capita income for females by State, the above exercise is repeated depending on regressing life expectancy at birth for females (total) on per capita income for females in Sudan during the period (1990-2008). The selection of this period is dictated by data availability. It is worth noting that data on the average incomes of females are reported in the UNDP Human Development Reports for some years under study. For the remaining years, only the earned income shares of females are reported.

Thus, the average incomes of females are calculated based on the values of GDP in Sudan (PPP), numbers of females, and the income shares of females. Data on the population size by sex are obtained from the Central Bureau of Statistics, Khartoum, while data on other study variables are obtained from the UNDP Human Development Reports.

Table 7 summarized the regression results (after solving the autocorrelation problem) of life expectancy at birth (females) denoted by (Hf) on per capita income for females (y_f) in Sudan:

Solving the estimated equation above for (yf) yields:

$$y_f = [H_f - 52.89]/0.007$$

Once per capita income (total) and per capita income for females are calculated at State level, per capita income for males is estimated for each State.

Gender Related Development Index (GDI)

While the HDI measures average achievement, the GDI adjusts the average achievement to reflect the inequalities between men and women in the following dimensions:

- A long and healthy life, as measured by life expectancy at birth.
- Knowledge, as measured by the adult literacy rate and the combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio.
- A decent standard of living, as measured by estimated earned income (PPP US$).

The calculation of the GDI involves three steps.

First, female and male indices in each dimension are calculated according to this general formula:

$$\text{Dimension index} = \frac{\text{actual value} - \text{minimum value}}{\text{maximum value} - \text{minimum value}}$$

Second, the female and male indices in each dimension are combined in a way that penalizes differences in achievement between men and women. The resulting index, referred to as the equally distributed index, is calculated according to this general formula:

Equally distributed index = $\{[\text{female population share (female index}^{1-\varepsilon})] + [\text{male population share (male index}^{1-\varepsilon})]\}^{1/1-\varepsilon}$

ε measures the aversion to inequality. In the GDI, ε = 2. Thus the general equation becomes:

Equally distributed index = $\{[\text{female population share (female index}^{-1})] + [\text{male population share (male index}^{-1})]\}^{-1}$

The above formula gives the harmonic mean of the female and male indices.

Third, the GDI is calculated by combining the three equally distributed indices in an unweighted average.

Table (8)

Goalposts for Calculating the GDI

Indicator	Maximum Value	Minimum Value
Female life expectancy at birth (years)	87.5	27.5
Male life expectancy at birth (years)	82.5	22.5
Adult literacy rate (%)	100	0
Combined gross enrolment ratio (%)	100	0
Estimated earned income (PPP US$)	40000	100

Note: The maximum and minimum values (goalposts) for life expectancy are five years higher for women to take into account their longer life expectancy.

Multidimensional Poverty Index

The multidimensional poverty index reflects deprivations in very rudimentary services and core human functionings for people, and reveals a different pattern of poverty than income poverty, as it illuminates a different set of deprivations. The multidimensional poverty index captures a set of direct deprivations that batter a person at the same time. This tool could be used to target the poorest, track the Millennium Development Goals, and design policies that directly address the interlocking deprivations poor people experience. The multidimensional poverty index is composed of indicators corresponding to the same three dimensions as the human development index: education, health and standard of living.

These are measured using ten indicators by adopting the methodology proposed by Alkire and Foster (2009). Each dimension is equally weighted; each indicator within a dimension is also equally weighted. A household is identified as multi-dimensionally poor (unable to access basic needs) if, and only if, it is deprived in some combination of indicators whose weighted sum exceeds 30 percent of deprivations.

The multidimensional poverty index is the product of two numbers: the Headcount (H) or percentage of people who are poor, and the Average Intensity of deprivation (A), which reflects the proportion of dimensions in which households are deprived.

Health (each indicator weighted equally at 1/6)

- Child Mortality: (deprived if any child has died in the family).
- Nutrition: (deprived if any adult or child in the family is malnourished).

