



Sudan University of Science and Technology  
College of Graduate Studies and Scientific Research



Constraints and Future Vision for Sustainable Development in South Sudan  
(2005-2015)

(المعوقات والرؤية المستقبلية للتنمية المستدامة في جنوب السودان 2005-2015م)

A thesis submitted to the College of Graduate Studies in fulfilment of requirements  
for award Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Economics.

By:

Francis Soria Galuak Garwang

Supervisor:

Dr. Gasim Elfaki Ali Gadallah

December 2020

## Quotation

"My grace is all you need, for my power is greatest when you are weak"

2Corinthians 12:9.

## Dedication

With full respect, I dedicate this work to the souls of my late beloved parents; my dearest wife Sabah Deng, my first born daughter Amanda, my youngest daughter Anita, my new born son Garwang, and to entire relatives. I also dedicate the work to researchers, academicians, and interested learners who give much concern to sustainable development of underdeveloped countries in general and South Sudan in particular.

## **Acknowledgments**

Conventionally, first and foremost, I would like to thank Almighty God who graciously, provided me with all strength, good health and complete physical and mental fitness, and blessed me with success to complete my PhD thesis .

Secondly, I would like to pass so many sincere thanks to my supervisor Dr. Gasim Elfaki Ali Gadalla who has abundantly, provided me with thorough and knowledgeable supervision and unprecedented support since the very beginning of my study. I deeply thank him for the constant efforts; encouragement, and crucial guidance that he has made to sharpen my academic skills particularly in the area of scientific research. It was a great pleasure, honour and privilege to be his student .

Thirdly, I also thank Dr. Bill Gueth Kueil, Deng Ruon Ajak, Ibtisam Eltayeb, and Ustaz/ Andrew Gatlwak Chuol for the different kind of supports during my study. I would like to extend my thanks to the relatives, friends, and colleagues as well as many individuals who directly or indirectly favour me with valuable ideas, advices, comments, and suggestions without which this work could not be completed. I too pass my special thanks to my wife Mrs. Sabah Deng, my elder daughter Amanda, my youngest daughter Anita, and the new born son Garwang for the useful time, continuous encouragement, good environment, and unlimited support that they gave me during my study .

Fourthly, I thank Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, especially the Department of Training and External Relations in the Republic of Sudan, College of Graduate Studies and Scientific Research, College of Business Studies, particularly the Department of Applied Economics at Sudan University of Science and Technology for this precious opportunity that they gave to me. I am indebted to the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology in the Republic of South Sudan, University of Bahr el Ghazal, especially the office of

Deputy Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs which has recognized and prepared this chance for me to study Doctor of philosophy (PhD) in economics. Again I would like to thank various institutions that have supplied information and all the people who have contributed to this work as informants by filling the questionnaire, answering interview questions, and by being members of focus group discussion .

Finally, I would like to remember my dearest late parents and pass my thanks and gratitude to their souls, because they did not cease and feel tired with my upbringing during their lifetime, may their souls rest in peace.

## **Abstract**

This study is concerning with the developmental situation in South Sudan during 2005-2015. The fundamental problem that the study tried to solve is that why sustainable economic development did not occur in 2005-2015? Despite the huge developmental assistances from bilateral and multilateral relations and agreements that donated to the region by the international community since the signing of Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005; in addition to other resources in terms of oil revenues that could play a significant role in the development process in South Sudan. This study was conducted to investigate the constraints and the future vision of economic development in South Sudan in 2005-2015. The main objectives of this study are to find out the constraints to the development, investigate the developmental efforts and attempts, to assess the role of non-governmental organizations in development process in South Sudan in 2005-2015, and to highlight the economic planning, policies, and strategies that has been employed. The study has relied on combined methodology that comprises from quantitative and qualitative methods in data analysis. The logic behind this combined methodology is to minimize various defects of each method in data analysis. Different techniques have been used in data collection, among them close-ended questionnaire form, focus group discussion, and semi-structured interview technique. In data analysis, descriptive statistics particularly the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) have been used to obtain logical and precise conclusions. The most important results that have been reached by this study are that underdevelopment of South Sudan is attributed to political, administrative, and legal constraints such as lack of political commitment, political instability, and over-concentration on implementation of comprehensive peace agreement items and nation and peace building programmes, as well as lack of

good government. Economic, financial, and technical constraints such as lack of scientific, technical and innovative researching; poor infrastructure; underdeveloped financial sector, absence of planning authority; too much dependency on oil revenues; inadequate investment in basic infrastructure; and lack of access to land for investment have plaid significant role in the economic backwardness of the country too. Some socio-cultural constraints like cattle rustling, rapid growth of population, and withdrawal of girls from schools for the purpose of marriage have also contributed to underdevelopment of the country. And the main recommendations of the study are that financial and economic resources shall be diversified; scientific researching shall be given much consideration; infrastructure with high quality shall be developed by the Government to promote sustainable development in South Sudan.

## مستخلص الدراسة

هذا البحث يتعلق بواقعة التنمية الاقتصادية في جنوب السودان خلال الفترة الزمنية 2005-2015م. إن المشكلة الرئيسية لهذه الدراسة تتمثل في السؤال التالية: لماذا لم تتحقق التنمية الاقتصادية المستدامة في جنوب السودان في فترة بين الأعوام 2005-2015م؟ رغم الدعم الكبير الذي قدمه المانحون الدوليون منذ توقيع اتفاقية السلام الشامل عام 2005م، بالإضافة إلى وجود موارد مالية تتمثل في الدخل من الإيرادات البترولية. اجريت هذه الدراسة للتحقق من المعوقات والرؤية المستقبلية للتنمية الاقتصادية المستدامة في جنوب السودان في فترة بين الأعوام 2005-2015م. الهدف الاساسي لهذه الدراسة هو معرفة معوقات التنمية والمجهودات التي بُذلت بالإضافة إلى دور المنظمات غير الحكومية في عملية التنمية في جنوب السودان في 2005-2015م. تهدف الدراسة أيضاً إلى معرفة الخطط والسياسات والإستراتيجيات التنموية التي استخدمتها الشركاء لتحقيق التنمية. في هذه الدراسة تم استخدام منهجية مختلطة تتكون من منهج التحليل الكمي (Quantitative) ومنهج التحليل النوعي (Qualitative) في عملية تحليل البيانات. والهدف من استخدام هذه المنهجية المختلطة هو تقليل عيوب كل منهج على حدى وتحقيق نتائج تتميز بمصدقية عالية. لقد استخدمت في هذه الدراسة عدة أدوات لجمع البيانات منها إستبانة مغلقة أي إستمارة تحتوي علي عبارات وإجابات محددة يختار منها المشاركون الإجابات التي تناسب وجهات نظرهم تجاه العبارة المعينة، ومجموعة نقاش، بالإضافة إلى مقابلات شبه رسمية. تم كذلك استخدام الإحصاء الوصفي وبصفة خاصة حزم العلوم الإجتماعية (SPSS) في تحليل البيانات التي تم جمعها. إن أهم النتائج التي توصلت إليها الدراسة هي ان التنمية المستدامة لم تتحقق في جنوب السودان في فترة بين 2005-2015م نتيجة لوجود معوقات سياسية، قانونية، وإدارية كعدم الإستقرار السياسي والأمني، الإفراط في تنفيذ بنود الاتفاقية السلام الشامل، التركيز الشديد لبرنامج بناء السلام والامة، وكذلك لم تتحقق التنمية لوجود معوقات اقتصادية، مالية، وفنية مثل عدم الاهتمام بالبحث العلمي والتقني، ضعف البنية التحتية، تخلف القطاع المالي، عدم وجود مفوضية تخطيط التنمية، الإعتماد المفرط على مورد اقتصادي واحد (النفط)، وعدم توفر إستثمارات في القطاعات الاقتصادية الرئيسية كالزراعة و الطاقة و الطرق وغيرها، بالإضافة إلى صعوبة الحصول على الأراضي الإستثمارية. هنالك أيضاً معوقات اجتماعية وثقافية تتمثل في نهب المواشي، والصراعات القبلية التي تساهم كثيراً في عدم الاستقرار الأمني، ووجود قدر كبير من الفاقد التربوي خاصة لدى العنصر النسوي نتيجة للزواج المبكر عند مجتمعات القبائل النيلية. أهم التوصيات التي قدمتها الدراسة هي أن تنوع الموارد الاقتصادية والمالية والاهتمام بالبحث العلمي والتقني وتطوير البنية التحتية ذات جودة عالية تساعد في تحقيق التنمية المستدامة في جنوب السودان.



## Contents

| <b>Topics</b>   | <b>Page</b>    |
|---|----------------|
| Quotation   | I              |
| Dedication  | II             |
| Acknowledgements  | III            |
| Abstract  | IV             |
| مستخلص الدراسة  | V              |
| Tables  | VIII           |
| Figures   | IX             |
| Abbreviations   | X              |
| <b>Chapter One: General Introduction and Framework of the Study</b> | <b>1-28</b>    |
| 1.1 Background of the Study.  | 2              |
| 1.2 Statement of Research Problem.                                  | 5              |
| 1.3 Significance and Justification of the Research.                 | 7              |
| 1.4 General and Specific Objectives of the Research.                | 7              |
| 1.5 Research Hypotheses and Questions.                              | 8              |
| 1.6 Scope and Limitations of the Research.                          | 9              |
| 1.7 Methodology of the Research.                                    | 10             |
| 1.8 Ethical aspects of the Research.                                | 16             |
| 1.9 Models of the Research.   | 16             |
| 1.10 Research Organization and Outline.                             | 17             |
| 1.11 Literature Review/Previous Studies.                            | 18             |
| <b>Chapter Two: Theoretical Framework</b>                           | <b>29-140</b>  |
| 2.1 Importance of Economic Development                              | 30             |
| 2.2 Definition of Economic Development                              | 30             |
| 2.3 Nature of Economic Development                                  | 31             |
| 2.4 Objectives of Economic Development                              | 32             |
| 2.5 Core Values of Economic Development                             | 32             |
| 2.6 Factors of Economic Development                                 | 33             |
| 2.7 Constraints and Challenges of Economic Development              | 43             |
| 2.8 Theories, Approaches and Models of Economic Development         | 62             |
| 2.9 Policies and Strategies of Economic Development                 | 88             |
| 2.10 Measurements of Economic Development                           | 98             |
| 2.11 Concept of Sustainable Economic Development                    | 106            |
| 2.12 Key Actors in Economic Development                             | 127            |
| <b>Chapter Three: Socio-Economic Development in South Sudan</b>     | <b>141-205</b> |

|   |                |
|---|----------------|
| 3.1 Education, Capacity Building, and Training  | 142            |
| 3.2 Health, Nutrition, and Environmental Health                                       | 155            |
| 3.3 Water Supply, Public Sanitation, and Hygiene                                      | 167            |
| 3.4 Poverty, Hunger, Food Security and Livelihood                                     | 174            |
| 3.5 Population Growth, and Labour Market  | 178            |
| 3.6 Gender Equality, and Women Empowerment  | 183            |
| 3.7 Human Rights, and Freedom of expression   | 194            |
| <b>Chapter Four: Natural Resources, Physical Infrastructure, and Financial Sector</b> | <b>206-278</b> |
| 4.1 Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries, and Forestry                                   | 207            |
| 4.2 Land and Water Resources of South Sudan   | 225            |
| 4.3 Tourism and wildlife Conservation in South Sudan                                  | 234            |
| 4.4 Transportation and Telecommunication Network                                      | 238            |
| 4.5 Electricity Provision, Oil Production, and Mining                                 | 260            |
| 4.6 Financial Sector, Trade, and Investment in South Sudan                            | 275            |
| <b>Chapter Five: Donors' Contribution to Development in South Sudan</b>               | <b>279-341</b> |
| 5.1 Multilateral Donors: United Nations (UN) Agencies.                                | 280            |
| 5.2 Bilateral Donors: International Development Agencies.                             | 309            |
| 5.3 International Non-Governmental Organizations (INGOs).                             | 327            |
| 5.4 National Civil Society Organizations (NCSOs)                                      | 335            |
| <b>Chapter Six: Methodological Aspects, Data Analyses.</b>                            | <b>342-376</b> |
| 6.1 Methodological Aspects of the Field of the Study.                                 | 343            |
| 6.2 Data Analyses.  | 346            |
| 6.3 Research Hypotheses Testing   | 370            |
| <b>Chapter Seven: Concluding Remarks of the Study</b>                                 | <b>377-393</b> |
| 7.1 General and Specific Findings of the Study.                                       | 378            |
| 7.2 Recommendations of the Study.   | 390            |
| 7.3 Proposed Further Studies.   | 393            |
| <b>Bibliography</b>   | <b>394-404</b> |
| <b>Appendixes</b>   | <b>405-413</b> |

## Tables

| <b>No</b> | <b>Table</b>   | <b>Page</b> |
|-----------|--|-------------|
| 3-1       | Gross Primary Enrolment Rates by State 2009-2015.  | 146         |
| 3-2       | Number of Students in Alternative Education by State 2008-2013.  | 151         |
| 3-3       | Health Status Indicators in South Sudan, compared with averages of the region Middle East and North Africa (MENA) in 2011. | 158         |
| 4-1       | Livestock Population in South Sudan's different States 2012.   | 220         |
| 4-2       | Types and size of Forest Land in South Sudan in 2014.  | 225         |
| 4-3       | Game Reserve Areas' size and year of Protection in South Sudan in 2015.  | 236         |
| 4-4       | National Park Areas in South Sudan in 2015.  | 237         |
| 5-1       | Bilateral-Donors Support Allocated to different Sectors in 2005-2009.  | 326         |
| 5-2       | Number of IDPs and Refugees who returned to ten States in 2006-2008.   | 328         |
| 6-1       | Age group (in years).  | 347         |
| 6-2       | Gender Category.   | 348         |
| 6-3       | Educational Level.   | 349         |
| 6-4       | Type of Academic Degrees attained.   | 350         |
| 6-5       | Discipline/Field of the Study.   | 351         |
| 6-6       | Field of Work.   | 352         |
| 6-7       | Occupation and Grade.  | 352         |
| 6-8       | Regional Affiliation.  | 358         |
| 6-9       | Questionnaire Reliability and Truth Testing Result.  | 354         |
| 6-10      | Political, Legal, and Administrative Constraints Analysis Result.  | 354         |
| 6-11      | Economic, Financial, and Technical Constraints Analysis Result.  | 357         |
| 6-12      | Socio-Cultural Constraints Analysis Result.  | 360         |
| 6-13      | Prospective Political, Legal, and Administrative Policies and Strategies Analysis Result.                                  | 362         |
| 6-14      | Prospective Economic, Financial, and Technical Policies and Strategies Analysis Result.                                    | 365         |
| 6-15      | Prospective Socio-Cultural Policies and Strategies Analysis Result.  | 368         |
| 6-16      | First Hypothesis Testing Result.   | 371         |
| 6-17      | Second hypothesis testing Result.  | 372         |
| 6-18      | Third Hypothesis Testing Result.   | 373         |
| 6-19      | Fourth Hypothesis Testing Result.  | 374         |
| 6-20      | Fifth Hypothesis Testing Result.   | 375         |
| 6-21      | Sixth Hypothesis Testing Result.   | 376         |

## Figures

| No   | Figure                                  | Page |
|------|---|------|
| 1-1  | Research Model (A).                     | 16   |
| 1-2  | Research Model (B).                     | 17   |
| 6-1  | Age group Chart.                        | 348  |
| 6-2  | Gender Category Chart.                  | 349  |
| 6-3  | Educational Level Chart.                | 349  |
| 6-4  | Academic Degrees attained Chart.        | 350  |
| 6-5  | Discipline/Field of the Study Chart.    | 351  |
| 6-6  | Field of work Chart.                    | 352  |
| 6-7  | Occupation and Grade Chart.             | 353  |
| 6-8  | Regional affiliation Chart.             | 353  |
| 6-9  | First Hypothesis Testing Result Chart.  | 371  |
| 6-10 | Second Hypothesis Testing Result Chart. | 372  |
| 6-11 | Third Hypothesis Testing Result Chart.  | 373  |
| 6-12 | Fourth Hypothesis Testing Result Chart. | 374  |
| 6-13 | Fifth Hypothesis Testing Result Chart.  | 375  |
| 6-14 | Sixth Hypothesis Testing Result Chart.  | 376  |

## **Abbreviations:**

|         |  |
|---------|--|
| AES:    | Alternative Education System.                        |
| ALP:    | Accelerated Learning Program.                        |
| ANC:    | Antenatal Care.                                      |
| BALP:   | Basic Adult Literacy Program.                        |
| BOSS:   | Bank of South Sudan.                                 |
| CBTF:   | Capacity Building Trust Fund.                        |
| CDFs:   | Comprehensive Development Frameworks.                |
| CDOT:   | Caritas-Catholic Diocese of Torit.                   |
| CEONC:  | Comprehensive Emergency Obstetric and Neonatal Care. |
| CHs:    | County Hospitals.                                    |
| CHDs:   | County Health Departments.                           |
| CHTI:   | Catholic Health Training Institute.                  |
| CHWs:   | Community Health Workers.                            |
| CIDA:   | Canadian International Development Agency.           |
| CGS:    | Community Girl Schools.                              |
| CLTS:   | Community Led Total Sanitation.                      |
| CMs:    | Community Midwives.                                  |
| COMESA: | Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa.       |
| CPA:    | Comprehensive Peace Agreement.                       |
| CSOs:   | Civil Society Organizations.                         |
| DHIS:   | District Health Information Software.                |
| DPA:    | Directly Productive Activities.                      |
| DOTs:   | Directly Observed Treatments.                        |
| ECD:    | Early Childhood Development.                         |
| EFA:    | Education for All.                                   |

|           |  |
|-----------|--|
| EMIS:     | Educational Management Information System.                             |
| EPI:      | Expanded Program on Immunization.                                      |
| FAO:      | Food and Agriculture Organization.                                     |
| FBOs:     | Faith-based Organizations.   |
| FGM:      | Female Genital Mutilation.   |
| FIDH:     | Federal International Human Rights.                                    |
| GAM:      | Global Acute Malnutrition.   |
| GBV:      | Gender-Based Violence.   |
| GDP:      | Gross Domestic Product.  |
| GEF:      | Global Environment Facility.   |
| GESP:     | General Education Strategic Plan.                                      |
| GIS:      | Geographical Information System.                                       |
| GNP:      | Gross National Product.  |
| GNPOC:    | Greater Nile Petroleum Operating Company.                              |
| GOSS:     | Government of South Sudan.   |
| HDI:      | Human Development Index.   |
| HHPs:     | Home Health Promoters.   |
| HIV/AIDS: | Human Immune-Deficiency Virus and Acquired Immune-Deficiency Syndrome. |
| HMIS:     | Health Management Information System.                                  |
| HRH:      | Human Resources for Health.  |
| HTC:      | HIV Testing and Counselling.   |
| ICTJ:     | International Centre for Transitional Justice.                         |
| IDD:      | Iodine Deficiency Disorder.  |
| IDPs:     | Internally Displaced Persons.  |
| IEC:      | Intensive English Course.  |
| ILO:      | International Labour Organization.                                     |
| IMC:      | International Medical Corps.   |
| IMF:      | International Monetary Fund.   |
| IPF:      | Intergovernmental Panel on Forests.                                    |
| ISO:      | International Organization for Standardization.                        |
| IT:       | Information Technology.  |
| ITU:      | International Telecommunication Union.                                 |
| IUCW:     | International Union of Child Welfare.                                  |
| JAM:      | Joint Assessment Mission.  |
| JCONAM:   | Juba College of Nursing and midwifery.                                 |
| JICA:     | Japan International Cooperation.                                       |
| LDCs:     | Less Developing Countries.   |
| LMIS:     | Logistics Management Information System.                               |

|          |   |
|----------|---|
| M&E:     | Monitoring and Evaluation.  |
| MCHWs:   | Maternal and Child Health Workers.                                  |
| MCYS:    | Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport.                               |
| MDGs:    | Millennium Development Goals.                                       |
| MDTF:    | Multi-Donors Trust Fund.  |
| MEST:    | Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.                      |
| MHPP:    | Ministry of Housing and Physical Planning.                          |
| MLPSHRD: | Ministry of Labour, Public Service and Human Resource Development.  |
| MMR:     | Maternal Mortality Rate.  |
| MOED:    | Ministry of Electricity and Dams.                                   |
| MOEM:    | Ministry of Energy and Mining.                                      |
| MOH:     | Ministry of Health.   |
| MOIB:    | Ministry of Information and Broadcasting.                           |
| MOTPS:   | Ministry of Telecommunication and Postal Services.                  |
| MPs:     | Members of Parliament.  |
| MWRI:    | Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation.                         |
| NCA:     | Norwegian Church Aid.   |
| NCDs:    | Non-communicable Diseases.  |
| NCSDs:   | National Council for Sustainable Development.                       |
| NCSs:    | National Conservation Strategies.                                   |
| NDDRC:   | National Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration Commission. |
| NEAPs:   | National Environmental Action Plans.                                |
| NER:     | Net Enrolment Rate.   |
| NFPs:    | National Forest Programme.  |
| NGOs:    | Non-Governmental Organizations.                                     |
| NNP:     | Net National Product.   |
| NSDSs:   | National Sustainable Development Strategies.                        |
| NTC:     | National Telecommunication Corporation.                             |
| NTDs:    | Neglected Tropical Diseases.  |
| OECS:    | Organization of Eastern Caribbean States.                           |
| OLS:     | Operation Life Sudan.   |
| PEP:     | Pastoralist Education Programme.                                    |
| PHC:     | Primary Health Care.  |
| PHCC:    | Primary Health Care Centre.   |
| PHCU:    | Primary Health Care Unit.   |
| PMTCT:   | Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission.                         |
| PO:      | Provisional Order.  |
| PPP:     | Purchasing Power Parity.  |
| PQLI:    | Physical Quality of Life Index.                                     |

|         |   |
|---------|---|
| RIP:    | Roads Investment Programme.                                     |
| RMF:    | Roads Maintenance Fund.   |
| RMF:    | Real Medicine Foundation  |
| SAM:    | Severe Acute Malnutrition.                                      |
| SCF:    | Save the Children Fund.   |
| SHs:    | State Hospitals.  |
| SMOH:   | State Ministry of Health.                                       |
| SOC:    | Social Overhead Capital.  |
| SPREP:  | South Pacific Regional Environmental Programme.                 |
| SSBC:   | South Sudan Broadcasting Corporation.                           |
| SSDP:   | South Sudan Development Plan.                                   |
| SSEC:   | South Sudan Electricity Corporation.                            |
| SSIRI:  | South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction.                      |
| SSHRSA: | South Sudan Human Rights Society for Advocacy.                  |
| SSPS:   | South Sudan Police Service.                                     |
| SSRA:   | South Sudan Roads Authority.                                    |
| SSUWC:  | South Sudan Urban Water Corporation.                            |
| TB:     | Tuberculosis.   |
| TFAPs:  | Tropical Forest Action Plans.                                   |
| THs:    | Teaching Hospitals.   |
| TVET:   | Technical and Vocational Education and Training.                |
| UK:     | United Kingdom.   |
| UMR:    | Under-five Mortality Rate.                                      |
| UNDP:   | United Nations Development Program.                             |
| UNEP:   | United Nations Environment Program.                             |
| UNESCO: | United Nations Educational, Science, and Cultural Organization. |
| UNFPA:  | United Nations Population Fund.                                 |
| UNICEF: | United Nations Children Fund.                                   |
| UNIMIS: | United Nation Missions in Sudan.                                |
| UNOCHA: | United Nations Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs. |
| UPC:    | Universal Primary Completion.                                   |
| USD:    | United States of America Dollar.                                |
| VTCs:   | Vocational Training Centres.                                    |
| V.S.G:  | Voluntary Service Group.  |
| WCF:    | World Children Fund.  |
| WFP:    | World Food Programme.   |
| WHO:    | World Health Organization.                                      |



# **Chapter One**

## **General Introduction and Framework of the Study**

**1.1 Background of the Study.**

**1.2 Statement of the Research Problem.**

**1.3 Significance and Justification of the Research.**

**1.4 General and Specific Objectives of the Research.**

**1.5 Research Hypotheses and Questions.**

**1.6 Scope and Limitations of the Research.**

**1.7 Methodology of the Research.**

**1.8 Ethical Aspects of the Research.**

**1.9 Models of the Research.**

**1.10 Research Organization and Outline.**

**1.11 Literature Review and or/Previous Studies.**

**1.0Introduction:** In this introductory chapter, topics such as background of the study, research problem, importance of the research, objectives, hypotheses and questions of the research, scope and limitations, methodology, research outline, and literature review have been detailed as under .

**1.1Background of the Study:** Since the Turku-Egyptian rule over Sudan, South Sudan for almost 200 years has experienced a long history of underdevelopment. The Anglo-Egyptian Condominium rule (1899-1914) administratively divided Sudan into North and South, but concentrated its efforts and activities in Khartoum. South Sudan has since then been neglected in terms of political, social and economic development. Such policy has been justified by arguing that South Sudan was not ready to modernize and remained isolated from the outside world for a long period of time, hence basic commercial activities were controlled by Arab trader; and some schools and health clinics were operated by Christian missionaries. Before the independence of Sudan, Any-nya I, which was the first Southern Sudanese movement emerged in 1955, anticipated marginalization by Khartoum and demanded autonomy rights for the South. In 1972, an agreement known as Addis Ababa Agreement was signed and the South was granted restricted autonomy rights. Based on this agreement, the South experienced eleven years of relative peace. Any-nya II was formed too, but was politically and militarily ineffective. Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM/A) emerged in 1983, and was successful in controlling large areas in the South. The long civil war left South Sudan underdeveloped in terms of physical and human development as well as provision of public basic services .

In January 2005, the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) was signed by the Government and Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM/A). And in the framework of this agreement, South Sudan gained semi-autonomy system. According to the referendum on self-determination held in January 2011, an overwhelming majority of more than 98% South Sudanese voted for independence and separation from Sudan that was announced on July 9th, 2011. The Government of South Sudan and various developmental partners have achieved some improvements in establishment of formal state structures such as legislative, judicial and executive governmental bodies at national and state levels. All these institutions at national and state levels face enormous challenges in terms of lack of qualified staff. The majority of leaders who dominated the influential posts in these institutions lack hard and soft skills to run and guide political and economic development reforms. International development partners in South Sudan are increasingly concerned about the extreme levels of corruption and mismanagement in the public sector. Due to the lack of qualified staff or human resources in public sector, the lack of progress in the provision of public services is given and not surprising. During the war time, churches and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) were providing basic services, such as healthcare, education and food assistance to civilians. This situation did not change much following the signing of Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA). The government, to a large degree, expects other entities to provide basic services to the citizens.

There is little pressure on South Sudanese Government to take more responsibility for basic service delivery, while non-governmental organizations (NGOs) keep flocking into many areas inside the country. However, the large majority of the population suffers from extreme poverty, particularly the population living in the remote and affected areas by conflicts. In fact and indeed, several areas in South Sudan experienced armed conflicts and security organs such as army and police forces are doing a poor job to protect the civilians (BTI, South Sudan Report, 2014. pp. 2-4 ).

South Sudan is actually at the tail end of the most underdeveloped countries worldwide. Security issues are widely regarded as number one priority need, and development comes as a close second need in the country. The progress that has been made during the interim period in delivering basic services was not enough in many people's views. The steady influx of returning refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) totaled about two million persons (25%) of the population required expanded, better and quality services in many of them came from areas where they were having good education, clean drinking water and adequate healthcare services. The Government of Republic of South Sudan struggles to prioritize development process in its budgets. The available resources for development in South Sudan are insufficient and external assistance is required. Priorities are given to basic services, livelihood and employment. Humanitarian assistances are concentrated on vulnerable shocks, such as conflicts, drought, floods and chronic insecurity. Sustainable development in South Sudan is a complex process which needs cooperation among various actors. The Government of South Sudan cannot carry out the work with current given limited capacity. Civil society organizations, international and local non-governmental organizations, women based organizations and churches are required to play a major role in development process. Development process needs to be inclusive and bases on population's participation. Stability in all aspects shall go hand in hand with development actions (Multi Annual Strategic Plan, 2012-2015. pp. 6-7).

In the present time, South Sudan is facing significant development challenges including political instability, inter-tribal conflicts, poor infrastructure, over-dependence on oil production, strong import dependence, lack of manufacturing, lack of commercial agriculture, and extreme low human capital. It has one of the world's lowest adult literacy level (27%), high poverty levels, very weak health and sanitation indicators and a large pastoralist non-formal economy, with over 80% of population living in rural areas (UNESCO, TVET Policy, 2014, P. 10 ).

South Sudan confronts some of the worst human development indicators in the world. At least 80% of population is income-poor, living on an equivalent of less than USD 1 per day. Over one-third of population faces food insecurity and at least 20% of households cannot support their food needs. One out of three children is moderately or severely stunted because of malnutrition, and at least 47% of the population is undernourished. Only 16% of adult women is literate and just only half of all children attend school. More than 40% of the population has access to any form of healthcare services and only one out of five children

immunized. In terms of infant mortality rate, South Sudan is one of the ninth highest countries, while maternal mortality rate is the highest in the world. Just over half of the population has improved sources of clean drinking water, while sanitation remains a considerable issue with less than 20% having use of basic facilities. Human Immune Deficiency Virus and Acquired Immune-Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) has not yet reached epidemic proportion in South Sudan, and its incidence is currently at 3%, lower than that of neighboring countries. But knowledge of the disease is limited and the rate of contraceptive use among women is the second lowest in the world, which makes it a potential danger. Disparate access to resources and services has created significant inequality among and within states and between urban and rural areas. South Sudanese society is highly militarized and fragmented as a result of prolonged conflict; arms proliferation and existence of armed groups (UNESCO, Document, 2014-2016. p, 8 .)

South Sudan has experienced one of the most vigorous international efforts for post-conflict development in the modern history, in form of billions of dollars from bilateral and multilateral aid. A large focus of these development efforts was to build capacity of the government. During the interim period between CPA and independence time, especially in 2005-2011, the international donor's community quickly laid the foundation of governing institutions. The estimates suggested that South Sudan received approximately USD 1 billion of international assistance on an annual basis between 2006 and 2010. Development assistance ranged from relief to development programs with particular international investment in health and education sectors, as well as infrastructure development. The United States of America (USA) was the leading donor during the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) period followed by the United Kingdom (UK) and Norway, forming a collectively group known as "Troika". Dozens of other donors joined the effort by the time of independence in 2011. South Sudan was receiving development assistance from thirteen bilateral and from eight multilateral donors. The total aid allocations for the first year of independence totaled USD 1.4 billion (Greg, WIDER Working Paper, 2013. pp, 3-5 .)

For South Sudan to overcome the current situation of underdevelopment, sufficient investment in education shall occur to foster development. The benefits of investment in education are enhanced labor force productivity, direct impact on mortality, nutrition and health, environmental conservation and sustainable livelihoods. The Government of South Sudan has prioritized and considered provision of general education to its entire population as matter of rights and on the basis of equality and equity. Through education every citizen in South Sudan could develop to his/her fullest potential analytical and critical skills that would enhance their participation in all spheres of economic development. The signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in January 2005 has given the Government of South Sudan the opportunity to embark on the path to recovery, reconstruction and development. Systems and structures stimulating economic development, development of infrastructure and delivery of basic social services to the population are now in place and being strengthened. The Government of South Sudan has now pl

education high on its reconstruction and development agenda, with the priority on expanding access, improving the quality of education, promoting gender equity and social change, as well as building systems through strengthening professional institutional capacity to sustain development of the educational sector. On one hand, attention has been paid to rehabilitation of existing educational facilities and construction of new ones, massive teacher recruitment and training, development, procurement and distribution of educational materials. On the other hand, efforts have been made to stimulate demand for education through campaigns at national, state, county and payam (administrative unit) levels, removal of obstacles to education such as fees and through incentives such as implementation of school feeding programs and an alternative education system for older children who did not have access to schooling during the war time. In the first place, particular attention has been paid to marginalized populations, demobilized groups and returnees. In South Sudan, socio-cultural and economic barriers are among the biggest challenges to expanded access, retention, participation and achievement in school (UNICEF, Report, 2008. pp, 10-11).

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem: The main problem of this study is that why economic development did not occur in South Sudan during 2005-2015? The study tends to explore the main constraints to economic development of South Sudan and to highlight the role of planning as an important tool for economic development .

The constraints which seriously, affect and limit economic development of South Sudan are linked to political, administrative, and legal ones such as inexperienced authorities and weak institutions suffering from lack of capacity. The capacity of the Government of South Sudan to support economic growth and development, construction and development of infrastructure, provision of security, delivery of basic services such as health and education is very limited. The weak capacity of government related to weak public financial management system. Other political, administrative and legal constraints are political instability; spread of small arms and availability of armed groups which lead to high rate of crimes; poor performance of the army and the police forces to protect civilians; political and administrative corruption (lack of good governance) which could be considered as the most and worst constraint on effective governance and economic development; absence of accountability; mismanagement of public sector affairs; lack of political will/commitment towards economic development; lack of qualified human resources; lack of formal state structure .

The major economic and financial constraints on economic development in South Sudan are mostly physical capital formation due to low levels of per capita income, low per capita productivity of investment, wide spread inequality of incomes, high rapid growth rate of population which leads to the spending of entire income, total prices rise of goods and services that compel people to spend large amounts of money on their current needs which in turn leads to decrease in savings, taxation policies, underdeveloped financial sector, lack of enterprises which could come forward with promises of attractive rates of return on capital.

that should encourage the people to save part of their incomes, and underdeveloped capital goods industries like machinery and equipments to be used in production purposes, in addition to the limited domestic markets of goods and services due to the limited purchasing power of the people of South Sudan, inadequate infrastructure and basic amenities like railways, roads, water and power supply, drinking water and sewerage facilities which have negative effects on investment. Economic backwardness is one of the factors leading to low capital formation in South Sudan due to low efficiency of labour forces and low levels of savings, low capital formation, and to prevalence of traditional values .

Technological backwardness is another factor of low capital formation; this is because a large traditional sector using outdated techniques of production. The widespread extreme poverty is considered as one of the serious constraints on economic development in general and on capital formation in particular. Other factors include mismanagement of macroeconomic affairs; misallocation of public fund and qualified human resources; insufficient financial resources; too much dependency on oil production and exports; unequal opportunities to financial resources; mismanagement of water resources that caused periodic shortages and unstable supply of water; inadequate provision of basic services; and high income inequality and inadequate infrastructure. South Sudan faces critical environmental and socio-economic constraints including environmental degradation, deforestation and climate change, lack of access to markets, remoteness and isolation of rural population from main towns and cities, in addition to the character of landlocked of the country. Low productivity in agricultural sector is one of the most constraints to development and capital formation of the country; this is because agriculture is just a family occupation, and many small agricultural lands are holding uneconomically, which means that agriculture is not a source of income, but a way of life especially for rural traditional societies .

The social and cultural constraints to economic development of South Sudan are as inter-tribal and inter-communal conflicts; contribution of children to their household economies denies their opportunities for schooling and learning. Cultural obligations also stand as constraints to economic development particularly for women who only are dealing with home makings and that as wives are considered just child bearers. Girls in South Sudan are considered as assets and source of income and wealth for their families which affects their access to education .

**1.3 Significance and Justification of the Research:** This study is an indispensable and essential academic document that will serve as a useful previous study to academicians and researchers who are interested in conducting studies for non-business purposes in the area of economics. The importance of this study comes from its genuine problem that it tends to investigate. It also possesses the scientific qualities of social science research which include objectivity, dependability, acceptability, universality, clarity and so on. It employs a clear methodology that leads to a tangible contribution to the existing knowledge particularly in the sphere of economics. The research will have a great impact on developmental aspects in the Republic

South Sudan in terms of giving a clear understanding to contemporary constraints on economic development. The work will help policymakers and developmental partners in South Sudan in setting short-term, medium-term and long-term policies, plans and strategies for economic development .

1.4 General and Specific Objectives of the Research: The general and specific aims of this study could be listed out as follow:

1.4.1 General Objectives of the Research:

- a) To enrich academic library with theoretical and practical research for the benefit of researchers and society in general.
- b) To assess developmental efforts attempted in South Sudan during 2005-2015.
- c) To demonstrate the main political, administrative, legal, economic, financial, social and cultural constraints on economic development in South Sudan especially in the period (2005-2015).

1.4.2 Specific Objectives of the Research: The most important specific objectives of this study are as follow.

- a) To review in details economic development in South Sudan during 2005-2015 .
- b) To analyze the effects of political, administrative, legal, economic, financial, social, and cultural constraints of economic development in South Sudan during 2005-2015.
- c) To highlight the role played by international donors, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations (CSOs) in economic development of South Sudan during 2005-2015.
- d) To provide logical, and scientific conclusions (results), recommendations and suggestions that will be helpful to the Government of South Sudan and other developmental actors to play effectively their roles.

1.5 Research Hypotheses and Questions: The study suggested some hypotheses and questions as follow:

1.5.1 Hypotheses of the Research: In this study, the researcher assumed six hypotheses as under.

(1) The Government of South Sudan and the partners in development failed to achieve development in 2005-2015, due to political, administrative and legal constraints such as political instability; weak institutional and human capacities; lack of good governance (political and administrative corruption); concentration on execution and implementation of Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) items during interim period, and the nation and peace building programs in post-independence; lack of political commitment) and so on.

(2) Economic development process did not realize in South Sudan as a result of economic, financial, and technical constraints including underdeveloped financial sector; lack of scientific, innovative and technical reaching; poor infrastructure; inadequate investment in major infrastructures; dependency on oil production; landlocked nature of the country; and absence of planning commission to implement development policies, plans and strategies in 2005-2015 .

(3)South Sudan Government did not attain significant development in 2005-2015, because of socio-cultural constraints on development, which include such concepts that consider girls as assets and source of wealth and properties for their families that lead to early and forced young girls' marriage and in turn limit their learning and negatively affects sustainable human development; cattle rustling, intertribal and intercommunal conflicts that contribute to insecurity; contribution of children to their family economies in form of house works, agricultural labor, pastoral activities and income generating activities; and concepts that consider women as just caregivers and child bearers which denies their participation in economic activities in an effective manner.

(4)South Sudan can achieve significant economic development (construction, rehabilitation and provision of basic services), due to well formulated political, administrative and legal policies, plans, and strategies such as strong political will; political stability; efficient and transparent governance; attractive operating environment for investment; sound management for public and private sector; and adequate human resource skills development.

(5)The Government of South Sudan and other developmental partners could maximize socio-economic and physical development, due to well formulated economic, financial, and technical policies, plans, and strategies.

(6)Economic development could occur in the Republic of South Sudan, if socio-cultural policies and strategies have been adopted and implemented correctly .

1.5.2Questions of the Research: The main questions of this study that the researcher seeks to find answers are the following:

(1)What were the main political, administrative and legal constraints on economic development in South Sudan during 2005-2015?

(2)What were the economic, financial and technical constraints to economic development in South Sudan during 2005-2015?

(3)What were the most social and cultural constraints which affected negatively economic development in South Sudan in 2005-2015?

(4)What are the most needed political, legal, and administrative policies, plans, and strategies that could be pursued to stimulate development in South Sudan?

(5)What are the economic, financial, and technical policies, strategies and plans which can help reduce the occurrence of sustainable development in South Sudan?

(6)What are the suitable socio-cultural policies, plans, and strategies that can foster sustainable development in South Sudan ?

1.6Scope and Limitations of the Research: This section is dealing with the scope of the research and the difficulties that face the study.



1.6.1 Scope of the Research: This study tends to conduct investigations in the three greater regions of Sudan namely Greater Bahr el-Ghazal, Greater Equatoria, and Greater Upper Nile. It concentrates on the period (2005-2015), which has known as interim and post-independence period in which vigorous international efforts for post-conflict development were made for the country. Investigations include various interviews with South Sudanese knowledgeable people, experts, and officials to collect reliable and adequate information for development in South Sudan.

1.6.2 Limitations of the Research: It is clear that any research in the sphere of social science as well as other disciplines could face many difficulties or limitations. This work has faced the following limitations:

a) Finance: Financial aspects in this study are one of the most critical issues. The research is generally costly because of outlays in terms of transportation, typing and printing costs, in addition to costs of stationary materials needed during the study period .

b) Insecurity: South Sudan is land of various sorts of conflicts including the ongoing civil war between opposition forces and the Government of South Sudan since 2013, in addition to wide spread of thousands of fire arms, active armed groups, cattle raiding and inter-tribal and inter-communal conflicts, under such situations it is difficult for the researcher to visit remote areas even some cities and towns for the purpose of data collection.

c) Negative Opinions of Majority on Scientific Research: Negative opinions of majority of citizens on scientific research as unimportant and redundant work have many negative effects on this research. However, it is not easy to find information unless the researcher has used some skills to approach respondents .

d) Information Insufficiency: Lack of information on the topic under investigation is a crucial one in South Sudan it is difficult to find easily data concerning a certain issue, because the country has no archive for information, no proper way of keeping data. However the researcher seriously struggles to attain the needed information .

1.7 Methodology of the Research: In this study a combine methodology comprises from quantitative and qualitative method has employed for data collection and analysis.

a) Quantitative Method: In this study, the researcher has considered the quantitative method as the most appropriate method to assess and evaluates the developmental situation in South Sudan. This is because quantitative method assumes that anything exists in quantity and can be measured easily; in addition to procedures which adapted by this method are systematic and cumulative to produce useful knowledge which is repeatable to confirm or disconfirm findings; it uses techniques that can ensure objectivity, generalization and reliability of the data. Due to these characteristics and advantages, the researcher has employed it in this study for data collection and analysis. The researcher has relied on survey technique to generate data by asking questions relevant to the subject under the investigation. This is because survey method

descriptive, reliable, transparent, and useful in collection of data on topic that cannot be directly observed and it allows the researcher to question a large number of people questioned quickly, in addition, responses collected through this method were specific and limited, and their results have systematically analyzed. And because the population of this study is quite large, the researcher through survey method directly questioned and investigated a small proportion of 280 respondents derived from the population which is a set of persons that possess at least one common characteristic (university graduates) .(

)b) Qualitative Method: The researcher in this study has used qualitative method as a technique for knowledge generation through face-to-face contact with the respondents to collect responses on the subject under the investigation. In this method techniques such as semi-structured interviews and focus group discussion have been employed. This is because semi-structural interview and focus group discussion technique (informal/non-directive technique) gives room for the respondents to volunteer as much information as they can; and has allowed them to provide qualitative depth as they have talked about the subject in terms of their own reference. It also allows meanings and interpretations that individual respondents attribute to events and relationships to be understood clearly; and finally, provides a greater understanding of the subject. However, in these techniques (semi-structured interview and focus group discussion) the researcher has adopted and developed a sketchy checklist of important issues that have been presented in informal conversations with selected members of elite, experts, and people who have adequate knowledge on the subject of the study .

1.7.1 Sources and Types of Data: There are two types of sources of data in which the researcher has relied on and they are as under :

1.7.1.1 Secondary Sources of Data: The secondary sources of data could be either published or unpublished materials and they include the following:

)a) Academic Books: In this study various books including textbooks, handbooks, anthologies, and journals found in university libraries, bookshops and books stores have been cited as sources of literature and already synthesized data; particularly in the chapters which depend on secondary data.

) b) Scholarly Journal Articles: The researcher of this work has relied on social science based journals especially, the ones which contain useful information and data needed in this study. This is because the researcher has considered the scholarly journals as rich, and well regularized sources of data and information with vastness of contributors and the quality of the papers such as well-researched, peer-reviewed papers and up-to-date information in the field of economics and development .

)c) Monographs: In this study, more detailed different monographs produced by government and private organizations which contain needed information on the subject of the study have been used (cited) by the researcher .

)d) The Internet: The researcher has accessed books, journals, monographs, conference papers, and other sources from the internet which is a rich source of wealth of information on the subject under the study. The internet has given the researcher an opportunity to have a variety of data on the subject of the study and has accessed much free information on the internet through search-machine which referred to computer software that compiles lists of documents on the websites .

)e) Conference Papers: In this study various compiled conference papers that usually organized and presented at conferences, seminars and workshops by professional experts, non-governmental organizations, governments, academic departments and research centers have been reviewed, consulted, and cited by the researcher.

)f) Unpublished Materials: This study has relied on various unpublished sources such as research projects, dissertations, theses and essays which have contributed something new to the existing knowledge and given a chance or opportunity to the researcher to study and extract the information on their findings or to see if the research problem has been identified; what methodology was used; and what other sources have been consulted .

1.7.1.2 Primary Sources of Data: This study also relied on primary data collected by close-ended questionnaire, semi-structured interview method, and focus group discussion technique. As Professor A. Azzain (2008, p, 37) put it so clear that "primary data are the raw data that the researcher becomes their user for the first time". Primary data are mainly; generated from questionnaire, interview, and observation results, archival materials, and personal diaries and recodes and etc. and enable the researcher to produce original work which has a greater impact and tangible contribution to the existed knowledge in the relevant discipline. In the same way, C. B. Gupta and Vijay Gupta (2001, p, 44) stated that " primary data refer to the statistical materials which the investigator originates for the purpose of the inquiry in hand ."

1.7.2 Tools of Data Collection: In this study, the term data collection refers to gathering of specific information that will lead to proving or refuting the hypotheses. The researcher has a clear understanding of what and how he hopes to obtain; a clear vision of the instruments to be used for data collection; the respondents; and the selected area of the study. The main data collection tools that have been used in this study are as the under:

)a) Interview Technique: As Yusuf M. Adamu and others, (2006. pp, 138-139) put it that "interview technique serves as a rich source of data on the respondent's experiences, opinions, aspirations and feelings on the subject of research". The researcher in this study has employed interview technique as one of the tools for data collection through face-to-face meetings with some knowledgeable respondents in which a series of questions have designed to be relevant to the subject of the study, to strengthen the reliability of the data, and to overcome the defects of close-ended questionnaire. The face-to-face interview technique

given a window to the researcher to generate answers from the respondents which have constituted raw data that have been analyzed later by the researcher .

)b) Focus Group Discussion Technique: Yusuf M. Adamu and others, (2006. pp, 45-47) have mentioned that “this method is appropriate for data collection than other tools because of the benefit derived from a focus group through the exchange of information between respondents and the researcher; is an effective tool for extracting useful information from participants based on their practical experiences, feelings and views; it serves as incubator for people to adopt positive change in their attitude and behavior, which are the preconditions for development”. In this study the researcher has prepared a good semi-structured discussion with proper composition (a group of six respondents), well preparation, conducive environment, proper facilitation, in-depth analysis, right development of the key questions to start up discussion, and good planning, and conducting of the sessions on a selected topic to generate responses from participants based on their personal views, knowledge and experiences. This fairly informal discussion has enabled the researcher to gain insights from the shared understandings; facilitated useful exchange of ideas between participants; educated them about their social and economic realities; empowered them to design policies, plans, and strategies that could be used to overcome the identified constraints; and allowed them to learn from each other and alter their attitude and orientations upon developmental issues .

)c) Close-ended Questionnaire Technique: In this study a close-ended questionnaire form which contains predetermined sets of questions (statements) has been used to obtain reliable information from individual informants on the subject of research. The close-ended questionnaire has provided both questions and answers for the respondents to select; and has not made any further details or personal opinion to adequately elucidate certain issues under the investigation .

1.7.3 Population and Sample of the Study: In this section the population and the size of the sample of the study are fully explained in minute details as under.

)a) Population of the Study: According to Kombo and Tromp (2011, p, 76) "A population of the study is the universe or the aggregate (larger) or the entire group of individual persons, objects, elements, or items that have at least one thing in common and from which samples are taken (derived) and the researcher actually focuses on for the investigation or measurement". The researcher shall take into account the specificity of the units being sampled, the geographical location and the temporal boundary of the population. In the light of this definition, the entire population of the Republic of South Sudan which amounted 8, 260,490 people according to fifth population and housing census in 2008 is the actual targeted population to be studied in this research.

)b) Sample of the Study: Abu Ahmed (2014, pp. 42-43) stressed that "Qualitative researchers usually work with small samples of people to study them in-depth, whereas quantitative researchers tend to work with larger numbers to look for statistical significance. Qualitative samples are usually purposive and diverse

while quantitative samples tend to be random and representative". Due to Prof. Azzain (2008, p. 29) "... type of sample depends on research problems and research objectives. If the researcher wants to use sample findings to talk about the entire population of which it was drawn, then the researcher needs to use a random sample. Random sample refers to the manner in which elements are selected. Therefore each element could be given an equal chance to be selected". The sample size of this study has been determined statistically through the employment of a specific equation which according to Khadra Hassan Ali Saddig (2013, PhD Thesis, p. 459, pp,136-137)" The sample size of any population could be determined by the following statistical formula:  $S = \frac{X^2 NP(1-P)}{(d^2)^2 (N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)}$  where: S = the required sample size,  $X^2$  = is the table value of Chi-square for (1) degree of freedom at the desired confidence level which is (3.841), N = the population size, P = is the population proportion (unknown) which assumed to be (0.05) since it will provide the maximum sample size, and  $d^2$  = is the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion which assumed to be (0.05)". Based on such formula the sample size of this study has been calculated as follows:  $S = \frac{[(3.841)]^2 \times 8,260,490 \times 0.05(1-0.05)}{(0.05)^2 (8,260,490-1) + 3.841 \times 0.05 (1-0.05)} = \frac{14.7516 \times 8,260,490 \times 0.05 \times 0.95}{(2.5 \times 8,260,489) + (3.841 \times 0.05 \times 0.95)} = \frac{5,788,653,027}{20,651,222.68} = 280.305583$ . This can be approximated to 280. So the sample size of the population under the investigation in this study is 280 respondents .

1.7.4 Data Analysis and Interpretation: In this study data analysis and interpretation involved the following steps:

1.7.4.1 Data Organization/Management: In this study, the term data organization refers to orderliness of research data or putting the data into systematic form. The data that has been collected particularly through the survey method has been organized and processed before subjecting them to a useful analysis. In research, data management has included identification of data, correction of errors in data, coding of data, and storing the data in computer program such as excel and word office. The steps and procedures that have been taken in data organization are the following :

a) Data Preprocessing: After collection of the data through questionnaire, the researcher has conducted a preprocessing procedure that in which errors have been identified and corrected; interpretation of unnecessary data which appeared in interviewing of individuals or focus group discussion or in questionnaire answers have been avoided; and contradictory data or wrong responses related to some questions have been verified and rejected.

b) Data Coding: After the correction of errors which may influence data analysis, the researcher formulated a coding process to create codes scales from the responses. In coding process all possible answers have been treated and numerical codes are assigned to the particular responses.

)c) Data Entry/Storage: After the data coding, the researcher decided to store the information, electrically and non-electrically in form of SPSS, Excel spreadsheet, Microsoft Word, and in the computer forms.

)d) Statistical Technique: In this study, descriptive statistics have been used to quantify the collected data in a few numerical manners; and descriptive statistics measures such as arithmetic mean (average) and chi-square test have been employed in the analysis of the collected data.

1.7.4.2 Data Analysis: In this study two methods of data analysis have been used to reach final findings and conclusions. In this stage, the collected data has been examined; variables have been extracted; and assumptions (hypotheses) have been tested. The researcher has relied on confirmatory (quantitative) and exploratory (qualitative) analyses.

)a) Quantitative Data Analysis: in this study, quantitative analysis has been employed to measure numerical values from which descriptions have been made; the degrees of the relationships between the variables have been found out.

)b) Qualitative Data Analysis: In this study, descriptive qualitative analysis without calculations has been used to discover the relations between the variables, to summarize the key findings, explanation, interpretation, and to categorize the related topics and issues

1.7.5 Area of the Study: Geographically, the Republic of South Sudan covers an area of 644,329 square kilometers. It is a land-locked country situated in east-central of Africa which shares border with Ethiopia to the east, Kenya to the southeast, Uganda to the south, the Democratic Republic of Congo to the southwest, Central Africa Republic to the west and Sudan to the north. Administratively, the country is divided into ten states, but for the purpose of this study the researcher has relied on the 1980s administrative system that categorized South Sudan into three greater regions namely Bahr el-Ghazal, Equatoria, and Upper Nile. Each of the three regions was subdivided into states.

Demographically, the population of South Sudan is 8.3 million according to the fifth Sudan Population and Housing Census in 2008. Majority of the population about 6.9 million (83%), live in rural areas. South Sudan is a country of young aged people in which at least 51% of people are under the age eighteen and 72% of people are under thirty. South Sudan is highly diverse, both ethnically and linguistically. There are 63 ethnic groups, speaking at least fifty different languages. Economically, the country's economy is driven primarily by the production of the oil, which comprises 98% of total government revenue. In 2010 South Sudan's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita was USD 1,546, making the country one of the low-income countries. The subsistence agriculture and pastoral activity are the main sources of livelihood for 78% of households, and the non-oil economy of the country is based largely on farming and livestock activity. In 2008, 53% of the working population of the country was unpaid family workers and only 12% was paid employees. The decades of war resulted

in weak infrastructure, limited skilled labor, and high domestic transport costs, making the production more expensive and the mobility of products to markets and consumption areas so difficult (UNESCO South Sudan, Document, 2014-2016, pp, 5-6.)

Due to so many difficulties, including insecurity, and lack of finance, the researcher decided to select Juba City as the main area for the study. This is because Juba is the Capital City of the country and possibly majority of the targeted informants could be found. In Juba, 280 questionnaires were distributed and were filled in. Also various interviews were conducted with well qualified and knowledgeable respondents .

1.7.6Rationality of the Methodology: The logic behind the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods simultaneously in this study is that both quantitative and qualitative methods are related to each other. They are the two forms of logic that are complementarily and correlatively help in the establishment of truth. The combination of the two methods is helpful in generalization of the facts, for indirect verification of hypotheses, and in confirmation of the conclusions drawn through the quantitative method by the qualitative method and vice versa 1.8 .Ethical Aspects of the Research: In this study ethical aspects such as rules and principles of scientific research in social sciences have seriously been applied. The researcher has not allow his feelings such as conflicting interests, perceptions, and emotions that working in any human being to interfere and influence the objectivity of the study, or mislead the true nature of the study. The ethical principles have been applied in this research to ensure the autonomy (dependency) of the research, avoid anything that could harm others, take positive steps to further the legitimate interest of the people of South Sudan, and to avoid discrimination among participants. This work is preceded by a thorough review of literature to ensure as far as possible its originality, or that the study has not already done before by any researcher. As the researcher rely on the work of other people in writing literature review, all the citations, sources of information and the ideas (words) that have consulted and borrowed (quoted) in this study are clearly and fully had acknowledged and shown in the references' list and the quotations have indicated by putting quotation marks and the exact page or pages, so that they can be crosschecked for future research, or for confirmation. The researcher has thoroughly worked for tangible contribution to the existing knowledge in area of economics and has not allowed him-self to harm the subject and the outcome of the study. The researcher has carefully analyzed the data and avoided the falsification in results, by reporting all results as they are. And for more confidentiality, the researcher has kept all information and data which attained from the respondents with high confidence; this is because some respondents are not interested to appear in the interpretation of information that they supplied or they may be very personal that the respondents might not want to share with others.

1.9 Models of the Research: In this study two models have been formulated as follow.

Figure1.1: Model (A).

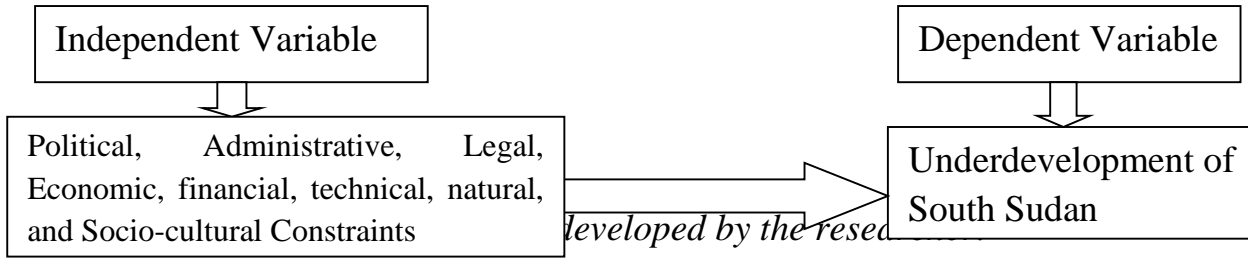
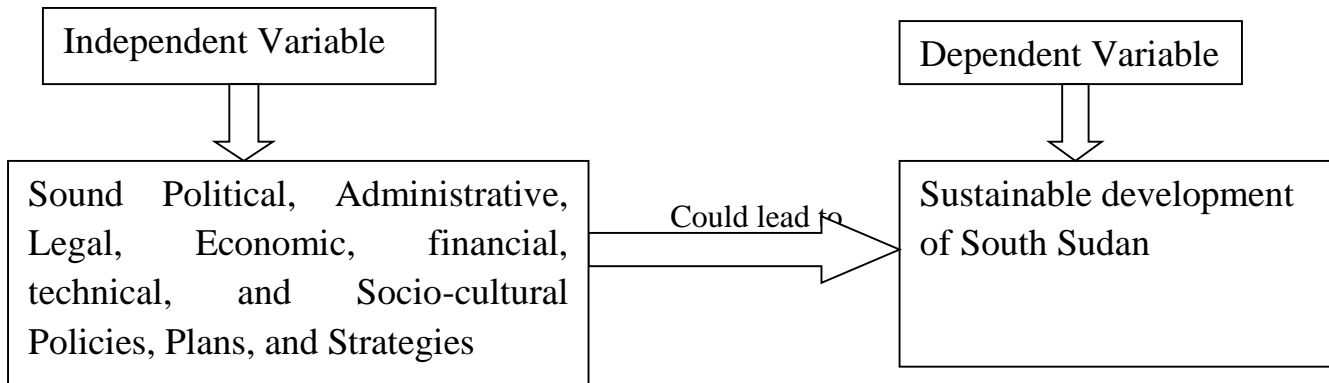


Figure1.2: Model (B).



Source: *developed by the researcher*

1.10 Research Organization and Outline: The study is outlined and structured into six chapters. Chapter one deals with general introduction and framework of the study. In which introduction and background, statement of the research problem, significance and justification of the research, general and specific objectives of the research, hypotheses and questions of the study, scope and limitations of the research, and methodology have been explained in detail. Also in this chapter topics such as ethical aspects of the research and literature review or previous studies which are related to the study have obviously been identified. Chapter two concentrates on basic concepts and principles of economic development. Under which different issues such as importance of economic development, its nature, definition, objectives, core values, some main theories and approaches, factors or determinants, problems and challenges, policies and strategies of economic development like fiscal, monetary policies, trade and industrial strategies such as imports substitution, primary exports-led-development policy, outward-looking-strategies and flying geese industrial strategies have been highlighted to give a clear understanding and to strengthen the consistency of the subject. In this chapter methods of measurement of economic development, concept of sustainable development, and the key actors in economic development such as governments, central and commercial banks, business entrepreneurs, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations (CSOs) have also been included



and explained in detail. Chapter three focuses on socio-economic development in South Sudan, in which various issues including education and training, health and nutrition, water and sanitation, population growth, poverty and hunger, labor forces and gender equality as well as human rights and freedom of expression are all covered in details. Chapter four emphasizes on physical infrastructure development in South Sudan which includes agriculture, livestock, fisheries and forestry sectors, also land and water resources have been studied in this chapter. The chapter has also dealt with energy and mining sector, business and financial sector, as well as transportation and roads. Chapter five is about the donors' contribution to economic development in South Sudan during 2005-2015. In this chapter, the role of multilateral donors such as United Nations Agencies, bilateral donors including international agencies for development, international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and national civil society organizations (CSOs) in economic development in South Sudan has obviously been highlighted. Chapter six actually deals with methodological aspects of the field of study and data analyses in which constraints to economic development have analyzed, interpreted, and discussed in minute detail. Prospective policies and strategies for development have also analyzed, interpreted and discussed too. Chapter seven demonstrates the concluding remarks of the study in which general and specific findings of the study, recommendations, and proposed further studies have been highlighted and revealed obviously.

1.11 Literature Review (Previous Studies): In this section some previous studies have been highlighted as under.

1.11.1 Ali Mohammed Ali Khairallah (2015 unpublished PhD thesis): The study was conducted under the title “Impact of Public Expenditure Policies on Social Development in Sudan (1980-2009)”. The problem of the study was to exam the impact of public expenditure policies on social basic services which were lagging behind despite the significant annual growth of the real gross domestic product (GDP) by 6% resulting from the rise in oil and tax revenues. In this study time-series analysis and ordinary least square (OLS) was used to test basic social services such as health, education, and the entire social development indices in Sudan. The most important results of the study were that the growing real gross domestic product (GDP) per capita, increased social expenditure, and improved health and educational physical infrastructure have significantly enhanced social development; and that the real gross domestic product (GDP) per capita has a significant positive impact on health index in Sudan .

1.11.2 James Alic Garang (2014 unpublished PhD thesis, conducted at University of Massachusetts-Amherst, USA): The dissertation was entitled as “The Financial Sector and Inclusive Development in Africa: Essays on Access to Finance for Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises in South Sudan and Kenya”. The main problem of the dissertation was to exam the role of financial sector development in

expanding access to finance by small and medium-sized enterprises in Kenya; to assess the access to finance by small and medium-sized enterprises in South Sudan; and to draw lessons and formulate proposals in the light of the findings from the Kenyan experience for accessible and innovative financial services by small and medium-sized enterprises and with regard to the regulatory framework for financial sector development in South Sudan. The aim of the dissertation is to explore how the financial sector can serve to advance the goal of inclusive economic development. The methodology which has used in this study was mainly the field surveys that were conducted through open-ended questionnaire in commercial banks, small, and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in South Sudan and Kenya, in addition to econometrics analysis. The main findings of the study were that the financial system in general, and the Central Bank of Kenya in particular have made headway in expanding financial inclusion in Kenya; small firms continuously have faced more constraints in access to finance compared to larger firms; the policy of financial inclusion, coupled with the widespread innovations in information and communications technology have furthering the expansion in the frontier of the access to finance in Kenya. In case of South Sudan, the researcher has found that not only does the size of the firm matter, but also distance from Juba have inversely related to access to finance by small and medium-sized enterprises. The study has recommended that in South Sudan, the regulatory framework, land rights administration shall be strengthened, oil revenues shall correctly be channeled to fuel broad-based economic development, and financial inclusion as an objective in its own right and not just a byproduct shall be pursued for development of the country .

1.11.3 Rens W. Twijnstra (2014 unpublished PhD thesis was conducted at Wageningen University, NL): This work was carried out under the title: “On the State of Business: Trade, Entrepreneurship and Real Economic Governance in South Sudan”. The main problem of the thesis was to provide an insight into the everyday realities of economic life and regulation in South Sudan for the period (2010-2013) and during the economic austerity following the oil shutdowns. The main objectives of the study were to analyze how business activity and economic regulation in South Sudan was governed before and during the economic austerity measures following the political decision of oil production shutdown in 2012; to analyze the real economic governance from the perspective of everyday practices and interactions between and within economic groups and state actors; to analyze the relationships between traders and tax officials as a social network in which business and regulatory practice were embedded or placed; and to exam how the relationships between different groups of cross-border traders and state officials has shaped the practices of cross-border trade and the way state officials levied taxes on that trade. The researcher has made use of different qualitative methods in data collection, notably, observation, face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions and secondary data. The main arguments (findings) of the research are that in an environment where formal state institutions are fragmented,

contested and rivaled due to non-state ordering mechanisms, business practice and regulation is governed by socio-political relationships that are negotiated between powerful groups and individuals both inside and outside the domain of the state; the relative stability of practical norms of taxation, (the operative rules that actually shape the space for negotiation between traders and state officials) depends largely on the socio-political relationships between state and non-state actors; despite excessive lip-service to local private sector development and entrepreneurship in fragile states, intervention practice with regard to non-state economic actors is firmly geared towards a political engagement with the most vulnerable groups in society; the everyday practices of business and economic regulation in South Sudan are governed by socio-political power relations between groups of non-state economic actors (traders, entrepreneurs) and state actors (tax officials, procurement officers, etc.); practices are also governed by negotiated power dynamics between groups of actors at different levels within the state; and that political intervention on behalf of international actors aiming to provide support to the local private sector precludes local entrepreneurs as a ‘missing middle’ by disregarding the socio-political dimensions of the private sector; finally, the research has argued that economic action and regulatory practice is relatively contingent during an ‘open moment’ precipitated by a macroeconomic crisis; and that some practices changed and started converging with a more ‘developmental’ trajectory, while others remained largely unaffected. It has argued that the oil shutdown did not have one distinctively positive or negative effect on the modalities of real economic governance, but impacted different practices and different relationships in a variety of ways that all provide clues about how the state-economy nexus is negotiated on the ground in South Sudan.

1.11.4Suad Abd-Elsaid Eltaib Ali (2014, unpublished PhD thesis): The thesis was conducted under the title “The Impact of Trade Liberalization and Foreign Direct Investment Flows on Economic Growth: Sudan Experience (1972-2010)”. Its problem was to identify the situation of trade liberalization and foreign direct investment in Sudan and to study their impact on economic growth. The main objectives of the study were to investigate and assess the impact of trade liberalization and foreign direct investment on economic growth in Sudan in the period (1972-2010); and to evaluate the impact of other factors such as domestic investment, literacy rate, and petroleum exports. The methodology that has been used in this study was on time-series analysis, co-integration procedure, and ordinary least square (OLS) methods. The most obvious findings of the study were that there is negative relationship between trade openness and economic growth in Sudan; and that most of the foreign direct investments was concentrated on unproductive sectors such as services.

1.11.5Gore Liah Teny (2014 unpublished study for Master Degree): The study was carried out under the title “The Effect of Macro-economic Factors on Economic Growth in Kenya in the period (2001-2013)”. The main problem of the study was to exam the effects of some macro-economic variables

namely the foreign exchange rate, interest rate, and inflation on economic growth in Kenya; and to demonstrate to the extent the relationship between these three variables and the real domestic gross product (GDP). The methodology that has been used by the researcher was notably linear regression model with application of ordinary least square (OLS) to analyze and estimate the existing relationship between variables. Secondary data obtained from Central of Kenya and from National Bureau of Statistics was analyzed. The key findings of the study were that exchange rate was significant (positively affected economic growth); and high inflation level and high interest rate was insignificant (have lagged behind the economic growth .(

1.11.6 Addis Ababa Othow (2013 unpublished PhD thesis): Under the title “Impact of Political Stability on Economic Development: Case of South Sudan”. The problem of this study was to confirm or disconfirm the concept or theory which states that “political stability enhances socio-economic development”. The major objectives were to highlight the political transition process and policies that could improve economic, political and social well-being of the people of South Sudan; highlight the policies that can increase the living standards of the people of South Sudan and sustain economic growth from simple low-income to modern high-income economy; explore possible cooperation between Sudan and South Sudan in all aspects; and to analyze the political development in South Sudan that could justify the concept/theory of political stability enhances economic and social development. The researcher has used qualitative analysis especially the SWOT (strengthens, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) analysis. Othow has mentioned that political stability as one of the strategies for development is an important factor to foster development. Thus due to Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005, South Sudan has achieved significant development within the last seven years. The political stability has a great effect on economic growth and the level of investment as it increases investors' confidence and gives a degree of safety to their investments. But contrary political instability undermines businesses and reduces investment level as well as the speed of development. Long sustainable economic growth depends on ability to raise accumulated physical and human capital rate, efficient use of productive assets, and provision of accessible finance to all investors and business people. Corruption is a major obstacle to development and causes low-income and critical and severe poverty; sands the wheels of development and makes economic and political transitions so difficult; increases inequality that generates psychological frustration to unprivileged ones, reduces productivity growth, investment levels, and job opportunities, and reduces return of productive activities. This is because corruption favors particular classes of people, shrinking opportunities, and leads to frustration and socio-political instability. The natural resources dependency has negative effects on economic growth rates; but natural resources endowment has positive impacts on economic growth. Conflicts affect financial sector at macroeconomic and microeconomic levels as

they disrupt general economic confidence by destroying the key financial institutions and disrupt social relationships which are essential for financial transactions. Armed conflicts contribute to significant financial instability, increase military expenditures, reduce government revenues, affect economic outputs through destruction of human and physical capital, and shift public spending and private investments as well as disruption of economic activities and social life. Governance is the exercise of economic, political and administrative authorities to manage a country affairs at all levels and a precondition for economic development, because economic development without good governance is impossible. Therefore, good governance is not only a key factor to the promotion of human rights and protection of civil liberties, but it highly related with economic development and potential improvements in living standards of people. It is clear that economic and political freedom is essential for economic growth and development and nation transformation. On the other hand, poor governance has negative effects on economic growth and development.

1.11.7 Kristin Lauvstad Tufte (2012, unpublished Master degree dissertation, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, Norway): The thesis was conducted under the title (“Energy Leads to Development” Narrative Norwegian Hydropower Projects in South Sudan). The problem of this study was to find out how the development narrative ‘energy leads to development’ explains Norway’s involvement in South Sudan and to discuss what type of development this narrative represents, and how different powerful actors, mostly in South Sudan, narrate the impact of the hydropower projects. In this study qualitative methods have been employed to analyze how development narrative influences policy and strategies in the case of Norwegian plans for hydro-electric dams in South Sudan. The researcher has relied on semi-structured interviews that were carried out in Juba with mostly officials in the South Sudanese government, Norwegian officials involved in both developmental work and hydropower, and various business and Non-Governmental Organizations people. The researcher has explored interplay between the various actors, interests and relations between powerful actors; has explored how the term ‘development’ is constructed across levels between the local and global, and in turn how the global debate also has influenced the Norwegian development policy; Norway is used as an example of the key actors in South Sudan, where as international development policy is dependent on domestic understanding of Norway as ‘green’; Norwegian hydropower history and experience has influenced their role in developing countries especially South Sudan and in turn, this perception has affected South Sudanese view in both Norway and hydropower; and found that hydropower is presented as catalyst for development, and one that is equivalent to partnering concepts such as modernization and economic growth.

1.11.8 Ibtisam Eltayeb Eljack (2012, unpublished PhD thesis): The research was carried out under the title: “The Impact of Human Capital on Economic Growth in Sudan (1970-2005)”. The problem of the

study was to exam the effect of human capital on economic growth in Sudan. The methodology that was used in this study was simultaneous equations such as the three-stage Least Square technique that was employed in data analysis. The main results of the study were that human capital has a significant positive effect on economic growth; and that economic growth in another hand has a significant positive effect on human capital formation in Sudan.

1.11.9 Francis Sanya Matayo Gale (2011, unpublished dissertation for Master of Arts in Development Management “Rural Development and Food Security”, Van Hall Larenstein University of applied Sciences, Wageningen, the Netherlands). The research was carried out under the title: “The Role of Non-Governmental Organizations in the Improvement of Livelihood in South Sudan: A case study of BRAC Microfinance Program in Central Equatoria State”. The problem of the study was to assess the role of BRAC microfinance program in alleviating poverty among the rural poor South Sudanese women. The research is both descriptive and analytical in nature; through interviews, survey and personal observation, primary data was collected from key persons and the targeted community households, in addition secondary data which was collected through desk study. The major conclusions of the study were that there is heavy dependency on small working class (the most households have more family members, and these family members were dependants and could not contribute to household income, consequently, depriving the households of better livelihoods). This situation can be attributed to the large influx of the returnees during the referendum and independence of South Sudan; it found that limited and low level of education in South Sudan with some who didn't even stepped into a classroom, have shrank and limited their livelihoods options to pursue better sources of livelihood. The study further has shown that most households were living in houses made of local materials (grass, wood, galvanized zinc sheet, and etc.); households with help from BRAC in terms of loans, they generate income by participating in micro-enterprises (petty trade), and also engaged in non-agricultural activities such as sale of natural products (firewood, charcoal, grass, building poles, and wild fruits etc.) which are unreliable and unsustainable source of income. However, there are many challenges facing the households` livelihoods of the people such as lack of integration of markets, taxes and non-tariff barriers and high prices of commodities which limit their capacity to conduct business or discourage them especial the rural households to abandon the business of small scale enterprises. Lack of proper regulations on how micro-finance institutions (MFIs) should operate in South Sudan has limited their operation. Despite the support from a number of organizations and micro-finance institutions (MFIs) in South Sudan since 2005, the development of the industry has been slow and constrained. To build the capacity of microfinance in provision of credit, further steps should be taken to increase the impact of microfinance initiatives. This could be made through greater coordination amongst the supporters of microfinance and the capacity building of government institutions to raise

the impact of their initiatives. For the success of micro-finance institutions (MFIs) to outreach more remote areas, security and transport facilities should be enhanced by the government and other relevant agencies. Gap of linkage between financial provision and training across sectors and productive activities should be bridged to raise the impact of microfinance. This is particularly important for the agricultural sector, as while it is a major source of subsistence to the majority of the population in South Sudan. The failure of microcredit in reaching the extreme poor in a lot of third world countries seems to be another challenge for BRAC in South Sudan; this is because the extreme poor may stay away due to their own reservations and fear .

1.11.10 Manal Osman Ali Elhaj (2010, unpublished PhD thesis): The study entitled: “The Causes of Economic Underdevelopment of the Sudanese economy: A Case Study of Kassala State (1956-2005)”. The main problem of the study was to identify the reasons that have contributed to the economic backwardness of Kassala State in particular and the Eastern Sudan in general. The study has assumed that factors related to environment (ecology), politics, inadequate investment in human and physical capital, administrative, and inappropriate technology have caused the situation of underdevelopment of Kassala State. The methodology of the study was descriptive statistics. The results that have reached by the study were mainly that economic backwardness in Kassala State was resulting from natural environment, political, economic, administrative, and technological factors; and that insignificant ratio of the state budget was invested in social development .

1.11.11 Arif Naous Zaidan Al-Dalaa (2010, unpublished PhD. Thesis): It was conducted under the title: “Impact of Investment Projects on the Development of the Northern Badia of Jordan for the period (2004-2008)”. The main problem of the thesis was to test the developmental impact of investment projects and to identify their contribution to living standard improvement, curbing (limiting) unemployment, and enabling the bedwain ladies to participate effectively in development process. The methodology of the study was combined (deductive and inductive) method and descriptive statistics was used in data analysis. The main tools in data collection that have been employed to obtain possible reliable data in field survey were questionnaire, observation, and personal interviews technique. The main results of the study were that investment projects in the areas of industrial and commercial activities have generated high income than agricultural projects which suffered more from various difficulties; investment projects have contributed significantly in living standard improvement by 96% and increased individual income as their outlays on food, clothes, and health have been increased; the industrial and commercial projects have provided some permanent and temporary job opportunities to the population of the area than agricultural projects. The major constraints that were faced by investment projects in the northern Badia of Jordan were mainly financial, technical, administrative difficulties such as lack of training, low academic level, difficulty to refund debts, in addition to

bureaucratic, economic, skilled manpower, and marketing difficulties. The investment projects in Badiya have successfully overcome the technical, administrative, marketing, economic, and financial problems by 93%; Jordanian bedwain women were enabled to participate in development process by 88% and have encouraged establishing more projects.

1.11.12Hyder Abbas Hussein (2009, unpublished PhD thesis): This work was conducted under the title: “Impact of Foreign Capital Inflow on Economic Growth in Sudan (1989-2004)”. The main problem was to exam the impact of various types of foreign capital (official loans, grants, foreign direct investment, portfolio investment, and private foreign capital) inflow as it has recorded in the balance of payments statement on economic growth in Sudan during (1989-2004); it was an attempt to answer questions such as was foreign capital a factor or a burden on economic growth in Sudan?; did Sudan host significant (too much) foreign capital?; which types of foreign capital that were received by Sudan according to its needs and economic realities?; did the borrowed resources were prudently used to promote economic growth?; to what extent did political instability influence the inflow of foreign capital?; and how far the exchange rate fluctuations and weak financial sector affected the inflow of foreign capital? The methodology that was used in this study was mainly econometrics and the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) method to estimate the parameters and obtain proper results. The main findings of the study were that most foreign loans were utilized in long-term projects such as Marawe Dam construction, high ways construction, rehabilitation of the existing projects, and in rural development to increase productive capacity of the economy; most of these projects did not produce goods to be exported; the loans were found as a huge pressure on the balance of payments in terms of refunding especially in the future; foreign direct investment that was received by Sudan was mainly utilized in exploration, production, and exportation of oil and have demonstrated positive effects on the economy; the terms of trade were found improved; foreign reserves were accumulated; contribution of industrial and mining sector to gross domestic product (GDP) was found increased; the exchange rate has remained stable; foreign portfolio investment was neglected; and other investments was utilized in importation of consumer goods .

1.11.13Sami Mohammed Ibrahim Hassan (2007, unpublished PhD thesis): This study was conducted under the title: “The Effect of Macro-economic Policies on Social Development in Sudan: A Case study of Kassala State”. The main problem of the study was to exam the effect of macro-economic policies on development process through public spending (pro-poor spending) on basic services such as education and health to form human capital in Kassala State. The methodology of the study was descriptive statistics and econometrics approach that has been employed in data analysis especially health and education services in Kassala State. The results of the study were that Kassala State is the poorest state in Sudan, especially the areas of El-Gash and Hamashkoriab due to the worst basic



services and deterioration of their incomes that has affected their satisfaction in health and educational services; thus this situation has made the people of Kassala State to allow their children to participate in generation of family income than going to schools; in terms of quality, health services are better in urban than in the rural areas. This is because the majority of working class especially in public sector has benefitted more from health services due to the policy of health insurance.

1.11.14 Sanaa Ibrahim Mohammed Omer (2007, unpublished M.Sc. dissertation): The study was carried out under the title “The Role of the Sudanese Non-petroleum Exports in Economic Development during (1995-2005)”. The key problem of this study was to tackle the role of the Sudanese non-petroleum exports in economic development which were mostly occupying the first rank in the past, but has declined later. The most important objectives of the study were to demonstrate the role that was played by the non-petroleum exports in economic development in Sudan; to explore the reasons that caused their decline; and to highlight the problems that facing the exporters of non-petroleum products; the study also tends to learn the policies adapted by the central bank of Sudan to develop and to finance non-petroleum exports. The methodology of the study was descriptive statistics. The most important findings of the study were that there is inadequate information concerning non-petroleum exports due to lack of organization among various institutions in different levels in the country; the policies which were adapted by the government were not stable or specific, but changeable according to the situation from time to time; the problems that have faced the non-petroleum products exporters were mostly lack of adequate infrastructure to facilitate the establishment of productive schemes to produce exported goods; lack of stable exchange rate policy; absence of institutions to act as guarantees to non-petroleum exports; and in addition to the dependency on few countries (small-size market) for non-petroleum products marketing .

1.11.15 Itorang, Remy Oller (1995, unpublished M.Sc. dissertation): This study was conducted under the title “Role of Non-Governmental Organizations in Socio-economic Development: A Case study of the Norwegian Church Aid Organization in Eastern Equatoria State”. It was conducted at University of Khartoum as a partial research for Masters of Science (M.Sc.) in Development Planning. The fundamental purposes of this study were to investigate in general the role of non-governmental organizations in development; and to highlight the Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) activities that have had an impact on socio-economic development in Eastern Equatoria State in particular. The methodology of this research seems to evaluate the impact of the Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) as a non-governmental organization on socio-economic development. The key conclusions of this study are that Southern Sudan has never witnessed lasting peace since the independence of the country in 1956, as the seventeen year old war that was concluded in 1972, and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/ Army (SPLM/A) war which erupted in 1983 have disrupted developmental efforts in South

Sudan, and have usually affected the people as well as the infrastructure. In Eastern Equatoria more damages were done in roads, bridges, churches, schools, dispensaries, and whole villages lay in ruins either by war or the neglect of the people hiding in the bush or taking refuge in neighboring countries of East and Central Africa. The Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) has constructed all weather roads which serve most of Eastern Equatoria, has provided a large amount of drinking water wells and it was the main source of capital for health, education, agriculture and cooperative activities. The fundamental objective as well as its core problem is to evaluate the role of non-governmental organizations in socio-economic development; with a case study of Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) in Eastern Equatoria State .

1.11.16Dr. Raphael Koba Study (ND, published study): In his study under the title “Development Potential of Southern Sudan: Strategies and Constraints”. Dr. Koba has mentioned the main obstacles to development in Southern Sudan as the lack of an integrated comprehensive planning; lack of coordination of projects and financial resources; greater distance from world and business and trading centers; and lack of good roads and transport infrastructure that have made Southern Sudan a remote and inaccessible area. According to him, the main strategies for development of South Sudan according to this study were categorized into pre-independence policy and the Southern Regional Government strategy. The aim of pre-independence development strategy was to change the South from shifting cultivation to fixed agriculture, and due to this strategy, efforts were directed to cotton growing for exports. The main assumption of the strategy was that Southern Sudan must be self-sufficiency and self-supporting in terms of basic commodities and exports. The Southern Regional Government strategy has especially focused on large-scale and capital-intensive agricultural projects, such as irrigated sugar, kenaf, rice plantations and mechanized rain-fed schemes which were planned to generate high income and impoverished traditional farmers and livestock holders. The Government was pursued two strategies; first the emphasis on development of traditional agriculture and livestock raisers to strengthen their capacity through provision of the necessary inputs like improved quick yield seed, agricultural tools, assistance in marketing of surplus crops, provision of credit and agricultural extension services. In the case of livestock raisers vaccination and veterinary medical care was provided. Second self-sufficiency policy in food production was given definite priority. But because of the sever limitation in capacity, the government was heavily depended on the organizations to implement the strategy through contribution to the rural sector. The main findings of his work were that Southern Sudan is blessed with significant amounts of natural resources that ranging from agricultural products, like sorghum, millet, groundnuts, maize, beans, cassava, rice, vegetables and different sorts of fruits, as well as various cash crops such as tea, coffee and tobacco; some forestry products in terms of timber, wild fruits and gum Arabic; and fisheries. There is a huge amount of animals like cattle, sheep and goats. Light industries have been excised in form of agro-industries such as textile industry

and edible oil processing, coffee processing, fruit and vegetables canning as well as beer products. South Sudan is well endowed with bulk of minerals found in commercial quantities like oil, gold, uranium, copper, manganese and iron ore. In South Sudan there are numerous water resources. The country is the poorest region in terms of both socio-economic and physical infrastructure development, because of long civil war; acute manpower problems in terms of lack of skilled, technical and professional cadres in all fields, in addition to its remoteness and land-locked character that has banned South Sudan to be connected with the rest of the world.

Gaps: The gaps that did not fill by the previous studies and have been involved in the current research are as under .

First gap: The previous studies have investigated the impact of political instability, and insecurity on economic growth and development. But the current research has investigated in minute details the contribution of lack of political will, over-concentration on comprehensive peace agreement execution, and nation-building to socio-economic underdevelopment in South Sudan .

Second gap: The previous studies have analyzed lack of integrated comprehensive planning, lack of coordination of projects and financial resources, greater distance from world business and trading centers, lack of good roads and transport infrastructure. In another hand this study has included in its investigation the lack of scientific, technical, and innovative researching; absence of planning commission that leads to lack of needed information to facilitate development.

Third gap: These studies have only covered some socio-cultural constraints such as children contribution to their families incomes generation due to the situation of extreme poverty, but this study has gone far to analyze the effect of socio-cultural constraints such as the concept that considers female as just wife, caregiver, and child-bearer; girls as an asset and source of wealth; and the situation of polygamy which has limited women participation in productive activities, girls early and forced marriage and their withdrawal from schools that has denied their education, and limited the use of financial resources of the families that has negatively affected human development .

Fourth gap: These previous studies have concentrated on the role of investment, political stability, satisfaction of basic needs, self-sufficiency in food production and distribution, provision of adequate shelter, health and expansion of money economy, and capacity building that should fully make the administration well equipped, materially, financially and logistically in implementation of development programs and plans. While this study has covered and analyzed impacts of political commitment, improvement of women's property rights, role of scientific, technical, and innovative research, and diversification of economic and financial resources on economic development.

# **Chapter Two**

## **Theoretical Framework**

- 2.1 Importance of Economic Development.
- 2.2 Definition of Economic Development.
- 2.3 Nature of Economic Development.
- 2.4 Objectives of Economic Development.
- 2.5 Core Values of Economic Development.
- 2.6 Factors of Economic Development.
- 2.7 Constraints and challenges of Development.
- 2.8 Theories and Approaches of Economic Development.
- 2.9 Policies and Strategies of Economic Development
- 2.10 Measurements of Economic Development.
- 2.11 Concept of Sustainable Development.
- 2.12 Key Actors in Economic Development.

**2.0 Introduction:** This chapter concentrates on issues such as importance of economic development, definition, nature, objectives, core values, factors, constraints and challenges of economic development, theories, approaches and models of development, policies and strategies, measurements, and concepts of sustainable development as well as the key actors in economic development .

**2.1 Importance of Economic Development:** Economic development is necessary for sustaining the competitiveness of a country's economy and raising overall productivity and incomes. It maintains a high level of employment and job quality for all citizens; creates and provides necessary job opportunities to middle-class jobless and working forces; and earnings needed for further investments in areas like education, health, amenities, infrastructure and other governmental services (Einas Hamad, 2007, p. 18.)

**2.2 Definition of Economic Development:** According to E. Wayne Nafziger (2006, p. 15) "economic development refers to economic growth accompanied by changes in output distribution and economic structure. These changes may include an improvement in the material well-being of the poorer half of the population; declines in agriculture's share of Gross National Product (GNP) and a corresponding increase in the Gross National Product (GNP) share of industry and services; an increase in education and skills of the labor forces; and substantial technical advances originating within the country. It draws attention to changes in capacities such as physical coordination and learning ability, or the economy's ability to adapt shifts in tastes and technology."

In the view of Dr. Khalid Muhammad Farah (2009, pp. 6-10) "development is the process whereby human efforts are exerted in a systematic, organized and planned manner, on the one hand, with the available materials and human resources' knowledge and technology on the other hand, for the aim of realizing the prosperity and well-being of the human being and improving their living standards. However, this process should be achieved under conditions of justice, equity, inclusion, transparency, consultation, participation of all concerned parties and sound management. It could also be defined as an escalation or an unfolding of the process whereby all available human and material resources are utilized in the optimum manner, for continuous amelioration and constant positive transformation of material and spiritual living conditions of the people. Therefore, development is the process whereby simple low-income economies are transformed into modern industrial economies. Development is used as synonym for economic growth, but generally, is employed to describe a change in a country's economy which involves qualitative and quantitative improvements. More comprehensively, it means human development which includes not only physical development but also socio-economic, civic-political, ethno-development, and sustainable development. Socio-economic development refers to provision of social services such as education, health and recreation, and provision of justice for the socially deprived groups like backward classes and women; civic-development implies provision of

civil liberties and political rights; ethno-development refers to indigenous modes of development which is compatible with socio-cultural ethos of a society; and sustainable development refers to such development which is not damaging ecology and environment. The components of development include economic growth, trade, finance, science and technology, poverty eradication, employment and human resources development. Development also places emphasis on the role of democracy, human rights, popular participation and good governance, the role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations (CSOs), environment protection, and gender equality and empowerment of women ."

Development is a concept that has generated a lot of controversy among scholars and policymakers. Some see it in aggregate and tangible terms such as availability of boreholes for water supply, electricity, road networks, and sophisticated harbors, high-rise buildings, airports, and so on. Others see it in terms of macro-economic indicators such as Gross Domestic Product (GDP), Gross National Product (GNP) per capita, controlled level of inflation, and purchasing power parity of citizens, employment opportunities and terms of trade of goods and services produced within a country, among others. Yet, others see the development partly in respect of the aforementioned two perspectives but so more in terms of quality of life indices such as life expectancy, level of infant mortality rate, crude death rate, access to health services and schooling, food self-sufficiency, level of participation in decision-making, freedom, safety to life and property, and above all level of self-esteem enjoyed by the citizenry (Adamu and others, et al 2006, p. 41.)

2.3 Nature of Economic Development: Economic Development has a greater scope than traditional economics and political economy. While traditional economics gives concern to efficient allocation of existing scarce and idle productive resources and to their sustained growth over time, economic development deals with economic, social, political and institutional changes, both public and private, which are necessary for bring about rapid and large-scale improvements in the levels of living standards of the peoples in developing countries. Thus economic development, to a greater extent than traditional neo-classical economics or even political economy, is concerning with economic, cultural, and political requirements for effective rapid structural and institutional transformations of entire societies in a manner that will efficiently bring fruits of economic progress to the broadest segments of the population. It focuses on the mechanisms that keep families, regions, and even the entire nation in poverty traps, in which past poverty causes future poverty, and on most effective strategies for breaking out all these traps. At developmental view of point, the larger role of government and some degree of coordinated economic decision-making that directed toward transforming the economy are usually viewed as essential components of economic development. Economic development attempts to combine relevant concepts and theories of traditional economic analysis with new models and

broader multidisciplinary approaches derived from the historical and contemporary development experiences of the underdeveloped countries. Economic development is a field on the crest of a breaking wave, with new theories and new data constantly emerging. The ultimate purpose of economic development, however, remains unchanged which usually, helps us to understand developing economies in order to improve the material lives of the majority of the population (Todaro and Smith, 2012, p.8 ).(

2.4 Objectives of Economic Development: Development is both a physical reality and a state of mind in which a society has some combination of social, economic, and institutional processes, secured the means for obtaining a better life. However, development in all societies has at least the following three objectives:

)a) To increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life-sustaining goods such as food, shelter, health, and protection.

)b) To raise levels of living; including higher incomes; provision of more jobs; better education; and greater attention to cultural and human values, all of which serve not only to enhance material well-being but also to generate greater individual and national self-esteem.

)c) To expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence not only in relation to other people and nation-states but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery (Ibid, pp. 22-23).(

2.5 Core Values of Economic Development: At least three basic core values serve as a conceptual basis and practical guideline for understanding the inner meaning of development. These three core values are sustenance, self-esteem, and freedom. They represent common goals sought by all individuals and societies. They relate to fundamental human needs that find their expression in almost all societies and cultures at all times. Therefore, let us examine each value in turn.