Education (each indicator weighted equally at 1/6)

- Years of Schooling (deprived if no household member has completed 5 years of schooling)
- Child Enrolment (deprived if any school-aged child is out of school in years 1 to 8)

Standard of Living (each of the six indicators weighted equally at 1/18)

- Electricity (deprived if the household has no electricity)
- Drinking water (deprived if the household does not have access to safe drinking water)
- Sanitation (deprived if the household's sanitation is not improved or it is improved but shared with other households)
- Flooring (deprived if the household has dirt, sand or dung floor)
- Cooking Fuel (deprived if the household cooks with dung, wood or charcoal)
- Assets (deprived if the household does not own more than one of: radio, TV, telephone, bike, motorbike, and does not own a car or tractor)

Source: Alkire and Foster. 2009. "Counting and Multidimensional Poverty", In Von Braun J. (Ed.) *The Poorest and Hungry: Assessment, Analysis and Actions*. Washington D.C.: International Food Policy Research Institute.

Human Security Index

The United Nations Development Programme's *Human Development Report 1994* describes the conventional concerns of the language of 'security' as circumscribed by the narrow terms of 'security of territory' from external aggression or as protection of national interest. Human security perspective argue that this notion of national security ignores the unit that should be at the core of security, the human individual – sovereignty exists paramount in human life, not the physical, financial

or ideological borders of any specific nation-state. In the Report's words, human security entails "a concern with human life and dignity.

This first Sudan Human Development Report proposes an initial version of a human security index.

This first Sudan *Human Development Report* proposes an initial version of a human security index. Adapting the approach spelled out in the *Human Development Report 1994*, and reemphasized in the Arab *Human Development Report 2009*, the human security index methodology proposed in this report is the simple average of seven dimensions. The index is developed specifically to address the conditions in contemporary Sudan. It recognizes the limitations of an index—but aims to ground debate into future research on peace and human development in Sudan as well as the broader human development approach relevant to other situations (see section 4.3).

In its current formulation, each dimension of the proposed human security index is weighted equally at 1/7. The indicators within the dimension share that weight with the other indicators.

Economic security (each indicator weighted equally at 1/28 = 0.036):

- Employment (%)
- Social safety net "Zakat" for the poorest and poor including elderly (% total population).
- Social safety net "Social security" (% total population)
- Inflation rate.

Food security (each indicator weighted equally at 1/14 = 0.071):

- Per capita calorie intake/ minimum requirements
- Nourished children (%)

Health security (each indicator weighted equally at 1/14 = 0.071):

- Health coverage as % of total population
- Percentage of population free of malaria

Environmental security (each indicator weighted equally at 1/14 = 0.071):

- Access to safe water (%)
- Access to Sanitation (%)

Personal security (one indicator taking full weight of the dimension 1/7 = 0.143)

- Probability of not being victim of a violent crime (including robbery, road accidents: deaths, injuries and damages)

Community security (each indicator weighted equally at 1/14 = 0.071):

- Probability of not being an internally displaced person in Sudan
- Number of soldiers, police and security force per person

Political Security (each indicator weighted differently as follows):

- Government stability (0.017)
- Socioeconomic conditions(0.017)
- Investment profile (0.017)
- Internal conflict (0.017)
- External conflict (0.017)
- Corruption (0.009)
- Military in politics (0.009)
- Religion in politics (0.009)
- Law and order (0.009)
- Ethnic tensions (0.009)
- Democratic accountability(0.009)
- Bureaucracy quality (0.006)

Objective and Methodology of the Focus Group Discussion

1. Objective

The focus group discussion aims at shedding light on the causes of and challenges posed by armed conflicts and issues of peace and development in Sudan. Through the exposition and analysis of the perceptions of respondents on the issues related to peace, development and conflict, the analysis attempts to initiate a debate among researchers and policymakers on its findings and its suggested policy recommendations. It also hopes that the proposed recommendations will not only be restricted towards initiating a debate on new research models and themes, but will also serve policymakers and peace-building specialists to extrapolate operational strategies or programmes related to peace and development in the country.

The focus group discussion adopts a purely qualitative approach based on the analysis of 19 focus group discussions that were conducted with 246 Sudanese –158 men and 88 women – between 13 March 2011 – 17 March 2011. The participants were suitably selected from seven states in Sudan, namely (Khartoum, Gezira, Gedarif, Northern, South Kordofan and West Darfur. The analysis follows a well-established tradition in peace and conflict studies that examines the perception of respondents regarding peace, development, ethnical, religious and cultural differences and other issues.

2. Methodology

The population of this study includes 246 Sudanese men and women between the ages of 20 and 70. Recruited from different six states of Sudan, the chosen participants came from low to middle-income socio-economic backgrounds and represented almost all communities of those states. They participated in focus group discussions moderated by trained facilitators from the University of Gezira Consultative House.

A total of 19 focus groups were formed and meetings took place from 13 March to 17 March 2011 in six states across Sudan. Focus groups hosted eight to fifteen participants per session. The focus group facilitators and moderators checked the profiles of the participants to make sure that each met the required criteria mentioned above (table 1).

Almost, homogeneous respondents participated in the discussions. The selection of the members of each group was deliberate, that is, each participant was selected from a single category in order to avoid such biases. Putting together homogeneous groups helped the participants feel comfortable in discussing views and perceptions of their own states and of other states as well.

Table 1

Profile		Number of FGD
Sex	Male: 158 Female: 88	
Group (A):	Male: 63 Female:15	
Group (B)	Male: 49 Female:29	
Group (C):	Male: 46 Female:32	
States	Khartoum	3
	Gezira	3
	Gedarif	3
	Northern	3
	South Kordofan	3
	West Darfur	4

3. Why the focus groups method?

Focus groups are small, targeted discussions led by skilled moderators who seek to create a comfortable environment for all participants selected based on their common demographic characteristics or experience, such as educational background, age group, gender or other factors. Focus groups are typically comprised of eight to fifteen people, large enough to exchange ideas and opinions, but small enough for everyone to participate in the discussion. The moderator uses a series of open-ended questions in a logical sequence and addresses topics related to the research purpose. This open-ended format allows participants to respond in their own words, and lets researchers explore attitudes and opinions in a more in-depth manner.

Focus groups help in measuring the depth of emotions and feelings around issues, such as understanding why some things are more important to people, hearing how citizens discuss issues and the language they employ, and gaining insights into the reasons why people feel and behave the way they do. Focus groups reveal not just what people think or feel on certain issues but also why they think and feel that particular way, how they form opinions and how strong these opinions are. This provides insights into why people feel and act the way they do. The organized discussions allowed participants to stimulate each other in an exchange of ideas that may not have emerged during in-depth interviews or quantitative surveys, and were especially helpful in understanding the language people use when discussing particular ideas and concepts. This type of research can help in assessing concepts, policies and messages, and can contribute positively to the decision-making process in any country.

The focus group method has a long history in social, market and health research. The greatest value of focus groups comes from the insights they provide into the social dynamics that drive people's attitudes

and behaviour. The discussion among participants in a focus group models the word-of-mouth communication that occurs in people's daily lives. Concepts, words and phrases that people use to explain their views in the focus group provide material for message development.

Thus, discussion and even disagreement are encouraged to elicit distinctions among people's perceptions and to push participants into articulating their views. Drawing on best practices from consumer market research and public opinion studies, the design of these focus groups was chosen to explore motivations beyond the rational, intellectual level and to uncover motivations at the social and emotional levels, as well as the aspirations that drive most human behaviour.

Through organized discussions with selected participants, the focus group method offers insights into the social dynamics and experiences and knowledge of people beyond mere statistics and figures. It encourages the exchange of anecdotes; and people tend to comment on each other's stories. Such interaction is one of the benefits of focus groups and is often unattainable in one-to-one interviews or in surveys. Moreover, it provides the points of view of participants in their own words and not in the language of the researcher where through studying the various narratives utilized within the focus group, the researcher can detect common knowledge.

The Focus Group Discussion (opinions of elites in six states): Group A

Q1: What causes armed conflict in general?

The aim of this question is to provide a brief overview of what is known and understood about the causes of armed conflicts world wide. A key issue is that there are not just a variety of causes of armed conflicts but different type of causes. This in turn calls for different type and levels of solutions.

There are many different reasons and causes for the existence of armed conflicts in the world. Respondents argued that one of the causes is simple insincerity by one or both fighting parties in such a case one or both fighting parties can't be trusted to keep any agreement. Some respondents added that the major cause is disagreement on the part of one or both of the parties. Some of the elites claimed that another reason behind conflict is the internal disagreement and even fragmentation in one or both sides. Other elites claimed that the major explanation of armed conflicts is based on the contrast between groups' expected and actual access to prosperity and power. They place more explicit emphasis on ethnic factors which accompany the economic and political.