)a) Sustenance: Is the ability to meet basic needs. All people have certain basic needs without which life would be impossible. These self-sustaining basic human needs include food, shelter, health, and protection. In the absent of any of these basic needs or in critically shortage, a condition of absolute underdevelopment exists. The basic function of an economy is to provide as to many people as possible with the means of overcoming the helplessness and misery arising from a lack of food, shelter, health and protection. To this extent, economic development is a necessary condition to improve the quality of life. Without sustained and continuous economic progress at the individual as well as societal level, the realization of human potential would not be possible. Rising per capita incomes, elimination of absolute poverty, greater employment opportunities, and lessening or reduction of income inequalities all these constitute the necessary but not the sufficient conditions for economic development.

)b) Self-Esteem: This value of development means being a person. The second universal value of the good life is self-esteem which is a sense of worth and self-respect, of not being used as a tool by others for their own ends. All people and societies seek some basic form of self-esteem, although they call it authenticity, identity, dignity, respect, honor, or recognition. The nature and form of this self-esteem may vary from society to society and from culture to culture.

)c) Freedom from Servitude: This value means being able to choose. The third value is the concept of human freedom. Freedom here is to be understood in the sense of emancipation from alienating material conditions of life and from social servitude to nature, other people, misery, oppressive institutions, and dogmatic beliefs, especially that poverty is predestination. Freedom involves an expanded range of choices for societies and their members together with a minimization of external constraints in the pursuit of some social goal. Wealth can enable people to gain greater control over nature and physical environment to produce food, clothing and shelter than they would have if they remained poor. It also gives them the freedom to choose greater leisure, to have more goods and services, or to deny the importance of these material wants and choose to live a life of spiritual contemplation. The concept of human freedom also encompasses various components of political freedom, including personal security, the rule of law, freedom of expression, political participation and equality of opportunity (Ibid, pp. 20-22.)

2.6 Factors of Economic Growth and Development: The process of economic growth and development is highly very complex phenomenon and is influenced by so numerous and various factors which are grouped into economic and non-economic factors. Any an economy needs economic factors like natural resources availability, capital accumulation, technological progress, human resources development and an efficient entrepreneurship to achieve a significant level of growth and development. It also needs non-economic factors which are very essential for economic development and growth to take place .

2.6.1 Economic Factors for Economic Growth and Development: Capital is necessary but not a sufficient one for economic progress. The supply of natural resources, the growth of scientific and technological knowledge is all important in the process of economic growth and development.

)a) Availability of Natural Resources: Natural resources are the principal factor affecting development of an economy. Among the natural resources are the land area and the quality of the soil, forest wealth, good river system, minerals and oil resources, good climate and so on. For economic growth and development, the existence of natural resources in abundance is essential, because when a country has deficiency in natural resources, it may not be in the position to develop rapidly. In fact natural resources are a necessary condition for economic growth and development, but not the sufficient one. In underdeveloped countries, natural resources are unutilized, underutilized and misused. This is one



of the reasons of their underdevelopment or backwardness economically. There is little reason to expect natural resources undeveloped if people are indifferent to the products or services which such resources can contribute. This is due to economic backwardness and lack of technological progress. A country which is considered to be poor in natural resources may be considered as very rich in natural resources sometime later, not because unknown resources are discovered, but because new methods are explored for the known resources. The example of Japan is strong evidence, for it is considered as the one with deficient natural resources, but now is one of the most advanced countries in the world because it has been able to discover new uses for the limited resources it has (Economic development and Growth, p. 10. See <http://www.newagepublishers.com>.)

)b) The Rate of Capital Accumulation: The capital formation is another important factor for economic development of an economy. Capital formation can be defined as the stock of physical reproducible factors of production. Capital accumulation and formation, both terms carry the same meaning which may be understood simply by the stock of capital. Capital formation is a cumulative and self-feeding which includes three interrelated stages which are existence of real savings and their rise; the existence of credit and financial institutions to mobilize the savings and direct them into the desired productive channels for investment in capital goods. In underdeveloped countries, the low rate of savings is due to low per capita income of the people which may not be raised by voluntary savings. Therefore, the rate of per capita savings can be increased by emphasizing on forced savings which reduces the rate of consumption and thereby release savings for capital formation. Forced savings can be made possible through the implementation of taxation policy, deficit financing and public borrowing as the better instruments in the hand of government to collect and accumulate capital. The use of unemployed and underemployed rural population in construction works is also considered as another important instrument that could be employed by the government for capital formation in the backward economies. External resources in the form of foreign aid, loans and grants in addition to larger exports can also help in the process of capital formation. The capital formation possesses special significance, as a key factor to economic growth, particularly in developing countries. It increases the productivity of various sectors in the economy on the one hand and enhances ultimately national output by raising effective demand, on the other hand. The gross capital formation should at least reach 30% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of a country to achieve significant economic growth and development (Ibid, pp. 10 -11).

)c) Level of Technological Progress: The technological changes are most important in the process of economic growth and development. There is no doubt that technological progress is very significant factor in determining the rate of economic growth of an economy. In fact, even capital formation is not possible without technical progress. The use of improved techniques in production brings about a

significant increase in per capita income. Technological progress has something to do with the research to the use of new and better methods of production or to enhance the old ones. Sometimes technical progress could result availability of natural resources but generally, it increases the productivity. In other words, technological progress increases the ability to make a more effective and fruitful use of natural and other resources to increase production. By the use of improved technology, it is possible to have greater output from the given resources or the given output can be obtained by the use of a smaller quantity of resources. Technical progress also increases the ability to make more effective use of capital equipments. Technological progress has very close connection with capital formation. In fact, both go hand and hand, because without capital formation, technical progress is impossible. Heavy investment is required for making use of better and more efficient methods of production. Thus, technological progress has a very important role to play in the economic development of an economy. No underdeveloped country can hope to march ahead on the road of economic development without adaptation of a newer and advanced technique of production, unless it has assisted in its economic development marching by technological progress. Capital formation promotes economic growth because it facilitates technological improvements, which raise labor productivity and thus add to national and per capita income a significant amount of extra income (Ibid, pp. 11-12.)

)d) Level of Human Resources Development: A good quality of human resources is very important in determining the rate of economic progress. A high quality of significant proportion of the population of a country is better for development. Thus, for economic growth, investment in human resources in the form of education, health and medical training and other social schemes is very much desirable. People who are dedicated to the economic development of their country and to high standards of honesty, competency, knowledge and performance are the most important requirements for rapid industrial growth. Above all, what is needed beyond this is the leadership and example who is right kind of people that can be provided. The well qualified and equipped people can move mountains without physical capital. Therefore, economic development requires rapid growth of human talents and smartness in mind to be employed in the available job opportunities (Ibid, p. 12.)

)e) Division of Labour and Large-Scale Production: Division of labour can be defined as the splitting and breaking down of a work process into small number of tasks, with each task or part to be performed by different person or group of persons. Breaking down of the work into simple tasks brings about specialization because by doing a particular task frequently a person can become perfect in doing it. With division of labour and specialization, there is a reduction or saving in time of production, increase in productivity, decrease in costs of production, and less expensive or cheap final product that resulting in large scale economies of production which in turn helps in the development

of industrial sector. However, division of labor depends on the size of the market while the size of market depends on the level of economic progress which is the general level of production, means of transportation, and size of demand and so on. The improvement in modern means of transportation, communication and power, and the markets both domestic and foreign expansion leads into an increase in the level of output which in turn means a greater specialization and division of labor. Therefore, for less developed countries to grow, they should expand their markets by adopting modern means of transportation and communications so that division of labor and large scale of production can be achieved (National Open University of Nigeria, Economic development and growth, p.137. Available at: <https://www.nou.edu.ng> .(

)f) Efficient Organization and Management: Management is an important factor to the success of any institution or organization because it involves the optimum use of means of production in economic activities. The administration increases the productivity of capital and labor, and it ensures the effective and efficient use of them. The administration is the brain behind the success of any business enterprise. Administration is an important factor necessary for the overall economic growth. An administrator possesses the ability to recognize the opportunities for a successful introduction of new commodities, new techniques, new sources of supply, assembles the necessary equipments, managerial and labor force skills and organize them for certain work process which in turn gives rise to industrialization. Industrialization development leads to economic growth and development. Industrialization cannot take place without organizational skills. Therefore, for the less developed countries to achieve growth, they would create the right environment to encourage entrepreneurship through the improvement of financial, social, legal, research and training institutions, in addition to the improvement of the available infrastructural facilities in the country (Ibid, pp. 137-138.(

)g) Growth of the population at Optimum Size: The concept of optimum population has a greater significance in modern economics. Optimum population is that level of population at which output per capita or real income per head is the highest. When the population of a country is less than optimum level, there is under-population in that country and on the other hand, when the population of country is more than optimum level, there is over-population in it. Optimum population is not a fixed and rigid number but is moveable. When a country is under-populated, it would have a small population and labor force relative to natural resources, technology and capital that it possesses. The small population or labor force limits the level of specialization, for each laborer should do all different sorts of jobs. But as population and the quantity of labor increases, specialization becomes possible. Population growth makes division of labor among the different workers possible which in turn brings greater increases in the efficiency and productivity of labor. Under-population of a country leads to small market for goods and services of various sectors in the economy. This limited market

for goods and services forces the producers to produce on a small scale and thus would be unable to take advantage of the economies of large-scale production. As a result of the population increases, market for goods and services expands; large-scale production and specialization become possible which adds greatly to the productivity of the economy. An under-population also does not permit a full utilization of natural resources and capital, because many available resources that could be utilized for production of goods and services would not be properly utilized due to the lack of labor. Moreover, capital will not be fully and efficiently utilized if there is shortage of labor and that the production process will be relatively inefficient. Population growth leads to more laborers that can be combined with the given stock of natural resources, capital and the amount of technology that brings the rise of output per capita in the economy. But under-population causes very low level of productivity which in turn results in lower per capita income and then lower standard of living. The disadvantages of under-population can be overcome by foreign trade activities which enable an under-populated country to specialize in those lines of production in which it has got a greater comparative advantage. On the other hand, over-population is more dangerous than under-population. A country is considered over-populated when its population continuously increases beyond the optimum size. Over-population brings to declines in the level of productivity or output per capita which lowers the standard of living of the people. This is because additional laborers could produce very little amount of products and the average productivity will therefore diminish particularly when there is no proportional increase in capital. If the supply of capital is increased sufficiently along with the expansion in population, then over-population could not be dangerous to the economy. When capital cannot be increased sufficiently, a good number of labor forces may not get employment and therefore add nothing to production, thus, there appears unemployment and under-employment of labor which is another serious and dangerous disadvantage of over-population. Shortage of food is another evil of over-population because when population growth exceeds the optimum level, food problems emerge in the country due to the fixed land which produces food grains, while the population growth brings more mouths to be fed. Explosive and rapid growth of population causes poverty, hunger, unemployment and under-employment, but all these evil consequences of over-population can be overcome by the development of non-agricultural resources and trade relations with foreign countries who have surplus in food grains. But all and all, the growth of population at optimum size is another factor which determines the rate of economic growth and development because it increases the level of output through the increasing number of working population or labor force. Moreover, it leads to the increase in demand for goods, thus the growing of population means the growing of market for goods and services which facilitates the process of economic growth and development. When market for goods and services is enlarged, goods and services can be produced

on large scale and thus economies of large-scale production can be emerged. Increases in national output, that is, economic growth is possible only when the supplies of capital and available natural resources are increasing adequately along with the growth of labor force (Ahuja, 1982, pp. 78-87, 148.)

) h) Size of International Trade: Another important and major fundamental determinant of economic growth and development is the international economic integration or globalization. The more open economies in the world are growing faster than the closed economies. The impact of trade on economic growth is very important for human welfare. Freer trade has effect in raising a country's output because the removal of barriers to trade may induce a series of boosts to output which in turn influenced economic growth. Open trade policies in terms of lower tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade are significantly associated with economic growth. There is no doubt that the developing countries which followed more outward-oriented strategies have grown faster on a sustained basis than those which abandoned the principle of comparative advantage and adopted, and maintained for long periods the policies of import-substitution. The experienced economic growth performance that achieved by the East Asian economies is also positively linked to their choice of open trade regime. More open economy could have access to cheaper imported capital goods from the world market. International trade helps the developing economies to have access to ideas that exist in the rest of the world because more open economies have a greater ability to absorb ideas from the foreign countries, thus, they have a higher speed to close the gap of knowledge. Countries which liberalize trade would experience productivity growth that exceeds the productivity of closed economies. The openness creates greater competitive pressure on domestic firms which in turn seek to acquire foreign knowledge relative to production process and techniques. Hence trade facilitates the transfer of ideas and stimulates the growth of economy. International trade has been considered by the majority of economists as the easier way to economic development (Snowdon and Vane, 2005, pp. 647-651.)

)i) Regional Economic Integration and cooperation: Regional economic integration can simply be defined as the process whereby a certain group of countries combine together their resources and efforts, so that to collectively achieve their common goals and interests, and equally share them among themselves. However, economic integration involves the application of a set of policies and measures by a group of countries with the aim of creating a regional economic space. The creation of an integrated economic regional space enables the participating countries to achieve a more efficient utilization of natural and human resources, which in turn ensures high productivity, growth and competitiveness in the sphere of international economy. All these lead to improvement in living standard of the citizens of the integrated countries. Economic integration, in fact, can take various forms, depending on the degree of integration that the concerned group of countries owed to adopt.

The well known stages of regional economic integration that experienced in the modern economic systems could be stated as preferential trade areas, in which member countries charge each other lower tariffs than those applicable to non-member countries, but customs duties are still levied on imports from other members and there is no free movement of goods and services within the area; free trade areas, in such areas where there is no custom duties on goods from other member countries, but each member country determines its own tariff policy on the imports from outside the area; customs union, in customs union trade with non-member countries is governed by a common external tariff, and each member country gives up its sovereignty on determination of the own tariff policy; common market, in a common market there is free movements of capital, labor, goods and services, in addition to some harmonized fiscal and monetary policies that take place in the market; economic union, in such stage there is either the same currency or joint management of monetary policy; and the political union that in which political institutions of the member countries are unified or federated (Farah, 2009, pp. 35-38).

2.6.2 Non-economic Factors for Economic Development: Economic growth and development are not possible without social institutions, political conditions, and moral values in a nation. In this subsection non-economic factors for economic growth and development are going to be covered in details.

a) Religion: In Western Europe the continuous and rational development of the capitalism system in the 16th century has relationship with the reformed churches and Presbyterianism. The European businessmen and skilled laborers were overwhelmingly Protestants and that capitalism was most advanced in these protestant countries such as England and Holland. The protestant asceticism was expressed in secular vocation, although puritans or ascetic Protestants was opposed materialism as much as the Roman Catholic Church, they did not disapprove the accumulation of wealth. They did however, restrict extravagance and conspicuous consumption and frowned on laziness. These attitudes resulted in a high savings rate and continued hard work, both factors favorable to economic progress. By then the French reformer John Calvin taught that "those elected by God were to be diligent, thrifty and prudent, virtues and coinciding with the spirit essential for capitalist development". The Protestant Reformation and the rise of capitalism system were correlated. The disruption of the Catholic Social System and loss of civil power may have been responsible for both of Protestantism and capitalism. The protestant ethic may have changed to accommodate the needs of the rising capitalist class. The secularization, ethical relativism and social realism of Protestantism may have been as important as its asceticism in explaining its contribution to economic development. Generally, it is clear that religion could play a positive role in the process of economic growth and development (E. Wayne Nafziger, 2006, pp. 402-403).

Another example is the role of Hinduism. In fact in India people with spiritualistic or non-materialistic attitudes are less likely to make efforts for earning more money income so as to raise the standard of their consumption, this is because Hinduism preaches cutting down of want and consumption. It is clear that when people have no will to raise their consumption level and do not make efforts to increase their income, much economic growth and development are impossible (Ahuja, 1982, p. 150 .(

)b) Urbanization: The massive scale of rural-urban migration in developing countries and the major stimulus it has given to urbanization, there is no surprise that the process can have significant impacts at economic growth level. Urbanization is in fact, a necessary condition for a long-run economic growth though not a sufficient one. The pro-growth potential of urbanization has been widely emphasized in the literature on demography and development. Urbanization is closely tied up with the long-run development of economies and societies. There is a strong relationship between urbanization and economic growth. Thus, there is no a single country in the industrial world that has achieved significant economic growth without urbanization and cities where the vast majority of modern productive activities are concentrated in the developed economies, where the vast majority of paid employment opportunities are located. Urbanization is a process that can play a positive role in promoting economic development. There is no economic development without urbanization. The urbanization and the rural-urban migration which is responsible for a sizeable part in it, have favorable effects on economic growth. In-migration to urban areas provides the industry with a plentiful supply of relatively cheap and non-union labor. In addition to that in-migrants can expect to earn more than what they did in the countryside; their presence has the effect by increasing the supply of labor in towns, and by moderating the rate of increase of urban wage rates. Both of these effects can act as a stimulus to investment and production. The movement of labor to towns permits a more efficient allocation of a nation's labor and hence increases the output and the growth rates. The switching labor from agriculture sector to non-farm employment can accelerates economic growth, because of the greater productivity of labor in the latter. Employment opportunities are very much more diverse in towns and cities than in the rural areas, which permitting a better match of workers' skills and credentials of job requirements .

The level of activity of labor force is usually higher in urban areas and since enforced idleness is less prevalent in cities than in the countryside and the participation rate of female labor in formal employment tends to be higher in towns and city centers than in the rural areas. The migration reallocates labor which permits a fuller use of the labor force. The economies of large scale are much more likely in urban areas, where production is concentrated than in the countryside where in which the units of production tend to be widely scattered and isolated. Lower transportation costs, more

efficient and cheaper communication means, reduced transaction costs because of the easier recruitments of labor and the more accurate matching of workers to jobs, and the more rapid diffusion of ideas and know-how, all of these constitute potential benefits available in cities but not in rural areas. Their creation is encouraged by rural-urban migration, in addition to; economies of large scale may rise because of enhanced opportunities offered to firms in urban centers to engage in activities complementary to those of other firms. All these considerations give cities a major advantage in the production of goods and services by reducing costs, supporting and fostering innovation among different economic sectors. Wage rates and earnings tend to be higher in urban centers than in rural areas because of various reasons such as higher productivity of labour in urban occupations particularly in the formal sector than in rural occupations, the greater impact of trade unions' pressure for higher wage rates in towns than in rural areas that in which minimum wage legislation is in place, the greater impact of such legislation in towns than in villages all of them are advantages of urbanization .

For many incoming workers, the migration permits a net improvement in their standards of living compared with their rural pre-migration situation. As a result, urban poverty rates are lower than those of rural areas; so the transfer of population from rural to urban areas actually helps to reduce national poverty at increased real incomes may be used to improve diet and to benefit from the superior and cheaper urban education and training and healthcare services which can again improve the quality of the migrant labor force. Future workers who are now children also benefit from these advantages. The improved capacity of migrants in the towns compared with previous situation in the rural areas; provides additional income which can be spend on children's health and education which has beneficial consequences in the future of labor force, and hence of future productivity and output. The advantages of a move to the town are likely to be important for women migrants who tend to be disadvantaged in the rural areas by traditional restrictions on their activities. In addition to; certain consequences of the much greater degree of inclusion of women in the towns than in the rural areas have significant macro level. In towns the greater freedom from cultural norms, together with the expanded opportunities for participation in economic activity mean that women find wider range of jobs available to them and achieve higher labor market participation levels than in rural areas. Participation in regular waged employment also enhances women's status within the families. The generally lower fertility of migrants than those in rural areas can be regarded by many female migrants as a personal benefit. Moreover, the reduction in fertility has important favorable effects on average income growth at macro level through its effect on population growth. The reduction in fertility can let the migrant families have an average fewer children competing for funding for



education and healthcare services and hence be able to spend more per child. This should reinforce the improvement in the quality of labour force.

In addition to the investment in human capital in terms of personal health and education, in-migrants to towns are likely to be affording in time to allocate some of their incomes to the small scale savings and investment activities which bring about the rise in the levels of these aggregates and promote further income growth. By fostering modern attitudes towards the possibilities of economic advance at the personal and the national level and by modifying the restrictive traditional attitudes towards the role and status of women and the work they may undertake, the urbanization has enormous impact on ideas, values and beliefs. For many migrants the move to town permits a much enhanced and more varied social life, free from the often boredom of rural life, these improvements are valuable in their lives (Anthony, Clunies-Ross and others, 2009, pp. 417-422.)

c) Geography: Geography has an important influence on economic performance. Through climate, natural resources, and topography it has a significant role in productivity performance of nations and regions, as well as direct impact on economic growth and development. This is because these factors obviously influence the health of people, agricultural productivity, the economic structure, transport costs, and diffusion of information and knowledge. Geography has an important role in determining the level and growth of income per capita. There is relation between income per capita and geographical latitude. The countries which are nearer to the equator line have lower income per capita than those located in more temperate zones. There is strong negative relation between living standards and productivity due to the influence of tropical latitudes in Africa continent. The geography of sub-Saharan African has played role in the poor economic performance of the region during the second half of the twentieth century. The tropical regions and sub-Saharan African have suffered from the low agricultural productivity, poor integration to international economy, poor health, and high disease burdens that have been boosted by the human immunodeficiency virus and acquire immune deficiency syndrome (HIV/AIDS) epidemic. This situation was attributed to the climate, soils, topography and disease ecology. In 2002 sub-Saharan African has the lowest per capita income (USD 480) and the purchasing power parity (PPP) (USD 1.560) in the world. In 1999 sub-Saharan African's life expectancy (47 years) was considered the lowest, and the under-five mortality rate (159 per 1000 births) was the highest in the world. In United States of American (USA), economic activities are mostly concentrating along or near its ocean and great lakes coastal regions. This is because coastal areas enhance productivity performance and the quality of life. This evidence supports the positive link between the health and ability of people to accumulate wealth (Snowdon and Vane, 2005, pp. 652-654.)

)d) Education: Education is a precondition for development, since it promotes economic growth and enables new members of society to merge into the dominant political and cultural value system. Education is given a great importance in any society because of the large number it reaches and employs and the considerable influence that its establishment can exert on government policies. Education is the main provider of basic skills such as literacy and numeracy, and the most specialized technical knowledge that demanded by the modern methods of production and management, in addition to the strong commitment that encouraged by the structural educational careers towards self-discipline, hard work and achievement and attitudes which are not only conducive for educational success but also to productivity and innovation. In any society the courses which are taught reflect the economic needs while the increasing required level of qualifications reflects an increase in the skills demanded to do jobs. So the increasing educational sophistication and increasing economic growth go hand in hand. The more qualifications a person has the more he or she becomes productive and efficient. The needed qualifications often make people eligible for jobs. The increasingly priority given to vocational education particularly in industrialized countries can be seen as an attempt to direct in much more controlled manner the relationship between industrial needs and educational training. The development of basic skills like literacy and numeracy is very important in encouraging socio-economic development in agrarian and rural peasant societies. If basic educational instruction on literacy and numeracy is of developmental value it is so indispensable for people to have opportunities for training in these areas (Webster, 1989, pp. 119-121.)

Modern factory system of production requires discipline, intelligent and mentally alert or oriented workers who have to work on intricate and delicate machines. An educated and skilled laborer could obviously produce more than an illiterate and unskilled person. Education develops the labor force discipline and sense of responsibility towards the job, materials and equipments with which he or she works. Education is essential not only for maintaining the existing level of efficiency of workers but also for securing the continued improvements in productivity with the rapid changing in technology. Hence, the spread of general and technical education is so important in developing countries for economic development (Ahuja, 1982, p. 101 .)

)e) Improving Health and Physical Fitness: According to Hubbard and O'Brien (2011, p. 326) "...initiatives in developing countries have been made to increase vaccinations against infectious diseases, to improve access to treated water, and to improve sanitation to reduce rates of illness and death. And because of improved health, people become stronger and less susceptible to diseases, they become more productive". Health and physical strength of the workers determine their efficiency. An unhealthy worker is sluggish and weary, his morale is low and absenteeism is frequent. Due to such

situation output suffers in quantity and quality. Physical health and strength depend upon racial factors, climate and nutritious diet consumed in adequate measure (Ibid, 1982, p.101.)

2.7 Constraints and Challenges of Economic Development. In this section some main problems and challenges to economic development such as inequality of incomes and wealth, rapid growth of population, extreme poverty, capital deficiency, socio-cultural barriers, political and administrative obstacles, inappropriate technology, external bottlenecks, and limitations of the market system have been covered in details .

2.7.1 Inequality of Incomes and Wealth: Inequalities are more pronounced in underdeveloped countries than in advanced countries. There are extreme inequalities of income and wealth in such societies which have not been narrowed down this phenomenon, despite the best efforts of the governments.

2.7.1.1 Causes of Incomes and Wealth Inequalities: Inequalities of incomes and wealth are caused by the following factors .

a) Differences in Ability: people differ widely in education, intelligence, motivation, energy and talent. These differences lead to increased income and wealth differentials. A person, who is more efficient than others, gets a higher pay. There may be differences in people having the same qualifications. Some may be more intelligent, hardworking, daring, and resourceful. Thus they may be in a higher scale of social values and earn more in the same occupation.

b) Differences in Age: Young people who enter the job market as fresher and old people who retire from service, have lower income than those in the mid of career.

c) Existence of Non-Competing Groups: The existence of non-competing groups in every society is another cause of inequalities of income and wealth. This is because of availability of five different groups, such as the unskilled workers like ordinary laborers who carry mud, sand, or bricks in construction works; the semi-skilled workers like those who can mix sand and cement in required proportions; the skilled workers who have special training and skills, like the mechanic, the heavy truck drivers, and the plumber; the clerical workers who possess some minimum academic qualification; and the professional groups such as the lawyers, the teachers, the physicians, the actors, and the managers. There are vast income and wealth inequalities in these groups and also within each group, but they are more pronounced in the last group.

d) Differences in Risk, Uncertainty and Security: Occupations differ in risk, uncertainty, and safety. These differences are reflected in earnings. There are some people who prefer public sector jobs due to greater security, and on the other hand, jobs in private organizations carry high risk and uncertainty. Employees in government jobs generally earn less than their counterparts in private sector.

e) Differences in Environment and Opportunities: People who are born, brought up, and educated in well environment and have better opportunities, generally receive high incomes, while children born of poor parents, living in slums, getting bad food, having poor health, and little educational facilities always get low incomes when they grow up. The vicious circles of such children begin at birth but continue throughout their life. They do not get a fair chance. Poverty breeds a special environment and environment breeds further poverty. Poverty, in turn erodes income-earning capacities. Thus inequalities of incomes and wealth occur because of inequalities of opportunities of education and environment.

f) Immobility of Factors: Immobility of factors is another cause of income and wealth inequalities. Qualified persons may not like to move from low-salaried to high-salaried jobs in some other part of the country due to family and familiar associations, attachment to a particular place, the high cost of movement to the new place, and the lack of confidence in adjusting one's self to the new surroundings. But persons who possess some initiative can earn more. The vast incomes differences to be found between the rich and the poor are due to the fact that relatively very few persons belonging to the poorer sections of the society possess the ability and the opportunity to rise on the social ladder and become rich. Also luck or chance plays its own part in such issue.

g) Regional Disparities: Inequalities of income and wealth are also caused by regional differences. Because some regions are backward due to the lack of natural resources or adverse topography and thus fail to provide sufficient employment opportunities to their residents whose incomes remain low compared with persons living in developed regions. Such regional disparities are to be found in all developing and developed economies.

h) Inheritance Systems: The inheritance systems which found particularly in capitalist economies, and that passing movable and immovable wealth before and after death to descendents cause income and wealth inequalities among the people.

i) Private Property: Private property system also perpetuates incomes and wealth inequalities. The activities which exercised by highly paid persons who are in a position to save and buy land, property, start some business, or manage a factory, or invest in securities, or in speculation are all give rise to further incomes in the form of rent, profit, or interest and lead to significant inequalities of capital and incomes because some people have much more than others and some people get much more than others (Jhingan, 2010, pp. 511-512.)

2.7.1.2 Effects of Incomes and Wealth Inequalities: Inequalities of incomes and wealth lead to more harmful effects than beneficial effects. More of the harmful effects of incomes and wealth inequalities are discussed below:

)a) Misallocation of Resources: Inequalities of incomes and wealth lead to misallocation of resources within the economy. The purchasing power of the rich people influences the effective demand of the entire community. Goods are produced to satisfy the wants and preferences of the upper-income groups. The larger resources are diverted towards the production of articles of comfort and luxury while necessities needed by the majority are neglected. Consequently, there is abundance of former goods and scarcity of the latter goods which could be considered as a social waste and loss of economic welfare.

)b) Wastage of Resources: Inequalities of wealth and incomes lead to wastage of resources within the economy. The rich people who own mines, plantations, factories, and business firms earn huge incomes; and roll in wealth and spend extravagantly on luxurious consumption, gold and jewellery, high buildings, and speculation activities, while majority of the people live in poverty, and extreme poor health conditions without any proper medical care. The people do not have means to educate their children, they generally being ill-fed, ill-housed and ill-educated, and their standard of living is extremely low. So such situations lead to a huge wastage of the manpower in the economy .

)c) Discontentment and Unrest: Unequal distribution of income and wealth in a society breeds discontentment and unrest among the people, because it divides the population of one country into two groups, that is the haves and have-nots, or the propertied and the non-propertied. In such situations, rich people exploit the poor in order to earn much more profits and incomes. Rich people do not pay the poor workers enough wages; they always adopt laborsaving technology so that less amount of workers could be required which in turn leads to unemployment. All these lead to unrest among the working class in the form of agitations, strikes and even serious violence.

)d) Social Injustice: Incomes and wealth inequalities lead to social injustice. The fewer richest class who have huge income enjoy all the comforts and luxuries consumption without any efforts, while the poor working class struggles to earn less for living. Such extreme differences between rich and poor are socially unjust and undesirable.

)e) Concentration of Power: Inequalities of incomes and wealth lead to the concentration of economic and political power in the hands of few minority rich classes to govern the entire country. The rich are smart and powerful. They speculate and manipulate better than ordinary people, they know how to buy politicians and public officials, and they bribe the legislators both directly and indirectly and influence the internal politics and get laws passed to serve their interests (Ibid, p. 513 .(

2.7.1.3 Measures to Reduce Inequalities of Incomes: The measures towards reducing inequalities of incomes and wealth could be grouped as the following:

2.7.1.3.1 Measures to Reduce Incomes and Wealth of the Rich: The following are the measures which can be applied for purpose of reducing the huge incomes and wealth of the richest people.

)a) Progressive Taxation: To reduce inequalities of incomes and wealth, the progressive taxes are essential to be levied on incomes, wealth, capital gains and profits of the affluent people.

.1Income Tax: A progressive personal income tax is vital to reduce inequalities in distribution of income. The levy of such tax would decrease the expenditure of the rich on luxuries, while the proceeds of the tax would be utilized to benefit the poor class.

.2Wealth Tax: Wealth tax is also a good tax that could be imposed to support income tax. It is a proportional property tax which would be more progressive than income tax. It discourages the utilization of savings for the construction of real property and it is also a most suitable measure for checking the accumulation of property beyond a certain limit.

.3Capital Gains Tax: The main objectives for levying a capital gains tax are to reduce the inequalities of incomes and to get rid of certain defects in the personal income tax system. Profits obtained by individuals from the sale of stocks, financial securities, shares, buildings, land, machinery, plants and other assets give rise to capital gains that are subjected to the capital gains tax.

.4Business Profits Tax: The taxation of distributed and undistributed profits is a very important means to reduce the large incomes in the hands of a very few people. Profits tax is a progressive tax that reduces the savings of both the shareholders and the companies, and thus reduces funds available for further investment. It also forces the employers to increase the wages of working class as demanded by trade unions.

)b) Restrictions on Inheritance: Private property and inheritance systems perpetuate incomes and wealth inequalities by enabling property to be transferred to the children of the property owner. Inheritance tax is imposed on the share inherited by each person. Thus death duties are very effective in reducing larger incomes and bring about economic equality and social justice by reducing unequal distribution of wealth. Death duties do not adversely affect the savings of lower-income groups, because they are imposed on big inheritances. They reduce the incentive to save and increase the propensity to consume of the people who accumulate property. They thus discourage the accumulation of wealth and encourage larger investment in the health and education sectors. Gift tax is also levied to prevent individuals from passing their property rights to others during their life time, and is very important source of revenues for the government.

)c) Prevention and Control over Monopolies: Rich people always create monopolies in business and trade. They create scarcities, and unfair trade and speculations in addition to various malpractices in business and trade. They generally aim to accumulate higher incomes and wealth through undesirable means without delivering any service to the community. In order to control such ill-gotten wealth and incomes, to prevent monopolies and restrictive practices in trade and concentration of economic

power in the hands of a few business firms and groups, governments appoint commissions and pass legislative measures which could have significant effects on such activities (ibid, pp. 514-515 .(

2.7.2 Measures to Raise Incomes of the Low-Income Groups: The ultimate purpose of all governments is to create welfare situation of its citizens by narrowing the gap between the top and the bottom incomes. To achieve such aim, the rich are taxed and the proceeds are spent in activities that benefit the low-income groups. The services received by the people are mainly of two types of services.

)a) The Social Insurance: Under the social insurance, the participants pay a contribution as a certain percentage of their wages or salaries and the remaining amount is contributed by the state and the employers. In return, they receive such benefits as unemployment allowances if they become jobless, sickness benefit, accident and disability benefit, family allowance in case of death, old age benefit, and as maternity benefit .

)b) The Social Services: Social services are provided by the government out of the tax proceeds. They include survivorship of old aged and disability assistance, medical and hospital assistance, children's allowance, mid-day meal and milk to school children, free education, recreation and health centers in addition to public parks. All such social services help in raising the wages and salaries of the working classes. Inequalities of opportunity of education can be removed by provision of scholarships and loans to poor students for the purpose of education by the government. There is unfairness, injustice, and inequality in the wage and salary structures because salary and wage disparities are very wide between the lowest and the highest paid workers. They should be narrowed down by proper job evaluation and the introduction of time-scale grades. Wage increases should be related to productivity, minimum wages should be fixed by law in all occupations and trades and the government must adopt a price policy whereby prices are prevented from rising high along with wage-increases. In such, growth-oriented economic policies should be adopted so that the supply of productive resources is increased and the national product and income rise. Also government must adopt and practice measures as the socialization of monopolistic industries, the fixation of maximum commodity and minimum prices and the extension of employment to make labor more mobile between different occupations. The income levels of the low-income groups can be raised by such ethical principles like equal opportunity, equal payment for equal work and that each occupation labor is paid equal to the value of its marginal product (Ibid, 515-516.(

)c) Social Safety Net Programs (Zakat and Waqf): Social safety net is one of tools of social protection system like social insurance, labor policy, and targeted service delivery. Social safety net transfers are non-contributory transfers. They are need-based social assistance, social pensions or disability transfers, family benefits and food items that target the poor and those vulnerable to poverty and

economic shocks. Social safety net programs may be funded through charity in the form of Zakat and Waqf in an Islamic society. The institutions of Zakat and Waqf are among several instruments which can contribute in combating poverty and enhance welfare of the society. While Zakat is considered as a permanent source of funds, Waqf is source of physical infrastructure and creates sources of income at family, community and state levels. Moreover, the history of Zakat and Waqf is very rich with major achievements in serving the poor and enhancing the welfare of the nations in general. Zakat creates a mechanism in order to transfer income and wealth from rich to poor. Through Zakat and Waqf, every individual is assured with a minimum income which contributes to the social security system in an Islamic society (SESRIC, 2015, p. 19 ).

**2.7.2Rapid Population Growth Rate:** Population growth is a stimulant as well as an obstacle to rapid economic growth. On the one hand, it promotes in several ways quick economic development and on the other hand, it acts as a serious constraint to economic progress. A huge and rapid growing population delays economic growth in the following ways:

a) **Food Items Shortage:** A country with a fast growing population could face a serious food problem because in the process of economic development the demand for foodstuffs greatly increases and large quantities of food grains have to be imported with significant valuable foreign currency which should have been otherwise utilized for securing capital goods and scarce industrial raw materials. Thus feeding of excess population eats up resources and therefore retards economic development of a country.

b) **High Proportion of Unproductive Population:** A high fertility rate increases the population of the country with a large number of children who have to be fed without making any contribution to the production process. The greater the increase in population, the greater is the dependency ratio of nonworking group to working group.

c) **Unemployment and Underemployment:** A fast growing population worsens the unemployment problem. Disguised unemployment particularly in rural areas and the large scale unemployment in the urban areas is so common phenomenon in developing economies with huge amount of population. Also a large number of unproductive consumers have to be fed and clothed. Hence, in such situation the productive resources of the society have to be diverted away from capital accumulation.

d) **Reduction in Saving and Investment:** The most serious consequence of the fast growing population, from the viewpoint of economic development, is that it reduces the capacity of the country to save and to invest because the national and the per capita incomes are too low to leave any margin for savings. Besides, the large families which mean a higher burden of dependency which in turn reduces the saving ratio in such society. The reduction in saving and investment as a result of rapid population growth is a crucial factor which makes rapid economic development very difficult to



happen. Moreover, for a given investment, a large proportion will need to be devoted to the production of essential consumer goods at the expense of investment or capital goods industries, therefore still further slowing down the potential rate of growth .

)e) Loss of Women's Labour: Frequent maternity disables a significant amount of women and as a result they are unable to participate in productive activities for a long period of time. This is obviously a waste of human resources and that hampers the occurrence of economic development .

)f) Low Labour Efficiency: Due to the rapid population growth, the developing countries have become overpopulated, and as a result, per capita incomes have been low and the people have been having a very low standard of living which in turn lowers their productivity that hinders the rapid economic development (Ahuja, 1982, pp. 89-91 .(

2.7.3 General and Extreme Poverty: General and extreme poverty is another obstacle to economic development process.

2.7.3.1 Definition of Poverty: The father of modern economics, Adam Smith defined poverty as "the inability to purchase necessities required by nature or custom". In this definition, the social and the psychological status aspect of poverty (custom) receives implicitly the same weight as the purely, material economic condition. He further elaborated on this definition by clarifying the type of necessities required to be considered non-poor. Hence this mixes an absolute measure (necessities required by nature) with aspects of a relative measure (necessities required by custom). The last claim thus confirms that, even for the pioneer of the classical school of economic thought, there must be an element of relativity concerning the state of being poor, while it also showcases the critical view at the time of those who are poor ("bad conduct"). This critical view is a key point, which stands at the core of the stigmatizing and shaming of those in poverty .

Karl Marx was more explicit on the context-specific and relative dimension of the notion of poverty and did not mention an absolute measure: "our needs and enjoyments spring from society; we measure them, therefore by society and not by the objects of their satisfaction. Because they are of a social nature, they are of a relative nature". Joseph Rowntree in the early 20th century distinguished between primary and secondary poverty. He understood primary poverty as "insufficient earnings to obtain minimum necessities for the maintenance of the physical efficiency". However, Rowntree himself extended the definition of primary poverty later on by stating that a requirement for "non-poverty" included "having a bath and a garden". This last consideration made the definition of poverty explicitly dependent on the socio-economic environment at the time and, thus, closer to the current measure. Additionally, Rowntree identified a "cycle of poverty", whereby children, young married couples with children and old people constitute the social groups that bear the highest risk of falling into poverty. Even though the features defining the poor were described, no formal attempt was made

by him to inquire into the possible causes of the occurrence of these states, such as labor market inequality or unequal access to employment .

According to the contemporary economists as Amartya Sen who is one of the most important contributors to the poverty and development literature, and who has cast light on the still ongoing debate between the proponents of relative definitions of poverty, on the one hand, and those that advocate an absolute view on poverty instead, as highlighted in the definitions above. Sen criticizes both views as suffering from a number of shortcomings. In his opinion, "absolute deprivation in terms of a person's capabilities relates to relative deprivation in terms of commodities, incomes and resources". Sen envisages a fixed set of capabilities that every human being should be able to exercise in order for him/her not to be considered poor. The idea is that in order to fulfill this requirement, the level of material needs or resources necessary to develop these capabilities may change over time and across societies. Thus, poverty is context-dependent on the means to end it, but it is not context-dependent on the non-material goals whose fulfillment characterizes poverty. Thus, the socio-economic environment surrounding the individual gives this notion of poverty a sense of relativity. In Sen's own words, "poverty is an absolute notion in the space of capabilities but very often it will take a relative form in the space of commodities or characteristics". The need for certain absolute levels of capabilities/capacities may in turn translate into relative needs in terms of material commodities, resources and incomes. The example of the increasing need in today's network economies to have access to advanced communication technology services in order to fulfill the fundamental capability of being able to communicate with others and avoid social isolation can illustrate such relative needs; it is safe to say that the attainment of the same social participation goal did not require the use of such technology-intensive goods and services in the past as it does nowadays. Poverty is the result of insufficient entitlements defined as a broad package of rights including health, education and freedom, which are "indicators of freedom to live a valued life" and realize human potential. Sen's conceptualization of poverty represents an implicit critique of classical and neoclassical approaches based solely on money income and utility, by focusing instead on the "objective" accomplishment of the freedom to live a valued life which is objective and not based (as utility is) on individuals' "subjective" perceptions that may be affected by current conditions and possibilities. A problem with Sen's approach is the difficulty of measuring broad definitions of capabilities. Thus, research in this field tends to measure outcomes rather than capabilities; for instance, life expectancy and literacy rates are used in practice as proxies to capture non-directly-measurable concepts such as, respectively, the capability of attaining a disease and disability-free life and the capability of critical thinking and autonomy or freedom of thought. These measures are arguably the best approximation of the intangible concepts of capabilities in applied research. Other criticisms of Sen's capability theory

include it being regarded as excessively individualistic, his omission of an explicit determination of which capabilities are important and which are not (he argues that those are political issues for the society itself to decide) and the problem of liberalism, in the sense that it follows from Sen's paradigm that the delineation of what the good life is meant to be is externally imposed/evaluated, as opposed to decided upon by the individuals themselves .

Peter Townsend defines poverty as "the lack of the resources necessary to permit participation in the activities, customs and diets commonly approved by society", which is a pure relative measure. From this definition, it follows that different kinds of resources, and not just earnings, need to be examined, such as inherited as well as accumulated wealth which are also of key importance. According to Townsend, the flow of resources accruing to individuals is governed by a set of different systems operating for each of them. Poverty is in part the outcome of the combination of these systems at work, such as the wage and social security systems, that could affect larger shares of the population than others. For example, people can become satisfied with a low level of income and future possibilities on the assumption that nothing else is possible. To him, relative poverty is a situation where someone's "resources are so seriously below those commanded by the average individual or family that they are, in effect, excluded from ordinary living patterns, customs and activities". The social exclusion is an important aspect for some of the explanations of poverty .

The contemporary institutions like World Bank have stated that "a common method used to measure poverty is based on incomes or consumption levels. A person is considered poor if his or her consumption or income level falls below some minimum level necessary to meet basic needs. This minimum level is usually called the "poverty line". When estimating poverty worldwide, the same benchmark poverty line has to be used, and expressed in a common unit across countries. Therefore, for the purpose of global aggregation and comparison, the World Bank uses reference lines set at \$1.25 and \$2 per day in 2005 Purchasing Power Parity terms. Such a simple monetary approach to measuring poverty is widely used. Nevertheless, the World Bank also offers a more detailed definition of poverty adaptable to different country conditions, whereby poverty is defined as "pronounced deprivation in well-being, comprising many dimensions. It includes low incomes and the inability to acquire the basic goods and services necessary for survival with dignity. Poverty also encompasses low levels of health and education, poor access to clean water and sanitation, inadequate physical security, lack of political voice, and insufficient capacity and opportunity to better one's life". Exhibiting both absolute and relative elements, this constitutes a very broad definition which includes the multi-dimensional character of poverty and the somewhat elusive concept of "dignity", while emphasizing, more than any of the other definitions discussed, the importance of political and individual freedoms .

One of the broadest contemporary views of poverty is that of the European Commission, which claims that "people are said to be living in poverty if their income and resources are so inadequate as to preclude them from having a standard of living considered acceptable in the society in which they live. Because of their poverty they may experience multiple disadvantages through unemployment, low income, poor housing, inadequate health care and barriers to lifelong learning, culture, sport and recreation". This relative measure explicitly acknowledges the society-specific nature of poverty. It also points to a wide array of potential sources of economic and social deprivation that follow from experiencing deprivation in "income and resources". Hence, there exists an implicit mapping between material resources and outcomes that are not necessarily material. The Commission continues, in line with Townsend's views, by highlighting the importance of the processes of exclusion and marginalization associated with poverty; as it states that "... the poor people (they) are often excluded and marginalized from participating in economic, social and cultural activities that are the norm for other people and their access to fundamental rights may be restricted". This is thus a far-reaching definition that comprises aspects that are absent in other views, such as the exclusion from cultural activities. Incorporation of social exclusion constitutes a step forward from other conceptions of poverty in being socially rather than individually defined as well as in highlighting the importance of the dynamics over time and the processes that bring about poverty. On the other hand, partly because of its wide scope, this definition suffers from lack of measurability and tractability at the practical level.

A definition of poverty which attempts to encompass both the developing and developed country contexts was published in the Copenhagen Declaration of the United Nations (UN) in 1995. During the summit leading to that declaration, it was agreed that poverty includes "lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environment and social discrimination and exclusion. It also characterizes by lack of participation in decision making and in civil, social and cultural life". The elements of lack of participation and exclusion are thus again emphasized, while the possibility that the status of being poor leads to or results from "discrimination" is also put in the forefront. Furthermore, regarding the concept, the Declaration states that "...it (poverty) occurs in all countries, as mass poverty in many developing countries, pockets of poverty amid wealth in developed countries, loss of livelihoods as a result of economic recession, sudden poverty as a result of disaster or conflict, the poverty of low-wage workers, and the utter destitution of people who fall outside family support systems, social institutions and safety nets". These last remarks describe the different ways in which poverty manifests itself in developing and developed countries and also highlight the

main causes of poverty, including the role of social goods as well as an implicit notion of social capital (Davis and Sanchez-Martinez, pp. 7-13.)

There are circular relationships known as the vicious circles of poverty that tend to perpetuate the low level of development in Less Developing Countries (LDCs). For example, a poor man may not have enough to eat; being underfed; his health may be weak; being physically weak; his working capacity is low which means that he is poor, and which in turn means that he will not have enough to eat and so on. A situation of this sort relating to a country as a whole can be summed up in the trite proposition. The basic vicious circle stems from the fact that in Less Developing Countries (LDCs) total productivity of capital, market imperfections, economic backwardness and underdevelopment. However, the vicious circles operate both on the demand side and the supply side. The demand side of the vicious circle is that the low level of real income leads to a low level of demand which in turn leads to a low rate of investment and hence back to deficiency of capital, low productivity and low income. Low productivity is reflected in low real income. The low level of real income means low saving. The low level of saving leads to a low investment and to deficiency of capital. The deficiency of capital in turn leads to a low level of productivity and back to low income. Thus the vicious circle is complete from the supply side. The low level of real income reflects the low investment and capital deficiency which is a common feature of both the vicious circles. A third vicious circle envelops underdeveloped human and natural resources. The development of natural resources is dependent upon the productive capacity of the people in the country. If the people are backward and illiterate, lack in technical skill, knowledge and entrepreneurial activity, the natural resources will tend to remain unutilized or even underutilized and miss-utilized. On the other hand, people are economically backward in a country due to underdeveloped natural resources. Underdeveloped natural resources are therefore, both a consequence and cause of the backward people. Thus the poverty and underdeveloped of the economy are related because a country is poor as a result of it is being underdeveloped; and it is underdeveloped as a result of it is being poor, and thus it remain underdeveloped as it has not the necessary resources for promoting development. Poverty is a curse but the greater curse is that it is self-perpetuated. Poverty is reflected in low gross domestic product (GDP) per capita income. The extremely, low gross domestic product (GDP) per capita of low income economies reflects the extent of poverty in Less Developing Country (LDC) .(

However, it is not relative poverty but absolute poverty that is more important in underdeveloped economies. Absolute poverty is measured not only by low income but also by malnutrition, poor health, poor clothing, poor sheltering and lack of education. Thus absolute poverty is reflected in low living standards of the people. In such countries, food is the major item of consumption and about 80% of the income is spent on it as compared with 20% in developed economies. People mostly take

cereals and other starches to the total absence of nutritional foods such as meat, eggs, fish, and dairy products. People in Less Developed Countries (LDCs) live in extremely insanitary condition as a result of poor nutrition, unsafe water, poor sanitation, uninformed parents, and lack of immunization. Services like education and health hardly flourish. Most developing economies are expanding education facilities rapidly but still such efforts fall short of the manpower requirements of these economies. In many low-income countries about 70% of the primary school age children go to school. At the secondary level, enrolment rates are lower than 20% in these countries while, enrolment in higher education hardly comes up to 3%. Moreover, the type of education being imposed to the majority of the school and college-going children is ill-suited to the development needs of such countries. Thus the vast majority of the people in underdeveloped economies are ill-fed, ill-clothed, ill-housed, and ill-educated (Jhingan, 1997, pp. 22, 31-32 .(

2.7.3.2 Negative Effects of Poverty: The negative effects of poverty on education; health; labour market; agriculture, livestock and food security; participation and inclusion; transfers and taxes; and institutional quality are discussed as under.

a) Education: The link between poverty and low academic achievements has been well observed and recognized. Poverty affects the physical and mental health and well-being of children and hence limits their readiness to succeed both academically and socially in a school environment. Usually, poor children are at a greater risk of either not attending a school or attaining comparatively poor academic results which contributes to the cycle of the poverty by making it more difficult for these children to lift themselves out of poverty in future. The effects of poverty on children education are also influenced by the family behavior. In this context, low-income families often have limited education, reducing their ability to provide a responsive stimulating environment for their children. Besides, families who are poorly educated with poor decision-making skills may have more difficulty to protect their children from the effects of poverty than families who are better educated with rational decision-making skills. Moreover, poverty causes school dropouts. In this regard, child labor which refers to the employment of children in any work that deprives children of their childhood interferes with their ability to attend regular school. The majority of child labor victims are children who are living in poverty because they lack basic needs. For this reason, they are forced to do any kind of work in order to gain financial wealth which affects school attendance .

b) Health: The linkages between poverty and health can be divided into two groups: those with a micro or individual orientation which emphasize the connection between personal experience of poverty and personal health status; and those with a macro or population orientation which underline the association between living in a society with a more unequal distribution of income and worse population health outcomes. The key result of the micro or individual research is that there is a very

robust relationship between individual income and individual health, where poverty leads to lower health status. At the macro or population level, on the other hand, studies tested whether societies with high socio-economic inequality have worse health outcomes. In this context, three explanations are given in the literature to support this relationship. The absolute income hypothesis indicates that health status increases with the level of personal income but at a decreasing rate. The relative position hypothesis emphasizes that individual position within a social hierarchy is the key to understand the link between socio-economic inequality and health. The neo-materialist hypothesis argues that inequalities in health derive particularly from inequalities of the material environment such as medical, transportation, education, housing, parks and recreational systems. Most of the low-income people live in overcrowded and unsanitary slums and squatter settlements in urban areas, and therefore lack access to basic health services. These individuals are obliged to live in illegal and informal settlements because they cannot enter into the formal land and housing markets. Informal settlements are located on marginal land such as along river-banks and are prone to natural disasters. Individuals living in these settlements are subject to higher rates of diseases. As a result of these problems, low-income people have higher medical bills and report more lost a working day which intensifies the effects of poverty .

)c) Labour Market: Poverty and labour markets are strongly connected to each other because labour market earnings represent a fundamental source of income for workers. In this regard, in a system where an effective social protection does not exist, unemployment leads to poverty due to loss of labor income. In some situations, even having a job is not enough in order to push an individual out of poverty, if this person works in the informal sector with a low wage. In the literature, both unemployment and employment in an informal sector are considered as two important factors which linking poverty and labor market. Poverty is considered as the ratio of the combined number of unemployed and those employed in the informal sector to the total labor force. Moreover, shifts in the employment structure towards higher productivity sectors allow greater availability of technology that boosts productivity and the creation of assets for the poor .

)d) Agriculture, Livestock and Food Security: Although poverty affects agriculture, livestock and food security, the inverse relationship also exists. In this connection, the agricultural productivity growth has positive effects on poor in two areas; like lower food prices for consumers; and higher incomes for producers. Besides agriculture, development of livestock sector could also promote economic growth and hence could contribute towards the livelihoods of the poor especially in the rural areas. Moreover, while there are arguments for promoting livestock in developing countries to improve nutrition and health, it is worth mentioning that excessive consumption of foods and animal products may have negative health effects such as obesity, heart diseases and diabetes. Besides, it is

worth mentioning the relationship between food security and education because food insecurity causes learning disabilities which will have negative impact on human capital development. Since 2007, sharp increases in international food prices became known as the global food crisis. During these particular situations, continuous inflation of food prices is particularly harmful for low-income individuals and can also hamper the progress that has been achieved in reducing poverty. Rising food prices aggravate, on the other hand, inequality because low-income people spend a disproportionately large share of their income on food and food staples represent an important share of their total food expenditure. As a result of these challenges, households that currently live just above the poverty line may fall into poverty .

)e) Participation and Inclusion: Similar to the four areas examined above, the relationship between poverty and participation as well as inclusion is bidirectional. The community participation can lower the cost of antipoverty interventions because communities maintain informational advantages not available to the outsiders. Moreover, while low-income people suffer the most from dysfunctions in cities, they are the least able, as individuals, to influence how cities are governed. In many cities, formal structures of government exclude the poor from decision-making. Therefore, low-income individuals have greater possibility to influence decision-making under conditions of good governance referring to a system of government which is participatory, inclusive, based on the rule of law, efficient, transparent and accountable .

)f) Transfers and Taxes: Studies on “optimal income taxation” rest on the assumption that decisions about transfer and tax policy should be made in order to maximize the well-being of all members of society. In this context, some studies find discouraging evidence on the role of government in limiting the impact of economic downturns on low-income people. In addition, different measures of poverty and inequality such as Gini coefficient, headcount and poverty gap indices have been used in empirical tax studies to examine the distributional impact of a tax. Moreover, taxes systems in developing countries are especially influenced by indirect taxes which cannot be imposed directly on individuals, and therefore depend on the goods and services consumed. Taxation of intermediate inputs is also significant in developing countries. For example, the taxation of petroleum is important since fuel is sold as an intermediate as well as a final good. Fuel taxation can also affect other final goods such as transport consumed by low-income people .

)g) Institutional Quality: In literature, cross-country empirical analysis finds that income differences across countries are closely related to variations in institutional quality. Also, in line with new institutional economics, assert that institutions compared to geography and trade, explain better the variation of income inequality between developed and developing countries in the world. Despite the concept of institutions as they are “the rules of the game in a society or, more formally, are the



humanly devised constraints that shape human interaction.” In this concept, constraints are divided into formal constraints such as rules, laws, constitutions, and regulations; and informal constraints like norms, behavior, conventions, and codes of conduct restrictions. Moreover, it is essential to have a most accurate measurement of the institutional quality. An indicator used in several economic studies is the aggregate governance index developed by Kaufmann and others in 1999. The governance is “the traditions and institutions by which authority in a country is exercised”. This indicator is then used to measure six broad categories of governance that include the voice and accountability; political instability and absence of violence; government effectiveness; regulatory quality; rule of law; and control of corruption. According to Kaufmann, the countries having higher values on these measures tend to have lower infant mortality, higher literacy rates and higher per capita incomes (SESRIC, 2015, pp. 16-19.)

2.7.4 Capital Deficiency: Capital deficiency is one of the general characteristics of poor countries. The low amount of capital per head of population is a sign of capital deficiency which resulted from the following reasons .

a) Supply side: Capital rate is low due to low savings that resulted from low income; low productivity which leads to low saving and then to low rate of capital formation. The low productivity rate of the LDCs is manifested from under utilization of natural resources, labour inefficiencies, limited spread of technical skills and a dualistic nature of the poor economies, low quality of health services and bad conditions of work-place, illiteracy and lack of education also contribute to the low capacity of working class; income inequalities also increase the low rate of savings; demographic reason is another factor for low capital formation in less developing countries as well. The high growth rate of population leads to the spending of entire income on bringing up the growing numbers of the people, and the high dependency ratio raises the propensity to consume of the poor societies; budgetary policy of the government in most less developing countries also leads to low rate of capital formation, this is because governments use deficit financing as source of capital formation, but when deficit financing exceeded the safe limits, it causes inflation which compels people to spend larger amounts of money on their current needs and denied saving. Taxation system of the underdeveloped countries as tool of budgetary policy is another factor causes inflation, especially the indirect taxes, but direct taxes can be used as anti-inflationary, but they have a disincentive effects on work, saving, and on investment. Thus the budgetary policy tends to get worse when it fails to contain inflation and also fails to encourage capital formation; and inadequacies of financial (money and capital) markets in LDCs lead to low rate of capital formation, this is because huge capital expenditures are required for productive purposes but the financial institutions fail to produce funds in such a large amounts due to

their functional and structural deficiencies; demonstration effect also leads to low capital rate formation .

)b) Demand side: In the demand side the main reasons that lead to low rate of capital formation are lack of enterprise, this is because entrepreneurial ability is limited in the LDCs due to a number of social, cultural, and economic factors, but when a small number of enterprise is available is mostly engaged in traditional activities; undeveloped capital goods industries in the LDCs also lead to low rate of capital, this is because there is no reason for the entrepreneurs to demand investible funds from the people; limited capacity of domestic market in the LDCs to absorb additional supplies of commodities due to limited purchasing power of the people is another reason to low rate of capital formation; there are several obstacles in the LDCs that stand on the way of labour mobility such as illiteracy, inability to adapt new circumstances, and the general differences and all these obstacles are standing on the way of capital formation and entrepreneurship establishment, and as a result the supply remains inelastic and tends to raise the cost of production, especially in the new field of production, thus the rising of cost of production constrains the potential investors; infrastructural gaps such as basic amenities like railways, roads, water and power supply, drinking water and sewage facilities which the productive activities depend upon is also have disincentive effects on investment; general backwardness of economy which includes low efficiency of labour forces, low levels of skill formation, and prevalence of traditional values tend to keep the demand for new capital low; and technological backwardness that acts as a double weapon because in the LDCs a large traditional sector is using outdated techniques in production and does not demand modern capital equipments, thus the demand of capital remains low, because these outdated techniques do not generate high levels of income that makes the supply of savings remains low too.

)c) Vicious circle of poverty: Vicious circle of poverty is one of the fundamental reasons of the low rate of capital formation in the LDCs; this is because it perpetuates underdevelopment and low levels of living standards of the people. The vicious circle of poverty causes low real income which leads to low level of demand that in turn leads to low level of productivity and low income. It also leads to low level of real income, low level of saving and of investment, which leads to capital deficiency and onto low productivity and then to low level of income again .

)d) Underdeveloped money and capital market: Underdeveloped capital market in the LDCs is characterized by limited institutional coverage such as stock exchange and their functional supplementary institutions like share-brokers, issue-houses and underwriters which are very few and located in big cities; unbalanced growth of capital market in the LDCs leads to low rate of capital. This is because all segments of capital market such as investment banks, industrial banks, underwriting houses, and issuing houses are not well developed and not available in good number in

the market; limited number of papers such as shares, bonds, debentures, and various types of government securities which are not available in adequate quantities; lack of proper controls as well as incentives in the capital market in the LDCs denies investment and capital formation; co-existence of organized and unorganized sectors that include informal sources such as traditional bankers, friends, relatives and others poses a number of difficulties in the smooth functioning of the capital market due to absent of interlinks among these segments; and availability of a number of undesirable elements such as corruption and underhand dealings which generate black money that can enter the capital market at irregular period of time and causing fluctuations in the stock prices and hoarding of stocks .

e) Demonstration effect and saving: In the LDCs high income groups constitute 3% to 5% of the total population and their savings are not high and are used in unproductive channels like gold and money lending at very high interest rates; while low income groups constitute the vast majority of the population that live in rural areas; the middle-class who save very little amount of their incomes which are generated from wages and salaries. Demonstration leads to low rate of capital because it tends to raise the consumption and denies the saving (Mukund, Mahajan (1992), Economics of Development, pp 61-77 .)

2.7.5 Socio-cultural Barriers: Economic development is a multi-dimensional process which involves social, political, psychological, and cultural transformation. Socio-cultural barriers such as social pluralism and traditional social structure which involve economic characteristics of the society like social spirit, organizational forms and techniques that dominating the society. The traditional social structures which character the society in the LDCs are extended kinship that means extended family system which known as joint family system in which many family units live together and share a common kitchen, take decisions jointly or follow a code of conduct of the head of the household. This extended family system might have disadvantages as in larger family a man or a woman who works harder may find himself/herself taking care of a larger number of distant relatives, while his own children benefit very little from his efforts; in such kind of family it is difficult for its members to save more of their incomes, this is because when one or two members save by spending less others do so; in such family if a man limits the number of his own children, he may only be forced to take care of a larger number of relatives, extended family favours family ties and then creates obstacles to the mobility of its members in particular and of labour forces in general. So through this sort of action it makes the supply of labour more inelastic and then increases the cost of production. In extended family all its members have to work under the care and guidance of an old man who does not permit younger members of the family to go and develop their own entrepreneurs as the their development depends upon the opportunities of the young people. Social inequality causes division of society and

promotes the concept of loyalty and belonging to the own tribe or region and to the whole nation, such attitudes are unfavourable for economic growth and development process (Ibid, pp 119-124 .)

2.7.6 Political and Administrative Obstacles: Even the LDCs that have obtained their political freedom and became politically independent nations, their political systems act as a major obstacle to their development, this is because most of these countries are not politically stable due to the frequent changes of their governments by political means or through military coups that sometimes could lead to civil wars and also due to actions and attempts of advanced countries' powers to destabilize the governments in such undeveloped countries. Such political atmosphere is not encouraging the development even in the countries which characterized by political stability, but because most these countries have very fragile system that characterized by weak and limited capacity to pursue development process. In some countries the authoritarian regimes have no the necessary commitment or the required capacity to pursue any programme of economic development. Even whenever, the governments are democratic, their developmental performance is not satisfactory due to numerous factors such as political and administrative corruption, poverty, mismanagement of public and private resources, the rulers serves the minority elite who have control over the resources. Most of these countries also have retained administrative system which was created by foreign rulers during the colonial time, and administrative system is inefficient and lacks ethical values, therefore, in such countries corruption is deep-rooted, especially in the public sector. The administrative system which created by foreigners to exploit the natives is now the same that is used for developmental purposes. The negative aspects of such administrative system can be observed from public enterprises which have been assigned the role to lead the public sector with the system of capitalistic of economy and its performance in development is characterizes by lack of satisfactory. The failure of these governments is attributed to inefficiency, incapability and corruption of management, once politicians and bureaucrats misuse the powerful instruments such as industrial licensing, import controls, subsidies to new industries, organized industrial financing and tax structure which can be used to promote growth and development (Misra and Puri, 1991, Economics of Growth and Development, pp 65-67 .)

2.7.7 Inappropriate Technology: Inappropriate technology in the LDCs is another major obstacle to development, this is because the techniques which are used in most productive activities are generally traditional and generate little amount of re-investible resources. Or they employ the technology which have developed in advanced countries and has been designed in the most part to produce there too, and does not suit the requirements of developing countries which use to import second-hand technology from the advanced countries or they import the latest techniques which are highly

sophisticated and highly capital intensive which could displace the labour forces and increase unemployment (Ibid, pp 62-63 ).(

2.7.8 Limitations of the Market System: Market system limitations are also major obstacles to economic development because it ignores or does not foster equity, since it works under the Pareto optimum which states that “more of one commodity can be obtained only by having less of another and one individual can be made better off by making someone else worse off”. By acting in this way community welfare (development) cannot increase and the possibility of community welfare declining cannot be controlled; also market decisions do not ensure possible optimum allocation of resources, this is because individual investment decisions in a free market economy do not lead to optimum allocation of resources due to that market enables individual investors to maximize the private product, social net marginal product and because they rely on market indicators, they often fail to exploit external economies; capital goods lasting long and the individual investors cannot take correct decisions concerning their investments; capital markets are imperfect due to institutional and traditional quotas; also the market cannot ensure equilibrium between aggregate demand and aggregate supply, and without such an equilibrium, prices cease to be a reliable factor of choice. Market in LDCs fails to perform properly and the results produced by the market are undesirable, all these because market in LDCs is generally imperfect due to ignorance or to prevalence of modes of behaviour contrary to rational maximization of returns; thus market system cannot be relied upon to produce high rates of growth and development (Ibid, 53-57 ).(

2.7.9 External Bottlenecks: Economic relations between LDCs and the advanced countries are considered to be one of the major obstacles to economic development in the less developed countries, this is because international trade does not stimulate manufacturing industries, deteriorate the term of trade of the less developed countries, it only promotes the production of primary products which constitute the bulk of exports to these countries since their demand is generally inelastic in the international market, while the production of such raw materials cannot enlarge the market in such countries, and due to the law of diminishing return, the wages and returns of export per unit of product fail to rise as the supply of labour is unlimited. Also the unrestricted trade between the less developed countries and the advanced ones leads into deficits in the balance of payment of the LDCs; it is beneficial only to those countries which are able to establish industries in a short period of time. Through economic relations, the advanced countries exploit the resources of the less developed countries and then their development does not occur. Since the time of the Second World War, some changes have been made especially in the advanced world such as dissolution of European colonial empire which has resulted in greater scope for economic competition among the advanced countries, emergence of socialism in a number of countries and has made the international capitalist system no

longer dominates the entire world, and in the less developed countries themselves a growing popular pressure has been made to promote development (Ibid, pp 69-72 .(

2.8 Theories, Approaches and Models of Economic Development: This section focuses on theories; approaches; and models of economic development. In sub-section one classical theory, such as Adam Smith's theory of growth, David Ricardo's Growth Theory, Thomas R. Malthus's Theory of Population, and John Stuart Mill's Theory; Karl Marx's theory of materialism and neoclassical theories, linear stages theory of Rostow and others have thoroughly overviewed. Theories of development and underdevelopment like the big push theory; the balanced growth theory; the unbalanced growth theory; the Schumpeterian theory of economic growth; and Nelson's theory of low-level equilibrium trap have also covered in sub-section two .

2.8.1 Classical Theories of Economic Growth and Development: In this sub-section classical theories for economic development have been discussed. Such theories are as the theory of economic stagnation under which Adam Smith theory, David Ricardo theory, Malthusian theory and Mill's theory have been thoroughly discussed; in addition to Marx's historical materialism; Rostow's stages of economic growth theory; structural change models such as the Lewis theory of development, and the patterns of development theory; also the international dependence theories like the neocolonial dependence model, the false paradigm model, and the dualistic development thesis are deal with in details; other theories of market fundamentalism have been covered too like the free-market approach, new political economy approach, and the market-friendly approach. And finally the traditional neoclassical growth theory is included.

2.8.1.1 The Classical Theory of Economic Stagnation: The main classical economists were Adam Smith, Thomas R. Malthus, David Ricardo and John Stuart Mill. This theory mainly based on the work of David Ricardo in 19th century. It can be divided into the following models.

a) Adam Smith's Economic Growth Theory: In the late 18th century, Adam Smith argued that in a competitive economy with no collusion or monopoly, each individual by acting in his or her own interest, promotes public interest. He said that a producer who charges more than others will not find buyers, a worker who asks more than the ongoing wage will not find work, and an employer who pays less than other competitors will not find anyone to work. Adam considered it as a task of an invisible hand to direct actions of capitalists, merchants, landlords, and workers toward maximum economic growth (Nafziger 2006, p. 124.(

According to Adam Smith, economic growth depends on level of outputs of the three factors of production, that is, land, labor, and capital and on technical progress. Increases in size of labor force, in amount of capital and in the available land lead to increases in total output. This means that growth in total output will be caused by growth in labor force, in capital stock, and in supply of land. In

addition, improvements in technology lead to expanded output by increasing productivity of the factor inputs. In a stationary economy in which labor force or population and stock of capital are constant; output will also be constant, and there will be no economic growth. The real wage earned by labor will be just enough to provide a subsistence living, and without surplus in wages there will be no possible increase in population. Similarly, on capital side, new investment financed by new saving of capitalists will be just enough to replace depreciation of existing capital goods, so there is no growth in stock of productive capital goods. On land side, absence of new discoveries or improvements in fertility will also effectively fix its quantity. This situation can be disturbed by an external shock such as a new invention which improves efficiency of production, or improved opportunities for international trade. Increased output makes possible increased saving and investment, which in turn creates conditions favorable for increasing specialization and further improving productivity. This process also permits a rise in wages above subsistence level, which encourages population growth and expansion of labor force which is important requirement for continued economic growth. However, a sustained increase in population and labor force is likely to exert downward pressure on wage rate. Increased capital accumulation leads to a corresponding downward pressure on rate of profit. Eventually, these processes push the real wage rate and rate of profit back to their original levels. Once original levels of wage and profit rates are re-established, economy is back to a stationary state. The only differences from the starting point for whole episode are that population and capital stock are larger, and that returns to landlords have risen, since fixed nature of land stock increases there is no bidding down of its rate of return by expanding quantity of the factor that can happen. This stop-go growth process resulting in no permanent growth of per capita incomes could happen repeatedly. However, the resultant expansion of absolute size of economy and total demand for output will eventually create further opportunities for specialization or division of labor sufficiently great to generate increasing returns to inputs of labor and capital. When an external shock leads to usual sequence of increased capital and labor with consequential downward pressures on wage rates and profitability, these pressures are more than contracted by expansion of output at a faster rate than factor inputs are expanded. Increased returns make growth self-reinforcing. Expansion of market and increased specialization create conditions suitable for further expansion and further specialization (Clunies-Ross and others, 2009, pp. 82-84.)

)b) David Ricardo's Growth Theory: David Ricardo expected that macro-economy could end-up in a stationary state after a phase of growth. In his viewpoint diminishing returns limits agricultural production. He said that agriculture expansion brings into use a progressively less fertile land that drives down marginal productivity of labor and marginal productivity of capital. With wages at minimum subsistence level, increases in output result in a declining rate of profit and redistribute

income towards landlords who are able to charge progressively higher rents, while showing little interest in spending this income on productive investment. At the same time, an increasing marginal cost in agriculture forces price of food up, and in turn requires an increase in subsistence wage, which again cuts profits. As profitability of investment in agriculture dwindles, reinvestment of capital goods in agricultural contracts and funds are diverted into non-agricultural investments where they again exert downward pressure on rates of return. According to Ricardo economic growth depends on capital investment; and stationary state is reached with zero net capital investment that leads to zero economic growth. This situation may be postponed with expanding imports of cheap food head off wage increases, to increase profitability. Ricardo said that improvements in technology lead to increased unemployment because of net displacement of labor caused by introduction of labor-saving technology, and by declining profits that preclude any increase in capital investment to absorb unemployed labor. In his iron law of wages he suggested that a certain minimum level of consumption is necessary to sustain life, and that real wage tends to be driven down towards this floor level. Relief from dire situation may be found through expansion of market or technical progress, but will always be temporary (Ibid, pp. 84-85 .(

)c) Thomas R. Malthus's Theory of Population: Thomas Robert Malthus was an English clergyman at the Church of England. He put forward this theory of population in 1798. He was much impressed by unlimited urge of sexes to produce children and by the limited power of land to produce food. He said that size of population of a country is limited or determined by means of subsistence, in other word by availability of food; the greater the food production, the greater the number of population which can be sustained. The deaths caused by want of food and poverty would limit the maximum possible population. He said that growth of population will outrun the increase in food production because man's sexual urge to bear offspring knows no bounds and there is no limit to fertility of man. Man multiplies itself at an enormous rate, but power of land to produce food is limited. This is because population of a country tends to double every twenty-five years as he observed. Population would tend to increase at geometric rate while food supply could tend to increase at an arithmetic rate. Malthus thought that the law of diminishing returns restricts increase in supply of food; this is because application of more laborers to fixed quantity of land will cause fewer rises in output than proportionately, and ultimately, results in a diminishing marginal output of worker. Therefore, continued growth of population would result in a decrease in output per worker and a steady decline in the amount of food available per person. Malthus stressed that people will produce more children and would have larger families as the food supply in a country increases. And this would increase the demand for food and the food per person will again diminish, thus the living standard of the people cannot rise permanently. Malthus pointed out that there are preventive and positive checks which



could limit the growth of population. Late marriage and self-restraint during married life are examples of preventive checks that could be applied by man to limit the family size. These preventive checks influence the growth of population by bringing down the birth rate. They arise from man's reasoning which enables him to see distant consequences like subjection of one's self to greater difficulties and more severe labor than that in his/her present state, being not able to give an adequate educational advantages to his/her children and inability to provide them with the basic necessities of life if he/she supports a large family and the children are more in number. Positive checks are various and include every cause arising from misery which in any degree contributes to shorten the natural duration of human life. They influence the growth of population by increasing the death rate. Positive checks are unwholesome occupations, severe labor, and exposure to the seasons, extreme poverty, bad nursing of children, common diseases, wars, and famines (Ahuja, 1982, pp. 72-74 .(

)d) John Stuart Mill's Theory: John Mill regarded economic development as a function of land, labor and capital, while land and labor are the main original factors of production; and capital is previously accumulated from products of former labor. Increase in wealth is possible only when land and capital increase production faster than labor force. Wealth consists of tools, machines, and skills of labor force. It is productive labor that produces wealth and accumulates capital. He said that rate of capital accumulation is a function of proportion of labor force employed productively. Profits earned by employing unproductive labor are merely transfers of income because unproductive labor does not generate wealth or income. It is productive laborers who do productive consumption. Productive consumption maintains and increases productive powers of community. In Mill's opinion population meant only number of working class. He believed that population control was essential for improving conditions of working class, so that they might enjoy fruits of technological progress and capital accumulation. He propagated birth control as against moral restraint. According to Mill, wages generally exceed minimum subsistence level. They are paid out of capital, and they are limited by the existing fund of capital meant for paying wages. Wage per head can be achieved by dividing total capital by number of working population. Wages can increase by an increase in aggregate fund of capital employed in hiring labor or by decrease in number of workers. If wages rise, supply of labor will be high. Competition among workers will not only bring down wages but also keep some laborers out of employment. He said that income which invested as advances of wages to labor creates employment, and not income spent on consumer goods. He said that an increase in consumption means decline in investment. So increase in investment leads to increase in wage fund and economic progress. John Stuart Mill considered that rate of capital accumulation depends upon amount of fund from which savings can be made or size of net produce of industry; and upon strength of disposition to save. In other word, capital is a result of saving. Savings depend upon size of

produce of industry; they increase with the increase in profit and rent which go to make net produce, while strength of disposition to save depends upon rate of profit and on desire to save. He said that profits depend on cost of labor. So the rate of profit is a ratio of profits to wages. If profits rise or wages fall, rate of profit increases which in turn raises rate of capital accumulation. Similarly, it is desire to save which tends to increase rate of capital accumulation. The rate of profits declines due to diminishing returns in agriculture and there will be increase in population growth rate. In absence of technical improvements in agriculture, growth rate of population being higher than rate of capital accumulation, and rate of profits declines then economy of country will be in situation of stationary state. Profits at minimum level are checked by factors such as capital losses during crisis; technical improvement; expansion of foreign trade; government borrowing for unproductive expenditure; and in addition to capital exports to colonies to produce consumer goods for home country. Mill believed in stationary state of economy. He considered it as very important for income distribution, but increases in population growth should be controlled to affect not distribution of income. In stationary state there must be no increase in population but capital and profits should be at minimum level. However, there might still be a rising standard of living due to improvement in technical progress. Mill was in favor of policy of laissez-faire which should be considered as the general rule of economy. He assigned minimum role to government in economic affairs. He thought that state must intervene to reform redistribution of ownership of means of production with such schemes as a ceiling in inheritance, profit sharing and cooperation. He favored reformations in institutional framework of market even if he was laissez-faire believer. He wanted state to pass laws against commercial malpractices and to enforce them to work. He wanted state to apply compulsory education and examinations because uneducated cannot be competent judge of commodity. He said a successful production depends more upon qualities of human resource or agents than upon situations in which they work. Mill favored regulation of working hours, free trade and against protection policy. And he defended the imposition of protective duties in case of infant industries (Jhingan, 1997, pp. 87-91).

2.8.1.2Marx's Historical Materialism: According to Marx, history moves from one stage to another, say, from feudalism to capitalism and to socialism, based on changes in ruling and oppressed classes and their relationship to each other. Conflict between forces of production such as state of science and technology, organization of production, and development of human skills and existing relations of production such as proportion and distribution of output as well as a society's way of thinking, its ideology, and world view provide dynamic movement in materialist interpretation of history. The interaction between forces and relations of production shapes politics, law, morality, religion, culture, and ideas. He said that feudalism is undercut by migration of serfs to town; factory competition with

handcraft and manorial production; expanded transport, trade, discovery, and new international markets on behalf of new business class; and by the accompanying rise of nation-states. The new class, proletariat or working class, created by this next stage, capitalism is the seed of destruction of capitalism and transformation into next stage which is socialism. Capitalism faces repeated crises because of market dependent largely on worker consumption, expands more slowly than productive capacity. Moreover, this unutilized capacity creates a reserve army of unemployed, a cheap labor source that expands and contracts with boom of business cycles. Furthermore, with growth of monopoly many small businesspeople, artisans and farmers become property-less workers who no longer have control over their workplace. Eventually, proletariat revolts, takes control of capital and establishes socialism which succeeded by communism (Nafziger, 2006, pp.126-127 .(

Karl Marx believed that rate of profit would decline as capitalist economies developed, and this would reduce investment and therefore rate of economic growth. He saw eventual decline of investment as resulting from pressure of capital accumulation on labor market, which would tend to push up wages. Capitalists might resist rise of wages by applying direct actions to hold wages down, which would give rise to social conflict. Or they might increase capital intensity of production by increasing ratio of spending on capital equipments and industrial raw materials to wage bill. But increasing capital-intensity absorbs more capital and reduces rate of profit, and thus is not a long-term solution. Furthermore, as machinery replaces men, labour force can no longer purchase all goods being produced, and there is a crisis of deficient effective demand. These problems lead to collapse of system and a transition to socialism, a regime under which dictates of pursuit of profit with mentioned problems is no longer paramount (Clunies-Ross and others, 2009, p. 86 .(

2.8.1.3 Rostow's Stages of Economic Growth Theory: In 1960 Walter Whitman Rostow put forward the theory of stages of economic growth. This theory argues that all countries pass through a sequence of clearly defined stages as they develop; poor countries are on the same development path as affluent countries but are at an earlier stage of development process. The theory divides economic growth of all developing nations into five stages as below:

)a) Traditional Society Stage: In stage of traditional society over 75% of population engaged in agriculture. Political power is in hands of landowners or central authority backed by army and civil servants. There is no general expectation of long-term economic progress though temporary increases in per capita income may occur through random events such as good weather that results in expansion of food production for a time (Clunies-Ross and others, 2009, p. 116.(

)b) Preconditions for Takeoff Stage: This stage could be created through radical changes such as increasing efficiency of agriculture, so that a growing urban population can be fed, broadening of markets and specialization in production through expanded international trade in industrial raw

materials and increased transport investment, emergence of a more recognizably modern business class and expansion of imports including capital, financed by exporting some natural resources, possibility of long-run economic progress beginning to take hold in minds of commercial and governing classes. These changes should include increasing capital formation, and political elite interested in economic development (Ibid, 2009, p. 116 and Nafziger, 2006, p. 128.)

)c) Takeoff Stage: This stage is a critical stage in economic development process. It is a decisive expansion occurring over 20 to 30 years, which radically transforms a country's economy and society. During this stage, barriers to economic growth are finally overcome, while forces making for widespread economic progress dominate society, so that growth becomes normal condition as a result of a sharp increase in levels of saving and net investment as a percentage of Gross National Income (GNI) from 5% or less to over 10% per a year. Availability of funds to entrepreneurial groups and adoption of modern technologies by leading sectors increases output per capita. In the same time, economic and political influence of those elements in society dedicated to economic expansion successfully challenges influence of traditional holders of power. Scale of investment program together with confidence that expansion will continue cause economic growth to become built-in and self-sustaining. The political, social and institutional framework emerges to exploit expansion in modern sectors. This condition implies mobilizing capital through retained earnings from rapidly expanding sectors, an improved system to tax high-income groups especially in agriculture, developing banks and capital markets and mostly foreign investment. Furthermore, where state initiative is lacking, culture must support a new class of entrepreneurs prepared to take risk of innovating. Another condition for takeoff stage is that at least one substantial manufacturing sector grows rapidly. The growth of a leading manufacturing sector spreads to its input suppliers expanding to meet its increased demand and to its buyers benefiting from its larger output (Clunies-Ross and others, pp. 116-117 and Nafziger, pp. 128-129.)

)d) Drive to Maturity Stage: In this stage, regular economic growth is expected and self-sustained follows stage of takeoff. A labor force that is predominantly urban, increasingly skilled, less individualistic, and more bureaucratic and looks increasingly to state to provide economic security characterizes this stage (Nafziger, p. 129.)

)e) Age of High Mass Consumption: This stage is reached once industrialization process is completed; mass demand for consumer goods is created by expansion of incomes across industrial labor force; and range of consumer goods being made has broadened. This process is reinforced by government recognition to maintain consumer demand and to keep unemployment at a low level (Clunier-Ross and others, P.117.)

2.8.1.4 Structural Change Models: The structural change theory focuses on mechanism by which underdeveloped economies transform their domestic economic structures from traditional subsistence agriculture to a more modern, more urbanized and more industrially manufacturing and servicing economy. Two well known structural change approaches are the following:

a) Lewis Theory of Development/the Two-Sector Surplus Labor Model: In the mid of 1950s, W. Arthur Lewis formulated one of the best known models of economic development that focused on structural transformation of a primarily subsistence economy. The Lewis two-sector model became the general theory of development process in developing economies during 1960s and early 1970s. In this theory, underdeveloped economy consists of two sectors which are a traditional, overpopulated rural subsistence sector that characterized by zero marginal labor productivity and surplus labor that can be withdrawn from traditional agricultural sector without any loss of output; and a high productivity modern urban industrial sector that into which labor from subsistence sector is gradually transferred. The primary focus of this model is process of labor transfer and growth of output and employment in modern sector. Both labor transfer and modern sector employment growth are just resulting from expansion of output in modern sector. The speed with which output expansion occurs is determined by rate of industrial investment which could be made possible by reinvestment of excess profits relative to wages and capital accumulation in modern sector. The theory assumed that level of wages in modern sector is constant and determined as a given premium over a fixed average subsistence level of wages in traditional agricultural sector. Lewis assumed that modern sector wages should be at least 30% higher than average rural income to induce transferring of workers from their home areas into urban areas. The theory assumed that process of modern sector self-sustaining growth and employment expansion is to continue until all surplus rural labor is absorbed in new industrial sector. Thereafter, additional workers can be withdrawn from traditional subsistence agricultural sector at a higher cost of lost food production because of declining labor-to-land ratio which means that marginal productivity of rural labor is no longer zero. The structural transformation of developing economy could take place with balance of economic activity shifting from traditional rural agriculture to modern urban industry. Lewis two-sector development model was criticized roughly, because simply it reflects historical experience of economic growth in the Western World and its assumptions do not fit institutional and economic realities of most contemporary developing economies. The theory assumes that rate of labor transfer and employment creation in modern sector is proportional to rate of modern sector capital accumulation. The faster the rate of capital accumulation, the higher the growth rates of modern sector and the faster the rate of new job creation. But if capitalist profits are reinvested in more sophisticated laborsaving capital equipments or technology, the result can be anti-development economic growth because all extra income and output growth are distributed to fewer

owners of capital in form of profits, while income and employment levels for masses of workers remain largely unchanged. Total Gross Domestic Product (GDP) could rise, and there would be little or no improvement in aggregate social welfare. The Lewis development model assumes existence of surplus labor in rural areas while there is full employment in urban areas. But contemporary research indicates that there is little general surplus labor in rural areas; and a large number of development economists today agree that assumption of rural surplus labor is generally not valid. The two-sector surplus labor model assumes competitive modern sector labor market that guarantees continued existence of constant real urban wages up to the points where supply of rural labor is exhausted. But striking feature of urban labor markets and wage determination in almost all developing countries is a result of every-time wages rise relative to average rural incomes; even in the presence of rising levels of modern sector there is unemployment and low or zero marginal productivity in agriculture. In Less Developing Country (LDC) there is no perfect competitive labor markets in modern sector, this is because of factors such as trade union bargaining power, civil service wage scales, and multinational corporations' hiring practices. Lewis model assumes diminishing returns in modern industrial sector. Yet there is much evidence that increasing returns prevail in modern sector, could cause special problems for development policymaking (Todaro and Smith, 2006, pp. 108-113.)

)b) The Patterns of Development Theory: This model was formulated by the late Hollis B. Chenery and his colleagues. The patterns of development theory of structural change focuses on process through which economic, industrial, and institutional structure of an underdeveloped economy is transformed over time to permit new industries to replace traditional agriculture as an engine of economic growth. However, in the patterns of development model, increased savings and investment are perceived as necessary but not sufficient conditions for economic growth. In addition to capital accumulation including physical and human capital, a set of interrelated changes in economic structure of a country are required for transition from traditional economic system to a modern economic system. The structural changes involve all economic functions, including transformation of production and changes in composition of consumer demand, international trade, and resource use as well as changes in socio-economic factors such as urbanization and growth and distribution of a country's population. The structural change theory emphasizes on both domestic and international constraints on development. Domestic constraints include economic constraints such as level of resource endowment and physical and population size of a country as well as institutional constraints such as government policies and objectives. International constraints on economic development include access to external capital, technology, and international trade. Differences in developmental levels among developing countries are considered as domestic as well as part of international constraints on development. International constraints make transition of developing economies differ

from industrialized economies. Developing economies have access to opportunities that presented by industrialized countries as sources of capital, technology, and manufactured imports as well as markets for exports, they can make transition at an even faster rate than that achieved by industrial countries during early periods of their economic development. The structural change model recognizes the fact that developing countries are part of an integrated international system that can promote their development (Ibid, pp. 113-114).

2.8.1.5 The International Dependence Revolution: The international dependence theories view developing countries as beset by institutional, political, and economic rigidities, both domestic and international, and caught up in a dependence and dominance relationship with rich countries. Within this general theory there are three major models that is the neocolonial dependence model, the false paradigm model, and the dualistic development thesis.

a) The Neocolonial Dependence Model: The neocolonial dependence model is an indirect outgrowth of Marxist thinking. It attributes the existence and continuance of underdevelopment primarily to the history evolution of a highly unequal international capitalist system of rich and poor countries relationships. Whether because rich countries are intentionally exploitative or unintentionally are neglectful, the coexistence of rich and poor countries in an international system dominated by such unequal power relationships between developed countries and Less Developing Countries (LDCs) renders attempts by poor nations to be self-reliant and independent difficult and sometimes even impossible. Certain groups in developing countries like landlords, entrepreneurs, military rulers, merchants, public officials, and trade union leaders who enjoy high incomes, social status, and political power constitute a small elite ruling class whose principal interest, knowingly or not, is in perpetuation of international capitalist system of inequality and conformity in which they are rewarded. Directly and indirectly, they serve and are rewarded by; they are dominated by and dependent on international special-interest groups, such as multinational corporations, national bilateral aid agencies, and multilateral assistance organizations like the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), which are tied by allegiance or funding to wealthy capitalist countries. The elites' activities and viewpoints often serve to inhibit any genuine reform efforts that might benefit wider population and actually lead to lower levels of living standard and to perpetuation of underdevelopment. The neo-Marxist, neocolonial view of underdevelopment attributes a large part of developing countries' continuing poverty to existence and policies of the industrial capitalist countries of the northern hemisphere and their extensions in form of small but powerful elite groups in less developed countries. In the neocolonial dependence theory underdevelopment is an externally induced phenomenon, in contrast to the linear stages and structural change theories which consider underdevelopment as a result of internal constraints such as insufficient savings and investment or

lack of education and skills. The theory demands the capitalist system to free dependent developing countries from direct and indirect economic control of their developed countries and from domestic oppressors (Ibid, pp. 115-116.)

)b) The False Paradigm Model: The false paradigm model is a less radical international dependence approach to development which attributes underdevelopment to faulty and inappropriate advice provided by international advisers from developed country assistance agencies and multinational donor organizations. These experts offer sophisticated concepts, elegant theoretical structures, and complex econometric models of development those often lead to inappropriate and incorrect policies. Policies such as central and resilient role of traditional social structures, highly unequal ownership of land and other property rights, disproportionate control by local elites over domestic and international financial assets, and very unequal access to credit all serve vested interests of existing domestic and international powerful groups. According to the theory, leading university intellectuals, trade unionists, high-level government economists, and other civil servants all get their training in developed-country institutions where they are given unhealthy dose of alien concepts and elegant inapplicable theoretical models. They have been given little or no really useful knowledge to enable them to come to grips in an effective way with real development problems, they often tend to become unknowing or reluctant apologists for existing system of elitist policies and institutional structures. In university economics courses typically entails the perpetuation of teaching of many irrelevant Western World concepts and models, while in government policy discussions too much emphasis is placed to attempts measure of capital-output ratios, increase savings and investment ratios, privatize and deregulate economy, or to maximize Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rates (Ibid, p.117.)

)c) The Dualistic Development Thesis: International dependence theory is the notion of a world of dual societies, of rich and poor nations. The dualistic development thesis represents the existence and persistence of increasing divergences between rich and poor countries and rich and poor people on various levels. The concept of dualism embraces the following four main arguments:

.1Different sets of conditions, of which some are superior and others are inferior can coexist in a given space. Such can include coexistence of modern and traditional methods of production in urban and rural sectors; coexistence of wealthy, highly educated elites with masses of illiterate poor people; and coexistence of powerful and wealthy industrialized countries with weak, impoverished peasant societies in the international economy.

.2Such co-existence is chronic and not transitional. It is not due to a temporary phenomenon, in which time could eliminate discrepancy between superior and inferior elements. The international co-existence of wealth and poverty is not simply a historical that can be rectified in time.



.3Not only the degrees of superiority and of inferiority fail to show any signs of diminishing or decline, but they even have tendency to increase. For example, productivity gap between workers in developed and less developing countries seems to widen with each passing year.

.4The interrelations between superior and inferior elements are that existence of superior elements does little or nothing to pull up inferior elements (Ibid, pp. 117-118 .(

2.8.1.6The Neoclassical Counterrevolution (Market Fundamentalism): The leading writers of counterrevolution theory are Lord Peter Bauer, Deepak Lal, Ian Little, Harry Johnson, Bela Balassa, Jagdish Bhagwati, and Anne Krueger. In developed nations, neoclassical counterrevolution favored supply-side macroeconomic policies, rational expectations theories, freer markets and privatizations of public corporations, while in developing countries, it called for freer markets and dismantling of public ownership, statist planning, and government regulation of economic activities. The central argument of neoclassical counterrevolution is that underdevelopment results from poor resource allocation due to incorrect pricing policies and too much state intervention by overly active developing nation governments. It states that very state intervention in economic activity slows pace of economic growth. The neoliberals argue that by permitting competitive free markets to flourish, privatizing state-owned enterprises, promoting free trade and export expansion, welcoming investors from developed countries, and eliminating plethora of government regulations and price distortions in factor, product, and financial markets, both economic efficiency and growth will be stimulated. The neoclassical counterrevolutionaries argue that the Third World is underdeveloped not because of predatory activities of the First World and international agencies that it controls but because of heavy hand of state and corruption, inefficiency, and lack of economic incentives that permeate economies of developing nations. Therefore, what is needed is not a reform of international economic system, a restructuring of dualistic developing economies, an increase in foreign aid, attempts to control population growth, or a more effective development planning system. It is simply a matter of promoting free markets and laissez-faire economics within context of permissive governments that allow the "magic of the marketplace" and the "invisible hand" of market prices to guide resource allocation and stimulate economic development (Ibid, 2009, pp. 126-127 .(

The neoclassical counterrevolution can be divided into three approaches as follow:

)a) The Free-Market Approach: Free-market approach argues that markets alone are efficient-product, markets provide the best signals for investments in new activities; labor markets respond to these new industries in appropriate ways; producers know best what to produce and how to produce it efficiently, and product and factor prices reflect accurate scarcity values of goods and resources now and in the future. Competition is effective, if not perfect; technology is freely available and nearly costless to absorb; information is also perfect and nearly costless to obtain. Under these circumstances

any government intervention in economy is by definition distortion and counterproductive. Free-market approach assumes that developing-world markets are efficient and that whatever imperfections exist are of little consequence (Ibid, p. 127.)

) b) Public-Choice Theory or New Political Economy Approach: This theory goes even further to argue that governments can do nothing right. The public choice theory assumes that politicians, bureaucrats, citizens, and states act solely from a self-interested perspective, using their power and authority of government for their own selfish ends. Citizens use political influence to obtain special benefits from government policies like import licenses or rationed foreign exchange that restrict access to important resources. Politicians use government resources to consolidate and maintain positions of power and authority. Bureaucrats and public officials use their positions to extract bribes from benefit-seeking citizens and to operate protected businesses on the side. States use their power to confiscate private property from individuals. The net result is not only a misallocation of resources but also a general reduction in individual freedoms. Therefore, the minimal government is the best government needed in the Third World countries (Ibid, p. 128.)

)c) The Market-Friendly Approach: This approach recognizes that there are many imperfections in Less Developing Country (LDC) product and factor markets and that governments do have a key role to play in facilitating the operation of markets through interventions by investing in physical and social infrastructure, health care facilities, and educational institutions and by providing a suitable climate for private sectors. The market-friendly approach also recognizes that the market failures are more widespread in developing countries in areas such as investment coordination and environmental outcomes. Moreover, phenomena such as missing and incomplete information, externalities in skill creation and learning and economies of large-scale in production are also endemic to Less Developing Countries (LDCs) markets (Ibid, p. 128.)

2.8.1.7 Traditional Neoclassical Growth Theory: This theory argues that liberalization or opening up of national markets draws additional domestic and foreign investment and thus increases the rate of capital accumulation, in terms of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth, which is equivalent to raising domestic savings rates, which enhances capital-labor ratios and per capita incomes in capital-poor developing countries. According to this theory, output growth results from one or more of three factors, that is increases in labor quantity and quality through population growth and education, increases in capital through saving and investment and improvements in technology. The theory says closed economies with no foreign activities and with lower savings rates grow more slowly in the short run than those with high savings rates, and tend to converge to lower per capita income levels; and open economies with trade and foreign investment, however, experience income convergence at higher levels as capital flows from rich to poor countries where capital-labor ratios are lower and

returns on investments are higher. According to the theory, the heavy-handedness of Less Developing Country (LDC) governments will retard growth in the economies of such countries even if the foreign investments are flowing in (Todaro and Smith, 2006, pp. 121-122 ).

2.8.2 Theories of Economic Development and Underdevelopment: These theories include the big push theory; the balanced growth theory; the unbalanced growth theory; the Schumpeterian theory of economic growth; and Nelson's theory of low-level equilibrium trap.

2.8.2.1 The Big Push Theory: The big push theory was presented by Professor Paul N. Rosenstein-Rodan. The theory states that proceeding bit by bit will not launch the economy successfully on the development path; rather a minimum amount of investment is a necessary condition for it. A large comprehensive program is needed in the form of a high minimum amount of investment to overcome the obstacles to development in underdeveloped economy and launch it on the path to progress. The theory necessitates the obtaining of external economies that arise from the simultaneous establishment of technically interdependent industries. The individualities and external economies flowing from a minimum amount of investment are a prerequisite for launching economic development successfully. According to Professor Paul, there are three different individualities and external economies. The individualities in the production process or of inputs and output lead to increasing returns. The social overhead capital is the most important instance of individuality and hence of external economies on the supply side. The services of social overhead capital comprising basic industries like power supply plants, transport, and communications are indirectly productive and have a long gestation period. They cannot be imported. Their installations require a sizeable amount of investment. They also possess an irreducible minimum an industry mix of different public utilities, so that an underdeveloped country will have to invest between 30 to 40% of its total investment in these channels. Social overhead capital is characterized by four individualities such as it is irreversible in time and therefore, must precede other directly productive investments. It has a minimum durability, it has a long gestation period, and it has irreducible minimum industry mix of different kinds of public utilities. These individualities of supply of social overhead capital are necessary in order to pave the way for quick-yielding directly productive investments. The individuality or complementarities of demand require simultaneous setting up of interdependent industries in underdeveloped countries, because individual investment projects have high risks as low incomes limit the demand for their products. The complementarities of demand reduce the risks of finding a market and increase the incentives to invest. In other words, it is the individuality of demand which necessitates a high minimum amount of investment in interdependent industries to enlarge the size of the market. The individuality in the supply of saving is the third individuality in this theory. A high minimum size of investment requires a high volume of saving which is difficult to be achieved in underdeveloped

economies because of low incomes. To overcome this, it is essential that when incomes increase due to an increase in investment, the marginal rate of saving should be very much higher than the average rate of saving. By these three individualities and external economies to which they give rise, a big push or a minimum amount of investment is required to overcome the obstacles to development in developing economies. But proceeding bit by bit in an isolated and small way does not lead to a sufficient impact on growth and development. A climate for development is only created when investment of a minimum speed or size is made within an underdeveloped economy. The big push theory has some following defects.

.1The big push theory focuses on the realization of extensive external economies from investment in social overhead capital, but neglects the external economies from the investment on exports and import substitutes.

.2The theory states that external economies can be realized from output expansion through investment in the production of local consumer goods and most public utilities, but in fact external economies can be attained from cost-reducing investment.

.3One of the principal defects of the big push theory is that it emphasizes the importance of a high level of investment in all types of industries such as capital goods, consumer goods, and social overhead capital, except the agricultural sector and other primary industries. In underdeveloped economies a big push or large investments in irrigation works, transportation facilities, land reforms and improving agricultural practices through the uses of better tools, and fertilizers are all as important as investment in other industries. So the theory neglects the role of agriculture sector in accelerating economic development.

.4Social overhead capital has a high capital-output ratio and a very long gestation period which makes the task of developing economies more difficult because such economies do not possess enough financial resources to provide social overhead capital which required for big push. The period during which social overhead capital is being formed will also be one of inflationary pressures, in turn, would prolong the process of building social overhead capital and making it highly difficult for an underdeveloped economy to achieve rapid economic development.

.5Low level investment leads to a large increase in output. Thus there is a little conclusive proof that a big push of investment is a prerequisite for economic development of developing economies.

.6The big push theory is based upon the state-engineered investment which has a number of problems such as the weakness and inefficient of the administration and institutions; the difficulties which arise from drawing up of the plans for various projects and their execution; lack of statistical information; technical know-how; trained personnel; and coordination between the different departments are some complex problems which are not easy to solve. Moreover, the majority of underdeveloped countries

have a mixed economic system where private and public sectors are mostly competitive rather than complementary. All these lead to mutual rivalry and suspicion which are inimical to balanced economic growth.

.7The big push theory is not a historical fact because is not a historical explanation of how development takes place. And historically, the presence or absence of a big push has not been a distinguishing feature of economic growth anywhere. It is just a sort of the present prescription for launching developing countries on the path to progress rapidly (Jhingan, 1997, pp. 175-179 .(

2.8.2.2Balanced Growth Theory: The balanced growth theory has presented by several economists who interpret it in different ways; among them Rosenstein-Rodan, Ragnar Nurkse, and Arthur Lewis. The balanced growth theory means investment takes place simultaneously in all sectors or industries at once or balanced development of manufacturing industries and agriculture. Balanced growth, therefore, requires balance between different consumer goods industries, and consumer goods and capital goods industries. It also requires balance between industry and agriculture because they are complementary and an increase in industrial output requires an expansion of agricultural output. An increase in the industrial sector employment leads to an increase in the demand for food items therefore supplies of food must be raised. Also supplies of raw materials should rise with expansion of industrial sector and in the same way agricultural sector must develop along with the industrial sector otherwise inflation will occur. There must be balance between the domestic and export sectors because income from export is a very important source for financing development; imports rise as production and employment expand; and domestic trade needs increasing imports of necessary materials and capital goods, so to pay for the rising imports, and to allow export to finance development the domestic sector must grow in balance with the foreign sector. The balance between social and economic overheads and directly productive investments; and between vertical and horizontal external economies is very essential. The balanced growth theory states that there should be simultaneous and harmonious development of different sectors in the economy so that all sectors grow together at once. There should be balance between the demand and supply sides. In the supply side simultaneous development of all interrelated sectors which help in increasing the supply of goods should takes place which includes the simultaneous and harmonious development of intermediate goods, raw materials, power, agriculture, irrigation schemes, transports and so on, in addition to all industries producing consumer goods. On the demand side which relates to the provision for larger employment opportunities and increasing incomes so that the demand for goods and services may rise on the part of the people. The demand side is related to supplementary industries, consumer goods industries, like agriculture and manufacturing industries. With simultaneous setting up of all types of

industries a large number of people employed who create demand for each other's goods so that all goods will be sold out .

According to Rosenstein-Rodan the social marginal product (SMP) of an investment is different from its private marginal product (PMP) and that when a group of industries is planned together with their social marginal products (SMPs), the rate of growth of the economy is greater than it would have been otherwise this is because an individual entrepreneur is interested only in the private marginal product (PMP) of investment and is not likely to have an accurate assessment of the social marginal product (SMP). He says that it is the complementarities of the different industries which lead to the most profitable investment from the view of the society.

According to Ragnar Nurkse, vicious circles of poverty are at work in underdeveloped countries which retard the economic development. If they are broken, economic development will follow. The vicious circles operate both on the supply and demand sides. On the supply side, there is small capacity to save resulting from low real income. The low real income is due to low productivity which in turn is due to deficiency of capital. The deficiency of capital is the result of low capacity to save. On the demand side, inducement to invest is low because of low demand which is due to low level of real incomes of the people. The inducement to invest is limited by the size of the market which in turn depends on productivity, because the capacity to buy is in fact the capacity to produce. And productivity depends on the amount of capital used in production. But for an individual entrepreneur the use of capital is inhibited by the small size of the market which in turn is limited by low productivity. Thus the vicious circle of poverty is complete. To break these vicious circles, individual investments cannot solve the problem. The size of the market can be enlarged by monetary expansion, by salesmanship, and advertizing, by abolishing trade restrictions and by expanding the economic infrastructure, it can be widened either by a reduction in prices or by an increase in money incomes while keeping prices constant. But in developing countries market is not large enough to permit production on a scale that may lead to reduction in costs. Moreover, inelastic consumer demand for goods, technical discontinuities and lack of enterprise keep down the demand for capital. Therefore, the only way is more or less application of capital to a wide range of different industries. It is by a simultaneous wave of new plants composed in such a way that full advantage is taken of complementarities and external economies on the supply side and of the complementarities of markets on the demand side. Investment in a wide range of industries leads to vertical and horizontal integration of industries, a better division of labor, a common source of raw materials and technical skills, an expansion of the size of the market and better utilization of social and economic overhead capital. Investment in productive equipment and in human capital should be simultaneous, for investment in capital goods will be useless unless people are educated and healthy to operate it. He

says that social and economic overhead facilities should be created ahead of demand to stimulate and support the various sectors of the economy. Private enterprise in an underdeveloped country is incapable of taking advantage of these external economies because of its incapacity to start a wave of capital investment on a wide range of projects. He believes that private enterprise can achieve the desired effect under the stimulus of certain incentives like the ordinary price incentives that may bring about balanced growth in a small degree. However, a wave of new applications of capital over a wide range of different industries can be promoted by the monetary and other effects of the essential investment. According to Arthur Lewis all sectors of the economy should grow simultaneously, so that to keep a proper balance between industry and agriculture and between production for home consumption and for exports.

The theory of balanced growth has been severely criticized on the following grounds.

.1 Simultaneous establishment of a number of industries is likely to raise money and real costs of production, and so make them economically unprofitable to operate in the absence of sufficient capital goods, skills, cheap power, finance and other necessary raw materials.

.2 The theory of balanced growth does not consider the possibility of cost reduction in existing industries.

.3 When the new industries are established, the demand for the products of the existing firms will decrease and make them unprofitable. At the same time, the demand for factors of production will rise which is likely to raise the prices of the production in all industries.

.4 The balanced growth theory fails as a theory of development. Because development means the process of change of one type of economy into another more advanced one. But the balanced growth theory would involve the superimposition of an entirely new self-contained modern industrial sector upon the stagnant and equally self-contained traditional sector. This is a growth; it is just a perfectly dualistic pattern of development.

.5 The balanced growth theory seems to be a contradiction in itself because it states that what cannot be done in piecemeal, can be done in a big way.

.6 In some underdeveloped countries, labor is in abundance but capital and entrepreneurial skills are scarce. While in others, labor and capital are scarce but other resources are in abundance. This is a great problem in the practical application of concept of balanced growth theory.

.7 The theory of balanced growth fails to solve the problem of shortage in resources because it based on Say's law which says that supply creates its own demand. When simultaneous investments are being made in a number of new industries, the demand for factors would become competitive; also the supply of factors is inelastic in developing countries. Thus the main argument of this theory breaks down. The theory assumes that resources are available for net investment and a given labor

force is being equipped with an increasing stock of capital. But the problem of the increasing stock capital allocation still remains.

.8The balanced growth doctrine presupposes the need for balanced investment to provide a growing demand, and the existence of increasing returns. But these two forces pull themselves in opposite directions because if simultaneous investments are made in all related fields the appearance of bottlenecks of raw materials, prices, factors shortage and so on would lead to decreasing returns. Thus decreasing and not increasing returns favor the balanced growth.

.9Although capital lumpiness of many social and economic overheads is often given as a reason for investing large sums of money simultaneously and immediately, but the experience of many developing countries suggests that many services can be provided initially at low investment costs .

.10Balanced growth is not to be desired to induce private investment but to be desired for its own sake, as far as a developing economy is concerned .

.11Balanced growth doctrine is primarily related to private enterprise economy where the need for planning does not arise but in fact, simultaneous investment in all sectors requires planning direction and coordination by the government.

.12The balanced growth theory is in fact the application of Keynesian theory on underemployment situation in developing economy which states that simultaneous development during the upswing of the trade cycle can lead to a balanced recovery of economic activity. But in a developing economy this is not so whether the state lends a helping hand or not because in such economies there is no temporary suspension of economic activity which is static; as well as the lack of capital, skills, factor supplies and economic infrastructure. Therefore, it is wrong to apply a theory which is applicable to developed economy on a developing economy.

.13Historically, it was not the balanced growth but scarcities and bottlenecks that provided the stimulus to the inventions, and in turn the inventions created new scarcities and bottlenecks. So if the world had depended on balanced growth, it would have reduced or even eliminated the incentives for discoveries, or at any rate for their applications. Thus it is unbalanced growth that the history of technological progress rests on (Ibid, pp. 180-188.)

2.8.2.3The Unbalanced Growth Theory: The doctrine of unbalanced growth has popularized and propounded in a systematic manner by Hirschman. The unbalanced growth theory is opposite to balanced growth theory. In this concept, investment should be made in selected sectors rather than simultaneously in all sectors of the economy because there is no a developing country which possesses a capital and other resources in such amounts as to invest simultaneously in all sectors. Therefore, investment should be made in a few selected sectors or industries for their rapid development, and the economies accruing from them can be utilized for the development of other



sectors. In such way economy gradually moves in favor of the unbalanced growth to that of balanced growth situation .

According to Hirschman, investment in selected industries or sectors of the economy will lead to new investment opportunities and pave the way to further economic development. He argues that when new projects are started they appropriate external economies created by previous projects which create new external economies that can be exploited by subsequent ones. There are some projects that appropriate more external economies than they create and there are other projects that create more external economies than they appropriate. Development policy should aim the prevention of those investments which appropriate more external economies than they create, and the promotion of those investments which more economies are created than are appropriated. Development can only take place by unbalancing the economy which is possible by investing either in social overhead capital (SOC) or in directly productive activities (DPA). The social overhead capital investment creates external economies while the directly productive activities investment appropriates external economies. Social overhead capital includes basic services without which primary, secondary, and tertiary productive activities cannot function; these investments are included investment on education, public health, communications, transportation and conventional public utilities like water, light and power, irrigation and drainage schemes .

A large investment in social overhead capital could encourage private investment later in directly productive activities because activities like supply of cheap electric power can encourage establishment of the small industries. Social overhead capital investments indirectly, subsidize agriculture, industry or commerce by cheapening various inputs which they use or by reducing their costs. Thus the social overhead capital approach to economic development is to unbalance the economy so that investments in directly productive activities are stimulated. An unbalanced growth can also be created by investing in directly productive activities (DPA) instead of investing in social overhead capital. When directly productive activities investment is undertaken first, the shortage of social overhead capital facilities is likely to raise production costs. And then political pressures might stimulate investment in social overhead capital. Thus profit expectations generate the sequence from social overhead capital to directly productive activities while political pressures generate it from directly productive activities to social overheads. He calls the first sequence as development via excess capacity of social overhead capital and the second as development via shortage in social overhead capital. The development via excess of social overheads capital capacity is more continuous and smooth than the development via shortage in social overhead capital capacity because adjustment of social overhead capital can be with the absence of political pressures. The doctrine of unbalanced growth is, however, not free from defects.

.1 There is inadequate attention to the composition, direction and timing of unbalanced growth theory because the theory does not mention the optimum degree of imbalance, how much in order to accelerate growth.

.2 When development is the outcome of unbalancing economy, the business attitudes change due to shortages and tensions, and there is a lot of opposition and hostility; so it is clear that the theory neglects the different types of reactions and resistances on the part of the existing institutions in developing countries.

.3 Investment creates imbalances which in turn creating pressures and tensions in economic growth process which are overcome by the inducement. But pressures and tensions are difficult in developing countries; therefore, they ban the process of economic development.

.4 There is a lack of basic facilities in developing countries due to lack of technical personnel, raw materials, and basic facilities like power supply, transport and even inadequate domestic or foreign market for the products.

.5 One of the serious defects of the unbalanced growth theory is the development of inflationary pressure within the economy due to the injection of large investments which can cause rise in income that may increase the demand for consumer goods relative to their supply in addition to the shortages which could arise due to the pressures and tensions. Such a situation leads to a general rise in the prices level of goods and services. In developing countries it is difficult to control prices because of the incapable governments to set and implement monetary and fiscal measures effectively.

.6 It is difficult to practice inducement mechanism in developing economies because such mechanism needs internal flexibility of resources. But in those economies of the Third World nations it is difficult or impossible to shift resources from one sector to another.

.7 The development process in this theory depends on investment decisions. But developing countries need not only investment decisions also administrative, managerial and policy decisions. Thus the theory of unbalanced growth places too much emphasis on investment decisions as compared to other important decisions which are essential for economic development (Ibid, pp. 189-195.)

2.8.2.4 The Schumpeterian Theory of Economic Growth: Theory of Joseph Alois Schumpeter first presented in his book titled the Theory of Economic Development written in German in the year 1911. The theory assumes a perfectly competitive economy which is in stationary state that in which there is perfect equilibrium which he called "circular flow" that repeats itself continually in the same manner year after year; there is no profits, no interest rates, no savings, no investments, and no involuntary unemployment. In this competitive equilibrium the same products are produced annually in the same manner. All economic activities are repetitive in a timeless economy, in other words, every supply awaits a corresponding demand and every demand awaits the corresponding supply. The

circular flow is a stream that is fed from the continually flowing springs of labor force and land, and flows in every economic period into the reservoir which is the income, in order to be transformed into satisfaction of wants. According to Schumpeter, development is spontaneous and discontinuous changes in the channels of the circular flow, and disturbance of equilibrium which forever alters and displaces the existing stationary equilibrium. These spontaneous and discontinuous changes in the economic activity arise by its own initiative from within the economy particularly in the sphere of industrial and commercial activities. Development consists in the carrying out of new combinations for which possibilities exist in the stationary state. These new combinations come about in the form of innovations which consist according to Schumpeter (1963, p. 66) of "the introduction of a new good or product which consumers are not yet familiar with or of new quality product; the introduction of a method of production that is not yet tested by experience in branch of manufacture concerned which need by no means be founded upon a discovery scientifically new, and can also exist in a new way of handling a commodity commercially; the opening of a new market that into which a particular branch of manufacture of the country in question has not previously entered or not existed before; the conquest of a new source of supply of raw materials or half-manufactured goods whether this source is already exists or it has newly created; and the carrying out of the new organization of any industry like creation of a monopoly position or the breaking up of a monopoly position". According to him, it is the introduction of a new product and the continual improvements in the existing ones that lead to economic development. The role of innovator could be performed by the entrepreneur who is not a man of ordinary managerial ability, but who introduces something entirely new; and does not only provide funds, but directs their use. The entrepreneur is someone who motivated by the desire to found a private commercial kingdom; the will to conquer and prove his superiority; and by the joy of creating of getting things done or simply of exercising one's energy and ingenuity. His nature and activities depend on his social structural environment. The entrepreneur requires two things to perform his economic function; these are the existence of technical knowledge in order to produce new product; and the power of disposal over the factors of production in the form of credit. As a function of innovation an entrepreneur earns profits which are conceived as a surplus over costs or a difference between the total receipts and the total outlays. Schumpeter says that under competitive equilibrium or stationary state the price of each product equals to its cost of production and thus there are no profits. Profits arise due to dynamic changes resulting from an innovation, and they continue to exist till the innovation become general. This theory starts with breaking up of the circular flow with an innovation in the form of a new product for the purpose of earning profits. In order to break the circular flow, the innovating entrepreneurs are financing by banking credit expansion, and since investment in innovation is risky, they should pay interest on such credit. Once the innovation

becomes successful and profitable other entrepreneurs follow it, and thus innovations in one field may induce other innovations in related fields. Investment is financed by banking credit expansion which leads to increases in money incomes and prices and helps to create a cumulative expansion throughout the economy. With the increase in the purchasing power of the consumers, the demand for the products of the old industries increases in relation to the supply. Prices rise, profits increase and the old industries expand by borrowing from banks. It induces the secondary wave of credit inflation which is superimposed on the primary wave of innovation. After a period of gestation the new products start to appear in the market displacing the old products and enforcing a process of liquidation, readjustment and absorption. In such situation the demand for the old products decreases and their prices fall, thus the old firms contract output and some are even forced to run into liquidation .

As the innovators begin to settle the bank loans out of the profits, the quantity of money decreases and the prices tend to fall; profits decline; uncertainty and risks increase; the innovation is reduced and eventually comes to an end, and thus depression occurs in the economy. Schumpeter believes in the existence of long wave of upswings and downswings in economic life. Each long-wave of upswing is caused by an innovation in the form of a new product which leads to further innovations in the methods of production, new forms of business organization, new sources of raw materials and intermediate products supply, and in addition to new markets. All these lead to availability of abundant goods for the masses. After the long-wave of upswing ends, the long-wave downswing begins and the painful process of readjustment to the point of previous equilibrium starts and that the natural forces of recovery bring about a revival. And once the equilibrium is restored the entrepreneurs begin with a new set of innovations, others follow, and a new boom begins. This cyclical process of economic development according to Schumpeter is taking place when the old economic structures of a society are being continually destroyed and the new structures are being continually created in their place. According to Schumpeter, capitalism system can maintain itself only so long as entrepreneurs behave like knights and pioneers, but such innovators are being destroyed by the capitalism itself which rests on a rational attitude which permeates the entire capitalist society. As a result the beginning of the ending of the capitalism emerges in terms of three forces, that is, the decadence of the entrepreneurial function; the disintegration of the bourgeois family; and the destruction of the institutional framework of the capitalist society. In the early stages of capitalism system, the driving force is entrepreneur who dared to innovate, to experiment, and to expand. By the reduction of innovation to a routine level, and as technological progress has become the business of trained specialists; in such situation the new lords of business are the managers, depersonalized owners, and the private bureaucrats. This will bring to the reduction of the industrial

bourgeoisie to a class of wage-earners and thus undermines the function and the position of the entrepreneur as the warrior knight. There is also the destruction of the bourgeoisie family because parents adopt a rationalistic attitude in their behavior towards children. The traditional family idea is weakened and the desire to found a private kingdom and a dynasty is no longer there. The will to accumulate wealth and other important aspects of the capitalist society gradually disappear. In another hand, entrepreneur tends to destroy the institutional framework of the capitalist society because the tendency towards concentration into big concerns weakens and destroys the twin institutions of private property and freedom of contract. The big concerns and the proprietors are the small and large shareholders who are dematerialized and de-functionalized by the professional and salaried managers. The proprietors' role is performed by the latter while the former are totally divorced from active management. In the view of Schumpeter, nationality has destroyed the royal power in the past, and now the rationalistic behavior or attitude of the ruling group towards domestic and international problems will destroy the capitalism system. Above all, the death knell of capitalism will come soon as a result of the active hostility of the intellectuals because they sow the seeds of doubt and discontentment in the minds of the masses against the social and political framework of the capitalist order and by inciting the white-collar groups and the blue-collar laboring classes, they secure anti-capitalism political reforms, and as a result, the institutional framework that upon which the capitalistic system rests will be broken and then a gradual movement towards socialistic system will begin. Eventually, the capitalism will disappear from the existence.

The Schumpeter theory of economic growth was criticized badly by many eminent economists as such theory places and confines the entire process of the innovation on the innovator as a ideal person, but in fact, such persons were to be found in the 18th and 19th centuries because at that time innovations were made by entrepreneurs, but now all innovations are part of the functions of a joint stock company, they are regarded as the routine of industrial concerns and do not require such an innovator. The theory considers the economic development as a result of the cyclical process. The cyclical process in the form of upswings and downswings is not very essential for economic development this is because economic development is related to continuous changes. The Schumpeterian theory says that cyclical changes are due to innovations; which is not correct because as a matter of fact such fluctuations might be due to psychological, natural, and even financial causes. The theory regards the innovations as the main cause of economic development, but such an idea is not true because economic development depends also upon many economic and social changes. It gives too much importance to the bank credits which in fact can be useful in the short-run but in the long-run bank credits are insufficient, thus the industrial concerns could rely on new shares and debentures in the capital market to meet the much greater need for capital funds. Finally, the theory

simply tells us that the process of transition from capitalism system to socialistic system will take place once the institutional framework of capitalist society is transformed with changes in the functions of the entrepreneur which is no correct because such analysis of the end of capitalistic system is more emotional rather than reality (Jhingan, 1997, pp. 105-111.)

2.8.2.5 Nelson's Theory of Low-Level Equilibrium Trap: R. R. Nelson developed the theory of low-level equilibrium trap based on the Malthusian hypothesis which states that with the increase in the per capita income of a country above the minimum subsistence level, population tends to increase rapidly but when the growth rate of the population reaches an upper physical limit point it starts to decline with further increase in per capita income. At a stable equilibrium level of per capita income, the rate of saving and consequently the rate of net investment are at a low level which needs efforts to be made to raise the rate of saving and investment through an increase in the rate of growth of total national income which accompanied by a high rate of population growth which pushes back the per capita income to its stable equilibrium level. Thus developing economies are caught up in a low-level equilibrium trap. Nelson mentions four social and technological conditions that make the situation to be conducive to the low-level equilibrium trapping and they are high correlation between the level of per capita income and the rate of population growth; a low propensity to direct additional per capita income to the increasing per capita investment; scarcity of uncultivable arable land; and inefficient methods of production. He points towards two other factors, which are lack of cultural and economic ability or desire to move or change that are leading each other. Nelson uses three sets of relationships to show how the trapping of an economy at a low level income happens. These are as income is a function of the capital stock, the level of technology, and the size of the population; net investment consists of capital created out of savings in the form of additions to the stock of tools and equipments in the industrial sector plus additions of new land to the amount of the land under cultivation; and the short-run changes in the rate of population growth which are caused by changes in the death rate, and changes in the death rate are caused by changes in the low level of per capita incomes because once per capita income reaches a level above subsistence requirements, further increases in per capita income have significant effects on the death rate. Nelson also points towards a number of factors that could help in escaping away from the situation of low level equilibrium trap. Such factors are a favorable socio-political environment that should be in the country; the social structural change which should be caused by laying greater emphasis on thrift and entrepreneurship; the greater incentives that should be provided to produce more, plus the provision of incentives which could help to limit the size of family; adaptation of measures to change the distribution of income, and at the same time enabling accumulation of wealth by individual investors; the governmental programs that should be all-pervaded throughout the country; income and capital should be increased by obtaining funds from

abroad; and the improved production techniques which should be used to utilize the existing resources more fully so that income is increased from the given inputs (Ibid, pp. 171-174 ).(

2.9 Policies and Strategies of Economic Development: In these section two major categories of economic development policies and strategies namely economic policies which include fiscal and monetary policies in addition to trade and industrialization strategies which are exports promotion, imports substitution and flying geese strategies are all discussed in details as follow .

2.9.1 Economic Policies: As knows by every economist, the conventional economic policies are fiscal and monetary policies. These two policies have been designated to this part for minute discussion as the following :

)a) Fiscal Policy: In underdeveloped countries, the governments could accelerate the rate of economic growth and thereby remove poverty and underdevelopment. To meet the huge expenditure to be made on developmental activities and projects of capital formation included in the plans, the governments of underdeveloped countries require a large amount of financial resources. The problem of financing developmental expenditure in underdeveloped countries is more acute, because of the very low level of per capita income in these countries. The governments can raise the resources to finance its expenditure for the purpose of economic development by the following instruments or means:

.1 Taxation: Taxation is an important method of raising resources by the government. Taxation increases the amount of collective savings by restricting domestic consumption. Both direct and indirect taxes can play a part in financing the government expenditure to be spent on developmental activities. For best result, taxes should be imposed on unearned income and luxury consumption. But the taxation of unearned income may not yield a substantial volume of development finance, because most of the income of the vast majority of the people in undeveloped countries is devoted to the consumption of necessities. Thus the need to raise an adequate volume of development finance makes the governments to extend the coverage of indirect taxes to include the commodities of mass consumption. Moreover, the taxation of agriculture products has to play an important part in the mobilization of resources for the public sector in developing economies. Taxation as a method of development finance has some difficulties. As forced savings increased, voluntary savings may diminished, since individuals may reduce their voluntary savings in order to maintain their former consumption levels. This may reduce the resources going to the private sector. Another difficulty is its negative effects on incentives. For example, taxes on wage-earners can diminish their incentive to work hard, taxes on profits of the higher income groups can reduce their incentive to save and to make investments in new enterprises, and taxes on the output. Income or inputs of the farmers diminish the incentive to improve agricultural techniques (Ahuja, 1982, pp.295-296 ).(

.2Government Borrowing (Public Debt): Borrowing by the government is another method by which the savings of the community may be mobilized. But there exist a number of obstacles which hinder the success of borrowing policy in underdeveloped countries. In many such countries there are no adequate or well organized money and capital markets and in those where such markets available, they constitute a very small proportion of the whole money market of the country. Besides, there is no any organic relationship between the organized and unorganized parts of these markets. Moreover, the resources of the organized capital markets may be too inadequate to fulfill the needs both of the private and of the public sectors. Further, in the capital markets the competition for funds between the government and the private sectors could raise the rate of interest which in turn would cause a highly disincentive effect on the expansion of investment in private sector. For the government to have a successful borrowing policy, financial institutions must be developed and extended into rural areas of such economies in order to build the concept of the saving in these communities and mobilize such resources for productive purposes, instead of unproductive investments such as real estate, gold, jewelries. Suitable techniques of borrowing must be developed. For example, bonds of large denomination and long maturity issued by the government may be offered to the institutions, whereas those of small denomination and short maturity may be reserved for the public (Ibid, pp. 296-297 .(

Public debt plays an important role in economic development of a country in the following ways:

- a) Capital Formation: Borrowing from the public can be another important source of capital formation in underdeveloped countries. It is better than taxation because borrowing is just voluntary while taxation 100% means forced or involuntary saving and tax payers are not happy in paying taxes, for they do not expect to get the money back, but a lender, on the other hand, gives his/her money on loan of his/her own accord to receive it back along with interest after a certain period of time. Unlike taxation, borrowing adversely does not directly affect incentives to save and invest.
- b) Anti-Inflationary: Public borrowing acts as anti-inflation measure by mobilizing surplus money in the hands of the people. A successful public borrowing program can be a useful tool of economic development by diverting resources from unproductive channels to productive channels. Public borrowing is resorted to for specific development projects like power generation plants, irrigation works, roads, railroads, and so on. Thus it is a useful method for financing of development.
- c) Compulsory Saving: When there are no sufficient funds from voluntary loans, the government may have to resort to compulsory borrowing for the mobilization of resources for capital formation. Compulsory public borrowing is, therefore, justified in undeveloped countries where taxation and voluntary borrowing fail to bring adequate funds for development. Significant sections of the population in underdeveloped economies could waste a larger amount of their income in unproductive activities. The government may force them to subscribe to government bonds (Jhingan, 2012, p. 649 .(



.3Foreign Capital: The importance of foreign capital in accelerating economic development is undoubted. Foreign capital coming to Less Developed Countries (LDCs) in various forms can play an important role in economic development in the following ways:

)a) Raising the Rate of Saving: Because the rate of domestic saving in underdeveloped countries cannot be raised substantially for the reason that people are already at subsistence or near-subsistence level and there is no scope for further reduction in consumption, so in such situation foreign capital supplements domestic capital (saving), raises the total capital formation above the static level and generates economic growth. A higher level of savings can be ensured by the inflows of foreign capital.

)b) Attaining a Higher Level of Investment: When development has been planned, prepared and executed, a higher level of investment is needed. This high level of investment cannot be attained with domestic savings, not only because these savings are inadequate but also because of the new investments which are not unfamiliar and the local investors cannot be induce to invest in such investments, thus there is a gap in resources and this gap could only be filled by the foreign capital which in turn higher level of investment can be attained by and with the help of foreign capital.

)c) Providing Venture Capital: At macro level, there is a need to increase the total amount of investment. This need should be fulfilled by foreign capital. The establishment of heavy industries in underdeveloped countries is something which cannot be undertaken by local private entrepreneurs/enterprises, but these heavy investments for local private investors can be light investment for foreign investors. Therefore, such investments can be left to foreign investors.

)d) Building up of Infrastructure: The underdeveloped economies require the building of economic infrastructure in the form of railways, roads, bridges, water supply schemes, electricity and power plants, irrigation projects and so on, in addition to social infrastructure such as schools, colleges, research centers, and hospitals. Both economic and social infrastructures are precondition for economic development and its absence is a major constraint to the development. Therefore, an underdeveloped country which is in the position to attract foreign capital in such areas would overcome this major difficulty. Moreover, foreign capital, accompanied by technical know-how, can play a vital role in these areas.

)e) Development of Basic and Key Industries: There are several industries like iron and steel, cement, heavy electronics, heavy chemicals, machine and tools, which are basic in the sense that they provide the foundation for the entire industrialization of the country. They are keys to development and also to the control of the private sector of the economy, for they can act as market makers. The establishment of these industries involves large amounts of capital, long period for installation of plants and a large-

scale of production with level of technology and skills. These requirements can best be met by foreign capital.

)f) **Creating Employment Opportunities:** The investment of foreign capital in the economic and social infrastructures directly creates employment opportunities. There is widespread unemployment and underemployment in undeveloped countries. As labor is cheap in undeveloped countries, capital borrowing from international agencies like World Bank could be utilized in labor-intensive schemes; construction works including railways, roads, irrigation and in rural area schemes because these projects have good potential employment that can absorb jobless and seasonal unemployed labor forces. Also to the extent foreign capital invested in such areas, has capacity to create employment opportunities directly and indirectly because it raises the rate of economic growth and development.

)g) **Filling the Foreign Exchange Gap:** Foreign capital contributes to economic development by filling the resource gap between targeted investments and locally mobilized savings; it also contributes to development by filling the foreign exchange gap. The gap between targeted foreign exchange requirements and those derived from net export earnings plus net foreign aid has always been wide. Thus, under such circumstances, an inflow of foreign capital cannot only alleviate the existing deficit but can function to remove such deficit on a long-term basis if it generates new export potential. Moreover, most developing countries are facing balance of payments problems because their import requirements are growing while their exports do not grow at an adequate rate. Thus these countries need capital goods and intermediate goods for industrialization, food, edible oils and so on for the growing population, in addition to other consumer goods which people want but not domestically produced. Also the repayment of earlier debts and interest on borrowings, royalties, profits claims a sizable share in the export earnings of such countries. And because these countries export primary products having inelastic demand, their earnings do not increase enough, so in such situation foreign capital can help in removal of all these difficulties.

)h) **Raising Government Revenue:** Foreign capital can cause an increase in the government's revenues. If the government adapts a policy that allows multinational corporations and concerns to function in the country, this would avoid importing and start import substitution program which can contribute to development and at the same time government can get share in their profits, in addition to the revenues from taxes of these multinationals.

)i) **Developing Human Resources:** When foreign capital especially private foreign capital comes into a country, is in a form of plant, machinery, and equipments. They are not only providing financial resources and new factories to the poor countries, but also provide a package of resources including managerial experiences, entrepreneurial abilities and technological skills. All these are transferred directly or indirectly to the local managers, technicians, and entrepreneurs through actual work

experience and in-job-training. Also local managers can learn from them to establish relations with overseas institutions, diversify markets, propagate the quality of their products and in general, become more familiar with better international trade relations. When modern machinery and equipments are transferred to Less Developing Country (LDCs), technological benefits are also transferred which causes the improvement of production process in the country.

)j) **Creating Industrial Culture:** Socio-cultural values have their own place in economic development of a country. The industrial culture is something different from what the Less Developing Countries (LDCs) are familiar with. Foreign capital can bring new values; new ways of life, working time programs and discipline in operations, the ways of working of foreign firms have effects on local firms and entrepreneurs as well as the workers. Thus, foreign capital can bring new values and attitudes which are basic to economic development (Mahajan, 1992, pp. 219-223 .(

.4**Deficit Financing:** According to Dr. Mukund Mahajan (1992, p. 190-191) "Deficit financing generally refers to an excess of current expenditure over current revenue of the government. Thus deficit financing means the total borrowing of the government from the central bank and commercial banking system, in addition to spending from hoardings or balances with the government printing additional new amount of the currency notes". Deficit financing is another source of capital formation in developing countries. New additional amount of money has to be printed out to match with increase in the aggregate of real output under the planned development which leads to the increase in the demand for money as the monetized sector of the economy expands at the expense of the non-monetized or subsistence sectors. Another reason to pursue deficit financing policy is to use the existing unemployed and underemployed labor in schemes with quick yield results so that the inflationary potential may be neutralized by an increase in the supply of output in the short time (Ahuja, 1982, p. 297). Deficit financing can play a significant role in economic development through the following ways:

)a) **Economic Revival:** By the practice of deficit financing, depression can be done away with and recovery can be achieved, because an immediate increase in the level of employment is possible. Thus deficit financing serves as the starting point of the recovery of an economy.

)b) **Economic development:** As a result of deficit financing, increases can occur in the aggregate demand which in turn stimulates the production process. Government can undertake investment by itself in desired and essential fields, which can be conducive to the economic development. In addition, the slight increase in prices of goods and services that resulting from deficit financing can be helpful for economic development for it leads to an increase in the level of investment.

)c) **Meeting the Growing Demand for Money:** Due to the monetization process of non-monetized sectors, increasing real incomes, and an increasing want of people to hold money, are the causes of an

increase in the demand for money in undeveloped countries. Thus deficit financing is useful in meeting this demand for additional money.

)d) As a Source of Finance: When income from taxation, borrowing, foreign aid and other sources reaches its limitation, additional funds can be generated only by deficit financing which can raise prices in short-run, but would return to their normal level once the output has increased.

)e) Increase the Rate of Investment: When there is deficiency in private investment, it is possible for the government to raise the rate of investment by printing new additional amount of the currency notes especially in the time of depression as well as in the time of development.

)f) Financing Economic and Social Overheads: New additional amount of currency can be printed to finance construction of economic and social overheads like roads, schools, hospitals, supply of electricity, supply of water, provision of technical education, research in laboratories and so on and as a result the production as well as the supply of various commodities in the market increases (Mahajan, 1992, pp. 192-193 .(

.5Profits of Public Undertakings/Investments: In undeveloped countries, the scope of the public sector has progressively expanded in the spheres of industrial, financial and commercial sectors that in which a large amount of resources should be generated and mobilized. The state trading organizations which conducting any domestic or foreign trade should suitably adjust their price policy to mobilize resources in the form of trading profits (Ahuja, 1982, p. 297.(

.6Public Expenditure: The role of development expenditure in underdeveloped countries lies in increasing the growth rate of the economy, providing more employment opportunities, raising income and standard of living, reducing inequalities of income and wealth, encouraging private enterprises, and bringing about regional balance in the economy. This role of expenditure can be highlighted as the following:

)a) Heavy and Basic Goods Industries: Public expenditure on development can be use for establishment of heavy and basic goods industries to increase the growth rate of the economy while investment in the capital goods sector increases the production in the long-run.

)b) Consumer Goods and Raw Materials: For the purpose of meeting the immediate needs in developing economy, public expenditure should be directed towards agriculture production to meet the growing demand for goods and raw materials, and to increase the supply of consumer goods by encouraging the establishment and expansion of the small industries sector which may also provide sufficient employment opportunities. The growth rate of the economy can be increased only when public expenditure fulfills the short-term and the long-term objectives of the development plan. Public expenditure can be also used to prevent inflation within the economy by securing balance between demand for and supply of goods.

)c) Economic Overheads: Economic overheads are such public works like roads, railways, canals, power plant projects, and so on. When government spends on such projects, it can provide employment opportunities to the people. The provision of such public works helps to increase production, trade, and commerce as well as the incomes and employment.

)d) Social Overheads: Public expenditure is used on social overheads as schools, hospitals, housing, and education and so on. These infrastructures accelerate the development of the country .

)e) Allocation of Resources: Public expenditure helps in the allocation of resources towards the desired channels as agriculture sector in order to remove shortage in food products. Government can use public funds to open fair price shops or may subsidize food for the working classes to maintain their health and efficiency. Government through trading can encourage more production.

)f) Public Enterprises: To increase the production of certain essential commodities and to end private monopoly in various spheres of the production, and to supplement private, the government may start public enterprises and public expenditure can be directed to provide public utility services to develop and conserve natural resources, to establish basic and key industries like heavy electrical, chemicals, fertilizers, machine tools and defense productions.

)g) To Stimulate Private Enterprises: Public expenditure helps in stimulating of private enterprises through the establishment of state-owned financial institutions to provide cheap or low interest credit to farmers, small and large industries. It also encourage the agricultural and industrial sectors of the economy by means of grants, subsidies, tax exemptions and so on. Moreover, the public expenditure of government on economic and social overheads paves the way for the establishment and expansion of the private sector.

)h) To Remove Inequalities: Developing countries are characterized by extreme inequalities of income and wealth. Through public expenditure on education, health and medical facilities that help in human capital formation, government would lessen the inequalities and as a result, the earning power of the working population is enhanced. Rising public expenditure causes rapid economic development which leads to removal of the barriers of mobility of production factors, expansion and spread of occupations, provision of more jobs to the people, with the attained skills the level of wages tends to rise within the economy. Moreover, industrialization increases the share of wages and decreases the share of profits in national income in the long run, thus the gap between higher and lower income is narrowed.

)i) To Remove Regional Imbalance: If economic affairs have left to the market forces, the main activities would concentrate in some regions, and the rest may be in a situation of backwardness. Through public expenditure regional imbalances could be removed, because less developed areas and backward regions can be developed by starting certain projects like building of dams, digging of

canals, establishment of new industries which will not only promote but also secure larger employment opportunities, increase per capita output and income of such regions or areas in the developing economies (Jhingan, 2012, pp. 636-637).

b) Monetary Policy: In underdeveloped countries, monetary policy is used to maintain price stability, to prevent the occurrence of business cycle or fluctuations in an economy, to accelerate economic growth of the country, and to remove poverty and unemployment in addition to bridge the balance of payments deficit. There are three instruments which are taken under the monetary policy. First instrument is the changes in the bank rate. When there is a depression in the economy the central bank overcomes it by lowering the bank rate and as a result the fall in bank rate leads to the fall in market rates of interest which in turn causes rise in investment which brings about the increase in aggregate demand and helps to remove depression. On the other hand when there is inflation in the economy or rising prices, the rate is raised so as to push up the market rates of interest and with the rise in the market rates of interest, both investment and consumption are discouraged which cause the fall in aggregate demand and brings to reduction in the price level. Second instrument is the open market operations. When the economy is in the depression, then the purchase of financial instruments by the central bank from the open market is called for. As a result of the purchasing of the government securities from open market at time of depression, the quantity of cash at the commercial banks would go up and they will be in the position to expand credit for investment by business people; and with the increase in investment, the aggregate demand will increase which will help to cure depression. When the economy is in the situation of inflation, the central bank could sell the government securities to the commercial banks in the open market, and as a result of this, the quantity of cash in such banks would be reduced and the banks will restrict the credit to the investors which can lead to the fall of the aggregate demand which in turn checks the inflation. Selective or qualitative credit control can be used to regulate the amount of bank credit for particular purposes, to stimulate, restrict or stabilize the bank credit for specific investment schemes (Ahuja, 1982, pp. 288-290).

2.9.2 Trade and Industrialization Policies: Roughly 75% of the world population lives in the low-income or middle-income developing countries. These countries are characterized by low per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP), high levels of illiteracy, high birth rates and inadequate sheltering and sanitation. The majority of these countries devote a larger share of their economy to agricultural production than do by the industrialized countries. These countries are characterized by shortage of physical capital. Their exports tend to be focused on only a few items, usually primary products, such as agricultural goods, crude oil and minerals, or basic manufactures like textiles and shoes. For undeveloped countries to improve the circumstances and to encourage industrialization of their

economies, they have relied on the intensive use of the following trade policies and industrial strategies :

)a) Primary-Export-Led Development Policy: A primary-export-led development strategy involves government programs designed to exploit natural comparative advantage by increasing production of a few export goods mostly related to the countries' resource base, and exporting them in return for manufactured goods produced elsewhere. The hope is that standard of living could rise due to specialization along the line of comparative advantage. In addition to this usual static gain from trade, there are several benefits to the primary-export-led development policy which including the quite possible underutilization of factors in the absence of trade. For instance, without international trade, a country with large amount of fertile land might not put all of its land into cultivation. This would mean that the country would be at a production point inside its production possibility curve. Trade would encourage more intensive use of existing production factors. Other benefit of such policy is that it serves to entice the inflow of foreign capital. Foreign firms could locate in the country to help it to expand its export sectors. When development occurs, other foreign investment might situate in related sectors, thereby helping to facilitate the development of other industries. The inflow of foreign capital would cause the production possibility curve of the developing country to shift out. Also this policy has linkage effects which refer to the benefits to other industries or sectors of underdeveloped economy that occur as one industry expand. For example, the growth of large-scale mining sector could encourage the development of a local mining-equipment industry. Other linkage effects would occur when the development of an export sector leads to the provision or development of economic infrastructure, such as roads, railways, harbors, telecommunications, electricity, and the like. Such development of infrastructure serves to lower the costs of other industries operating in that country which in turn causes further development. Despite the benefits of primary-export-led policy, there are many problems facing it. The world markets for primary products do not grow fast enough to support development, because the largest markets for primary products are the industrialized countries and as these countries grow, their demand for primary products grow too, but not at the same rate. So over time, primary products would represent a declining share of industrialized countries' imports. Other problem is that the exporters of primary products face secular deterioration in their terms of trade; this is because over time the price of primary product exports relative to manufactured goods imports will tend to fall. This fall could occur from two reasons, first, if the demand for primary goods sluggish in industrialized countries, there will be downward pressure on the growth of primary product prices, second, if the governments of developing countries pursue export-expansion policies, the supplies of these products will rise in the world markets, then this will cause fall in their prices (Husted and Melvin, 2010, pp.271-273.)

)b) Import-Substitution Development Policy: This policy seeks to promote rapid industrialization and therefore development by erecting high barriers to foreign goods to encourage local production. This approach to development applies the infant industry argument for protection to one or more targeted industries in underdeveloped economies. The government determines those sectors best suited for local industrialization, raises barriers to trade on the products produced in these sectors so as to encourage local investment and lowers the barriers over time as the industrialization process takes place. If the government has targeted sectors correctly, the industries in these sectors survive even when the protection comes down. In this policy corporate managers who used to convince politicians that protection should be imposed in the first place recognize the strong link between profits and protection. Countries that follow import-substitution strategies tend to be characterized by high barriers to trade that grow over time. According to Robert J. Carbaugh, (2011, p. 280), import-substitution policy has several advantages. These include, low risks of establishing a home industry to replace imports, because the home market for the manufactured goods already exist. Another advantage is that protection process for local industries against imports is so easy for undeveloped countries, than to force advanced countries to reduce their trade restrictions on products exported by them. Also there is the advantage of that foreigners could have an incentive to locate manufacturing plants in underdeveloped countries which provide job opportunities for local workers. Import-substitution policies have many problems. First they tend to limit the development of industries that supply inputs to the protected industries, because managers of these protected industries almost seriously opposed any government policy that increased the costs of their inputs, they tend to oppose protection policy for other industries. Local managers utilized relatively capital-intensive production techniques which lower the growth of employment in the newly industrialized sectors. Once the whole development strategy depends upon the choices made by government officials, the import-substitution strategy encourages corruption, because government officials are bribed which represent additional economic waste over and above the usual costs of production. And the resources used in bribery activities could have been devoted to productive enterprises (Ibid, pp. 275-276.)

)c) Outward-Looking Development Policy: Instead of pursuing import-substitution policies, some developing countries have adopted outward-looking development strategies. The policy involves government targeting of sectors in which the country has potential comparative advantage. For instance, if a country is well endowed with low-skilled labor, the government would encourage the development of labor-intensive industries in the hope of promoting exports of these products. This type of strategy includes government policies such as keeping relatively open markets so that internal prices reflect world market prices, maintaining an undervalued exchange rate so that export prices remain competitive in world markets, and imposing only minimal government interference on factor



markets so that wages and rents reflect true scarcity. In addition, successful exporters often enjoy additional benefits, including special preference for the use of port facilities, communications networks, and lower loan and tax rates (Ibid, p. 276.)

)d) Flying-Geese Development Policy: This policy has pursued particularly in East Asia economies in which countries gradually move up in technological development by following in the pattern of countries ahead of them in development process. For instance, Taiwan and Malaysia take over leadership in apparel and textiles from Japan as Japan moves into higher-technology sectors of automotive, electronic, and other capital goods industries. Later when Taiwan and Malaysia have been able to upgrade to automotive and electronic products, apparel and textile industries move to Thailand, Vietnam and Indonesia. The flying-geese development strategy is a result of many market factors like labor abundant which let such countries to be globally competitive in labor-intensive industries, such as footwear and graduate to more capital-intensive or skill-intensive industries as savings and education deepen the availability of capital and skilled workers. East Asian governments have utilized several versions of an export platform such as bonded warehouses, free trade zones, joint ventures, and strategic alliances with multi-national enterprises. The governments supported these mechanisms with economic policies that aided the incentives for labor-intensive exports (Carbaugh, 2011, pp. 285-286 .)

2.10 Measurement of Economic Growth and Development: Economic development is measured by economic methods and human indices. Methods such as gross national product; real gross national product per capita; economic welfare index; and social indicators are economic methods. Human development indices are physical quality of life index; human development index; and development as freedom and liberation .

2.10.1 Economic methods: There are four ways to measure economic development economically:

)a) The Gross National Product (GNP): Gross national product is one of the methods to measure economic development that is in terms of an increase in the economy's real national income over a long period of time. The gross national product is not a satisfactory measure to the economic growth and development because of the following defects.

.1 Real national income is the country's total output of final goods and services in real terms rather than in money terms. Price changes are ruled out while real national income is calculating. Therefore, this way of measurement is unrealistic because variations in prices are inevitable, and short period rises in national income which occur during business cycles do not constitute as economic development.

.2 This way fails to take into consideration changes in the population growth rate, while a rapid and faster growth rate constrains a rise in real national income.

.3The gross national product figure does not reveal the costs of environmental pollution, urbanization, industrialization, and population growth to the society. It just considers natural resources to be free and it treats the earth like business in terms of liquidation.

.4Gross national product tells nothing about the distribution of income in the economy.

.5Gross national product is always measured in terms of money, but there are a number of goods and services which are difficult to be assessed in terms of money, such as painting as a hobby by an individual, and the bringing up of children by the mother. By excluding all such services from the calculation of gross national product, its value is less than what it actually is.

.6Due to the double counting which arises from the failure to distinguish properly between the final and intermediate goods, there exists the fear of a commodity or service being including more than once during the calculation and this leads the GNP to be many times than the actual.

.7Gross national product makes no distinction between valuable services such as bringing up children by mothers and between the manufacture of products which are injurious to human health like wine and cigarettes.

.8Income earned through illegal activities is not included in gross national product calculation, while such services and goods have value and tend to meet the needs of the consumers, but by leaving them out, the gross national product is less than the actual .

.9It is difficult to include transfer payments such as pension and unemployment allowance in gross national product, because on the one hand, they are a part of individual income and on the other, they are government expenditures .

.10Gross national product as a measure of economic development doubles counts both additions and cures. Because when food and wine are consumed and when money is spent on food process and curing of addiction of alcoholism the value is doubled.

.11Gross national product excludes capital gains and losses which accrue to the investors by increases and decreases in the market value of their capital assets or because of changes in demand on the basis that such changes do not result from current economic activities, but it includes only the capital gains and losses which resulting from the current flow or non-flow of productive activities. Thus the gross national product is less than the actual.

.12The deduction of capital depreciation which is a charge on profits, from gross national product leads to the net national product (NNP) and lowers the value of gross national product. In addition to that there are difficulties in estimation of the current value of depreciation of an asset whose expected life is more years because institutions usually, depreciate their assets base on the original costs, even if the prices of capital goods are changing, also the depreciation valuation adjustment is full of statistical difficulties.

.13Gross national product includes all inventories changes whether negative or positive and multiplies them by current prices, and then the figure is added to the total current production of the institution, while firms record all their inventories at the original costs rather than at replacement costs. In addition to that when prices rise there are gains in the book value of inventories but when the prices fall there are losses. So in such procedure the book value of inventories overstates or understates the actual value.

.14The calculation of gross national product in terms of money leads to underestimation of real gross national product because it does not include the leisure in the process of the production of a commodity. For example, if one of the two individuals with equal income works for longer hours than the other, the gross national product as a measure of economic development and growth understates the real income of the person who works for longer time. Thus it places no value on the leisure.

.15Gross national product includes a good number of public goods and services such as police and army services, contribution of irrigation and power projects in terms of money to the gross national product which cannot be estimated correctly.

.16Gross national product as a method to measure economic development has not been successful in reduction of poverty, unemployment, and inequalities of incomes and wealth, in addition to the raising standards of living in developing economies (Jhingan, 1997, pp. 5-8.)

)b) The Real Gross National Product (GNP) per Capita: The gross national product per capita is another measure of economic development, it relates to an increase in the per capita real income of the economy over the long period of time. This measure emphasizes that for economic development the rate of increase in real per capita income should be higher than the growth rate population. The real gross national product per capita is the most widely used measure of economic development. But there are a significant number of difficulties that face this measure.

.1An increase in per capita income may not raise the real standards of living of the masses or of the majority poor in developing economies, because people might increase the rate of saving or government might use the increased income for military or other purposes which could cause fall in the per capita consumption.

.2With increase in real per capita income the mass majority of people could remain poor if the increased income goes to the pockets of the few rich instead of the many poor.

.3The gross national product per capita subordinates or treats other problems regarding the structure of the society, the size and composition of its population, its institutions and culture, the resource patterns and even distribution of output among the society members as less or secondary problems.

.4The real per capita income estimates fail to measure adequately changes in output due to changes in price level. The index numbers used to measure changes in the price level are simply rough

approximations. Moreover, the price levels vary in different countries. The consumers' wants and preference also differ even in the same country. Therefore, the figures of the gross national product per capita of different countries are often misleading and incomparable.

.5International comparisons of the real gross national product per capita are inaccurate due to exchange rate conversion of different currencies into a common currency, in word the United States of America dollar, through the use of official exchange rates. These nominal exchange rates do not reflect the relative purchasing power of different currencies. Thus the comparisons of gross national product per capita of different countries are erroneous or not correct. Because the use of a single currency unit for computing the total output of goods and services underestimates the per capita national incomes of underdeveloped economies as compared with the developed economies. The rates of exchange are primarily based on the prices of internationally traded goods. In addition that there are many goods and services in developing nations that never traded internationally and are also priced low.

.6The real gross national product per capita as a measure of development fails to take into account problems associated with basic needs like nutrition, health, sanitation, housing, water and education. The improvement in living standards by provision of basic needs cannot be measured by increase in the gross national product per capita (Ibid, pp. 8-9.)

)c) Economic Welfare Index: The economic welfare is also another measure for economic development. It refers to sustained improvement in material well being which can reflected in an increasing flow of goods and services. This measure is also not free from limitations.

.1The consumption of goods and services depends on tastes and preferences of individuals. Therefore, it is difficult to have the same weights in preparing the welfare index of individuals.

.2It is possible that with the increase in real gross national income per capita, the rich might have become richer and the poor poorer. Thus increase in economic welfare does not lead to economic development till the distribution of national income is justifiable.

.3There is difficulty which comes from the valuation of the output, because it may be valued at market prices whereas economic welfare is measured by an increase in real national output or income. So there is different distribution of output bases on different prices. Accordingly therefore both the composition and value of the national output are also different.

.4The expansion of real national output leads to real cost in terms of pain and sacrifice and to real social costs, because the increase in the output may result from long working hours in the economy .

)d) Social Indicators or Basic Needs Attainment: Social indicators are referred to the basic needs for development. Basic needs focus on alleviation of poverty by providing basic human needs to the poor. The direct provision of such basic needs affects poverty in a short period of time with fewer monetary

resources than the real gross national product (GNP) and the real gross national product (GNP) per capita which aim at increasing productivity and incomes of the poor automatically over a long-run. Basic needs leads to a higher level of productivity and incomes through human development in the form of educated and healthy people. The main merit of the social indicators is that they concern with ends which in turn being human development. Economic development is a means to these ends. Social indicators tell us how countries allocate their gross national product (GNP) among alternative uses. Moreover, they give an idea about the presence, absence or deficiency of certain basic needs. This approach shifts the attention from maximizing output to minimizing poverty. Basic needs include adequate nutrition or food, health, primary education, sanitation, water supply, and housing. There are six indicators in this measure and they are.

.1Food: Is a basic need that measured in form of calorie supply per head or as a percentage of required proteins.

.2Health: Is measured in form of life expectancy at birth.

.3Primary education: Literacy rates, primary school enrollment as percentage of the population aged 5-14 years old.

.4Sanitation: Is an infant mortality rate per thousand births, or a percentage of the population with access to sanitation facilities.

.5Water supply: Is an infant mortality rate per thousands of births, or a percentage of the population with access to potable water.

.6Housing: Is none because the existing measures such as people per room do not indicate the quality of housing.

There are some defects in the use of social indicators as economic development measurement, and they as follow.

.1There is no certain specific number and type of items to be included in the construction of such index.

.2There are no specific weights to the various items which may depend upon social, economic and political structure or set-up of the country, because if each country chooses its own social indicators and assigns weights to them, their international comparisons would be inaccurate.

.3Social indicators are concerning with current welfare and are not related to the future.

.4The majority of indicators are inputs and not outputs.

.5They involve value judgments; therefore to avoid such value judgments gross national product (GNP) per capita is favored as the measure of economic development (Ibid, pp. 10-12 and Nafziger, 2006, p. 42.)

2.10.2Human Development Indices: There are three types of human development indices. They are.

)a) Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI): In 1979 Physical Quality of Life Index was constructed by Morris D. Morris based on combination of three components indicators of infant mortality rate, life expectancy at age one and basic literacy at age fifteen to measure performance in meeting the most basic needs of the people. This index represents a wide range of indicators such as health, education, drinking water, nutrition and sanitation. Each indicator of the three components is placed on a scale of zero to one hundred, where zero represents an absolutely worst performance and the one hundred represents an absolutely best performance. The physical quality of life index is calculated by averaging the three indicators giving equal weight to each and the index is also scaled from zero to one hundred. The improvement in these indicators means an increase in the proportion of people benefiting from them. Morris regards life expectancy at age one and infant mortality rate as very good indicators of the physical quality of life index. The literacy indicator reflects the potential for development. Morris observes that the presence or absence of social relations, nutritional status, public health, education and family environment determine a society's physical quality of life index, and that it takes considerable time to build institutional arrangements that can generate and sustain a high physical quality of life index. The main problem of physical quality of life index is that the physical quality of life index (PQLI) is a limited measure of basic needs. It supplements but not supplants the gross national product per capita, it does not measure economic growth, it does not explain the changing structure of economic and social organization, it does not measure economic development, and it does not measure the total welfare. It measures the qualities of life which are vital for the poor (Jhingan, 1997, pp. 14-16.)

)b) Human Development Index (HDI): In 1990 the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) has represented the measurement of human development in terms of Human Development Index (HDI). The human development index is a composite index of three social indicators which are life expectancy, adult literacy and years of schooling. It also takes into account the real gross national product (GNP) per capita. The human development index is a composite index of achievement in three fundamental dimensions that is long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living. The human development index value for a country is calculated by taking the following three indicators.

.1Longevity: As measured by life expectancy at birth from 25 to 85 years.

.2Educational attainment: As measured by a combination of adult literacy combined primary, secondary and tertiary enrollment ratios, in words adult literacy ratio from 0% to 100% and combined enrollment ratio from 0% to 100%.

.3Standards of living: As measured by real gross national product (GNP) per capita based on purchasing power parity in terms of United States dollar (\$ PPP .(

The human development index (HDI) is a simple average of life expectancy index, educational attainment index, and the adjusted real gross national product per capita in terms of dollar (PPP \$) index. It is calculated by dividing the sum of these three indices by three. The maximum and minimum values for each variable which are fixed are reduced to a scale between zero and one, with each country at some point on the scale. The human development index value for each country indicates how far it has attained certain goals such as an average life expectancy of 85 years, access to educational for all and standard of living. The human development index ranks countries in relation to each other. Countries with the human development index (HDI) value below 0.5 are considered to have a low level of human development, those between 0.5 and 0.8 a medium level, and those above 0.8 a high level. Countries are also ranked by their gross national product (GNP) per capita. The human development index (HDI) tells us about the progress towards development. The most limitations of this method are.

.1The three indicators are not the only indicators of human development, there can be others like infant mortality rate, food and nutrition and so on.

.2The human development index (HDI) measures relative rather than absolute human development, so that if all countries improve their human development index (HDI) value at the same weight rate, the low human development countries will not get recognition for their improvement.

.3The human development index (HDI) of a country may shift the focus away from the high inequality found within it.

.4The Gross National Product per capita ranking supplementing with other social indicators is better than Human Development Index (Ibid, pp. 16-19.)

)c) Development as Freedom and Liberation: The genuine economic development is based on self-reliance and is self-directed. The development programs should be prepared, or seen to be prepared by national authorities rather than by foreign advisors and international organizations. Otherwise commitment over development will be lacking. Self-reliance does not mean isolation from the global economy. It means that developing countries, when receiving funds and assistance from developed countries and international agencies, should be in charge of their planning and development so that they can benefit from learning through experience. Amartya Sen has emphasized on the broadening of choice rather than freedom from external domination. He argues that freedom is the ultimate goal of economic life as well as the most efficient means of realizing general welfare. Overcoming deprivations is a central part of development. Un-freedoms include hunger, famine, ignorance, an unsustainable economic life, unemployment, barriers to economic fulfillment by women or minority communities, premature death, violation of political freedom and basic liberty, threats to environment, and little access to health, sanitation or clean water. Freedom of exchange, labor contract, social

opportunities, and protective security are not just ends or components of development but also important means to ends such as development and freedom. The relation between incomes and achievements, between commodities and capabilities, between our economic wealth and ability to live as we would like may not be strong and depends on circumstances rather than individual wealth. Democratic rights and liberties are related with economic and food security. And low income, with a deprivation of basic capabilities, contributes to hunger and poverty (Nafziger, 2006, pp. 44-46 .(

2.11 Concept of Sustainable Economic Development: This section deals with definition of; the principal goals; factors; challenges; and the strategies of economic sustainable development.

2.11.1 Definition of Sustainable Development: Sustainable development referring to "progress that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs"; while the term sustainability means not only the survival of the human being species but also maintaining the productivity of natural resources, and human assets from generation to generation (Ibid, p. 413 .(

2.11.2 Goals of Sustainable Development: One of the principal outcomes of the Rio+20 Conference in 2012 was the agreement by Member States to develop a set of Sustainable Development Goals that would transition the world from the Millennium Development Goals to the post-2015 development agenda. The following are the main Sustainable Development goals .

a) To end poverty and hunger, in all their forms and dimensions, and to ensure that all human beings can fulfill their potential in dignity and equality and in a healthy environment.

b) To protect the planet from degradation, through sustainable consumption and production, sustainably managing its natural resources and taking urgent action on climate change, so that it can support the needs of the present and future generations.

c) To mobilize the means required to implement this Agenda through a revitalized Global Partnership for Sustainable Development, based on a spirit of strengthened global solidarity, focused in particular on the needs of the poorest and most vulnerable and with the participation of all countries, all stakeholders and all people.

d) To foster peaceful, just and inclusive societies which are free from fear and violence. Because there can be no sustainable development without peace and no peace without sustainable development”.

e) To ensure that all human beings can enjoy prosperous and full lives and that economic, social and technological progress occurs in harmony with nature (Human Development Report, 2015, p. 132.(

2.11.3 Determinants of Sustainable Development: In this sub-section issues like ecosystem services; gender equality; and social, economic and environmental ethics are thoroughly discussed as some



main determinants or factors of sustainable development .

)a) Ecosystem Services: The ecosystem approach can be defined as a strategy for the integrated management of land, water and living resources that promotes conservation and sustainable use in an equitable way. Ecosystems provide direct services, such as food and water, regulate climate, support nutrient cycles and crop pollination, provide spiritual and recreational benefits and preserve diversity. In the short term, it is the world's poor that depend most heavily on these ecosystem services but it must be emphasized that in the long run, all of humanity depend on these ecosystem services for their survival and well-being. Maintaining healthy ecosystems is therefore not only essential in order to ensure environmental sustainability, but also to ensure continued human development. Ecosystem services had been treated as an infinite resource, over the past twenty years it has been increasingly recognized that they are finite and that there is a link between ecosystem services and human development. The sustainable use of ecosystems is a precondition for long term economic and social development and hence needed to be addressed as crosscutting when designing sectoral policies. Sustainable use of ecosystem services relying on a mix of regulatory instruments and economic incentives, including the use of pro-equity payment for ecosystem services. The natural disasters, climate change, the food crisis and the surge in fuel prices, which the United Nations Secretary-General recently identified as top priority issues, were all closely linked to biodiversity. With a rate of biodiversity loss estimated to be up to one hundred times the natural extinction rate, he stressed the urgent need to make headway towards the goal to significantly reducing the loss of biodiversity by 2010. Sustainable development should no longer be approached through the lens of the three pillar strategy but instead it should be realized that environmental sustainability is a precondition, without which economic and social progress cannot be sustained in the long run (Economic and Social Council, pp.177-178.)

)b) Gender Equality: The imperatives of achieving gender equality and attaining sustainable development were clearly acknowledged in the outcome document of the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development which recognizes the gender equality and women's empowerment as important factor for sustainable development and the common future. The ensured women's equal rights, access and opportunities for participation and leadership in the economy, society and political decision-making have a vital role to play in achieving sustainable development. The recognized leadership role of women could promote gender equality and women's empowerment and ensure their full and effective participation in sustainable development policies, programs and decision-making at all levels. The poverty and hunger, rising inequalities, ecosystem destruction and climate change, all of which in large part, are consequences, of prevailing economic models and paradigms, that impose

unprecedented challenges for the realization of women's rights and risk undermining further the sustainability of their households, communities and societies. Dominant development patterns have both entrenched gender inequalities and proved unsustainable as regards many issues, including economic growth and work; population and reproduction; food and agriculture; and water, sanitation and energy. Yet the possibilities of constructing, through vigorous democratic deliberation that involves states, women and men, civil society organizations, the private sector and global institutions, alternative development trajectories within which gender equality and sustainability can powerfully reinforce each other. International norms and standards on women's and girls' human rights and gender equality provide a solid basis for advancing action to strengthen the vital role of women in achieving sustainable development of women. Discrimination on the basis of sex is prohibited under all major international human rights instruments. The Convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women obligates states to take all appropriate measures to ensure the full development and advancement. According to International Labor Organization (ILO) conventions have continuously enhanced women's rights to and at work, including, most recently, those of domestic workers .

The series of United Nations conferences convened during the 1990s advanced international norms and agreements on sustainable development and gender equality, the empowerment of women and the human rights of women and girls. The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, held in 1992, provided a landmark forum to advance the global policy framework on sustainable development. The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, the Convention on Biological Diversity and the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification in Those Countries Experiencing Serious Drought and/or Desertification, Particularly in Africa, in addition to Principle 20 of the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development states that the full participation of women is essential to achieving sustainable development. The Convention on Biological Diversity recognizes that the integration of women's rights and gender equality in biodiversity conservation and sustainable use is not only intrinsically important, but can also improve the efficiency of interventions, programs and resources. In 1993, the World Conference on Human Rights, held in Vienna, affirmed, in the Vienna Declaration and Program of Action, that the "human rights of women and of the girl-child are an inalienable, integral and indivisible part of universal human rights". The Program of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development, adopted in 1994, marked the beginning of a new chapter on the interrelationship between population, human rights and sustainable development. The outcome positioned gender equality and the empowerment of women as global priorities and emphasized the wellbeing of individuals as the key focus of the global agenda on population and sustainable development. The programme of action highlights a number of critical

areas for advancing gender equality, including universal access to family planning and sexual and reproductive health services and reproductive rights; equal access to education for girls; and equal sharing of responsibilities for care and housework between women and men .

The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, adopted in 1995, set a landmark global agenda for women's human rights, gender equality and the empowerment of women. The Declaration provides that "the advancement of women and the achievement of equality between women and men are a matter of human rights and a condition for social justice and are the only way to build a sustainable, just and developed society". The Platform for Action calls on governments to integrate gender concerns and perspectives into policies and programs for sustainable development. The upcoming 20-year global review and appraisal of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action provides an important opportunity for renewed commitments for accelerated action. The Rome Declaration on World Food Security and the World Food Summit Plan of Action adopted in 1996, urged governments to "ensure an enabling political, social, and economic environment designed to create the best conditions for the eradication of poverty and for durable peace, based on full and equal participation of women and men, which is most conducive to achieving sustainable food security for all" (The World Survey on the Role of Women in Development Report, 2014, pp.19-20 .(

)c) Social, Economic, and Environmental Ethics: Social justice and economics are both addressed within the social ethics, which is concerned with the ways that a community or society or even a nation can be organized so as to achieve common goods that are not reducible to the sum of personal aims and interests. While the environmental ethics of sustainability addresses not merely human welfare but also the good of non-human nature, including values such as clean air and water, biodiversity, ecological integrity, and the welfare of non-human animals. Social ethics is a subfield in both philosophical and religious ethics that is primarily concerned with the ethical foundations, dimensions, and consequences of collective decisions, attitudes, and actions. It is social both because it looks primarily at decisions and actions that are collective rather than individual and personal and because it is concerned with goods that are collectively achieved. In contrast, more personal or individualistic ethical systems may be concerned with actions that do not directly affect larger groups of people, such as personal choices. Further, even intensely personal moral decisions are made in a larger social context and on the basis of values and attitudes that are the result of social learning, social experiences, and social relations. Thus the line between personal and social ethics is never hard and fast. Still, it is possible to distinguish between moral issues that are primarily personal and those that have immediate and unavoidable social implications. The social ethics is most relevant for sustainability, because it is a quality of groups, including local communities, institutions, and entire societies. An ethic of sustainability is, then, a particular sort of social ethic. While individual

decisions and actions may have important ramifications for sustainability, they do so because they contribute to or detract from efforts to create and maintain more sustainable collectives. In other words, the goal of sustainability is a vision not simply of private benefit but rather of a common good. Traditional topics that concern social ethics include the morality of war and peace, the benefits of different forms of governance, civil and human rights, and the proper role and treatment of vulnerable social groups, along with many other issues. Social ethics has addressed the relations between individuals and larger groups, including the rights and responsibilities of the former and the beneficial as well as oppressive potential of the latter. In relation to development projects, social ethics might ask about the moral assumptions underlying various positions regarding cloning, about ethical issues raised in the actual procedure itself, and about the moral consequences if cloning takes place. Social ethicists may also be concerned with what vision of a good society is implied in or supported by a particular stance on cloning, or which social groups might benefit or suffer the most, or which collectively-shared goods might be advanced or reduced. While the ethics of sustainability uses many of the same sources, approaches, and thinkers as other branches of social ethics, sustainability raises new moral questions. Perhaps the most important of these come in relation to the integration of social goods with economic and environmental values. Economics by definition involves collective decisions and processes. Even individual financial decisions are made only in relation to and subject to the influence of larger economic forces. Economic ethics is concerned with the moral foundations, characteristics, and consequences of economic activities and institutions. Economic ethics may look at specific business practices or industries or at broader issues such as the moral values, implicit or explicit, that undergird economic policies and practices. When considering the ethical dimensions of economic systems, institutions, and decisions, a number of significant questions related to sustainability must be taken into account. One question concerns the definition of economic goals such as productivity, efficiency, and security. Efficiency, for example, is usually defined as the maximization of output in relation to certain inputs, and is a primary goal of many economic practices, systems, and institutions. The inputs at stake can vary, and depending on which ones are selected .

Agriculture, like sustainability more generally, is often assumed to be a practical, scientific, and technical undertaking rather than an ethical one. Any agricultural system, however, involves implicit or explicit efforts to live according to a particular definition of the good in the standards or rules that farmers and ranchers follow, the goals they seek, and the constraints by which they abide. Making explicit the values that underlie an agricultural system enables us to evaluate agriculture in relation to other values that are important for sustainability. This process is necessary in order to identify and transform unsustainable practices. In other words, only if we know what social and scientific goods

are being enacted can we judge their compatibility with the broader goals involved in sustainability. A major value in Western agriculture, efficiency, is defined as a minimization of human labor in order to produce ever larger harvests. The drive to reduce human labor has led to tremendous increases in the use of energy, mainly fossil fuels, and to the establishment of a particular type of farm. Such farms usually grow one or at most a few crops or raise only one species of animal. This reduction of diversity maximizes efficiency because you need fewer types of machines, but can create additional challenges, including the use of large amounts of artificial fertilizers and pesticides for plant production, and large amounts of waste in animal production. These farms employ very few people to work very large areas and thus rely heavily on large tractors and other machines and have led to a number of secondary consequences. These include the depopulation of rural communities, the loss of topsoil and biological diversity, and the contamination of soil, water, and air. It is possible to define efficiency in different terms, for example, in relation to the use of energy. Such sort of efficiency might lead to smaller, more diverse, more labor-intensive farms that have much smaller carbon footprints-farms .

Another important and related value for modern agriculture is productivity, which also entails implicit ethical priorities and generates consequences that are not always benevolent. From the perspective of social justice, the drive for productivity often leads to pressure for fewer workers to create more goods and services, which can lead to higher unemployment rates and inequities between different levels of workers, as well as stress for those doing the work. However, productivity, like efficiency, can be defined in more than one way. Productivity might mean meeting people's basic needs with a minimal expenditure of energy and labor. Seeking this sort of efficiency would shift economic priorities away from continual increases in production and consumption and toward the fulfillment of other goals, such as equitable distribution of resources, greater community solidarity, and increased leisure time. Large-scale, fossil fuel intensive industrial farms rarely promote the social, economic, or environmental values that are central to sustainability. Unless those values are made explicit, however, it is impossible to evaluate concrete practices and institutions or to develop alternatives. Simply establishing standards does not, of course, necessarily lead to real life changes. It may, however, constitute a necessary step in the movement toward more sustainable farms and ultimately toward more sustainable societies. In order to pursue these goals, professionals, scientists, policy makers, and citizens need accurate information and the analytical tools that can help them to clarify the ethical dimensions of sustainability and evaluate various decisions, projects, and in relation to those values. The third kind of ethics which involved in sustainability, is environmental ethics, and can be defined as philosophical reflection on and arguments about the value of non-human nature. Environmental ethics may be concerned about entire ecosystems or regions or with smaller units such

as species, individual non-human animals or plants, or landscape features such as mountains or forests. Environmental ethics in the West is shaped in particular by the work of Henry David Thoreau, who argued that human goods cannot be realized in isolation from nonhuman nature. Today environmental ethics is a large and diverse field, with a number of subfields and approaches. Here the most important point is the relationship between environmental ethics and the ethics of sustainability. This relationship is often left ambiguous, and when it is specified, it takes several different forms. Sometimes “environmental” is treated as a synonym for sustainability, in which case an ethic of sustainability would be virtually identical to environmental ethics. Another view would define sustainability as a subset of or specific approach within environmental ethics. In this approach, an ethic of sustainability would be identified with environmental philosophies that emphasize social and economic issues, such as environmental justice and human health issues. Some of the more human-centered approaches in environmental ethics thus might be understood as “sustainability” ethics. While non-human ethics often focus on wilderness and other aspects of nature apart from human goods. Here it is most accurate to understand environmental ethics as one part or subset of sustainability, corresponding to the environment as one of sustainability’s three key dimensions. This effort at integration is one of the most distinctive, and sometimes most difficult, aspects of sustainability. The attempt not only to include but to integrate social, economic, and environmental values makes the ethics of sustainability both especially challenging and especially promising. In its moral as well as practical dimensions, sustainability does not mean simply accumulating a list of divergent goals. Rather, it requires efforts to find common ground when possible and to adjudicate between different values and goals when necessary. Difference does not necessarily mean incompatibility or competition, however, and in fact sustainability rejects simplistic dualisms between social and environmental goods. Thus a sustainable ethic is holistic, in theory, insofar as it is guided by a vision in which social, economic, and environmental values not only coexist but, in many cases, reinforce each other. In many concrete situations, however, different ethical concerns and goals cannot be integrated harmoniously, and choices must be made about which to prioritize. A clear and well-considered process of ethical decision-making is also required in order to understand the issues at stake, the options available, and the potential consequences of various decisions (Charles J. Kibert and others, pp. 71-76.)

d) Alternative, Appropriate and Sustainable Technology: One approach to manage technology risk is to allow the uses of the technologies which are people and environmentally friendly have advantages in their deployment. Through the use of regulation, fees, taxes, or incentives, a society can exercise control over which technologies are permitted to enter the marketplace, permitting only those that are very low risk. There are two categories of technologies that often described as having these attributes,

and they are alternative and appropriate technologies. Alternative technology refers to those types of technologies that are dealing friendly to the environment. Technologies that mimic or imitate the nature or that relies on natural processes are often labeled as alternative technologies. Technologies that use resources economically foster recycling, use renewable and local resources, and limit the use of fossil fuels are examples of alternative technologies. Solar hot water heating, and wind energy generators are examples of alternative technologies. Appropriate technology includes the concept of alternative technology but in addition to considering the environmental attributes of a technology, also considers its ethical, cultural, social, and economic aspects. It can refer to technologies that are either the most effective for addressing problems in developing countries or that are socially and environmentally responsible in industrial countries. In the context of developing countries, it often refers to the simplest type of technology that can be used to accomplish a given end, with low capital cost. This is in contrast to the complex and often capital intensive technologies in the industrial world. Appropriate technology should not be confused with low technology. Solar panels that are used to power lighting systems would be considered appropriate technology. Devices that use minimal energy, durable, and provide a substitute for otherwise dangerous and unhealthy lighting systems are also considered appropriate technology. Food production systems that involve intensive gardening, and drip irrigation systems and that rely on simple tools would fit the description of appropriate technology (Ibid, pp. 46-47 ).(

2.11.4The Challenges of Sustainable Development: This sub-section reveals a range of pressing and interrelated challenges to the achievement of sustainable development. Such challenges include economic disparity and political inequality, extreme poverty, under-nourishment, serious diseases, marginalization, population growth, consumption, global energy use, global climate change, nitrogen loading, natural resource deterioration, loss of diversity, pollution, and growing water scarcity, in addition to other urban problems .

)a) Economic Disparity and Political Instability: The economic fortunes of most nations have risen steadily, in the past 20 years, but still too many nations have experienced economic decline and falling per capita incomes. Disparity in incomes between the rich and poor within nations, between wealthy and poorer nations, and between many multinational companies and the countries in which they operate, continues to widen. This means that a relatively small percentage of the world's people, nations and corporations control much of the world's economic and natural resources. This, as well as the marginalization of ethnic and other minorities from processes of governance and economic opportunity, contributes to instability. Political instability, sometimes leading to violent conflict, further hinders socio-economic progress in many countries and regions.

)b) Extreme Poverty: Even in these prosperous times, extreme poverty still ravages the lives of one out of every five persons in the developing world. In 1993, more than 1.3 billion people were living on less than US\$1 per day, and nearly one billion of them were in Asia and Pacific region. The highest proportion of the poor and the fastest growth in poverty are both in sub-Saharan Africa where half of the population was poor in 2000. The social diseases associated with poverty are on the rise in many countries with high rates of poverty. These include disease, family breakdown, endemic crime and the use of narcotic drugs.

)c) Under-Nourishment: Currently, global food production is adequate to meet overall human nutritional needs, but problems with the distribution of economic resources and foodstuffs mean that some 800 million people remain undernourished. Although world food production is still rising, several trends will make it more challenging to feed a growing world population. The rate of increase in the yields of major grain crops is slowing down, and post-harvest losses remain high. Soil degradation from erosion and poor irrigation practices continues to harm agricultural lands, jeopardizing production in some regions. In general, without a transition to more resource-efficient and less polluting farming methods, it will be difficult to meet world food needs in the future without increasing the environmental burden that stems from intensive agriculture.

)d) Diseases: Human Immunodeficiency Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) and malaria are serious diseases that erode both the productive capacity and the social fabric of hard-hit nations. In the worst affected countries, Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) has already had a profound negative impact on infant child and maternal mortality. In addition, nearly 500 million people suffer from acute malaria every year, and of whom one million die.

)e) Marginalization: Many countries are struggling under the combined pressures of slow economic growth, a heavy external debt burden, corruption, violent conflict and food insecurity. These problems can be exacerbated by actions taken in the North, such as trade protectionism. Many of the residents of these countries suffer from a lack of access to social services, energy supplies and infrastructure. Their ability to develop their potential economic assets is also hampered by lack of access to resources, to credit or to the means for influencing national policy. At best, some become refugees or economic migrants. As a result of these processes, poor countries and poor people are continually marginalized from the opportunities presented by the global economy.

)f) Population Growth: Population growth is expected to exacerbate these pressures, although it is usually people's localized concentration or their resource consumption levels that matter more than their mere numbers. World population now stands at nearly 8 billion, and while it is growing more slowly than predicted a few years ago; it is still expected to increase substantially before stabilizing.



Ninety-seven per cent of the estimated increase of two billion people over the next 20 years will live in the developing world.

)g) Consumption: The demands of people in high-consumption, developed economies can have a more dramatic environmental impact than in countries with low levels of per capita resource consumption. Consumption of natural resources by modern industrial economies remains very high in the range of 45–85 metric tons per person annually when all materials including soil erosion, mining wastes and other ancillary materials are counted. It currently requires about 300 kilograms of natural resources to generate an income of USD100 in the world's most advanced economies. Given the size of these economies, this volume of materials represents environmental alteration on a massive scale. Consequently, if the emerging economies of developing countries were also to be based on such an intensive use of resources, this would put extreme environmental pressure on the world's resource base.

)h) Global Energy Use: Since 1971, global energy use has increased by nearly 70% and is projected to continue to increase by over 2% per a year over the next years, despite the fact that two billion people are still largely unconnected to the fossil fuel-based economy. While this increase will mean that more people will have access to energy services, it will raise greenhouse gas emissions by 50% over current levels, unless there are serious efforts to increase energy efficiency and reduce reliance on fossil fuels. Although there has been considerable growth and technical progress in the use of renewable energy sources such as wind, solar, geothermal, hydro-electricity and others, public infrastructure and the convenience of fossil fuels and their low prices seriously inhibit any large-scale switch to the use of such clean energy sources in the foreseeable future.

)i) Climate Change: In the late 1990s, annual emissions of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) were almost four times the 1950 level with atmospheric concentrations of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) reaching their highest level in some hundred years. According to the reports on Climate Change, there is a discernible human influence on global climate change. This is expected to result in shifts of climatic zones, changes in the productivity of ecosystems and species composition, and an increase in extreme weather events. This will have substantial impacts on human health and the viability of natural resource management in agriculture, forestry and fisheries with serious implications for all countries. Developing countries, and notably the least developed, are expected to be the most vulnerable to the impacts of global climate change, although their current contribution to the problem is minimal.

)j) Nitrogen Loading: Intensive agriculture, dependent on high levels of fossil fuel combustion and the widespread cultivation of leguminous crops, is releasing huge quantities of nitrogen to the environment, exacerbating acidification, causing changes in the species composition of ecosystems, raising nitrate levels in freshwater supplies above acceptable limits for human consumption, and

causing pollution in freshwater and marine habitats. Nitrogen oxide emissions to the atmosphere also contribute to global warming. There is growing concern among scientists that the scale of disruption to the nitrogen cycle may have global implications comparable with those caused by disruptions of the carbon cycle.

)k) Natural Resource Deterioration: Environmental deterioration continues to increase with serious depletion of natural resources, including soil erosion, and loss of forests and fish stocks. Deforestation mostly due to conversion to farms, pastures, human settlements or for logging continues to reduce the extent and condition of world forests. Some 65 million hectares of forest were lost between 1990 and 1995. In the Amazon and Indonesia, recent forest fires have caused extensive forest loss and damage. Fragile aquatic environments such as coral reefs and freshwater wetlands are under considerable threat from land-based pollution, destructive fishing techniques and dam construction, as well as climate change. It is estimated that almost 60 % of the world's reefs and 34% of all fish species may be at risk from human activities. Current patterns of production and consumption, and global climate change, raise questions about the continued capacity of the Earth's natural resource base to feed and sustain a growing and increasingly urbanized population, and to provide sinks for wastes. As a result of environmental degradation, the biodiversity of the Earth's ecosystems and the availability of renewable natural resources have declined by 33% over the last 30 years while demands on these resources have doubled .

)l) Loss of Diversity: Biologically derived products and processes account for an estimated 40% of the global economy. Much of this production is based on the cultivation of an increasingly narrow range of species and genes, with many large-scale production processes in agriculture and forestry dependent on eradicating local biodiversity and replacing it with mono-cultural production. However, there is also growing realization of the value of biodiversity, both for providing insurance in case of failure of given species and genes due to disease, climate or economic change, and for providing 'intellectual property' to develop new uses. Yet that same pool of biodiversity is increasingly coming under the control of the powerful companies that have been reducing its extent. At the livelihood level, many poor groups may be very dependent on a diversity of habitats, species and genes, especially for dealing with changed circumstances and they may be good managers of biodiversity. However, there are often few institutions to integrate livelihood and biodiversity needs, and to look after local rights. At the same time, cultural diversity which has evolved alongside biodiversity is reducing. The globalization of production, communication, and knowledge generation, work and leisure patterns brings with it a loss of traditions which could have been a valuable resource for resilience.