Some respondents have identified significant connections between environmental, degradation, and natural catastrophe and violent conflict. They cited that there are some armed conflicts, such as those in the Philippine and Haiti whose causes can't be understood without reference to environmental degradation.

Few respondents believe the creation of a single world market, the driving forces behind the process known as globalization has some causes in domestic conflicts in developing countries. For example, the fast relocation of investment capital and the integration of markets world wide create new winners and losers which can lead to fragment and marginalize of some ethnic and national groups that might create some conflict. They believe that there is growing concern that whereas resources were once a means of funding and waging armed conflict for a state to a political ends, gaining access.

focus group method offers insights into the social dynamics and experiences and knowledge of people beyond mere statistics and figures.

Q2: What causes armed conflict in Sudan?

- Some respondents believe when learning process of lining together despite diversity (ethnic, tribes, religions, culture, etc) fails, ethnic diversity may turn out to exacerbate conflict and increase the likelihood of serious escalation, because it offers fertile material for political mobilization. They think of two factors that can faster this kind of shared perception are experience of discrimination compared with other groups and deliberate political mobilization in defense of the groups, perceived interests.
- Other respondents believe that economic conditions emerge as the most important explanatory factors behind armed conflicts in Sudan. The key issue here is a low level of economic development.
- Few respondents think that lack of democratic openings as an important secondary factors in addition to poor economic conditions. They believe that in some poor societies, leaders compete with one another for control of the available economic surplus. When the available economic surplus is small, competition for it may be particularly intense, and a violent escalation will very likely result.
- Some respondents believe that armed conflict in Sudan can easily develop if numbers of people become convinced that taking up arms is not only legitimate but may perhaps be the only way to secure the necessities of life. In other words, they feel that they are in an unjust situation and must therefore, decide to rectify it.
- Other respondents added that it is not ethnic diversity as such that is a cause of armed conflict, but rather ethnic politics. It is the injection of ethnic

difference into political loyalties, and the politicization of ethnic identities that so dangerous.

- Some of respondents believe that ecological degradation can act as a cause of violence conflicts.
- Other, strongly believe that struggle for land and water is considered the primary cause of armed conflict in many parts of the Sudan. This is particularly reflected when some nomad tribes be coerced of drought entered into other territories of other tribes, sometimes ever before harvest are collected. This has resulted into clashes between some tribes.
- In addition some respondents confirmed that the single most important issue behind the outbreak of armed conflict in some parts of the country is encroachment of merchandized agriculture on some small holders of farms. This devastated the economic and social life of local people and ultimately destroyed the friendly relations with other tribes.
- Many respondents believe that changes in land use and land access have been significant factors in a number of high – intensity conflict in Sudan.
- Some respondents believe there are some external factors behind the existence of armed conflicts in some parts of the Sudan. They think that foreign interests play a role in fueling local armed conflicts.

To sum up those causes of armed conflicts in Sudan, it is necessary to provide the following analysis:

Every conflict in Sudan has its own specificity and set of causes. Every conflict unfolds in time and space, potentially relating to and frequently becoming entangled with conflict configurations that may be located either in a sometimes distant past which is present in the mind of the communities or a geographically removed place in Sudan.

The diversity of the ingredients of individual conflicts as well as the complexity of interlocking procedural dynamics governing their interaction appear to make a comprehensive and cohesive framework or model describing the causes of civil and armed conflicts difficult to achieve. However, and for the purpose of this analysis, we would argue that these causes or factors of armed conflicts in Sudan should be organized conveniently into a matrix of four main, interdependent clusters:

- Social and economic
- State-structural and political
- Cultural
- External

To investigate each of those factors separately will only lead to significant gaps in the overall narrative of the conflict and its genesis. It would also fail to account for the impact each factor may have as a function of its interaction with the other factors.