)m) Pollution: Most countries now experience anything from moderate to severe levels of pollution, which places a growing strain on the quality of water, soil and air. Despite clean-ups in some countries and sectors, a massive expansion in the availability and use of chemicals throughout the world, exposure to pesticides, heavy metals, small particulates and other substances all pose an increasing threat to human health and the environment.

)n) Growing Water Scarcity: Global water consumption is rising rapidly, and availability of water is predicted to become one of the most pressing and contentious issues. One-third of the world's population lives in countries already experiencing moderate to high levels of water shortage. That number could rise to two-thirds in the next 30 years, unless serious efforts are made to conserve water and coordinate watershed planning among water uses. Some 30–60 per cent of the urban population in low-income countries still lacks adequate housing with sanitary facilities, drainage systems and piping for clean water.

)o) Other Urban Problems: Continuing urbanization and industrialization, combined with a lack of resources and expertise, and weak governance, are increasing the severity of environmental and social problems, which reinforce one another in densely populated areas. Air pollution, poor solid-waste management, hazardous and toxic wastes, noise pollution and water contamination combine to turn these urban areas into environmental crisis zones. Children of poor households are most vulnerable to the inevitable health risks (Barry Dalal-Clayton and Stephen Bass, 2002, pp. 7-10 .(

2.11.5 Sustainable Development Strategies: A significant number of strategies for sustainable economic development like national development strategies, sector and cross-sectoral plans and strategies, plans and strategies related to conventions, national forest programs, national conservation strategies, national environmental action plans, national agenda 21st and national councils for sustainable development, national visions, comprehensive development framework, poverty reduction strategies, decentralized development planning, sub-national strategies, village and micro-level strategies, and regional strategies has been highlighted thoroughly under the concept of sustainable development as follow.

)a) National Development Plans: Many developing countries have a strong tradition of preparing periodic national development plans; often covering a five-year span and setting out grand objectives. Usually, line ministries prepare sector plans for national plans following guidance issued by a national planning commission or equivalent coordinating body. This body normally undertakes the tasks of screening against financial and political concerns, usually a very influential factor, and environmental and social concerns. It is often the cases that finance ministries are in charge of development planning, with the all-too-frequent implication that the quality of environmental and social screening, and accountability for it, are weak. At best, the general approach is to screen out potential bad

impacts, rather than to screen for the most positive environmental and social outcomes. The development planning body also usually integrates the sector plans. Sometimes, the task of integration is supported by inputs from the decentralized levels. The national plans derived from this process tend to set out broad goals and include projects and activities to be funded from the annual recurrent and development budgets. Economic, or only occasionally social, imperatives have been predominant, with minimal inclusion of environmental concerns. These plans tend to be linked into the annual budget or to the medium term expenditure framework, often a three year rolling budget mechanism. Often, the plans have been linked weakly to institutional or procedural changes which could foster strategic, sustainable development. In the past, there has been little civil society or private sector involvement in developing or monitoring such national plans. But there is increasing evidence of stakeholder participation in these mechanisms in a number of countries. There is also greater use of environmental screening mechanisms although usually to screen out certain bad impacts, rather than to optimize environmental potential, and progress in mainstreaming environmental concerns in national development plans. Most national development plans have now shifted from a philosophy of central planning to one of creating enabling conditions, to accommodate a degree of voluntary and civil society action, which contributes to partnership and the implementation of strategy. This approach, and some of the planning infrastructure set up for it, is conducive to national sustainable development strategies (NSDSs). Applying the principles and elements of national sustainable development strategies (NSDSs), and bringing together the systems, could result in national development plans offering much that is required for national sustainable development strategies (NSDSs). Attention would especially have to be paid to developing shared, multi-stakeholder visions of development goals, and to broader criteria for making trade-offs (Barry Dalal-Clayton and Stephen Bass, 2002, pp. 38-41.)

)b) Sector and Cross-Sectoral Plans and Strategies: Associated with these national developmental planning instruments, line ministries frequently prepare sector-wide plans and investment strategies in policy areas such as transport, agriculture, health and education. However, no matter how good a sector plan appears on paper, it can suffer from the weak integration, and the lack of sustainability criteria, inherent in the overall national planning process. There is a great challenge, however, in defining sustainability criteria and timeframes for a national plan that suit the different conditions facing individual sectors. The NSDS approach represents an organized mechanism for addressing these issues. Many countries also prepare cross-sectoral or issues-based strategies such as those for reducing HIV/AIDS, for food security or for improving rights for women, strategies for environment include coastal zone management plans, and plans for freshwater management. These cross-sectoral and strategies are usually, focusing on analysis of key national or sub-national issues and priorities.

The reporting processes vary from country to country but most share common key elements, which can be built on in developing an NSDS (Ibid, p. 42.)

)c) Plans and Strategies related to Conventions: Many environmental strategies have been developed as a response to the Rio Conventions. Responsibility for the preparation of these plans has usually been given to national environment ministries, which carries the risk of isolating the strategy process from key aspects of policy controlled by the ministries for finance, economic development and social affairs. According to Convention on Biological Diversity, national biodiversity strategies and action plans have been prepared by many countries. Usually, these plans include a systematic analysis of issues and problems, as well as the establishment of agreements among public and private organizations on how to implement various provisions of the Convention on Biological Diversity of 1992. They are then the basis of detailed programs setting out how individual countries propose to manage their biological resources. A number of guidelines have been prepared to assist countries in preparing such plans. The Global Environment Facility (GEF) has provided grant support to some countries for developing national biodiversity strategies and action plans. And according to United Nations Development Program (UNDP)'s Biodiversity Planning Support Program, by 2001, eighty of these countries had completed plan documents. Such strategies and plans may suffer from a lack of integration, especially with other national institutions and planning mechanisms. They may also tend to favor global biodiversity objectives which protecting species that are rare and threatened at global level over local biodiversity objectives which are people-centered goals for conserving biodiversity for cultural reasons, or for use in times of hardship, and so on. This is partly because the institutions that have been developed to address biodiversity issues have been heavily influenced by global institutions concerned with biodiversity. Currently there are few institutions capable of integrating local biodiversity and livelihood concerns, and these tend to be weak in terms of their influence on policy and local action. National biodiversity strategies and action plans have tended to deal inadequately with the reality that people have always used biodiversity to sustain themselves. While these plans flag the issue of unsustainable patterns of biodiversity use, they seldom include analyses of patterns of use by communities, countries, multinational companies, or assess practical applications of indigenous know-how on sustainable resource use, which could provide lessons to shape mechanisms for reversing such trends. However, in some countries, the plans have led to further action. Based on Convention to Combat Desertification in 1994, many dry-land countries have prepared National Action Programs. In addition, some regional and Sub-Regional Action Programs have also been developed. During 1985–1988, some countries in the Sahel region had already prepared National Plans of Action to Combat Desertification prior to the adoption of the Convention. They adopted these plans into the national action program process and identified concrete field-level

activities. By taking a problem-based approach, rather than a sectoral focus, national action programs have tended to be strategic from the start. But they still face the challenge of having to integrate a variety of policies and the actions of a broad range of local institutions in order to move natural resource management towards a more sustainable basis. A preliminary overview of progress in developing and implementing of national action programs sets out the envisaged broad scope and process of a national action program. Others have also criticized shortcomings in the national action program process. Most countries have adopted a three-phased approach that is, launching of the national action program process; implementation of agreements at the first forum; and full implementation of the national action program and continued monitoring with periodic reviews in subsequent stakeholders. National action program-related activities in participating countries during recent years have focused primarily on launching the process, community-based activities and efforts to convene and follow-up on the first forum. A national coordinating body or focal point is usually within a government ministry or agency. A steering committee is responsible for the overall organization, developing a vision, a 'road map' of objectives and a timetable for involving the relevant parties and ensuring timely inputs and actions. No single country process typifies the national action programme approach. The realities in affected countries are different not only between the regions but even within the regions. However, the examples of approaches being pursued demonstrate some important common features and elements of the process. On the basis of the Framework Convention on Climate Change under the United Nations, industrial countries including Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union are required to submit a 'national communication'. These require a considerable amount of assessment and planning in their development and are to include an inventory of all greenhouse gas emissions in the country from different sectors such as transport, energy, industry, agriculture, and so on following the methodology prescribed by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change; a projection of future expected emissions of greenhouse gases using a business-as-usual economic growth scenario and identification of ways to reduce expected emissions in future; an assessment of the vulnerability of the country including both natural ecosystems and human systems to the impacts of climate change, highlighting the most vulnerable areas and groups within each country; and an assessment of possible options for adaptation to climate change in order to reduce the expected impacts. In preparing these national communications, parties must follow guidelines, which have been revised several times. Auditors examine such issues as coherence with other national policies and the degree of stakeholder involvement. The majority of parties submitted their first national communication in 1994 or 1995. Developing countries must make similar national communications, but have three years to do so from entry into force of the Convention for that Party, or from the availability of financial resources. They are also eligible for

financial and technical assistance to prepare their national communications provided by the implementing agencies like United Nations Development Program (UNDP), United Nations Environment Program (UNEP) and the World Bank and following specific guidance. Small island developing states have focused particularly on vulnerability and adaptation. Least developed country Parties may make their initial communication at their discretion. By the end of 2001, seventy seven parties had submitted their initial national communications. The external support has, however, tended to focus on gas inventory and projections, and the developing countries are now asking for resources to assess vulnerability, to make adaptation plans and to improve integration. Methodologies for these tasks, however, are currently lacking. So far, over 100 countries including both developed and developing countries have submitted their national communications on climate change (Ibid, pp. 42-47 .(

)d) National Forest Programs (NFPs): The experience of developing tropical forest action plans (TFAPs) in the late 1980s and early 1990s revealed a number of lessons for mainstreaming social, environmental and economic concerns in the sector. But it was more notable for revealing what was not required for a national strategic approach. During the mid-1990s, the Intergovernmental Panel on Forests (IPF) concluded that, in spite of the incomplete success of the tropical forest action plan (TFAP), some kind of national forest program was still desirable. However, such a program was relevant to all countries, and not just those in the tropics. The Intergovernmental Panel on Forest also concluded that national forest programs should be country-led, rather than following a formula developed by outside agencies, and should pay close attention to the integration of forestry policies with other economic and social policies and strategies. A general definition of national forest programs (NFPs) was suggested that ‘national forest program’ be used as a generic expression for a wide range of approaches to sustainable forest management within different countries, to be applied at national and sub-national levels: national forest programs (NFPs) are to be based on principles such as national sovereignty and country leadership; consistency with the constitutional and legal frameworks of each country; consistency with international agreements and commitments; partnership and participation of all interested parties in the national forest program (NFP) process; holistic and inter-sectoral approach to forest development and conservation; and long-term and iterative process of planning, implementation and monitoring. The main elements of national forest programs (NFPs), in practical terms, are National Forest Statement which is a political expression of a country’s commitment towards sustainable forest management within related commitments and obligations at the international level; sector review that is, a process to establish an understanding of the forest sector and its relations and linkages to other sectors to identify key issues and priorities for further action, depending on existing information this could be a major exercise or a continuous

process; policy and institutional reform, which is just a process of change in favor of sustainable forest management, based on the sector review and dialogue with all actors; strategy development such as definition of strategies to implement policies towards sustainable forest management, including financing strategies; action plan which is a bundle of measures, based on needs assessment and jointly agreed prioritization, defined for one planning cycle according to the national development plan; investment program that prioritized public sector investments, and incentives for private and non-governmental sectors and partnerships; capacity-building program that is, to assist stakeholders in fulfilling their roles and mandates; monitoring and evaluation system which focuses on multi-layered monitoring of the national forest programs (NFPs) and decentralized forest programs to provide continuous feedback; and the coordination mechanisms which is effective vertical and horizontal coordination within the forest sector and with other sectors, at all levels and in interaction with the international level with regard to donor involvement and forest-related agreements and commitments. The national forest program (NFP) implementation support facility is being set up by Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) for action. A few national forest programs (NFPs) have been developed according to the new approach (Ibid, pp. 47-50 .(

e) National Conservation Strategies (NCSs): National conservation strategies (NCSs) were proposed by the World Conservation Strategy to provide a comprehensive, cross-sectoral analysis of conservation and resource management issues. They were popular in the 1980s and early 1990s when national conservation strategies (NCSs) were prepared in over 100 countries. Conservation for development was the spin on national conservation strategies (NCSs). The promotion of national conservation strategies (NCSs) harnessed much creativity in their early stages, as there was little precedent for linking the weak and soft concerns of conservation with the powerful, hard systems of development. But they suffered from a lack of commitment from the powerful development and financial interests. National conservation strategies (NCSs) aimed to identify urgent environmental needs, link them to development issues, stimulate national debate and raise public consciousness, assist decision-makers to set priorities and allocate resources, and build institutional capacity to handle environmental issues. National conservation strategies (NCSs) sought to develop political consensus around the issues identified and resulted, inter alia, in policy documents approved at high level and the establishment of cross-sector coordinating groups. An extensive review was made of national conservation strategies experience which found a strong set of common factors, such that national conservation strategies which could be considered to be successful were characterized by legitimacy; ownership; commitment; equity; and good networking and all functions of participation. While most national conservation strategies did not begin with focus on economic growth and poverty alleviation, many evolved to address these issues. This was especially the case where the national



conservation strategy (NCS) process successfully raised environmental awareness in key economic and social sector agencies, or in agencies at intermediate and local levels which already had a high level of engagement with community groups and businesses. Some national conservation strategies (NCSs) are now providing a valuable platform for the development of more holistic strategies for sustainable development (Ibid, p. 50.)

)f) National Environmental Action Plans (NEAPs): In contrast to national conservation strategies (NCSs), national environmental action plans (NEAPs) were promoted by the World Bank which is a much more powerful body, economically and politically. From the mid-1980s, national environmental action plans (NEAPs) were primarily developed under the umbrella of a host-country organization, usually a coordinating ministry with technical and financial assistance from the World Bank and other donors. The World Bank encourages and supports efforts of borrowing countries to prepare and implement an appropriate environmental action plan and to revise it periodically as necessary. National environmental action plans (NEAPs) have recommended specific actions, outlining the required policies, legislation, institutional arrangements and investment strategies. But the typical outcome of most national environmental action plans was not so much institutional change as a package of environmentally related investment projects. The progress with national environmental action plans (NEAPs) is still reviewed by the World Bank as part of its Country Assistance Strategies, but the World Bank is now placing more emphasis on Comprehensive Development Frameworks and poverty reduction strategies. National environmental action plans (NEAPs) can therefore be seen as an eclipsed planning tool in the World Bank's relations with its member countries, although most of the national environmental action plan practices have been taken in the way the World Bank approaches comprehensive development frameworks (CDFs) and poverty reduction strategies (Ibid, pp. 50-52.)

)g) National Agenda 21st and National Councils: National Agenda 21s have been prepared by a range of countries, often with support from United Nations Development Program (UNDP)'s Capacity 21 program. A common intention has been to set out how Agenda 21 will be translated into action at a country level. These strategies have frequently been developed by National Councils for Sustainable Development (NCSDs), multi-stakeholder participatory bodies set up in more than 80 countries. The Earth Council has supported the development of many national types of council for sustainable development (NCSDs) in developing countries. The status of national councils for sustainable development (NCSDs) varies from region to region. For example, they are very active in Latin America, moderately so in Asia, and limited in Africa. National councils for sustainable development (NCSDs) have sometimes played an important role in promoting dialogue among stakeholders in participatory decision-making processes. Many have been used as think tanks for government when

issues arise; others play more routine roles in development planning. Most importantly, national councils for sustainable development (NCSDs) have the potential to play a facilitating role in developing strategies for sustainable development. This is often within their mandate, as described in the decrees or acts by which they were established. To move towards sustainable development, national councils for sustainable development (NCSDs) will usually need to broaden their initial environmental focus to cover more fully the concerns of social and economic stakeholders. They may also need to improve their links to decentralized levels of governance and administration, and local action by voluntary organizations (Ibid, pp. 52-53.)

)h) National Visions: National visions for sustainable development are being developed by an increasing number of countries, many supported by United Nations Development Program (UNDP)'s Capacity 21st century program. National visions bring together different groups of society, including those of different political parties, to agree common development objectives. Their advantage is the opportunity they present for many stakeholders to take a forward view on national development and work towards broad, shared objectives for their country's future. Their success depends very much on the degree to which stakeholders participate, the durability of the vision between successive political administrations, its widespread promotion among those who make key decisions and its transferability to standard developmental and administrative procedures (Ibid, p. 53.)

)i) Comprehensive Development Framework: The comprehensive development framework (CDF) concept was introduced by the World Bank President, James Wolfenson in 1999, as a holistic approach to development in the Bank's client countries. World Bank programming must be consistent with the comprehensive development frameworks, which is based on four interrelated principles and objectives to be pursued at the country level. These are consistent with the basic principles for sustainable development strategies, such as a long-term vision and strategy; enhanced country ownership of development goals and actions; more strategic partnership among stakeholders; and accountability for development results. The comprehensive development framework (CDF) encourages the use of a long-term strategic horizon of, say, 15–20 years. It seeks a better balance in policy-making by highlighting the interdependence of all elements of development like social, structural, human, governance, environmental, economic and financial. It emphasizes partnerships among governments, development cooperation agencies, civil society, the private sector and others. Of particular importance is a stress on country ownership of the process and direction of the development agenda, with bilateral and multilateral development cooperation agencies each defining their support for their respective plans. Early progress in implementing the comprehensive development framework was uneven, which was not surprising given the different starting points and varying circumstances of the participating countries. By July 2000, more than half of the pilots had

made progress with the majority of comprehensive development framework elements. Greatest progress was made on long-term vision and strategy development, while least progress was in transparent management information systems. Nearly all pilots were focusing on governance issues, and many were implementing projects to improve their justice systems. Several countries were emphasizing the importance of knowledge sharing and transparency in comprehensive development framework. Nevertheless, implementation of the comprehensive development framework (CDF) principles has been difficult and uneven. The comprehensive development framework (CDF) proposal suggested the use of a regularly updated matrix showing the activities of all partners across all sectors. The aim of the matrix is to give all players a framework of information to ensure openness and a basis for coordinating efforts and judging the effectiveness of programs and strategies. Some countries felt that a matrix should be a regular output of the comprehensive development framework (CDF) process, while others have relied on more familiar ways to share information. Positive aspects of the comprehensive development framework (CDF) program include country ownership, enhanced accountability, and development of long-term vision. However, it is also clear; at this stage an intention of the comprehensive development framework (CDF) program as a whole is to enhance the World Bank's role in sustainable development (Ibid, pp. 54-56.)

)j) Poverty Reduction Strategies: The strategic planning mechanisms of many developing countries have focused on strategies to reduce poverty. Such plans were of varying in quality. The best were truly cross-sectoral strategies to address poverty with clearly budgeted priorities. Others, however, tended to be no more than a list of social sector investment projects. Within the comprehensive development framework (CDF), the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) launched Poverty Reduction Strategies for low-income countries in 1999. Poverty reduction strategies are country-written documents detailing plans for achieving sustained reductions in poverty. The World Bank guidance for comprehensive development frameworks (CDFs) and poverty reduction strategies explicitly supports building on pre-existing decision-making processes. Governments developing poverty reduction strategies and external partners supporting them have taken advantage of this in many cases, although in some it has taken time for the implications of this inclusive approach to be understood. The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) have prepared guidelines for the preparation and assessment of poverty reduction strategies. These reflect the principles of the comprehensive development framework (CDF) and embody a three-part approach to poverty reduction, based on creating economic opportunity, empowering the poor and addressing vulnerability. Despite the intensive role played by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) in poverty reduction strategies, and their relative lack of attention to date on key issues of environmental sustainability, economic growth and diversification, these approaches are

capable of taking on the broader role of NSDSs. On participation by civil society organizations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are assuming an increasingly important role. However, non-conventional non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as community groups and women's organizations are given little attention. Other weaknesses highlighted include the poor quality of data and a lack of gender analysis. The development of poverty reduction strategies has gained momentum, but considerable skepticism remains about their underlying intentions (Ibid, pp. 57-62 .(

) k) Sub-National Strategies: Many countries have strategic planning frameworks at different sub-national levels, including urban and regional planning. Some of these frameworks are inspired by national mechanisms. This reveals growing attention to stakeholder participation, which can be correlated with increasing attention to a broad range of developmental affairs. But it also suggests a capacity limit to intensive conservation strategy approaches at lower levels (Ibid, pp. 63-66.(

)l) Decentralized Development Planning: Where governance is being decentralized, districts and municipalities increasingly assume to have responsibility for sustainable development and are therefore required to prepare and implement development strategies and plans. There is a growing movement to do this through participatory processes, which can be backed by new legal requirements. However, the skills, attitudes and methods to undertake decentralized participatory planning are frequently lacking or weak, and the finances to implement plans are inadequate. Often such plans are constrained by high-level policies, and at very least need to be passed upwards for harmonization and approval at regional and national levels. In short, policy and institutional challenges need to be addressed if decentralized sustainable development planning is to be effective (Ibid, p. 66 .(

)m) Village and Micro-Level Strategies: Successful local strategies share a common focus to strengthen local institutions such as villages, user groups, and stakeholder organizations. These local institutions are the basis for participatory planning, joint action, striking deals with service providers, monitoring and review, and critically for ensuring more effective coordination by higher-level authorities. In developing countries, there is considerable experience of village planning. Increasingly, such planning is undertaken in a strategic, participatory and transparent manner. A variety of other local-level strategies are developed through mechanisms which are largely ignored by central government, but which could potentially provide important local pillars for a sustainable development strategy and a supporting coordination system. Some involve traditional era in which communities and local groups are able to express concerns and agreed actions to create culturally appropriate sustainable societies. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) often mobilize local energies to combine socio-economic development and environmental conservation at the grass-roots level. Resource user groups can also play an important role. Much can be learned from the strategies of indigenous people, traditional societies and grass-roots organizations in many countries to sustainably

meet their survival needs approaches which have often worked effectively for centuries until disturbed by external influences which have interfered with their rights, access to resources, knowledge systems or social organization. Deeper studies are needed to assess what can be learned from such micro-level strategies and how they can influence the treatment of risk and the building of resilience through upstream policy formulation (Ibid, pp. 66-69.)

n) Regional Strategies: In some parts of the world, regional strategies and overviews on the theme of sustainable development have been prepared. Countries have particularly found it valuable to deal with issues and priorities of a regional nature. In 1993, the Comprehensive Environmental Action Program for Central and Eastern Europe was spelled out to equalize environmental conditions in the East and West, with an emphasis on the urban environment. In 1999, the Helsinki meeting of the European Council invited the European Commission to prepare a proposal for a long-term strategy to integrate policies for economically, socially and ecologically sustainable development. In March 2001 the European Commission issued a consultation paper providing initial views on the challenges and opportunities for the strategy, discussing important trends and presenting a policy tools to tackle issues. A European strategy for sustainable development was then prepared and adopted in 2001. This strategy was built on a series of previous five-yearly environmental action plans. Small island states have particularly found it useful to work together to share experience and design common approaches, this is because of their shared characteristics, challenges and vulnerabilities. For example, the South Pacific Regional Environmental Program coordinates the preparation of four-year action plans for managing the environment of the Pacific Islands region. The latest plan (2001–2004) was developed through a highly participatory process and embodies the vision of the member countries and key stakeholders for the long-term management of their shared environment. During the 1990s, guided by the regional action plan, South Pacific Regional Environmental program coordinated a program to facilitate the development of national environmental management strategies in fourteen Pacific region island countries. The countries worked together, through South Pacific Regional Environmental Program (SPREP), to a broadly common strategy process. Building on the national environmental managements (NEMs), South Pacific Regional Environmental Program (SPREP) is now coordinating a regional capacity-building program for sustainable development. A similar regional approach has been taken by the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) as a political grouping of eight member states that has developed a common approach to address developmental problems. This arrangement helps to overcome problems such as limited capacity and resources in individual countries and members of the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) have benefited from economies of scale. The Organization of Eastern Caribbean (OECS) states used a participatory process to fashion an Eastern Caribbean Environmental Charter, which provides a legal framework for action enshrining the

principles of sustainable development as well as a progressive management tool for island systems management (Ibid, pp. 70-73 .)

2.12 Key Actors in Economic Development: The main key actors in the economic development which this section has been focused on are governments, central banks, commercial banks, entrepreneurs, non-governmental organizations and civil society organizations .

2.12.1 Governments: In the past times, functions of government were very much limited. They were confined on the concept of police state. The function of the government was to maintain law and order within the concerned country and also to defend the country from foreign aggression. It was not the concern of the government to interfere in the economic life of the country. Political and economic thinkers of the old days believed in the policy of 'Laissez Faire', in other word they believed in non-intervention of the state in the economic life of the people. Classical economists such as Adam Smith asserted that government should leave the individuals free to promote their self-interest because people while promoting their self-interest; they also promote the welfare of the entire society. Thus they thought that people were led by 'invisible hand' to promote social welfare. Those who believed in the philosophy of individualism advocated the non-interference of the government in industrial, agricultural and trade activities. These individualist thinkers believed that the best government is the one which governs the least. In the modern times the functions of the government have grown enormously. Government plays nowadays a positive role in economic life of the people. The concept of welfare state has replaced the concept of police state. When things go wrong in the work of the economy, say for example unemployment is increasing, or prices are rising, or there is shortage of food, steel, water, electricity and so on, the government is held responsible. This is because the government in these days is expected to provide employment to all people, to maintain price and economic stability, and to ensure adequate supply of food, electricity, steel, and so on.

The main economic functions performed by the modern governments are as the following:

a) Maintenance of Economic Stability: This function is very important function of the modern governments which maintain economic stability and ensure full employment. The economy does not work smoothly when left alone, because of business cycles. In a free economic system, there are great fluctuations in economic activity. Sometimes there is prosperity and sometimes there is depression. At times of depression, income, output, employment, and prices fall down, and quite reverse happens at times of the prosperity. To take the economy out of depression, deficit budgets are made so as to raise the level of public expenditure to meet the deficiency of demand. To get rid of inflation, surplus budgets are made so as to reduce public expenditures which in turn reduce the level of demand. In the sphere of monetary measures, in depression, the rate of interest is lowered to raise investment and at times of inflationary pressure the rate of interest is raised to discourage investment.

)b) Reduction of Economic Inequalities: Another important function of the government is to reduce the inequalities of income and wealth. Great inequalities of income and wealth are socially unjust, politically undesirable, and economically bad. Large inequalities of income hinder maximization of welfare. Inequality of income creates inequality of opportunity for securing education and training required for high-paid occupations. Inequality of income causes class conflicts and class struggles. Because of inequality of income and wealth societies come to be divided into class of haves and class of have not, and the poor are exploited by the rich. In order to promote social justice and social stability, to increase economic welfare and productivity and to create equality of opportunity for all, the modern governments take steps to reduce the disparities of income and wealth. Progressive income taxes, taxes on wealth and property, death duty and gift tax have been imposed by the governments to reduce the income of rich people. On the other hand, free education, free medical aid, and old-age pensions for the poor and scholarships for their children are some of the measures taken by the governments to transfer the excess incomes of the rich to the poor .

)c) Control of Monopoly: The regulation of monopoly is another function of the modern government and or state. Monopolists restrict output and thus charge high prices for their product. By their monopoly power they exploit the consumers. They set prices which are greater than the marginal cost and therefore prevent maximization of consumers' welfare. Thus the monopoly misallocates the resources, enlarges inequality in the distribution of national income, creates unemployment and retards technological progress. In order remove the evils of monopoly, the government tries to control and regulate monopoly activities, and compels it to work in public interest. The government may appoint a permanent commission to fix the reasonable price of the monopoly products. Only the fair return on capital invested by the monopolist is allowed. In other words, monopolist is permitted to earn only reasonable amount of profits. The government may take over the monopoly concern and run it by herself in the larger interest of the society. Therefore many governments have passed anti-trust laws so as to prevent the formation of combinations having monopoly power.

)d) Provision of Social Security Benefits: As it is clear that the concept of police state has been replaced by the concept of welfare state. The modern state is a welfare state which its chief function is to provide social security to its people. In order to do this, the government provides various sorts of social security benefits such as sickness allowances, unemployment relief, child allowances, maternity benefits, old-age pensions and so on. Indeed the aim is to protect the person form the cradle to the grave .

)e) Provision of Public Utility Services: Public utilities are those services which must be performed for the benefit or interest of the public and not for private interest. Railways, ports, water supply. Electricity supply or gas supply are generally put under the category of public utilities. Such activities

are obviously uneconomical and undesirable, because there are no competing private firms to provide them. Therefore the governments take over these public utilities so as to ensure regular and cheap services .

)f) Construction of Social and Economic Overheads: Construction of social and economic overheads such as schools, technical colleges, research centers, hospitals, roads, railways, bridges and so on are absolutely essential for the welfare of the people and economic growth. These activities do not yield any quick returns in monetary terms. They do not attract the private investors. The government takes steps in building such social and economic overheads.

)g) Protection of Labour: It is the responsibility of the government to protect the weaker segments of the society, especially the workers. It is a duty of the government to protect the workers from exploitation of employers. The governments passed labor acts to regulate the conditions of employment of the workers. Minimum wages and working hours have been fixed. There are restrictions on the employment of children. Compensation is granted for accidents and social insurance schemes are enforced in all countries. The governments also take steps to reduce industrial disputes.

)h) Protection of National Industries: The concept of free international trade has found harmful for the national economies and industrial development. Products of domestic industries were competed away by the foreign competition. In modern times, domestic industries are protected from foreign competition by levying import duties by the governments. Foreign imports may be regulated by means of a quota system which may limit the scope of foreign competition.

)i) Promoting Economic Growth and Development: Promotion of economic growth and development in the country is very important function of the modern government. This function is of particular importance in undeveloped countries. In the modern times, state participation in economic life can hardly be a matter of disagreement. In undeveloped countries the vicious circle of poverty can be broken only by a comprehensive government planning of the process of economic development. A high rate of investment and growth of output cannot be attained simply as a result of functioning of the market forces. Economic development is not automatic action .

Therefore the government must interfere with the market forces to manage the economic activities. The process of development is primarily held up by the lack of basic social and economic overheads such as schools, research institutes, hospitals, railways, ports, roads, and bridges. The provision of such overheads requires very large investments which can lead to the creation of external economies which in turn would provide incentives to the development of private sector in the field of industry as well as of agriculture. Investors cannot undertake investment in these social overheads because the returns from them is in form of increase in the supply of technical skills and higher standards of education and health that can realized only after a long period of time and will accrue to the entire society rather than



to the concerned investor who has paid the necessary large expenditure on the creation of such costly social overheads. Therefore the investment in these social and economic overheads is not profitable in the viewpoint of private investors, however productive they may be from the broader interest of the society. The government must take direct participation in social overheads investment, so that the development may be quickened. Investment in economic overheads like heavy industries also requires huge capital which is usually beyond the capacity of private investors. Besides, the returns from such investments are quite uncertain and take very long time to accrue. Generally, private investors are interested in quick returns and not ready to wait so long. In addition to that private investors cannot easily mobilize resources for investment in all social and economic overheads. The government or state is in a far better position to find the necessary resources through taxation, borrowing and deficit financing which are not open to the private investors. So the private investors lack the capacity to undertake large-scale and comprehensive development, not only that they also lack the necessary mental approach to promote development. The role of government in development is further highlighted by the fact that undeveloped countries suffer from a serious deficiency of all types of resources and skills, while the need for them is so great. Under such situations what is needed is the wise and efficient allocation of the limited resources, which only the government is best fitted to do through central planning authority. They must make efforts to push the economy through the take-off period of development. The active participation of government in development process is necessary to ensure the just distribution of the fruits of economic growth and to prevent the concentration of income and wealth in a few hands. Development under free economic system could increase the inequalities of income and wealth, since huge profits are made by private enterprises and go to the rich individuals' pockets. Government sector is absolutely necessary to prevent the concentration of income and to utilize the profits of the enterprises for the purpose of capital formation and for larger interest of the country (H. L. Ahuja 1982, pp. 281-286.)

2.12.2 Central Banks: The central banks in underdeveloped countries aim at the promotion and maintenance of a rising level of production, employment, and real income in these countries. The central banks in the majority of underdeveloped economies have been given wide range of powers to promote the growth of such economies. They, therefore, perform the following functions for the purpose of achievement of economic development:

a) Creation and Expansion of Financial Institutions: One of the aims of central banks in undeveloped countries is to improve the monetary and credit system of these countries. Banks and financial institutions are required to provide larger credit facilities and to divert voluntary savings into productive channels. Financial institutions provide credit facilities to real estates, plantations, big industrial and commercial houses particularly in big cities. In order to remedy this, central banks

should extend branch banking to rural areas to make credit available to small peasants, small businessmen, and traders. In undeveloped countries, commercial banks provide only short-term loans. Credit facilities in rural areas are mostly not existed. The only source is village moneylenders who charge high interest rates. To face such situation, central banks make new financial institutions arrangements to provide short-term, medium-term and long-term credit at lower interest rates to the cultivators. Central banks could finance a network of cooperative societies and rural banks to solve such problems. Central banks can help in establishment of leading banks which in turn could open branches in regional and rural areas to provide credit facilities to marginal farmers, landless agricultural workers, and to other weak sections in the population. With huge resources at their command, central banks can help in establishment of industrial banks and financial corporations in order to finance large and small industries.

b) Proper Adjustment between Demand for and Supply of Money: Central banks play an important role in bringing about a proper adjustment between demand for and supply of money. Any imbalance between the two is affecting price level. A shortage of money supply would undermine economic growth while an excess of it could lead to inflation. With development of economy, the demand for money is likely to go up due to gradual monetization of the non-monetized sector and the increase in agricultural and industrial production and prices. Also this development of economy leads to rising of the demand for money for transactions and speculative motives. The increase in money supply for deficit financing purpose would have to be more than the increase in the demand for money in order to avoid inflation while its increase being used for speculative purpose could undermine growth and causing inflation. Central banks control the uses of money and credit by an appropriate monetary policy. In undeveloped economies, central banks control the supply of and the demand for money in such a way that prevents price level rising without affecting negatively investment and production.

c) Introduction of a Suitable Interest Rate Policy: In undeveloped countries the interest rates structure stand at a very high level. There are great differences between long-term and short-term interest rates as well as the interest rates in different sectors of the economy. The existence of high interest rates act as obstacle to the growth of both private and public investment in undeveloped economy. A low interest rate is, therefore, essential for encouraging private investment in various sectors of economy such as agriculture and industry. In undeveloped economies businessmen can borrow from the banks or from the capital markets for the purpose of investment and they would borrow only if the interest rates are low. Low interest rate policy is also essential for encouraging public investment. A low interest rate policy is a cheap money policy. Such policy makes public borrowing cheap, keeps the cost of servicing public debt low and thus helps in financing the economic development. In order to discourage the flow of resources into undesired investment and businesses, central bank should follow a policy of

discriminatory interest rates, charging high rates for non-essential and unproductive loans and low rates for productive loans.

)d) Sound Debt Management: Debt management is one of the important functions of the central banks in undeveloped countries. It should aim at proper timing and issuing of government bonds, stabilizing their prices and minimizing the cost of servicing public debt. Central banks in undeveloped economies undertake the selling and buying of government bonds and making timely changes in the structure and composition of public debt. In order to strengthen and stabilize the market for government bonds, central banks introduce low interest rates policy. Low rates of interest raise the price of government bonds, making them more attractive to the public and giving an impetus to the public borrowing programs of the government. The maintenance of structure of low interest rates is essential for minimizing the cost of servicing the national debt. It encourages the funding of debt by private firms. However, the success of debt management would rely on the existence of well-developed money and capital markets in which wide range of securities exist both for short and long periods. Central banks play significant role in the development of financial markets.

)e) Control of Credit Activities: Central banks also aim at controlling of credit activities in order to influence the patterns of investment and production in undeveloped economy. Their main purpose is to control inflationary pressures arising in the process of development. Variable reserve ratio as method of credit control is more effective than open market operations and bank rate policy in Less Developing Countries (LDCs). Open market operations are not successful in undeveloped countries this because securities market is very small, commercial banks keep an elastic cash-deposit ratio because central banks' control over them is not complete, banks are reluctant to invest in government securities due to their low interest rates, they prefer to keep their reserves in liquid form such as gold, foreign exchange and cash, in addition to that they are not interested to rediscounting or borrowing from central banks. Bank rate policy is also not effective enough in undeveloped economies due to lack of bills of discount, narrow size of security markets, large non-monetized sector where barter transactions take place, existence of a large unorganized money market; existence of indigenous banks which do not discount bills with central banks and the habit of commercial banks to keep large reserves in cash. The uses of variable reserve ratio by the central banks could reduce or increase the cash available with commercial banks without affecting negatively the prices of securities. The use of variable reserve ratio has certain limitations in Less Developing Countries (LDCs) because of existence of non-banking financial intermediaries which do not keep deposits with the central banks, so they are not affected by this measure and commercial banks which do not maintain excess liquidity are not affected than those who maintain it. Qualitative credit control measures are however, more effective than quantitative measures in influencing the allocation of credit, thereby the pattern of investment. In undeveloped countries,

there is strong tendency to invest in gold, jewelries, real estate and so on, instead of investment in productive channels available in agriculture, mining, plantations and industry. The selective credit control measures are more effective for controlling and limiting credit activities for such unproductive sectors. They are useful in controlling speculative activities in food grains and raw materials. They prove being more useful in controlling sectional inflations in the economy. They curtail the demand for imports by making it obligatory on importers to deposit in advance an amount equal to the value of foreign exchange needed. They have effect on reduction of reserves of the banks in so far as their deposits are transferred to the central banks in the process. The selective credit control measures may take the form of changing the margin requirements against certain types of collateral, the regulation of consumer credit and the rationing of credit.

)f) Solving the Balance of Payments Problem: Central banks should aim also at preventing and solving the balance payments problem in undeveloped economies. Such economies face serious balance of payment difficulties to fulfill the targets of development plans. The imbalance which is created between imports and exports continues to widen with development. Central banks which manage and control the foreign exchange of their countries and also act as technical advisers to their governments on foreign exchange policy, try to avoid fluctuations in the foreign exchange rates and maintain the stability through exchange control and variations in the bank rate. For instance, if the value of the national currency is continuously falling, they may raise the bank rate and thus encourage the inflow of foreign currencies (Jhingan, 2004, pp. 123-126 2.12.3

Commercial Banks: Commercial banks are not only the store houses of the country's wealth but also the reservoirs of resources necessary for economic development. They play an important role in economic development of a country. The well-developed banking system is essential for the economic development of a country. Commercial banks can contribute to a country's economic development in the following ways:

)a) Accelerating the Rate of Capital Formation: Capital formation is the most important determinant for economic development. Banks promote capital formation. They encourage the habit of saving among people. They mobilize idle resources for production purposes. Economic development depends upon the diversion of economic resources from consumption to capital formation. Banks help in this direction by encouraging saving and mobilizing them for productive uses.

)b) Provision of Finance and Credit: Commercial banks are a very important source of finance and credit for industries and trade activities. Credit lubricates all commerce and trade. Commercial banks become the nerve center of all commerce and trade. They are instruments for developing internal as well as external trade.

)c) Monetization of Economy: The existence of a large non-monetized sector is one of the characteristics of undeveloped economy, and is a hindrance in the economic development of the

country. Commercial banks by opening branches in rural and backward areas can promote the process of monetization in the economy.

)d) Innovation: Innovations are an essential prerequisite for economic development. These innovations are mostly financed by bank credit in the developing countries but in undeveloped countries, entrepreneurs hesitate to invest in new ventures and undertake innovations largely due to lack of funds. Facilities of bank loans enable the entrepreneurs to step up their investment on innovational activities, adopt new methods of production and increase productive capacity of the economy.

)e) Implementation of Monetary Policy: A well-developed banking system is a necessary pre-condition for the effective implementation of the monetary policy. Control of credit by the monetary authority is not possible without the active cooperation of the commercial banks in the country.

)f) Encouragement to Right Type of Industries: Commercial banks generally provide financial resources to the right type of industries to ensure the necessary material, machines and other inputs. In this way they influence the nature and volume of industrial production.

)g) Development of Agriculture: Undeveloped economies are primarily agricultural economies. The majority of their populations live in rural areas. Therefore, economic development in undeveloped countries involves the development of agriculture and small-scale industries in rural areas. Banks provide loans for development and modernization of agricultural sector.

)h) Regional Development: Banks also play an important role in achieving balanced development in different regions of the country. They transfer surplus capital from the developed regions to the less developed regions, where it is scarce and most needed. This reallocation of funds between regions, promotes balanced economic development in various regions of the country.

)i) Promotion of Industrial Development: Industrial development requires finance. Commercial banks encouraged industrial development by granting long-term loans. They are also underwriting the issued shares and debentures by industrial concerns. These help industrial concerns to secure adequate capital necessary for their establishment, expansion, and modernization. Commercial banks are also helping manufacturers to secure machinery and equipment from foreign countries under installment system by guaranteeing deferred payment. Thus banks promote or encourage industrial development of a country.

)j) Promotion of Commercial Virtues: The businessmen should have certain business qualities like industry's forethought, honesty and punctuality. These qualities are commercial virtues which are necessary or essential for rapid economic progress. The banks are in the better position to promote such commercial virtues.

)k) Fulfillment of Socio-economic Objectives: Commercial banks particularly in undeveloped countries contribute in fulfillment of socio-economic objectives laid down by the government. They help in activities such as small farming, self-employment programs, and implementation of policies aiming in

removal of poverty, elimination of income inequality and reduction of unemployment (Somasheker, 2009, pp. 24-26 .(

)l) Financing Consumer Activities: People in undeveloped countries being poor and having low incomes, do not possess sufficient financial resources to buy durable consumers goods. The commercial banks advance loans to consumers for the purpose of purchasing such items as houses, fans and refrigerators and so on. In this way, banks also help in raising the standard of living of the people of such economies through provision of loans for consumption activities (Jhingan, 2012, p. 109.(

2.12.4 Entrepreneurship: An entrepreneur is usually described as the captain of industry. According to some economists, the function of the entrepreneur is to undertake risks and uncertainty; while others consider its role as an important coordinator. To Schumpeter, the introduction of innovation is the function of the entrepreneur. The private entrepreneurship is an indispensable in economic development over a long period of time. In the light of this observation, the role of the entrepreneurs in economic development can be outlined as the following:

)a) Spirit of Adventure: What Less Developed Countries (LDCs) need most is a spirit of adventure. But this cannot be achieved in overnight. It is desirable that people who have an initiative and imagination are given an opportunity to demonstrate their venturesome, so that others could take their examples.

)b) Efficiency: Another need of Less Developed Countries (LDCs) is to utilize the scarce resources in the most economical ways. The private entrepreneurs which guided by profit-motive are likely to work hard for making the best of the resources which are at their disposal. This especially true of small entrepreneurs since, normally they do not possess any amount of control over the market and the only way to make profits is to increase the cost-effectiveness of their own production. Such efforts benefit the society by ensuring economical use of resources.

)c) Leadership: Entrepreneurs possess capacity to lead people in the common cause of development and progress. Underdeveloped economies need thousands of such business leaders who can direct and guide human energies and talents available in undeveloped countries towards imaginative and high-quality production and faster progress.

)d) Innovations: Mostly, in the past underdeveloped countries have depended on technologies borrowed from the developed countries. This could not help much because many technologies are transferred after they become unfitted in their original countries. More and more these technologies usually do not suit the demand of the conditions prevailing in the Less Developed Countries (LDCs). Therefore it is the role of the entrepreneurs to innovate techniques suitable to the conditions of their work. The private entrepreneurs, therefore, have to accept the responsibility of showing innovativeness. The fulfillment of this leads to rapid economic development, as experienced by Japan.

)e) Capital Formation: The entrepreneurs in underdeveloped economies can play very important role in raising the level of capital formation in these countries. Typically the capital in undeveloped countries is scarce. It is the function of the adventurous entrepreneurs to lift up the capital formation by opening up new industries, and earning profits which could be reinvested in stocks and shares of companies .

)f) Creation of an Industrial Culture: When a new class of entrepreneurs emerges with virtue of hard work, foresight and inventiveness, it wins over a status in the society, this change in the social outlook along with the creation of a new factory system and new class of industrial workers, for which the entrepreneurs are directly responsible, creates a process of the value-system in a traditional society. This in turn, gives rise to a new industrial culture which is so essential for economic development (Mahajan, 1992, pp. 255-256 .(

2.12.5 Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs): Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) could contribute or play a significant role in economic development of underdeveloped economies by performing the following functions:

)a) Services Delivery: The implementation of service delivery by Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) is very important simply because many people in underdeveloped countries face a situation in which a wide range of vital basic services are unavailable or of poor quality. There has been a rapid growth in Non-Governmental Organizations' (NGOs) service provision, as neoliberal development policies have emphasized a decreasing role for governments as direct service providers. In many parts of the underdeveloped world, government services have been withdrawn under conditions which have been dictated by the World Bank and other donors, leaving non-governmental organizations (NGOs) of varying types and with capacities and competences of varying quality to fill the gaps which are left. The motivation for an non-governmental organization (NGO) to become involved in providing services may vary. Sometimes it does so in order to meet previously unmet needs, while at other times an Non-governmental organization (NGO) is contracted by the government, or donor, or a company to take over the delivery of services which were formerly provided by government. Not all non-governmental organizations (NGOs) provide services directly to local communities. Some seek to tackle poverty indirectly by providing other forms of services, such as giving training to other non-governmental organizations (NGOs), government or the private sector, or undertaking applied research as a commission, or providing specialized inputs such as conflict resolution training. The idea of good governance has emphasized a more flexible provision of services through using a range of private sector and non-governmental actors. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) exist as actors within a broader, pluralistic organizational universe, alongside the state and private sector which has the potential to expand the range of institutional choices open to government and to communities. This has become known as the purchaser-provider split in which the government is the responsible for

purchasing the services which are to be supplied, but then contracts another agency to actually provide them. Some donors have argued for a stronger role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in services delivery work because they are believed to possess a set of distinctive organizational capacities and comparative advantages, such as flexibility, commitment and cost-effectiveness. Some non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have proved themselves to be highly effective service providers in certain sectors, while others are found to perform poorly. Increased role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in service delivery raises an important set of concerns. Apart from the practical concerns about the quality of the work carried out, there are questions about how too much focusing on service delivery may affect non-governmental organizations (NGO's) relationships with the local communities they serve. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are seen primarily as institutions driven by developmental values and not-for-profit orientation, but the service contractor role may well push them further towards the world of private business organizations. Another concern is the potential loss of independence and autonomy, because of unhealthy close relationships that many non-governmental organizations (NGOs) form with governments and donors once they become dependent on them for funding. As non-governmental organizations (NGOs) provide services alongside governments, do their services consider as supplementary or they are replacing public service (Lewis and Kanji, 2009, pp. 92-95.)

) b) Catalysis: Advocacy, Innovation and NGOs as Watchdogs: Advocacy is any attempt to influence the decisions of any institutional elite on behalf of a collective interest. The advocacy role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) is nothing new, but it was not until the 1990s that it became widely acknowledged as a key non-governmental organizations (NGO's) role within the development industry. As non-governmental organizations (NGOs) became more involved in service delivery work, in line with government and donor ambitions within neoliberal policies, some came to see Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) advocacy as an important counterbalance or alternative to service provision. Advocacy is a means through which non-governmental organizations (NGOs) could begin to challenge the terms of their engagement with, or incorporation into development. Advocacy also provided a strategy for making poverty reduction work more sustainable by addressing the structural causes of poverty. It is also viewed as an important strategy for improving the effectiveness and impact of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) on developmental work and a potential strategy for successful ideas and interventions. For non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to undertake advocacy and lobbying roles, they act as policy entrepreneurs which seek to influence and change policy in innovative ways in support of development objectives. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) advocacy can be seen as a particular form of micro-politics in which individuals and organizations seek influence. Advocacy work can take the forms of interpersonal efforts to influence policymakers. Non-



governmental organizations (NGOs) advocacy is not just connected to international institutions and policies, is not only directed towards influencing governments and donors, but is also increasingly concerned with influencing the private sector. In order to achieve success in changing policy, a coherent campaign strategy must be combined with adequate resources, and it is necessary for non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to frame the issue in such a way that it appeals to grassroots' groups and also limits the opposition's ability to organize. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) advocacy may involve the use of routine political channels, or more confrontational acts of protesting such as marches and demonstrations. Innovation is the second catalyst role of the non-governmental organizations (NGOs). An ability to innovate is often claimed as a special quality, or even as an area of comparative advantages of Non-governmental organizations NGOs over other kinds of organizations, especially government agencies. Innovation claims are one of the key justifications of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as purveyors of development alternatives. While not all non-governmental organizations (NGOs) see innovations as part of their activities, there is certainly evidence to support the idea that Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) contributed new approaches to poverty reduction. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) innovations can take several forms; some may be linked to development of new technologies, such as the so called sloping agricultural land technology (SALT) which developed by a non-governmental organization (NGO) in the Philippine in the 1980s. Others may be in developing a set of organizational arrangements to address a development problem such as the Grameen Bank's credit model with its tightly structured village-based group system or in devising new planning and research methods such as participatory rural appraisal (PRA). The Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) capacities to innovate come from their organizational characteristics and the quality of the relationships that they can create with other institutions. A non-governmental organization (NGO) as watchdogs is another key role to act as monitors which could be called "keep policy honest". This role may include the idea of being a whistle-blower if certain policies remain unimplemented or are carried out poorly, as well as scanning the policy horizon for events and activities which could interfere with future policy development and implementation (Ibid, pp. 97-110 .( )c) Partnership: A key element of new developmental policy is the creation of partnerships as a way of making more efficient uses of scarce resources, increasing institutional sustainability and improving the quality of on-governmental organizations (NGO's) interactions. Partnership usually refers to as an agreed relationship based on a set of links between two or more agencies within a project or program, usually involving a division of roles and responsibilities, a sharing of risks and the pursuit of joint objectives. It can be seen as a way to achieve development, since it has come to mean different things to different development actors. Partnerships are likely to be important for its performance. Some Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) may enter into new partnerships with other organizations in order

to gain access to external resources which are conditional on partnership. Others could engage with partners in partnership without adequately considering the wider implications. Active partnerships are those built through ongoing processes of negotiation, debate, occasional conflict and learning through trial and error. In such partnerships, risks are taken, and also roles and purposes are formulated in a clear way. They can change according to need and situations (Ibid, pp. 112-114 ).(

2.12.6 Civil Society Organizations (CSOs): The concept of civil society groups has come to form part of the development. Civil society group is usually means a space in which there exist a set of organizational actors which are not a part of the household, the state or the market. These organizations form a wide-ranging group which include associations, people's movements, citizens' groups, consumer associations, small producers associations, women's organizations, indigenous people's organizations and of course non-governmental organizations. Since this array of organizations and associations is public without being official, civil society groups enable citizens to debate and take action around public issues without state influence. The concept of civil society organizations (CSOs) has also come to be increasingly used with reference to global and international processes, as civil society groups seeking to represent themselves across nation-state boundaries by forming global institutions, either through formal links such as those between churches and trade unions, or informally, as with the growing networks among environmental activists, women movements and global non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as Amnesty International and Greenpeace. From the 1980s onwards, ideas about civil society groups began to be increasingly invoked within development policy as part of wider debates about politics and democratization, public participation and improved service delivery as well as in connection with non-governmental organizations (NGOs) campaigning and advocacy work at the international level. While the idea of civil society groups has become strongly linked to Non-governmental organizations (NGOs), the concept has roots which go back beyond our modern ideas about development. The concept of civil society is running alongside the concept of the third sector. In the context of Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and development, the long and complex philosophical roots of the concept are perhaps less -important than the fact that there are two basic approaches to civil society, which can be characterized as the liberal and radical views. In the liberal view which is the one that has been most popular with government and donors, civil society group is seen as an arena of organized citizens which acts as a balance on state and market. In this view, it is a place where civic democratic values can be upheld, and in a normative sense civil society group is considered on the whole to be a good thing. In the radical view, the role of civil society groups is as the location for independent resistance to the state and to draw attention to the constraints of class and gender on people's actions, to the tension between the state and civil society and to those which exist within civil society itself. The idea of the good governance that emerged in the 1990s has brought ideas

about civil society into development policy which considers it as a source of civic responsibility and public virtue and as a place where organized citizens can make a contribution to the public goods. The liberal view emphasized the social effects of civil society groups which could help to build the better citizens upon the idea of an interdependent relationship between market, state and civil society, within which a productive economy and a well-run government would sustain a vigorous civil society, a well-run government and vigorous civil society would support economic growth and a well-managed economy; and a strong civil society would act to produce efficient government. This logic was embraced by donors such as the World Bank during the 1990s and built in the aid conditionality. This required a competitive, largely privatized market economy, a well-managed state with good education; good healthcare services, just laws, and protected human rights, sound macroeconomic planning and a democratic civil society groups in which citizens have rights as voters and consumers so that they could hold their institutions accountable. The conditions also require a free press, regular changes of the government by free and fair elections and a set of legally encoded human rights. The growth of civil society was seen to have the potential to make an important contribution to build more democratic governance processes, because it helps to shift the balance of power between state and society in favor of the latter. It could also help to enforce values and standards of morality, performance and accountability in public life, and form a channel for organized citizen groups to articulate their demands within an alternative public space for political representation and action from outside formal structures such as political parties (Ibid, pp. 121-130).

## **Chapter Three**

### **Socio-Economic Development in South Sudan**

- 3.1 Education, Capacity Building and Training .**
- 3.2 Health, Nutrition and Environmental Health.**
- 3.3 Water Supply, Public Sanitation and Hygiene.**
- 3.4 Poverty, Hunger, Food Security and Livelihood .**
- 3.5 Population Growth and Labour Force Market .**
- 3.6 Gender Equality and Women Empowerment.**
- 3.7 Human Rights and Freedom of Expression.**

**3.0 Introduction:** This has focused on socio-economic development in South Sudan. Topics such as education, capacity building and training; health, nutrition, and environmental health; water supply, public sanitation, and hygiene; poverty, hunger, food security and livelihood; population growth and labour force market; and gender equality and women empowerment; in addition to human rights and freedom of expression have covered in details as follow .

**3.1 Education, Capacity Building and Training:** In this section the educational aspects, capacity building and skill development in South Sudan are highlighted in minute details as under .

**3.1.1 Historical Development of Education in South Sudan:** During the colonial years, the British did little for the people in terms of educational development in Southern Sudan. What was provided was basic numeracy and literacy to make civil servants that could run clerical jobs for the colonizers. Indeed up to around the 1930s education was mainly in the hands of missionaries, namely Anglican, Catholic, and Presbyterian (American) missions. Little investment was provided by the British administrators, apart from subsidies to the missionary schools. With such neglect and little investment for educational development, local capacity remained underdeveloped. In government schools, the focus was on the vernacular languages up until 1946, and for the very few who were permitted to receive intermediate education. The language of instruction was English, showing that it was intended for the master's own requirements not the locals. The imposition of the Southern Policy by the British colonialists was designed to divide the cultural, religious and ethnic components of the Sudan and set them against each other in order to facilitate their subjection or rule. The British intention was to separate the two regions and to create or maintain it, primarily through education, and Southern autonomy. When the northerners assumed leadership in the Sudan, Arabic language became the language of instruction, and few southerners were employed in the administration. From 1953, there was an introduction of Arabic into all Southern Sudan schools by Northern Sudanese administrators which was followed by immediate closure of Christian Missionaries since they were considered as private schools. In 1957, all the schools in Southern Sudan were nationalized and had to follow the national curriculum. The Language of Instruction was changed from English to Arabic. By the year 1964, all the Missionaries were expelled from Southern Sudan. These developments led to resentment from people of Southern Sudan resulting in a rapid decline of the already poor access and coverage of formal education in Southern Sudan .

In Sudan generally, since independence, education has witnessed a substantial expansion in terms of enrolment as well as the teaching at primary, intermediate and secondary levels. The highest rates of educational growth at intermediate and secondary level resulted in rising levels of literacy, though they were still relatively low, while the economy was expanding, and demanding human skills. In the 1950s education expansion was encouraged by the Sudanization of government jobs as well as the growth in economic activity. But the gains were fall-short as the development was hampered by the first civil war

(1955-1972), during which many schools were not functioning in Southern Sudan. The government spent less and less on education in 1970s. Consequently schools remained empty with such low expenditure. There were many children who were out of schooling system at any level, due to lack of enrolment opportunities, lack of schools, rising educational costs for poor families, high drop-out rates and inadequate government expenditure. The situation was particularly bad for women and children, who remain the most vulnerable victims of war. In the pre-1980s immediately prior to the civil wars, there was a shortage of qualified teachers and a lack of school equipment and textbooks. Many schools were established by communities on self-help basis, with the intention of handing them over to the government which did not happen due to lack of adequate funding. Thus the community schools were overcrowded, under-resourced, with too few and untrained teachers, who did not receive wages on time, thus leaving them unmotivated. But the same cannot be said of the north where some level of infrastructural development was put in place. Even before the second civil war, regional disparities in education were prevalent in both sides of Sudan. In the nineties, during the years of civil war and famine, there were more schools functioning and more children enrolled in schools in Southern Sudan than they were before the outbreak of the war particularly, in opposition-held areas. The Southern regions of Upper Nile and Bahr al-Ghazal had low enrolments compared to regions in the north or even parts of the Equatoria. Prior to the year 2003, education in Southern Sudan was primarily provided by international development agencies under the auspices of the Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS) coordinated by United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) until May 2003. The Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS)/Southern sector was a consortium of United Nations (UN)'s agencies, international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) and Sudanese indigenous non-governmental organizations (NGOs) working primarily, but not exclusively, in the opposition-held areas in South Sudan. In 2003, there were a total of eighteen international and twenty Sudanese organizations involved in education in Southern Sudan (MOEST and UNICEF, Final Report, 2008, pp. 13-16.)

3.1.2 Formal Education System in South Sudan: South Sudan's formal education system of general education consists of two years of pre-primary school, eight years of primary school and four years of secondary school, in addition to three up to six years of higher educational level. South Sudan has built a national education system. At the time of the comprehensive peace agreement (CPA), there were no many functioning educational institutions. The development of such institutions in an environment marked by severe budget constraints, insecurity, and a very small pool of administrators with anything more than a secondary education is a formidable task. Nonetheless, much progress has been made. The past years have seen the emergence of national education management systems extending from the central government to state governments and devolved to local authorities. However, there are strains and capacity constraints across the system, notably in the developed sub-national authorities. South Sudan's

decentralized education system assigns clear responsibilities across the different levels of government. The county education departments are responsible for the delivery of primary education, in collaboration with education inspectors at the payam levels. The state ministries of education provide leadership for education service delivery and management, disseminate policies and guidelines, plan resource allocation for the education sector at the state levels, and inspect performance at the county levels. At the national level, the Ministry of General Education and Instruction provides overall leadership; develops policies, guidelines, and standards; allocates resources through the annual budget process; sets the national curriculum; and supervises the overall provision of primary and secondary education services in the country. The ability of each level of government to effectively carry out these responsibilities ultimately governs the degree and quality of primary education in South Sudan. In this regard, channeling development partner assistance in a way that supports different levels of government to better fulfill their prescribed mandates, presents the most promising and sustainable solution to improving access and learning. Through the development of a primary education service delivery framework in late 2012, the government diagnosed a number of system and capacity challenges that are preventing local governments from fulfilling their mandate to deliver primary education. On the financing issue, it was found that under the current intergovernmental fiscal transfer system, little nonwage funding is reaching local governments for primary education service delivery. County education departments are not receiving reliable resources of operating funding from the central and state governments, which given them limited ability to generate revenues from their own resources, and means that they are often left unable to carry out their key managerial and inspection functions. Moreover, transfers to states through the local government grant system are weakly related to enrollment, the cost of provision, and the level of unmet need. This in turn has hampered the development of effective oversight and support through local government. The lack of operating funds at the school level is also having a number of negative consequences. One of them is the endemic shortage of basic inputs for education as described above. Two-thirds of students did not even have paper to write on, and one-fifth did not have writing instruments. Such shortages inevitably limit opportunities for reinforcing what is taught .

Another concern is that, they are unable to cover their basic operating costs for school supplies or basic maintenance of infrastructure, that let many schools to charge fee which is a financial approach that limits access for the poorest children, reinforces gender inequality since many parents are unwilling to pay for female education, and contributes to high dropout rates. However, this system is not fully implemented, as the majority of schools in South Sudan do not offer the complete educational cycle. Hence, school availability does not accurately represent accessibility to all levels of primary or basic and secondary education. Literacy levels in South Sudan remain the lowest one in the world, with only 27% of males and 19% of females, as well as 15% and over being able to read. Current rates of attendance in formal

educational institutions also remain low, 52% of those aged fifteen years old and above in the urban areas having never been in school; in rural areas this number reaches 77.9%. There are about 1.3 million children of primary (basic) school age without access to education a situation that disproportionately affects girls, as they are less likely to enroll in school programs and more likely to drop out in the early stages of education. Disparities are not just present in enrolment, as South Sudan has low female-to-male teacher ratios, with some states having as little as 5% of females teaching at schools. South Sudan has an acute deficit of trained teachers, with over 40% of the teachers achieving only primary (basic) education, 45% with a maximum of secondary education and 10% with no formal, or unrecognized vocational training. These educational deficiencies are not consistent across the country; with some states like Northern Bahr el Ghazal, Warrap, Lakes and Unity have high rates of enrollment though educational infrastructure and student resources are quite limited. A lack of educational infrastructure is even more problematic in counties because of high return, where the recent influx of returnees strains the limited capacity of schools. In addition, returnees particularly, those arriving from Khartoum and rest of the Sudan having a difficult time adjusting to the host educational system, as they have not achieved an adequate proficiency in English language to resume at the same point of study they halted before returning to South Sudan. Under general educational system there are several educational stages such as:

a) Early Childhood Development (ECD): Early child development level is often poorly advocated for, despite international recognition of its importance in education for all (EFA), and its supporting effects for children to enter and stay in school. Currently, there are 333 pre-primary centers in South Sudan with just over 47,000 enrollees. The majority of these centers are government or community owned and operated. Most early child development (ECD) centers are of low quality and are concentrated in urban and semi-urban areas. Textbooks are in short supply. For instance, there are frequently 25 learners per mathematics textbook and just 37% of early child development (ECD) teachers are trained. Early child development (ECD) lacks support from government and communities, as well as an educational management information system (EMIS), monitoring and evaluation (M&E) tools, consistent standards and oversight. All these need to be addressed in the framework of the general education (GES) (MoGEI, General Education Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, pp.23-24.)

(b) Primary or Basic Education: In South Sudan currently, few children and youth complete the full primary or basic education cycle, let alone go on to complete secondary and post-secondary studies. For South Sudan to meet its long-term development needs, it must develop its native human resources to their full potential. While enrolment in the primary and secondary systems has increased dramatically in the years since the comprehensive peace agreement (CPA), overage children make up 85% of all primary school enrollees, and 90% of those children enrolled in secondary school. The Net Enrolment Rate for at-age children in the primary system is 42.9%. This has decreased from the 44.4% in 2010. The reasons for



this are not clear, but it is likely that quality of infrastructure and teaching are strong contributory factors. This massive demand for education has led to a shortage of qualified primary school teachers. Combined with poor management and supervision of teachers, lack of physical infrastructure, inadequate teaching and learning materials and low participation of school committees and communities in school management contribute to significant challenges. In 2010 about 68.8% of the primary age population that eventually enrolled in school, only 17-18% was likely to complete the eight years of the primary cycle. And only 13% of schools offered the eighth and final grade with large disparities between states, which affecting access and motivation for retention and completion. Classrooms continue to be overcrowded due to overage children, as well as due to the continuous arrival of returnees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) who may use schools as emergency shelters, leading to disruption of schooling and potential tensions. This puts a strain on classrooms, teachers and textbooks; hence lowering quality. Less than half of the learning spaces are permanent or semi-permanent structures. This is a major access problem because some of these poor structures may be destroyed by seasonal rains or floods, and are less secure. Here too large disparities prevail between states (Ibid, p.24).

**Table 3.1: Gross primary enrolment rates by state, 2009–2015:**

|                | Years |  |  |  |  |  |
|----------------|-------|--|--|--|--|--|
|                |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Bahr el Ghazal |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Equatoria      |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Equatoria      |       |  |  |  |  |  |
|                |       |  |  |  |  |  |
|                |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Bahr el Ghazal |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Equatoria      |       |  |  |  |  |  |
|                |       |  |  |  |  |  |
|                |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| le             |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Idan           |       |  |  |  |  |  |

Source: Situation Assessment of Children and Women in South Sudan 2015.

)c) Secondary Education: The Government of South Sudan is committed to the provision of secondary education to the growing population of students. With a Net Enrollment Rate (NER) for at-age children of only 2.3% such an aspiration will be very difficult. In most states, less than 5% or 1% of the children of secondary school in age nineteen years old attend school. Many secondary schools do not offer a full secondary cycle from Secondary one to Secondary four. In addition, there is an extremely high

drop-out rate of 61.9% of children between secondary three and secondary four, which is extremely an alarm problem. Most of the student population aged 14-17 years old are at primary level or are out-of-school. This is because of returnees and internally displaced persons (IDPs), issues such as lack of classrooms, teachers, and materials. There is poor promotion which rates only 24% from secondary three to secondary four that causes high drop-out rates. All of these issues, there is extra strain on the Alternative Education System (AES), which needs to absorb both overage primary as well as secondary dropouts, in addition to those who have never been to school. Even at current dropout rates, over 305,000 at-age and overage children and youth will be looking for secondary and vocational school spaces, and those spaces simply do not exist. And the Ministry has not yet prepared places for the thousands of children and youth currently enrolled in the non-formal Accelerated Learning Programs, who will achieve their primary leaving certificates and will be looking to re-enter the formal system (Ibid, p. 25 ).(

) d) Technical and Vocational Education: In South Sudan, technical, and vocational education and training is provided in formal, non-formal and informal programs. And it aims to the equipping of youth and adults with the qualifications needed to meet the economic and social development of the country. The low capacity at the secondary school level coupled with the high dropout rates, and the need to expand or operate the existing facilities for technical and vocational education and training (TVET) are driving forces in order to address, at least partially, the needs of the large numbers of students who drop out of the general education system. Vocational education is currently offered at five public secondary technical schools under monitoring of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST). Such technical and commercial secondary schools are operating effectively, in Juba and Wau, in addition to an agricultural secondary school in Wau town. Several other schools are not functioning as a result of severe damage and the conflict situation in the country. According to the Directorate of Technical and Vocational Education and Training at the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST), only about 400 students enroll in the technical and vocational education and training (TVET) stream every year out of a total secondary educational intake of about 18,000 students. Vocational training in South Sudan is provided through a network of five public vocational training centers (VTCs), operating under the Ministry of Labor, Public Service and Human Resource Development (MLPSHRD). The vocational and training centers (VTCs) offer both short and long-term courses from three months to two years training programs. These courses target mainly unemployed individuals, returnees and internally displaced persons (IDPs). A short-term or three months vocational training program for ex-combatants was piloted in the mid of the year 2013 by the National Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Commission (NDDRC) and United Nations Educational, Science and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). The first group of 292 people was trained in Western Bahr el Ghazal State particularly at Mapel area in 2013. The overall plan was initially to train 150,000 ex-combatants in ten centers nationwide. Technical

and vocational education and training (TVET) programs and courses of different natures such as informal, non-formal and formal are also offered by several other ministries, including Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport (MCYS) which is currently operating three youth training centers in Juba, Wau and Malakal town, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Industry, the Ministry of Petroleum and Mining, and the Ministry of Transport and Bridges. Numerous non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are implementing or plan to implement different kinds of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) programs in formal, non-formal and informal methods in basic occupational skills and training; among them Norwegian People Aid; the Norwegian Refugee Council; Plan International; and Women for Women International. In South Sudan the workplace and traditional apprenticeships as mode of delivery for vocational training are rare. Unofficial apprenticeships occur in the fields of carpentry, metalwork and vehicle mechanics. However, these are usually spontaneous individual efforts by entrepreneurs who have been trained by non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Considerations should be made to create workplaces to be effective learning environments. It is also necessary to consider the kinds, duration and sequencing of work-based learning in training programs. Work-based learning needs to be legitimized and understood more fully, and its potential contributions should be elaborated in greater detail and the means by which it can be effectively enacted more solidly could be informed (UNESCO, TVET Policy Review, 2014, pp. 25-27 .(

e) Alternative Education: Since the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005, the government of South Sudan has been working to provide educational opportunities for all citizens regardless of their age. The Alternative Education Systems (AES) was formalized in 2002 under the Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM) Secretariat of Education (SE) and confirmed by the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005 to provide education to out of school children, youth and adults including organized armed forces. Since then the Alternative Education Systems (AES) Directorate has expanded its education programs to provide multiple pathways towards achieving literate and educated members of society. There are six Alternative Education System (AES) programs including Accelerated Learning Program (ALP), Community Girl Schools (CGS), Pastoralist Education Program (PEP), Basic Adult Literacy Program (BALP), Intensive English Courses (IEC), and South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction (SSIRI). In 2012 there were 220,909 Alternative Education Systems (AES) learners with a further estimation of 180,000 in South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction (SSIRI) programs. The principal goal of Alternative Education Systems in South Sudan is to provide learning opportunities for learners who have missed their formal education in the basic education system and for those who never joined basic education. In addition to the eradication of illiteracy among adults to improve employability of young people and adults and promote lifelong learning for all citizens. Currently the Alternative Education System (AES) Directorate provides non-formal programs of

education delivering basic literacy, numeracy and primary level education to out of school children, youth and adults throughout South Sudan. It complements the formal education system and works with it to provide multiple pathways for enrollment in primary, secondary, and vocational or adult education. Alternative Education System (AES) encourages out of school children and overage youth back into the formal education system. It provides literacy and numeracy in national languages and English, and is responsible for raising the English competencies of Arabic pattern and non English speakers. By providing accelerated learning classes and removing those over-age children and youth already enrolled in formal primary schools. Alternative education system (AES) can reduce the pressure on primary school classes. Accelerated learning program (ALP) learners can exit accelerated learning program (ALP) classes and reenter primary school at the appropriate age or complete their primary schooling in four years and access secondary education. Prospective restrictions on primary enrolment to children of the appropriate age are likely to have a significant impact on the opportunities for overage children to access education. These overage children will then join the ranks of the 1.4 million children and youth, many of them in rural areas, without access to basic education services. The flexible nature of alternative education system (AES) programs in terms of timing, location and mode of delivery addresses the needs of youth and adults who have livelihood responsibilities and provides education opportunities that can complement and enhance their working life. It can better target the most disadvantaged youth and adults including girls and women, street working children, adults in prisons, organized armed forces and their children, and agro-pastoralists by providing education suitable to their customs and lifestyle needs. The successes of alternative education system (AES) programs include good gender parity with girls or women making up 44% of learners in alternative education system (AES), low dropout rates of 5.6% and almost one third as many primary eight graduates as formal education despite having only 20% as many learners. The rationale for the continuation of alternative education system (AES) is to provide quality, organized, and flexible basic education for the many millions of children, youth and adults that do not have access to, have dropped out of or have missed formal education as a result of the decades of armed conflict in South Sudan. The majority of alternative education system (AES) programs are implemented by the government with about a third implemented by a number of non-government organizations (NGOs), community based organizations (CBOs) and Church organizations. Alternative education system (AES) has six alternative education programs. And they are .

.1 Accelerated Learning Program (ALP): The accelerated learning program (ALP) targets learners at the age 12-18 years old, who are overage for primary classes, and who have dropped out or could not access education. This program uses a condensed primary curriculum to accelerate learners through the grades and reenter primary school at an age appropriate to a grade or complete the primary cycle in four years instead of eight. Level four learners can take the South Sudan Primary Leaving examinations and go

on to secondary school. However many adults join accelerated learning program (ALP) to become literate and educated. In 2012, 175,396 learners were enrolled in accelerated learning program (ALP) classes, with 4,500 sitting the South Sudan Primary Leaving examinations .

.2Community Girl Schools (CGS): This program provides quality basic education for 8-12 years old girls in villages that having no schools. The community girl schools (CGS) covers the lower cycle of primary education in three years with girls enrolling in primary five in nearby primary schools. Although priority is given to girls, boys can make up 30% of the classes. In 2012, 12,552 children were enrolled in community girl schools (CGS) with over 70% girls .

.3Pastoralist Education Program (PEP): This program targets primary age children in pastoralist communities. In recognition of the pastoralists' way of life and the need to provide a relevant and flexible model of education, pastoralist education program (PEP) provides mobile primary education with teachers that travel with the community. The pastoralist education program (PEP) uses the formal primary curriculum with the aim to transition children to formal primary schools. Accelerated learning program (ALP) classes are also conducted in pastoralist communities. In 2013 there were 108 mobile pastoralist schools with over 12,000 learners .

.4Basic Adult Literacy Program (BALP): This program targets youth and adults with age of 18 years old and above who have had few or no opportunities for literacy and numeracy due to civil war, traditional barriers, and socioeconomic status. The program includes functional adult literacy and numeracy with a focus on livelihood activities to promote a positive change in learners' lives and encourage lifelong learning .

.5Intensive English Course (IEC): The Transitional Constitution of South Sudan states that "English shall be the official working language in the Republic of South Sudan, as well as the language of instruction at all levels of education from primary four". The intensive English course (IEC) is designed to address the needs of people lacking proficiency in English Language. It consists of short supplementary courses to upgrade English language skills and enhance the learners' performance in their professional, social or educational areas. Intensive English course (IEC) has been used predominately to upgrade the English language skills of Arabic pattern teachers, students and civil servants who acquired their education in other languages .

6. South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction (SSIRI): the South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction (SSIRI) programs aim to improve basic education for children in schools and learning centers, and also reach out of school youth and adults. There are three interactive radio programs such as Learning Village to supplement classroom teaching in lower primary classes; Radio Based Education for All (RABEA), based on the basic accelerated learning program (BALP) curriculum for youth and adults; and

Professional Studies for Teachers (PST) to upgrade teachers’ skills which address in-service teacher training topics (MoEST, Policy for Alternative Education Systems, pp. 5-8).

**Table3.2: Numbers of Students in Alternative Educations by State 2008–2013:**

|                         | Years |  |  |  |  |  |
|-------------------------|-------|--|--|--|--|--|
|                         |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Central Equatoria       |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Eastern Equatoria       |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Jonglei                 |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Lakes                   |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Northern Bahr el Ghazal |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Upper Nile              |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Unity                   |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Warrap                  |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Western Bahr el Ghazal  |       |  |  |  |  |  |
| Western Equatoria       |       |  |  |  |  |  |
|                         |       |  |  |  |  |  |

Source: Situation Assessment of Children and Women in South Sudan 2015.

3.1.3 Higher Education in South Sudan: In South Sudan there are five public universities and very few private ones. These five public universities are University of Juba, University of Bahr el Ghazal, Upper Nile University, University of Rumbek and University of Dr. John Garang De Mabior of Science and Technology. These universities represent more than 80% of the 6,527 young adult students in South Sudan. The students in these universities provide education services in a more limited capacity and English-based system. This potential of professional human resources could impact the capacity of South Sudan’s post-independence socioeconomic development efforts. More broadly, post-independence South Sudan provides an important window of opportunity for the learning, self-realization and social and economic contributions of its youth and young adults. The higher education sector can contribute to a long-term peace-building and development. A small higher education in South Sudan offers some initial

policy and program for development decisions, especially in supporting and engaging higher education institutions. The higher education institutions in South Sudan can contribute to societal resilience and the prevention of any repeated conflict threats. During the conflict all the three major South Sudanese higher education universities, namely University of Juba, University of Bahr el Ghazal and University of Upper Nile had been relocated and functioned in Northern Sudan. In post-independence period, South Sudanese returnees now faced a variety of challenges in terms of education. Concerns around the capacity of the newly independent country to meet the education needs of the returnees are expressed obviously. The capacity development of higher education staff has been neglected over the years of the conflict and there are no higher education qualifications frameworks or systems to examine and certify existing and new higher learning institutions. There are so many issues facing the higher education in South Sudan such as low numbers of staff, a lack of basic facilities including buildings, computers, up-to-date resources, reliable electricity supply, a lack of teaching and research training for new lecturers, and the non-payment of salaries over several months after independence in the year 2011. There is a strong sense among the South Sudanese that higher education has a vital role to play in shaping a positive future of the country. In other words, the meaning and purpose of higher education is clearly linked to the country's ability to build a constructive national South Sudanese identity away from the violence and conflict that had previously occupy the country. In particular, higher education development is a way of ensuring that indigenous capacities were built and that the causes of conflict have addressed and would not result in a return to violence and conflict. Higher education can be considered as a catalytic force to unify South Sudanese communities. This is because the higher education in South Sudan can continuously provide a positive future for communities through its role in the peaceful nation building of the country. Indeed, in South Sudan, the higher education sector is in an imminent need of both short-term and emergency support to avoid falling into such serious problems and setting the foundations for its long-term development. The value of working with higher education institutions specifically, is that it mobilizes their mandate to promote academia's social engagement and responsibility. Thus a significant focus of higher education sector work is often on its contribution to the labor markets through introduction of relevant knowledge and skills which are important in a country like South Sudan where there may have been significant social change and even institutional reconstruction (World Bank, South Sudan Education Resilience Report, 2013, pp. 12-25.)

3.1.4 Teachers Training and Skills Development: Briefly, teachers training is a program that helps teachers develop the knowledge, skills and attitudes they need to teach competently, in their own classrooms. The concept has changed over the years, from on-the-job training to government-based training in normal schools to teachers colleges and finally, to university faculties, schools and departments of education. In time, the term teacher training came to be used in developing countries to

encompass teacher preparation in the pre-service mode, and teacher upgrading skills and qualifications through the in-service teacher mode. In industrialized countries, however, training tends to mean a more restricted kind of education focused on specific outcomes achieved through a sequence of steps, within a specific period of time. It is based on the assumption that through mastering of discrete skills, teachers will be effective in the classrooms. Where training represents a pre-planned agenda set by the workplace or syllabus, education represents an important, flexible agenda set by groups. Where training implies the needs of the workplace, education implies personal needs. Where training leads to qualification, education leads to career development. Training relies on leader and experts, education on peer groups. And where training leads to standardization, education leads to innovation. Teacher training, then, instead teacher education is more often used in industrialized countries. Teacher education refers to formally organized attempts to provide more knowledge, skills and dispositions to prospective or experienced teachers. Thus, teacher education refers to pre-service as well as in-service preparation; and a variety of ways of bringing about learning formally organized attempts rather than simply the inculcation of skills. There is a concept of teacher development which is even broader than teacher education. Teacher development is a continuous process that begins with pre-service teacher preparation and spans the entire career of the teacher. Whether it is a teacher training, preparation, education or development; usually, the ultimate purpose of such programs is, to ensure that teachers have the knowledge, skills and attitudes or dispositions they need to teach well, and to continue to teach better as they evolve in their profession. In fact, teacher training throughout the developing world, often, refers to modes of training such as pre-service or in-service training. There are five models or programs that have been used in teachers training in South Sudan.

)a) Crash Training Program: Crash training program is the model that has designed to train as many teachers in a short period of time as possible. Crash training programs are designed to meet the needs of a countries faced with an immediate and urgent need for large numbers of teachers. In addition to the advantage of being able to provide large numbers of teachers in a short amount of time, crash training programs tend to be popular with the public, and thereby providing governments with a means of support and credibility in times of transition or instability.

)b) Distance Education: Distance education is an approach in which a significant proportion of the teaching is conducted by someone in which the learner is removed from an institution of learning such as a teacher training college. Distance education models offer significant advantages in terms of coverage and cost, with the bonus of reaching students in their own communities, to solve the recruitment problems .

) c) Mixed-mode Model: The mixed-mode program combines college-based work with different types of distance learning. Mixed-mode programs combine the advantages of pre-service and in-service



by capitalizing on the resources available in an institutional setting such as personnel, information resources, and infrastructure while realizing the advantages of in-service modes like practical instruction and economies of scale .

)d) Local Recruitment Model: According to the local recruitment model, teachers are recruited and trained locally to work in schools in their own communities. This model carries numerous advantages, notably the issue of staffing rural schools, recruiting members of underrepresented groups and women into the teaching force, providing a flexible model of schooling for rural children such as school calendars adapted to agricultural schedules, and providing teachers capable of teaching in the language of the environment. Local recruitment model is capable of getting greater numbers of teachers into schools more quickly than conventional programs while providing more practical training at reduced costs.

)e) Structured materials model: Similar to the local recruitment model, the structured materials model also usually targets undertrained teachers and hard-to-reach populations, through the use of highly-structured instructional materials. These models provide teachers with an alternative model of teaching while relieving the teacher burden at the school level, sometimes functioning with 1 or 2 teachers in a school. At the same time, structured materials programs can strengthen pupils' study, communication and critical thinking skills (Mark Lynd, 2005, pp. 33-39 .(

3.1.5Capacity Building in South Sudan: The link between capacity building, and conflict prevention and peace building (CPPB) is relating to state building, decentralized decision-making and the building of an effective and legitimate government. A key component of capacity building is finance. The building of peace and a strong state requires funds to build the state administration at all levels, provide infrastructure, fund basic services and resolve conflict. The capacity building efforts in South Sudan are mostly have a strong emphasis on training. There is no doubt that the Government of South Sudan (GoSS) and the State governments need assistance in implementation of projects in all sectors. Building capacity of the Government of South Sudan (GoSS) and of states to deliver basic services is a key priority. The prioritization of capacity building efforts were adversely affected by the funding shortfall on Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) commitments that appeared in 2007/2008. Yet neither the Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) nor the Multi-Donors Trust Fund South Sudan (MDTF-S) had developed a realistic and practical program for tackling capacity building in such a complex and unusual environment, and there was no joint donor strategy. In general, capacity building support programs are regionally too limited and not sufficient to cover the whole South Sudan. The programs of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), focus on all ten States but it was acknowledged that they were too thinly spread, mostly supporting the States with only one technical staff. In addition, the programs often lack funds for the entire projected period and the time frame thus becomes foreshortened with a compromise on quality. The Capacity Building Trust Fund (CBTF), created in 2004 to support the Sudan's people

Liberation Movement (SPLM) transition to government through capacity building measures, support to Sudan's people Liberation Movement (SPLM) operating expenses and private sector development projects. In practice the bulk of its finance has aided government capacity building through the Government Accountancy Training Centre and support to the public sector reform process. The weakness of the human resources base as well as its management in South Sudan has been compounded by the lack of a strategic approach towards building the mandate and functions of the central government and the states. The range of donor activities emphasized on the social sectors in order to build capacity that would deliver services and therefore have an impact on the peace dividend; others emphasized on public financial management of the Government of South Sudan (GoSS) so that it could purchase and deliver goods and services that would also build the machinery of government. Moreover, donor programs or activities were restricted only to training since their mandates would not allow for other types of activities. The physical infrastructure, systems and procedures were absent or minimal. The needs were rarely taken into account. In addition, training government officials who were subject to retrenchment in the short-term could be interpreted as a lost investment. The training of employees who were in the wrong post for their skills and qualifications may lead to an oversupply of unsuitable personnel. Various interpretations of human resource needs and related systems have emerged, and setting priorities and sequences for capacity building activities in relation to government functions have been notoriously difficult. With limited resources and increasing demands on the few able civil servants, the trade-off between key functions such as public financial management and service delivery at central government and state level has not been fully appreciated. Challenges in capacity building differ in South Sudan. Donors did not take such differences into account while this would affect definition of the need for capacity building interventions. Some programs do not support all the states or have selected states or counties based on donor criteria. This confusion results in equity problems and certain areas may be over or underserved. Again, the time frame for support is short. Donors assumed that the Government of South Sudan (GoSS) would be able to assume responsibility for effective local government in a relatively short period of time turned out to be a serious overestimation. The big mistake that has been made was that the development of the private sector in South Sudan has been neglected. Most training efforts and building of institutions are not sustainable. Capacity enhancement is an important task in South Sudan. The Government of South Sudan should define the priorities for capacity building, rather than developing lists of what the donors want (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Netherlands, Final Report, 2010, pp. 123-125 .(

3.2 Health, Nutrition and Environmental Health: In this part of this chapter, issues such as health situation, nutrition status, and environmental conditions in South Sudan have been covered as follow .

3.2.1 Health Situation in South Sudan: The 2005 Interim Constitution of South Sudan states that "all levels of government in Southern Sudan shall promote public health, establish, rehabilitate and

develop basic medical and diagnostic institutions as well as provide free primary healthcare and emergency services for all citizens". South Sudanese people have experienced poor healthcare provision due to the protracted resource and politically motivated conflicts that disrupted the health system. Inevitably, this resulted in the country having the worst health indicators globally. South Sudan has one of the highest Maternal Mortality Rates (MMR) in the World, which estimated at 2054 per 100,000 live births. Although close to 46.7% of pregnant women attend at least one Antenatal Care (ANC) visit, only 14.7% of deliveries are attended by skilled health professionals. Institutional deliveries account for just 12.3% of births, while the contraceptive prevalence rate is 4.7%. The caesarean section rate, a good indicator of access to Comprehensive Emergency Obstetric and Neonatal Care (CEONC), is only 0.5% of the population served in the three teaching hospitals of Juba, Malakal and Wau. Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) and Under-five Mortality Rate (UMR) are very high at 102 per 1000 and 135 per 1000 live births, respectively. The Expanded Program on Immunization (EPI) program performance is suboptimal with only 13.8% of children under 12 months having received Diphtheria, Pertussis, Tetanus (DPT) and just 1.8% children under-five years of age fully immunized. Other major causes of infant and under-five morbidity and mortality are malaria, pneumonia, diarrheal diseases, and malnutrition. 22.7% of children with diarrhea received oral rehydration therapy and only 35.1% of children with suspected pneumonia are taken to an appropriate healthcare provider or health facility. Malaria accounts for almost a quarter or 24.7% of all diagnoses reported by health facilities in South Sudan. According to the 2009 South Sudan Malaria Indicator Survey (SSMIS), up to 35% of children below five years had suffered from a fever and only 12% of children with fever were treated with an appropriate anti-malarial medicine within twenty four hours of the onset of fever. Although 60% of households have one or more insecticide-treated nets, information on appropriate, consistent and correct use of bed nets is lacking. The Malaria Control Program's main interventions are case management and distribution of bed nets through community mobilization. The principal challenges include lack of early diagnosis and treatment as well as insufficient vector control. Tuberculosis (TB) is among the major causes of morbidity and mortality in South Sudan. The annual incidence of all forms of Tuberculosis (TB) is estimated at 140 per 100,000 population and 79 per 100,000 are positive cases, while Tuberculosis (TB) specific mortality is estimated at 65 per 100,000 population. The treatment success rate for positive Tuberculosis (TB) was 79% in 2008. There are about 41 Tuberculosis (TB) diagnostic and treatment centers which successfully treated 9,894 patients from 2005 through 2010. The Directly Observed Treatment (DOTs) coverage is currently 48%. The challenges facing the National Tuberculosis Program are low case detection, TB-HIV co-infection and low recording and reporting. The prevalence of HIV/AIDS in South Sudan is estimated at 3%, with the epidemic considered to be generalized, and some areas are described as hot spots. The prevalence is expected to increase, mainly due to the low levels of knowledge on HIV/AIDS and the prevailing high risk behaviors.

There are seventeen HIV treatment centers in South Sudan taking care of about 8,000 clients of them about 5% are children with close to 2,500 on Antiretroviral Therapy (ART). The HIV program has established 55 Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT) and over 105 HIV Testing and Counseling (HTC) sites that are integrated into existing health care structures or facilities. The main challenges include low levels of knowledge about HIV/AIDS, multiple concurrent sexual partners, poverty, low school enrolment and a huge gap in strategic information. The over dependence of the program on the Global Fund and Multi Donor Trust Fund (MDTF) for implementation is a critical challenge for sustainability. Neglected Tropical Diseases (NTDs) are endemic in South Sudan and account for a considerable proportion of the disease burden. The major Neglected Tropical Diseases (NTDs) include Kala-azar, Lymphatic filariasis, River blindness and Bilharzia. While all age groups are afflicted by these conditions, children and women are the most affected. The major challenge in control and management of the neglected tropical diseases (NTDs) is the vertical programming approach as well as the lack of a vector control unit in the Ministry of Health (MOH). Besides Malaria, Tuberculosis (TB) and human immunodeficiency virus and acquired immune deficiency syndrome (HIV/AIDS), epidemic communicable diseases contribute to the burden of diseases in the country. This poses a great challenge to the nascent Emergency Preparedness and Response Department, which has to frequently respond to outbreaks of diseases, such as measles, Kala-azar, meningitis, cholera, anthrax and hepatitis E. The weak disease surveillance and response system, coupled with inadequate funding, compromises their capacity to control epidemics. The burden of non-communicable diseases (NCDs) is on the rise, especially injuries related to road traffic accidents, cardiovascular diseases like hypertension, stroke and diabetes. Non-communicable diseases (NCDs) control has never been prioritized in the Ministry of Health (MoH) budget since 2005. The main challenge for non-communicable diseases (NCDs) control is the lack of strategic information on their prevalence and associated risk factors. While the burden of ophthalmic conditions in South Sudan is significantly high, eye care services to respond to this burden are insufficient. The overall active trachoma prevalence rate is 64% among children aged one to nine years, and the blindness due to trachoma is estimated to be 1.6%. 50% of areas in South Sudan are considered meso-endemic for River blindness, while 38% are hyper endemic. Mass drug administration along with health education is currently being implemented in a few selected counties. The challenges to the control of ophthalmic conditions include insufficient funds, lack of trained human resources and poor infrastructure including unpaved roads, lack of clean water, and lack of basic education (Ministry of Health, Health Sector Development Plan, 2012, pp. 5-7).

**Table 3.3: Health Status Indicators in South Sudan; compared with average of the region Middle East and North Africa (MENA) in 2011:**

|                                |  | Average | Key                                |
|--------------------------------|--|---------|------------------------------------|
| mortality rate                 |  |         | 100,000 live births                |
| mortality rate                 |  |         | 1000 live births                   |
| mortality rate                 |  |         | women                              |
| mortality rate                 |  |         | 1000 live births                   |
| maternal visit                 |  |         | pregnancy                          |
| maternal deliveries            |  |         | attended in health facilities      |
| birth attendance               |  |         | deliveries attended by skilled HRH |
| contraceptives prevalence rate |  |         | contraceptives among women         |
| coverage routine               |  |         | 1 routine vaccination              |
| person health care             |  |         | person/year                        |

Source: National Ministry of Health; Health Sector Development Plan 2011 – 2015

3.2.2 Health System and Facilities: Due to the civil wars, the chronic lack of social conditions, the lack of investment and loss of health personnel has left the national health infrastructure without facilities, equipment and human resources. This is not to say that the country has not continued to produce physicians and nurses, for indeed it has, albeit in increasingly small numbers. But trained staffs have been exposed to the same insecurity as everyone else, and many have been forced to leave. The current health network includes fourteen hospitals, ninety two Primary Health Care Centers (PHCC) and 567 primary health care (PHC) units. The geographical distribution of these facilities and services, however, is poor and many areas are bereft of any type of functioning facility. The decades of war in South Sudan virtually led to the collapse of the entire health system, as evidenced by the poor health outcome indicators of the country that are among the worst globally. Health services delivery in South Sudan is structured along the following four tiers; Primary Health Care Units (PHCUs), Primary Health Care Centers (PHCCs), County Hospitals (CHs) and State Hospitals (SHs) in addition to Teaching Hospitals (THs). These facilities are to a large extent aligned to the administrative subdivisions of the country in

both rural and urban areas. Primary Health Care Units (PHCUs), which are the first level of primary care, provide basic, preventive, promoted and curative services and are expected to serve a population of 15,000 persons. Primary Health Care Units (PHCUs) are located in bomas. Primary Health Care Units (PHCCs) are the immediate level of referral cases. In addition to services provided at the primary health care unit (PHCU), primary health care centers (PHCCs) deliver diagnostic laboratory services, maternity and inpatient care. They are expected to serve a population of up to 50,000 persons. Primary health care centers (PHCCs) are usually situated at payam headquarters. However, in urban areas, due to the size of the population, primary health care centers (PHCCs) are located at bomas and payams as well. Besides offering facility based services, outreaches are organized from primary health care centers (PHCCs) to bomas and villages if the primary health care center (PHCC) is situated at payam headquarters or from boma to villages if it is situated in a boma. The County Hospitals (CHs) are located at county administrative headquarters of local government. The County Hospitals (CHs) serve as the referral level for primary health care centers (PHCCs). Besides the services provided by the latter, county hospitals (CHs) provide emergency surgical operations. County hospitals are expected to serve a population of 300,000 persons, while the state hospitals serve a population of approximately 500,000 persons. County and state hospitals represent the secondary health care level, where general medical specialists such as surgeons, obstetricians, physicians and pediatricians provide care, training and mentoring of interns. Teaching hospitals provide treatment care. Currently they are performing basic functions due to lack of equipment, structures and qualified human resources. In addition they provide training to a diverse mix of health professionals and conduct research. It is worth noting that training of some mid-level health professionals, such as nurses, midwives and laboratory technicians, takes place at state hospitals also. At the national level, the Ministry of Health provides overall leadership; develops policies, guidelines and standards; engages in advocacy and resource mobilization and supervises the overall health care service delivery in the country. However, due to the current capacity inadequacies at state ministries of health (SMOH), Ministry of Health (MOH) continues to perform some service delivery functions, which are a core function of the former. In addition, Ministry of Health (MOH) directly manages the three teaching hospitals. The state ministry of health (SMOH) provides leadership for health service delivery and management in their respective states. State ministry of health (SMOH) and county health departments (CHDs) are responsible for delivery of secondary and primary health care (PHC) services respectively. The county health departments (CHDs) manage the delivery of primary health care (PHC) services at payam, boma and village levels. Health committees at payam, boma and village levels participate in the management of health care facilities in their locations. The responsibility for funding most government provided health services resides with the states and counties. In addition to the government funded facilities, there are close to 800 primary health care units (PHCUs) and primary health care centers

(PHCCs) that are run and managed by national and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and faith based organizations (FBOs). These organizations currently manage and support these facilities to deliver health services, working in close collaboration with state ministries of health (SMOHs) and county health departments (CHDs). There are in total 1,487 health facilities in the ten states of South Sudan. Out of these 1,147 are functional, while 340 are non-functional. In the case of the functional ones, three are teaching hospitals, seven are state hospitals, twenty seven are county hospitals, two hundred eighty four (284) are primary health care centers, seven hundred ninety two (792) are primary health care units, ten are private facilities, fourteen (14) are specialized hospitals or clinics and ten are police and military health facilities. The non-functional health facilities include two state hospitals, one county hospital, thirty (30) primary health care centers (PHCCs), three hundred and two (302) primary health care units (PHCUs), four private facilities and one specialized hospital or clinic. Regarding the state of infrastructure in these health facilities, 376 or 26% are in good condition, 347 or 23% require minor renovation, 274 or 18% require major renovation and 490 or 33% need complete replacement. Furthermore, these facilities lack medical equipment, transport and communication, water and power supplies. It is estimated that 44% of the population are settled within a five kilometer radius of a functional health facility. The per capita outpatient department utilization rate that estimated at 0.2 visits per annum. A significant combination of factors lead to the low utilization rates such as lack of qualified staff; inadequate equipment and supplies in county and state hospitals; long distances to health facilities; poor roads and transport; limited or no ambulance service; dysfunctional referral system; cultural and financial barriers. Access to known, cost-effective, life-saving maternal and child health interventions, for instance bed nets, water-guard and immunization, is still low in South Sudan. The Ministry of Health (MOH) currently uses the World Bank procurement procedures and is guided by the World Health Organization (WHO) information on prices. It has developed national policies, standards, guidelines and regulations to streamline the pharmaceutical sector. However, enforcement is still weak and compounded by a shortage of qualified staff in both public and private sectors. There is no local pharmaceutical production. The national quality control laboratory in South Sudan is inadequate. The routine testing at Kenya point of entry indicates up to 20% of the essential medicines imported are substandard or counterfeit. Procurement and provision of essential medicines and supplies still rely on irregularly distributed pre-packed kits supplied in a push-based supply system. The need for medical and diagnostic equipment is not sufficiently addressed. The pharmaceutical storage capacity and network across the country is inadequate. Stores at all levels are not adequately equipped or lack qualified technical personnel. Other weaknesses include the lack of a national Logistics Management Information System (LMIS); uncoordinated donations and parallel supply chains; lack of transportation means; and poor pharmaceutical waste disposal practices. Although Ministry of Health (MOH) has developed treatment

guidelines and a manual on rational medicines use to assure adherence and reduce resistance, irrational use of medicines continues to be a challenge in facilities and communities. At present, routine health management information system (HMIS) is largely not operational. The Ministry of Health prepared the Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) Framework, which identifies 104 indicators to be collected at various levels of the health care system. Data is currently obtained by means of assessment, mapping exercises and surveys. Data from vertical programs are channeled directly from health facilities to Ministry of Health, often bypassing the state ministry of health (SMOH) and county health department (CHD). Although the Ministry of Health developed a total of 74 tools for data collection, no standardized reporting form exists for tracking data between health facilities, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) or vertical programs. There is very limited capacity for data collection and analysis, as well as insufficient Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) knowledge in the counties. About 50% of counties lack county health department (CHD) officers, while the existent ones have inadequate monitoring and evaluation (M&E) knowledge. In nonoperational county health departments (CHDs), routine health management information system (HMIS) data management doesn't follow the usual channels of reporting within the health care system. The main challenges of the health management information system (HMIS) include inadequate human resource; insufficient information technology (IT) equipment for data processing in the states; limited power sources; poor communication and transportation. The Ministry of Health is in the process of introducing the district or county health information software (DHIS) for routine health management information system (HMIS). District health information software (DHIS) allows for standardization of data records, aggregation and analysis of data to obtain indicators and reports (MoH & NBS, 2010, pp. 8-12 .(

3.2.3 Nutrition: South Sudan experiences cycles of acute and chronic childhood malnutrition in line with seasonal and geographical variations. The overall prevalence of global acute malnutrition (GAM) and severe acute malnutrition (SAM) amongst children under-five is 21% and 7.6% respectively. The prevalence of stunting among under-fives stands at 25%. While several fragmented programs exist to address the problem of malnutrition, a more comprehensive strategy that addresses the root causes of malnutrition is required to control the issue (MoH, Health Sector Development Plan, 2012, p. 7 .(

Nutrition status reflects general health and the wellbeing of children. Generally, under-nutrition is associated with more than one-third of all child deaths worldwide. Unlike their counterparts, malnourished children are comparatively more likely to die from common childhood diseases, with those who survive have faltering growth and, generally, poor health status. Therefore, reducing malnourishment prevalence leads to a desired reduction of childhood morbidity and mortality, particularly in South Sudan. Malnourishment in children is assessed using relational framework transcending both their heights and weights. More generally, a child's weight is a measure of both acute and chronic malnutrition. To assess



the under-nourishment of children in a population, the World Health Organization (WHO) growth standards are used. Stunting is a reflection of chronic malnutrition resulting from failure to receive adequate nutrition over a long period and a source of recurrent or chronic illness. The relationship between weight and height is also fundamental in understanding children's health and general well being. Wasting is usually the result of a recent nutritional deficiency. However, the indicator may also exhibit significant seasonal shifts associated with changes in the availability of food or disease prevalence. In South Sudan, nearly 28% actually 27.6% of children under the age five are moderately or severely underweight compared to 32.8% in 2006 and 12.2% are severely underweight compared to 14.1% in 2006. Moderate or severe stunting affects 31.1%; in 2006, severe stunting affects 17.1% of all children; this is in comparison to 18% in 2006. Wasting moderately affects 22.7% of all children under the age of five; this is in contrast with 21.9% found in 2006. The incidence of malnutrition in South Sudan varies with gender, region, wealth, mother's education and State. Generally speaking in South Sudan, female children are less malnourished than male children and rural children are more malnourished than urban children. Malnourishment is also observed to vary with household's wealth with children of households in the lowest wealth quintiles in other words poorest families being significantly more malnourished than children of families in the highest wealth quintile or the richest families. The children's nutritional status improves with mother's education confirming the fact that mother's education is an effective vaccine against malnutrition. What is also very striking is the wide discrepancy in the incidence of malnutrition between the various states of South Sudan. As a case in point, rate of moderate or severe wasting of Lakes State is 4.46 times the rate in Western Bahr el Ghazal State. Breastfeeding for the first few years of life protects children from infection, provides an ideal source of nutrients, and is proven to be economical and safe. The World Fit for Children Goal states that children should be exclusively breastfed for six months and continued breastfeeding with safe, appropriate and adequate complementary feeding lasting up to two years of age and beyond. Safe, appropriate and adequate complementary foods should begin at six months with a frequency of two times per day for 6-8 month olds; three times a day for 9-11 month olds. The World Health Organization (WHO) and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) also recommend that breastfeeding is initiated within one hour of birth. Exclusively breastfed refers to infants who receive only breast milk and vitamins, mineral supplements, or medicine, whereas predominant breastfeeding refers to the feeding situation in which majority of infants' source of diet is breast milk. In South Sudan, over 45% of children who are younger than six months are exclusively breastfed compared to 21.1% in 2006. On the other hand, 72.9% are predominantly breastfed in 2006. Breastfeeding continues among 82.3% of children who reach one year of age, which stood at around 72% in 2006. Among children aged two, 38% continue breastfeeding in 2006, and only 15.6% continued being breastfed, with the success proportion more than doubled over the years. Overall, 17.2% of children undertake any method of breastfeeding. As

well, 30.4% were appropriately breastfed in 2010, unlike in 2006 in which only 19.5% of children were appropriately breastfed. The introduction of solid, semi-solid and soft foods should occur at six months of age. In South Sudan, only 21% of children are introduced to solid, semi-solid, or soft foods. Of these, about 18% receive two milk feeds, and 11.5% receive minimum meal. Bottle-feeding practice is relatively low in South Sudan, with only 5.5% of children aged 0-23 months being bottle-fed. Introduction of solid and semi-solid foods to children varies by whether or not a child lives in the urban or rural area, with urban children more likely to be introduced to solid foods. Unlike male children, female children are more likely to be introduced to semi-solid foods. Iodine deficiency disorders (IDD) is the world's leading cause of preventable mental retardation and impaired psychomotor development in young children. In South Sudan, the Ministry of Health has developed strategies for assuring adequate salt iodization in the population's diets. The indicator of iodization is measured as a percentage of households consuming adequately iodized salt greater or equal 15 parts per million. The salt used for cooking was tested for iodine content in an average of 78% of households. A relatively low 57% of households were tested in Unity and a high 94% in Northern Bahr el Ghazal State, respectively. Residence is also an important indicator, providing an insight that urban dwellers are more likely to have cooking salt that contains iodine. More broadly, 54% of total households examined in 2010 consumed adequately iodized salt, compared to 36.5% in 2006. The Ministry of Health in South Sudan recommends that children aged 6-11 months be given 100,000 IU (Intrauterine Device) of vitamin (A) and children 12-59 months be given 200,000 IU (Intrauterine Device) of vitamin (A) once every six months. Vitamin (A) supplement is recommended for mothers within eight weeks of giving birth. Altogether, vitamin (A) supplementation was observed among only 4% of children with 6-59 months. Vitamin (A) supplementation is generally low in South Sudan, but 16 out of every 100 children aged 12-23 months, the highest proportion in the area's Vitamin (A) distribution among young children, get supplementation. In 2006, Vitamin (A) supplementation stood at 39.8% for children under the age of five. Gender differential in this indicator is almost non-existent. The percentage of female children of age 6-59 receiving Vitamin (A) supplementation was almost equal to that of males being 3.9% for the former and 4.0% for the latter. However, this rate in urban areas was 1.79 times what it was in rural areas. Inter-State variation in this indicator was also significant varying between 7.7% for Upper Nile to 1.1% for Warrap State. Poverty seems to affect children adversely in this area with only 2.3% of 6-59 months children of poorest households receiving the supplementation compared to 7.6% for the same age children of richest households. Mother's education promotes improved performance; children aged 6-59 months of mother's secondary education and of mothers with no education have Vitamin (A) supplementation rates of 9.9% and 3.0% respectively (MoH & NBS, 2010, pp. 19-29)

3.2.4The Environmental health: Environmental health concerns in South Sudan are widespread, including poor liquid and solid waste management, water pollution and poor excreta disposal. Consequently the prevalence of environment related diseases, such as malaria, typhoid and diarrheal diseases is high. The widespread water contamination, due to poor sanitation as a result of inappropriate solid and liquid waste disposal systems, is a major and risk factor for these diseases. Revision and enforcement of acts and legislations related to environmental health will be required to alleviate this problem (Ibid, p. 8 .(

Environmental management and the attendant institutions are still very weak. With respect to the regulatory framework, the South Sudan National Environmental Policy has been drafted to achieve sustainable development and a specialized ministry has been created to manage the environment. This policy aims, among other things, to address the current state of environmental degradation as manifested in widespread pollution by the oil industry, increasing loss of biodiversity due to over-exploitation of forests, inadequate environmental sanitation associated with urban sprawl, and desert encroachment southwards. It should, however, be noted that the delay in the finalization of the policy will affect the passage of the bill, the completion of orders, regulations, standards, criteria, measures, mapping, registers, and prescriptions as mentioned in the bill. Based on the aforementioned, the achievement of adequate environmental management is urgent due to the effects of climate change and the increasing pressures on the environment caused by the resettlement of people returning to South Sudan after the war. There is a lack of reliable information and data on the environment and limited research capacity. Field data on natural resources and ecosystem services is scarce in South Sudan. Due to the long period of war, data collection stalled and existing data sources were lost. To quantify impacts of land use and environmental changes, it is necessary to gather data over extended time intervals, preferably spanning several decades. This is a major constraint to environment planning; policy development and regulation require urgent attention, if sustainable development is to become a reality in South Sudan (Muvawala and Mugisha, 2014, p. 8. see: [www.africaneconomicoutlook.org](http://www.africaneconomicoutlook.org) .(

Besides the universal environmental ills, there is one immediate environmental issue regarding Southern Sudan which is pollution. There are three types of pollution requiring immediate solution, and they are evening noise, air, and human. The level of noise pollution in the urban cities is among the highest in South Sudan. The noise mainly comes from old generators, commonly used to generate electricity in the absence of a central power supply system. These generators also emit a lot of gases into the atmosphere. Air pollution manifests itself in the form of dust and smell. Houses along the main streets experience very high levels of dust as the roads are not tarmac and the numbers of vehicles using these dusty roads is constantly on the rise. The dust often causes acute respiratory problems. Given the poor condition of the hospitals and health centers, this only worsens the health situation for the inhabitants.

There is poor disposal of waste, and lack of modern toilet facilities to take care of human waste in such a congested urban center. In this regard, human pollution is a very serious problem and challenge to development throughout South Sudan. Human pollution manifests itself in the form of people loitering in the places of work such as government offices, businesses, schools, and churches. Government office and ministry compounds have become places where thousands of idle people gossiping, taking tea/coffee, and walking around. This causes a lot of disturbance to people who should be doing their routine office work. It destroys or violates the system of the offices, and adds to the delays in getting things done a bad implementation of the needed public projects (Cesar, Guvele and others, Poverty Assessment in Southern Sudan, 2012, p. 15).

3.2.5 Health Personnel and Training: Currently there is only one physician to 100,000 people, and in many parts of the country the ratio is even less. The near absence of obstetric personnel and the shortage of drugs and primary care facilities mean that less than 5% of births are attended by skilled health staff. The civil war in South Sudan has disrupted all health service delivery systems. The Republic of South Sudan has a critical shortage of all professional health cadres. Only about 10% of the civil service posts are filled by qualified health workers, which translate to about one physician and two nurses or midwives for every 100,000 citizens. These cadres are based in urban areas. Consequently, health services are provided by less skilled health workers, known as community health workers (CHWs). Mid-level health cadres, such as community health workers (CHWs), community midwives (CM), maternal and child health workers (MCHWs) and home health promoters (HHPs), provide health services in the community levels. They facilitate health promotion and disease prevention through community participation for effective access and utilization of health services. They also support programs such as mass immunization and malaria campaigns. Community health workers (CHWs) are mainly employed by the non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that provide health services in the country. The predominant use of this cadre of health staff has compromised the quality of health care services for the community. Human resources for health (HRH) management systems are weak and characterized by lack of job descriptions and targets; insufficient and irregularly paid compensation; lack of support supervision and quality control mechanisms at all levels; lack of basic information about the number, composition and geographical distribution of health providers in the private sector; insufficient coordination of human resource development across different parts of the health system; limited continuing educational opportunities and professional development; and poor recruitment and weak retention capacity of states and counties. The lack of a clear retention policy and plan, coupled with poor human resources for health (HRH) management systems and poor working environment has led to high staff turnover and staff absenteeism, all of which compromise productivity. The current capacity and intake of health training institutions limits the potential for a rapid scale up in critical cadres. Mid-level health workers, such as

nurses, mid-wives, laboratory technicians and community health workers (CHWs), are trained in the state hospitals, which is not the case for other professionals. In spite of the recent relocation of the Colleges of Medicine from Khartoum to their original locations at the three Universities of Juba, Bahr-el Ghazal and Upper Nile, they are still severely constrained by lack of equipment, lecturers, instructional materials and accommodation due to insufficient financing (Ibid, p. 11).

For training of nursing and midwifery there are at least some institutions which pursue such programs in different states and they are.

a) Juba College of Nursing and Midwifery (JCONAM): Juba College of Nursing and Midwifery (JCONAM) is most training institution for nursing and midwifery education in South Sudan. The college was established with the support from different partners; such as United Nations Population Funds (UNFPA), Real Medicine Foundation (RMF), World Children's Fund (WCF), World Health Organization (WHO) and Japan International Cooperation (JICA), and United Nations Development Program (UNDP) or Global Fund Health Systems. This is the first college of nursing and midwifery ever in South Sudan. It opened in May 2010 with 40 students, of which 20 nurses and 20 midwives enrolled in a three year program. At the beginning the training institution was hosted in a temporary location waiting for a new campus to be constructed. The new facilities were finalized in 2011. At present the college has two departments, nursing and midwifery. The first group of students graduated in August 2013.

b) Wau School of Midwifery: Wau school of Midwifery is a government operated school for training of enrolled midwives. The school used to train community midwives. It was closed during the war, but reopened in 2012. The Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) funds the program through United Nations Population Funds (UNFPA). International Medical Corps (IMC) is implementing partner. United Nations Development Program (UNDP) has a role in construction and renovation of infrastructure, provision of furniture and books for the library.

c) Mary Help Nursing School: Wau Mary Help Nursing School started in the Diocese of Wau in 1989, with courses for nurses in 1999. But as late as in 2007 the Nursing School opened and started up offering a three and half years program for registered community midwives using a curriculum from Kenya. 23 students graduated under that program. In 2010 the curriculum changed to the three year program for registered nurses. In addition Mary Help Nursing School at present offers a two years and half program in enrolled midwifery. Earlier Mary Help used to train community health workers, but this program stopped .

d) Catholic Health Training Institute (CHTI) in Wau: The training institute started up in as early as in 1975 initiated by Sudan's Catholic Bishop. From 1986- 2005 the place was closed due to the civil war and because of lack of security. In 2005 after the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), a group within the Catholic Church named "Solidarity with South Sudan" started up again. A mixed group of sisters,

brothers and priests is now running the place and live in a sort of community. From 2008 they decided to start up with capacity building in areas such as teachers' education, nurse and midwife education and Pastor and Church Reconciliation and Peace Work training. In 2008/2009 the infrastructure of the training institution was rehabilitated for over with outlays of one million USD. In 2010 the first group of nurse and midwife students started up. The first group consisted of eighteen students. In the beginning Catholic Health Training Institute (CHTI) used a curriculum from Kenya for community nurse and midwives the same which has been used at Mary Help Nursing School, for a three years and half program to become registered nurses and midwives. This was the first registered nurse and midwife program in South Sudan. A five month foundation course in English, Biology, Christian Ethics and information technology (IT) is a part of the curriculum. Then the Ministry of Health at national level decided to train registered nurses and midwives in two separate programs by a standardized curriculum and Catholic Health Training Institute (CHTI) transferred the students to the curriculum for registered nurses. The first group has graduated in August 2013 .

e) Torit Nursing School: There is a nursing school that has been teaching nursing students since 1974 in the Hospital of Torit. The program at Torit Nursing School until 2011 had employed a curriculum from Khartoum. The tutors have had their tutor training in Khartoum in the 1980s. During a supervision visit from Ministry of Health, Department of Nursing, the Principal was handed a new curriculum and has started the implementation of the curriculum for training certified community nurses. However the teachers at the school had received no training in the new curriculum. In Torit Nursing School the students use more time due to the shortage of staff to cover the subjects and lack of learning structure.

f) Kapoeta Nursing School: The Caritas-Catholic Diocese of Torit (CDOT) has a long history of healthcare service delivery in South Sudan. The diocese is in the forefront of establishing primary healthcare units within Eastern Equatoria that have served many people during the war. Caritas built a mission hospital in Kapoeta in 2002 where the main population consists of pastoralists. The Caritas-Catholic Diocese (CDOT) was approved by the State Ministry of Health to proceed with plans of building a nursing school (Bodil Tveit and others, 2014, p.27-38 3.3 .(Water Supply, Public Sanitation and Hygiene: In this part water supply, public sanitation, and hygiene services have been covered as under .

3.3.1 Water Supply Status and System: The quality of drinking water, and sanitary conditions, greatly influence population health because there is a relationship between the environment and health outcomes. The population using improved drinking water sources is defined as those who use any of the following types of supply: piped water, public tap, borehole or tube well, protected well, and protected spring or rain water. In South Sudan, only 2.1% of households have water on the premises. For households without improved drinking water facilities onsite, some members of these households travel

far distances to collect water. On average, 33% of these persons travel at least 30 minutes to get to the nearest site with safe drinking water. This traveling time to drinking water source has decreased from 45 minutes in 2006. Others or 33.5% travel more than 30 minutes to collect safe drinking water. In addition, roughly 12 and 16% travel at least 30 and more than 30 minutes, respectively to collect unimproved water for household's needs, including drinking, cooking and so on . Generally, 68.7% of the household population has access to improved drinking water sources, with no discernible differences between rural and urban residents. This is a considerable increase from 48% in 2006. In contrast, 9% of household residents do not have access to improved sources, but are able to treat their water. In contrast, 13% treated their water in 2006. Although minor differences are evidently apparent with respect to access to improved water, they do not necessarily warrant concern. In South Sudan, water collection for households is often carried out by young women. Nearly 86% of those collecting water for households are women aged 15 and older. About 9% are young women 15 or under. Young men aged 15 and older constitute only 5% of the individuals tasked with collecting households' water (MoH and NBS, 2010, pp. 42-45 .(

Despite the availability of abundant surface and ground water resources, millions of South Sudanese suffer from lack of access to the improved water supply and sanitation services. In South Sudan two out of three people don't have access to improved water supply services. Even worse, more than eight out of ten people don't have access to improved sanitation services. This situation implies that more than six million people are deprived of access to improved water supply services and about eight million people lack access to improved sanitation services. In addition to these, about 1,000 schools representing 50% of the total number of schools in the country don't have water supply and sanitation facilities. The low levels of access to improved water supply and sanitation services coupled with poor hygiene awareness has been the principal cause of water related diseases such as diarrhea, cholera and guinea worm. The country is home to the largest incidence of guinea worm in the world, which transmitted through drinking contaminated and stagnant water. The sectoral challenges are further exacerbated by weak institutional capacity and increase in number of returnees and internally displaced persons that continue to exert insurmountable pressure on the already feeble water supply and sanitation facilities. These drawbacks stem from decades of war and conflict that resulted in the destruction of several water infrastructure facilities and further impeded the flow of investment to the sector. Notwithstanding these constraints, the government has taken encouraging steps towards labeling the water supply and sanitation sector as an extreme high priority and a key entry point to its development objectives. This has been manifested by classifying the sector as one of the top six expenditure priorities and enunciating it in all of its key strategic documents. The government has established key sectoral institutions and further taken commendable strides in formulating and adopting a water policy and water, sanitation and hygiene strategic framework. These instruments generated a positive dynamic towards the sustainable

development of the water sector, a necessary pre-requisite for alleviating poverty and spurring economic growth in the country. In 2011, the government adopted the water, sanitation and hygiene strategic framework. The strategy has been crafted to translate the water policy into action and aims at serving as a road map towards attaining the objectives of the policy. In addition to water resources management, rural and urban water supply subsectors, the strategic framework explicitly addresses sanitation and hygiene issues. A key element of the framework dwells on speeding up rehabilitation and construction of water supply and sanitation schemes to ensure universal access of services to the people of South Sudan. It recognizes the low level of access to improved sanitation and hygiene services and proposes a reversal of the situation through techniques such as Community Led Total Sanitation (CLTS). It recognizes the challenges pertaining to institutional fragmentation in the water and sanitation sector and calls for streamlining responsibilities of all relevant institutions .

The strategic framework recommends formulation of a Water Council to provide advisory services at the highest level as well as a Water Supply and Sanitation Regulatory Board to develop and enforce regulations for the water supply and sanitation services. While these initial steps are commendable, it is critical for the sector to formulate a Water Legislation (Act). The Act will assist in establishing a legal framework for the management of the water sector. Further, concerted efforts are necessary to improve the overall water governance in the country. The leading ministry in the water sector is the Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation (MWRI). The Ministry amongst other things is mandated to develop policies, guidelines and master plans; oversee the operation of the South Sudan Urban Water Corporation; set tariffs for the sale of water to be used for various purposes; implement ground-water supplies of drinking water for the rural population until states and local governments assume such responsibilities; and advise, support and build the capacity of state and local governments in charge of water services. The Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation (MWRI) contains six major directorates as well as other supporting units. Key directorates in the sector include the rural water supply and sanitation as well as the planning and programming directorates, the latter entrusted with overseeing the performance of urban water provision. South Sudan has not designated a single leading ministry responsible for sanitation. However, the provision of schemes for sewage disposal and treatment in urban areas is entrusted to the Ministry of Housing and Physical Planning (MHPP). The Ministry discharges these responsibilities through its directorate for urban sanitation. The Ministry of Health (MoH) is responsible for raising awareness on health problems that arise due to lack of adequate sanitation and hygiene services. Ministry of Health is also responsible for ensuring newly constructed as well as renovated health facilities have adequate sanitation and hygiene services. No institution has been designated to coordinate the provision of sanitation services in schools. A Provisional Order (PO) passed in 2008 created the Southern Sudan Urban Water Corporation (SSUWC) as a semi-autonomous



institution and made it responsible for operating urban water facilities. Given its limited capacity, the corporation so far manages the urban water supply systems of Juba, Wau, Malakal and Renk town. It also partially manages Bor and Maridi water facilities. The Corporation has established stations in these towns to manage the day to day operation of the systems. Urban water supply systems outside of the Southern Sudan Urban Water Corporation responsibilities are overseen by the respective state water and sanitation directorates or county water departments that are technically accountable to the Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation. The Provisional Order (PO) stipulates the formation of a board of directors to provide operational guidance to the corporation, but positioning of the same has not yet taken place. This has weakened the corporation's decision making capacity and has slowed its operational activities. While limited revenue generated from sales of water is deposited into the central treasury, the government allocates annual budget to meet the operational expenses of the corporation. The corporation needs to reform its business practices, recruit professional staff to fill vacant positions, implement efficient financial management practices and reduce non-revenue water. In seven out of ten states, water and sanitation activities are coordinated under the State Ministry of Physical Infrastructure. In Eastern Equatoria State, the State Ministry of Housing and Public Utilities; in Unity State, the State Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources and in Warrap State, the State Ministry of Cooperatives and Rural Development hold responsibilities for coordinating water and sanitation activities. There are water and sanitation directorates as well as departments operating under the state ministries. The directorates are responsible for the implementation of the Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation policies and strategies. While the budget for the staffs working in the water departments of the states is channeled from the Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation, the state ministries are in charge of administrative duties. This is a temporary arrangement pending the capacity building of the states to handle such responsibilities. Inadequate numbers of staff, coupled with lack of office equipment and transportation facilities, are severe constraints central to all state water and sanitation directorates. At the county level there are water and sanitation departments supervised by an Assistant Commissioner. The departments are mandated to plan and implement water supply, sanitation and hygiene promotion programs. Staffs at county and payam levels are working as unpaid volunteers in anticipation of being offered the permanent position when they become available. In addition, the rural water supplies programs are implemented, water management committee comprised of 6-10 members manage the facilities. While the committee is responsible for ensuring sustainable operation of the schemes, limited training coupled with no backstopping services from states and counties has hampered smooth performance of the systems. There are also a number of Private Service Providers (PSPs) that are active in transportation of water and sewage services in the urban towns. In the absence of a Water Act, responsibilities of service delivery as well as regulatory functions are characterized by gaps and sometimes with overlaps. The water policy

states that in rural areas, communities can be expected to contribute towards the cost of operation and maintenance (O&M) of water supply services. It also states that in urban areas, the costs of managing and supplying services shall be progressively introduced to promote financial sustainability. While these guiding principles are laid out in the policy, currently applied water tariffs in rural as well as in urban areas have not been backed by any analytical studies and are generally set on ad-hoc basis. In rural areas, where new water supply facilities are constructed, users generally contribute an estimated 0.35 to 1USD per household per month. While in some areas users contribute 2USD per household when equipment needs to be repaired, as well as payment in kind. User fees collected from communities is generally kept with the treasurer and its usage is determined by community management members. In general, the Consumers' Willingness to Pay (CWP) as well as to charge is too low. In 2009, only 20% of the population contributed towards operation and maintenance (O&M) of their water supply system .

A major contributing factor is the lack of sufficient community awareness training and mobilization while implementing rural water supply programs. In urban areas various institutions are responsible for setting water tariffs, which complicates decision-making on this important issue. In 2011, the general manager of the Southern Sudan Urban Water Corporation, the board of directors of the corporation, the Minister of Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation and the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning have all got stakes in setting and approval of water tariffs. This is in contrast to the practice in neighboring countries where tariff setting and approval usually rests with boards of directors and regulatory bodies. In Juba, domestic users pay an average of 8 USD per month while government offices and business units pay monthly fees ranging from 60 to 300 USD. A fixed connection fee of 100 USD is also applied on new customers. Having been in effect since October 10, 2010, most of the tariff rates set by the Juba water station saw increments ranging from 60% -70%. On the other hand, the private service providers (PSPs) buy water from stand pipes at 0.83 USD per cubic meters and sell it at about ten times the purchase costs resulting in about 8.30 USD per cubic meters. Setting water tariff rates is a long process and takes approval of several government entities. In Malakal town, monthly rates for water ranging from 5 to 20 USD are applied on the basis of the size of connection pipes that range from 18.75 mm to 50mm. Contrary to the practices of the corporation, consumers are not charged for water uses at public water points due to instructions laid by the state government. Currently, about 9,800 customers are officially connected to the water supply stations in Juba, Wau, Malakal and Renk. There are about 1,000 illegal customers obtain free services from the Juba water supply system. The average water tariff applied in the four major towns at 1 USD per cubic meter is higher than the average for Sub-Saharan African countries at 0.67 USD per cubic meter. However, deteriorated distribution network leading to reduced number of new connections, high degree of unaccounted for water, weak revenue collection all contributed to the low performance of the water supply systems. In addition, water tariffs are not applied

in Bor and Maridi towns. As on-site sanitation dominates the technology type in both rural and urban areas, there are no fees applied for such services. However, in Juba, the private service providers (PSPs) charge about 120 USD per ten cubic meters to empty tanks and transport refuse to waste stabilization ponds. The country is endowed with abundant surface and ground water potential but access to water supply services is among the lowest in Africa. In South Sudan there are more than 10,000 water points, available in the rural areas of the country of which 30-50% are non-operational at any time in each state. Over the last few years, a surge in the number of new water points mainly driven by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as emergency measures has not been balanced with ensuring sustainability. While the per capita water consumption level is not determined in South Sudan. In Eastern Equatoria and Jonglei states the average consumption levels of 16.4 liters per capita a day are known. The lack of proper design and supervision during implementation of rural water schemes has been a major concern. This coupled with lack of spare parts and essential maintenance tools, sustainability of rural water supply schemes will pose severe challenges in the country. Operation and maintenance is generally carried out by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) or volunteer technicians located in counties and payams. The private operators in the sector are non-existent and spare parts much needed for rural water supply equipment such as hand pumps are generally supplied at no cost to communities presenting a challenge of sustainability of maintaining rural water supply schemes. According to Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation, in 2011 wells or boreholes are the most important source of water supply, accounting for 65% of the total supply. Other water supply sources include sub-surface dams, haffirs and ponds. In South Sudan, only 2% of the country's population has access to piped water supply against an average of 33% for Sub-Saharan African countries. While the country's suitable hydro-geological formation will continue to favor wells or boreholes, alternative sources need to be explored as some areas have been found suitable for preferred sources such as springs and long range gravity schemes. The Ikotos gravity flow water system in Eastern Equatoria State is one of such an alternative scheme where more than 28,000 people from four villages and Ikotos town are served from a single gravity fed system. Further, the country's low population density particularly in rural areas necessitates the use of other low cost systems such as improved dug wells which are complemented by locally manufactured pumps. It is also worth considering , the country's predominant lifestyle of agro-pastoralist while planning for new water supply schemes, given the significant percentage of the rural population that moves seasonally in search of water and grazing for livestock. Most of the urban water supply systems in the country are unreliable. The major urban towns that are also state capitals comprise of Juba, Wau, Malakal, Rumbek, Yambio, Torit, Bor, Aweil, Kuajok and Bentui. The South Sudan Urban Water Corporation (SSUWC) is currently managing the water supply systems of Juba, Wau, Malakal and Renk as well as in part the water supply systems of Bor and Maridi towns. However, long years of neglect coupled with poor maintenance

practices have undermined the performance of these facilities. To assist the country, in 2007 and 2009, United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and Multi-donor Trust Fund (MDTF) supported the construction of treatment plants, booster stations and tanker truck refilling stations in Juba and Wau towns. With these interventions, capacity of the treatment plants in Juba and Wau increased from 3,500m<sup>3</sup> per a day to 7,200m<sup>3</sup> per a day and from 2,000m<sup>3</sup>/day to 6,000m<sup>3</sup>/day respectively. The three major towns currently produce an estimated 15,000m<sup>3</sup>/day to meet the demands of an estimated 678,700 people. This translates into an average of 15 liters/per capita/day, alarmingly low compared to a minimum average of 50 liters/per capita/ day set for most urban towns in Africa. While the rehabilitation works were instrumental in increasing the capacity of the treatment plants in the towns, less than 10% of investment costs were allocated to improving the distribution systems. About 49 km of the pipe network system comprised of old asbestos cement pipes and because of the health risks the asbestos materials pose there is an urgent need to replace them. The lack of adequate system capacity led to a surge in the development of private wells. These wells have often been characterized by poor quality of water; however an estimated 400 of them supply water to an estimated 56% of the population in Juba, considerably higher than the average for African urban dwellers at 33%. Going forward, it will be essential to collect well data and conduct routine water quality tests to safeguard the public against adverse health effects. Proper registration of these water sources will also serve as key input to ground water monitoring studies and analysis. Juba, Wau, Malakal and Renk water supply systems serve a total of 9,800 house connections, but services are not metered and the water stations apply monthly rates on all their customers. Mainly, Juba's aged distribution network has been the cause of water leakage and losses, estimated to reach 50%. Further to this, the influx of internally displaced persons (IDPs) to the town meant that the system couldn't cope with the increase in demand. Today, Japan International Corporation Agency (JICA) is supporting capacity building activities for the town's water supply station and is also planning to carry out design and construction works for a new system with the intention of commissioning it after 2015. The country's water sector could draw valuable lessons from the water supply system of Malakal town which has undertaken a series of major rehabilitation works but this system has experienced major setbacks. It was originally built in 1937 and rehabilitated in 1984, 2003 and recently in 2009. This system uses an intake structure, clarifiers and rapid sand filters as principal modes of water treatment mechanisms. However, the poor design and construction supervision works during its successive rehabilitation works led to crippling of the core components of the system. This clogged of the intake structure and damaged the water tank, both of which forced consumers to revert back to untreated water sources. Additionally, the use of advanced membrane filtration system of treatment which is too sophisticated to be operated by the staff implies that careful planning in technology choice will be required in developing new water supply stems in the country. Urban water supply systems in the

remaining seven state capitals namely Rumbek, Bor, Torit, Yambio, Aweil, Kuajok and Bentui and other 70 small towns are mostly serviced by drilled wells fitted with hand pumps and water yards consisting of mechanized boreholes, storage tanks and stand pipes. Generally, the water supply is unreliable and it also of poor quality. Lack of capacity to operate and maintain the facilities and shortage of spare parts have contributed to mal-functioning of most of the facilities (Africa Development Bank, 2013, pp.245-250 ).(

3.3.2Public Sanitation and Hygiene Services: Global studies reveal that improved sanitation and hygiene practices are key ingredients for sustaining human health and enhancing poverty alleviation. It has also been demonstrated that consistent use of latrines can reduce incidence of diarrhea by up to 40% and hand washing with soap at key junctures by up to 50%. However, available statistics in South Sudan show that more than 50% of the schools don't have any sanitation facilities impacting school attendance and level of attained education. Some of the reasons attributing to the low levels of sanitation and hygiene practices are low priority in the development agenda; burden of carrying costs on households; absence of a single leading ministry; and resistance to behavior changes. Apart from a few non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and development partners implementing sanitation projects, there is no dedicated budget towards improving sanitation and hygiene services. Estimates suggest that diarrhea constituted as the second major reason for people's consultation in health facilities in South Sudan, superseded by only malaria. The country's very high child mortality rate which is 102 per 1000 and frequency of deadly diseases such as cholera, acute respiratory infections, and typhoid is a manifestation of the low access levels to improved sanitation services. The hygiene and sanitation are among the most cost effective public health interventions to reduce childhood mortality. While there is a very limited sewerage network in the ministerial complex and Hai Amarat areas of Juba and accompanying waste stabilization ponds, no other piped sewerage or waste treatment system exists in the country. The ponds in Juba have also reached their design capacity and the system needs to be upgraded. There are also concerns on the quality of effluent from the ponds as proper regulation and monitoring is not carried out which endangers the environment and communities living in the area. The Ministry of Housing and Physical Planning (MHPP) has been in charge of coordinating the design and construction works of the stabilization ponds. Privately owned and operated vacuum tankers collect and dispose waste water generated from septic tanks and other holding structures. The Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation and state water and sanitation directorates coordinate the construction of public latrines in market places, health centers, schools and other public gathering places. The government's strategy places high priority towards construction of public latrines as a means of reaching out to larger groups and alleviating problems in small towns and congested areas (Ibid, pp.251-252 ).(

3.4Poverty, Hunger, Food Security and Livelihood: Poverty is a multi-dimensional phenomenon that must be analyzed from the dimensions of consumption, human development and vulnerability.

Poverty refers to a pronounced deprivation in one or more dimensions of the welfare of an individual, such as limited access to health facilities, low human capital, inadequate housing infrastructure, malnutrition, lack of certain goods and services, and inability to express political views or profess religious beliefs. Each of these deserves separate attention as they concern different components of welfare, and indeed may help policy-makers to focus attention on the various facets of poverty. Nonetheless, often there is a high degree of overlapping. For instance, a malnourished person is often also poorly educated and without access to healthcare. Years of conflict and neglect have left South Sudan one of the most underdeveloped regions in the world, despite its rich natural resources. Poverty is widespread, and is especially acute in rural areas and the more remote corners of South Sudan. Poverty in South Sudan has many dimensions, including low levels of consumption, and poor health and education .

The legacy of the prolonged war in South Sudan makes the fight against poverty more demanding and challenging. The reduction of poverty and improvements in human development are central objectives of South Sudan Development Plan (SSDP). Statistical indicators are of paramount importance because they highlight the nature, magnitude and range of poverty and measure the effectiveness of development interventions. South Sudan has experienced very low levels of investment or development in basic services or infrastructure over the past five decades since the independence of Sudan. The average household is still agricultural, with 78% of households depending on crop farming or animal husbandry as their primary source of livelihood. There is no national labor market; job seeking is localized with most relying on the informal sector. Fifty-three percent (53%) of the working population in South Sudan work as unpaid family workers and only 12% as paid employees. The Incidence and depth of poverty is that fifty-one percent (51%) of the population lives below the national consumption poverty line .

There is no direct internationally comparator because Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) data are not available for South Sudan. However, data on infant mortality; maternal mortality; the ratio of the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel; measles immunization coverage; the proportion of the population below minimum level of dietary consumption; net enrolment and completions rates in primary education, and literacy rates suggest that the incidence of poverty in South Sudan is actually greater. Infant mortality is the ninth worst in the world and South Sudan is in the bottom five countries for 11 of the 22 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) indicators. Despite a rich resource base, the people of South Sudan are poor. Oil revenue, which constitutes 98 % of total government revenues, does not flow to the average resident. Though large tracts of fertile land could be used for agricultural production, and forestry could provide hardwood timber, Gum Arabic and honey, average incomes are still very low because production has remained stagnant, trade restricted and households unable to save and invest over the past half century. The poverty incidence, though easy to understand, does not provide information on

how close or how far away the poor are from being able to satisfy their basic needs. The poverty gap in the population as a whole is 24%. This measure is an estimate of the average shortfall in consumption relative to the poverty line. Vulnerability reflects both the exposure of households to adverse events, shocks and the ability of household to anticipate or to cope with these shocks. Shocks can be common or particular to individuals. Common shocks include events, such as seasonal changes in food supply, or unpredictable events, like drought and war, and macroeconomic shocks such as inflation. Shocks that are particular to a household include bouts of sickness, death, personal accidents such as fire, and sudden loss of assets such as the death of livestock. Northern Bahr el Ghazal State (NBHS) found that over 90% of the population suffers from some kind of shock in the last five years. Fifty-six percent (56%) of the population suffered from drought or floods. This affected the poorest most, with 65% of the poorest quintile stating they suffered from drought or floods in comparison to 44% in the richest quintile. Other shocks that households stated as major issues were crop disease, stolen livestock and illness of household members. The clustering of a large proportion of the population around the poverty line is another aspect of vulnerability. Currently 8% of the population lies within a 20% increase of the poverty line, making them vulnerable to small changes in the consumption levels due to external shocks and likely to fall below the poverty line. This highlights the importance of building strong social security networks for households experiencing external shocks to ensure they do not slide into poverty. The inability to provide a minimum nutritional intake is a sign of food insecurity and another form of vulnerability. South Sudan has a high degree of food insecurity with 47% of the population being undernourished. Inadequate food consumption is one of the key signs of poverty. The level of food insecurity in South Sudan is significant given between one-third and one-half of the population was either severely or moderately food insecure over the past three years. The food security situation is relatively better in Western Equatoria State (WES), Central Equatoria (CES) and Unity, where less than a quarter of their population was insecure. On the other hand, food insecurity was highest in Eastern Equatoria State (EES), Warrap and Northern Bahr el Ghazal State (NBS) where close to half of their population food was insecure. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and World Food Program (WFP) estimated cereal production in South Sudan to have been 695,000 tons in 2010 (28.5% higher than in 2000), but this still falls short of domestic consumption needs by 291,000 tons. Domestic production would have to be 42 % above 2010 levels to meet the shortfall. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and World Food Program (WFP) estimation is that food assistance requirements will remain high with a monthly average of 816,000 beneficiaries of food aid. This is expected to rise during the lean season to 2.7 million food aid beneficiaries per month. This reflects a significant proportion of the population (as high as 33% in the lean season) that will continue to depend on food aid to ensure a minimum level of nutritional intake (South Sudan Development Plan, 2011-2013, pp.12-17.)

Despite the country's agricultural potential, 4.4 million people in South Sudan have been at risk of food insecurity in 2014. Across the country, less than 10% of arable land is currently being cultivated, and the productivity of the land is low compared to other countries in the region. Food access, availability and use are threatened by several shocks. Food access is threatened by weak purchasing power, a poorly developed private sector, and agriculture and food commodity markets affected by periodic closures of the border between South Sudan and Sudan. Food availability, in particular, is threatened by low production and productivity, crop pests and emerging crop diseases, livestock disease outbreaks, loss of harvests and limited capacity to process commodities and add value to production. Compounding the lack of food is violence related displacement. Recurring violence in some parts of South Sudan leads to displacement which disrupts household mobility, economic strategies and livelihood activities, and erodes the ability of households and communities to anticipate, withstand, adapt to and recover from stresses and shocks. Although food security showed signs of improving in 2013 with severe food insecurity dropping from 14% in June 2012 to 8% in June 2013, and moderate food insecurity dropping from 36% in June 2012 to 34% in June 2013, the situation remains unstable, and households which depend on buying food to sustain themselves will remain vulnerable to hunger and seasonal swings in their nutritional status. Food assistance activities aim to save the lives of groups at high risk of food insecurity, including refugees, socially vulnerable and food-insecure residents and displaced persons. It also aims to stabilize the food security and nutrition status of returnees, people living with HIV, and tuberculosis patients. This will ensure adequate household food consumption during emergencies and capacity to respond to shocks among the communities facing severe food insecurity based on their inability to engage in livelihood activities due to extremely high social vulnerability and moderately food insecure households at risk of severe food insecurity. As part of emergency and shocks responses, provision of livelihood resources is geared towards supporting those affected by shocks to allow them to re-enter production and protect their assets. Given the slight improvement in the food security situation in 2013 compared to 2012, efforts have been made to enhance resilience by ensuring a combination of responses to targeted households .

The implementation of resilience-enhancing activities will be tailored to geographic location, livelihoods systems, institutional context and implementing partners' capacity. Food assistance and livelihoods programs provide to help create community livelihood assets to enhance access and availability of food and essential social services. Asset creation supported by food, cash and voucher transfers focus on the developing or restoring the productive capacity of arable land; natural resource management and climate change adaptation; rehabilitation and construction of community assets; and enhancing human capacity and skills. These programs specifically have been geared towards viable but vulnerable food insecure households, including those at risk of poor food consumption and use; those at risk of losing production and productive assets; households with poor access to food sources; and



communities which have minimal resilience and are prone to repeated shocks. Food security and livelihoods responses take into consideration the levels of vulnerability, gender dimensions of vulnerability, and the nature and seasonality of the shocks (UNOCHA, Consolidated appeal for South Sudan 2013, pp.35-37 .(

3.5 Population Growth and Labor Force Market: In this section population growth and labour force market situation has covered as follow.

3.5.1 Population Growth: The population is estimated at 8,260,490 million with a density of 15 people per square kilometer. More than 80% of the population lives in rural areas. The average annual population growth rate is between 2.2-3.2%. The population is projected to increase to 12 million by 2015, due to both the annual growth rate and the return of South Sudanese from the Diaspora, following the historic independence of the Republic of South Sudan. Females constitute 52% of the population while males account for 48%. The total fertility rate is estimated at 6.7, while the average life expectancy at birth for both sexes is 42 years (MoH, 2012, p. 5 .(

South Sudan's population is also one of the youngest in the world and as the youth of the country enter their reproductive lives, the impact on population growth could be massive (Manuel Carballo, pp. 9-10 .(

3.5.2 Labour Force Market in South Sudan: The aggregate labor market indicators highlight a number of challenges facing the labor market in South Sudan. South Sudan is characterized by very high rates of child labour; low levels of education participation, even for the 10-14 and 15-24 years age cohorts; and high rates of youth unemployment. A very large share of the active population is found in non-wage, low-productivity employment concentrated in the agriculture sector. Three-fourths of the working-age population is active. The decomposition of the working-age population by activity status indicates that a significant share of the active population which is 13% is without a job. While most of those working do so exclusively, there is a small portion of total workers that is, 8% that continuing in some form of education or training. Among the inactive population, about one-fourth is in education, but an even larger share is comprised of discouraged workers (31%). The remaining share of inactive persons is neither in education nor interested in employment; females predominate in this latter group not surprisingly in light of their traditional roles as homemakers. The large shares of unemployed and discouraged workers in the working-age population suggest that a lack of job opportunities is an important feature of the South Sudan labor market. Differences in labor market situation of the working aged population vary somewhat by age, sex, residence and wealth. Levels of unemployment are more pronounced for young people, and for persons from poor families. Labor force participation is higher in rural areas than in urban ones across almost the whole 15-64 years age spectrum, owing largely to the impact of labor-intensive agriculture in absorbing the rural work force. Male participation in the labor force is generally higher than that of females, although this is not the case among young, (15-24 year-old,

persons). Differences across states in labor force participation and status are large. The unemployment rate varies from 21% in Jonglei to just 5% in Eastern Equatoria. Labor market participation ranges from 84% in Eastern Equatoria to 70% in Central and Western Equatoria. Employment is characterized by a preponderance of low productivity, unremunerated work that concentrated in the agriculture sector. In all, 84% of those employed are in non-wage work either for their family (43%), or for others (5%) or on their own account (37%). At the same time, the agriculture sector accounts for 63% of all employment. Those in non-wage employment in the agriculture sector account for 61% of the employed workforce. At the extreme only, a small minority of workers enjoys formal salaried employment (13%) or employment in the tertiary sector (19%). These patterns are especially pronounced for rural dwellers (90% are in non-wage work, 69% are in agriculture and 67% are in both) and the poor (93% are in nonwage work and 75% in agriculture). The composition of employment varies somewhat across states but non-wage work and the agriculture sector predominate in all of them. The proportion of those in non-wage work ranges from 92% in Eastern Equatoria to 61% in Western Bahr El Ghazal, and of those in agriculture from 77% in Western Equatoria to 47% in Western Bahr El Ghazal. Almost 13% of the active population is without work. And this strict unemployment rate understates true unemployment, as almost one third of the inactive population is made up of discouraged workers. The unemployment rate rises to 21% when discouraged workers are also taken into account. About three-fourths of those actively seeking work are doing so for the first time. It is likely that the high proportion of first-time job seekers is in part the reflection of returning internally displaced persons and to lesser extent ex-combatants entering the labor market. Data from the 2008 Census do not unfortunately permit an assessment of the contribution of returning internally displaced persons (IDPs) and ex-combatants to unemployment. Unemployment rates differ little between urban and rural areas, unlike other agrarian-based economies where the role of the agriculture sector in absorbing the rural labor force means that rural unemployment rates are lower. Differences in unemployment by sex are also relatively small, and disappear altogether when discouraged workers are taken into account. The South Sudanese labor force is characterized by extremely low levels of human capital. This highlights the consequent importance of literacy, skills training and other forms of second chance education, particularly for young workers. Almost nine out of ten workers are without any qualification, while less than 2% possess post secondary education. Education levels are higher among urban residents, among males and among the wealthy, but so far the largest shares of these groups have no education. Education levels also vary by state, but in the best performing state in terms of educational attainment is Central Equatoria that in which still two-thirds of the active population has less than primary education. Labor force outcomes for the small share of workers with education are not surprisingly much better. They face a smaller risk of unemployment and are much more likely to secure formal, salaried employment. In terms of employment status, even a small amount of education appears to make a

difference: salaried employment is 22% points higher for those with primary education compared to those with no education. Data are not available from the 2008 Census on the wage premium associated with higher levels of education. Two of three young South Sudanese aged 15–24 years have already joined the labor force. This underscores that the transition to working life occurs very early in South Sudan. Among active youth, a very large share (19%) is without work. About 14% of active young persons are working students, while also continuing in their education. Among inactive youth, the largest share (42%) is in education exclusively, but many other inactive youth (29%) are in fact discouraged workers. 30% of all inactive young persons are neither in school nor interested in employment. There is a clear dichotomy between rural and urban youth in terms of their participation in education and in the labor market, pointing to underlying differences in the rural and urban labor markets. Urban youth tend to stay in education longer before joining the labor force, with obvious consequences for the levels of human capital they bring to the labor force when they eventually do enter it. The status of those in the labor force, however, does differ greatly between urban and rural youth; strict and relaxed measures of unemployment are relatively high for both groups. Gender-related factors also appear important to the activity status of male and female youth. While labor force participation differs little by sex, male youth are much more likely than female youth to be still in education, both exclusively and in combination with employment. A larger share of female youth, on the other hand, is inactive and not in education, presumably undertaking responsibility for the household. As expected, labor force participation rises with age while the opposite pattern prevails for education participation. But three out of five youth are already in the labor force by the age of 10 years. This highlights the very early transition to work in South Sudan and the fact that most youth workers were previously child laborers. Among active youth, teenagers (15–19 year-olds) face a slightly greater risk of unemployment compared to young adults (20–24 year-olds). Differences across states in youth activity status are large. On the basis of labor market and education participation by state, Western and Central Equatoria stand out as the states where young people stay in education longest before entering the labor force; at the other extreme, labor force participation is highest and education participation lowest in Eastern Equatoria, Unity and Warrap State. A large number of South Sudanese youth seems to be not working and looking for a job. In all, almost 19% of youth in the labor force are unable to find work, rising to 30% when discouraged workers are included. Three quarters of unemployed youth are seeking work for the first time, underscoring that the primary challenge is gaining an initial foothold in the job market. There is some variation by residence, sex and age range, but unemployment is high across all of these sub-groups. State differences in youth unemployment are very large; the youth unemployment varies from 32% in Jonglei to 7% in Western Bahr El Ghazal and Eastern Equatoria. Youth employment, like employment for the overall workforce, is dominated by low-productivity, unremunerated work concentrated in the agriculture sector. In all, 60% of employed youth is

in agricultural work, primarily subsistence farming and raising livestock, and 88% is in non-wage work such as own account workers, unpaid family workers or unpaid non-family workers. 58% of employed youth is in non-wage work in the agriculture sector. Only about 17%, by contrast, work in the tertiary sector, and just 9% are salaried employees. The composition of youth employment varies somewhat across states but non-wage work and the agriculture sector predominate in all of them. Taken together, these figures indicate that young South Sudanese not only have difficulty securing work, but the quality of the jobs that they eventually do secure is low. Levels of human capital among young South Sudanese workers are extremely low. Fully 94% of young people enter the labor force with less than primary education, underscoring the urgent need to second chance learning opportunities for acquiring job relevant skills. However, school attendance rates have increased dramatically since 2005, and the educational profile of young adults is therefore beginning to improve as a result. Labor force outcomes for the small minority of youth with education are much better. As with the labor force as a whole, more educated youth face a smaller risk of unemployment and are much more likely to secure formal, salaried employment. These results are relevant to the trade-off between child labor and education earlier in the lifecycle. Theory and evidence suggests that positive returns to education can have an important feedback effect on parents' decisions to invest in children's education. Youth labor force participation and status are closely correlated with household wealth. Wealthy youth tend to stay in education longer before entering the labor force, and face a slightly lower risk of unemployment. They are also much more likely to be in salaried, tertiary sector employment, although the largest share of the wealthiest youth is found in low productively family-based agriculture. The unemployment rate of young South Sudanese is twice of their adult counterparts. A fewer 15-24 years old are in the labor force but those that are active have much greater difficulty finding jobs. Young South Sudanese workers also appear disadvantaged compared to their adult counterparts in terms of job quality. A smaller share of working youth is in tertiary sector jobs and in formal salaried employment. However, job quality, as proxied by tertiary sector employment and salaried employment, is low for youth and adult workers alike. Levels of child involvement in economic activity are very high in South Sudan. In all, almost half of 10-14 year-olds (46%) spend at least some time each week performing economic activity. At the same time, only a little over one-third of children in this age range is in school. Most but not all of the children performing economic activity constitute in child labor in a legal sense; the Southern Sudan Child Act of 2008 set the minimum age for the admission of a child to a paid employment at 14 years, but set a lower minimum age of 12 years for light work. Children's involvement in economic activity is associated with compromised education. Although school attendance is low for all children in South Sudan, this is especially the case for working children whose school attendance rate (24%) is only half that of their nonworking peers. And the negative educational impact of work of course extends well beyond school attendance, as the time and energy

required by work can impede school performance among those working children managing to attend school. Another way of viewing the interaction between children's employment and schooling is by disaggregating the child population into four non-overlapping activity groups of children in employment exclusively, children attending school exclusively, children combining school and employment and children doing neither. This disaggregation shows that 35% of all children aged 10-14 years are in work exclusively while almost 11% of the same age group attend school and work at the same time. Only 26% of 10-14 year-olds attend school unencumbered by the demands of work. A very large residual group (28% of 10-14 year-olds) is neither in school nor in employment. It is likely that most of this inactive group is in fact involved in work activities that are outside the System of National Accounts production boundary, and in particular in unpaid household chores within their own homes. A larger share of boys is in school, although school attendance is low for boys and girls alike. Involvement in economic activity differs little by sex, although it should be stressed that household works, such as child care and household chores performed within one's own home, where girls typically predominate, are not considered in the estimates. Rural children are much more likely to work and to be out of school, although the issues of child labor and educational marginalization are by no means limited to rural areas. Rural children are also much more likely to be inactive, in other words to be neither in school nor employment. Again, a large share of this group is likely performing household chores. The level of children's involvement in economic activity and education is closely linked to where they live, underscoring the importance of geographic targeting of efforts against child labor. The Eastern Equatoria and Warrap states stand out as particular challenges in terms of both child labor and educational marginalization; Western and Central Equatoria, by contrast, have made most progress in terms of getting children out of work and into school. Children's economic activity is concentrated primarily in unpaid family work in the agriculture sector. The composition of children's economic activity is similar to that of the labor force as a whole. Nearly three fourths (72%) of working children are in unremunerated family employment and over 60% are in the agriculture sector. Only a very small share of children (less than 6%), by contrast, are found in formal sector work that typically fall within the domain labor inspection regimes. Information on the hazards faced by children in the workplace is particularly needed in order to identify the types of work that pose the greatest threat to children's health and safety. Information on the time intensity of work is also needed to determine the degree of children's exposure to hazards in the workplace and the likely impact of work on the time and energy children have for study (L. Guarcello and others, 2011, p.7-27 ).

3.6 Gender Equality and Women Empowerment: Gender inequality exists in South Sudan and it negatively affects women more than their male counterparts. Women, who constitute 49% of the population, are in most cases marginalized in social and economic spheres, and therefore, are unable to contribute effectively to social, economic and political development. There is a high correlation between

poverty, social vulnerability and gender inequality. Strongly related to the poverty, social vulnerability and gender inequality is the low literacy level among women, estimated at 70%. This state of affairs is a key determinant of gender inequality in South Sudan. The ratio of girls to boys in primary school which in 2008 was at 58.6% fell slightly to 58.40% in 2009, but increased again to 59.30 % in 2010. This is evidently attributable to the Government of South Sudan's political will to promote gender equality and empower women by putting the right policies in place, enacting the relevant laws where they are required, and by designing the right strategies and programs on the education of the girl child in particular. As a consequence, the ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education has been rising. Ratio of girls to boys in secondary education rose in years 2009 and 2010, but still very low. Factors that force girls out of school include late starts in education, as well as family and cultural responsibilities because girls are more likely than boys to assume roles of providing home care and support for relatives that are aged or sick. This implies that the elimination of gender disparities remains a challenge at secondary school level. This might also be the case at tertiary education level. Therefore, there is a need to formulate strategies that target family and cultural tendencies with a view to eliminating them altogether. There was an increase in the proportion of seats held by women in the Legislative Assemblies both at national and state levels in South Sudan for the three years within the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) period and up to independence. However, male parliamentarians, governors and undersecretaries still outnumber women. There is a need to accelerate progress on this front. While recognizing important efforts that are being made in the area of gender equality and empowerment, there still a need to streamline gender concerns in all government policies and strategies. The government has, therefore, put in place a number of strategies to eliminate gender disparities. To achieve this objective, the government of South Sudan has adopted a national plan for action on Combating Gender Based Violence. Also, it adopted a national policy on women empowerment and the national policy for girl's education in 2007; the national strategy on stopping Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) in 2008; the quota system in the general election law of 2008, which guaranteed 25% of the total number of seats for women in the legislative assemblies, in addition to earlier policies demonstrates the existence of political will to empower women in South Sudan; the policy of affirmative action to increase number of women in decision making positions in the public and private sectors; amended the 1991 criminal law in 2009 to include provisions on special protection for women during armed conflicts, and the armed forces law formulated in 2007 embraced an article on special protection for women during armed conflicts as is the situation on the borders of South Sudan; and the Ministry has developed a 5-year (2012-2017) Strategic Plan which has proposed to establish departments of women empowerment in various areas such as in politics. The Strategy has also proposed a gender mainstreaming desk office in each ministry (South Sudan MDG Report 2012, pp. 40-43.)

In the deeply patriarchal society of South Sudan, women are seen as inferior to men and stark or naked inequalities between men and women persist. Men as heads of households have the decision-making power within their families and women are expected to be subservient to their husbands. Violence against women is frequent and possibilities to seek and obtain redress or correct the situation are very limited. Polygamy, which is legal and widespread, constitutes an impediment or obstacle to women's equality. A South Sudanese man can marry as many women as he can afford to pay the bride price for and can support. Women, on the other hand, cannot have more than one husband and if a married woman becomes involved with other men she can be accused of adultery, which is a criminal offence, punishable by a prison term of up to two years. Although adultery is illegal, a woman cannot really open a case against her husband because polygamy is allowed. If a woman is accused of adultery, she can be imprisoned for 24 hours while an investigation is carried out and, if she is found guilty, she may be jailed for several months. Women are often given the option to pay a fine instead, but since most women do not have their own income and do not control assets, they are likely to spend time in prison. There have also been positive developments in the legal and institutional realms. Gender equality has been recognized and taken into account in the Transitional Constitution and relevant laws. However, a fundamental contradiction remains, as customary law, which is considered an important source of law in South Sudan, does not recognize men and women as equal and discriminates against women. Within the government, a Ministry for Gender, Child and Social Welfare has been established. However, gender is only one part of its extensive remit and its budget is less than 1% of the total budget of Government of South Sudan (GoSS). It is very positive that a number of women's associations have been established in Juba and some other towns and that they have become increasingly active in advocating for women's rights. There have also been many initiatives by international actors. Gender inequality was linked to deep-seated cultural practices. And that change would be gradual and would take a long time, especially in rural areas. Attention should be paid to the social structure of society and of using culturally sensitive arguments. In South Sudan it is important to support women and girls to speak out for them-selves and to involve men in changing attitudes as well as to work with chiefs and government authorities. Access for girls to education, including higher education, is key factor, for raising awareness with chiefs and parents in the villages. There have been some changes over recent years. Following the war, increasing urbanization and the presence of international organizations have provided new livelihood opportunities for women in urban areas, which at times have enabled women to exert greater influence in the household. The situation of women in rural areas where the vast majority of the population live still remains largely unchanged. Many women are overworked as they had a multitude of tasks, including taking care of the children, doing the housework, fetching water and firewood, and engaging in farming. Sometimes men helped with cultivation. But, most men prefer to stay in the cattle camps or pretend to do business in town. Young

women in such camps have multiple tasks as milking the cows, gather cow dung, wash men's clothes, clean milk containers, graze calves, fetch water, carry mats and other items when they move from one camp site to another, and cut pegs (to tie up the cows). In fact it is the young women who do the bulk of the work. There is another issue that is, women lack control over assets. The Transitional Constitution of South Sudan states that women have the right to own property. But, according to the customary law of many ethnic groups, a woman cannot own assets in her own capacity, since property is held by her husband as the head of the household. In South Sudan the legal age for marriage is 18 years, but early marriages are common. According to the Government 36% of girls in South Sudan are married before the age of 18. And as a result, there are severe consequences for the girls as they are taken out of school, having to move with the husband's family members, carry out domestic works, facing serious health risks related to early pregnancies and sometimes girls try to run away or commit suicide to avoid early forced marriage. The main reason for early and forced marriage is the poverty; because if a family is extremely poor and someone offers a lot of cows, the family will definitely make a decision to marry their child. But if a family has wealth, enough food it could not pressure its child to be married early. In South Sudan, a marriage is not understood as an arrangement between two individuals it is a social institution, that involving whole families and ties together separate kinship groups. Power and wealth are often important factors guiding the choice of a prospective partner, with marriage playing a part in helping a family to increase their social status. Marriage usually entails the payment of a bride price in the form of cattle by a man and his family to the future wife's family. The giving and receiving of cattle involves a wide network of family members, with uncles, brothers, and cousins contributing to help the groom pay the dowry. The cattle are then distributed among the bride's male family members. The bride price is payable in installments, with the marriage not considered finalized until the full bride price has been paid. Bride prices have increased, with payments of 50–200 cows especially among some Nilotic tribes now is common, which constitute a huge value and thus an important source of income for families. If there are several suitors, a sort of bidding may take place. The need for bride payments can put young men under pressure to accumulate wealth and is one factor contributing to cattle raiding. Given this extended system of exchange and dependence, pressure on girls and young women to marry a suitor who is able to pay many cows and pressure to get married early can be very strong. The girls concerned usually have little say as the decision rests with the father. Women have little to say in decisions on whom or when their daughters marry whether they do not like the men chosen for their daughters. The foremost goal of marriage is procreation, and great pressure is placed on women to have as many children as possible. A married woman of childbearing age is expected to become pregnant once every three years. However, pressures are not only external, as many women also want to have large families. The bride wealth constitutes a longstanding cultural practice, bringing family groups together and creating strong bonds.



Bride wealth is the cause of regarding girls as the family's main resource and wives as their husbands' property. Gender-based violence is widespread in South Sudan. Abuses and beatings are common and beatings are widely considered to be acceptable behavior to discipline wives. Lack of food exacerbates domestic conflict, with the women especially when there is hunger in the house, there are always disputes, and if a man gets angry, he chases away the wife. The root causes of unequal relationships between men and women are linked to the culture and customary laws. Families promote such norms and girls are educated to fit traditional roles. There are low levels of education, especially among rural women, and lack of awareness of their rights. The social acceptability of domestic violence, the difficulties for women in obtaining redress and the lack of consequences for men are among the causes of violence against women. Many men feel that their wives are their property and therefore they can treat and discipline them as they wish. Another factor aggravating domestic violence is increasing alcohol abuse. The drinking of alcohol is a frequent problem, not only affecting men's ability to work but also rendering them more aggressive. While the vast majority of gender based violence (GBV) is directed against women, children and men can also be affected. The beating of children is also very common. Sometimes boys are being forced to fight in cattle camps in rural areas. Women do not really seem to have options that would allow a way out of an abusive relationship. They would first turn to their husband's brothers or other members of their husbands' family, and, if this did not work, they could turn to the elders or the chiefs. One reason for the lack of redress is related to the discrimination against women in customary law. Customary law plays an important role in South Sudanese society and is recognized in the Transitional Constitution. However, several aspects of customary law are incompatible with women's rights and perpetuate unjust gender relations. In customary law and culture, the focus is on social cohesion and the preservation of the family rather than on the safety and wellbeing of the individual. Reconciliation and compensation are favored over retribution and punishment. Technically, if there is a contradiction between customary and statutory law, the latter should prevail, but in reality this does not usually happen and the two systems operate in parallel. Although women have the right to appeal to a customary court if the abuse is beyond what is considered a reasonable level, they rarely do so, for several reasons. According to the culture there is a perception that it is shameful to raise marital problems in public. Family cohesion is emphasized, reconciliation is favorable, and separation discouraged. In the case of a divorce, the cows that were transferred to the woman's family as bride wealth have to be returned to the husband. As in many cases the cattle will have been distributed amongst the woman's relatives, they will pressure her to reconcile with her husband and to stay in an abusive marriage so that they do not have to relinquish or give up part of their wealth. This can result in cases of suicide after parents had returned their daughter to an abusive husband. Customary courts are presided over by chiefs, most of them older men with conservative views on the roles and rights of women. As the

aim of customary courts is to preserve marriage, divorce is rarely granted and women are almost always ordered to reconcile and return to their abusive husbands. Many women are therefore afraid to report domestic violence as they fear that their husbands will become angry and even more abusive. In the statutory system, women do not fare much better. It is not uncommon for police personnel to intervene in cases of domestic abuse because it is considered that it is a man's right to discipline his wife, daughter or sister. In courts, judges tend to be more hostile towards women, at times blaming them for not adhering to their expected subordinate roles and provoking the violence. These attitudes and the fact that domestic violence is considered a private matter to be resolved within the family or community are the reasons why laws that prohibit wife beating, forced marriage, and child marriages are rare and even harder to enforce when they do exist. The fact that in most cases the perpetrators of domestic violence do not face any consequences sends a message that it is acceptable behavior and does not deter future perpetrators. While it is technically possible to get a divorce, it is very difficult for women. If the marriage life does not work out, the man withdraws the cattle that have been paid as bride wealth, and sends the woman back to her parents and takes the children. Children are placed with their fathers, unless they are very small. The prospect of losing child custody is also a strong disincentive to consider divorce. In most cases, divorced women are left without any belongings. This is because they come into the husbands' family without any property, and they are not entitled to any assets. The threat of being left destitute is another strong deterrent to getting divorced. While all women in South Sudan are vulnerable, widows are in a particularly precarious situation. According to the traditional practice of the Nilotic tribes, a woman only marries once during her life. Even if her husband dies, she is not eligible for remarriage since the marriage bond remains even after death. The widow can inherit any of the deceased husband's property, as it remains within his family. Thus she is dependent on the support of her husband's family. According to customary practice, the widow would usually be taken in and cared for by one of her husband's relatives, a practice which is known as levirate marriage. However, it is not uncommon for widows to be evicted from their homes and left destitute. In South Sudan a quarter of all households are female-headed. While literacy rates and primary school attendance in South Sudan are very low in general, girls are particularly disadvantaged. In primary school, the ratio of girls to boys is seven girls for every ten boys, while in secondary school it is even worse, as five girls to ten boys. Very few girls graduate from secondary school because girls are forced to leave school to get married. In towns, there are some positive changes because few girls are allowed to return to school after marriage or after having given birth. In rural areas it is virtually impossible for girls to attend school beyond a basic level. The reluctance to educate girls might also have to do with the fact that families question the need for further education for girls as they get married in any case or because they fear that educated women will be less likely to adapt to traditional roles (Ingrid Kircher, 2013 pp. 23-30 .(

Independence brings multiple opportunities and risks to South Sudan; to both women and men. Some of these opportunities result from changes in gender roles and norms that brought about by years of conflict and displacement. Others include relative political support for gender equality within the government and the absence of religious extremism in South Sudan, increasing international commitment to gender equality, and the availability of good examples of women's political participation in other African countries. Hurdles or obstacles include the presence of multiple, urgent priorities in post-conflict South Sudan, including lack of security, a dearth of infrastructure and human resources, and a lack of basic services, such as education and health. These hurdles not only absorb limited resources, but also could be used by anyone opposing social change and equality between women and men to delegitimize concerns for gender equality and women's human rights. Despite the devastating effects of conflict on women, experience in South Sudan shows that women can make at least partial gains even during conflict, as women assume more nontraditional roles outside the household, as gender norms change, and as the war disrupts traditional local structures. These gains can be strengthened during post-conflict reconstruction. Government action or inaction on gender equality in South Sudan will determine whether the new republic sets another positive example for the rest of the continent, or whether its women need to stage yet another fight for equality. Political will is important to ensuring gender equality in post-conflict settings. In South Sudan, the Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM), the ruling party, has acknowledged the specific adverse effects of conflict and marginalization on women, reflected, in the often-cited proclamation by the late Dr. John Garang, the founder of the SPLM, that women are "the marginalized of the marginalized." The majority of female and male politicians in South Sudan also acknowledge the roles that women played during the conflict as well as their roles as peace-builders and in mobilizing voters for the referendum on independence in January 2011. Since the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005, South Sudan also has committed itself to ensuring women's participation, including through a quota system to ensure gender parity in government. There is a general belief in South Sudan that women are in a better position to achieve gender equality due to the relative lack of religious extremism. There is an important point that women's groups can use to advocate for gender equality and women's rights in South Sudan. Increased global efforts in gender equality, women's political participation, and human rights constitute another enabling factor for equality in South Sudan. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which many world leaders have endorsed, include commitments to women's empowerment and gender equality, which are now considered essential to achieving all Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Women's political participation and gender mainstreaming, including in post-conflict societies, have also been on the global security agenda since 2000, with the adoption of Security Council Resolution no (1325). The Security Council has since adopted several other resolutions that focus on violence against women in conflict, set out institutional

mechanisms to prevent such violence, ensure protection for women in conflict, and address impunity. It also has appointed a special representative on gender-based violence (GBV) in conflict situations; South Sudan is a priority country on the representative's agenda for 2011–2012. Global commitments to encouraging women's participation, gender mainstreaming, and combating gender based violence (GBV) are evident in United Nations Security Council Resolution 1996. Drawing on its resolutions on women, peace, and security, the Security Council affirmed the importance of appropriate gender expertise in the mission. The resolution also emphasized the need to address gender-based violence (GBV) as a tool of war. There are several challenges that face the social, economic, and political empowerment of women and commitments to gender equality in South Sudan. This could affect men and women differently, and affect women from different ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds, and from different states of South Sudan, in distinct ways. Among them is insecurity, which is a major challenge, often arises from armed attacks within South Sudan, due to the militarization of communities as a result of years of war, inadequate demobilization, disarmament, and reintegration of ex-combatants, and the abundance of arms. These have had devastating effects on communities at large, but especially on women. According to the United Nations Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA), in March 2010, more than ten incidents of conflict occurred in South Sudan, resulting in the displacement of almost 16,000 people in Upper Nile and Jonglei states, whose majority were women. In recent years, young men have also used small arms for cattle raiding to pay as bride wealth, further fueling community-level violence. The lack of infrastructure and human resources, extreme poverty and inequality of income distribution, and low access to health, education, and employment also affect women differently. South Sudan's literacy rate stands at 27%, but it is much lower among women and girls age six or older (19%) than among men and boys in the same age group (38%). The dominant division of roles within the household, along with entrenched practices such as early and forced marriage for girls, contributes to this disparity. Similarly, the weak health care system affects the health and well-being of everyone in South Sudan, but many women die in childbirth due to a lack of healthcare services and reluctance to use the services. South Sudan's maternal mortality rate of 2,054 deaths per 100,000 live births is among the highest worldwide. The government also must meet the needs of returnees, especially those women returning from Sudan and started to arrive in South Sudan at the war's end in 2005, but their numbers increased in the run-up to the referendum. United Nations Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA) indicates that out of 1.5 to 2 million South Sudanese living in northern cities, 320,000 returned to the south between October 2010 and July 2011. Mass displacement also often renders women vulnerable to gender-based violence (GBV). In South Sudan, gender equality and respect for women's human rights are conflated with the 25% quota allocated to women in decision-making structures, which can cause neglect of other areas relevant to women's empowerment and participation. As in other developing countries, gender

issues are at times perceived as alien and irrelevant in South Sudan. For example, in a training course that the International Center for Transitional Justice (ICTJ) organized in Juba for a group of civil society organizations included a module on gender and justice, participants initially responded to the UN trainers that gender was a Western concept and that concern for it meant promoting the domination of women over men. The International Center for Transitional Justice (ICTJ) organized a follow-up training session on gender, its definition, and its relevance to transitional justice concerns in South Sudan, resulting in consensus among most participants on the importance of gender in transitional justice. Finally, South Sudan's nation-building process, which involves addressing politicized ethnic difference, "promoting an inclusive sense of national belonging and building a citizenry devoted to the concept of citizenship in the nation," can involve constraints on women, given their roles in replacing generations lost during the war, and in reproducing the new nation biologically and culturally. The same process, however, can open up the political space for dialogue about citizenship and inclusion and about who South Sudanese are and what unites them as a nation. Women's organizations and other stakeholders can use this as a platform for a dialogue that rethinks women's roles in reproducing the nation and that defines South Sudan as a nation committed to principles of gender equality and women's human rights. Women's participation is a right stated in South Sudan's transitional constitution and essential to ensuring a viable economy. It can also lead to stronger and more inclusive state structures and institutions that improve relations between the state and local communities and enable women to take advantage of better governance. In South Sudan, women have earned this right through their active participation in many capacities before independence. The roles they play as combatants, supporters of fighting forces, and peacemakers qualify them to sit at the negotiating table and to assume an active role in implementation." South Sudan's 2011 transitional constitution provides for a quota system with 25% representation for women at executive and legislative levels. Women compete for the remaining 75% of the seats. Similar provisions in the interim constitution resulted in women constituting 33% of South Sudan's parliament at independence. The chair of the women's parliamentary caucus envisions an increase in the percentage of women members of parliament to 42% or 43% in the next elections and eventually to 51%. Several articles by Southern Sudanese activists and writers, however, have described factors obstructing women's political participation. Cultural practices, such as early and forced marriages, that limit women's access to education; perceptions that relegate women to the private sphere; the assigning of time-consuming household responsibilities, such as fetching water and preparing food, to men; and negative labeling of politically active women. Addressing the barriers and creating an enabling environment for women's participation should accompany quotas to ensure equal participation for women and men. Women's economic empowerment is an essential key to their effective participation at all levels and to reducing poverty. In South Sudan at present, 83% of the population lives in rural areas, and 78% of the households depend on

crop farming, which is dominated by women. The government of South Sudan so far has taken several steps to empower women economically in various sectors. The Ministry of Gender, with funding from the World Bank, disseminated grants to 109 women, who started small businesses in all ten states. In April 2011, the government launched a women's vocational training institute at Aluakluak Payam (district) of Yirol West County of Lakes state, for the first time in South Sudan. The government must ensure women's access to decision making in the national economy and remove obstacles to their participation in the public and private sectors and in the informal economy. The empowerment of women economically can contribute to economic growth and there is a strong correlation between gender equality and per capita gross domestic product. Supporting women in agriculture can strengthen the economy by diversifying its sources of income. At the state level, training women and facilitating their access to employment will ensure the growth of human capital and state resources. Women in the informal economy can also contribute to maintaining families and households, reducing poverty, building skills, and increasing the chances for employment elsewhere. Civil society organizations, especially women's groups and networks, have worked tirelessly to influence constitution making in South Sudan. The Transitional Constitution of the Republic of South Sudan which amended in 2005 favors women's participation and gender equality. The article (16) in the bill of rights accords women full and equal dignity of the person with men, the right to equal pay for equal work, and the right to property and to share the estates of a deceased husband. In addition, it stipulates that all levels of government should "enact laws to combat harmful customs and traditions which undermine the dignity and status of women" and "provide maternity and child care and medical care for pregnant and lactating women". Nonetheless, the interim constitution also recognizes customary law which mainly facilitates access to property for women and girls through their fathers or husbands, and as such, often discriminates against widows and other groups of women. Practices that communities developed to maintain widows' access to land, such as wife inheritance by a brother in law, often compound this discrimination. Widows can take their in-laws to court to retrieve their property, but it is very difficult to do so without economic resources or family support. The process of building and consolidating state structures and institutions offers a unique opportunity for South Sudanese women and men to create an inclusive and functional state, and to make gender equality a central component of state building. The government of South Sudan started to form state structures when it became autonomous in 2005. This state building includes establishing a gender ministry with a mandate covering social welfare and, until recently, religious affairs. The government has committed to appointing gender focal points in all ministries to support gender mainstreaming, though this has not been fully implemented due to lack of financial resources. The government also established posts of gender advisers to the governor. Gender mainstreaming efforts in South Sudan will need to take into account the highly politicized ethnic diversity and great disparities between women in rural and

urban areas of different social groups. The government must commit to gender mainstreaming at the highest level and allocate sufficient financial and human resources to its proper implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. Gender equality and women's participation can facilitate peace and security, as women can play key roles in warning against violence and addressing intercommunity strife. An enabling environment is essential to achieve gender equality and women's human rights. The government of South Sudan and development partners should identify and address factors that limit women's potential, such as gender-based violence (GBV), lack of access to health, education, and other services, and aspects of culture that limit women's potential. Addressing gender-based violence is a key concern for women and girls in South Sudan. Statistics on the prevalence and magnitude of gender-based violence (GBV) in South Sudan are unavailable, but it is believed to be high. Widely recognized as a public health and human rights problem, gender-based violence (GBV) can seriously limit women's ability to voice concerns and access to state resources. The physical, psychological, and social harm can destroy women's confidence, constrain their movement, and hamper their ability to reach their full potential. Gender-based violence (GBV) also increases women's vulnerability to HIV and other diseases. It particularly affects communities that have experienced long-term conflict and can devastate post-war communities. The violence that women in South Sudan endured during the war, in conflict areas and as refugees and displaced persons, received little documentation or reporting worldwide; but only a few studies documented these experiences. Among the factors fueling violence in South Sudan is a belief that domestic violence is a normal means to discipline a wife. Women also often face violence outside their households at the hands of insurgent groups and government forces. Out of 3,900 women associated with the armed forces in South Sudan, about 700 have been demobilized in August 2010. Some of the former combatants have joined government structures, but many are stigmatized as their communities consider them "loose women who can bring diseases to the community." South Sudan does not have a specific gender-based violence (GBV) law yet, but the penal code criminalizes various forms of gender-based violence (GBV). Domestic violence is an issue that can carry a sentence of between one to seven years and a fine, depending on the severity of the attack. Women, however, are often silent about and rarely report incidents of violence, because of the stigma that survivors of violence face. Recently, women and their families continue to use the customary justice system, which consists of chiefs and heads of clans who implement traditional practices to restore justice as defined by communities because the police and the justice system are ill-equipped to meet community needs and because of the rigid legal framework. Although the United Nations Missions in Sudan (UNMIS) and United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) have established units within the police that address gender-based violence (GBV) and trained the police on women's rights and the needs of female survivors of gender-based violence (GBV), it has been difficult to ensure sustainability for the programs because trained officers are often redeployed elsewhere

and given other duties. There is also a need for psychosocial support services for gender-based violence (GBV) victims and survivors. In a more positive development, South Sudan received a grant from the United Nations Trust Fund to end violence against women, which the American Refugee Committee has used to assist the government in developing guidelines for the clinical management of violence survivors and develop an information management system to facilitate collection of timely data on incidents of violence. Women in South Sudan lack access to health care and education. Marginalization and unequal development both are key causes and outcomes of the conflict in South Sudan that resulted in very low literacy rates for women and girls, and in devastating statistics in health. In many villages, women have no access to medical or health services during pregnancy. There are no clinics, no medicines, and no nutrition, and if a woman moves to town to access hospitals, she will be victim on the way because of lack of security. The government should build clinics and women's healthcare centers, especially in rural areas and provide medicines and equipment. There should be trained nurses and clean hospitals, especially maternity wards. Education is another important concern. Despite women's contributions as peace-builders, farmers, and owners of small-scale home industries, the lack of access to formal education limits their ability to participate effectively at various levels. According to the Sudan Household Health Survey of 2006 only 45% of women ages fifteen to forty-five had heard of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and 70% did not know three key forms of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) prevention. High illiteracy also often obstructs communication through written material with women at the grassroots level. In addition, early marriage affects women's and girls' education and maternal health, as girls often have to drop out of school to get married and get pregnant before they are ready. The Transitional Constitution prohibits forced marriage, and the Child's Act (2008) criminalizes early marriage. Investment in health and education can catalyze women's economic and political participation and human rights in the long run, but these sectors receive a low proportion of the government's total budget compared with other sectors. Women's participation can enhance attempts to fight corruption. Officials in South Sudan's Anti-Corruption Commission often highlight perceptions in South Sudanese cultures that women are non-corrupt, and the commission supported women running for elections in 2010 to embrace anticorruption practices. Women's organizations voice the demands of women, girls, and communities within state society negotiations. South Sudanese women have developed remarkable peace-building skills and strategic thinking, emanating from their roles as spiritual and political leaders as well as their experiences of exile and displacement in war-affected areas. After the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005, the majority of activists in women's organizations assumed leadership and senior positions in the government of Southern Sudan structures. These positions meant a greater voice and role in decision-making for women, but it also deprived the women's movement of most of its leadership, who became less active in civil society due to political and time constraints. Women's



organizations, however, continue to carry out advocacy regarding peace-building, elections, and articulating women's priorities. Various organizations also address women's practical needs and rural development, and advocate on human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and peace. Nonetheless, activists in women's organizations stress the need to further build the capacity of women's groups and obtain sustainable funding instead of working with their current project-based short-term funding regimes. Short-term funding prevents women's groups from developing, advocating for, or implementing their own agendas and priorities, or establishing sustainable programs (Nada, Mustafa Ali, 2011, pp. 1-12, see: [www.usip.org](http://www.usip.org) .(

### 3.7 Human Rights and Freedom of Expression:

3.7.1 Ethnicity: The 2011 Transitional Constitution of the Republic of South Sudan sets out the ethnic equality and states that "all persons are equal before the law and are entitled to the equal protection of the law without discrimination as to race, ethnic origin, color, sex, language, religious creed, political opinion, birth, locality or social status. Ethnic and cultural communities have the right to freely enjoy and develop their particular cultures. Members of such communities shall have the right to practice their beliefs, use their languages, observe their religions and raise their children within the context of their respective cultures and customs in accordance with the constitution and the law. With regards to language, it states that "all indigenous languages of South Sudan are national languages and shall be respected, developed and promoted; English shall be the official working language in the Republic of South Sudan, as well as the language of instruction at all levels of education; the state shall promote the development of a sign language for the benefit of people with special needs". Ethnic clashes for territorial control, local political leadership and economic subsistence are a common phenomenon in all South Sudan. The civil war and the formation of militias have politicized ethnic and tribal identities in a process further exacerbated in recent years by ongoing conflict and ease of access to small arms. Rivalries and vendettas between tribes and ethnic groups have thus become a source of conflict in their own right. The government response to ethnic violence has also been considered to further fuel ethnic tensions. Concerning political representation of ethnic groups, the 2011 Transitional Constitution of the Republic of South Sudan sets out with regards to ethnic representation in government that "the composition of governments shall take into account ethnic, regional and social diversity in order to promote national unity, and command national unity and loyalty". The government of South Sudan made efforts to obtain representation from all ethnic groups; however, no formal mechanism to achieve such balance had been established. According to Freedom House report "accusations persist that members of the country's largest ethnic group, dominate the leadership of the Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM). South Sudan's new cabinet line-up reflected an attempt to address these concerns, with portfolios spread more equitably among the main regions and ethnic groups". The rivalries within the ruling elite and between

opposition and central government often run along ethnic and tribal lines. These are complex and dynamic in nature, because the competing units are not only the ethnic groups, but also clans and networks representing subgroups, or clans within these subgroups". In South Sudan the military elite is deeply divided, and the former fighters dominate the political arena. In April 2010, eight out of the ten state elected governors have a military background. According to the Small Arms Survey, during 2011 "70% of the officers in the command structure of the South Sudan Police Service (SSPS) were from one ethnic group, and that as of December 2011, states that "this trend was maintained in the states; which nine of the ten commissioners of police were belong to the same ethnic group". It further reports that some clans are economically and politically marginalized. They are almost never involved in official state and local affairs beyond payam-level administrators and commissioners. They do not interact with the members of parliament (MPs) representing their areas. Members of parliament (MPs) that have access to constituency development funds rarely interact with the communities. Despite high-level representation in the national government, the youths belong to these clans express the same frustrations that government is inaccessible and does not address their basic needs. The Amnesty International, report on the armed insurgency in the Greater Upper Nile region which covers Unity, Jonglei and Upper Nile State, notes that "the violent divisions and tensions between the armed groups reflect more local grievances; particularly the perceived political disenfranchisement of the communities, some of whose leaders included long-time loyalists to the SPLM, which is often accused of being one ethnic group-dominated". The Minority Rights Groups reports on the deep rooted drivers of inter-ethnic conflicts that "First, smaller ethnic groups outside the main two largest ethnic groups, nexus at the heart of government in the country feel divorced from decision-making. Second, the total absence of state presence in rural regions in terms of providing much-needed basic services, promoting economic development and playing a peacekeeping role has fed grievances among smaller groups who feel excluded from power and the economic benefits that are assumed to flow from it. The Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA), which is the South Sudan's military force, has even stated that it fears to intervene in these conflicts because it is likely to be accused of favoring one particular ethnic group, again reflecting the perception that institutions are not representative of the diversity of South Sudan (Asylum Research Consultancy Report, 2013, pp. 60-63 .(

3.7.2 Citizenship and Nationality: South Sudan passed a 2011 Nationality Act which introduced an ethnic definition into South Sudanese nationality law for the first time. The article eight (8) of the Nationality Act sets out the eligibility requirements for nationality by birth, it says that "A person born before or after this Act has entered into force shall be considered a South Sudanese National by birth if such person meets any of the eligible requirements such as (a) any Parents, grandparents or great-grandparents of such a person, on the male or female line, were born in South Sudan; or (b) such person belongs to one of the indigenous ethnic communities of South Sudan. A person shall be considered a

South Sudanese National by birth, if at the time of the coming into force of this Act (a) he or she has been domiciled in South Sudan since 1.1.1956; or (b) if any of his or her parents or grandparents has been domiciled in South Sudan since 1.1.1956. A person born after the commencement of this Act shall be a South Sudanese National by birth if his or her father or mother was a South Sudanese National by birth or naturalization at the time of the birth of such a person. A person who is or was first found in South Sudan as a deserted infant of unknown Parents shall, until the contrary is proved, be deemed to be a South Sudanese National by birth". The law also provides for acquisition of nationality by naturalization based on ten (10) years' residence and other conditions. Despite introducing the ethnic definition, no eligible communities are identified, nor are any criteria provided of how to be deemed a member of one of these groups. The Open Society Institute reports that it is not clear whether indigenous ethnic communities includes some cross-border groups which are all ethnic groups that exist on both sides of the border between South Sudan and Sudan. It is also not clear whether it includes pastoralists who spend only part of the year in South Sudan, or descendants of immigrants from other parts of Africa such as the pastoralist communities, or those not resident in South Sudan, including those of mixed ethnic descent. The South Sudan Transitional Constitution provides for dual nationality. In December 2011, South Sudan adopted regulations on the implementation of the South Sudan Nationality Act. The Open Society Institute reports that importantly, the regulations provide procedures to permit both administrative and judicial appeal of decisions made under the act. The 2011 Nationality Regulations set out that all applications for nationality certificates and naturalization certificates must be submitted to the Issuing Authority, at the Directorate of Nationality, Passports and Immigration in Juba, or local branches in the ten states of South Sudan, or to designated embassies. According to the general procedures for all nationality and naturalization certificates, the inquiry and standard of proof are as the issuing authority inquires into the facts relating to an application; the responsibility to adduce or cite sufficient evidence to support the application remains primarily with the applicant; the applicant may establish the facts supporting his or her application by documentary evidence; the applicant must provide a witness(es) who is or are believed to be elders and next of kin; where documentary evidence is not available to support an application, the issuing authority takes into consideration sworn statements by any witnesses adduced by the applicant. Such witnesses may be, primarily but not only, (a) community leaders, (b) traditional authorities, (c) church or religious leaders, (d) county, payam, and boma officials, (e) chiefs or sub-chiefs from the applicant's local indigenous group, (f) relations of the applicant, or (g) any other persons of good standing who has own firsthand knowledge of the identity of the applicant; and the issuing authority decides on the application on the basis of the preponderance of evidence, considering whether the facts alleged by the applicant are more likely to be true than not. For applications for nationality certificates, the applicant must provide their signature, any available identity documents, passports or birth certificates of the

applicant, together with two photographs. For applications for nationality by descent from persons born in South Sudan under article eight (8) (1a) of the Act, the applicant must also provide the name, date of birth of one of any parents, grandparents or great-grandparents on whom the application relies. For applications for nationality by descent from South Sudanese nationals under article eight (8) (3), the applicant requires the date and manner of acquisition of nationality of the respective parent who was a South Sudanese national and a copy of their birth certificate, certificate of nationality, South Sudanese identity document or passport, or naturalization certificate. For applications for nationality by ethnic affiliation under article eight (8) (1b), the name of the indigenous community is required, together with the name of the payam, boma, chief and sub-chief of the local unit that the applicant belongs to and in case of trans-boundary communities, confirmation that the applicant belongs to the South Sudanese part of the indigenous community. In cases where applications are for nationality by residence under article eight (8) (2a or b), the applicant must provide their proven address or any residence in South Sudan since 1.1.1956, or the address of their parents or grandparents on whom the application relies, the starting date of residence and confirmation that the residence has not been interrupted since its inception. If the application is for nationality of foundlings under article eight (8) (4), the legal guardian of the applying deserted infant must additionally provide the place and date the infant was found and confirmation that his or her parents are unknown (Ibid, pp. 64-66 .(

3.7.3 Freedom of Expression: South Sudan's Transitional Constitution is one of the most progressive in Africa, which guarantees press freedom and ensures that all levels of government uphold this principle. However, South Sudanese media suffers from a legal void and lack of legislative framework for their activities. In 2012 the Ministry of Justice presented a package of three media related bills to the South Sudan's Council of Ministers for their review and eventual submission to the National Legislative Assembly. They are the Broadcasting Corporation Bill, the Media Authority Bill, and the Right to Access Information Bill. The 2012 Broadcasting Corporation Bill envisages the creation of a national public service broadcaster, in other words, the South Sudan Broadcasting Corporation (SSBC). A strong guarantee of independence from the executive branch is one of the key characteristics of a democratic public service broadcasting law. With this characteristic of the Bill, it is very questionable whether the South Sudan Broadcasting Corporation (SSBC) will be able to truly deliver its well-defined mandate to serve the public rather than the government. With regards to the Right to Access Information Bill, there is a positive step towards the effective protection of the right to freedom of information in South Sudan. The Bill sets out the principles of access to public information, determines the subjects of the law, for both right holders and duty bearers and regulates the procedure for seeking public information. The Bill also takes a progressive approach to access to information held by private bodies. Moreover, the Bill establishes the office of the Information Commissioner and introduces an enforcement mechanism.