- *Social and economic*. Social and economic factors fuel conflicts when and where inequalities exist between different communities in Sudan. Discriminatory economic systems are the basis for horizontal inequalities. Such discrimination creates feelings of unfairness and exacerbates grievances. In addition to that, other socioeconomic causes such as unbalanced development among different states of the Sudan. The issues of poverty, unemployment wealth sharing are also considered among this category.
- *State-structural and political*. The political representation and nature of State structures are also critical causes of conflict. Lack of representation of groups and communities is often the leading cause for local resentment. The political system failing to represent all communities fairly even magnifies the problem. It becomes especially contentious when members of certain groups would solely vote or follow their leaders on the collective consideration of their communal identity rather than on economic, social or other issues. As such, political practices may become the source of tensions and conflicts if their ideology and strategies focus purely on their communal constituencies. In such situations, certain communities will try to control most of the political power, while disadvantaged groups will try to assert themselves economically and politically. Such groups can be potentially violent if those avenues are not available to them due to the bias of the political system. Violent conflict may also ensue when State power and State institutions become weak, and communities step into the vacuum thus created.
- *Cultural*. The politics of collective cultural identity is often used to perpetuate group divisions and conflicts. This happens with the manipulation of culture to sustain certain "group histories and group perception of themselves and others", whether based on true or false histories. A case in point is the dissemination of hatred towards the other that takes shape in the oral history and popular culture of a group and is then utilized to mobilize group members. Histories of past grievances and oppression, stories of martyrdom and images of iconic heroes maintain the collective memory of the group and contribute to group mobilization. Nonetheless, strong collective identity – whether communal, tribal or national – is not necessarily a cause for conflict and tension. In many places of the world and throughout history, groups with a strong collective identity have lived in peaceful coexistence, while conflict between them has been the exception. However, when political actors intend to build up political support and exclude such groups, strong feelings of collective identity catalyze polarization and oil the wheels for the build-up of animosity.

- *External*. External factors refer to forces that contribute to the conflict from outside the borders of the State. The initiation of external intervention by foreign States is often based on the strategic interest of such external powers to seek territorial, economic or military gains. Most of the time, these external interventions would fuel the conflict. This also may happen in the course of interventions ostensibly initiated with the objective of restoring and maintaining peace. External intervention can be directly used either by providing military or financial support or by sabotaging a peaceful settlement. In some instances, external intervention comes in the shape of support to a co-ethnic or conational group in the disputed State. This is true as many ethnic and national groups are often not confined in one nation-state but can be spread over different countries.

A matrix of causes is useful to understand the causes of local conflicts in Sudan. In this matrix, social, economic and politically horizontal inequalities create a sense of grievance among a community or communities, which leads to tension and protest. Leaders and "political entrepreneurs" often use cultural differentiation as a tool for mobilization. The failure of State institutions to address and resolve the concerns of protest exacerbates tensions and deepens polarization. External factors can aggravate the conflict further. Examples are direct or indirect intervention from neighboring States.

Q3: Are there any kind of conflict in your area? If yes, what are the main causes? If no, what are the major factors behind stability? Are there any potential conflicts at your area?

Wealth sharing and political sharing and land disputes are considered the potential conflicts in northern, Gezira and Gedarif states. There are no present conflicts in those states. However, in West Darfur and South Kordofan states conflicts are still prevailing. The major causes of such conflicts are due to disputes among nomads and farms owners, injustice, poor governance in managing conflicts, tribalism and imbalanced development. In all six states, the issue of graduate unemployment is considered a potential conflict if not handled with care by the government.

Q 4: What are right mechanisms of understanding the true causes of conflicts in some states in Sudan?

Respondents suggested strongly that conducting socioeconomic surveys is the successful mechanisms of understanding the true causes of conflicts in Sudan. They added that the government has to set up specialized research academic centres to conduct those kinds of surveys. Others suggested that mass media can play roles in creating awareness among civilians about the true causes and factors of conflicts.

Q5: What are suggested solutions in resolving conflicts?

- For conflicts that are caused by ecological and environmental degradation, the proposed resolution mechanisms are thus more technical than economic and political. Respondents proposed better water management, soil conservation, reforestation etc.
- To resolve issues concerning dispute for land and water two different independent approaches are proposed towards conflict management and resolution.
- The first approach concerns the relationships between local living tribes and the only way to resolve this conflict is to stop the incursion of large movements of nomads.
- Scale mechanized farming into lands of local peoples and retain all lands taken which creates tension between local tribe and pastoralists, there is a need to accept some sort of temporary and equitable sharing of available resources, mainly land and water.
- For solving issues of military conflict, respondents proposed that these problems must be efficiently addressed and corrected in order for a successful program to go forward. Communities and the local authorities must pledge to become involved and to carry out their activities efficiently and ethically forward a successful program of disarmament.
- Other respondents strongly urge to include women in the peace process and allowing them to incorporate a gender perspective which can provide intense legitimacy.