However, it identifies areas for improvement that is, the Bill and the principle of maximum disclosure does not take precedence over other legislation in the South Sudan; and the provisions articulating the nature of the right of access to information would also benefit from clearer wording, while the schedule of exceptions to the right should be more narrowly tailored. The Bill lacks provisions providing for the right to access information about oneself, and to correct that information where it is incorrect. In relation to the Media Authority Bill which would create a media regulatory body, it demonstrates the intentions of the drafters to adopt legislation that is in line with international standards, the Bill must be improved and that several important elements that endanger the democratic operation of the media supervisory system should be eliminated. Concerning the issues which are primarily related to the lack of independence of the Media Authority from the government, clarifying limits of the powers of the Media Authority, among others, in the field of investigation have been suggested. Furthermore, concerning the appeal mechanism against the Authority's decisions; the abolishment of both kinds of appeal bodies, which strongly urging a full and independent court review of all decisions is secured. The lack of enactment of these media Bills has left journalists without comprehensive legal protections and the media sector without a regulatory framework in South Sudan. Freedom House notes that legal measures were rarely used against the press, apart from a case in which a bank filed criminal defamation charges against the independent weekly Juba Post after it reported that the institution was facing bankruptcy. The editor and a reporter for the paper were detained, but the case had not gone to court by the end of the year. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, members of several political and opposition groups from around the country have also been arrested and detained by the forces in connection with their political activities .

The 2011 United Kingdom Foreign and Commonwealth report notes that "In 2011, there were a number of reported cases of intimidation, confiscation of assets and detention of members of the main opposition party". Freedom House reports that "In July 2011, two leading members of the largest opposition party said they were arrested and tortured by agents". The United States Department of State reports that "during 2011, government forces tortured, beat, and harassed political opponents, journalists, and human rights workers during the year". With regards to political prisoners and detainees the same source notes that "The government held an undetermined number of political prisoners and detainees. The government permitted access to such persons by international humanitarian organizations. Government forces often detained without charge and abused political opponents. For example, on March 23, prior to the country's July 9 independence, nine opposition members were arrested in connection with a document criticizing the Northern Bahr el-Ghazal State authorities and calling for anti-government demonstrations in the state. At year's end the nine were reportedly being held without charge in Machar Kunyuk Prison, and no trial had been scheduled". The United State Department of State report also noted that "there were reports from political opposition party leaders that they were not allowed to hold rallies or political

gathering events in some states during elections campaigns in 2010". The 2012 Amnesty International report notes that "government forces harassed and arbitrarily detained journalists, members of opposition groups and demonstrators for criticizing the government". The Federal International Human Rights (FIDH) reports that "the South Sudan Human Rights Society for Advocacy (SSHRSA) has faced unsolicited and menacing/threatening visits to their offices by unidentified men, and they were put on surveillance for hours by the intelligence agencies. Despite reporting this to the police and to authorities including the South Sudan Human Rights Commission, the authorities took no action and the South Sudan Human Rights Society for Advocacy (SSHRSA) was forced to move offices for its own safety. The coordinator of the South Sudan Human Rights Society for Advocacy (SSHRSA) reported that it was now contemplating dropping cases involving political opponents or political and security detainees as if they follow up any politically, militarily or security-related cases in a systematic manner, then they would either be arrested. He really suspects that in future people will just be silent about abuses and violations. The South Sudan Human Rights Society for Advocacy (SSHRSA) had been previously calling for the end of arbitrary detention of a leader of the opposition party or the United Democratic Front (UDF), and of one of the armed group leaders. The South Sudan Human Rights Society for Advocacy (SSHRSA) has publicly and closely monitored the high profile case of the April 2012 enforced disappearance of an engineer in Juba. The case remains unresolved even though a high profile suspect has been identified. The suspect remains free, while relatives of the engineer have been threatened, and his house attacked by unknown assailants/or attackers". With regards to the treatment of protestors, Amnesty International's annual report notes "the following incident in 2011: On 4 October, secondary school students from Wau in Western Bahr el-Ghazal State peacefully protested against rising food prices and low salaries for teachers was responded with gunfire and tear gas. At least seven people, including students, were arrested and remained in detention at the end of the year in Wau prison; two people died from gunshot wounds. The United Nations called on South Sudan's government forces to exercise maximum restraint after nine civilians were killed and many more injured in incidents involving protestors and police on 8-9 December 2012 in Wau. Reportedly protests began after officials said they would move the seat of local authority out from Wau, capital of Western Bahr el Ghazal state, to a nearby smaller settlement of Bagare. Four people were killed in the town of Wau during clashes on 8th December and then the next day, the government forces reportedly opened fire on a crowd demonstrating against the previous day's using excessive force, shooting a further six (6) people dead. It was also reported that police used live rounds to break up protests in Juba mainly on 15 October 2012 of persons from the Greater Bahr el Ghazal region, who were demonstrating against the agreements signed between South Sudan and Sudan on 27th September, particularly in relation to the inclusion of a contentious fourteen (14) mile area in the safe demilitarized buffer zone". Reporters With-out Borders notes with regard to the state of the media in

South Sudan that "although enjoying a degree of freedom, the media are still in terrible shape. They have started virtually from scratch and their needs are enormous, especially as regards training and learning journalism ethics and professional conduct. The environment in which they have to operate is barely viable". Freedom House reports with regards to print media that "newspapers are largely concentrated in urban areas due to the high cost of transportation and a lack of reliable infrastructure. Furthermore, there is a general lack of diversity of viewpoints, as reporters are either employed by pro-government media owners or fear reprisals from state authorities. With regards to online reporting, the lack of official restrictions on online news has allowed several professional, critical websites to emerge, including Sudan Tribune, Sudan Votes, and Gurtong. Although there is no official censorship, journalists have no effective legal protection from harassment by state officials, and many self-censor to avoid repercussions from their reporting". For example, Reporters Without Borders notes that "the UN-backed Radio Miraya scheduled a debate with the opposition parties entitled (Opposition parties: what's your voice?), but all the participants and special guests backed out at the last moment. With regards to access to get to the war zones in South Sudan, it is virtually impossible for news organizations. Very rarely, teams of journalists may go for just a day to somewhere in South Sudan". Journalists and human rights defenders in South Sudan face intimidation and arrest in the conduct of their activities. Journalists are subject to harassment, arbitrary arrest and detention for publishing stories critical of the government. The government officials and individuals within the government rely on extrajudicial means to silence the private media, and journalists and media houses were regularly subjected to intimidation and physical attacks by some individuals both before and after independence. The United Kingdom Foreign and Commonwealth Office noted that "in June 2012 it continued to receive reports of human rights abuses across South Sudan including prolonged illegal or arbitrary detention of journalists and civil rights activists". Reporters Without Borders describes that "journalists are rarely subjected to formal arrest, they are often briefly detained and beaten and that violence and intimidation against journalists by the government forces is common. It further notes that the brutality of the government forces is sometimes the result of orders from the authorities, who want to hunt down spies and who think that their suspicions justify the use of unorthodox methods. But usually the brutality is the personal initiative of policeman, soldiers, security agents and bodyguards who are not being controlled by their superiors". According to the U.S. State Department, during 2011 in regard to detaining, harassing and intimidating journalists, "Government forces confiscated or damaged journalists' cameras and equipment, demanded photography permits from journalists, and restricted their movements, particularly prior to independence". Moreover, on 3 January 2013, the Committee to Protect Journalists reported that "two state journalists were being held without charge, with local journalists suspecting the arrests related to their coverage of ethnic violence in Wau. On 5 December 2012 a journalist was reportedly dragged from his home in the outskirts of Juba by

unidentified gunmen and shot to death. The journalist worked as a official and also, writing articles for the news websites of the Sudan Tribune and Gurtong, in which he was often critical the South Sudanese government". Reporting on the same incident, Reporters With-out Borders noted that "while the motive for the journalist's murder has yet to be established, the threats he had received in connection with his columns suggest that it was directly linked to the views he expressed. It also reported that several journalists have been the target of recent intimidation attempts after criticizing the South Sudanese authorities". The Committee to Protect Journalists reported in March 2012, that "A court ruled against the Citizen newspaper to pay South Sudan's ruling party Secretary General, damages for reporting on the corruption charges that had been brought by former Finance Minister. It noted that the ruling party sent the message that reporting about corruption can be detrimental to a media house's survival and those sensitive issues such as of security are also no-go areas for South Sudanese journalists". Human Rights Watch similarly reported in July 2012 that "officials have also sought to clamp down on speech critical of the government, in violation of the right to freedom of expression guaranteed in South Sudan's constitution and international law. In a number of cases Human Rights Watch has documented since South Sudan's independence, government forces arrested, harassed, and detained journalists because of what they wrote or said". Freedom House cites the following 2011 cases of ill-treatment of journalists: "the editor in chief of the Citizen daily news paper, was arrested in January 2011 and detained without charge following an article on the dispute between a government minister and a Chinese oil company. In March, freelance journalist was arbitrarily arrested by Juba police and released more than a month later. In May, some agents detained a reporter for over three weeks for taking photographs without a permit, accusing him of espionage. He was reportedly subjected to torture while in custody. In November, the editor in chief of the daily Destiny news paper was arrested following an October column that criticized certain issue. Several days later, the author of the article, was arrested and suspended from working as a journalist, and publication of Destiny was also suspended. Both men were released several weeks later without charge, but reported mistreatment while in custody, and one journalist received a death threat via e-mail following his release. Reporters regularly encountered difficulties while covering news stories, including confiscations of equipment and restrictions on their movements by police and other forces". Further to the examples cited by Freedom House, Human Rights Watch reports in 2012 "In May, police detained a radio journalist in Rumbek town for two days following a radio talk about the relationship between police and civilians, during which callers criticized the police, saying they were slow to respond. In June, military officers detained and questioned a Sudan Tribune journalist three times in Bentiu town, after he had published an article in which widowed women accused the military of not providing them with adequate compensation for the death of their husbands. Also in June, officials summoned editors and



journalists from five newspapers in Juba and instructed them not to report on corruption or mention a letter that sent to 75 government officials in May asking them to return stolen funds" (Ibid, pp. 73-78.)

3.7.4 Freedom of Movement and Residence: The South Sudan Transitional Constitution provides for freedom of movement in whole South Sudan. Every citizen shall have the right to freedom of movement and the liberty to choose his or her residence except for reasons of public health and safety as shall be regulated by law. Every citizen shall have the right to leave and or return to South Sudan. In 2012 representatives of the Sudan and South Sudan governments agreed the four freedoms agreement which set out that in accordance with the laws and regulations of each state, nationals of each state shall enjoy in the other state the following freedoms: (a) freedom of residence; (b) freedom of movement; (c) freedom to undertake economic activity; and (d) freedom to acquire and dispose of property. However, the April 2012 signing ceremony was cancelled due to hostilities on the border, and until the signing of the agreement; it was not officially in force. Negotiations ultimately concluded with the signing of nine agreements in 2012, including the four freedoms which were ratified by South Sudan as an overall cooperation agreement and eight detailed agreements on security arrangements, oil, trade, banking, specific economic matters, pensions, border issues and the status of one country's nationals in the other. The ratified four freedoms agreement provides for stronger legal protection for nationals of one state residing within the territory of the other, including the freedom of movement, work, residence and property ownership. The parties also agreed to enhance cooperation to provide nationals of each state with all documentation, including identification and work permits, necessary to facilitate integration (Ibid, pp. 97-98.)

3.7.5 Freedom of Religion: The Transitional Constitution of the Republic of South Sudan proclaims that South Sudan is a multi-ethnic, multi-cultural, multi-lingual, multi-religious and multi-racial entity where such diversities peacefully coexist. The article eight (8) of the Transitional Constitution states the all religions shall be treated equally and religion or religious beliefs shall not be used for divisive purposes. The article (190) of the Transitional Constitution prohibits the derogation of the right of non-discrimination on the basis of religious creed during a state of emergency. The Transitional Constitution provides and guarantees in article (23) the following religious rights such as (a) the right to worship or assemble in connection with any religion or belief and to establish and maintain places for these purposes; (b) the right to establish and maintain appropriate faith-based, charitable or humanitarian institutions; (c) the right to acquire, possess and own movable and immovable property and make, acquire and use the necessary articles and materials related to the rites or customs of religion or belief; (d) the right to write, issue and disseminate religious publications; (e) the right to teach religion or beliefs in places suitable for these purposes; (f) the right to solicit and receive voluntary financial and other contributions from individuals, private and public institutions; (g) the right to train, appoint, elect or designate by succession

appropriate religious leaders called for by the requirements and standards of any religion or belief; (h) the right to observe days of rest, celebrate holidays and ceremonies in accordance with the precepts of religious beliefs; and (i) the right to communicate with individuals and communities in matters of religion and beliefs at national and international levels. The Transitional Constitution also guarantees the protection of religious sites. Furthermore, article (14) stipulates that no discrimination on the basis of religious beliefs shall occur, which in article (29) has been particularly emphasized in relation to the right to education and in article (33) concerning ethnic and cultural communities. All persons are equal before the law and are entitled to the equal protection of the law without discrimination as to race, ethnic origin, color, sex, language, religious creed, political opinion, birth, locality or social status. Education is a right for every citizen and all levels of government shall provide access to education without discrimination as to religion, race, ethnicity, and health status including HIV/AIDS, gender or disability. Ethnic and cultural communities shall have the right to freely enjoy and develop their particular cultures. Members of such communities shall have the right to practice their beliefs, use their languages, observe their religions and raise their children within the context of their respective cultures and customs in accordance with the constitution and the law. The Transitional Constitution also sets out that the South Sudanese courts shall administer justice irrespective/regardless of their social, political or economic status, gender, religion or beliefs. And it stipulates that services provided by the civil service shall be governed without bias or discrimination on the basis of religion, ethnicity, region, gender, health status or physical disability. With regards to the 2011 nationality regulations, guideline provides that any administrative or executive decision falling within the scope of these regulations and the Act, shall not be based on arbitrary or discriminatory grounds such as race, color, ethnic affiliation, sex, religion, political or other opinion, property, disability, health status, geographical origin, or belonging to a particular social group. The United States Department of State in its 2011 Report on International Religious Freedom further notes that "the South Sudanese government does not require religious groups to register and that the Transitional Constitution and other laws and policies protect religious freedom and, in practice, the government generally respected religious freedom". Freedom House similarly reported in its 2012 Freedom in the World report that "religious freedom is guaranteed by the interim constitution and generally respected in practice". The U.S. State Department 2011 Report on International Religious Freedom further notes that "there were no reports of societal abuses or discrimination based on religious affiliation, belief, or practice and that since the Republic of South Sudan gained independence, religious freedom has significantly improved. Members of different faiths have become more open and tolerant of each other's religions", (Ibid, pp. 100-101.)

3.7.6 Rule of law: Due to the legacy of armed conflict and underdevelopment in South Sudan, the justice system is weak, ineffective and inadequate. The legacy of civil war, the guerilla reflexes, and the

absence of legal provisions on security forces' mandates, certain loopholes in the Code of Criminal Procedure Act 2008, and impunity, create conditions for unlawful behavior by members of armed forces, notably arbitrary arrests and detentions. Human Rights Watch describes persistent weaknesses in all rules of law institutions, due to the shortage of skilled and highly trained civil servants and inadequate resources. For example in 2011, 95% of the Police Service's budget was spent on salaries, leaving little funds for infrastructure and equipment, negatively impacting on their ability to carry out responsibilities such as completing investigations or taking detainees to court. According to the report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights in August 2012 a shortage of judges, together with a lack of professional police and qualified lawyers, as well as lack of basic training, infrastructure, transport and equipment, severely affects the administration of justice. And as a result, arbitrary arrest and detention are widespread in South Sudan and many people are detained as a result of flawed arrests and prosecutions, or without any solid legal justification. Furthermore, interference by military and political figures in the justice system sometimes leads to arbitrary arrest and detention, as the police often act on instruction or under threat rather than in accordance with the law. The South Sudan Human Rights Commission notes that many judges especially at the county level are left on their own without supervision. They also have high case loads. With inadequate training they tend to misinterpret the law. Lengthy pretrial detention is also one of the problems. The State Department of United States noting that estimates of the number of pretrial detainees in prison ranged from one-third to two-third of the prison population. The country's lack of lawyers and judges contributed to lengthy pretrial detention. According to Human Rights Watch, it is not unusual to wait over a year before going to trial. It further notes that South Sudanese law does provide for release on bail or on execution of a personal bond but justice authorities rarely use it and it suggests that most defendants are unaware that bail is a legal option that lacks legal advice on how to apply for release. The Integrated Regional Information Network (IRIN) notes that hundreds of prisoners are desperate to get to court to be tried after being held for long periods, sometimes with allegedly flimsy evidence. Human Rights Watch reports that some prisoners are held on remand for years, some who have not even been accused of any crime and there are inmates detained as proxies in order to encourage appearance of a relative or friend, those who are detained for failure to pay civil debt, court fines, or compensation awards, and imprisoned for petty crimes and marital offences. It further notes that in some cases the Prisons Service is unable to produce a single written document justifying the detention of an inmate or even confirming their name. The 2011 annual report of the South Sudan Human Rights Commission similarly reports that it is still the practice that many people are arrested, taken in and detained without being informed of the reasons or of crimes they are suspected to have committed as required by article 19(4) of the Transitional Constitution. The International Federation for Human Rights (FIDH) reports that the relative weakness of the judiciary, which is under-staffed and under-trained, leads

to a lack of effective oversight over arrests and detentions. Even though the Criminal Procedure Act states that the Public Prosecution Attorney shall inspect places of custody and detention daily; check the arrests register and verify the validity of procedures; and advise on the treatment of the arrested persons, in accordance with the law, this rarely happens. The International Federation for Human Rights (FIDH) also notes that the legal framework establishing the judiciary is fundamentally faulty or defective in that it makes the judiciary directly answerable to the Presidency of South Sudan, which is aggravated by the fact that the appointment process of top members of the judiciary is dominated by the Presidency. The United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights also reports on the weak prosecutorial capacity and an insufficient number of judges which continues to result in widespread violations of human rights in the administration of justice, including perennial trial delays, excessive remands, prolonged pretrial detention and overcrowded prisons. The United States' Department of State also noted that judicial corruption was a problem during 2011. Human Rights Watch reports that even once a trial has begun it may continue indefinitely with repeated adjournments, citing the example that a prisoner on remand was in Wau prison for over five years and has made astounding or amazing 17 unproductive trips to court, each time there is no plaintiff (complainant), no police officer or no judge, and on one occasion, none of the above was in court. Amnesty International reports that many trials are conducted in Arabic even if the defendant did not understand that language, and without an effective appeals review (Ibid, pp. 102-104)..

## **Chapter Four**

### **Natural Resources, Physical Infrastructure and Financial Sector**

- 4.0 Introduction.**
- 4.1 Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries and Forestry.**
- 4.2 Land and Water Resources of South Sudan.**
- 4.3 Tourism and Wildlife Conservation in South Sudan .**
- 4.4 Transportation and Telecommunication Network .**
- 4.5 Electricity Provision, Oil Production and Mining .**
- 4.6 Financial Sector, Trade and Investment in South Sudan.**

**4.0 Introduction:** In this chapter various topics such as agriculture, livestock, fisheries and forestry; land and water resources; tourism and wildlife conservation in South Sudan; transportation and telecommunication network; electricity provision, oil production and mining; financial sector, trade and investment in South Sudan have been discussed as under.

#### **4.1 Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries and Forestry:**

**4.1.1 Agricultural Sector Overview:** Agriculture is one of the essential sectors to the economy of South Sudan. Estimates on contribution of agriculture, forestry and fisheries accounted for 36% of non-oil gross domestic product (GDP) in 2010. About 80% of the population lives in rural areas, with agriculture, forestry and fisheries providing the primary livelihood for a majority of the households in each state. Much of the rural sector activity is currently focused on low-input and low-output subsistence agriculture instead of producing for markets. Among the significant reasons for this are the need for improved agricultural inputs and techniques such as seeds, fertilizers, storage facilities, advisory services, and irrigation developments; the difficulties faced by farmers in accessing markets due to the poor road network, lack of other transport modes and nuisance taxes and charges, including bribes; the lack of mass of farmer and rural producer associations as a means of entering the market place with the aim of minimizing the cost of inputs, accessing loan finance at affordable rates and influencing farm-gate prices; and uncertainties pertaining or relating to property rights and access to land. In some decades ago, South Sudan was net exporter of agricultural products to regional markets; but due to war-related destruction, poor infrastructure and lack of investment in the agriculture sector, South Sudan is now a net importer of food items. It currently imports as much as 50% of its needs, including 40% of its cereals from neighboring countries, particularly Uganda and Kenya. Total food imports are estimated to be in the range of USD 200-300 million a year. While the country produces and consumes a wide range of agricultural commodities with the passage of time, some commodities have become prominent in the national pattern of consumption. Cereals primarily, sorghum, maize, millet and rice are the dominant crops in South Sudan. In 2009 more than 75% of rural households consume cereals. At the state level, the percentage of consumption cereals ranges from 28% in Upper Nile state to 62% in Western Bahr el Ghazal and to as much as 95% in Northern Bahr el Ghazal. For the country as a whole, cereal consumption accounts for about 48% of total basic food consumption in terms of value. Livestock accounts for approximately 30%, fish 4%, roots 2%, seeds 3.8% and other combined non-cereal crops 12.7%. Sorghum is the main crop cultivated with a wide range of local land. It is the main staple food in all states, except for the three States of Equatoria Region where the local diet is also based on maize flour which largely imported from Uganda and cassava that mainly produced in the Greenbelt zone. In Northern and Western Bahr el Ghazal, Warrap and Lakes, sorghum is often intercropped with sesame and millet. Maize is normally cultivated in limited areas, close to

homesteads and often used for green consumption. In some locations such as Upper Nile, maize is cultivated in larger plots, instead of sorghum, providing that the soil is suitable. Groundnut is cultivated on sandy soils in most locations and makes an important contribution to the household diet. It is the main cash crop which contributes to farming household income at certain periods of the year. In parts of Central and Western Equatoria, sweet potato, yam, coffee, mango and papaya are commonly grown. Okra, cowpea, green-gram, pumpkin and tobacco are also widely grown around homesteads. Vegetables such as onions or tomatoes are not commonly grown in rural areas, but are increasingly cultivated near cities to supply urban markets. Livestock provides the main source of livelihood for a substantial or considerable portion of the population, with herds mostly cattle concentrated primarily in Western parts of Upper Nile Region, Eastern Equatoria, Jonglei and Bahr el Ghazal states. Livestock are raised by nomads and semi-nomads and are entirely depending on access to grazing-land and watering points. However, the increasing number of sedentary farming is reducing the amount of available grazing-land which is a source of internal conflict in the country. With over 95% of agricultural production being rainfed, weather variability is a major factor in determining crop performance. In lowland areas, the occurrence of floods is normal, but variability of the water levels affects harvested area and yields. Agriculture is, for the most part, based on small, hand-cultivated units often farmed by women-headed households. Despite land availability for farming, manual land preparation limits the area that could be cultivated by households. Making use of animal traction would allow household to cultivate larger plots and plant in line to ease weeding. The Government of South Sudan (GOSS), Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) make efforts to promote animal traction on a small-scale in Central Equatoria, Western Equatoria, Lakes, Warrap and in the rest of Bahr el Ghazal States. In addition to social and cultural barriers, lack of spare parts and skills to maintain mold-board ploughs and adaptability of ploughs model to local soil conditions are the main constraints. Mechanized farming is practiced mainly in the Upper Nile counties of Renk, Melut and Wadakona and to a limited extent in Malakal as well as Bentiu in Unity State (African Development Bank Group, 2013, pp. 131-132.)

#### 4.1.2 Agricultural Sector Development :

a) Agriculture Activity: South Sudan's diverse ecology provides a growing season ranging from 280-300 days in the south-western parts known as the Greenbelt to 130-150 days per year in the northern states due to rainfall regimes. The bimodal rainfall regime cover much areas of Greater Equatoria which comprised of Western, Central and Eastern Equatoria, while the rest of the country has a unimodal rainfall regime. Agricultural performance varies markedly depending primarily on latitude, with the possibility of two and even three harvests per year from the same plots in the Greenbelt in Greater Equatoria, and a single harvest in the unimodal areas further north. With almost all agricultural

production being rainfed, rainfall variability is a major factor in determining crop production. Usually rainfall increases in a north-easterly to south-westerly direction culminating in the Greenbelt along the border with the Central African Republic, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Uganda; but there is considerable variation in rainfall from year-to-year and from location-to-location within the same year. In lowland areas, the occurrence of floods is common, while many areas, especially those towards the north and south-east of the country, are susceptible to prolonged dry periods. Crop production is mostly conducted on small, hand-cultivated plots farmed by women-headed households belonging to larger family aggregations, reflecting the polygamous nature of most communities. Notwithstanding an abundant availability of land, the area cultivated by households is limited by the size of the household labor force and/or the ability of the household to provide in kind payment essentially such as food and beer for the mobilization of traditional working groups known as nafeer. After many years of conflict and high levels of insecurity, farmers have been accustomed to cultivate only land close to their home or in group-farmed blocks of individual plots of land according to location. This attitude is gradually changing with increasing security and the emergence, initially of more far-fields away from home and with the development of commercially-orientated farmers cultivating larger areas of cereals such as groundnuts and cassava for sale. Cereal area per household is estimated in 2013 to be at 0.9 hectares. Sorghum remains the main crop cultivated by the traditional sector in South Sudan comprising some 70% of the area sown. Maize is estimated to be planted in 27% of the area including estimates of double cropping in the Greenbelt and other cereals including bulrush and finger millet and rice make up the remaining 3%. Maize is the most popular staple in south-central parts of Unity State, in Upper Nile State along the Sobat River and in eastern Jonglei counties near the Ethiopian border. Regarding sorghum, there are a large number of local lands and varieties ranging with lengths to maturity fitting agro-ecological niches ranging from short-season to very long-season which is more than 220 days and from short stature to the very tall or more than three meters in use throughout the country. Sorghum is the main staple food in all states except for the Greater Equatoria where the local diet also includes maize flour and cassava. Other crops increasing in popularity in Central and Western Equatoria include sweet potato, and yams. In Northern and Western Bahr el Ghazal, Warrap and Lakes, sorghum is regularly intercropped with sesame and some small amounts of bulrush millet. Maize is normally cultivated in limited areas close to homesteads and is often consumed green with the first early sorghums in August and September. Groundnut is cultivated on sandy soils in most locations and makes an important contribution to household diet throughout the northern states; it is also the main cash crop in the northern states. Okra, cowpea, green-gram, pumpkin, and tobacco are also widely grown around homesteads in all areas. Vegetables such as onions or tomatoes are not commonly grown in rural areas, but are increasingly cultivated near cities to supply urban markets.



Farmers commonly use their own seed saved from the previous year's harvest, and although virtually no commercial fertilizers, pesticides or herbicides are used throughout the bulk of the states; their use is noted to be increasingly in Central Equatoria. Further north near the border with Sudan, the use of herbicides is noted on some of the large-scale mechanized farms in Upper Nile State. Regarding pest-control campaigns, before South Sudanese independence, aerial spraying routinely practiced to quell or control migratory birds which nesting sites near the mechanized areas. The practice was resumed with aerial spraying conducted by Desert Locust Control Organization (DLCO) which based in Nairobi, in all locations except Renk and Manyo Counties. Rainfed mechanized cereal production is practiced on a large scale in the Upper Nile counties of Renk, Manyo, Melut, Baliet, Fashoda and Malakal following patterns of land occupancy-demarcation of leased land, established by both northern and southern trader or farmers before independence. Elsewhere, limited numbers of both private and public tractors provide plough services to individuals and farmer-groups at prices ranging from SSP 50 as government subsidy to SSP 350 per feddan for a single pass. Mechanization applies only to land preparation and in most cases, sowing on the second pass with a seed drill positioned over the ubiquitous disc harrows. Other operations to harvesting are done manually. Major problems related to supply of fuel and spare parts, operator skills and maintenance and repair capabilities persist, severely limiting the efficiency of the tractor service. During the past years, animal traction has been promoted by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry (MAF), Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and some non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in Central Equatoria, Eastern Equatoria, Lakes, Warrap and the rest of Bahr el Ghazal States in attempts to facilitate an increase in the area cultivated by each household. However, lack of spare parts, skills to maintain mould-board ploughs, raw materials for local blacksmiths and low levels of operator skill still limit expansion; as does a lack of resources to capitalize on the increased area through improved weeding (FAO/WFP Crop and Food Security Assessment Mission to South Sudan, Special Report, 2014, pp. 10-11 ).

) b) Institutional Arrangements for the Agricultural Sector: At the national level, primary responsibility for agriculture, forestry and fisheries rests with two ministries, notably the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry (MAF), and the Ministry of Animal Resources and Fisheries (MARF). In addition, the Ministry of Cooperatives and Rural Development and the Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation have significant responsibilities for particular aspects of agricultural development. The mandate of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry is to transform agriculture from traditional subsistence farming to achieve food security through scientific, market oriented, competitive and profitable agriculture with compromising the sustainability of natural resources for future generations. The mandate of the Ministry of Animal Resources and Fisheries is to promote, regulate and facilitate animal production and fisheries value added addition and access to credit, regional and international markets for food

security, poverty alleviation and socio-economic development. A series of policies were prepared during 2006-2007 for food and agriculture, forestry, animal resources, and fisheries. In 2010, the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) sponsored a review of these various policies that, in turn, has led to the introduction of a comprehensive food and agricultural development policy framework for the country. A major ongoing concern for policy makers is that most of the food sold in the market in South Sudan is imported and a significant proportion of food insecure people rely on imported food aid. An important focus of the ongoing review of the food security policy and related framework has been the development of production support services, with particular emphasis on how the private sector can be harnessed or controlled to provide various services including input delivery and mechanization; expansion of agricultural markets, value chain development and finance, with special emphasis on agro-business development; inter-relationships between food security, social development and climate change (African Development Bank Group, 2013, pp.132-133 .(

)c) Estimates of the Cropped Area: The country lies entirely within the River Nile Basin and is covered by grassland, swamps and tropical forests. 75% of the country's land area is suitable for agriculture while, approximately 330,000 square kilometers, or about half of the total land space, is estimated to be suitable for cultivation. With its high potential for agricultural production, and with the development of appropriate and adequate infrastructure, South Sudan could become the bread basket of Africa. In spite of having 50% of its mass arable land as prime agricultural land, only 4% of this area is cultivated continuously or periodically. Most of this land use in South Sudan is accounted for by smallholder subsistence farmers that, in the absence of fertilizers, pesticides and herbicides, practice some form of shifting cultivation. The total area that is cultivated on a shifting basis is estimated at about 2.8 million hectares. Areas covered with trees and shrubs account for 72% of land use, with grasslands accounting for about 23% of the total area. The Western Flood Plains livelihood zone has the most cropland which account for 34% of national cropland. Greenbelt and Eastern Flood Plains zones are the other two important crop production regions, accounting for, respectively, 18% and 26% of national cropland. Altogether, these three livelihood zones account for 78% of national cropland. Five states account for 70% of the national cropland and 56% of the national territory. Upper Nile, with 19% of total cropland; Warrap, 15%; Jonglei, 14%; Western Equatoria, 11%, and Central Equatoria with 11%. Almost all irrigated crops mainly rice are in Upper Nile; and rice on flood land is all in Northern Bahr el Ghazal, while fruit trees and tree plantations are exclusively in Greenbelt Zone encompassing Western, Central, and Eastern Equatoria which have the longest length of growing period (LGP) in South Sudan. According to the World Bank, the actual area cultivated in any one year in South Sudan has ranged between a minimum of 1% and a maximum of 2% of the total land area that is, from about 650,000 to 1.3 million hectares. According to Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and World Food

Programme (WFP) reports, about 1 million hectares were put under cultivation in 2008. Cereals typically account for 80% or more of the cultivated area each year. For example, the area under cereals that was harvested in 2008 was about 850,000 hectares. Sorghum is the main cereal, followed by millet and maize. The average area cultivated by a household is typically in the range of 1-4 feddans or 0.4-1.7 hectares (Ibid, pp. 133-134 .(

d) Rainfall and Land Use: Agriculture is predominantly rainfed with the level of annual rainfall rising from north to south and from east to west. It ranges from less than 500 mm/year in the semi-arid lands of Eastern Equatoria to about 1,800 mm/year in the Greenbelt zone. South Sudan experiences unimodal and bimodal rainfall regimes, the bimodal areas covering much of Greater Equatoria that is, Western, Central and Eastern Equatoria, while the unimodal areas characterize the rest of the country. Agricultural performance consequently varies considerably from place to place and from year to year, ranging from the possibility of two harvests per annum in Greater Equatoria between Tambura and Kejo-Keji, to one harvest in the unimodal areas further north. The length of growing period (LGP) ranges from 280-300 days per annum in the southern parts of South Sudan to 130-150 days in the northern parts. More than 70% of South Sudan has a length of growing period (LGP) longer than 180 days, and is therefore, suitable for crop production, but only a very small percentage of this area is actually cultivated each year. The classification of the aggregated land use by length of growing period (LGP) shows that 27% of cropland in South Sudan is located in areas where agricultural potential is high and in which the length of growing period (LGP) is more than 220 days, and another 42% in areas with medium agricultural potential in which the length of growing period (LGP) is between 180 and 220 days. The implication is that there is tremendous potential to expand and scale up agricultural production by bringing more of the arable land into cultivation by smallholder and commercial farmers, introduction of appropriate modern farming technology and the use of higher yielding seeds. The vast majority of the population lives in rural areas with low population densities. Even though the density varies widely, the average population density for South Sudan is estimated at 13 people per square kilometer compared to 166 in Uganda, 70 in Kenya, 83 in Ethiopia, and 36 people per square kilometer for Sub-Saharan Africa in 2009. Two states have a population density of less than 10 people per square kilometer, and they are Western Bahr el Ghazal in which 3 people per square kilometer and Western Equatoria that in which 8 persons per square kilometer, while five states have a density that lies between 10 and 20 persons per square kilometer. Of these, Upper Nile has the largest cropland area nationally, but a population density of 13 persons per square kilometer. Three other states are Warrap, Northern Bahr el Ghazal and Central Equatoria also have relatively high shares of the national cropland, but they have population densities of more than 20 persons per square kilometer. According to World Bank the areas in South Sudan that have high and medium production potential based on the

length of growing period (LGP) have the highest population density. The density of 50 persons per square kilometer is a threshold population that indicates the possibility of promoting agricultural intensification sets out the spatial distribution of areas with high, medium and low agricultural potential and high, medium and low population densities. In South Sudan, there are high to medium population densities in areas of high and medium agricultural potential. The high agricultural potential areas have a population density of about 66 persons per square kilometer while areas with medium agricultural potential have a population density of 54 persons per square kilometer. Although these areas presently have low per capita cropland values, they are likely to generate quick wins in terms of returns from new public and private investments that could lead to expansion of cropland and increased agricultural production. With assistance from United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and World Bank, the National Government of South Sudan has formulated strategies for expansion of the areas under cultivation that takes into account the assessments of the agricultural potential in various parts of the country. The objective of these assessments is to identify geographic areas in the country that can have a high payoff in terms of their development impact. Typically, the criteria used in identifying such areas include agricultural potential, access to markets, and density of population. The assessment has provided the basis for an indicative estimate of the prospects for expansion in cultivated areas in all 10 states. It suggests that the livelihood zones with large potential are the Greenbelt, Ironstone Plateau and Hills and Mountains; the relevant states are Western Bahr el Ghazal, the three Equatoria states, Warrap, Upper Nile and Jonglei. The Western, Central and Eastern Equatoria states would account for almost 60% of the proposed increase in cultivated areas. Large amounts of additional land which is 26% of the proposed increase would also be brought under cultivation in Jonglei, Warrap, and Western Bahr el Ghazal (Ibid, pp. 134-135 .(

e) Agricultural Sub-sectors and Production: The main subsectors of agricultural sector in South Sudan are traditional smallholder and mechanized subsectors .

.1Traditional Smallholder Sector: The estimation for average yield of cereal in each state and county level is derived annually. The process of estimation for cereal production involves the factors that affect yields during the season, such as rainfall, seed supply, cultivation and weeding timing and methods, use of inputs, pest and disease challenges, local security conditions and access to credit for mechanized farming. Cereal production is determined by multiplying yield per unit area by the disaggregated area estimates. In 2014, the estimated yields of crops were as the national gross cereal production is estimated at 1.27 million tons. Post-harvest losses and retention of seed for sowing in 2014 are assumed to account for 20% of this total, leaving a net amount of about 1.02 million tons available for local consumption. The result is 17% more than the 2013's net output of 865 000 tons and is some 28% above last four-year average. The average gross cereal yield is estimated at 1.25 tons per

hectare, about 30% higher than the 0.96 tons per hectare in 2013. The increase reflects far better estimates of yield of the first harvest in the Greenbelt; better rainfall generally and a reduction in cereal areas in Greater Upper Nile states with lowest long-term average yield estimates that usually bring down the national average (FAO/WFP Crop and Food Security Assessment Mission, Special Report, 2014, p. 25.)

.2Semi-mechanized production: Expansion of cultivation is being encouraged to meet the food needs of every household, but some messages are not being responsibly communicated. Expansion is being encouraged horizontally (i.e. the cultivation of larger land areas) without addressing the potential of producing more from the existing land areas under cultivation. An example can be found in Magwi County, where communities are being encouraged to prepare land for tractor cultivation by the Ministry of Agriculture and an international organization. Farmers are clearing the land close to their home areas in the forest. The destruction of trees, by setting fire to their trunks, is having a huge impact on large areas of forest. A concerning level of deforestation is seen along the road. The problem is widely known, and yet neither the relevant ministries nor development agencies is taking the urgent action needed to work with the communities concerned to prevent further damage. It is the responsibility of Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry to promote sustainable agriculture to enhance the production of a large variety of crops that are adapted to the environment, including both ones that have been traditionally grown along with new varieties. Destroying important forest cover to grow sorghum or maize, which can be grown effectively in other areas, is an extreme threat to the environment, particularly the watershed, and will have far reaching implications (Natural Resource Management, Equity and Conflict, 2009, p.23 .)

.3Large-Scale Mechanized Farming Sector: South Sudan's rainfed mechanized sector includes demarcated, large-scale farmers in Upper Nile State with multiple aggregations of 500 feddans or 200 hectares, in locations from Renk to Malakal; un-demarcated traditional farmers, cultivating units up to 50 feddans or 20 hectares along-side the large-scale farmers, hiring their tractors and equipment; a recorded rice scheme of Aweil Rice Scheme in Aweil West; and a mechanized sorghum area of Tonchol, in Aweil East in Northern Bahr el Ghazal State. There are also mechanized areas in other states, particularly in the Greater Equatoria, but they are unaccounted for in the assessments, as well as the emerging commercial farms in the Greater Bahr el Ghazal, expanding through the use of labor gangs, digging fields by hand or by using animal traction. Of these groups, by far the most important potential contributors to the national harvest are the demarcated and un-demarcated farmers in Upper Nile State. Their degree of mechanization is limited to land preparation and drilling of seed using seed boxes placed over ubiquitous disc harrows. All other operations to harvesting are carried out by hand, with the exception of a few farmers using herbicides sourced from Kosti in White Nile State of the

Sudan. The production in Renk, Melut, Fashoda and Malakal of Upper Nile State was that the overall yield of sorghum in the mechanized farms in all locations is estimated at 0.58 tons per hectare, while the average yield in traditional farms up to 20 hectares is around 0.65 tons per hectare. The cereal production from the rainfed mechanized sector in Upper Nile State is put at a very low level of about 24,384 tons. The mechanized small farmer, mostly un-demarcated, sub-sector is likely to add a further 27,700 tons. Mechanized farms elsewhere include the Aweil Rice Scheme, with yields expected at 2.5 tons per hectare from 844 hectares adding a further 2,110 tons to the cereal balance, and the mechanized farming in Tonchol producing about 200 tons of sorghum. This gives a total of approximately 54,400 tons, about 24% below the year 2013 estimates, which connects to an extra 43,500 tons net considering 205% post-harvest losses and seed use (FAO/WFP Crop and Food Security Assessment Mission to South Sudan, Special Report, 2015, p. 30.)

4. Other Crops Production: Groundnuts, with a short growing season and the possibility to be used as both staple or cash crop for sale, offer an important safety-net for family farms north of Raga and Wau in Western Bahr el Ghazal State, in so much as they are often planted as an alternative to sorghum if the first planting of sorghum fails. Groundnuts also provide lucrative cash crops further south where seasons are longer and a second planting is possible. Cassava is the major safety-net and the preferred staple in the Greenbelt. Its importance increases towards the south and west from being of very limited interest in Greater Upper Nile, Warrap and Northern Bahr el Ghazal states. In the three counties of Lakes State, the crop is planted around plots and household boundaries. In Wau and Raga counties of Western Bahr el Ghazal state, two-year cassava is planted either as a sole crop or intercropped with groundnuts, sorghum and sesame. In Western and Central Equatoria states, two-year cassava is intercropped with a wide range of crops including cereals, sesame, groundnuts, pigeon-peas and beans during the first year of its development. In the second year, it is left un-weeded until harvesting. As it is usually the last crop in a rotation, it may well be left to a third year depending on need; or later, at which stage it becomes inedible. Although one-year varieties of cassava are planted for sale as fresh tubers, most farms in the main growing areas follow the two-year cycle, harvesting tubers from 18-24 months, which are traded locally in the form of tubers for processing and farther afield from the farms as dried cassava chips or cassava flour. Yields vary significantly with the agro-ecology and, based on plant densities, crowns and occasional cross-check sample weights. Its production is noted in 2014 to fall between 15-25 tons of fresh tubers per hectare in both Central and Western Equatoria states. The estimates of area and production for both cassava and groundnuts that might be harvested in the seven states in 2014 were that all cassava crops harvested in Western Equatoria State as some return to forest and two harvests of groundnuts equivalent to about 329 000 tons of cereals at 42% tuber dry matter and 30% losses in processing. Regarding other field crops grown at household level, information on

oilseeds such as sesame, safflower and sunflower is too scanty to try deriving production figures. However, the mechanized sector in Upper Nile State might be expected to produce some 5,000 tons of sesame that is likely to be purchased immediately from the field by Sudanese traders (Ibid, pp. 31-32 .)

4.1.3 The Livestock Industry: Livestock are very important assets throughout the country. Livestock production represents a significant proportion of agricultural activity in South Sudan. The main populations of livestock are cattle, goats, sheep and poultry. The main products are meat, dairy products, hides and skins and eggs. Livestock production, especially cattle, is undertaken in the more arid and semi-arid zones such as Eastern Equatoria. Livestock systems are either nomadic pastoralist or mixed crop-livestock systems and are a major source of livelihoods, especially in the flood plains and the semi-arid pastoral areas. The population of livestock by state is estimated as almost 12 million cattle, 14 million goats and 13 million sheep in the country. This population is equivalent to about 2.6 animals per hectare of grassland in South Sudan as a whole and 1 animal per hectare of grassland in savannah zone. These population densities per hectare are relatively high. Livestock is an important economic asset, in addition to having a huge cultural value. Ownership of cattle is also a risk mitigation tool for pastoralists and farmers, the latter continually facing uncertainty caused by crop failure. According to the Ministry of Animal Resources and Fisheries as well as the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) about 85% of South Sudanese households own one or more animals. This suggests that South Sudan has approximately 1.1 million livestock farmers. Even though livestock is ubiquitous across South Sudan, from the southern equatorial forests to the arid and savannah north, the commercial value of livestock remains negligible. The estimated value of livestock production and products suggest that the income generated currently stands at about SSP 1.4 billion annually, equivalent to only 20% of the sector's potential. Market value is limited to the sale of red meat, mostly within the immediate local rural market and adjacent urban centers, particularly Juba, Yei and Malakal; some livestock is also sold to Sudan. Several years back South Sudan exported cattle to Uganda and Kenya and through the Port Sudan to Middle East Countries and other regional markets. Paradoxically, South Sudan currently imports meat from Uganda in spite of having the largest number of livestock per capita in Africa. Major challenges facing the livestock industry include the single most important challenge to the transformation of the industry from the social model, which limit their commercial value and exploitation to market oriented model. Currently, livestock in South Sudan is not viewed as an industry as much as it is a deeply rooted cultural phenomenon that represents the South Sudanese society. The livestock ownership is not measured by the market value of the animals; instead, it represents a status symbol that commands respect of the community and provides the owner with a source of nutrition and the ability to settle marriage dowry. Occasionally, cattle owners sell some stock, usually from his/her very old (oxen) stock to generate supplementary income. Consequently, only a

small fraction of the commercial value is currently being realized. The prevailing social model is not only a hindrance to growth and poverty reduction in the country, but represents a significant opportunity cost, in terms of lost growth and income. It is also a risk to food security and sustainable development of the country's natural resources. The projections of South Sudan population growth and domestic and external demand for livestock and livestock products highlight the urgency to transform the current social model into one with a commercial orientation. Furthermore, as the livestock population increases, there will be more pressures on grazing land and water resources. This will lead to the prospects of more conflicts among pastoralists and between pastoralists and farmers as they compete for limited fodder and water resources. The transformation and commercialization of the sector is, therefore, an urgent necessity. Achieving this transformation will require, in addition to a mindset change, the alleviation of other constraints facing the sector. According to the Food and Agricultural Organization and World Food Program a number of concerns among livestock producers, which the most important one was the lack of veterinary services are facing the industry. Even though changing from the social model is the paramount obstacle to transform South Sudan's livestock sector into a commercial orientation, several other obstacles must be addressed if the sector objective is to be realized. Among these other constraints are the weak infrastructure, in addition to generalized paucity of basic infrastructure such as roads, trunk and rural feeder roads; as South Sudan suffers from inadequacy of livestock markets where farmers trade their livestock. Given the size of the country and the dispersion of farmers over a wide area, there is need to create several more markets with the necessary facilities; insecurity and cattle rustling, even though the war with Sudan has formally ended, South Sudan is still faced with pockets of internal insecurity from ethnic conflicts and the existence of factional militia. In addition, cattle raids are still pervasive. Both factors combine to impede or delay trade and limit investment, circumscribing the development of the livestock sector; lack of trust, as inter-communal conflicts and low level of trust among South Sudanese exist, in the livestock sector, the absence of trusts can hinder the formation of farmer cooperatives and the establishment of partnership in value chain exploitation; the prevalence of domestic genotype livestock breeds limits the productivity and yield of the sector. Almost all livestock in South Sudan comprises of the Toposa and Ingessana indigenous breeds, which have not been upgraded for many generations. The prevalence of animal diseases limits the market value of livestock and represents a binding constraint on exports of South Sudan livestock. The existence of tsetse fly and recurrent outbreaks of Rift Valley Fever effectively quarantine livestock to local markets. Low availability and access to adequately qualified animal health service providers and poor animal husbandry practices among farmers lead to low births and high mortality rates for both young and mature herds, resulting in low yields. South Sudan livestock suffer productivity losses due to poor animal nutrition as a result to poor or inadequate



grazing practices, poor pasture and water management and lack of supplement in animal diet. The private sector in South Sudan is underdeveloped and lack entrepreneurship, stifling the formation and management of agro-business in general and livestock operations in particular; and several policy factors inhibit growth of the livestock sector which includes inadequate and high cost of labor; high transportation costs; unclear land tenure; and high and multiple taxation. The livestock industry in the country has a very substantial potential to emerge as a major food product industry in the decades ahead. The government has identified the industry as a principal axis for making agriculture the engine of economic growth and poverty reduction in the country. The key objectives for the livestock sector according to the medium-term industrial strategy of 2011-2016 that outlined by the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Investment in 2011 are to increase domestic sales of red meat from the current level of about 200 USD million to 250 USD million a year by 2015; expand the number of primary markets for livestock from 117 at present to 380 by 2015; and develop an export market for red meat, with sales of 50 USD million a year by 2015. South Sudan can draw on the experience of Ethiopia for the design of its livestock program. However, the design of the program must also address the constraints facing the sector in South Sudan, particularly with respect to the imperative for a paradigm shift from the social to a market mindset model. A three-tier approach is proposed for attaining the objective such as changing mindset using a versatile and context relevant information communications campaign; the creation of a market-based platform; and with government support, creation of a private sector driven value chain system that focuses on production. The national campaign to change mindsets in local communities has been launched. Changing to market and commercially oriented mindset is the single most important factor for the development of the country's livestock sector. The commercial potential of the industry will result in transformation of cultural change from the current social model of acquisition and conservation to a commercial market model that monetizes stock through market-based transactions. It identifies the target audience which is all citizens, particularly livestock farmers; conveys a clear message that development of a commercial livestock industry will enhance economic welfare; identifies change agents. These will include commercially oriented farmers, key government advocates, committed community leaders, logistic providers, and niche markets that can benefit livestock producers; highlights successful cross-border livestock examples, including Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda and Sudan; and establishes and disseminates information on structures to help farmers, including for example, extension services and transport logistics. This will entail be establishment of several primary markets for the sale of animals, the exchange of information between farmers, traders, agents and slaughterhouses. The objective here is to bring market players together in an integrated system to improve the value chain for meat production. The system should be built around the existing commercial trading market centers, including industry working groups in Greater Kapoeta region in

Eastern Equatoria, Nyirol and Pibor Counties in Jonglei, Nasir, Baliet and Renk in Upper Nile; Panyinjar, Mayom and Leer in Unity State; and Terekeka County in Central Equatoria. With support from the Ministry of Animal Resources and Fisheries, the working groups should include all segments of the meat production value chain, including operators of slaughterhouses, traders and market agents. The Chamber of Commerce could play a key role in facilitating the working group. Such a market-driven system will value and price animals according to their potential for high meat and hides quality, sending a message to farmers about the value that the market places on the intrinsic quality animals. The creation of a sustainable value chain should emphasize on production of high quality livestock. The low quality of breeds, poor animal health practices and low quality of animal product safeguards constitute the main technical challenge because of the impact they exert throughout the value chain. In addition, the government should rein the cattle rustling and improve infrastructure logistics. A key imperative for creating a strong value chain depends on the production of high quality market bound animals. Hence emphasis should be placed on the enactment of policies and regulatory initiatives to raise the quality of cattle and meat. This will entail the adoption of international quality standards; improvement of animal husbandry, including technical assistance through the provision of a critical mass of experts who are paired with community animal health workers, and extension service officers that cover all aspects of animal husbandry, from training of farmers to ensure proper feeding and breeding of animals to the establishment of modern slaughterhouses and cold storage; in addition to effort to produce high quality animals. Government could initiate a time-bound price subsidy program with a minimum price offer for animals that meet international quality standards. This may entail entering into sales contracts with guaranteed prices. The subsidy should be phased out as soon as market agents are entrenched and equipped to handle grade classification and pricing animals based on quality; create quality and reliable infrastructure to enhance timely market access of farmers. The access should include both backbone infrastructure and feeder roads that reduce transport costs and ensure timely arrival of products to the market as well as cold storage and other facilities; and launch a survey of regional and international markets to determine demand requirements and develop an action plan to meet the needs of these markets. Given the limited size of the domestic market, a central marketing strategy will entail the development of external demand markets relevant to elements of the market diversification model. For the purpose of estimating the water requirements of the livestock industry, the livestock population will grow at 3% a year in the decades ahead, with the total population of cattle, sheep and goats exceeding 50 million in coming years. It is by no means that the livestock population will grow in this manner, but if it did, livestock densities in South Sudan would rise in the decades ahead, also driven in part by the proposed expansion in cultivated areas. These potential land pressures will require close attention to the manner in which the commercial livestock industry is

developed. With a major expansion in commercial farming, livestock population may increase so large and does not migrate but becomes more fully integrated into farming operations that combine cultivation and sale of animals for meat production and into the development of grazing reserves that combine forest reserve management with livestock farming, or integration of livestock farming with tree crop agriculture, including for example, oil palm, coffee, and mango. The plantation of crops and products from the tree crops can also be used to increase the supply for livestock (Ibid, pp. 146-150 .(

South Sudan is located in a region with the greatest concentration of livestock resources in Africa. The population of livestock in South Sudan exceeds 38 million. Livestock is thus a critical pillar of the rural economy and food security of the population, as well as presenting a range of opportunities for economic growth and development through commercial opportunities and investments. Moreover, this region is the gateway to the Middle East and Northern Africa which are home to the largest live animal trading in the world. The trade is composed of both formal and informal markets that find livestock moving through South Sudan into surrounding countries. The sector is predominately comprised of pastoral and agro-pastoral livestock production systems, whose contribution to the economy is significant but challenging to measure since it contributes both socially and economically. The livestock industry is largely poor developed in modern production terms. However, there is great potential for this industry to improve food security, livelihood and income generation, economic transformation with industrial growth, exports and job creation leading to significant increases in Goss Domestic Product. Currently most hides and skins are not collected and are treated as a waste product; with minimal intervention the value can be obtained and revenue could be generated. In poultry due to the short generation times, simple interventions can lead to improved nutrition status and fast income generation. Likewise, the adoption of new technology in the industry can significantly improve the output. Livestock also play an important role in agriculture in South Sudan in form of ox-plough which enables farmers to cultivate larger acreages than with hand cultivation. Other traditional values of livestock include for prestige, traditional marriage and compensations when needed. The table 4.1 displays the population of livestock in various states of South Sudan (MOE, Fifth National Report on Biological Diversity, 2015, pp. 47-48).

**Table 4.1: Livestock Population in South Sudan's Different States in 2012:**

|      |    |    |    |    |
|------|----|----|----|----|
|      |    |    |    |    |
| Nile | 24 | 03 | 97 | 24 |
|      | 24 | 19 | 72 | 15 |
|      | 96 | 81 | 09 | 86 |

|                  |            |            |            |            |
|------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| n Bahr el Ghazal | 00         | 97         | 35         | 32         |
| Bahr el Ghazal   | 16         | 22         | 33         | 71         |
|                  | 32         | 96         | 19         | 47         |
|                  | 12         | 38         | 07         | 07         |
| Equatoria        | 72         | 33         | 76         | 31         |
| Equatoria        | 00         | 33         | 37         | 70         |
| Equatoria        | 96         | 13         | 37         | 96         |
| <b>udan</b>      | <b>572</b> | <b>135</b> | <b>522</b> | <b>329</b> |

Source: *Ministry of Environment, Fifth National Report on Biological Diversity 2015.*

4.1.4 Fisheries Industry in South Sudan: According to the 2010 baseline survey report on agriculture and animal resources in South Sudan, about 14% of households particularly, those who live in the Sudd area along the River Nile and its tributaries, engage in fishery as a means of livelihood. The fisheries production potential is believed to be in the range of 100,000 to 300,000 metric tons per year. This is based on combined water surface area of 90,000 square kilometers of the River Nile. According to the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) 2008 report, aquaculture development may have vast potential in Central, Eastern and Western Equatoria states, in the Northern and Western Bahr el Ghazal states, as well as in Warrap state. In addition to river and lake fishing, there is significant potential for fish farming in South Sudan that remains to be exploited. The main obstacles to fisheries development in South Sudan are the absence of policy incentives, lack of storage facilities due to weak or total absence of power supply and the absence of effective processing technologies. In addition, inadequate transport infrastructure which limits producers' access to markets is a deterrent to fisheries development in South Sudan (Ibid, p. 150.)

4.1.5 Forestry in South Sudan: South Sudan has diverse natural forests and woodlands, making it one of the richest areas of concentrations of biodiversity in Africa. It is estimated that natural forests and woodlands of South Sudan cover a total area of about 207,422 square kilometers or 33% of the total land area. These forests contain valuable commercial products, including high quality timber trees such as mahogany, ebony and teak, among others. In addition to the direct benefits in the form of income, food and fodder for wildlife and domesticated animals, the forests provide many vital indirect benefits in forms of environmental protection such as shade, wind belts, improved agricultural production from increased soil fertility through mulching and nitrogen fixation in addition to fresh food, wild fruits and

fodder for wildlife. The forest reserves account for only 3% of the total forested area of the country and commercial plantations are negligible accounting for about 0.1% of the total forested area. The main challenges to the existing natural forests and woodlands in South Sudan include the forest base degradation from wild fires; overgrazing and overcutting of trees. The productivity of South Sudan natural forests and woodlands is low and declining due to shallow soils found in many areas and droughts, which limit tree growth. The absence of a strong forestry management, policy and regulations, has also contributed to degradation and inefficiency in forestry development and exploitation (Ibid, p.151.)

)a) State and County Forestry: In the Central Forest Reserve areas and the Provincial Forest Reserve areas, there are both plantations and natural forest. Some of these forests are controlled directly by Government of South Sudan and some by the Forestry Department in each state or county. There is very little communication between national level, state and county offices. In the state level offices personnel felt they are not kept properly up to date with information and the decisions that were being made. At the State and County level, there is confusion about what the appropriate regulations are and who is responsible for enforcing them. In South Sudan there is no standardized agreement on sharing of revenue from forestry between Government, investors and the community. The Government of South Sudan attempts to control the unreserved natural forest. This would be extremely hard to implement because of the given size of the forested area in South Sudan and the undeniable logistical constraints faced by such a centralized approach, and it would also be contrary to the Forestry Policy. Forest guards in the Central Forest Reserve areas and the Provincial Forest Reserve areas are not adequately trained, and there is no clarity regarding who is responsible for building their capacity .

)b) Public Plantations: A priority for the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry is to engage the private sector in the management and utilization of public plantations as appropriate investment would be encouraged in the central and provincial reserves and community lands. To do this, the government plans to introduce a system of land concessions for plantation development, based on long-term (99 years and beyond) land lease agreements to be negotiated at national, state and county levels. A priority for investors is to establish clear ownership of land and for the communities to demarcate their land areas would be beneficial in this respect. Communities need to be fully consulted and involved in negotiations and plans regarding investment in their land, particularly in activities, such as jobs related to forestry. The role of the private sector guards, nursery attendants or managers, and a community share in the revenue would make it a mutually beneficial arrangement, both for the investor, the community and the government .

)c) Community Forestry: At the payam and boma level, the role of community and of the government in the community forest administration needs clarification. In the State organizational framework under

the Director of Community Forestry, there are three assistant directors for agro-forestry, community wood lots and urban tree growing, but there is none for community forestry which seems as critical posts. Community forestry needs huge support that would be provided for capacity building of communities to manage their own forests. In this regard non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and community based organizations (CBOs) should play important roles. The Ministry of Cooperatives and Rural Development (MCRD) has a major role in promoting and supporting community participation in forest management. Regulation of communities' use of community forestry is unclear. Concerning the land law, parallel legal systems such as the customary and the statutory laws are in force. The institutional and logistical capacity of local administration is weak, so implementation of the latter regulatory system is seriously compromised. For instance, community members may harvest products for household use. Many also sell forest products on a small-scale, seasonal or ad hoc basis and are taxed locally. If, however, an individual or group want to sell products on a more commercial level in urban areas, such as charcoal or bamboo they will then need a permit from the County Forestry office. If people want to cut trees, they also need a permit. In both instances the individual or group are supposed to be guided by a forestry officer, who advises them on where they can carry out the activity and ensures they keep to the agreement stipulated in the permit. In reality the constraints to getting permits discourage people from applying for them, poor transport and road conditions, the lack of forms, and untrained and unavailable staff. Experience shows the procedure can be lengthy, so people rather risk being fined at checkpoints than going through the process. Sometimes this results in small bribes being paid, particularly by charcoal traders. In addition the availability of forestry staff to monitor the harvesting of the resources is hampered by lack of transport and poor communication. Further inconsistencies with regard to roles and responsibilities of the civil and customary administrations are highlighted in some places such as Magwi County where, members from one boma encroached into the territory of the adjacent boma and started cutting trees with a chainsaw. The customary landowner handled the case and felt compensation should be paid directly to his community. In a similar case nearby, the government handled the case, took the timber and allocated one tree to the community who claimed the land where the trees were poached .

4.1.6 Economic Importance of South Sudan Forests: Forests provide numerous ecosystem services, including watershed protection, water quality, and prevention of erosion. Forest resources in South Sudan are also important economically for both timber and non-timber forest products. While the current political situation within South Sudan is not amenable to tourism, the abundant forest and associated biodiversity could be an important source for development of nature-based tourism. The products providing by South Sudan forests are .

- a) Watershed Conservation/Sustainable Water Supplies: The forest resources in South Sudan occur mainly in the high rainfall woodland savannah zone and the mountain forests of Didinga and Imatong Mountains. They are catchments for the many rivers that are a source of water in the country. Forests protect land against erosion and the secondary impacts of sedimentation of water courses/reservoirs; reduce risk of flooding downstream by slowing down surface run off; and allow for more water percolation to the ground thus making it possible for ground water recharge. South Sudan's surface water sources include perennial rivers, lakes and wetland areas, as well as seasonal pools and ponds, rivers; and these are important to the economy of the country in that they support agriculture, energy, construction, as well as wildlife and tourism. They also prevent occurrence of disasters such as floods .
- b) Timber Products: South Sudan's forests are sources for high-grade timber, including teak, mahogany and ebony. Currently, commercial exploitation is limited to teak which produced in plantation forests and mahogany natural forests. Teak plantations are found in the more humid parts of the country. Most of them lack proper management and were badly harvested during the war. Globally, there is a high demand for premium-quality timber, such as the types found in South Sudan. Timber and logging companies have been in operation for several years, and have caused significant damage to the forests by operating without management plans in logging concessions that were obtained during or after the war, when there was no regulatory framework in place. However, investment in the forestry sector in terms of improved management and establishment of new plantations is needed for the sector's full potential to be realized. Large stands of mahogany are currently found in the natural woodlands both reserved and unreserved. Systems for sustainable management and enhanced protection will be necessary to avoid overharvesting .
- c) Potential for Tourism Development: South Sudan forests are biologically diverse system representing some of the richest biological area on earth. They are also habitats for wildlife including some of the mega fauna diversity such as elephants. They therefore have potential for eco-tourism development .
- d) Non-Timber Forest Products: The gum Arabic belt in South Sudan runs across from Eastern Equatoria, Central Equatoria, Northern Bahr el Ghazal, Warrap, Unity, Jonglei to Upper Nile State. Despite the significance of gum in the livelihoods of people living in the gum belt, there has been only insignificant investment in the gum sector. South Sudanese have not been able to benefit from this natural resource apart from traditional uses of the gum, like chewing. In a few cases, gum collectors sell their harvests at very low prices to middlemen who then sell it to traders in neighboring countries. Potential for commercializing gum Arabica through Public Private Cooperation exists and can benefit many local communities. The Shea tree which scientifically known as *Vitellaria Nilotica* is a deciduous savannah hardwood growing naturally and abundantly within the savannah woodland belt of South

Sudan. In some counties such as Yei, the tree grows in abundance to the extent of being the dominant tree species. The country has a potential to produce 100,000 metric tons of Shea nut per year, but only 10,000 metric tons are produced, with the bulk of the harvest consumed locally. It is estimated that only 0.2 % of the product is exported even though there is a growing international demand for Shea butter. The tree species found in South Sudan is the mainly found in northern Uganda and South Sudan whose product is better than the Vitellaria paradox. The Shea nut produces premium oil for use in cosmetics, soap, detergents, pharmaceuticals and candles, confectionery and as cooking oil. Shea butter is becoming increasingly popular especially in France and the United States. Chocolate and confectionery products account for 95 % of Shea butter demand, with only 5 % currently used for cosmetics and pharmaceuticals. The wood of the Shea nut tree is hard, heavy, and resistant to termites, and is used in building construction and the manufacture of motors, craft goods, and charcoal .

e) Honey Products: The vast woodlands of South Sudan are ideal for honey production with many of the local communities keeping traditional hives. There is great potential for production of honey both for the domestic and external markets. Currently honey is a source of income for rural communities; however, the quantity and quality of honey produced and sold are not documented (USIAD, 2014, pp, 26-27 .(

The table (4.2) demonstrates the various categories of forests land areas in South Sudan

**Table 4.2: Types and Size of Forest Land in South Sudan (2014):**

| Category      | 00 Hectares) | age |
|---------------|--------------|-----|
| Forests       |              |     |
| Plantations   |              |     |
| Forested Area |              |     |
|               |              |     |

Source: USIAD, *South Sudan Tropical Forests and Biological Diversity Assessment 2014*.

## **4.2 Land and Water Resources of South Sudan:**

**4.2.1 Overview:** It is clear that sustainable development in South Sudan, including reduction of poverty and improvement of food security, depends on secure access to the substantial land and water resources of the country. Moreover, successful implementation of an ambitious infrastructure program depends on sustained progress in dealing with these basic issues related to land and water rights and access. Continued conflict over and or uncertainty about these rights will result in delays in infrastructure investment decisions and implementation and lower overall economic growth. At the



time that the Comprehensive Peace Agreement was signed, the Government of National Unity (GNU) and the Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) recognized the need for development of land policy, and related legislation, institutions, and supporting services. In the subsequent period, rights of access to agricultural land for cultivation of crops and livestock production, water for irrigation, forest products, and petroleum reserves for export revenues have been contested at national, regional and local levels. Conflicts among competing groups for access to and control over land and water are common in South Sudan. The decades of war, prevalence of weapons, and numbers of people with combat experience have increased the likelihood of disputes turning violent. Establishment of an effective, integrated, socially legitimate system for resolution of disputes over land, water and other natural resources is critical to South Sudan's future. While progress has been made in addressing these problems, the reality is that issues of access to land and natural resources and security for the population continue to demand urgent and sustained attention. Altitudes in South Sudan range from 600 to 3,000 meters above sea level. Most of the geographical parts of the country have a sub-humid climate. Rainfall is favorable, with Western Equatoria and the highland parts of Eastern Equatoria receiving 1,200 to 2,200 mm of rainfall annually. The lowland areas of Eastern Equatoria, Jonglei, Upper Nile and Bahr el Ghazal receive between 700 and 1,300 mm of rainfall annually. The southeastern tip of Eastern Equatoria receives the least rainfall, about 200 mm annually. South Sudan is classified as savannah woodland (high and low rainfall), flood region, mountains zone, and semi-desert. The savannah woodland is subdivided into low rainfall savannah and high rainfall savannah. Low rainfall savannah occurs mainly in the north and is only represented in the south by a small area in the northern parts of Upper Nile State. High rainfall savannah covers most of the country with the exception of the floodplain around the Nile and the mountains region of Didinga and Imatong Mountains. High rainfall savannah woodland is further divided into two sub-zones savannah woodland and savannah woodland recently derived from rainforest. Temperatures are typically above 25°C and can rise above 35°C, particularly during the dry season, which lasts from January to April. For pastoralists, the hot, dry conditions trigger seasonal human and livestock migration to more permanent water sources, which serve as dry season grazing pasture. It also reflects on the escalation of conflicts among the pastoralists in search for water. For some ethnic groups, they also serve as fishing grounds. At the onset of the main rains (April to June), people and cattle return to upland wet areas. Seasonal movements are less pronounced in the more agricultural areas such as the Hills and Mountains Zone and are almost non-existent in the exclusively agricultural Greenbelt Zone. These two zones have two rainy seasons, April to July and August to December. However, there is evidence that points to a decline in rainfall as a result of climate change (African Development Bank Group, 2013, pp. 109-110).

**4.2.2 Land Resources of South Sudan:** South Sudan is in the midst of a transition from decades of civil war to a peaceful country. Land tenure and property rights issues could undermine that transition by hampering a productive agricultural sector and long-term economic growth. In South Sudan rural people contest the right of the government to hold and manage land in trust on their behalf, claiming that land "belongs to the people". Due to land ownership conflicts erupt among pastoralists and between pastoralists and farmers. Customary claims to land in pre-urban areas are routinely fueling conflict. Laws and state institutions for land administration and conflict mediation are weak, and there is confusion over which laws take precedent statutory or customary law.

**(a) Land Tenure and Ownership:** Customary law has governed the use of land in the country of South Sudan for centuries, with each ethnic group applying its own laws relating to land and land rights within its own geographical setting. With the imposition of foreign rule over Sudan more than a century ago, various attempts were made to change this regime. The first serious attempt to control customary land was by the Anglo-Egyptian regime through the Land Ordinance of 1906. This made all land in Sudan the property of the government. In practice, however, land in South Sudan remained under the control of communities through the practices of customary laws and principles. In the post-independence period, the Unregistered Land Act of 1970 provided that any land not registered in accordance with the 1925 Land Settlement and Registration Ordinance was considered to belong to the government of Sudan. Although the law was opposed and challenged by most communities in Southern Sudan, the government used it for the diversion of water through the construction of the Jonglei Canal and oil prospecting projects. This unilateral decision to exploit the natural resources of South Sudan, with scant attention to human security, land rights and livelihoods, contributed to the outbreak of conflict in 1983. On the whole, land laws enacted by governments in Khartoum throughout the colonial and post-colonial periods have not seriously affected the customary land tenure system in South Sudan. During peace negotiations in Machakos and Naivasha, land was the main point of contention between the Government of Sudan and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement. The result was the insertion of the concept of "Land belongs to the people" in the Comprehensive Peace Agreement and inclusion in the Interim Constitution of Sudan and Interim Constitution of South Sudan. The Comprehensive Peace Agreement provided for the creation of the Southern Sudan Land Commission (SSLC), which came into existence in 2006. Its first major responsibility was the drafting of a new land law for Southern Sudan. The Land Act was promulgated in 2009; its main features are as all land is owned by the people of South Sudan, and the Government of South Sudan is responsible for regulating use of the land; the Act provides for registration of land in South Sudan. All land, whether held individually or collectively, shall be registered and title granted; public land is land owned collectively by the people of South Sudan and held in trust by the Government of South Sudan. Public land includes land used by

government offices, roads, rivers and lakes for which no customary ownership is established, and land acquired for public use or investment; community land is land held, managed, or used by communities based on ethnicity, residence, or interest. Community land can include land registered in the name of a community, land transferred to a specific community, and land held, managed, or used by a community; private land includes registered freehold land, leasehold land, and any other land declared by law as private land. Freehold land can be held in perpetuity and includes the right to transfer and dispose of the land. Leaseholds can be obtained for customary and freehold land. Leases can be granted for periods of 99 years or less. Leases of more than 105 hectares of customary land must be approved by two local government bodies; the Land Act outlines a decentralized plan for land administration with County Land Authorities and Payam Land Councils; and foreigners cannot own land in South Sudan, but can lease land for periods up to 99 years. For agricultural investments, leases are up to 30 years and are renewable; for forestry purposes, land can be leased for up to 60 years and are renewable. Prior to the grant of a lease, a consultation with affected communities is required as is an environmental impact assessment.

**(b) Institutional Responsibilities for Land Resources:** The South Sudan Land Commission (SSLC) is responsible for establishing land policy within South Sudan, enforcing land law, resolving land disputes, assessing compensation for land acquisitions, studying and recording land-use practices in areas where natural resources development occurs, and conducting hearings and formulating rules of procedure. A land registry has been established in the Ministry of Housing and Physical Planning with coordinated registries maintained at the state level. Other institutions developing new land administration systems and laws include the Ministry of Legal Affairs and Constitutional Development and the Land Policy Steering Committee, which includes representatives from 13 ministries, commissions and boards. The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry (MAF), which was formed in October 2005, is responsible for policy guidance, planning, assessment, resource allocation, regulation, and oversight of agricultural and forest land. At the state level, the Ministries of Agriculture, Animal Resources, and Irrigation (MAARIs) were instituted with a wide sectoral mandate and with the counties holding responsibility for implementation. These newly formed institutions have been slow to develop. In many cases, the new institutions lack clear mandates, regulatory frameworks, necessary levels of funding, and the human capacity to operate effectively. The South Sudan Land Commission is now working on implementation of the Land Act, as the Government of South Sudan aims to develop, distribute and implement a land policy and related legislation and regulations by 2013. One of the major challenges is to develop policies that would resolve differences among various interests in land at both the horizontal and vertical levels of governments and communities in South Sudan. This involves development of a land policy and the central and local institutions necessary to govern and

administer land rights. Consultations were undertaken during 2010 in all 10 states of Southern Sudan. Land policy was then prepared and has been available since February 2011. The key elements of the land policy are as resettlement of returning refugees and internally displaced persons; measures required strengthening the rights of women to land and property; opportunities for potential commercial investment in land, including development of oil and other natural resources; the need to set aside land for the development of infrastructure, public projects, and urban areas; and the need to address conflicts over competing claims to land and other natural resources.

**(c) Land Use in South Sudan:** The total area of the country is 644,330 square kilometers. The waters of the White Nile and its tributaries flow down from the highlands of Uganda, Democratic Republic of the Congo, the Central African Republic and Ethiopia into the low clay basin that constitutes much of South Sudan, forming the world's largest contiguous swamp. According to the currently updating estimates and assessments conducted by the Food and Agricultural Organization for land use in the country, the assessment gives a picture of land use patterns in the latter part of the previous decade and the results of land use are as only 4.3% of the land area is cultivated for production of food and agricultural raw materials. Much of this area is cultivated periodically rather than continuously. Many of the large number of subsistence farmers of the country practice some form of shifting cultivation in the absence of use of fertilizers, pesticides and herbicides. According to the World Bank, the actual area cultivated in any one year in South Sudan has ranged from a minimum of 1% to a maximum of 2% of the total land area that is, from 0.65 million to 1.3 million hectares; forest areas cover about one-third of the country with Western Bahr el Ghazal and Western Equatoria accounting for about 56% of the forest cover. Areas covered with shrubs account for about 39% of the land area, with Jonglei, Eastern Equatoria and Upper Nile accounting for about 58% of this form of land cover; grasslands account for about 23% of the land cover, with Upper Nile, Jonglei, Eastern Equatoria and Unity states accounting for about two-thirds of the grasslands in the country; and the urban or industrial areas account for only 34,188 hectares or 341.88 square kilometer. With an urban population of 1.29 million in 2008, while the average urban population density in South Sudan is estimated at 3,770 people per square kilometer.

**(d) Land Categories by Livelihoods in South Sudan:** Livelihood patterns are determined by the agro-ecological conditions as well as the culture and traditions of the various tribes. The Livelihood profile in 2006 is that South Sudan's traditional livelihood systems are a combination of cattle rearing, crop production, fishing, wild food collection, hunting and trade. For most households in South Sudan, cattle-keeping is the fundamental sources for wealth and social status. Crop production plays an important complementary role, but is generally perceived as a less important activity more for cultural than agro-ecological reasons, especially among the Nilotic tribes. Access to food is highly seasonal and

location-specific and in some parts of the country a majority of households move around to exploit seasonal patterns of rainfall. Mobility is crucial and food insecurity often arises where inter-tribal clashes and other conflicts constrain this mobility. There are seven livelihood zones in South Sudan.

**1. Greenbelt Zone:** This zone includes Western Equatoria and parts of Central and Eastern Equatoria. It benefits from a bimodal rainfall pattern which enables two planting seasons. The main livelihood in this zone is subsistence agriculture with the potential for surplus production. The main crops cultivated are root crops such as cassava, sweet potatoes, in addition to maize, millet, groundnuts and finger millet. Poor infrastructure and related lack of access to markets are a major disincentive for farming households to increase their outputs. Although, there has been a reduction in new displacements, fear of attacks of the Lord Resistance Army continue to interrupt agricultural production in parts of Western Equatoria, in particular in Ezo, Tambura and Nagero counties and selected payams in Nzara and Yambio Counties.

**2. Hills and Mountains Zone:** This zone covers parts of Jonglei, Central and Eastern Equatoria. It is characterized by reliance on agriculture and pastoral activity. Reliance on casual labor and selling of charcoal, firewood, bamboos, poles and grass are common coping strategies in times of distress. Most vulnerable were communities in the lowlands who engage in the production of short-term and long-term sorghum, while communities in the mountains who cultivate cereals, pulses and vegetables were less affected because of more favorable rain conditions at these higher altitudes. The high reliance in 2009 on the production of firewood and charcoal contributed to a further decline in woodland and forest resources around towns and in more populated areas, forcing households, mainly women to walk longer distances to fetch or collect firewood.

**3. Pastoral Zone:** This zone lies in the arid south-east corner of South Sudan and encompasses parts of Eastern Equatoria and Jonglei. A nearly pure form of pastoral activity is common and there is almost exclusive reliance and livestock trade for food. In this zone, seasonal migration in search of water and pasture for livestock is the predominant livelihood activity.

**4. Ironstone Plateau Zone:** This zone covers parts of Lakes, Warrap, Northern and Western Bahr el Ghazal, Western and Central Equatoria. Households in this zone are heavily dependent on crop production, mainly sorghum, groundnuts, sesame and tobacco. In some areas, honey production is also an important supplementary activity. Households in this zone are usually well-placed to access food surpluses in the neighboring Greenbelt Zone.

**5. Nile and Sobat Rivers Zone:** The Western and Eastern Plains are separated by the Nile and Sobat River Zone. Apart from crops and livestock, wild foods and fish contribute significantly to household consumption in this zone.

**6. Western and Eastern Flood Plain Zones:** These two zones cover Upper Nile and parts of Unity, Jonglei, Warrap, Northern Bahr el Ghazal and Lakes. The primary livelihood activity is agropastoralism supplemented by fishing, wild food gathering and to some extent hunting in the Eastern Flood Plains. Livelihoods are highly dependent on changing water levels. Seasonal flooding increases the yield of pasture for livestock, fish and wild foods, but can affect agricultural production and cause displacements. Other economic activities in this region include the oil fields in Unity and Upper Nile States in addition to mechanized farming around Renk in Upper Nile, but benefits for the local population are generally limited to improvements of the local road infrastructure for which the 2% direct share of oil revenues is mainly used. In 2010, above normal rainfall and higher water levels in rivers flowing from Ethiopia caused localized flooding in parts of Upper Nile, Unity, Jonglei and Northern Bahr el Ghazal resulting in destruction of crops and displacements of affected households. The situation was exacerbated by the often inadequate drainage in the newly constructed roads. Insecurity caused by inter-tribal/ clan clashes prevented flood-affected households from accessing remote cropping areas on higher lands which remained flood free. Given the current configuration of transportation infrastructure, Unity State, and to a slightly lesser degree, Upper Nile and the Northern parts of Jonglei, are almost exclusively dependent on Sudan for their market supply. Also Northern and Western Bahr el Ghazal depend largely on trade of cereals from the Sudan (Ibid, pp. 111-116).

**4.2.3 Water Resources of South Sudan:** According to the National Environmental Action Plan (NEAP), South Sudan has substantial water resources, but they are unevenly distributed across the region and vary considerably from year to year. The hydrologic variability, coupled with no investment in storage structures, has made South Sudan hostage to periodic floods and droughts. However, it is clear that domestic and commercial demand for water has been growing rapidly in recent years, and that trend is expected to continue, thereby placing increased pressure on water availability within the country.

**(a) Wetlands and Water Resources:** The Nile is the world's longest river of some 6,800 kilometers. The Nile Basin is estimated to be about 3.1 million square kilometers that includes 11 countries which are Rwanda, Burundi, Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, Ethiopia, Eritrea, South Sudan, Sudan and Egypt. South Sudan is located entirely within the Basin, and accounts for approximately 20% of the total area of the Basin. While the Nile and its tributaries are vital sources of water throughout the Basin, dependence of these countries on the water resources of the Basin varies considerably. Egypt and Sudan are heavily dependent on the Nile system, whereas the Nile is a very minor part of the water resources of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, which depends much more heavily on the drainage basin of the Congo River. South Sudan's major water sources are the White Nile, its tributaries, and aquifers. An estimated 28 billion cubic meters, representing 30% of the flow of

Nile water, passes through South Sudan to Sudan and on to Egypt. The country has three major river basins of Bahr el-Ghazal, Bahr el Jebel and the River Sobat in addition to other 23 sub-basins. The River Sobat, which is formed by the confluence of the Baro and Pibor Rivers, discharges about 14 billion cubic meters per annum into the White Nile. The Bahr el Jebel basin discharges about 30 billion cubic meters per annum, but only 14 billion cubic meters per annum passes into Lake No. The Bahr el Ghazal basin, which discharges about 12 billion cubic meters per annum loses 11.4 billion cubic meters per annum of its flow to the Sudd wetland leaving only 0.6 billion cubic meters to flow into Lake No. Hence the average discharge of the White Nile at Malakal is 28.6 billion cubic meters per annum. About 50% of the flow into the White Nile is lost in the wetlands of South Sudan, due primarily to evaporation and transpiration. A large part of South Sudan is covered by wetlands as well, the most important of which is the Sudd. The Sudd is an inland delta of the White Nile and is made up of lakes, swamps, marshes, and extensive flood plains. It is also one of the largest wetlands in the world, averages in size at about 30,000 square kilometers and covers about 5% of the area of South Sudan. There are many other wetland systems throughout South Sudan, some of which are quite extensive. However, wetlands in South Sudan are only protected if they are part of national parks, game reserves or forest reserves. As a result, many of the wetlands in South Sudan are at risk from exploitation. Estimates show that wetlands comprise 7% of the total area of South Sudan. The bulk of South Sudan's groundwater resources are found in the Um-Ruwaba Formation and basement complex which is characterized by unconsolidated clays and gravels with low to high permeability. The basement complex prevails in parts of Western Equatoria, Eastern Equatoria, and Central Equatoria as well as in Western Bahr el-Ghazal states and is characterized by poor water bearing formation. However, fractures and weathered zones provide water of good quality and quantity. The Um Ruwaba formation is recharged by seasonal rainfall and river flooding. In South Sudan, ground water is the principal source of drinking water, but very little work has been undertaken to determine the distribution and extraction levels of these resources. Hence, the full extent of the aquifers and related characteristics is unknown at this time. There are compelling reasons to undertake ground water analytical studies as soon as possible. The salinity levels exceeding allowable limits have been observed in Jonglei and Unity states making ground water unsafe in some areas of these states. While higher concentrations of fluoride, sulphate and nitrates have been observed in a few states, overgrazing and deforestation has also affected water resources quality increasing turbidity and siltation in water structures. Other issues include the need to monitor ground water quality around oil exploration sites in Unity State and undertake assessments of the impact of the effluent from the waste stabilization and oxidation ponds around Juba. The Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation has developed a national

water quality guideline, but the major concern will be the undertaking periodic monitoring and enforcement of regulations related to water use.

**(b) Institutional Responsibilities for Water Resources:** The Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation (MWRI) has overall leadership in the water sector. In the water resources sub-sector, the Ministry has responsibility for the drafting and overseeing the implementation of policies, guidelines, master plans and regulations for water resources development, conservation, and management in South Sudan; encouraging scientific research into the development of water resources in South Sudan; overseeing the design, construction, and management of dams and other surface storage infrastructure for irrigation, human and animal consumption and hydroelectricity generation; setting tariffs for water use; creating policy on rural and urban water resource development and management; initiating irrigation development and management schemes; protecting the Sudd and other wetlands from pollution; and advising and supporting the states and local governments in building their capacity to assume all functions vested by the constitution and government policy. There are three directorates responsible for the sub-sector and they are Water Resources Management, Irrigation and Drainage, and the Hydrology and Survey. The Ministry has adopted a water policy in 2007 and a strategic framework in 2011. The overall goal of the water policy is to promote effective management of the quantity, quality and reliability of available water resources in order to maximize social and economic benefits while ensuring long-term environmental sustainability. Key guiding principles for water resources management are as water is a shared resource and appropriate legal frameworks shall be established to govern all aspects of water use; and water resources planning shall involve all relevant stakeholders and will be undertaken on the basis of natural hydrologic boundaries. The policy discusses aspects of water use in fisheries, navigation, livestock, forestry, industries, environment, and wildlife and tourism development. However, it postpones the development of policies on irrigated agriculture to a future date, awaiting progress in the development and usage of water for irrigation uses and purposes. The water sector strategic framework of 2011 discusses, among other things, South Sudan's challenges pertaining to water resources management, the complexities that arise from the trans-boundary nature of its water resources and the priority assigned to integrated water resources management. Underscoring the roles played by several institutions and appreciating the need to integrate the decision-making process, the strategic framework recommends establishment of a Water Council to act as the principal multi-stakeholder advisory body for the water sector. The Council would also provide relevant support services to the Presidency and the Cabinet on approval of new and amended legislation and policies pertaining to all water related issues. In addition, the strategic framework recommends establishment of a Water Resources Management Authority to enforce regulatory functions on the management and use of water resources. In August 2011, the Ministry of Electricity



and Dams was established. In particular, institutional responsibilities on management of multipurpose dams and accompanied regulatory arrangements need to be worked out to minimize gaps and avoid duplication of efforts. While the scope of water resources touches most sectors and ministries, the Ministry of Electricity and Dams, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Ministry of Animal Resources and Fishery as well as the Ministry of Local Government will continue to play major roles in the development and management of water resources activities in the country. In addition, due to the trans-boundary nature of the water resources and anticipated negotiations with other states, the engagement of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation will continue to be crucial. At the state level, there are water resources management departments coordinated under the water and sanitation directorates. While these directorates are administratively accountable to their respective state ministries, they are technically accountable to the Ministry of Water Resources and Irrigation. The directorates lack clear mandates, regulatory frameworks, necessary levels of funding, and the human capacity much needed to operate effectively. Limited skilled manpower, coupled with lack of capacity, has made some of these directorates dysfunctional. A majority of the states don't have designated staffs to coordinate water resources management programs (Ibid, pp. 116-119).

#### **4.3 Tourism and Wildlife Conservation in South Sudan:**

**4.3.1 Historical Background of wildlife management in South Sudan:** The Game Preservation Branch was established in 1902 as a small office and was manned or managed by the British ex-army officers. Serious efforts in wildlife conservation were started after Sudan signed the London Convention in 1933. Soon after that, Wildlife laws were developed. The objectives of Game Preservation were briefly as protection of rare species in accordance with international obligations, organization of traditional hunting, organization of hunting sport, and protection of human lives, livestock, and crop from depredation by wild animals. Several national parks, game sanctuaries and game reserves were established in the 1930's, and a few Sudanese game scouts were recruited. Like their British Superiors, who were ex-army officers, the game scouts were ex-army soldiers. Following the independence of Sudan in 1956 the national government established the Government agency which was entrusted with enforcing wildlife laws and executing conservation policies. Several changes were introduced to foster the relationship between the wildlife conservation agency and the Game and Fisheries Department. After independence, the Game and Fisheries Department was placed under the Under-Secretary in the Ministry of Animal Resources, and that affiliation continued up to 1964. In 1965 the department was put under the direct supervision of the Minister of Animal Resources. At the beginning of the 1970s the Fisheries Section was separated from the Ministry of Animal Resources. Before the start of the civil war in 1983, South Sudan had functional administrative, legislative and conservation structures for the management of the areas of wildlife. In fact, formalized wildlife

management started way back in 1935 when the British Colonial Government passed the Preservation of Wild Animals Ordinance. This was followed in 1939 by the National Parks, Sanctuaries and Reserves Regulations. Thereafter, following the 1972 Southern Region Self Government Act, wildlife conservation in the Southern Region was subject to the Wildlife Conservation and Parks Act (1975) of the Southern Regional Government. From 1977 up to 1983, wildlife management was under the responsibility of the Regional Ministry of Wildlife Conservation, Fisheries and Tourism. Natural forests were protected under the Central Forests Act and the Provincial Forests Act, both laws having been enacted in 1932. Environmental management was the responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources. The Wildlife Act of 1975 gave more power to the then Game Department. Furthermore, greater emphasis was put on protection and conservation of threatened, rare and endemic species and habitats. Also, for the first time, conservation education and environmental awareness were included as a matter of policy and practice. Wildlife utilization was more clearly defined and sustainably carried out in the form of tourism, trophy and sport hunting, communal hunting and others. In 1994, Sudan People's Liberation Army/Movement (SPLA/M) established a Secretariat for Wildlife Conservation, Environment and Tourism. The Secretariat for Wildlife Conservation, Environment and Tourism was assigned with the responsibility of wildlife conservation, fisheries management, tourism development and environmental management, among others in the liberated areas under the authority of Sudan People's Liberation Army/Movement. It was envisaged that the Secretariat would eventually evolve into a fully-fledged functional ministry. The Sudan People's Liberation Army/Movement appointed wildlife officers to manage the wildlife resources in the liberated areas. In 2005, after the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), the Government of South Sudan (GOSS) established the Ministry of Wildlife Conservation and Tourism (MWCT). The Ministry has a directorate in charge of wildlife, headed by the Director of Wildlife Conservation who reports directly to the Under-Secretary, of Ministry of Wildlife Conservation and Tourism. The current staff of the Directorate of Wildlife Conservation is about 7,000 comprising the nucleus of surviving former wildlife staff and designated military staff, as well as former Coordinating Council of Southern Sudan States (CSSS) police staff assigned at State level (Amum, 2013, pp, 15-18).

**4.3.2 Wildlife and Tourism in South Sudan:** According to Fifth National Report to the Convention on Biological Diversity of Ministry of Environment (2015, p, 44) "Wildlife is significant in South Sudan. It is the prospective foundation for the national tourism industry that based upon the great migrations of wild animals and vast wildernesses of the country. It is a source of protein to rural communities, who have hunted wildlife for many years. The capitalization of the abundance and diversity of large wildlife could have greater advantages on development of tourism industries that generate hundreds of thousands of jobs and more billions in annual national income. Wildlife tourism

may be a key economic option at national as well as local scales, and will depend upon the stewardship and recovery of South Sudan's wildlife resources. Wildlife also contributes to other values such as bush meat for local communities especially during drought and war, trophies, aesthetic value which is also very important and others including game sporting". In South Sudan there are currently thirteen game reserves and six national parks including Zeraf, Fanyikang, Mongalla, Kidepo, Mashera, Numatina, Chelkou, Ashana, Boro, Juba, Mbarizunga, Bire Kapatuos, and Bangangai Game Reserve; while the main national parks are Boma, Bandingilo, Lantoto, Nimule, Shambe and Southern National Park which cover around 15.6 million hectares. This is a significant amount of land which has various regulatory systems. The co-conservation between national and international environmental organizations, conservationists, and hunters, which links conservation to alternative land use activities, will be crucial for the country. In the past the governing systems have been established without community participation. It is now recognized that communities need to contribute and advise these management systems. This point is clearly made by the Natural Resource Management Group which is composed of representatives from seven different ministries and the Land Commission in its draft strategic plan 2009-2011, which stresses the importance of best practice and community-based natural resource management. Communities naturally have a wealth of information regarding the resources they are familiar with, but they don't necessarily have the understanding or knowledge to address issues such as sustainability and management. A community may be given more control over wildlife in their area but it doesn't mean that the management will be more sustainable. Government and other organizations need to ensure that communities be properly informed, and made aware of all the issues surrounding wildlife and habitat conservation, to lessen the danger of the resource being mismanaged. This applies to any natural resources under the governance of communities. A good example of why this is important is the current situation of Boma National Park, where an investor has been awarded a significant area for tourism purposes by the Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS). There has been almost no community dialogue regarding the agreement. This lack of transparency surrounding the agreement has led to a tension amongst, and between communities. There is fear that not only will the project have a negative impact on people's livelihoods, but that it will foster multiple levels of conflict. Wildlife parks are ways to manage the animals, which are dangerous to people. For example, there were concerns raised in Ayod County about farms being destroyed by elephants and the peoples' need to be able to protect their crops. There were also complaints about hippopotamus and crocodiles attacking boats. All these examples demonstrate the significance for wildlife to be protected, which have tangible benefits to the local communities. The table 4:3 gives the names of the current game reserve areas in South Sudan as below.

**Table 4.3: Game Reserve Areas' size and year of protection in South Sudan 2015:**

| No | Game Reserve | Protection Year | Area (Hectares) | Regional Location |
|----|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------------|
|    | Ashana       | 1939            | 090,000         | Bahr el Ghazal    |
|    | Bengangai    | 1939            | 017,000         | Equatoria         |
|    | Bire Kpatuos | 1939            | 500,000         | Equatoria         |
|    | Boro         | -               | 150,000         | Bahr el Ghazal    |
|    | Chelkou      | 1939            | 550,000         | Bahr el Ghazal    |
|    | Ez Zeraf     | 1939            | 970,000         | Upper Nile        |
|    | Fanyikang    | 1939            | 048,000         | Upper Nile        |
|    | Juba         | 1939            | 020,000         | Equatoria         |
|    | Kidepo       | 1975            | 120,000         | Equatoria         |
|    | Mashara      | -               | 450,000         | Bahr el Ghazal    |
|    | Mbarizunga   | 1939            | 001,000         | Equatoria         |
|    | Mongalla     | 1939            | 007,500         | Equatoria         |
|    | Numatina     | 1939            | 210,000         | Bahr el Ghazal    |

Source: *UN Environment Program, Sudan Post-Conflict Environmental Assessment.*

The biodiversity resources of South Sudan and in particular the migration of the white-eared Kob and other accompanying species have greater potential for the development of tourism in the country. The Sudd wetland is a unique phenomenon that enhances the eco-tourism potential of the country. The concentration of a large mammalian biomass in the seasonal floodplain in the Sudd provides excellent opportunities for traditional hunting and tourism, if developed in a proper and sustainable way (USAID, South Sudan Tropical Forests and Biological Diversity Assessment, 2014, p, 13). Table 4.4 displays the main national parks in South Sudan.

**Table 4.4: National Park Areas in South Sudan till 2015:**

|  | National Park | Protection Year | Area (Hectares) | Regional Location          |
|--|---------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------------------|
|  | Ngilo N. Park |                 | 00              | Equatoria                  |
|  | National Park |                 | 00              | Upper Nile & Equatoria     |
|  | National Park |                 | 00              | Equatoria                  |
|  | National Park |                 | 00              | Equatoria                  |
|  | National Park |                 | 00              | Bahr el Ghazal             |
|  | National Park |                 | 00              | Bahr el Ghazal & Equatoria |

Source: *UN Environment Program, Sudan Post-Conflict Environmental Assessment.*

**4.3.2 Hunting Wildlife Activity:** Traditionally hunting used to be a dry season activity. It is easy to hunt during the dry time as there are fewer watering holes, where the animals tend to congregate around them. There is also less vegetation which makes the search for the game so easier. The drier vegetation lends itself to a common hunting practice, which involves using fire to drive the animals to a certain direction where hunters set up ropes to trip them and throw with clubs and spears. The dry season allows more time for hunting activities. In the local communities it is the responsibility of the spiritual leaders to tell people when they should cultivate, hunt, fish and carry out the necessary rituals. One of the benefits of people not being customarily allowed to hunt in the rainy season is that it coincides with the animals' breeding cycle. The use of automatic weapons has made hunting much easier all year round, but has also effect on driving the animals away and disrupting wildlife patterns. Most of the animals, which had territories close to human settlements, will have been killed or have moved away and migratory animals have changed their routes to avoid areas of human activity. There is little understanding at the village level of what benefits there would be to protecting wildlife. The majority of local communities become disappointed when they knew that animals around them were not to be hunted any more. Local communities consider wildlife as competent with their livestock for water and grazing and may introduce diseases; they also say they encouraged predators such as lions.

**4.3.3 Wildlife Service:** The message that hunting is illegal is spreading and game meat is no longer found in the markets, though it can still be found being sold along the roads. Employees from the wildlife service make arrests when they find poachers, and confiscate the kill. Wildlife rangers claim they are doing their best to discourage hunting but it is difficult and dangerous task. The lack of effective disarmament of the communities means that they could be putting their lives at risk. Most rangers are ex-combatants and have therefore had military training. They know how to track and apprehend poachers, but they lacked the communication skills needed to explain why wildlife needs protection and how a potential tourism industry based around wildlife viewing may benefit the communities and the economy. The local people are angry, and claiming that wildlife provides the household with food; that meat is sold fresh or dried along with the skins for money needed by the household, and that the income is important to buy food and other items from the market. Also the majority of hunters are the youth who tend to be providing for their own needs rather than that of a family. Though claims may hence be exaggerated, they do put pressure on the rangers, who may require more mediation tools to explain the importance of wildlife. Explaining the benefits of tourism can seem very hypothetical under these circumstances. Rangers do believe that they are having an impact to protect game. Most of the rangers were deployed around the town areas, so poachers with guns will stay away as their gunshots will be heard. In the more distant rural areas hunting can go unchecked. Lack of logistical support and equipment to deploy rangers into the rural areas is one of the

limitations; along with not having enough personnel to cover the large areas they need to. Some rangers move with the livestock keepers to monitor the migration and stop poaching activities, which have a positive impact. Alarming, also the wildlife forces were to some extent involved in hunting to supplement poor salaries. The rangers deal with complicated cultural norms of some ethnic groups. For example, Murle Community, women traditionally have very little power outside their immediate household. Murle men therefore find it challenging to be questioned by female rangers (Natural Resource Management, Equity and Conflict, 2009, pp, 30-31).

#### **4.4 Transportation and Telecommunication Network:**

**4.4.1 Overview of the Transport Sector:** The transport system in South Sudan consists of four modes such as road, rail, river and air transport, but road transport is the largest one. South Sudan's main access to the sea is through Mombasa in Kenya, which accounts for most of the traffic, Port Sudan and Djibouti ports. The Juba-Mombasa link is mainly accessed by road through Uganda or directly to Kenya. The distance from Juba to Mombasa by road is around 1,900 kilometers via Nimule and Gulu in Uganda and 1,800 kilometers through Torit, Nadapal and Lokichoggio in Kenya. Multimodal transport is also possible, and it involves combining road transport from Juba to Kampala or Eldoret and rail transport to Mombasa. South Sudan is connected to Port Sudan by road, rail and multimodal link. Port Sudan connects by road to Malakal in Upper Nile State, Bentiu of Unity State, Aweil of Northern Bahr El Ghazal State and Wau in Western Bahr El Ghazal State. A railway line links Wau and Aweil to Port Sudan. Between Juba and Port Sudan, the existing infrastructure allows bi-modal transport by river from Juba to Kosti and then by rail or by road from Kosti to Port Sudan. However, multimodal transport is hampered by the poor condition of the existing infrastructure and inadequate connectivity between modes. Malakal is linked to Djibouti by road through Jikou and Addis Ababa. The other possible link is from Juba to Kapoeta - Boma in the South East and then to Djibouti via Ethiopia. Access to transport infrastructure in the country is poor. The road density in terms of land area or population in the country is extremely low with 19 kilometers per 1,000 square kilometers or 1.3 kilometers per 1,000 persons. The density for paved roads is 0.2 kilometers per 1,000 square kilometers, which is much lower than the averages of 16.8 and 9.9 kilometers per 1,000 square kilometers for Sub-Saharan Africa and Low income fragile states respectively (African Development Bank Group, 2013, pp. 169-171).

**4.4.2 Institutional Arrangements:** Prior to independence, the Ministry of Transport and Roads (MTR) is responsible for transport services and infrastructure in the country. The Ministry of Transport and Roads has divided into Directorate of Roads and Bridges; Directorate of Road Transport and Safety; Directorate of Railway Transport; Directorate of River Transport; Directorate of Air Transport; and Directorate of Administration and Finance. After the independence, the Ministry of Transport and

Roads was split into two ministries to form the Ministry of Transport (MOT) and the Ministry of Roads and Bridges (MORB). Additionally, the Ministry of Physical Infrastructure (MOPI) was created and it is in charge of the intrastate transport infrastructure in each of the ten states of South Sudan. These ministries face considerable difficulties in recruitment of well qualified technical staff. To address this challenge, training programs have been undertaken, but starting from a low base, thus a large skills gap still persists.

**4.4.3 Transportation Policy:** A Transport Sector Policy was developed and passed by South Sudan Legislative Assembly in 2007. The policy framework covers a five year period with a two phase implementation strategy, which includes the recovery and development phases between 2007-2008 and 2009-2011 respectively. The policy has twelve objectives, such as strengthening the Ministry of Transport and Roads to play an effective coordination and regulation role; to create capacity to meet the transport requirements of the economy; to optimize the allocation of available resources among the various transport modes; to improve mobility in rural areas through the promotion of the use of appropriate means and modes of transport; to facilitate the return and settlement of the Internally Displaced People (IDP) and refugees; to encourage and promote increased private sector participation in the provision, management and maintenance of transport infrastructure and services; to contribute to job creation and income generation, and provide equal opportunities for men and women in transport sector; to ensure safety standards in all modes of transport; to ensure coordinated disaster management in all modes of transport by enforcing appropriate protective and control measures; to introduce sound management through appropriate policies and institutions in the transport sector that will lead to rapid sustainable development and poverty eradication; to provide links with the states and neighboring countries; and to recognize and account for environmental concerns in line with the national environmental plan. Recognizing the negative impact of a poor transport system on the performance of the economy, the Government of the Republic of South Sudan has reaffirmed its commitment to reform the sector to catalyze the social and economic development process of the country. The establishment and operation of a new institutional framework is a priority for each transport sub-sector. This framework will guide the functions of a regulator and service providers. Additionally, the country needs to urgently develop a regulatory framework to promote the Public Private Partnership (PPP) opportunities. It will therefore be necessary to have a timely decision on whether a single authority will regulate the entire transport sector or various regulatory authorities will be accorded different regulatory responsibilities for each sub-sector. For example, the Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) will regulate the air transport sub-sector as well as own and operate the country's major airports. The main sub-sectors of transportation sector are.

**(a) Road Transport Services and Infrastructure:** There is very limited data on the transport sector. Despite its importance for proper development and maintenance planning, the inventory and classification of the road network is incomplete.

**1. Road Network and Condition:** According to the Transport Policy document, the country has an estimated road network of 12,642 kilometers; consisting of 7,369 kilometers of interstate roads, 1,451 kilometers of state primary roads and 3,822 kilometers of state secondary roads. The World Bank estimates tertiary road network to be 2,301 kilometers. The Road Authority Provisional Order states that all public roads shall be categorized into classes. South Sudan's road infrastructure was largely destroyed or left in disrepair during the protracted civil wars. After the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005, significant construction and rehabilitation projects were initiated and implemented including the Emergency Road Repair Program and Sudan Emergency Transport Infrastructure Development Project. The main objective of these projects was to restore and maintain basic links between major towns and regions in the country. As a result, around 5,000 kilometers of trunk roads were constructed or rehabilitated to all-weather gravel roads standard. However, heavy rains increased levels of traffic; overloaded trucks and inadequate maintenance have often led to the deterioration of the rehabilitated roads in the country. As a result, only 40% of these improved trunk roads are in a good condition, the remaining 60% are deemed to be in a fair condition. The only paved roads are the Juba-Nimule Road which linking to Uganda with length of 193 kilometers, and constructed to a double bituminous surface treatment standard, Renk-Khartoum Road and the 65 kilometers of urban roads that were recently rehabilitated or upgraded in Juba and a few sections of urban roads in Bentiu, Aweil, Wau and Malakal. The remaining gravel roads, earth roads and tracks are in a state of disrepair with the majority impassable during the rainy season. The majority of South Sudan population (80%) lives in rural areas and most of them have no access to all-weather roads. The percentage of the rural population living within two kilometers of an all-season road is estimated at 5% for the whole South Sudan. This clearly indicates a substantial road infrastructure deficit in the country, both in terms of quantity and quality.

**2. South Sudan Roads Authority (SSRA):** The South Sudan Roads Authority Provisional Order 2011, which came into force on 7th January, 2011, established the South Sudan Roads Authority (SSRA), as an autonomous corporate body responsible for the management, development, rehabilitation and maintenance of all interstate and international roads, and the development of roads in war-affected areas in South Sudan. The functions and duties of the South Sudan Roads Authority include development planning, construction, maintenance and preparation of annual road work programs. In addition, the Authority ensures the adherence of motorists to the rules and guidelines on axle load control, and the quality of works in accordance with the standards in force. It also monitors



and evaluates the use of roads under its control and collects all related information as may be necessary for efficient planning. The structures of the South Sudan Roads Authority are the Board and the Executive Management. Upon recommendation, the Board members are appointed by a resolution of the Council of Ministers. The Board comprises of the Undersecretaries or their representatives of the Ministries for Transport and Roads, Environment, Finance and Economic Planning, Commerce and Industry, and Foreign Affairs and Regional Cooperation; the Executive Director of the South Sudan Roads Authority; as well as six other persons from civil society associations. One of the members of the Board is appointed by the Minister of Transport and Roads as a Chairperson. The mandate of the Board is to oversee the general direction and supervision of the Authority. The Board also establishes rules and procedures for appointment, promotion, termination, discipline and terms and conditions of service of staff and approves projects and programs proposed by committees and directorates. And finally it proposes and manages budget allocations, monitors and evaluates, through technical and financial audits, the delivery of goods, works and services, and monitors road transport, traffic and safety management. The Executive Management is the primary implementing authority in charge of the daily transactions and operations of the South Sudan Roads Authority. It is headed by the Executive Director who reports to the Board. The Executive Director has administrative, financial and technical powers to manage the Authority, including the development of operational plan to achieve the objectives; developing an economic, efficient and cost-effective internal management structure; designing the organizational chart and internal policies and procedures; appointing staff ; drafting policies and framework documents of the Authority; overseeing the use of the funds; and proposing and implementing the South Sudan Roads Authority's strategic, business and annual plans. The South Sudan Roads Authority develops a Road Investment Program (RIP), containing both development and maintenance priorities and submits it to the Minister for final approval by the Council of Ministers. Annual budgets and work programs should base on the Road Investment Program. Activities outside these approved work programs will only be undertaken with the concurrence of the Board and approval of the Minister. The establishment of the South Sudan Roads Authority is an important milestone in the implementation of the Transport Sector Policy. The Directorate of Roads has limited capacity both in terms of numbers and skills. There are seven managers, including the Director General, a Director, three Deputy Directors, and two Chief Engineers, are heading the Directorate and its units. Around five engineers are attached to the departments and units and over 20 engineers or holders of certificates and diplomas from tertiary education programs are regrouped in a pool and solicited by the units according to their workload.

**3. Road Transport Services:** Buses and taxis provide urban transport services. Usually, urban transport services are provided by privately owned minivans and motorbikes taxis called or known as

boda-boda. There are also sedan (saloon) car taxis, but they are not commonly used. Interstate and international transport is provided by coaches operated by about a dozen bus companies. Transport costs in the country are high. Freight (goods) tariffs on trunk roads are roughly three and four times of the average tariff in Eastern Africa and Southern Africa countries respectively. The poor infrastructure in the country also increases travel times, coupled with a significant reduction of loads on several trucks for safety reasons which substantially raises the transport costs per ton in South Sudan. Widespread official and unofficial road checkpoints collecting taxes, fees and charges are also a big disincentive to deliver the products to the markets. This increase in costs inhibits investment and economic growth. Additionally, uncertain security situations and the asymmetrical trading patterns between South Sudan and its neighbors means that trucks usually return empty from South Sudan and this significantly increases the freight cost per ton. At a national level, the poor and inadequate intra-state road network in South Sudan makes domestic transport costs much higher than those in the neighboring countries. For example the freight rate from Yei to Juba can reach 65 US cents per kilogram and as much as 85 US cents per kilogram from Malakal to Juba. Compared to the domestic freight rates of about 15 to 20 US cents per kilogram on primary roads in Uganda and Kenya, South Sudan rates are too high. The recent improvements of roads linking South Sudan to Uganda and Kenya have led to an upsurge in commercial freight traffic using heavily loaded trailers. The lack of effective weighbridge operations on roads to monitor the weights of the trucks is causing rapid deterioration of the upgraded roads in Southern Sudan. To address this, the Government is constructing two weighbridges along Juba-Nimule Road and it is also in the process of drafting the traffic act which will guide the traffic control and management in the country.

**4. Vehicle Fleets and Road Safety:** The Directorate of Road Transport and Safety is responsible for the implementation of the road transport, traffic management and road safety policy. Its functions and powers include registration of vehicles and issuance of licenses and permits pursuant to the laws of South Sudan; establishment of the standards for vehicles so as to comply with road safety standards; conducting road safety education and sensitization or awareness; and coordination of road safety programs. Presently, the Directorate lacks the human capacity and financial resources to fulfill its mandate. The Ministry of Transport registers and issues licenses for the Central Government, Non-governmental Organization (NGOs), Aid Agencies and diplomatic missions' vehicles. While the State Traffic Police registers vehicles and issues licenses for the State Government, Private and Commercial vehicles. The average daily traffic in South Sudan is below 20 vehicles per a day for most rural roads in 2009. However, the Average Daily Traffic on the Juba-Yei-Kaya Road connecting to Uganda is approximately 800 vehicles in 2008 and projected to reach 1,600 in 2015 and ahead. For the Juba-Gumbo-Torit-Nadapal Road which linking to Kenya, the average figure was slightly lower as 700

vehicles per a day in 2008, but with much higher growth projections of 2,300 vehicles a day in 2015 and ahead. There is a significant increase in accidents and casualties on some upgraded roads such as the Juba-Nimule Road. The fatalities are running at about 27 per 100,000 people. From 2007 to 2010, crashes and fatalities increased by an average of respectively 9% and 12% per year. Besides, 47% of the drivers who caused an accident in 2010 had no driving licenses; this issue is linked to the high illiteracy levels and the weak enforcement of the traffic regulations in the country. These alarming figures call for urgent action to enhance road safety by building safety concerns into road design; enforcing periodic vehicle inspections; and launching specific initiatives targeting drivers aimed at improving their training programs. An interim road safety management committee was set up in 2011 to establish road safety standards and a data bank for road traffic accidents in South Sudan; prepare necessary legislation for the establishment of Road Safety Council; formulate a comprehensive road safety program in close coordination with stakeholders; and to establish an effective monitoring and evaluation mechanism.

**5. Road Construction Costs:** Road construction costs in South Sudan are among the highest on the continent. The average unit cost for a paved standard two lane roads is less than USD 0.5 million per kilometer in most African countries, but exceeds USD 0.9 million per kilometer in South Sudan. Indeed, the engineer's cost estimate for an asphalt concrete (AC) standard was at USD1.6 million per kilometer for the planned Juba-Yei-Kaya Road that connecting to Uganda and USD1.2 million for Juba-Torit-Nadapal Road which linking to Kenya. The main factors driving up the costs are inelastic supply in a post-conflict economy due to a limited supply base for construction work; large costs associated with import of construction materials; overhaul costs; limited availability and high costs of skilled and unskilled labor; very poor condition of existing roads; a long rainy season with heavy rainfall; and insecurity and cost of mine-clearing operations in some areas.

**6. Regional Connectivity:** The improvement of regional connectivity should be by establishment of a road network that links cities, national capitals, international borders and deep water sea ports. South Sudan is landlocked country; and this connectivity is of strategic importance that will improve access to local, regional and international markets and boost regional trade. Additionally, improved level of service on the existing regional infrastructure will translate into significant declines in the very high transport costs and in turn will reduce the high construction costs, high food prices and high living costs. The links will improve access to Mombasa, Djibouti and Port Sudan and in the long-term facilitates the access to the Atlantic Ocean. The improvements in the primary road network are phased to eventually bring them to paved standard. The phases will depend on the standard and condition of existing road, volume of traffic and trade with neighboring countries, and the potential agricultural production in a given area. The improvements of regional connectivity in the short-term must be as two

all-weather gravel roads in the Central Equatoria State (CES) and Eastern Equatoria State (EES) measuring 590 kilometers will be upgraded to paved standard. So far, feasibility and design studies for both roads have been completed and confirm the high economic interest of the related projects with an economic internal rate of return of 20% and 22% respectively. The project will include the installation of weighbridges and improvement of transport facilitation measures through promotion of one-stop border posts and removal of multiple checkpoints along the roads; as well as the construction of 9 kilometers of urban roads in Torit and Kapoeta and 23 kilometers of ring road in Yei. During this phase, it will be strategically important to improve the connectivity to Ethiopia and Djibouti port. To do so, it will be a priority for South Sudan to upgrade to a paved standard the Juba-Torit-Kapoeta-Nadapal Road which will open up the country in both directions to Kenya to access Mombasa and Port Lamu; and through Kapoeta-Boma to Ethiopia and Djibouti. The estimated cost of this project is USD 815 million at 2010 constant prices. The feasibility and design studies will be undertaken in preparation for the subsequent upgrade of a total of 965 kilometers of all-weather gravel roads in Upper Nile State, Jonglei State, Central Equatoria State, Warrap State (WS) and Western Bahr el Ghazal to bitumen standards. The cost of this project is estimated at USD 7.7 million. The regional network which comprises some 535 kilometers of roads in Eastern Equatoria State, Jonglei State, Central Equatoria State and Western Bahr el Ghazal State will be upgraded to all-weather gravel standard in the short-term. The cost of this project is estimated at USD107 million. The total cost of such project to upgrade the regional network to paved standard or all-weather standard is estimated at USD 929.7 million. The total length of roads in the regional network improved will be 1,125 kilometers. Also at this stage, detailed feasibility studies to upgrade an additional 965 kilometers to paved standard in the medium-term will be finalized. The program for the medium-term will comprise road works which will be based on the feasibility and design studies carried out to include upgrading to a paved standard of 965 kilometers of roads at a cost of USD 772 million; and completion of feasibility studies and design of 365 kilometers regional road network to paved standard including Yei-New Lasu (45 kilometers) linking to Democratic Republic of the Congo; Juba-Kajo Keji (120 kilometers) linking to Uganda; and Raja-Boro-Madina (200 kilometers) linking to Chad. The estimated total cost of the studies is USD 2.2 million.

**7. National Connectivity:** Majority of the interstate or primary roads in South Sudan connect to densely populated areas and provide access to health and education services as well as facilitate economic activities. These roads are experiencing a rapid increase in traffic volumes. This component of the program targets such road infrastructure and it intends to upgrade paved roads to bitumen standard. In the short-term program, 320 kilometers of seasonal gravel or earth roads will be upgraded to all-weather gravel condition. Feasibility and design studies will be undertaken to assess the viability

of upgrading the remaining 2,410 kilometers of roads linking state capitals from all-weather gravel roads to bitumen. The Bor-Malakal road is a major concern, because this section of the northern corridor linking Juba to Malakal is located in the Sudd with black cotton soils unsuitable for road construction. It will therefore be imperative to conduct a pre-feasibility study that will determine the characteristics of the transport demands on this route and propose optimal solutions to meet these demands, considering all transport modes. The cost of this study is estimated at USD 0.5 million and the entire cost of all the studies to upgrade the national connectivity is estimated at USD19.3 million. The short term program proposes an upgrade of a total of 2,730 kilometers of national road network with an estimated total cost of USD 83.3 million, excluding maintenance costs. Periodic maintenance will also be undertaken on roads rehabilitated or upgraded to all-weather condition. Based on the studies carried out during the short term program period, an estimated 2,410 kilometers of interstate roads linking state capitals will be upgraded to paved standard in 2016 upwards. Together with the proposed regional connectivity program this will mean that with the exception of urban areas, the country would have upgraded a total of 4,158 kilometers to primary paved road network in coming years. The remaining 3,091 kilometers of interstate and primary roads will also be brought to at least all-weather gravel road condition during 2016-2020. This will essentially result into a road density by population of around 290 kilometers per million people which still well below the prevailing Sub-Saharan African average of 533 kilometers per million people. Cumulatively, the total cost for this national connectivity program is estimated at USD 2.046 billion, with USD 1.446 billion and USD 600 million allocated to construct roads to paved standard and to all-seasonal gravel conditions respectively.

**8. Rural Connectivity:** Rural roads refer to the existing secondary and tertiary roads of South Sudan. Currently, the rural road network is roughly 6,123 kilometers and these connect rural communities to the network of trunk roads. These rural roads are meant to open up rural areas and connect farmers and rural communities to markets to facilitate the flow of agricultural inputs or outputs and provide access to basic services. However, in the recent past, minor improvements have been undertaken through labor-based contract works and the vast majority of traceable rural roads are in very poor condition. The country needs to develop a rural road network. Between 2009 and 2010, feasibility studies and design of about 7,000 kilometer of rural roads were carried out. Furthermore, the five years prioritized program to improve rural connectivity also includes some trunk roads which already part of the short term program. The selection and prioritization is based on a combined economic evaluation and a multi-criteria assessment according to the scales such as level of agricultural production; degree of regional integration; average daily traffic; number of non-motorized traffic; and level of cost effectiveness. Subsequently, a feeder roads technical committee chaired by the Under- Secretary of the

Ministry of Roads and Bridges (MORB) and comprising of representatives of development partners and relevant ministries was set up to develop the rural road network. The specific task of the committee is to liaise (work) with stakeholders to obtain a list of proposed priority roads to develop at National and State level; design a criteria for selection and prioritization of roads to develop; produce a list of priority roads to develop; and develop technical standards and specifications, and implementation plans for the roads. A feeder roads steering committee, co-chaired by the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Roads and Bridges approves the prioritization criteria and a list of priority roads. The outputs from the feeder roads technical committee and feeder roads steering committee work will serve as reference in aligning government and development partner interventions in the rural roads network. So far, priority lists submitted by the states had a total length of 17,000 kilometer of feeder roads. These lists are being reviewed and screened by the feeder roads technical committee based on the characteristics of priority areas such as high agricultural productivity, including livestock rearing and fisheries; ability to develop local capacity as well as having county and state agencies that will be trained in maintenance; less than 100 kilometers from main truck roads; access to appropriate materials for construction such as water and gravel sources; continuous participatory support from local authorities and communities; and availability of dependable manual labor. Clearly, the rural roads recommended and validated through the feeder roads technical committee and feeder roads steering committee will most likely qualify the rural connectivity short-term program. Based on the magnitude of the needs, development partners are likely to target roads or areas that have close linkages with their complementary initiatives to deepen synergies in the implementation of the program. Considering implementation capacity limitations, 2,000 kilometers of rural roads should be upgraded to all-weather status during 2011-2015. The related cost is estimated at USD 330 million. The assumption is that the experience gained from the short-term program will underpin the design and implementation of a much larger program to upgrade 4,000 kilometers of rural roads to all-weather status during 2016-2020. The cost of this work is estimated to be USD 600 million at 2010 constant prices and exchange rate. Once, the rural roads improvement program of 6,000 kilometers is implemented in the decade ahead it will essentially mean that entire rural roads network of the country has been upgraded. In the short-term, the livestock sub-sector is expected to significantly contribute towards the growth and prosperity of South Sudan. Therefore priority livestock markets have been proposed as the major focus of the roads sector strategy to allow the farmers access the backbone infrastructure. These markets are located in ten areas, such as Greater Kapoeta Region in Eastern Equatoria State; Nyirol and Pibor Counties in Jonglei State; Nasir, Baliet and Renk in Upper Nile State; Mayom, Panyinjar, and Leer in Unity State; and Terekeka in Central Equatoria State.

**9. Roads Maintenance:** Maintenance activities are currently financed through national budget and donors support. Most of these are handled without proper planning and coordination. There have been massive demands on the budget which in turn has kept the allocations at the minimum. The 2011 National Budget suggested an outlay of about USD 28 million and USD 16 million for roads maintenance in 2010 and 2011 respectively. The South Sudan transport policy recognizes the critical importance of roads maintenance and is aware of the need to establish a system that will ensure adequate and consistent funding for this activity. The policy also provides for the creation of a Roads Maintenance Fund (RMF) which will raise revenues through user charges, primarily in the form of a fuel levy. The Roads Maintenance Fund resources will finance road agencies' activities, and these funds will be kept in separate and discrete accounts, and will be used exclusively for roads maintenance activities. The Roads Maintenance Fund for the proposed program will address issues such as proposal of the fees of user charges and find other innovative ways of raising revenues for the fund; design an appropriate system for charging and collecting the revenue; formulate laws to guide the collection of the road user charges; and investigate existing agreements and applicable rates within the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) regional arrangements and the effects of applying specific rates for South Sudan. Currently, the roads network classification and inventory which is a pre-requisite for an effective roads maintenance strategy is incomplete and the implementation of the transport policy has also encountered some delays. The Ministry of Roads and Bridges, through the Directorate of Roads and Bridges and South Sudan Roads Authority, is responsible for the planning and execution of maintenance of trunk and state roads and on the other hand the Ministry of Physical Infrastructure is in charge of other roads. The South Sudan Roads Authority will first finalize the classification of public roads and draw-up budgets for its annual and five-year maintenance plans. The South Sudan Roads Authority will also carry out a study on road user charges as well as champion the establishment of the Roads Maintenance Fund and prepare a roads maintenance strategy. Roads asset management system will be put in place. The Directorate of Roads and Bridges has prepared a document providing recommendations on the consistent and pragmatic roads maintenance strategy. The paper proposes that the strategies deployed should be tailored to resources available, this has compelled the Ministry to undertake an in-depth evaluation of the practicalities for adopting the output and performance-based roads contracts model as the basis for the maintenance strategy for bitumen surfaced roads. In this model, the contractor is not paid directly for inputs or physical works but for achieving specified outputs or service levels, in other words, the construction or rehabilitation of the road to pre-defined standards, followed by the maintenance of certain minimum service levels on the road throughout the period of the contract, all defined by outcomes expressed in the service level criteria. Going forward, based on the same model, contracts of design, construction and maintenance of

new roads will be done at the same time. This will ensure that these roads are well looked after beyond the construction phase and largely guarantee a certain level of service. The paper further states that community-based and labor-based methods for the maintenance of gravel roads will provide opportunities to local enterprises and in so doing leads to growth of the firms involved as well to reduce the poverty in the country. Whilst this might not be applicable to all South Sudan's gravel roads, it is suggested that the feasibility of implementing a system in which local residents actively participate in a regular basis in maintenance of roads in their communities will be worth investigated. Subject to further investigation, it is anticipated that regional depots with limited technical capabilities but strong labor-based capabilities will provide an optimum solution to the maintenance of gravel roads. The total maintenance expenditures are projected to be about USD 960 million for the next decade. The total periodic roads maintenance costs are estimated at USD 500 million with annual outlays increasing steadily from USD 20 million in 2012 to about USD 110 million in 2020. Periodic maintenance is projected to be about USD 460 million between 2012 and 2020, equivalent to an annual average of about USD 50 million. The maintenance expenditures will entirely be financed by the national budget and the Roads Maintenance Fund. The budget allocation for road maintenance in 2011 is USD 16 million, the government will need to quadruple this amount in 2012 so that the roads are kept in good repair. To be able to carry out the same level roads maintenance activities, the authorities will need to ensure the increases in the allocations are maintained at the same rate for the successive annual budgets until the Roads Maintenance Fund is become operational. Having said that, potential Roads Maintenance Fund revenues are closely correlated with the vehicle fleets, including motor cycles, and road traffic densities, however, the current projections indicate that resources are unlikely to cover the full cost of maintenance in the short-term. Therefore, roads maintenance will also be supported by a significant budgetary allocation during the most of infrastructure action plan periods.

**(b) River Transport and Facilities:** The White Nile extends from Lake Victoria to Khartoum for nearly 3,700 kilometers. It enters South Sudan at Nimule Town, flows to Juba and Bor and through the vast swamps of the Sudd, and passes major towns such as Malakal, Renk and Kosti. The section of the White Nile between Juba, Renk and the border with Sudan is navigable and it is about 1,300 kilometers long. The Bahr el Ghazal River is a tributary of the White Nile. It is navigable all year round from the main route where it joins the White Nile to Meshra Achol and for more than half of the year to Wau. The Sobat River which is another tributary is navigable between Malakal and Abwong all year round. It stretches or extends from Abwong to Nasir, and the part between Akobo and Pibor is navigable for more than six months of a year. The Sobat area and indeed most of the flood-plain areas of Upper Nile Region depend on river transport from June to October during a year. The navigable part of White Nile and its tributaries crosses six of the ten states of South Sudan. Given the poor road infrastructure,



existence of land mines in some areas and huge swampy areas makes river transport a practical and cost effective option to reach communities along the White Nile and its tributaries. It specifically links Malakal the capital of the Upper Nile State to Juba City. Commercial river transport services are fairly regular on the route known as the Southern reach of the White Nile, which stretches from Kosti to Juba about 1,436 kilometers, through Renk, Malakal, Shambe, Diam Diam, Bor and Mongala. The water level slope between Juba and Bor is relatively steep and here the river flow velocity (speed) range between 2 to 3 meters per second. Between Malakal and Kosti, water level slopes are very mild or not strong and the flow velocity of the river is very low, ranging between 0.5 to 0.7 meters per second. Inadequate navigations aids and poor river conditions are significant impediments to effective development of river transport. The number of buoys and navigation sign boards installed along the river is insignificant. During navigation, the operators rely on their knowledge of the river physical features to avoid accidents. On a positive note, companies are increasingly using new technologies, such as global positioning system, satellite phones and high frequency radios to track barge movements. However, there are still major difficulties to pass through areas with rocks, sharp bends and flood plains. The main obstacle is the narrow section with sharp bends between Mongala and Juba. Other major obstacles along the river include unmarked rocks, wrecks, silt or sand and mud buildups, shoals (small hills), water hyacinth growth, and siltation especially near ports. Risks are higher when the water level is low. There are seven main river ports in South Sudan located in Renk, Malakal, Shambe, Diam Diam, Bor, Mongala and Juba. With the support from Japan, South Sudan has constructed a jetty, offices for port officials and open air storage facilities in Juba Embankment Port. The jetty has a gantry crane arm with a 2.5 tons metric capacity. A shipyard has been built at the Old Juba Port location which was formerly abandoned because of siltation problems. Dredge works or removal of stones will be undertaken to facilitate access of the shipyard. Finally, in collaboration with the Japanese a Juba River Port Expansion Project has been launched and it will transform the Port into a modern well equipped facility with an extended jetty, warehouses and administrative buildings. Currently, stevedores' union has the monopoly to load and offload cargo. Since it is the sole provider it charges high rates and it usually undertakes the activities manually and on average manages to only loading/off loading four barges per day. Occasionally, mobile mechanical lifting equipment is availed on demand. The lack of storage facilities means that fuel is pumped directly from the barges to the waiting tankers. The Port area is also used as a staging point for Internal Displaced Persons returning to the South that leads to their final destination. New river ports have recently been built in Mongala, Diam Diam and Shambe. The facilities constructed include a jetty, a gantry crane arm and offices. Shambe port is particularly important as it enables access to the Lakes, Warrap and Unity States. Due to the narrow section between Mongala and Juba, pusher convoys are usually dismantled in Mongala.

The river port in Bor consists of a natural embankment for offloading fuel and general cargoes. Bor has also privately owned storage facilities. Independent vendors offering mechanized lifting equipment are occasionally available. Malakal is a primary transit point between Kosti and Juba. It is served by smaller boats that can access the White Nile tributaries. All major private operators call at Malakal to offload fuel, building materials and general cargoes. The port has silt free pier of about 300 meters. Cargo handling is mostly done manually by private porters. Mobile mechanized lifting equipment can be acquired on demand. Loading/offloading capacity is around 3 barges per day. Fuel is discharged at a privately-owned depot with a storage capacity of 60,000 liters of diesel and 60,000 liters of petrol. Renk was known as a loading facility for Dura. Currently majority of private operators also call at Renk to offload fuel and general cargoes. The port has a functional jetty which is in poor condition. At times, porters do the manual handling at rates cheaper than those charged in Juba. Mobile mechanized lifting equipment is available for river operators and traffic. The new river transport company and Sudan river transport company were created by privatizing government-owned river Transport Corporation. The majority shareholders in the new venture are Kuwait Gulf Link Group with 70%, the Government of Sudan and the Government of South Sudan hold respectively 20% and 10%. Although they operate with different names, both companies have the same top management and headquarters in Khartoum. They have also created an entity in South Sudan, the Southern Sudan Trans-Nile Company located in Juba. The New River Transport Company or Sudan River Transport Company is the largest operator on the White Nile with a large fleet composed of pushers, passenger barges and a mixture of flap top, general cargo and fuel barges. The other major barge operator is the KEER Group which has the same fleet mix except passenger barges. Both operators can transport all types of cargos including containers, fuel, vehicles, construction materials, machinery and food items. Alongside these, there are a number of smaller private active operators that do not call regularly into the ports. There are also some companies or independent operators with boats of various sizes that operate primarily in the South between Malakal, Bor and Juba and the tributaries in between. Historically, the traffic volumes reached 300,000 tons per year in the mid-1970s, but by 2008 traffic had fallen way short of 100,000 tons. Despite the lack of compiled data in recent years, it seems unlikely that it will reach the 100,000 tons mark in the near future. During the first quarter of 2011, around 20 trips by the New River Transport Company/Sudan River Transport Company to and from Juba were registered against an average one per month for KEER. Rates range from USD 250 to USD 300 per metric ton or cubic foot- depending on which is larger, from Kosti to Juba were charged. The travel time for cargo barges along this route is around 3-5 weeks excluding loading and off-loading times. The carrying capacity per sail is between 1,200 and 2,000 metric tons. For a return journey from Juba to Kosti, rates are 50% of that for upstream travel and sailing time can drop to one week. For passenger barges, it takes about 10 days.

Until the independence of South Sudan, the Inland River Navigation Department, based in Khartoum was the Federal Unit which had the overall responsibility on river transport. The main objectives assigned to the Inland River Navigation Department are to promote river transport; assume an overall control of river transport; encourage the private sector to invest in river transport; ensure safety of navigation on all the river routes in Sudan. Its functions include registration of crafts, vessel inspection, vessel licenses and crews' licenses. The Government of South Sudan, through the Ministry of Transport and Roads, has claimed progressive delegation of the development, management and operation of river transport system in Southern Sudan. The Directorate of River Transport has the organizational structure. Port Managers report to the Port Department Director. In the case of Juba Port, the Port Manager is presently supported by a team of eight technicians; three in charge of maintenance of equipment, three maintaining infrastructure and cargo handling and two handling security matters. The security function is reinforced by the River Transport Police and other security organs. The directorate staffing is poor, both in terms of quantity and quality.

**(c) Railways Services and Infrastructure:** The only railway line in the country is the Southern Section of the 446 kilometers of Babanusa-Aweil-Wau line, which has been part of the 4,578 kilometers Sudan rail network operated by the Sudan Railway Corporation. This line connects Wau in South Sudan to Babanusa, Khartoum and Port Sudan. The total length of the railway line in the country is 248 kilometers, from Wau to the border with Sudan. The single track is narrow gauge (1,067 mm) and is based on steel sleepers. The track condition is considered to be poor. Although the initial design speed was 50 kilometer per hour, the current speed is very low. The country's portion of the network was not operational for almost two decades. Following some rehabilitation works supported by funding from the United Nations, the line was reopened in 2010. However, the service is irregular and limited on average; it was operational once a month mainly transporting consumer goods from Khartoum. The Directorate of Railways of the Ministry of Transport is responsible for promoting railways in South Sudan. It is headed by a Director General who is currently the only senior staff in the Directorate. The functions of the Directorate include the development of policy and regulations for railway operations in South Sudan. The on-going efforts in the railway transport sub-sector include rehabilitation of housing along the Wau-Aweil Babanusa line; carrying out feasibility study of a proposed extension from Wau to Juba and Nimule; and undertaking a modest program of capacity building for the Directorate of Railways. The 2011 National Budget allocated a total of USD 1.26 million equivalents of capital outlays for railways. This allocation included USD 0.630 million for a feasibility study of an extension of the rail line from Wau to Juba and Uganda, and USD 0.630 million for rehabilitation and maintenance of railway facilities. The South Sudan Development Plan (SSDP) includes a proposed expenditure of USD 241 million on the railways sector during 2011-2013. This will support the

creation of a railways regulatory body, purchase equipment for the railways network, and construct the 150 kilometers of new lines in 2013. However, there is no on-going project in the sub-sector, contrary to what is indicated in South Sudan Development Plan (SSDP). Such a huge investment has to be justified by specific pre-investment studies as proposed strategy for the railways sub-sector. After Independence, a number of issues need to be addressed. The clarification of the ownership arrangements for the section of the rail line in South Sudan is in particular importance; selection of an entity that will operate the railway service. Several Public Private Partnership options should be investigated taking into consideration political situation between Sudan and South Sudan and the very low level of traffic. Subject to further detailed study and dialogue with potential investors, the expectation is that the South Sudan Railway Corporation will enter into a Public Private Partnership type with a private concessionaire who will own and operate locomotives and rolling stock. The key objective for the short-term is to develop a realistic program improving the railway service in the country. The short-term work plan is therefore dominated by capacity building and technical services. It is proposed to carry out a study that will investigate the foregoing issues and review the existing situation of the railway infrastructure in the country. The study will explore and make recommendations on the issues like legal, institutional and regulatory framework including issues related to infrastructure asset ownership and management; management of railway operations; detailed inventory of the track and signaling system; traffic demand analysis and prospects; and an appropriate development program, including support for the establishment and operation of the new institutional framework. Expansion of the network in the country has to be underpinned by regional integration benefits and a strategic diversification of access to the sea. In that regard, the proposed action plan for railways includes a prefeasibility study of a rail link to one or more seaports. The cost of the proposed short-term program for railways is estimated at USD 5 million, including USD1 million for rehabilitation of houses, USD 3 million for studies and a notional amount of USD1 million for the establishment and operation of the new institutional framework. The program for the longer-term will be built around two initiatives like the rehabilitation and improvement of the 248 kilometers of existing line from Wau to Aweil and to the border with Sudan. The cost of this program is estimated at about USD 75 million; based on prefeasibility study initiated under the short-term program; to undertake a feasibility study of a rail link that connects the country to deep-water ports; for instance, a railway line linking Kampala or Eldoret to Juba and Wau. Such an extension will have the added advantage of connecting the existing South Sudan rail network to that of the East African Community.

**(d) Air Transport Services and Infrastructure:** Air transport infrastructure is composed of an international airport in Juba, a domestic airport in each state capital of the other nine states and around 300 airstrips. These airstrips emerged during the civil war to provide logistics bases and served later

on, as hubs for humanitarian relief supplies by international relief agencies and Non-Governmental Organizations. Juba, Malakal, Wau, and Palogue are the only airports with paved runway, measuring 2,400 and 2,000 meters long. The paved runways are in fair condition. Existing airport facilities are inadequate and lack proper maintenance. Juba airport is the main gateway to South Sudan. It links the country to the rest of Africa and the world. However, the existing airport conditions are very poor. The airfield does not comply with International Civil Aviation Organization standards. The actual runway of 2,400 meters length and 45 meters width imposes a drastic restriction on aircraft payloads. There is no Instrument Landing System and no visual Precision Approach Path Indicator. Operations only are during the day in Visual Meteorological Conditions. The runway and apron at Juba airport have significant problems of pavement deterioration. The passenger terminal is used in a mixed process for domestic and international departures and arrivals. The terminal facilities are inadequate such as limited capacity of departure lounge and arrival hall, few rudimentary check-in counters, a hand operated balance, no information display for passengers or operators, no stand allocation or planning system, no computer connections to airline reservation systems or to the air traffic control for updated information, no baggage convey belts. There are no dedicated cargo facilities despite noticeable cargo traffic. The general aviation uses the same terminal facility as the commercial traffic and passengers. Support facilities are limited to several carts for luggage transport, several services vehicles, few fire fighting vehicles and stockpile of fire extinguishing materials. There is no fuel storage facility which adds another constraint to the aircraft payload. Prior to independence, the Government of South Sudan and Government of National Unity had close cooperation on civil aviation and airports operations in the South. The Government of South Sudan (GOSS) established the Directorate of Air Transport within Ministry of Transport and Roads with primary functions for policy formulation, approval of tariffs, international conventions, bilateral air services agreements and multilateral and regional agreements. The Directorate also responsible for the development of international and national airports in South Sudan, while the States' airports and airstrips fall under the State Ministry of Physical Infrastructure. The air navigation infrastructure is substantially lacking. Before the independence airspace management was under the responsibility of Government of National Unity. In all Sudan including South Sudan there was one Flight Information Region with the Area Control Centre in Khartoum. At this time there is no radar for surveillance purposes in South Sudan and the Area Control Centre relies on contact by radio. Air traffic management is thus by voice communication and pilots have to communicate among themselves through radio system to identify other aircrafts. One shortcoming of the present system is that the radio system does not cover the entire South Sudan. Aviation oversight in South Sudan is considered poor. Civil aviation services and air traffic have expanded rapidly in recent years in South Sudan. The presence of United Nations Missions and many

humanitarian aid donors has contributed significantly to the demand for aviation services. Currently, the country is served by about ten Local Air Operators and thirteen International and Regional Carriers. At Juba airport, aircraft movements increased from 11,652 in 2007 to 33,140 in 2010 with an average annual growth of 42%, passenger traffic reached 189,356 in 2010 with an average annual increase of 22% from 2007, and mail traffic witnessed an annual increase of 20% while freight traffic remained stagnant. There is no information available on the numbers of passengers passing through the other main terminals in the country. Assuming that there will be steady improvements in domestic security, sustained strong economic growth and considerable development in tourism potential in South Sudan this may result into an average annual increase of 15% in domestic and international passengers, at this rate the total passenger traffic will increase to about 900,000 in the coming years. The proposed Action Plan therefore calls for a substantial investment in upgrading the air navigation system of the country (Ibid, pp.171-197).

**4.4.4 Telecommunication Services in South Sudan:** Telecommunications has been recognized as the fastest growing sector in South Sudan with liberalization and competition leading to growth in the coverage area. While mobile network connectivity continues to grow, a key component to proper Information and Communication Technologies growth in South Sudan, the national broadband backbone is lacking. On the other hand, for information dissemination, the mass media environment in the country is liberal with the right to expression confirmed in the Transitional Constitution of South Sudan 2011. In order to further integrate as a sovereign nation, the country has already obtained its own international dialing code, which is +211, by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) and its own internet domain, which is SS, by the International Organization for Standardization (ISO). Attribution of International Organization for Standardization country code is not only essential for Internet top level domain, known as country code Top Level Domain, but without one, a country cannot have a currency code or issue machine-readable passports or facilitate international financial and banking transactions. The +211 dialing code and SS domain are fully operational as this was a priority area of action by the Government. The Ministry of Telecommunication and Postal Services announced the year 2011 as the deadline for changeover from the code of Sudan (+249) to the +211 code for South Sudan. In addition, the Ministry has applied for membership to the Universal Postal Union which will also enable the country to receive and send mail internationally.

**(a) Institutional Arrangements and Policy for the Sector:** There are two policies guiding operations in the Information and Communication Technology sector; namely, the Telecommunications and Postal Services Sector Policy, Framework and Work Plan 2008; and the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting Organization Bill of 2008. The Information and Communication Technology sector is governed by the Ministry of Telecommunications and Postal Service (MOTPS) and the Ministry of

Information and Broadcasting (MOIB). Both ministries provide policy direction and perform regulatory functions. In the case of Ministry of Telecommunications and Postal Services, the government acts as a facilitator, enabler and regulator of the Information and Communication Technologies sector to allow the private sector and civil society organizations to operate effectively in Information and Communication Technologies policy formation and implementation. The Ministry encourages all interested parties to fully be involved in the participation and provision of universal service or access; attract more private sector resources and foster partnership between private and public sectors; develop a sector with efficiency, credibility, commercial integrity and good corporate governance; provide quality and sustainable service with choices to consumers; and keep abreast with and participate in development of Information and Communication Technology within Africa and globally. Private sector is expected to play a key role in development of physical infrastructure, human resource capacity, and in Information and Communication Technology services and productive sectors of the economy. Development partners are sought to provide the financial assistance for implementation of the policy as well as to build capacity for sustainability. Support will also be sought for Information and Communication Technology based business incubators especially in area of soft ware development. For a variety of reasons, the rules and regulations in place currently are not consistent across all the telecommunications operators in the country. The operators have different rules governing licenses and spectrums as well as investment incentives such as periods for tax breaks. The prevailing situation does not provide a level of playing field for all the operators and urgently needs to be readdressed. This situation is partly due to the fact that some of the operators such as MTN South Sudan and Zain have licenses that were issued by the Sudan regulatory authority, known as National Telecommunications Corporation (NTC), while others such as Gemtel and Vivacell have regional licenses issued by the Government of South Sudan (GOSS) permitting them to operate only in what was then Southern Sudan. This arrangement came about because under the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), the Government of South Sudan shared responsibilities for the telecommunications sector with the Government of National Unity (GONU). The two ministries are currently working on new bills to govern their respective subsectors. The Ministry of Telecommunication and Postal Services drafted a new Communications Bill in 2011 which will, among other functions, facilitate the establishment of an independent regulator of the sector. The new regulator will focus on the telecommunications and postal sectors. The Bill will also provide new rules and basis for licensing in the telecommunications sector. The Ministry of Information and Broadcasting (MOIB) believes in facilitating freedom of expression and availing information to all South Sudanese whether within the country or in the Diaspora. The ministry is finalizing three bills, namely, the South Sudan Broadcasting Corporation Bill 2011; the Media Council Bill 2011; and the Right of Access to Information Act, 2011.

The South Sudan Broadcasting Corporation Bill is intended to set up the South Sudan Television and Radio Broadcasting Services as an independent corporation funded by government. The South Sudan Broadcasting Corporation operates alongside the over 30 private frequency modulation radio stations operating nationwide whose proliferation has been encouraged by the Government of South Sudan so as to facilitate the dissemination of information. The new bills are also confirmed an Independent Broadcasting Authority or Media Council, a Board of Directors for Public Broadcasting Corporation, and a commission of rights of access to information. Presently, regulation for the Information and Communication Technology sector is provided by the Ministry of Telecommunication and Postal Services and the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. There is presently limited drive for a converged regulator that would handle both telecommunications and broadcasting sectors. Currently, the regulation functioning by the Ministry of Telecommunication and Postal Services is handled under the Directorate of Telecommunications. Within the directorate, they have also designated a Liaison Officer who is the direct link between the operators and the ministry. In Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, there are two offices responsible for radio and Television. The public South Sudan radio and television are under the Directorate of Southern Sudan Radio and Television while the private media stations are under the Director of Public Information. The two ministries do share responsibilities in the licensing of new media operators whereby the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting gives approvals, assesses and issues warrants of establishment, while the Ministry of Telecommunication and Postal Services controls the frequency allocations. The institutional arrangements for the Information and Communication Technology sector whereby regulation is currently provided by the Ministries. Regulatory functions at state levels are executed through the State Governments while matters related to taxation and revenue are handled by the Ministry of Finance. For example, the Ministry of Finance is responsible for assessment of custom duties and assessment and collection of taxes on equipment and services.

**(b) Information and Communication Technology Infrastructure:** Currently there are four telecommunication operators including MTN South Sudan, Zain, Vivacell and Gemtel. Before the independence, Vivacell and Gemtel have been operating under regional licenses that restricted their operations to the territory of South Sudan, while the other operators have licenses permitting their operations over all parts of Sudan and South Sudan. The spread of the telecommunication operators according to their number of points in the ten states of South Sudan as in 2011, MTN has added another 21 sites while Zain has added another 43 sites, as in 2011. Together MTN and Zain have just over 60% of the currently available sites. There is an uneven spread of telecommunication services across South Sudan with the Central Equatoria State (CES) having the largest number of 104 sites accounted (30%) and on the other hand, Warrap and Jonglei having only 15 sites for each, that



presented (4%). Even with the states, the distribution of sites among the counties remains uneven with Juba and Yei having 67 (64%) and 21 (20%) of the 104 sites in the Central Equatoria State, respectively. The other counties with relatively high number of sites are Renk with 27 (40%) sites in Upper Nile and Wau County with 22 (69%) sites in Western Bahr el Ghazal. There is also uneven distribution of access to telecommunication services with respect to the population of South Sudan. For example, the three states of Central Equatoria State, Warrap and Jonglei representing the states with the most and the least number of telecommunication sites respectively have 13.4%, 11.8% and 16.4% of the population as of Fifth Sudan Population and Housing Census in 2008. Clearly, the distribution of the presence of telecommunications points is generally under-matched with the population percentages in the various states. At regional level, South Sudan currently does not have any intra-regional fiber optic backbone connectivity. And as a landlocked country, regional connectivity would enable South Sudan to have access to submarine cables, which in turn, would facilitate a reduced cost in Information and Communication Technology access as well as increased international bandwidth compared to what is currently available via satellite. International and Internet charges for countries without access to submarine cables can easily be twice as high as those that do have access to submarine cables. In the past decade or so, the African continent has benefited from the arrival of a number of undersea fibers optic cables that facilitate the delivery of broadband access. The fiber optic cables currently available on the coastline, from which it can be observed that South Sudan has opportunities to link to the cable through Kenya, Ethiopia or Sudan. Currently, the four options for South Sudan to obtain access to submarine cable are either through Kenya, Uganda, Ethiopia or Sudan. The preferred option for South Sudan in the short-term seems to be to connect via Lokichoggio in Kenya. One of the major operators has indicated preference via Ethiopia and onward to Djibouti. In the long-term, it is prudent to have multiple access points to the undersea cables as this could enhance the resilience of South Sudan's broadband network and promote competition among service providers. The national and regional infrastructure required to provide adequate Information and Communication Technology access consists of strategic information systems necessary for sustainable economic development such as education, health, public financial management, and transportation; and broadband telecommunications networks, and computer hardware and soft ware. The core Information and Communication Technology indicators can be broadly classified in two types such as indicators where a higher value implies a better situation in terms of Information and Communication Technology infrastructure and access development; and tariff indicators where a lower value usually indicates a better situation. From the available statistics on South Sudan, it is clear that Information and Communication Technology infrastructure and access is in a very limited situation. Limited infrastructure in the country is compounded by the relatively high tariffs associated with Information and Communication Technology

services. With 50.5% of the country's population living on less than USD 32 per month, Information and Communication Technology services are generally unaffordable because they require more than 50% of the monthly income compared with costs in the other countries in the region. For example, Zain charges are about SSP 250 for the modem and SSP 50 per month for a two gigabit connection. These charges are about the same for Vivacell and MTN. Depending on specifications, the costs for internet access via satellite options such as very small aperture terminals range from USD 500 and USD 4,000 a month.

**(c) Access and Use of ICT:** Information and Communication Technology access refers to the availability of Information and Communication Technology within the home, while use of Information and Communication Technology refers to use of Information and Communication Technology by one or more individuals of the household, whether at home or elsewhere. In assessment of the Information and Communication Technology sector, it is important to consider both the supply and demand affecting the sector. Sustainable development of the Information and Communication Technology sector requires both an enabling environment for supply side growth in terms of access to networks and services as well as demand for and adoption of Information and Communication Technology services by the users. In addition to infrastructure, access by users is affected by factors such as high prices that prevent the public from accessing Information and Communication Technology services as well as quality of service of Information and Communication Technology services that affecting users' willingness to pay for them. Literacy and Information and Communication Technology skills are another key factor affecting demand in the Information and Communication Technology sector. The development of an information society requires an educated population at various levels including the use of computers and internet which requires at least a minimal level of literacy and the ability to search and process information; advanced educational attainment is a prerequisite for developing skills to manage Information and Communication Technology hardware and to develop Information and Communication Technology soft ware and services; and language ability is important in order to participate in Information and Communication Technology enabled service industries such as customer contact centers. Knowledge of widely spoken global languages is also important for understanding Information and Communication Technology systems given that much documentation is not widely translated. Nationally, in South Sudan adult literacy rate is 27% and that for the youth is 40%. In addition to literacy, there is the need for basic and advanced Information and Communication Technology skills so as to spur or motivate demand. The College of Computer Science and Information Technology (IT) at the University of Juba is currently offering degree and diploma programs in computer science, information technology, and computer networks. Short courses are also available to the public and to government institutions. In addition, the Ministry of Telecommunications and Postal

Services has planned for Information and Communication Technology Institute to provide Information and Communication Technology training particularly for government's human resources. There are twelve core methods on access to, and use of Information and Communication Technology by households and individuals. Of these, six are on household access to Information and Communication Technology and six are on the use of Information and Communication Technology by individuals or household members. There is also a reference indicator on access to electricity by households. In Unity State, the dominant Information and Communication Technology tool available to households is the radio a typical finding in low income developing countries.

**(d) Status of ICT-enabled Services:** Increasingly in Africa, mobile phones and applications are becoming a key player in the arena of Information and Communication Technology enabled services including such applications as mobile money, market information systems, and weather forecasts or alerts. In the case of South Sudan, some services, such as mobile money are yet to be implemented and pending development of appropriate regulation. Information and Communication Technology enabled services already available in South Sudan include a videoconference facility via satellite has been piloted with an Indirect hub at the Ministry of Telecommunication and Postal Services and a link between Juba and one of the state capitals. The Ministry plans to make the same facility available at all state capitals. Already, a very small aperture terminals based network links all the state capitals and Juba. The Ministry of Internal Affairs is developing a National Identification System. An Electronic Record Management system has been piloted in the Ministry of Cabinet Affairs. The Sudan Vote Monitor website enabled the public to monitor and report on the April 2011 national elections via short message service, email or the web Information and Communication Technologies in education. Information and Communication Technologies have also been used in the field of education where a mix of old and new Information and Communication Technologies have been deployed, such as radio, players, and computers. Information and Communication Technologies are known to have a positive impact on increasing opportunities for education and for lifelong learning. In spite of the seemingly dire situation, there are still initiatives that seek to take advantage of the use of Information and Communication Technologies in education. These include the use of radio and the use of computers. The South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction (SSIRI) is program of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology that focuses on the effective use of radio for delivering high-quality education programs to children, youth and adults. Administered by the Education Development Centre (EDC), it is funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction broadcasts three major programs on frequency modulation radio stations throughout Southern Sudan, namely primary education The Learning Village that consists of half-hour programs in English, local language English (Teaching English through Radio Based Instruction for

All) that consists of half-hour radio programs to provide English language instruction to youth and adults ; professional studies for teachers that is a radio-based, distance-learning course to improve teaching and classroom management. The South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction provides participating schools and adult learning centers with solar-powered and wind-up radios. South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction outreach coordinators train teachers on how best to use and care for the radios and how to integrate the radio programs into the school day. For areas that are out of the coverage range of the frequency modulation stations, South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction makes the programs available via digital devices such as players and boom boxes whereby solar panels or wind-up devices are used to recharge the batteries. In addition, to further strengthen teacher education programs, South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction is implementing computer centers that have Internet access and video production equipment. The South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction is available in seven states. In addition, there is need to have skilled human resource in Information and Communication Technologies. In terms of numbers, vocational institutes fared better in the same time frame with 314 students receiving computer training in five vocational institutes across South Sudan. In 2009, the College of Computer Science and Information Technology at the University of Juba was transferred from Khartoum to Juba offering two Bachelor of Science degree programs (5 years) in either Computer Science or Information Technology. The same courses are available at diploma level (3 years) as well as a diploma program in Computer Systems and Networks. Currently, there are 157 students enrolled in diploma programs and 104 enrolled in degree programs. The College of Computer Science and Information Technology has two computer labs installed with office management software tools for training purposes and student work (Ibid, pp. 277-288).

#### **4.5 Electricity Provision, Oil Production and Mining:**

**4.5.1 The Energy Sector Overview:** The majority or about 99% of the population in the country uses biomass including fire-woods, charcoal and grass for lighting and cooking. A small percentage of the population uses modern energy from petroleum products and electricity solely for lighting purposes. The use of biomass will continue to be the dominant source of energy for some time. It is necessary to replace biomass energy use gradually by modern energy in order to promote socio-economic development; minimize forest degradation which is a cause of global warming; and reduce the hardship and health hazards to improve quality of life. In addition, it is essential to use the fire-woods in a sustainable manner through cost effective resources' management to minimize deforestation. The revenues generated from petroleum production constitute a dominant part of the income of the country currently contributing about 98% to the national budget. Although the goal of the government is to develop alternative sources of income and reduce oil sector dependency, the petroleum revenues will continue to dominate the national budget in the medium term. The Government further recognizes that

petroleum is a nonrenewable resource and subject to volatile (unstable) international market prices, understands the need to manage the resources for the benefit of both the present and future generations, and minimizes the strains (pressures) on the government budget. The Government intends to implement a Petroleum Stabilization Fund to reduce the impact of volatile oil prices on budget. The Government has now prepared the National Petroleum Policy to guide the effective and sustainable management of the petroleum resources in the country. The Petroleum Bill has been enacted. Every productive sector of the economy relies on the provision of electrical energy. Electricity plays a vital role in social and economic development as it is a critical factor of production whose cost directly impacts other services and the competitiveness of enterprises. Consequently, the state of provision of reliable electricity has a direct influence on the generation of employment and growth of the national income. About 50% of big firms and 70% of small firms recognized that the lack of electricity supply is a major constraint on doing business in the country. Hence, electricity supply shortages and interruptions have serious repercussions (consequences) on any effort to improve the economy and achievement of sustainable economic and social growth. In recognition of the critical role electricity plays in the economy, the Government has adopted the South Sudan National Electricity Policy (SSNEP) in 2007 that outlines the framework for the development and operation of the electricity supply industry. Specifically, the Policy defines the public and private sectors priorities.

**4.5.2 Energy Sources and Facilities:** The country has significant reserves of oil and gas. These sources are not currently used to meet domestic demand for energy. Exports of petroleum crude oil are the main source of foreign exchange earnings for the country. The crude oil is carried by pipeline to Port Sudan at Red Sea. The country is endowed with a number of potential hydropower sites which are all situated on the White Nile River. The five greater hydropower sites with a cumulative capacity of 2,590 megawatts are Bedden with capacity of 720 megawatts, Fula Power Plant to generate 1,080 megawatts, Lekki with capacity of 420 megawatts, Shukoli to generate 250 megawatts and Juba to generate 120 megawatts. Regarding the huge possible hydropower development, all the potential sites have been studied at pre-feasibility study level. The government funds the services of a consulting firm to prepare a feasibility study for the Fula Hydropower Plant. In the short-term program, a comparative feasibility study of the five sites will be undertaken to determine the sequence (actions) of development of the plants. Such study will allow the development of the hydropower sites in an optimal manner and facilitate the mobilization of financial resources for their development. The initial phase project is expected to be developed in the medium-term. Six small hydropower plants ranging between 2 megawatts and 40 megawatts with a cumulative capacity of 100 megawatts have also been identified for development. None of the hydropower sites has been developed yet. But Fula Small Hydropower Plant (SHP) is planned to be developed in the short-term. A feasibility study of the project is ongoing

with financial support from the Government of Norway. The study is planned to be completed in 2012. Fula Small Hydropower Plant will have a capacity in the range of 40 to 60 megawatts and is intended to supply Juba.

**(a) Energy Consumption:** Currently, the energy consumption is mainly from biomass with over 99% of the population using fire-woods and grass for lighting and cooking. There is a small percentage of population using the various types of modern energy sources like petroleum products and electricity for lighting and cooking.

**(b) Electricity Supply:** The power infrastructure in the country is in an embryonic (early) state of development. Its development was curtailed (limited) by the two civil wars in the past 50 years. Despite the rich hydropower potential, power generation is from expensive diesel generators and the supply is limited to a few towns. The installed generation capacity is around 24 megawatts or about 3 megawatts per million people. This is a tenth of what has been installed in the Eastern African Region. As the country's production capacity is well below the minimum efficient scale size of around 200 megawatts, it faces high production cost. The Electricity Supply Industry (ESI) in South Sudan is characterized by main electricity supply provided from captive generation; low electrification levels of less than 1% based on areas supplied by South Sudan Electricity Corporation (SSEC) with virtually no one in the rural areas having electricity supply, and intermittent (stopping and starting over a period of time) supply of electricity within South Sudan Electricity Corporation's areas of operations. The supply is not available through a full 24-hours period. South Sudan Electricity Corporation is only operating in three of the ten state capitals of Juba, Malakal and Wau in addition to Renk town. South Sudan Electricity Corporation's distributional losses (technical and non-technical losses) estimated at 25% in 2010 was two and half times the best practice of 10% benchmark, contributing to its hidden operational costs. Although the number of staff requirements of South Sudan Electricity Corporation has been identified to be 745, only 571 positions are filled to date. The customer to staff ratio is 1:35, which is an indication of the effective utilization of staff in power utilities, is much less than the benchmark of 1:150,250 for developing countries. South Sudan Electricity Corporation's financial performance is weak with the utility's operations heavily subsidized by the government which accounts 75% of operational expenses are subsidized. The financial, human capacity and systems constraints in South Sudan Electricity Corporation have also limited its ability to operate, maintain and expand the generation facilities and distribution networks. The current demand in South Sudan Electricity Corporation's supply areas is much higher than the power utility provided. For instance, the assessment estimated the 2010 effective generation demand in Juba and Malakal at 32 megawatts and 15 megawatts, respectively. The corresponding South Sudan Electricity Corporation's installed and operational generation capacities were 12 megawatts and 4.8 megawatts. Hence, the supply gap has

forced the businesses and high class households to meet their supply deficit from own generation. In spite of abundant sources for electricity generation like hydropower and oil, the present power supply by South Sudan Electricity Corporation is limited to three state capitals of Juba, Malakal and Wau plus Renk town. The state capitals are supplied from diesel power generators with capacity of 23.8 megawatts, while Renk town is supplied from imported electricity power from Sudan. Although South Sudan is interconnected with the Sudan to import about 32 megawatts of power, the import is limited to about 3 megawatts to supply Renk town since the commercial and agricultural development projects envisaged around Renk have not been realized and the network has not been extended to supply other major centers. Presently, South Sudan Electricity Corporation is installing 2 megawatts each diesel generators and the associated distribution networks to supply three state capitals of Bor, Yambio and Rumbek which are expected to be commissioned in 2012. Such program is funded by the Government of Egypt. Outside South Sudan Electricity Corporation supply area, the townships of Yei, Maridi and Kapoeta are supplied with electricity from United States Agency for International Development (USAID) funded diesel power plants run by local cooperatives. The installed capacities of the diesel generators in these towns are 1.2 megawatts, 0.8 megawatts and 0.8 megawatts, respectively. The corresponding customers are 1,100; 250; and 85 households. Given that the cooperatives had to recover the full cost of supply, the average tariff in these towns is 53 US cents per kilowatt per hour. The tariffs are more double than that of South Sudan Electricity Corporation's average tariff of 22 US cents per kilowatt per hour. The high tariffs have become constraints to connecting significant number of household customers.

**(c) Institutional Arrangements for Energy Sector:** Until the recent past, the energy sector was the responsibility of the Ministry of Energy and Mining (MOEM). Following independence, a restructuring of the public institutions was implemented; as a result, the Ministry of Energy and Mining was divided into two ministries, notably, Ministry of Electricity and Dams (MOED) and Ministry of Petroleum and Mining (MOPM). The other main players in the energy sector are South Sudan Electricity Corporation and Nile Petroleum Corporation (NilePet) dealing with electricity and oil, respectively. The South Sudan Corporation reports to Ministry of Electricity and Dams while the Nile Petroleum Corporation reports to Ministry of Petroleum and Mining. It is expected that an Electricity Regulatory Agency and Petroleum Regulatory Agency will be established following the enactment of the respective Bill. It is further expected that until the revised mandates are put in place, the newly formed energy institutions will operate on the basis of the mandates given to the energy sector operations before the restructuring. Based on the mandates of the energy institutions before transformation, the mandates and responsibilities of the restructured energy institutions as relates to energy are as the Ministry of Electricity and Dams (MOED) is responsible for Electricity Supply Industry including the development

of hydro-dams for multipurpose use such as hydropower generation and irrigation. It is also responsible for the development of renewable energies, the formulation of the necessary legislation and regulation for the management, development and maintenance of the Electricity Supply Industry and hydro-dams as well as development and implementation of Government of South Sudan policies and strategies on power generation and distribution. The Ministry of Electricity and Dams is mandated to formulate and develop policies, regulations and strategies on management and development of the Electricity Supply Industry and hydro-dams; oversee the compliance of the various actors to the relevant Acts in their operation as relates to the development of Electricity Supply Industry and hydro-dams development; set tariffs, identify electricity sources and facilitate their exploitation; and identify potential commercial partners and facilitate their participation in energy sector development. The Minister of Ministry of Electricity and Dams is assisted by Deputy Minister, Undersecretary and six Directors, including Director General for Projects; Director General for Dam Planning, Construction, and Maintenance; Director General for Renewable Energies; Director General for Environment; Director General for Data Collection and Processing; and Director General for Administration and Finance. The Ministry of Petroleum and Mining (MOPM) is in charge of petroleum and gas. It is the policy implementing body of the government with respect to petroleum affairs. The functions of the Ministry include the negotiating all oil contracts for the exploration and development of oil, ensuring the consistency with its principles, policies and guidelines; initiates legislation, rules, and regulations regarding the petroleum and gas sector; manages the relations of the government with petroleum and gas companies operating in South Sudan; formulates strategies and programs for the development and management of the petroleum and gas sector; develops the necessary technical cadres for the petroleum and gas sector; consults with affected communities, to ensure that all petroleum and gas projects be subjected to environmental and social impact assessment; and signs contracts on behalf of the government upon the approval of the National Petroleum Council. The National Petroleum and Gas Council is a policy making body with respect to petroleum and gas resources reporting to the Council of Ministers. The National Petroleum and Gas Council comprises of relevant national Ministers, representatives of oil-producing states and institutions. The national government and the oil producing states are represented in the National Petroleum and Gas Council in accordance with the law. The National Petroleum and Gas Council has the various functions such as formulation of policies and guidelines in relation to the development and management of the petroleum and gas sector; monitors and assesses the implementation of the policies by the relevant implementing institutions to ensure that their work is in the best interest of the people of South Sudan and to determine their impact on the communities in the areas of petroleum or gas development; approves all oil contracts for the exploration and development of oil and ensures their consistency with its principles, policies and guidelines; reviews environmental



and social impact of existing and future oil developments; develops its internal regulations and procedures; and performs any other functions or duties as may be prescribed by law. Nile Petroleum Corporation is the technical, operational and commercial arm of the Ministry of Petroleum and Mining dealing with all upstream, midstream and downstream activities of the petroleum sub-sector. Nile Petroleum Corporation is mandated to promote and coordinate the development and operation of the oil and gas sources, and the related infrastructure. It is expected to operate on a commercial basis. South Sudan Electricity Corporation was established in 2006. The Electricity Corporate Bill gives legal entity to South Sudan Electricity Corporation. According to the Bill, South Sudan Electricity Corporation is an independent government corporation responsible for generation, transmission and sales of electricity to distributors. It also has the mandate to purchase power from IPPs and promote electricity interconnection with neighboring countries. Presently, South Sudan Electricity Corporation is generating and distributing electricity in four operational areas of Juba, Malakal, Wau and Renk. The State Electrical Distribution Companies are governmental bodies. The Electricity Act specified that the Minister, in consultation with the governments of each of the States in South Sudan, may incorporate separate State Electricity Distribution Companies. Electric power distribution services are managed by State Electricity Distribution Companies, rural electricity cooperatives, community-owned and operated distribution entities, as approved and licensed by the Ministry of Electricity and Dams. Electricity distribution companies and cooperatives are supported by a special purpose department within the Ministry or by Rural Electrification Agency that the Government may establish.

**(d) Policy and Regulatory Framework:** The relevant policy and regulation papers available for review include South Sudan Investment Promotion Act (2009), South Sudan National Electric Sector Policy Paper (2007), South Sudan Electricity Bill (2010), South Sudan Petroleum Policy Paper (2010), South Sudan National Environmental Policy Paper (2010) and South Sudan National Environmental Bill (2010). The National Electricity Sector Policy recognizes the need to establish and maintain objective regulatory oversight to create investor confidence in order to attract private capital for the development of the sub-sector, in particular the hydropower development. The policy highlights the need to establish a highly competent and independent regulatory body. Accordingly, the Regulatory Agency is expected to operate freely without the government control and political influence. The Policy Paper specifies the responsibility of the Regulator to include, licensing electricity service providers, and enforcement of quality of service, as well as compliance of environmental standards, review of tariff applications, regulatory reporting and oversight functions. An Electricity Bill has been enacted based on the Policy Paper adopted in 2007. It was intended to provide the establishment and governance of the South Sudan Electricity Regulatory Authority, the licensing and regulation of the generation, transmission, distribution and supply of electricity within South Sudan. The Bill specifies

that South Sudan Electricity Regulatory Authority is an autonomous corporate body. It is further specifies that board members and the Executive Director must be appointed by the Council of Ministers, based on recommendation of the Minister. According to the Bill, South Sudan Electricity Regulatory Authority was entrusted various responsibilities such as introducing and maintaining a secure and stable electricity supply for South Sudan, improves the quality and coverage of the electricity industry; protecting the interests of consumers and other users with respect to the prices charged, the quality, service levels, permanence and variety of services provided in the electricity industry; encouraging and promoting Private Service Providers (PSPs) in the electricity market to ensure the allocation of sufficient resources for the electricity industry; lessening, wherever possible, any adverse impact of electricity activities on the environment; and encouraging and promoting energy efficiency and the use of renewable energy. South Sudan Electricity Regulatory Authority should review and approve tariffs and charges for the supply of electricity; regulates the electricity market by granting licenses; monitors and enforces the performance of regulated entities and the functioning of the electricity market; facilitates the settlement of disputes between regulated entities; prevents the abuse of monopoly or market power in relation to the electricity in the Electricity Supply Industry. The Bill limits the responsibility of South Sudan Electricity Corporation to deal with the development and operation of generation and transmission networks within South Sudan. The Bill is silent on who will be responsible for transmission network development outside South Sudan. As South Sudan Electricity Corporation is still dealing with the existing Sudan-South Sudan interconnection, it is expected that the mandate for developing interconnections will be entrusted to South Sudan Electricity Corporation. The Bill gives the responsibility of development and operation of distribution networks to the state governments, cooperatives and communities with support to be provided by the Ministry of Electricity and Dams. The South Sudan Electricity Corporation has been running the distribution networks in South Sudan for years; it is well placed to support the local mainstream distribution activities. It is therefore worthwhile to consider involving South Sudan Electricity Corporation in the mainstream distribution activities. The Bill also provides the Ministry's responsibility of dealing with rural electrification. Since rural electrification is a non-profit operation, it is understandable that the development and operation of rural electrification are dealt with by Ministry and the state governments until the establishment of Rural Electrification Agency. The government has recognized that development of a hydropower plant of such scale would require a large investment which would be difficult to be promoted fully from internal and multilateral and bilateral sources. The Electricity Policy Paper therefore stipulates that the major hydropower projects will be developed with the Private Service Providers (PSPs). The electrification of the state capitals in the short-term and the development of mega hydropower plants in the medium-term will be implemented with private sector involvement.

It is therefore necessary to build the necessary capacity and establish the Independent Regulatory Agency as soon as possible in order to attract private sector investment for the projects at favorable concession to the government. The South Sudan Electricity Regulatory Authority reports to the Ministry and that the board members of the Authority are appointed with the initiation of the Ministry. There is much concern about the independence of the Authority. However, in spite of such arrangements, it would be necessary to maintain the autonomy of the Authority in order to gain investor confidence. It is therefore worth considering establishing an independent tribunal (special court) which looks into conflicts that might arise between South Sudan Electricity Regulatory Authority and the Ministry of Electricity and Dams as being practice in some countries in the region. South Sudan Petroleum Policy of 2010 and the Petroleum Act are prepared. The Petroleum Policy stipulates that the petroleum institutional structure shall reflect a desired separation between policy functions and the regulatory functions which ensures policy implementation. Most importantly, the commercial functions of the state, such as the state equity held by Nile Petroleum Corporation, shall be separated from the institutions charged with policy or regulatory functions. It further indicates that the regulatory body may be organized as a Directorate under the Ministry of Petroleum and Mining or as an Authority under the same Ministry. The Authority is further entrusted with the responsibility of regulating and controlling the activities and operations carried out by oil and service companies. The regulatory body acts on behalf of the Ministry of Labor on health and safety matters and on behalf of the Ministry of Environment on environmental regulations. It is critical that the Authority must be independent in order to attract investment at favorable concession to the government. Assigning the regulatory functions to a Directorate in the Ministry might compromise the independence of the regulatory body. It is therefore advisable to establish the Regulator as an entity. The South Sudan National Environment Policy and South Sudan National Environmental Bill exist. The South Sudan National Environment Policy aims at ensuring protection and conservation of the environment and sustainable management of renewable natural resources in order to meet the present population and future generation needs. Towards this end, the policy calls for enacting legislations and regulations on the management of the environment to implement this policy; defining the responsibilities at different levels of governance including those of private sector institutions; ensuring that environmental legal frameworks developed at different levels of the government are consistent with each other and with sound environmental management; ensuring that sectoral environmental legal frameworks are in conformity with the requirements of environmental management; incorporating in domestic legislation the provisions of multi-lateral agreements that are relevant to South Sudan; and setting up environmental standards, guidelines and indicators. The existing Ministry of Environment is the lead institution for the protection and management of the environment. It is responsible for environmental

protection and management, planning, development of action plans, monitoring and evaluation of the policy implementation programs. It also reviews both Environmental and social impact assessment and issues relating to environmental permits. Following the approval of the South Sudan National Environment Policy, the Ministry of Environment will develop an implementation plan for this policy. All sector line government institutions, nongovernmental stakeholders and other relevant agencies at different levels of governance in South Sudan will also be involved in the implementation of the Environment Policy guidance statements that relate to their respective sectors. The National Environmental Bill establishes the South Sudan Environmental Management Authority. The Authority shall be an autonomous corporate body with perpetual succession. It shall be under the general supervision of the Presidency, considering that environment is a cross-cutting matter. The Authority is established to exercise general supervision and coordination over matters relating to the environment and to be the principal instrument of the government in implementing all policies relating to the environment. The Authority develops detailed Environmental Guidelines, Regulations and Standards relating to the various activities under its purview. It is critical that these Guidelines, Regulations and Standards be published as soon as possible so that investors know the environmental costs of their new ventures. This leads to avoid inflated concessional prices due to investor speculation (Ibid, pp. 207-214).

**4.5.3 Rural Energy Supply:** The rural communities reside in widely dispersed areas which makes it costly to supply them with power through extension and building cost effective diesel generators. Consequently, it is expected that the energy consumption in the rural areas will be derived mainly from biomass for some time. As such, it is necessary to promote appropriate technologies, including efficient cooking stoves, biogas and solar energies, to supply clean and effective energy to the rural population. As far as biomass utilization is concerned, the proposed program included the development and dissemination of efficient cooking stoves and biogas digesters for effective utilization of the biomass resources. The program will also develop and disseminate photovoltaic electricity supply systems to the households and social services (Ibid, p. 231).

#### **4.5.4 Oil Production in South Sudan:**

**(a) Historical Development of Oil Industry:** The oil exploration in Sudan began in 1959, when an Italian oil company named Agip was given an exploration concession in the Red Sea area in the northeast of Sudan. The search of Agip found no oil in Red Sea. Other western oil companies like Oceanic Oil Company, Total, Texas Eastern, Union Texas and Chevron moved into search, but no results were made and most companies relinquished their concessions. Onshore petroleum activities began in Sudan in 1975 when Chevron of United States of America was granted a large concession in several provinces of south-central Sudan, including Western Kordofan and Western Upper Nile. In

1979, Chevron struck oil near Abujabra and then alSharaf, on the border between Darfur and Kordofan. It soon went on to make major discoveries in Western Upper Nile in what is now known as Block 1, near Bentiu town, and developed the Muglad Basin where it found two huge oil fields, called Unity and Heglig, both in the South. In 1984, Chevron suspended its operations after three of its field workers were killed by the Southern rebels of the Anyanya Tow Movement. Chevron suspended its operations in the Unity Province in 1985 and by 1988 had dismantled its operations at Unity Field. It was also in this period that the first plan for a pipeline was drawn up. This pipeline would head to Port Sudan on the Red Sea in the North. The bulk of the oil infrastructure or facilities have been built in the North, and all the exports flow through this northward corridor. In 1992, the Concorp International, a small company which was owned by Sudanese businessman named Mohamed Abdullah Jar el-Nabi, had bought the Chevron concession. Although Chevron had invested nearly a billion dollars, it was sold to Concorp for merely USD 25 million. In 1997, the Greater Nile Petroleum Operating Company (GNPOC) began to build 1540 kilometers oil pipeline from the oilfields to a marine export terminal on the Red Sea. At the beginning of 1998, contracts were signed worth USD1 billion with Chinese, Malaysian and European suppliers. In 1999, the pipeline began delivery, and the first 600,000 barrels were loaded onto a Shell tanker. Also in 1997, Lundin, a Swedish company, signed a contract for a concession in Block 5A in Unity State, and two years later came across the first oil discovery in the field. When the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) has signed in 2005 conditions for oil production and export were improved. But tensions between South Sudan and Sudan soon emerged again over a series of unresolved issues, including the border between the two countries, the future of disputed territories and ownership of oil. Since then, peace negotiations have been held in Addis Ababa the capital city of Ethiopia under the auspices of the African Union. Until the 2012, these negotiations were still underway. Key issues in the negotiations include South Sudan's use of Sudan's oil infrastructure to export its crude oil, demarcation of the unstable border between the two countries, and the status of the oil-rich, disputed territory of Abyei. Concerning oil production, until 2006 Sudan had a first major upstream project from Blocks 1, 2 and 4, operated by the Greater Nile Petroleum Operating Company in the Muglad Basin, that is an export pipeline of Greater Nile Oil Pipeline, and a crude oil of the high quality Nile Blend. A second pipeline came on stream, and major refinery expansion was realized. The second major upstream project began to produce a second crude oil blend that is, the low quality Dar blend, in addition to important field developments elsewhere. The country's crude oil production almost doubled, making it Africa's fifth producer with more than 434.000 barrels per day by late 2006. Oil production is operated in blocks 3 and 7 in the Melut Basin, located deeper in Southern Sudan. Its first shipment, carried through a new pipeline to the export terminal at Port Sudan, was exported in 2006, though problems with the quality of the oil led the shipments being sold for

lower prices than market value. The year 2006 also saw the beginning of oil output from less significant block in Tharjath oilfield that is; Block 5A began exporting just over 20,000 barrels per day through the Greater Nile Petroleum Operating Company's pipeline. Oil production reached an average of almost 500,000 barrels per day in 2007, before falling back somewhat in 2008-2009. Political instability on a local level has also disrupted oil production, for example, the serious fighting which occurred at Abyei in 2008. Across the country there has been evidence that some local communities have begun to take action against the operators of fields (ECOS, pp. 13-15. See <https://www.ecosonline.org> ).