A matrix of causes is useful to understand the causes of local conflicts in Sudan. In this matrix, social, economic and politically horizontal inequalities create a sense of grievance among a community or communities, which leads to tension and protest.

Other respondents thought that one primary solution for ending military conflicts in Sudan can be reached through promoting sustainable and balance economic and social development in all states of the Sudan. By targeting the eradication of poverty, focusing on special needs of poor communities, working towards environmental sustainability, focusing on national and international cooperation to reduce economic and social inequalities.

Q6: Some researchers believe that achieving economic development is prerequisite for achieving peace. Others believe the opposite, that peace is a necessary condition but not a sufficient condition for human development. Which opinion do you support? Why?

Some respondents believe that achieving peace and resolving conflicts are the primary and major right steps in achievement of any kind of economic development. People will produce productively only when security and peace are maintained. Therefore, they call for the achievement of peace as a necessary but not a sufficient condition for human development.

Other, on the other hand, look for economic development to be the primary and major cause of achieving peace. People will not resort to any type of conflicts or fighting when they feel that they enjoyed a balanced economic development. Therefore, they call for the achievement of an equitable and balanced economic development across all states. Once this is maintained, peace will automatically follow.

People will not resort to any type of conflicts or fighting when they feel that they enjoyed a balanced economic development.

Q7: How cultural, ethnical, religious and tribal diversity can enhance peace?:

Some respondents (elites) believe strongly that ethnic diversity might be in itself seem to be a cause of war. On the other hand, some respondents see that it may well be that ethnic, tribal, cultural and religious diversity may even reduce the risk of violent conflict, and perhaps it encourages divergent groups to learn the skills of living together despite diversity. They believe that if this cultural, tribal, ethical, religious and cultural diversity is properly understood and mutually respected, it could be a source of achievement in many respects. Therefore, it is necessary to pay some efforts in management of such rich diversity in the country.

Q8: How to disseminate culture of peace?

- Many of respondents believe that it is positive to foster a culture of peace through education. This can be achieved by promoting education for all, focusing especially on girls and boys, revising curricula to promote the qualitative values, attitudes and behavior inherent in the culture of peace training for conflict prevention and resolution, dialogue, consensus – building and active – nonviolence.
- To them, culture of peace through education is the most important factor in the long – run for the transition to a culture of peace.
- Others also suggest that educational efforts by civil societies carry out by means of campaigns, solidarity projects, conferences, museums, publications; internet websites etc will convince a large segment of societies that culture of peace is possible and desirable.

Q9: what is the mechanism by which the country will benefit from the achievement of peace in human development in Sudan?

Respondents assure that the presence of peace implies the existence of stability. Therefore, if the peace dividends are prudentially managed and efficiently utilized, they can be potentially sources for present and future enhancement in human development.

Q10: at your opinion, what is the impact of the referendum conducted in the Southern Sudan in the continuity of the peace process in Sudan?

Some respondents believe that the result of Southern Sudan referendum that took place earlier this year will enhance the peace process in other conflicting areas in Sudan. Conflicting parties and the government will learn from the implications, shortcomings and positive aspects of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement that was signed between Southern Sudan and the government of the Sudan. Others suggested that the result of the Southern referendum will lead to negative implications. Because they expect that the new government in South Sudan will not be a stable and therefore future potential conflicts will exist between the two countries. Others added that if the hanged (unresolved) issues are not completely reached, the referendum will not have its positive implications in the future.

Q11: what are the major threats that are facing the country in terms of human security?

People have cited numerous threats that might face the country, such as lack or poor political participation, poor economic and wealth sharing, tribalism, land disputes, unbalanced development, spread of arms conflicts, poor and weak bilateral relation with some neighboring countries, issues of unemployment, poverty and literacy.

The Focus Group Discussion (opinions of community leaders in six states): Group B

Q1: What causes armed conflict in general?

The objective of this question is to provide comments of what is understood about the major causes of armed conflicts in the world. There are various causes for the existence of armed conflicts in the world. Respondents place more explicit emphasis on ethnic factors which followed by the economic and political repercussions. Some respondents identified major connections ranging from ecological degradation, natural disasters to violent conflict. In addition, poverty, tribal conflicts for

scarce resources, unbalanced development, lack of basic services, injustice, and lack of wealth and power-sharing are among major factors that cause armed conflicts worldwide.

Q2: What causes armed conflict in Sudan?

- Some respondents thought that weak economic conditions and unbalanced development are considered to be the major explanatory factors beyond armed conflicts in Sudan.
- Low and lack of basic services is considered a major factor behind armed conflicts in Sudan.
- Others added that ethnic diversity and tribalism are among other causes of armed conflict in Sudan.
- Some of respondents believe that environmental deterioration, drought and subsequent failure of raining seasons contributed to be cause of conflicts. Others believe that land and water disputes are considered the major cause of armed conflict in some parts of the Sudan. This is particularly reflected when some nomad tribes are being forced due to drought entered into other territories of other tribes, sometimes ever before crops are collected.

Q3: Are there any kind of conflict in your area? If yes, what are the main causes? If no, what are the major factors behind stability? Are there any potential conflicts at your area?

Political sharing and wealth sharing are also considered the primary causes behind conflicts in West Darfur and South Kordofan states and other states in Sudan.

Q4: What are right mechanisms of understanding the true causes of conflicts in some states in Sudan?

Respondents believed that conducting socioeconomic surveys might be successful mechanisms of understanding the true causes of conflicts in Sudan. They added that the universities and other academic institutions can conduct those surveys. Other suggested that mass media and its means can play roles in creating awareness among civilians about the root causes and factors behind conflicts and inculcation of culture of peace. Others added that continuation of direct dialogue among local people is necessary and also activating the role of local administration and tribal leaders is very crucial.

Q5: What are suggested solutions in resolving conflicts?

To resolve issues that create tensions and conflict such as land disputes and water, tribal leaders and local administrative could resolve them effectively if they are left to cooperate without any government and political intervention. For solving issues of armed conflict and disarmament, respondents proposed that these problems must be directly addressed discussed and corrected by the government in collaboration of tribal leaders and local administration. Other respondents thought that the major solution for ending violent conflicts in Sudan can be solved through promoting equitable and balanced socioeconomic development. They added that eradication of poverty is a major road for achieving peace in Sudan. Others believe maintaining dialogue with social community organizations and activating their roles are also a considerable solution toward achieving peace.

People should not think of having peace or development separately. Both terms have to move together simultaneously at one time.

Q6: Some researchers believe that achieving economic development is prerequisite for achieving peace. Others believe the opposite, that peace is a necessary condition but not a sufficient condition for human development. Which opinion do you support? Why?

Some respondents believe that achieving peace and resolving conflicts are the primary and major right steps in achievement of any kind of economic development. People will work productively only when security and peace are maintained. Therefore, they call for the achievement of peace as a necessary but not a sufficient condition for human development.

While other, on the other hand, look for economic development to be the primary and major cause of achieving peace. People will not resort to any type of conflicts or fighting when they feel that they enjoyed a balanced economic development. Therefore, they call for the achievement of an equitable and balanced economic development across all states. Once this is maintained, peace will automatically follow.

Other respondents added that both peace and development are inseparable and closely interlinked. People should not think of having peace or development separately. Both terms have to move together simultaneously at one time.

Q7: How cultural, ethnical, religious and tribal diversity can enhance peace?

Some respondents believe that taking the present circumstance in Sudan, ethnic diversity, cultural diversity, tribalism and other differences in the community might be a cause of violent conflict in some states of the Sudan. However, other respondents argued that ethnic, tribal, cultural and religious diversity may even reduce the risk of violent conflict, and perhaps it encourages divergent groups to learn the skills of living together despite diversity. They believed that if this cultural, tribal, ethical, religious and cultural diversity is

properly understood and mutually respected, it could be a source of achieving peace and development. Therefore, people have to think positively in maintaining such rich diversity in the country.

Respondents believe that education is the best mechanism to disseminate and foster the culture of peace.

Q8: How can we best disseminate a culture of peace?

- Respondents believe that education is the best mechanism to disseminate and foster the culture of peace. Providing education for all, revising curricula to promote the qualitative values, attitudes and behavior inherent in the culture of peace training for conflict prevention and inculcating culture for peace in all societies will assist in disseminating culture of peace. Other respondents thought that mass media at its all levels and means could be considered an effective channel in disseminating culture of peace among various segments of the community.
- Others added that the local administration, tribal leaders and civil society organizations have a role to play in injecting the culture of peace into their local communities. While others added those cultural festivals and social and religious celebrations which are organized seasonally could be a positive forum for disseminating the culture of peace. Some respondents believed that religious and worshipping places (mosques, churches and others) are also necessary to disseminate culture of peace.

Q9: What is the mechanism by which the country will benefit from the achievement of peace in human development in Sudan?

Respondents assure that the presence of peace and security implies the existence of stability and free movement across states of the Sudan. Therefore, if peace dividends are properly managed and efficiently utilized, they can be potentially sources of revenues to finance both present and future human development projects. They added that peace dividends should be employed into financing basic services and infrastructure in rural areas and areas of conflict.

Q10: In your opinion, what is the impact of the referendum conducted in the Southern Sudan in the continuity of the peace process in Sudan?

Some respondents believe that the result of Southern Sudan referendum that took place in early in the year 2011 will create motivation of other armed conflicts in other parts of Sudan towards settlement and then achieving peace. They argued that both conflicting parties and the government will draw lessons and experiences from the implications, shortcomings and positive aspects of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement that was signed between Southern Sudan and the government of the Sudan.

Others respondents suggested that the result of the Southern referendum will lead to negative impact in other areas of conflicts in Sudan. They thought that other parts might think of similar referendum. They added that the new government in South Sudan will not be a stable and therefore future potential conflicts will exist between the two countries. Others added that if the unresolved issues are not ended, the referendum will have its negative consequences in the future in both countries.

Q11: What are the major threats that are facing the country in terms of human security?

People have cited numerous threats that might face the country, such as lack or poor political participation, poor economic and wealth sharing, tribalism, land disputes, unbalanced development, spread of arms conflicts, poor and weak bilateral relations with some neighboring countries, issues of unemployment, poverty and literacy.

Other respondents believe that the weak local administration in the country, if continues, will represent a permanent threats in Sudan. Another future and potential conflict among local communities is the discovery and exploration of some precious and valuable metals such as gold and other metals in some parts of the Sudan. If the government does not organize such process or activities, a potential conflict might exist among people.

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Sudan National Human Development Report 2012

This Report inaugurates the Human Development Report series in Sudan. Through an inclusive, participatory approach it develops new insights into the human development fabric of Sudan.

For the first time in Sudan, human development tools are systematically applied to understand the country's recent history. Drawing on the range of human development measures, the Report provides an initial evidence base for assessing progress on capabilities expansion. Among the key findings the Report makes is that post-conflict education has quickly advanced in Sudan, followed by steady achievements in child and maternal health. These outcomes, however, have built into regional disparities that hold potential to reignite insecurity if left unaddressed.

Legacies of conflict have given birth to these capabilities inequalities in Sudan. Developing a state-level human development index, the Report shows that regions in Sudan where violent conflict did not take place have seen the largest increases in school enrolment, literacy and longevity. But, in the regions where conflict was most severe or continues to threaten human development today – achievements have been far less pronounced. Economic recovery, by contrast, has remained evenly stunted. A new insight into post-conflict recovery, the relative lack of economic growth when compared to education and health progress has led to equal – if low – standards of living across the regions of Sudan.

Disentangling the relationships between peace and human development, the Report also makes an initial proposal towards application of the human security framework to Sudan's conditions. As a first step, an index of human security is proposed for the first time in a Human Development Report that takes into account security conditions, from physical risks to diminished economic opportunities.

The Report draws on the mixed history of peace agreements in Sudan to build an innovative framework to contribute to national and international debate on oft-ignored conditions for the expansion of human capabilities. By finding that human development must be moved to the heart of the design and implementation of peace accords, the Report calls for a sea-change in the geography of peace in Sudan. Placing the ends and means of human development at the center of peace in Sudan holds potential to reorient public policy towards the advancement of equitable, empowerment and sustainable achievements for the Sudanese people.

The Report assesses field work from seven states and all regions in Sudan, combines insights from dozens of structured interviews, consultations and focus groups with community leaders and experts, and draws on new empirical research to develop findings. It aims to spur debate and research into pathways of peace for Sudan and widespread public dialogue on human development in Sudan.

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