**(b) Oil Reserves, Exploration and Production in South Sudan:** According to James Cust and Torfinn Harding (2013) "Before 2005, South Sudan and Sudan was a united country and oil sector policies were determined in Khartoum. Oil is the lifeline of the South Sudan economy now and over the medium-term. It accounted for about half of the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and most of the country's exports (about 97 %) and government's revenue (about 98 %) in the period 2008-2011. The oil production of 360 thousand barrels per day in 2011 resulted in high export earnings, high government revenues and an income per capita level of a lower middle-income country which estimated to 1,822 USD in 2011". According to the Oil & Gas Journal and Wood Mackenzie, oil and gas reserves in Sudan and South Sudan had a combined 5 billion barrels of oil reserves in 2012, of which 3.5 billion or about 75% is estimated to be in South Sudan or lay within South Sudan, in the Muglad and Melut Basins. Other evaluations have put the combined reserves of the two countries as low as 4.2 billion barrels according to Wood Mackenzie and as high as 6.7 billion barrels according to British Petroleum (BP) Statistical Review. The countries also have a combined 3 trillion cubic feet of known gas reserves, but in 2012 gas exploration had been limited, and development of oil had taken priority over gas production. Oil production in Sudan began in the late 1990s, and combined crude production in Sudan and South Sudan in 2011 averaged about 425,000 barrels per day, according to the United States' Energy Information Administration. Oil production in 2011 was disrupted on several occasions due primarily to labor shortages, brought about in part by the temporary evacuation of north Sudanese workers in April 2011; for the remainder of the year, production was adversely affected by the migration of skilled workers from the North after the secession of the South in July 2011. South Sudan shut down all of its production in January 2012 due to a dispute with Sudan over pipeline fees, and in March 2012. South Sudan French oil company Total announced in February 2012 that it planned to restart exploration activities in Block (B) concession in South Sudan. Total holds a 32.5% share of Block (B), which is located in Jonglei State, near the Ethiopian border. The company signed an exploration and production sharing agreement for the concession in 1980, but suspended operations in 1985 as insecurity in the region erupted due to the civil war. In 2012 a workshop was held in Juba,

hosted by the Greater Nile Petroleum Operating Company (GNPOC), to evaluate the way forward for exploration activities in South Sudan's oil fields, resulting in the passing and signing of Exploration Technical Review and Development Technical Review papers by the Greater Nile Petroleum Operating Company (GNPOC) and its partners (Ibid, pp.26-27).

**(c) Oil Fields in South Sudan:** All of the oil produced in South Sudan came from Blocks 3, 7 and 5A, located mostly within South Sudanese territory, as well as Blocks 1, 2, and 4, known as the Greater Nile Oil Project that located in an area at the border between Sudan and South Sudan, and the disputed Abyei region.

**1. Blocks 3 and 7 in Upper Nile:** Oil exploration in Melut Basin began in the 1980s but production did not start until 1997. Blocks 3 and 7 are located in the Melut Basin in the northeast of South Sudan, which contains Adar Yale, and Palogue oil fields. The blocks are operated by Consortium, known as Dar Petroleum Operating Company (DPOC) led by China National Petroleum Corporation (CNPC) and Malaysia's PETRONAS with a 41% and 40% stake in the consortium, respectively. Production in the two blocks averaged about 230,000 barrels per day of the heavy, highly acidic Dar blend in 2011. Construction of the pipeline from Adar Yale oil field through Palogue to Port Sudan began in 2004. And in 2006 the first oil was transported through this pipeline. The Dar Petroleum Operating Company (DPOC) Consortium that exploits the oil fields consists of China National Petroleum Corporation (CNPC), PETRONAS, China Petroleum & Chemical Corporation (SINOPEC), Tri-Ocean Energy of Kuwait and Nile Petroleum Corporation (NILEPET). There are four main oil fields in Melut Basin which are known as Greater Palogue, Gumry and Moleeta, all in Block 7, as well as Adar Yale of Block 3. In 2011 total output for South Sudan was an estimated 230,000 barrels per day, which would add up to 84 million barrels per year. In 2013, 170,000 barrels per day about 71% of the total 240,000 barrels per day produced in South Sudan came from the oil fields in Upper Nile State. The Government of South Sudan is currently constructing an oil refinery in Thiangrial of Melut County.

**2. Block 5A in Unity State:** Block 5A, located in north-central of South Sudan, and is operated by a joint venture between PETRONAS, Indian Oil & Natural Gas Corporation (ONGC) and Nile Petroleum Corporation (Nilepet) of South Sudan. The Tharjath oil field is located in Block 5A, which covers the counties of Koch, Mayendit, Leer, Guit, and part of Rubkona and Fangak of Jonglei. The Tharjath oil field is currently being operated by the Sudd Petroleum Operating Company (SPOC) which made up of PETRONAS, Indian Oil & Natural Gas Corp (ONGC) and Nile Petroleum Corporation (NILEPET). Average production in 2011 was 15,000 barrels per day and in 2012 the block had a production capacity of about 25,000 barrels per day of the crude oil.

**3. Blocks 1, 2 and 4 in Unity State:** Blocks 1, 2 and 4 collectively known as the Greater Nile Oil Project (GNOP). Blocks 1, 2, and 4 are located in the Muglad Basin, covering an area of 48,388 square

kilometers. The largest fields in the area are the Heglig and Unity fields, which began production in 1996. Combined production from Blocks 1, 2 and 4 in 2011 was an estimated 120,000 barrels per day of Nile blend. According to the United States Energy Information Administration, down from the 2004 production in these blocks was nearly of 290,000 barrels per day. Since fields within the Greater Nile Oil Project (GNOP) are in the sharing border of both Sudan and South Sudan, the area is a subject of ongoing dispute. The Unity field lies fully in South Sudan, but the Heglig field in Block 2 remains disputed. The Permanent Court of Arbitration in The Hague ruled in 2009 that two fields of the block 2, Heglig and Bamboo belong to the North. The Unity oil field is in northern Rubkona County as part of the larger oil concession Block (1), which covers, as well as part of Rubkona County, and Pariang County. Block 4 is located in the heart of Manyom, and Abiemnhom Counties as well as part of Abyei Area. The Unity oil field is connected to an export terminal near Port Sudan, on Sudan's Red Sea coast, via the 1,600 kilometers Greater Nile pipeline. The consortium that holds the concession is Greater Pioneer Operating Company (GPOC); previously known as Greater Nile Petroleum Operating Company (GNPOC), made up of China National Petroleum Corporation (CNPC), PETRONAS, Indian Oil & Natural Gas Corporation (ONGC) and Nile Petroleum Corporation (NILEPET), as the consortium's operating company. No separate production figures available for Unity oil field. Greater Nile Petroleum Operating Company (GNPOC)'s total production in 2011 was 120,000 barrels per day, but this included the Heglig oil field in Sudan. A refinery is under construction in Rubkona County (Cordaid, Oil Production in South Sudan: Making it a benefit for all, report, 2014, pp. 13-16. See <https://www.cordaid.org> ).

**4. Other Blocks:** The Block (B) is in southeastern of South Sudan, led by Total and Marathon Oil consortium. Block (5B) was under exploration by Nile Petroleum Corporation (Nilepet), PETRONAS and ASCOM, which were seeking additional partners in the block. In 2012 the Ministry of Petroleum and Mining at the Oil Investment Conference conducted in Juba, reported that the National Petroleum Commission had recently mapped out a new block, notably, Block (E), which runs along existing fields in the Muglad Basin. There is Block (A) in north-central of South Sudan. In all these blocks there is no tangible production.

**(d) Crude Oil Qualities in South Sudan:** South Sudan produces two main blends of crude oil notably, Nile blend, a light and sweet blend, and Dar blend, a heavy and sour blend which is more difficult to refine.

**1. Nile blend:** Nile blend is light, sweet and waxy crude oil, located mostly in the Muglad Basin, at the sharing border between South Sudan and Sudan. Nile blend has a high gravity of 36.2 in 2000, which subsequently declined to 33.7 in 2002, indicating somewhat heavier crude than previously. Nile has a 0.05 weight percentage of sulfur. The first exports of Nile blend began in 1999, through a pipeline to an export terminal on the Red Sea.



**2. Dar blend:** The low quality Dar blend is found in the Melut Basin east of the White Nile, mostly in South Sudan but extending northward into Sudan. Dar blend has a gravity of 26.4, according to energy consultancy Platts, and a sulphur content of 0.12%. Because Dar is heavy paraffinic oil, it needs to be transported at high temperatures between 45-50 degrees Celsius to avoid congealing in its storage tanks in ships. Additionally, its high acidity means that it will erode ordinary refinery metalwork. Dar blend contains high levels of arsenic, which acts as a pollutant to refinery catalysts. The combined effects of these properties make it unacceptable for many customers; some customers, mix the blend with other components in order to sell it as fuel oil (ECOS, (ND), South Sudan Oil Almanac: An Open Oil Reference Guide, pp. 65-67. See <https://www.ecosonline.org> ).

**4.5.5 Mining Activities in South Sudan:** The mineral wealth of South Sudan is in demand internationally. There are large deposits of gold, copper, iron, uranium, cement, diamonds and semi precious stones. Up until now, mineral exploitation has only been on a low level with local communities extracting small amounts of iron and gold using local technology.

**(a) Artisanal Mining:** The villagers on whose land the gold is found are entitled to mine. The Toposa, Murle and Didinga young men mine shallow pits in groups during the rainy season. In these areas, women don't mine but porter buckets to the streams and water sources to wash away the mud. It is recognized that a mine is owned by whoever excavated it and is jealously guarded. Kenyan traders get licenses to buy gold from the county offices, though there is also some smuggling. Mining is not taken seriously as a livelihood option by artisanal miners in Kapoeta and Pibor Counties. Gold mining in Magwi County is slightly different and is a more common activity for both men and women. The Ministry of Energy and Mining is now committed to regulate the artisanal mining sector in all states. The Ministry would to assess the potential of the artisanal industry, the health and safety aspects and the environmental impact. In the future gold miners will have to get licenses and be more accountable for their activities. At the Juba level procedures have been drawn up to try to deal with some of the environmental protection issues but the problem is enforcement and monitoring of such procedures. The Ministry has responsibility for overseeing activities such as ensuring that pits are filled in after excavation has ended, overseeing of safety of national workers, and supervision of site selection. Mining regulation policy is being worked on in Juba and should be soon available with the mining act.

**(b) Large-Scale Mining:** At the moment, secondary gold, or the gold deposited by rivers, is being mined on a small scale. Where the primary gold deposits are discovered, the government adopts a more scientific and industrial approach for large quantity extraction, which involves heavy machinery for deeper excavation than current methods. International investment is already being encouraged to finance gold mining activities. It is very possible the artisanal miners would lose access to the land that they mine now and would potentially mine in the future. The Government of South Sudan also has

plans for large-scale mining of cement and uranium. Concessions are already demarcated and being awarded to international companies for exploration. These plans are not clearly known at the county level, as the directives would be passed directly to the county offices of Ministry of Energy and Mining from the Government of South Sudan level in Juba and the county administrative office will not be involved or informed. The prospecting and exploration licenses have been granted to companies since 2007 from the Juba office. Companies are reporting back to Juba. Investment details are all in the Juba office. Commissioners of the counties have to sign the agreements but are not consulted. The company brings the license and starts operations without consulting the communities. The companies are provided with security. The community should be told what is happening and have to agree by saying not any to the development. However the local governments' role is to promote good governance. One of the large-scale investments that have been being planned is the cement mining around Kapoeta. In South Sudan at least ten mining licenses have been issued to companies including companies from China, Turkmenistan and Egypt. The community in the area is to be given 2% of the revenue generating from mining activities. This percentage is based on the Wealth Sharing Protocol for oil producing areas of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement that signed in 2005, though this didn't seem to be known by the county offices that in which mining activities are operated. Also it is very likely that community representatives may not be in a position to understand the potential of the cement asset value, or how to get a fair deal for the minerals on their lands generally. So far responders claim that no information has been released at the community level regarding which areas will be mined. Similar to the proposed oil investment, people have heard that if their areas are invested in, jobs will be created and they will be compensated if they have to move. What they are not informed about is what the real impact will be. For example, in the case of Boma National Park the usual conflict of interests exist with the Park having large mineral deposits as well as wildlife. Thus, it is very likely there will be conflict over these interests in the future. Another example from other areas is that huge tracts of land will be fenced off for cement and gold mining in which one concession area for gold mining should be 500 hectares. This will preclude the access of any local users activities such as grazing; honey collection; grass cutting; wild fruits or grain harvesting; cultivating; migration routes; mining; fishing and so on. Investors are very weary of moving ahead without clear sole entitlement to the investment land area for the duration of their tenancy (period of investment). Beyond this, people need to be informed of the possible hazards associated with the industry such as toxic waste, soil, and water and air pollution. Gold mining particularly has a risk of mercury (a poisonous metal) contaminating water supplies if it is not properly handled. The physical environment will be reshaped and impacted by the services to the extraction areas including access routes, construction and so on. The changes will be more far reaching beyond the communities' awareness. The other concern

is what happens when the projects come to an end or don't find what they are looking for such as what happened for the Ayod oil exploration project. Communities need to know the risks that resulting from such mining activities (Judy, McCallum, 2009, p, 36).

#### **4.6 Financial Sector, Trade and Investment in South Sudan:**

**4.6.1 Banking System and Financial Sector:** The history of financial institutions in South Sudan is the short one. Till the end of civil war in 2005, there were very few branches of commercial banks concentrated in Juba, Wau and Malakal. And as a result 90% of the population of South Sudan was not able to benefit from banking services. Access to finance was limited to few traders operating in South Sudan. In 2008, the Bank of South Sudan (BOSS) introduced conventional banking system. However, after the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) the Bank of South Sudan, which actually was a branch of the Central Bank of Sudan, took a bold step by licensing local and expatriate (foreign) banks that took interest to invest in South Sudan. By 2013, 28 commercial banks, 10 microfinance institutions, 86 exchange bureaus or companies, and a handful of insurance companies are operating in South Sudan. Despite the increased number of financial institutions, competition is still limited and services are mainly concentrated in the urban hubs (centers). Four main products are offered by the banks. They consist of basic deposit accounts, foreign exchange, transfer, and remittance services, but a few commercial banks provide loans, trade finance, or saving products. The most lending in South Sudan is short-term and concentrated in commerce, trade, construction, salaries related loans and hotels in the urban areas. Microfinance Institutions (MFIs) are making an effort to reach the rural population with tailored products for agriculture sector but their operation is small. Due to the vastness of South Sudan and limited infrastructure, less than 3% of the South Sudan's population has access to financial services compared to 42% and 20% in Kenya and Uganda respectively. The informal sector is the main credit provider to majority of South Sudan since its inception in 2011. The Bank of South Sudan (BOSS) in collaboration with donor partners and international financial institutions such as International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, and others has developed its organizational structures and capacity building for its staff. The Bank of South Sudan (BOSS) has benefited from technical assistance and unilateral agreement from the partners and governments. Commercial banks staffs have gone through series of training under sponsorship of the international financial institutions. Commercial banks have also developed modern payment systems using information technology (IT), Automatic Transfer Machines (ATMs), Credit Cards and electronic transfers. They have also been instructed by the Bank of South Sudan (BOSS) to comply with rules and regulations. The section (58), of the Bank of South Sudan Act 2011, states clearly that no restrictions shall be imposed by the Bank of South Sudan (BOSS) or other authorities in the making of payment and transfer for international transactions. This goes in line with South Sudan Investment Promotion Act which allows the

repatriation of capital, profits and dividends; no discrimination for both local and foreign investors to own and operate business in any sector of the economy; and special incentives on application to the board of investments. The Bank of South Sudan (BOSS) also encourages international trade that strengthens export diversification and import substitution. The Bank of South Sudan monetary policy mandate is to keep prices stable and to maintain confidence in the national currency as well as to promote the general safety, stability, efficiency and transparency of the banking and financial system in South Sudan. Therefore, in order to improve the access to finance, the Bank of South Sudan has introduced the credit and monetary policies that improve the lending environment in South Sudan; establishment of Credit Reference Bureau to address a fundamental problem of credit markets and would help to strengthen the country's financial system that would help the people to get access to finance without difficulties; and financial leasing project as a core component of the strategy to help the development of financial markets, especially in country like South Sudan which recovering from conflict. For macro-economic, monetary policies and price stability in Republic of South Sudan, the Bank of South Sudan (BOSS) has initiated a dialogue forum with key ministries like Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Petroleum, Ministry of Justice and the rest, commercial banks and local entrepreneurs to discuss major concerns or issues that affect the economic stability in South Sudan. To address the issue of moveable and immovable assets, the Bank of South Sudan has been working in collaboration with the Ministry of Justice to introduce a new project called secure transaction and collateral registry (BSS, SSIC, 2013, pp. 2-8).

**4.6.2 Trade and Investment:** According to the World Bank Enterprise Survey (2014, p.7 see [www.enterprisesurvey.org](http://www.enterprisesurvey.org) ) "Open markets allow firms to expand, raise standards for efficiency on exporters, and enable them to import low cost supplies. However, trading also forces firms to deal with customs services and trade regulations; obtain export and import licenses". The rapid expansion of private sector in South Sudan over recent years has shown by the registration of more than 6,000 new firms since 2005. Despite the strong new business growth, the private sector in South Sudan remains dominated by micro and small firms in the retail sector. As in 2010, roughly 93% of registered firms had fewer than six employees. By extension, there is a nearly complete lack of medium or large firms, with only 20 firms having 50 or more employees. The private enterprises are heavily concentrated in the wholesale and retail trade sector, accounting for 70% of registered firms. Another 14% of firms operate in hospitality-related sectors, such as lodging and food service. Less than 5% of registered South Sudanese firms are in industry-related sectors, such as manufacturing, construction, or mining. In geographical terms, nearly two-thirds of private enterprises are located in South Sudan's three largest cities of Juba, Malakal, and Wau. Even in these urban areas, business density remains very low, whether measured in per capita or per household terms. For example, there are only 0.014 businesses

per household in Juba and 0.006 in Malakal. In South Sudan, the government and its donor supporters face a dual challenge of both creating enabling conditions for micro-entrepreneurs to grow and simultaneously preparing the environment for the establishment of larger, formal sectors such as food processing, mining, or light manufacturing (Benjamin Leo, and others, 2012, p.34).

After the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005, a strong commencement of trade activities emerged following the establishment of the Government of South Sudan (GOSS). However, this trade underwent tremendous changes during the period 2005–2010 compared with the investment and trade development activities after the independence in 2011. Since the signing of Comprehensive Peace Agreement, South Sudan's border with Uganda has become a hub of economic activities. After the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement, there was a demand for goods, and South Sudan started to build institutions, to create a range of economic opportunities for Ugandan and South Sudanese traders both formally and informally. In the initial period of post-war South Sudan, small-scale traders from northern Uganda dominated the cross-border trade in Yei, Kaya, Juba, Rumbek and other key towns. This was because these traders lived close to the border. Traders from other parts of Uganda, especially from the central region, soon became aware of the business opportunities in South Sudan. The number of South Sudanese traders engaged in these businesses also increased. Some of them got their supplies from northern Uganda and even travelled as far as the major supply points in Kampala and Kenya. However, non-South Sudanese traders continued to play an important role in trade. The South Sudanese small-scale traders in 2008 were facing highly unpredictable illegal charges and customs, thus becoming an obstacle for most small-scale traders. Moreover, the Ugandan shilling remained the more powerful currency for trading along the border area, thus putting the South Sudanese at a disadvantage. The money exchange business was dominated by Ugandans. The exchange rate became even more unfavorable for the South Sudanese after the replacement of the dinar by the pound (SDG) in 2007. When trade was profitable for Ugandan traders and the volume of goods and services traded were enormous, many Ugandan traders exercised bad behavior and crimes including murder, torture, and robbery, among others. In addition to Ugandans, other business communities engaged in investment and trade in South Sudan mainly Egyptians, Eritreans, Ethiopians, Kenyans and Somalis, as well as other nationals from Africa and beyond. There are plenty of investment and trade opportunities in South Sudan in all sectors. However, many opportunities remain unexploited. South Sudan is searching for committed investors to bring in capital and technology to the country, which will have multiple effects on the economy. Major investment opportunities are in the agricultural business, tourism, trade, energy, education and transport services. For foreign investors to exploit these opportunities, they have to register formally their businesses with at least 31% of local ownership, secure land through partnership with the local community, and

integrate business concepts into the local community by understanding local government policies, regulations, laws and cultural structures. The projected return on investment in South Sudan is high. However, the investor must meet a number of criteria to achieve the business objectives and overall goal that is, a systematic formalization of the business process, an understanding and localization of the business concept, and implementation of the required practices and processes in order to work efficiently within the existing regulations, laws and policies. The business opportunities in South Sudan have continued to grow and expand as the business environment improves, creating considerable economic opportunities for various traders. For instance, in 2010, there were about 2,136 businesses registered compared with only 136 in 2005. There were just three private vehicles in the entire city of Juba in 2005, but latter thousands of private cars exist. In 2005, there were no airlines flying to Juba International Airport, but today there are over 30 operators flying to Juba with the vast majority being foreign airlines. There were no hotels in Juba in 2005, but by 2010 there were over 40 hotels in the city. The small-scale enterprises have equally grown and some enterprises have managed to meet the initial minimum investment capital requirement of about USD 100,000. Ugandans continue to provide services as well as running businesses in several major sectors in South Sudan. Ugandans provide excellent and quality skills-based services such as auditing and accounting, electrical, mechanical, design and health services, entrepreneurship, driving, carpentry, civil works and many others. The Government of South Sudan has continued to maintain and promote its willingness to foster small-scale informal trade activities with its neighboring countries. The government of South Sudan particularly the top leadership has willingness to allow informal Ugandan traders to operate businesses in Juba and other towns as a gesture of goodwill between Uganda and South Sudan that has existed over many years. Since independence, South Sudan has embarked on institutional development to support trade and investment. The South Sudan Investment Authority (SSIA), the Judiciary, Police Departments and many others are examples of institutions that support foreign investors and provide incentives for formal enterprises which succeeded in fulfillment of the investment requirements. The South Sudanese market is of strategic importance to Uganda, particularly as it has helped to create markets for agricultural and manufactured products. Ugandan and South Sudanese traders have continued to increase foreign exchange inflow. The strategic importance of South Sudan has not been exploited by foreign investors to the required level. The trade is gradually shifting towards international markets such as China, France, India, Malaysia and the United Arab Emirates (International Alert, 2014, pp.14-23).

## **Chapter Five**

### **Donors' Contribution to Development in South Sudan**

**5.1 Multilateral Donors: United Nations (UN) Agencies.**

**5.2 Bilateral Donors: International Development Agencies.**

**5.3 International Non-Governmental Organizations (INGOs).**

**5.4 National Civil Society Organizations (NCSOs).**

**5.0 Introduction:** This chapter has given much concern to contribution of donors such as multilateral donors (United Nations (UN) Agencies); bilateral donors (international development agencies); international non-governmental organizations (INGOs); and national civil society organizations (NCSOs) to economic development in South Sudan.

**5.1 Multilateral Donors: United Nations (UN) Agencies:**

**5.1.1 World Bank:** Mostly, the World Bank contributed to South Sudan development process through Sudan Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) and Multi-donors Trust Funds (MDTFs). Such contribution is detailed as under.

**5.1.1.1 The Sudan Joint Assessment Mission (JAM):** The Sudan Joint Assessment Mission was conducted by the World Bank and the United Nations with active involvement of the two Comprehensive Peace Agreement parties. The Joint Assessment Mission is a comprehensive assessment of the post-conflict reconstruction and development requirements for the transitional recovery and the consolidation of peace.

The ambition of the Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) is to provide a framework for attaining broad-based growth, poverty reduction and sustained human development towards the Millennium Development Goals, which firmly grounded in the historic Comprehensive Peace Agreement. The document is called "Framework for Sustained Peace, Development and Poverty Eradication", which providing an assessment of the causes of conflict in Sudan, highlighting the historic underdevelopment of South Sudan and its exclusion in decision-making. The Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) addresses issues of governance, security, decentralization, human rights and gives suggestions for the resolution of disputed areas. It also comprises a concept for a poverty eradication strategy that emphasizes on issues such as ensuring macro-economic stability, creating an environment for private sector promotion, implementing comprehensive capacity-building and institutional strengthening programs, and empowering local communities and vulnerable groups. The total development plan was estimated at USD 7.9 billion, most part of which should be financed by the Government of National Unity (GONU) and the Government Southern Sudan (GOSS). The Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) expresses the need to increase peace dividends by reallocating defense resources to pro-poor spending. This means shifting expenditures towards pro-poor and development priorities as the amount budgeted for defense declines. But in fact, due to the lack of transparency of the Government of Southern Sudan budget management and reporting, the situation did not effectively enhance. On the contrary, it is believed that defense spending has increased in 2006 amounting to approximately 30% of all federal expenditures (2.9% of GDP). This increase was explained in the lines of increased efforts to support demobilization programs, but even the World Bank was not able to confirm this hypothesis. The positive feature of the Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) process is that it brought northern and southern



parties as well as other stakeholders together around a common framework for reconstruction. However, the disagreement regarding the degree of ownership sensed by national actors and on the level of involvement of civil society, in fact, critics point out that the lack of ownership led to a growing irrelevance of the Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) in the face of changing government priorities. Others critiques stress the limited attention to prioritization within the Joint Assessment Mission (JAM). Even if some elements of prioritization and sequencing are contemplated or considered in the plan, representatives of both bilateral donors and multilateral institutions commented that the framework was still too wide. Prioritization is not only essential in an environment of limited implementation and absorption capacity, but would also facilitate aid coordination.

The positive side that the Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) has successfully provided was the shared framework for the understanding of Sudan's problems and development needs, even if the degree of ownership of the document was contested. The Joint Assessment Mission (JAM) is widely used as a reference for policy-making by the different stakeholders involved in the South Sudan and Sudan's development. But the lack of clear prioritization has affected negatively aid coordination and has given space for feeble (very weak) political commitment from the side of the Sudanese authorities. While security and defense spending are still of major concern for the Government of Southern Sudan, the lack of accountability and transparency leads to a weak implementation of the Joint Assessment Mission's more direct pro-poor suggestions.

**5.1.1.2 Multi-Donors Trust Funds (MDTFs):** The Multi-Donors Trust Funds are mechanisms created to implement the suggestions of the Joint Assessment Mission (JAM), and they were administered by the World Bank. The Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) facilitated the creation of two Multi-Donors Trust Funds, one for the Government of National Unity (GONU) and the other for the Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) to provide funding for priority projects and programs that are both pro-peace and pro-poor.

The strategy for the Southern Sudan Multi-Donors Trust Fund involves the establishment of core effective public sector administration, investments in priority sector programs such as infrastructure, education and health, investments to generate social capital or access to education and supporting programs for the development of the private sector and the transition from subsistence-livelihoods to a development-oriented economy.

One of the main aims of the administration of the World Bank to the funds was to ensure donor coordination until 2011. While the Multi-Donors Trust Fund projects are claimed to have a good thematic and sectoral balance, the Multi-Donors Trust Funds are widely criticized even by the World Bank itself for having a very slow rate of disbursement and for having so far, very few tangible results. Pledges for the period between 2005- 2007 amounted to USD 611.7 million. Only, in 2006, USD 14

million had been disbursed by the Multi-Donors Trust Fund-Northern, while the Multi-Donors Trust Fund-Southern had disbursed USD 46 million. According to the assessment which was conducted by the Ministry of International Cooperation of South Sudan claims that after two years of functioning; only 7.2% of the pledges to the Multi-Donors Trust Funds were spent by implementing agencies, and the high expectations have been met only to a very limited extent. While the Multi-Donors Trust Funds was expected to be the only single aid instrument, a mid-term evaluation of the Joint Donor Team in 2009 claims that half of the aid is indeed taking place outside the Multi-donors funds, especially through bilateral funding or through other pooled funding, such as the Basic Services Fund (BSF) led by Department of Foreign International Development and supported by the governments of Norway, Canada and the Netherlands which has pledged and spent USD 28 million for the period between January 2009 and June 2010. The implementation of the funds pledged by donors through the Multi-Donors Trust Funds is done through United Nations' agencies, the governmental and Non-Governmental Organizations. By the end of 2007, more than one third of Multi-Donors Trust Funds grant commitments was being managed or implemented by United Nations' agencies.

During the earlier years, the World Bank and the United Nations' agencies had difficultly, reached consensus on legal agreements, which in part played a role in the observed delays in the implementation of projects. On the other side, the World Bank claims that as the Multi-Donors Trust Funds are fully embedded in the state budgets, the government budget allocation, procedures, decision-making processes and the generally, low capacity at government level have caused the delays in projects implementation too.

In fact, the World Bank's mechanisms of control and accountability are very difficult to meet, especially in the context of South Sudan. For this reason the World Bank acknowledges that it has to revise the trade-offs between delivering short-term results and longer-term objectives of capacity building and sustainability. In a very recent, the World Bank has not being satisfied with its own management of the Multi-Donors Trust Funds. The idea of having a Multi-Donors Trust Fund is an important effort for the achievement of international aid coordination under a single strategic framework. Unfortunately, the implementation has been more challenged than imagined. The administration of the World Bank to the funds in coordination with the Sudanese authorities and other United Nations' agencies has brought a certain level of bureaucracy. But considering the fact that the Multi-Donors Trust Funds have helped to deliver visible important results within a limited six-year interim period, more flexible mechanisms for project approval and fund disbursement have been envisaged, and a better prioritization of the development needs within the Joint Assessment Mission have probably helped to solve the trade-offs between the need for quick visible results and a long-term development vision (Nahuel, Arenas-García, 2010, pp, 11-14).

**5.1.2 United Nations Development Program (UNDP):** United Nations Development Program (UNDP) has provided technical and operational support to the South Sudan referendum that held in January 2011, which marked the culmination of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) and presented a historic opportunity for self-determination for the people of South Sudan. United Nations Development Program (UNDP) managed the USD 58 million basket funds for South Sudan referendum, and provided support for the functioning of the South Sudan Referendum Commission (SSRC) and of South Sudan Referendum Bureau (SSRB). This include technical and material support for civic and voter education, media and monitoring training, as well as logistical and operational assistance for referendum planning and administration (UNDP Report, 2010, p. 29).

Working with partners, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) interventions were concentrated on reduction of food insecurity in South Sudan as well as enhancing and building capacity; increasing agriculture and livestock productivity; reducing post-harvest wastage; promoting a public private partnership; conflict intervention in the livelihood; and facilitating production of a communication strategy. All these are discussed in details as below.

(a) **Enhancing and Building Capacity:** The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) provides an appropriate technical and financial support in drafting laws, policies and guidelines especially those related to access to land which can encourage private investment in agriculture and livestock production. The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) uses regional and international networks to provide the appropriate models that can be replicated to suit location conditions for sustainable land utilization to increase food production.

(b) **Increasing Agriculture and Livestock Productivity:** There are several institutions working on initiatives to increase food productivity. The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) collaborates with such agencies and institutions especially in provision of training on innovative technologies. This has done in conjunction with training institutes at concerned state levels by using a combination of methods such as extension services, field demonstrations among others. This program has built community-based extension cadre to impart (pass) basic knowledge and skills to improve household food production. The trained personnel offer extension services at the state and lower levels. The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) also collaborates with partners to support a research program linked to farmers that is geared towards increasing crop productivity and livestock breed upgrading.

(c) **Reducing Post-harvest Losses:** The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) provides appropriate support on handling and improved storage facilities to reduce post-harvest losses. This includes handling of perishable commodities such as milk, vegetables, meat among others. The improvement and promotion of production and marketing of milk and dairy products includes milk

hygiene and safety to reduce losses; provision of the commodity to the available markets to provide income to the livestock keepers. The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) supports scaling up of initiatives such as cooperative movements to assist small-scale farmers in accessing inputs and markets for their products. Value-added was the ultimate objective of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP)'s intervention.

(d) Promoting Public-Private Partnership: To ensure participation of the private sector in agriculture and livestock production and value-addition, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) collaborates in the provision of the necessary support to create awareness of the importance of Public Private Partnerships (PPPs). This could facilitate the creation of an enabling legislative and policy framework to unlock the potential in Public Private Partnerships (PPPs) especially investment in large irrigation projects, food processing, hides and skins tanning to boost food security and employment in the country. The Public Private Partnerships (PPPs) hold the potential to invest in other sectors that need huge investment outlays which the government is unable to undertake. The government only needs to create conducive environment for the private sector to thrive or develop and progress.

(e) Conflict Intervention in the Livelihood: The role of United Nations Development Program (UNDP) incorporates conflict interventions in livelihood programs which include provision of basic infrastructure such as water for livestock, which is a trigger of conflicts. Peace-building has been done together with introduction of economic activities for the youths and has backed up with monitoring activities to detect and help contain security threats which require conflict early warning systems as well as security mechanisms to deal with impending events.

(f) Communication Strategy: The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) work initiates development of a communication strategy to ensure that the initiatives undertaken are communicated and disseminated not only to the beneficiaries but to other potential stakeholders to encourage scaling up of works. Particularly, this focuses on the extension and community development to orientate rural development that focusing on agriculture and livestock. The main thrust to communicate to the farmers and livestock keepers the new ideas and practices in order to improve their living conditions (UNDP Report, 2012, pp. 27-28).

**5.1.3 United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA):** The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) plays a key role when it comes to development of human resources for health and health training institutions in South Sudan. United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) has been active in South Sudan for two years. The Midwifery Program is the flagship of United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA). The program has four Components including education in which the organization supports midwifery training in Juba, Wau, Maridi and Kajokeji. The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) is not an implementing partner, but funding the training institutions with monetary support from the

Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) engages implementing partners such as International Medical Corps (IMC) and other organizations in the training of health sector working force. Regulation was another area that in which the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) provides technical assistance to the Ministry of Health particularly the Directorate of Nursing. The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) has also assisted the Ministry of Health (MOH) in the development of strategic plans for each school or training center. The organization supports the work on an in-service training manual which elaborated by the University of Southampton in United Kingdom (UK). In the area of advocacy the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) has provided technical support to help Ministry of Health (MOH) to draft the bill for nurses and midwives. Also the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) has been supporting the establishment or the foundation of the South Sudan Nurses and Midwives Association (SSANAMA). The association has branches in all the ten states. In addition to this the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) is supporting midwives in health facilities around the country. Medical doctors are also sent for higher studies with funding from the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) (Bodil Tveit, and others, 2014, pp. 21-22).

**5.1.4 World Health Organization (WHO):** The main objective of World Health Organization (WHO) country Office in South Sudan is to train medical doctors for specialized training in obstetric and emergency care. At present time, twenty doctors are sent to Ethiopia for training. Currently there is an ongoing restructuring of maternity units and maternal waiting centers with funding from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). World Health Organization (WHO) is responsible for four state hospitals in Wau, Bor, Yambio and Malakal. Maternity wings have been renovated. Being a pilot project, the maternity wings have twenty four (24) beds and the maternal waiting homes have thirty two (32) beds (Ibid, p. 24).

**5.1.5 United Nations Security Council (UNSC):** The United Nations Security Council (UNSC) has adopted a series of resolutions dealing with the conflict in Sudan. The more pertinent to the issue of South Sudan was the adoption on November 19<sup>th</sup>, 2004, of Security Council Resolution no (1574), which provided support for the implementation of a Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005. The resolution was adopted at a meeting in Nairobi, Kenya, and was only the fourth meeting held outside its New York City headquarters since 1952. Based on the resolution no (1574) and the involvement in several peace initiatives in Sudan, the United Nations (UN) participation in the creation of the Republic of South Sudan has been critical. The legal framework was established with the Referendum Act, and the Southern Sudan Referendum Commission (SSRC) was formed at the national level. The United Nations Security Council (UNSC) has also adopted resolution no (1674) on the protection of civilians in armed conflict, which contains the first official reference to the responsibility

to protect. This resolution was cited when resolution no (1996) was adopted on the eve of the birth of the Republic of South Sudan, when the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) welcomed the new state and reaffirmed its strong commitment to the sovereignty, independence, territorial integrity, and national unity of the Republic of South Sudan. It also noted that national ownership and national responsibility are key factors to establishment of sustainable peace and the primary responsibility of national authorities in identifying their priorities and strategies for post-conflict peace building. Yet the same motion also deplored the security situation in the region and emphasized the need for clarity regarding the roles, responsibilities, and collaboration between United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) and the United Nations (UN) Country Team. The United Nations Security Council (UNSC) further determined under Chapter Seven (VII) that the situation in South Sudan continues to constitute a threat to international peace and security in the region. The United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) was supposed to operate for one year; but on July 5<sup>th</sup>, 2012, the resolution no (2057) was passed which extended the mission for another twelve months. The United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) main mandate is to establish the conditions to strengthen the capacity of the Government of South Sudan (GOSS), as well as assist and advise on the fulfillment of its responsibility to comply with international humanitarian and human rights law (Mario Silva, 2014, pp. 82-83. See: <https://www.scholarworks.law.ubalt.edu>)

**5.1.6 United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS):** The United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) was deployed in 2005 after the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) between the Government of Sudan and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM) that ended more than 20 years of war. The Naivasha Agreement established South Sudan as an autonomous region of Sudan, and the mandate of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement consisted of four main issues which were implementation of ceasefire between North and South Sudan; facilitation of the delivery of humanitarian aid; assistance to demining; and protection of civilians and human rights, including a safe return of internally displaced persons (IDPs) and refugees. The mission was decentralized in terms of its deployment locations and management structures. The strategic headquarters were based in Khartoum. The majority of staff was deployed across the ten states of South Sudan, including the county levels as required. In South Sudan there was tribal conflict which affected some states mainly the Jonglei and Upper Nile and the Government of South Sudan (GOSS) was unable to restore security while the violence increased. The events followed the general elections in April 2010 have been preceded by tribal violence in Jonglei, Lakes, Upper Nile and Warrap state. Isolated cases of post-election violence were limited to a few states, such as Jonglei and Unity. In this confused situation, several armed groups emerged such as the Lord Resistance Army (LRA), the Joint Integrated Units, and others and exerted pressure on the government. In January 2011 the independence of South Sudan

was formalized with the referendum that in which more than 98% of the voters choose to create a new state, separated from Sudan. On 9<sup>th</sup> July 2011, after the culmination of a six years peace process, South Sudan finally became a new country. The government of Sudan accepted the independence of South Sudan, and immediately, withdrawn its consent for United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) to continue. At the same time, the mission turned into the United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS), with the adoption of resolution no (1996) in 2011. The Security Council authorized 7,000 military and a 900 civilian police personnel force for United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS), now headquartered in Juba, from contributing countries such as India, China, Bangladesh, Kenya and Russia which were divided into three sectors; each sector having the same area of responsibility as it did during United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS). The United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) mandate is to support the Government of the Republic of South Sudan in exercising its responsibilities for conflict prevention, mitigation, and protection of civilians. The United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) peacekeepers have been entrusted with two distinct responsibilities. Firstly to consolidate peace in the concerned state as a pre-requisite for state building and economic development, and secondly to assist government authorities in exercising their responsibilities to prevent and mitigate armed conflict and protection of civilians. The Chapter Seven (VII) mandate, allowed the United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) to undertake operations to protect civilians, while the government wanted the United Nations (UN) to focus more on the problems lying with the contested borders rather than internal security problems. Moreover, security provided by the blue helmets is critical to long-term stability and economic development of the country which is affluence with vast agricultural land, natural resources of oil, water, Gum Arabic, and minerals. The United Nations' peacekeeping forces are located in fourteen counties. The blue helmets are available in the northern of the country like Melut County, in the southern such as Yei, in large counties like Raga, in smaller ones like Rumbek Centre, in the coastal such as Yambio, and in internal areas like Bor Town. The deployment of blue helmets in the country is a permanent policy. Throughout the period between the years 2007-2011 there were no changes in the deployment of the United Nations' peacekeeping forces. This is because when a headquarter has established it is costly to remove it or move it somewhere else; fixed costs, communication networks and infrastructures contribute to reduce the mobility of the United Nations' peacekeeping forces. The largest share of the blue helmets is deployed in the three regional capitals of Juba, which is also the national capital, Wau and Malakal. At the same time, there is no any diffusion of the presence of United Nations' peacekeeping forces across counties, and their size is quite stable. A plausible motivation for this reshuffle is that rising violence was expected in 2011, due to the approaching of the referendum. Instead of establishing new

headquarters, it seems that the command rationalized the composition of the United Nations' peacekeeping forces (Raul Caruso and others, 2012, pp, 8-11).

**5.1.7 United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF):** The major focus of the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) was on the education sector to ensure progress in the development of education systems, policies and institutions, in order to facilitate increased enrollment, learning and completion of primary and secondary education for boys, girls and youth. Significant progress was made on the legislative and policy environment, the Education Management Information System (EMIS), and efforts to sustain the learning processes in humanitarian environments through the education cluster approach. The program focused also on improving the quality and relevance of education with the results such as enhancing the capacity of education managers, teachers and parent associations; establishing child-friendly learning environments; and developing a life skills program. Progress on gender parity including Girls' education received priority in the formulation of legislative and policy documents, notably the Education Bill and the Higher Education Bills, have been enacted. The Education Sector Strategic Plan dedicates a chapter to gender-related issues. Girls' Education Day, celebrated at the national level and in all states, was the culmination of a variety of national programs on gender issues. Teachers, education managers and parent-teacher associations' members were trained on creating and sustainable gender-sensitive school environments. Advocacy efforts focused on increasing the proportion of female teachers and head teachers were also undertaken. The gender discourse is facilitated by the availability of comprehensive and gender-disaggregated education data, produced through the United Nations Children Fund-driven Education Management Information System (EMIS). Temporary learning spaces have been used to address the education needs of returnees and children in areas where there are no schools. The schools and learning spaces are also designed as centers of convergence for other sectors such as health, water and sanitation (WASH), and child protection. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) hands over to the Government the South Sudan the Institute of Education, a facility that provides much-needed in-service programs that constitute a significant contribution to capacity development. As co-chair of the Education Donor Group, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) supports government efforts to coordinate development partner programs to develop capacity, including infrastructure development and training programs. At the advocacy level, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) has focused on girls, preschool children and those with special learning needs. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) is co-chair of the Education Donor Group, which brings together the major donors in education like the United Kingdom Department for International Development (DFID), the European Union, the Japan International Corporation Agency (JICA) and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The partners meet once each month to coordinate efforts to



support government; to ensure harmonization of education development; to review programs; and to share information and build collaborative efforts as opportunities arise. This forum was instrumental in the development of the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP), and has clear plans in place to support the Government in joining the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) and to take advantage of regional groupings for education support. The group is also effective in knowledge generation, which is freely shared, and also supports joint initiatives such as the global conference on language of instruction, planned for 2012, and the global conference for education in emergencies held in 2010. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) was the convener of the Education Reconstruction and Development Forum for the last five years. The forum brings together, two or three times each year, all the state ministers of education and their senior officials; non-governmental organizations (NGOs); faith-based organizations (FBOs) working in education; and other significant educational stakeholders. The forum debates policies and pertinent issues and recommends changes to the Government. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) as convener has successfully changed the constitution of the forum. A forum for the ten state ministers of education and the national minister of education has been created, and thematic working groups have been revived. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) has continued to fund these meetings and provide technical support. The forums have in the course of the year been supportive of the plan formulation process. Partnerships with other United Nations agencies including sector plan formulation and peace education with the International Institute for Education of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); school construction projects with the United Nations Office for Project Services (UNOPS); contributions to the preparation of the South Sudan Development Plan in collaboration with the United Nations Development Program (UNDP); and youth programs with the International Labor Organization (ILO) have been developed. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) co-chairs the education cluster with Save the Children, brings together many Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) to produce a coordinated response to education in emergencies. Inter-agency collaboration remains strong with the partners such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO); the United Nations Development Program (UNDP); the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR); the World Food Program (WFP); the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA); and the International Organization for Migration (IOM). Strong partnerships exist with Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), like the Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA), the Ananda Marga Universal Relief Team (AMURT), Caritas, Christian Aid, the Diocese of Rumbek (DOR), Episcopal Church of Sudan (ECS), the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), Mercy Corps, Nile Hope Development Forum (NHDF), Norwegian Church Aid (NCA), the Norwegian Refugee Council

(NRC), Oxfam, Save the Children, the Stromme Foundation, Winrock International (South Sudan BRIDGE), World Vision, the Jesuit Refugee Service (JRS), Windle Trust International and Catholic Relief Services (CRS) as well as others. All these partnerships were significant because they have allowed the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) to extend its reach and to be more effective in the programs implementations. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) engaged the International Institute of Education Planning (IIEP) to provide technical leadership, and it also funded and convened national and state-level workshops to support the formulation process of the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP). Through an inclusive and participatory approach, children and youth articulated their expectations. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) provided funds and technical assistance for the engagement of additional support for in-country coordination of the consultation process and for the capacity assessment study. The sector plan has been designed to provide education opportunities for all children and youth as well as adult literacy education for parents. It challenges the government of South Sudan to raise its budget levels in line with the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) thresholds. The plan addresses the universal goals and objectives of education. Efforts to improve quality education including teaching children problem solving skills and connecting them to the Internet have been made. Capacity development was a major priority, along with efforts to position the country to access global resources within the education for all (EFA) frameworks. The Education Management Information System (EMIS) continues to be one of the flagship programs and is pivotal (important) to national education planning and management. The census was conducted according to plan, and preliminary results were published. Progress was made in piloting the schools register and geographical information system (GIS) mapping. Contributions from the Government of the Netherlands were used to achieve the following specific activities.

(a) A study on out-of-school children: A study on the out-of-school was commissioned by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), which its major preliminary finding is that 66% of children aged 6–11 years old are not in school. The study has been useful for planning, particularly for alternative education projects.

(b) Formulation and dissemination of the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP): The Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) ensures the education in emergencies as mainstreamed education throughout the country. The Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) recognizes the need for comprehensive risk reduction and emergency response strategies within all the priority programs. The plan includes a specific paragraph on risk reduction and emergency response. Targets were set, including the development of contingency plans and emergency education policies as well as a goal of 2% of the sector budget to be dedicated to emergency preparedness and response.

(c) Strengthening the Education Management Information System (EMIS) for South Sudan: three emergency-related indicators were integrated into the national database (number of days disrupted by emergencies, number of classrooms destroyed and school materials destroyed) so as to ensure better data collection and analysis of trends and the impact of emergencies on the sector.

(d) Supporting and sustaining the Education Management Information System (EMIS) for South Sudan and organization of the Education Management Information System (EMIS) training for state ministries of education in the ten (10) states. Training content included collection, analysis and dissemination of the Education Management Information System (EMIS) data to facilitate planning, management, financing, and monitoring of education at all levels.

Funding received from the Government of the Netherlands contributed to the work and development of the education cluster which was co-led by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and Save the Children. The cluster was fully rolled out at the national and state levels. The leadership at the state level was also set up in all ten (10) states, with terms of reference agreed between the state ministries of education, United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) education's officers and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) focal points. The cluster is fully functional in eight (8) of the ten (10) states. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) leadership remains pivotal to the process. Forty Rapid Education Needs Assessments led by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and cluster partners were conducted and experimented on the newly developed Cluster Assessment Tool. In 2011, the tailor-made package of training materials for South Sudan to ensure that the level of materials was appropriate to the capacity was found at the state level benefited approximately 230 education actors, including county education officers, the Ministry of Education, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and United Nations partners. The contribution of the Government of the Netherlands was also utilized to assist the cluster in carrying out and organizing the inland distribution of education supplies to states and counties. The cluster was instrumental in mainstreaming risk reduction and emergency response in the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP). Risk reduction and emergency response is one of the four important special programs identified by the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP), together with gender equality, children with special needs, and environmental education. The final draft of the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) has been finalized in 2012 and shared with development partners and the Government of South Sudan at the national and state levels for final comments. Implementation, financing and partnership arrangements has been put in place to ensure a harmonized approach to implementation, strengthening efforts to secure global funding for the plan and to assist the lobby for additional education resources from the government. For documentation of successes, challenges and lessons learned, the education cluster facilitated an exercise to learn from the experiences of the cluster coordinators, co-lead agencies and

partners. The cluster received some very encouraging feedback from members of the humanitarian country team, including the humanitarian coordinator and key humanitarian donors. The education cluster has developed significantly in the later years and has successfully made the case for the importance of education in acute emergencies. Feedback from the global level also indicates that some of the coordination work done by the South Sudan education cluster has been recognized for its quality (UNICEF, Program Report, 2011pp. 5-9).

**5.1.8 UNESCO:** Shortly after becoming a new nation, the Republic of South Sudan joined the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) as its 194<sup>th</sup> member state in 2011. While the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Office had been functioning in Juba since the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), it has been reinforced and fully operated as the Country Office. The Juba Office is supported by Regional Office of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in Nairobi which covers a number of countries in the sub-region including Djibouti, Eritrea, Kenya, Rwanda, Somalia and Uganda. Throughout the transition period, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has been actively engaged in supporting the Government and people of South Sudan to address humanitarian and development challenges within the Organization's mandated areas of expertise. Activities have primarily been undertaken within the field of Education, culture and media development, and science. Inter-sectorial work to support the reintegration phase of the Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration (DDR)'s efforts was the major initiative for the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) as participation in the building of national identity, conflict prevention, and peace-building. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s work in education has principally involved support for functional literacy policy and practice development and the reinforcement of capacity in education sector planning and management. The organization was more active in the following areas.

**5.1.8.1 Education:** A number of initiatives have been made by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) to focus on the education of a post-conflict environment. Projects completed or underway include the following.

(a) Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE): A major literacy project was initiated by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in 2009, with financial support from the Italian Government to respond to significant literacy needs in South Sudan. The Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE) Project, which was developed within the framework of the United Nations and Partners Work Plan in 2007, focuses on expansion, quality and relevance of literacy programs and support for the development of institutional capacities for literacy and non-formal education. Needs assessment of literacy and continuing education programs and requirements was

undertaken and four capacity-building workshops were held related to curriculum development and data collection and use. Pilot projects on functional literacy for economic empowerment have been implemented with Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) in South Sudan, targeting farmers in Malakal, Upper Nile, and with Education for Development focusing on empowerment of girls and women. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) have also made a documentary film on literacy in South Sudan to be used for advocacy and awareness-raising. The Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE) project culminated with the convening of a National Literacy Conference in 2012, during which the National Literacy Campaign was launched with important targets set for the coming five years. Within the scope of the Conference, three central ideas were identified such as the necessity of appropriate policy and resources; the need for creating a shared responsibility for literacy across all ministries and developmental sectors; and the need to create a culture of reading within South Sudan to satisfy the demand for a literate environment that includes reading for pleasure as well as for required development for livelihoods and employment. The Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE) is a five year program to support the government and its civil society partners in South Sudan. A combination of long-term and short-term program, quick impact activities is focus. It includes the following initiatives.

(1) Support for rapid, quality recruitment and training of literacy and non-formal education (NFE) facilitators, with a focus on providing females and vulnerable groups with quality instructors quickly. The involvement of the university system in South Sudan in training, mentoring and supervising a volunteer corps of facilitators is being explored. The focus of the training would be on effective pedagogy for adult learners, with a heavy integration of effective methods for teaching reading and writing. The creation of Teacher Empowerment Clusters, either face-to-face or online which allows teachers in specific areas to receive short and quick impact trainings, share ideas and engage in peer mentorship is also being considered.

(2) The development and piloting of innovative literacy programs that focuses on identification and integration of functional literacy, especially in rural areas and amongst vulnerable populations. The targeted populations for which programs have been designed include rural women, out-of-school youth, and young adults who are most vulnerable to exploitation.

(3) Piloting, revision, roll-out and further materials development around the newly developed Functional Adult Literacy Core Modules. Supplementary modules would be aimed at literacy for specific skill training areas, such as carpentry, tailoring and food processing. The development of materials specifically for the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO)-supported Pastoral Field Schools and within cattle camps and pastoral communities were also explored; and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) contributes to these potential United

Nations (UN) Joint Programs in these two areas; the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is working with Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) to develop a full proposal that will target the pastoral communities from the Lakes state in 2014. This will begin with an informed research that will help to identify the literacy learning needs as well as the literacy practices in the pastoral communities and help to inform the material writing process. This joint effort was funded by European Union (EU).

(4) Activities that fuse technology, innovation and literacy needs. Interventions in this area include the development of a digital library, a collaboration with the National Bureau of Statistics for the collection of richer and more relevant data on literacy and non-formal education (NFE) to feed into a planning for non-formal education educational management information system (NFE-EMIS) and together with Vivacell (telecommunication company), the literacy program through mobile phones project was created and piloted. the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) together with United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF) involved in the planning and launching of an innovation laboratory in South Sudan in 2012. This innovation laboratory provided a space for United Nations (UN) Agencies, Non-governmental organizations (NGOs), religious institutions, government and other stakeholders to come together to develop creative solutions for the problems in specific areas including literacy. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) plans to link the developed solutions with a specific fund for civil society organizations to implement, monitor and evaluate the solutions.

(5) The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) together with the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) and stakeholders were working to establish a Literacy Trust Fund. This planned fund includes capacity building for civil society organizations on proposal development, including strong monitoring and evaluation plans, and budgeting for the implementation of innovative approaches to literacy program in the areas of the General Education Strategic Plan (GESP) objectives such as facilitators training, materials and resource development and the establishment of literacy centers. For all projects implemented with resources from the Fund, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) requires a solid monitoring and evaluation plan and provides a forum for implementing organizations to exchange information, mentor each other, develop indicators and share resources.

(6) Creating a Culture of Reading in South Sudan, which will focus on innovative approaches such as the aforementioned digital library, support for the development and dissemination of low literacy readers, especially in rural areas, and the introduction of mobile libraries that include awareness raising on literacy through complementary activities such as theatre and the introduction or strengthening of inter-generational reading activities.

(b) Capacity Building towards the Education for All Goals on Literacy: As a follow up to the National Literacy Conference, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has launched the Capacity Development for Education for All programs, which is a two-years program to provide capacity building of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST). Specifically there is a focus on national and state level departments of the alternative education system (AES) to meet education for all (EFA) goals and to reduce the rate of illiteracy by 50% by 2015. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) looks particularly to the areas already identified as objectives within the general education strategic plan (GESP). Within the framework of capacity development for education for all, which has run through the end of 2013, and with an initial allocation of USD 650,000 to support the program, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has organized three sub-national workshops with state-level decision-makers and technical actors. As a result of the workshops, literacy policy ideas were generated and capacity of literacy personnel was planned, management and monitoring and evaluation of the national literacy campaign have strengthened. These workshops further contributed at pinpointing priorities for the campaign and identifying capacity building needs at the local level, as well as activities, partners and budget requirements to ensure its successful implementation. Since addressing adult literacy is one of the strategic goals within the general education strategic plan (GESP), it was felt that a specific literacy strategy was not needed, and a move directly to the policy drafting and action planning was recommended. Accordingly, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), together with the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) and all stakeholders were working on the national functional literacy policy and comprehensive guide which include mechanisms for coordination of the literacy campaign and the action plan process, solid monitoring, and evaluation frameworks with indicators to measure both the qualitative and quantitative impact of literacy initiatives. The development of a set of South Sudan literacy standards also has been completed within the capacity development for education for all programs.

(c) Functional Adult Literacy Program: As the first of the two sub-projects implemented by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) within the United Nations (UN) Joint Project known as Creating Opportunities for Youth Employment in South Sudan, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was asked to develop a set of functional literacy modules that could be used by a broad array of stakeholders. The need for such materials arose from awareness of the dire situation of illiteracy, which was seen by other development actors as a hindrance to their programs in the areas of agriculture and forms of technical and vocational training. Although several literacy programs operated by the Ministry of Education, Science and

Technology (MOEST), it appeared that youth were most in need of functional literacy, which is linked to their daily lives and tasks, rather than more general programming which mainly comprises the adaptation of the formal primary school curricula. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s approach to the development of the functional literacy materials was therefore aimed at building the capacity of the relevant departments in Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, most especially the alternative education system (AES), which is responsible for literacy and non-formal education (NFE), as well as the curricula department. A writing team was convened with representatives from the latter two departments, in addition to representatives from the Department of Gender, Quality Promotion and Development Partners Cooperation as well as the University of Juba's College of Education. Following rapid needs assessments in both rural and urban areas of South Sudan, a curriculum framework and a set of three modules were developed including a foundational module for basic reading, writing and numeracy instruction; a business module with basic instruction on entrepreneurship for the beginners; and a rural module, using content appropriate to the needs of rural learners while integrating literacy skills. A training of trainers (TOT) manual was also developed. The project ended before a full piloting of the materials could be completed, although a plan for this has been laid out. Piloting is underway with several alternative education system (AES) literacy centers, women functional literacy for empowerment pilot projects, as well as within programs operated by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and other civil society actors in both rural and urban contexts. The piloting, revision, training and national roll-out of the Functional Literacy Modules is included as part of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s upcoming five-years program of support for literacy in South Sudan. The development of additional modules to supplement these three, including skills-area specific modules for training such as tailoring and carpentry have been recommended and will also be included in the forthcoming program. Together with the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) celebrated International Literacy Day both in September 2012 and 2013. The celebrations in 2012 included the National Literacy Conference, which laid the foundation for literacy policy and the way forward for South Sudan. In 2013, International Literacy Day was celebrated in Yambio, Western Equatoria under the theme "Literacy for Peace and Nation Building", where the adult literacy policy was officially endorsed.

(d) Integrated Literacy and Skills Development Project for Ex-Combatants: Part of a wider eight-years Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) initiative implemented by the Government of Republic of South Sudan (GRSS) in collaboration with donors, United Nations (UN) agencies and international and local non-governmental organizations (NGOs), a six-month pilot project of the Integrated Literacy and Skills Development Project for ex-combatants is being implemented by the



United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). Through this project, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) contributes technical expertise to the design, delivery and quality assurance of the life skills, psychosocial, adult literacy and vocational skills training components of the initial reinsertion phase of the wider Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) Program. The United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) has established a transit facility in Mapel Area of Western Bahr El Ghazal State to train five hundred (500) ex-combatants in the first three months of Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s support addresses the educational, psychological, social, and economic dimensions of the ex-combatants' experience of transition. The transit facility provides literacy and numeracy training, English language and introductory vocational courses, psychosocial and vocational counseling, and life skills training that includes civic and peace education. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s approach is well integrated to ensure that all short-term objectives of the six-month pilot project are in relation with existing national Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET), literacy and non-formal education (NFE) policies, curricula and systems to promote a successful and sustainable reintegration of the ex-combatants beyond the duration of their first three months in the transit facility. The pilot phase is intended to develop and test the basic learning material and curricula for the program; in a subsequent phase, these materials will be implemented and the number of transit facilities increased to reach the target figure of 150,000 ex-combatants over the eight-year period. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) finalized the development of training materials (including trainer guides, trainee manuals and skills standards for vocational training) and obtained the endorsement of those materials by line ministries such as Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Ministry of Labor, Public Services and Human Resource Development, and Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports. The training of trainers (TOT) was conducted for twenty three (23) trainers in 2013 in all three areas to prepare them for deployment in the training facility in Mapel Area to enable them to run the transit training program. The trainers were recruited by the government through its National Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) Commission. The reinsertion training phase was initiated in April 2013 and the training was officially launched in June 2013 benefiting a total of 290 ex-combatants. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) developed classes based on requests and interests of enrolled ex-combatants in their preferred disciplines including agriculture, electrical installation, carpentry, masonry, animal husbandry, welding and fabrication, auto-mechanic/driving and plumbing. The reinsertion training program ended in September 2013 when 278 ex-combatants graduated and received official certificates from the National

Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) Commission, United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) implemented an impact evaluation of the reinsertion phase to measure the impact and lessons learned from the pilot phase to serve the future roll-out of the program. Based on the lessons learned and the experience acquired, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was designed a similar program with the objective of reducing the high illiteracy rates among the police officers that currently stands at 63%. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) works on a proposal to undertake literacy and life skills programs of 2880 identified illiterate South Sudan National Police Service (SSNPS) employees in Unity State.

(e) Teaching about Human Immunodeficiency Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) in Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Programs: As the second of two sub-projects, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) have implemented and completed the United Nations (UN) Joint Project known as Creation Opportunities for Youth Employment in South Sudan. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was asked to support the Ministry of Labor, Public Service and Human Resource Development (MOLPSHRD) to develop a curriculum module on Human Immunodeficiency Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) to supplement the recently introduced Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) curriculum for South Sudan. An informal working group on Human Immunodeficiency Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) was formed, under the leadership of the Ministry of Labor, Public Service and Human Resource Development (MOLPSHRD), comprised mainly of the Directors of the Vocational Training Centers operated by the Ministry of Labor, Public Service and Human Resource Development (MOLPSHRD), in addition to officials from the Ministry of Education, Science and technology (MOEST) which operates technical secondary schools, as well as non-governmental organizations (NGOs), the Ministry of Health and the South Sudan Human Immunodeficiency Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) Commission. During implementation of the project, it was decided that a more appropriate methodology to be used by trainees should be developed and roll-out of simple materials aimed at behavioral change communication within Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET). A book containing information on prevention, stigma and other topics which correlated with the Ministry of Health (MOH) strategy on Human Immunodeficiency Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) was developed, and a Training of Trainers (TOT) for twenty (20) instructors in the Ministry of Labor, Public Service and Human Resource Development

(MOLPSHRD), the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) centers was held in 2012. The aim of the Training of Trainers (TOT) was to have these instructors pilot the materials, followed by an impact assessment, necessary revisions, further instructor trainings and a national roll-out. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) develops a follow-up project, together with United Nations Human Immunodeficiency Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (UN-HIV/AIDS) to conduct the impact assessment and related activities as well as the inclusion of research on sexual and reproductive health needs and approaches for youth in South Sudan to feed into a broader regional initiative, and the launch of a youth-driven awareness campaign that would see the formation of peer groups from Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) programs and the development of books, posters and training on leadership and peer education for group facilitators. As part of the Eastern and Southern African Commitment process, a Diagnostic Report was developed to provide a regional assessment of the current status of Human Immunodeficiency Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) and sexuality Education for adolescents and young people in the Eastern and Southern Africa (ESA) region. The diagnostic report provides evidence which assists in making a case for the high level ministerial commitment to positive health outcomes for young people in the region by the end of 2013. Two regional meetings have so far been held in Southern and Eastern Africa respectively bringing together civil society organizations (CSOs) representatives from the regions to engage with the Eastern and Southern Africa (ESA) Commitment process and review the 2<sup>nd</sup> draft of the diagnostic report. The East Africa meeting took place in the period between April 9<sup>th</sup> to 10<sup>th</sup>, 2013 and South Sudan was represented by colleagues from the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and from the Ministry of Health (MOH) as well as the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST). The regional report was accompanied by twenty one (21) country reports including that of South Sudan. Countries are requested to validate their country report and the request is that this process is led by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) at country level with support from Human Immunodeficiency Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (UN-HIV/AIDS), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and the United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF).

(f) Education Sector Strategic Planning: Within the framework of a joint agreement with the United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) supported the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) to embark on an extensive sector planning process, beginning in December 2010. Since then, the International Institute for Educational Planning

(IIEP) has been working closely with the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) and providing technical expertise to formulate a comprehensive five years strategic plan for the education sector. The South Sudan general education strategic plan (GESP) has been fully appraised by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) in South Sudan's ten (10) States and endorsed by development partners. The plan sets priorities within the sector over the period from 2012 to 2017 that correspond to and expand upon those education targets set within the South Sudan Development Plan (SSDP). The goal of the general education strategic plan (GESP) is to lay the foundations for a dynamic education sector, the one that responds to the needs of the new nation and contributes to sustainable peace and development. Throughout the development of the general education strategic plan (GESP), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) noted the significant capacity development needs of planners and managers within the Ministry and, in response, designed the Cooperation Program for the Initial Action for the Development of South Sudanese Education Sector.

(g) Cooperation Program for the Initial Action for the Development of South Sudanese Education Sector: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Juba Office, in close cooperation with the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and the International Bureau for Education completed the implementation of a USD 1,054,290 project funded by the Government of Japan. The aim of the project was to strengthen the capacity of central and state level education officials to contribute towards the national priorities outlined in the South Sudan Development Plan and the objectives of the recently developed general education strategic plan (GESP). The project was designed to support capacity development in the following two key staff categories.

(1) For senior policy and decision-makers in relation to policies and strategies in a post-conflict environment such as policies and strategies to integrate conflict that included in curriculum and decentralization strategies.

(2) For technical managers to develop capacity and technical skills in planning, management, monitoring, and evaluation of the general education strategic plan (GESP) at central and state levels. This was undertaken through a series of workshops organized by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) at central and state cluster levels, together with technical assistance and distance training through the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP)'s Virtual Platform. The following activities were implemented.

(i) A national high-level policy and strategy workshop in Juba, including curriculum reform.

- (ii) Three state-level policy seminars in Juba, Wau and Malakal on post-conflict educational policy and planning.
- (iii) Three state-level technical workshops addressing the technical side of enacting the policy.
- (iv) Practical skills development in ten (10) working groups at state levels.
- (v) Distance training through the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP)'s Virtual Platform.
- (vi) The training of one Master's candidate at the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP)
- (vii) A final technical workshop to develop state action plans.
- (viii) An intensive training course on educational planning at the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in the year 2013.

Eight policy seminars and technical workshops were rolled out, reaching a total of 172 of Ministry of Education officials at central and state levels. State-level ministry officials have drafted state-level education sector diagnoses, using information technology (IT) equipment, and supported by a core of six (6) officials of Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) central-level Resources. The program has also ensured the political buy-in and engagement of South Sudan's Minister of Education, as well as State Ministers of Education and State Director Generals for Planning and Budgeting, respectively. The result is an increase in capacity and interest in educational planning in South Sudan's education sector, with galvanized links between the central and the decentralized state levels, and with an important consensus established on curriculum reform. These results are evidence of commitment to education and strong engagement in organizational learning on the part of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST); which is perhaps the single most important premise for building a critical mass of skilled and motivated education planners.

(h) Education Sector Coordination: The development of the general education strategic plan (GESP) has provided an opportunity for education partners in South Sudan to work together and support the ministries in this critical task. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was nominated as deputy co-chair of the National Education Forum (NEF) with the Undersecretary of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) as chair and United States Agency for International Development (USAID), as co-chair too. Coordination of the education sector was previously limited to a budget sector working group on education; an active group of education donors known as education donor group; a much broader group of national and state level actors (the Education Recovery and Development Forum); and education in emergencies partners (the Education Cluster). An education sector working group comprised of the Ministry; donors; United Nations (UN) partners; non-governmental organizations (NGOs) partners and civil society groups did not exist until the formation of the national education forum (NEF) in March 2012. The United Nations

Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) have been working together with the Ministry and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) to establish membership and structures to support the functioning of the group. A teachers education working group has also been established of which the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is a member.

(i) Coordinating Agency for the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) and Learning for All Initiative: The development of the general education strategic plan (GESP) has also served to mobilize donors support to education in South Sudan. On 20 January 2012, the Global Partnership for Education Secretariat informed the Government of the Republic of South Sudan of an indicative allocation of USD 36.1 million to support the country's efforts to provide quality basic education for all. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) committed itself to develop a Global Partnership for Education (GPE). In the framework of the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) application, an appraisal of the final version of the general education strategic plan (GESP) was carried out in August 2012. The general education strategic plan (GESP) was positively appraised and endorsed by the national education forum (NEF). The South Sudan Global Partnership (GPE) program was approved in November 2012. For the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) program, the Ministry formally requested United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF) to act as Management Entity and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) as Coordinating Agency. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has since worked to ensure participation and collaboration of the Ministry, donors and partners in mobilizing funds from the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) as well as other donors such as Qatar and United States Agency for International Development (USAID), who are supporting the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) program. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s role as Coordinating Agency for the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) has also included the Education for All Initiative at country level. The initiative, spearheaded by the United Nations (UN) Special Envoy for Education, Gordon Brown, advocated for increased resources for the nine (9) countries with the highest rates of out-of-school children. The National Education Forum (NEF) prepared key priority proposals which were presented to donors in Washington, in April 2012. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) participated in the meetings and have since been working to mobilize additional resources for education in South Sudan.

(j) Life Skills and Psychosocial Support for Children and Youth in Emergencies: Funded with a total of USD 790,000 from the South Sudan Common Humanitarian Fund (CHF), between January 2012 and September 2013, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has

developed and piloted a set of comprehensive emergency education teacher training materials, specific issues concerning life skills like landmine awareness, hygiene and sanitation, disease awareness and prevention, gender-based violence prevention, communication and conflict-resolution, and psychosocial support on behalf of the Education Cluster. These materials were designed based on multiple assessments and consultations with stakeholders in a number of states. They are intended to equip teachers with the knowledge and skills to support the protection and well-being of children and youth affected by emergencies. Training of trainers from each of the ten (10) states including government and development partners have been held and materials supplied for subsequent trainings of teachers and care-givers to be conducted at state-level, with the support of the United Nations (UN) and Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) partners who have included emergency teacher training within their Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP) funding requests. Once finalized, the content of these materials is intended to be incorporated international pre-service and in-service teacher training curricula as part of ensuring effective emergency preparedness and response.

(k) Youth Peacemaker Network: Together with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Office in Juba, the Whitaker Peace and Development Initiative (WPDI), founded by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Goodwill Ambassador Forest Whitaker has launched a network of youth who are engaged and skilled in conflict mediation and peace-building. Considering that 72% of the South Sudanese population is below the age of 30 years old, the project aims to address the needs of youth with respect to learning opportunities and peace-building skills, which are both key to promote personally and economically beneficial alternatives to violence-prone life-styles. The program is done to develop youth's capacities needed to foster reconciliation and lasting peace through the following activities.

(1) The formation of a youth network that will eventually empowering more than 500 young women and men as peace-leaders, community-builders and global citizens.

(2) Local community projects developed and implemented under the leadership of the network of the Whitaker Peace and Development Initiative (WPDI)-trained youth.

(3) The provision of material support, including Information and Communication Technology (ICT) hardware, infrastructure and micro-finance schemes.

(4) The establishment of a Youth Leadership Forum which shall engage youth in policy dialogue relevant to their own lives. The project is developed and implemented in cooperation with the Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport (MOCYS) and the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) as well as other United Nations (UN) agencies, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) working in this area. Private partnerships have been established with such companies as Ericsson, which provides the youth involved with Information and

Communication Technology (ICT) trainings, laptops, phones and solar chargers, and Zain, a leading mobile telecommunications provider in the Middle East and North Africa, which assists in the establishment of the communication network developed by the Whitaker Peace and Development Initiative (WPDI). Forest Whitaker contributed directly to the organization and the facilitation of the first Youth Peacemaker Network in 2012.

**5.1.8.2 Natural Resources and Environment (Science):** Since the independence and the reinforcement of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s presence in South Sudan, the Juba Office has been in close discussion with relevant ministries, including the Ministry of Petroleum and Mining (MOPM), the Ministry of Electricity, Dams, Irrigation and Water Resources (MOEDIWR) and the Ministry of Interior and Wildlife Conservation (MOIWC), as well as research institutes to explore potential areas of intervention. A number of proposals were developed to enable the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) to contribute in technical expertise in environmental and resource management to the Government of Republic of South Sudan (GRSS)'s development aims. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) pursued various ways to undertake a groundwater mapping project in South Sudan. Concerning the Disasters Risk Reduction in South Sudan, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has planned to provide expertise on the implementation of early warning systems and flood mitigation strategy to the Ministry of Gender, Child, Social Welfare, Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management (MOGCSWHADM). The government has taken the initiative in development of the National Policy on Disaster Management which forms the basis for legislation enabling the Government of South Sudan to have an operational National Disaster Law and its implementation guidelines. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), among others United Nations (UN) agencies were supporting this process through policy and technical advice (UNESCO Country Programming Document, 2014, pp. 20-27).

**5.1.8.3 The Culture:** The cultural program for South Sudan places its main focus on assistance in the establishment of a public culture sector through the development of key institutions and policies and the development of technical capacities for their operation. Other activities are directed towards the fostering a sense of national identity respecting the countries' diversity. The key initiatives undertaken by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) include the following.

(a) **Regional Forum for World Heritage:** The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) worked closely with the African World Heritage Fund and the Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport (MOCYS) to host the Regional Forum for World Heritage in Juba in 2012.



Through the possible fund from the African World Heritage Fund and the Netherlands National Commission for United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the Forum brought together World Heritage Managers and government officials from East African countries including Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Seychelles, South Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda. The aims of the workshop were to discuss the preparation and development of tentative lists of cultural and natural sites of international importance for potential nomination to the World Heritage List, as well as to strengthen the regional network and encourage dialogue among experts to promote the implementation of the World Heritage Convention in the East Africa region. Regional heritage experts, and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) have used the occasion to explore and identify South Sudan's capacity needs in the area of heritage management. During the forum the Government reconfirmed its intention to ratify the international cultural conventions that had been ratified by Sudan.

(b) South Sudan National Museum (Phase One): The fruit of cooperation among the Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport (MOCYS), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the British Council was a project to develop a South Sudan National Museum which its first phase should begin in 2012. This involves in the bringing a team of experts from the British design group metaphor to prepare the conceptual design for the project and to start the participatory process of consulting the community at large on the content of the future museum. As the national museum aims to tell the history of South Sudan and its people, it is critical for as many South Sudanese people as possible to be consulted to provide their inputs and ideas on how this history should be told. At the end of this project, the experts give public lectures at universities, organized workshops with youth, held meetings with government officials and members of assemblies at national and state levels, and conduct field visits. Social media platforms have also been launched to engage young people and especially the large number of South Sudanese living abroad in the discussion. The feedback gathered will be used to inform the design of a museum exhibition that combines the traditional with the contemporary, oral tradition and history with new technologies and modern media which is a laboratory for learning and for experiencing the diversity and rich heritage of South Sudan. Subsequent phases of the project will focus on building the methods for collection of information, developing capacities and policies, creating a virtual museum and outreach initiatives, and constructing a physical space for the museum.

(c) South Sudan National Archives: With generous financial support from the Government of Norway, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) leads the project to develop South Sudan's National Archives in collaboration with the Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport (MOCYS). The project includes not only the physical construction of a building to host the

national archives, but also safeguarding of the collection, policy development and capacity building in archive conservation and management. Until the completion of the permanent Archive premises, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has provided two prefabricated air-conditioned containers to host the historic collection and is monitoring the rehabilitation of temporary storage facilities co-funded by the Prince Claus Fund. In consultation with the project partners, the design brief has been developed and the request for proposals was publicized. Regarding the training of staff, a complete plan has been developed and the United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) provides training to the national staff on how to operate an archive, and the importance of archives for democratic states and national reconciliation. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) have established an agreement with the Rift Valley Institute for the safeguarding and records management of the historic collection.

(d) Radio and Drama for Literacy and a Culture of Peace in South Sudan: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) begins an inter-sectoral program, drawing on its expertise in culture, media and education, which aims to link radio with traditional forms of local stories telling and theatre performance. Historically, story-telling and forms of theatre have been used throughout South Sudan's communities to raise awareness about social issues. With widespread displacement, increasing numbers of people moving away from their villages and a significant segment of the adult generation who are the bearers of these traditions have lost during the conflict; these traditional forms of social interaction are diminishing. By linking them with more modern communication channels such as radio, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) aims to build on the assets of these cultural traditions to enhance the standards of radio program for community outreach and to increase the potential of the radio as a medium for passing social messages within communities.

(e) Arts and Crafts: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) supports the Roots Foundation, the only active Non-governmental Organization (NGO) in the cultural field in South Sudan, to reconstruct the roof of their center after collapsed in early 2013. In 2012, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) inaugurated the first exhibition at its new office premises in Juba. The exhibition was the first arts exhibition in Juba, and presented the first series of works created by the students and teachers of the Fine Arts Department of the University of Juba since independence.

**5.1.8.4 The Communication and Information:** In the field of communication and information, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s interventions have focused mainly on the strengthening of professional capacity within the media sector, particularly, on reporting skills. These interventions include Joint Media Elections Training In 2009, the United

Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) with International Media Support (IMS) conduct a training program for journalists from both South Sudan and Sudan on election reporting. About twelve journalists attended two weeks of in-depth classroom training, accompanied with three weeks of mentored joint exercises. The training helped to reinforce the capacity of Sudanese and South Sudanese print and broadcast journalists to report on the April 2010 elections and 2011 referendum, and as this was the first experience of elections for many journalists, topics covered included the four roles of media during elections such as moderator, monitor, educator and advocate; the Sudanese electoral system and procedures; the media's role in democracy; safety and security issues; and gender-sensitivity. The training also promoted collaboration and networking between media professionals from South Sudan and Sudan. Such joint media elections trainings also need to be necessary for the upcoming elections. Concerning the Capacity Building of the Union of Journalists of South Sudan (UJOSS), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) partners with the Union of Journalists of South Sudan (UJOSS) to implement training for 200 South Sudanese journalists working in private, public and community mass media organizations. The project aims at filling gaps in skills and expertise to enable South Sudanese media professionals to undertake objective journalism of a high standard. Training of trainers sessions have been conducted in each of South Sudan's ten (10) states and focus on methodologies of gathering and disseminating news through print, radio and television (TV) media, as well as knowledge of media laws and journalism principles that help to strengthen balanced reporting. The overall goal is to contribute to the development of democracy and respect for the rule of law in South Sudan by enhancing the news gathering and reporting capacities of its media organizations and professionals. In terms of Media Development Indicator assessment (MDIA) and Media Development Strategy (MDS), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in joint collaboration with International Media Support (IMS) and the Joint Donor Team and with funding from Sweden International Development Agency (SIDA) conduct media development assessment followed by the completion of a Media Development Strategy for South Sudan. A scoping study for the media development assessment has been completed and launched in 2012, running parallel to the development of the Strategy. Both of the processes should be completed in 2013. An inception report for the media development assessment and media development strategy were shared at the launch of the Media Sector Working Group (MSWG) in 2012, which have chaired by the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting (MOIB) and co-chaired by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). A Terms of Reference for the Media Sector Working Group (MSWG) was finalized in preparation for this launch. While the initial activity of the Media Sector Working Group (MSWG) was made to support the completion of the media development assessment

and media development strategy processes, oversees the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the strategy which includes sector budget planning. Following the completion of the National Media Development strategy (MDS) in 2013, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) provides technical assistance for the development of Media Strategy, Action Plan and Monitoring and Evaluation framework, in support of increased attention to the needs of female journalists and other media professionals in South Sudan. In the area of Media Development Institute Curricula, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) provides technical assistance with other partners, including Norwegian People's Aid and International Media Support (IMS), in the establishment of a Media Development Institute. This institute aims to provide a space for journalists to conduct research, as well as in-service training to working journalists. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s technical assistance focuses on the development of the curricula based on the results of completed needs assessments and builds upon the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Model Journalism Curriculum. As part of the project, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) works together with their local civil society partner to establish women's listening groups. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) develops a guidance book and training materials to train newly recruited group facilitators in skills such as promoting active listening and critical thinking, management of group dynamics, and conflict resolution, amongst others. The listening groups aim to provide women, especially in rural areas of South Sudan, with the opportunity to allow their voices to be heard in relation to issues that are important to them. Following a group session of listening to a radio program, they will discuss together and record their reactions which will be sent to the relevant journalists, government officials or guests from the program. Concerning the United Nations (UN) Action Plan on the Safety of Journalists and Issues of Impunity, South Sudan has been chosen as a pilot country for the new United Nations (UN) Action Plan on the Safety of Journalists and Issues of Impunity, due to the continued harassment of journalists and media professionals in the country and the prevailing lack of a legal framework to protect them. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), working together with International Media Support (IMS) focus on the following three core activities within this Action Plan.

- (a) The development and implementation of a comprehensive safety and protection strategy for journalists and media professionals.
- (b) Organizing dialogue and advocacy meetings between media and security forces in its efforts to increase awareness amongst government and state institutions and other key stakeholders with an aim towards combating impunity.

(c) Working to strengthen the draft media legislation and promote it through dialogue and advocacy work. The use of technology and social media platforms will be explored as tools in promoting the safety of media professionals by including them in a comprehensive monitoring and reporting system in South Sudan. Once the media bills are passed, a national campaign to promote them amongst concerned groups and the general citizenry is planned as well.

## **5.2 Bilateral Donors: International Development Agencies:**

**5.2.0 Introduction:** In recent years, several bilateral aid agencies have moved to increase their engagement with the private sector and emphasize on the role of the private sector in overcoming development challenges. In 2010, a number of various aid agencies issued a bilateral donors' statement concerning support of private sector partnerships for development. These donor agencies include Austria, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), as well as the United Kingdom Department for International Development (DFID), Sweden, and Switzerland. These agencies are focusing considerable resources on private sector activity in poor countries and on public private partnerships as innovative mechanisms in the pursuit of development results. In this section the role played by different international development agencies in development of South Sudan is highlighted as under.

**5.2.1 European Union (EU):** In 2005 a European Union Special Representative (EUSR) for Sudan was appointed to reinforce the European Union's diplomatic links with Sudan and the European Union's presence at international level, and to improve the overall coordination with key external actors. In Sudan, the European Union Special Representative (EUSR) mandate was to work with the Sudanese parties, the African Union, the United Nations, and other national, regional and international stakeholders to achieve a peaceful transition under the Comprehensive Peace Agreement. This includes contributing to the full and timely implementation of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) and post-referendum arrangements; supporting institution building, fostering stability, security, and development in South Sudan. The European Union's policy focused on full Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) implementation, establishment of constructive long-term relations between Northern and Southern Sudan, financial assistance to reduce poverty and promote development, provision of humanitarian assistance and support. The European Union program was designed to support the creation of a stable environment during the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) interim period, particularly in the war-affected areas. In the past six years funds have been concentrated on three main sectors such as improving food security and facilitating agriculture development; extending education services; and supporting democratic governance. The European Union's vision was for the development of a peaceful and prosperous Sudan in a stable regional setting, notably through full implementation of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement and agreement on post-referendum issues.

The European Union has largely focused its efforts in Sudan on the aid dimension, while the more political processes have been handled by member countries. In the South Sudan's level, the European Union has provided humanitarian assistance as well as longer-term capacity-building support to the Government of South Sudan and provision of basic services. Beyond the significant financial support that the European Union provides to the people of South Sudan, it is also active in encouraging coordination, in line with the aid-effectiveness principles, between European Union donors and other organizations. With regard to the peace process between Sudan and South Sudan, the European Union strongly supported former South African President Thabo Mbeki's efforts to get both sides to sign up a framework agreement under which they would agree to renounce any efforts to destabilize one another. The European Union's decision was to support President Thabo Mbeki's leading role in trying to facilitate agreement on the post-referendum issues was based on the fact that he was well placed to secure high-level access to both top-leaderships of the two countries to find solutions to the various outstanding issues. The European Union contributed to conflict prevention and peace-building between the Northern and the Southern Sudan by supporting United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) in 2005. More than 40% of the costs of the United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) were funded by European Union's Member States. The European Union has also strongly, focused on the following instruments to support conflict prevention and peace-building in Sudan in general and in South Sudan in particular.

1. Provision of Euro 15 million under the Instrument for Stability to support the referendum and post-referendum process, and to support the provision of basic services in South Sudan as a peace dividend and to support the African Union High Level Implementation Panel.
2. The European Union has continued to provide direct funding to the African Union High Level Implementation Panel led by President Mbeki. The fund was channeled through the European Union Delegation in Addis Ababa, as part of the African Peace Facility instrument.
3. Support under the Peace-building Initiative to encourage dialogue between the parties of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA). Since January 2009 the European Union (EU) has funded a peace-building initiative implemented by the British Non-governmental Organization (NGO) known as Concord International which was working in partnership with the Centre for Peace and Development Studies, at the University of Juba, to facilitate a research-based dialogue at state and national levels, aimed at building trust and understanding between border communities; developing a consensus on principles for how the border should be managed peacefully; and agreeing development initiatives to support peaceful coexistence at the border. A further six-month project (January–July 2011) to stabilize cross-border relations was being implemented by Concord International using funds from the Instrument for Stability. This project aims at contribution to wider efforts to foster stability in Sudan by

providing urgent support to the design and establishment of a North–South border regime that contributes to stability and meets the human security needs of the populations living along the border. Evaluations of the project found that European Union funding at community level had been useful to prevent or help in management of conflict in some of the communities affected by inter-tribal conflict after the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA). On the 22<sup>nd</sup> February, 2011, Informal Development Ministers’ Meeting was conducted in Brussels, and the European Union's Member States agreed to pursue a joint program approach for South Sudan. At the same time, the European Commission presented a document for Euro150 million Special Funds for Sudan program. The new Special Funds for Sudan (2011–2013) allocates 60% of its total Euro150 million to South Sudan. In May 2011 the Council of the European Union also agreed to a Commission proposal to allocate an additional amount of Euro 200 million to South Sudan. Good governance and rule of law was one of the areas for support under the Special Funds program for South Sudan. A European Union inter-services mission visited Juba in February 2011 to make a preliminary assessment of possible additional European Union support to South Sudan after its independence; this assessment includes the areas of stability and security. According to the assessment the conclusion was that South Sudan may face significant stabilization and state-building challenges for a number of years; and the European Union should do more for management of conflict risks, particularly in the volatile North–South border areas; and also the European Union should use its range of instruments to support stabilization in South Sudan, working closely with the United Nations and other donors, and taking account of the Government of South Sudan’s own priorities. On the basis of the meeting in Brussels, consideration was made concerning whether an action can be taken under the European Union’s Common Security and Defense Policy (CSDP) to support South Sudan in the areas of rule of law, capacity building for the police and airport security, particularly Juba airport. The European Union has collectively, made considerable means to help, both financially and technically with experience and resources, through its development programs and its experience in establishment of peace and security in other areas. On economic development, the leading partner was the World Bank and within this group, the European Union plays a particular role in the development of natural resources. On 20<sup>th</sup> June 2011 the Council of the European Union agreed to follow-up a comprehensive European Union approach in South Sudan. The contribution of the European Union in this area was as under.

1. Underpin the development and peaceful co-existence of the two states (Sudan and South Sudan), and to create stable and prosperous states.
2. Continue to support poverty-reduction efforts by the two governments of Sudan and South Sudan.
3. Assist the development of accountable, transparent and efficient government in both states based on respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms and the rule of law; and

4. Contribute to the effective coordination of international support, through a state-building strategy for South Sudan, which has included at the strategic operational plan under the overall leadership of the United Nations (Joost, van der Zwan, 2011, pp, 14-20).

**5.2.2 Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD):** The main goals of Norway's development cooperation with South Sudan are to promote peace and to help in poverty reduction. Approximately 35% of Norway's assistance for the country in 2006 was through multi-donor funds which were administered by the World Bank. The United Nations and Norwegian non-governmental organizations were also important channels for Norwegian assistance. In South Sudan, Norway works closely with Sweden, Denmark, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (UK) and Canada. In the sphere of education in South Sudan, the children education was an important issue particularly, with the refugees and internally displaced persons decide return to home. Through Norwegian non-governmental organizations, Norway has contributed to school buildings and educational materials in various areas of South Sudan to which refugees have returned. Norway has also provided advisers for the Ministry of Education in Juba and study grants for women from South Sudan.

In the area of health where the proportion of births that takes place in the presence of trained health personnel is just 20% in most parts of South Sudan, the Norwegian assistance through Norwegian non-governmental organizations has been provided for the operation of several district hospitals in South Sudan. Norway has also supported a successful campaign against the guinea worm. And as a result of the support from Norway, food security in South Sudan has improved significantly in 2006; and due to the rehabilitation of roads, farmers have been given access to markets and the local economy has grown strongly in many areas. Through Norwegian non-governmental organizations, Norway has supported the construction of corn silos to store corn grains, the organization of sales outlets and the production of simple tools.

In the area of peace and good governance responsible use of oil resources is essential in the country to reduce poverty and the distribution of oil revenues is an important element in the peace agreement between the northern and the southern Sudan. Norway has cooperated with the authorities in South Sudan to ensure greater transparency in the administration and build trust between the parties on these issues. In 2006 Norway also contributed to the building of South Sudan's Bureau of Statistics to enable it to carry out a population census prior to the elections in 2010. Assistance was provided for the participation of Norwegian civilian police in the United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS). For the humanitarian assistance despite the efforts of the international community, in early 2006, Norway provided a substantial contribution to the United Nations Humanitarian Fund for Sudan. Assistance was also provided through the International Red Cross, various United Nations agencies and



Norwegian non-governmental organizations. These funds were spent on water, food and health services, and mine clearance (NORAD Annual Report, 2006, pp, 15-16).

Norway has been involved in development projects since the 1950s. Now the focus areas of Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) is cross-cutting activities such as democracy and good governance, human rights, economic development, environment and natural resources, energy, health and education. Gender is also a main issue in all these areas. Bilateral aid from Norway to South Sudan was NOK (Norwegian Kroner) 705.4 million in 2010. Recently, more organizations have joined the work in South Sudan, such as Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC). There is also strong academic collaboration between universities in South Sudan on the one side, and universities in Norway on the other side. The traditional role of Norway in South Sudan has been as aid donor. However, with the independence of South Sudan, the focus has changed from emergency relief and aid, to state-building and development. The hydropower project is one step in this direction. The River Nile has the potential of 15000 mega watts (MWs) at border town of Nimule, which located at distance of 170 km south of Juba. The hydropower project can be developed to meet the growing demand, and to enable the government South Sudan to have political freedom by reducing general electricity subsidies but still have room and focus for a poverty reduction. In Fula falls the first preliminary studies regarding hydropower development were in the early 1980s. This plan was made by the Norwegian Church Aid (NCA). After the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) was signed, the prospect of hydropower development started to regain interest. Norwegian Water Resources and Energy Directorate, Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD), and the Royal Norwegian Embassy are involved in hydropower development program. Norway has done some feasibility studies to show its impact on the local community. In the area of Fula Falls, there are several interested actors involved such as Snowy Mountain Engineering Company (SMEC) of Australian and Fitchner (German engineering and consulting company) are involved. A large Chinese company has also received a contract, in Bedden falls. In fact, the government of South Sudan views all these projects as a part of the development of South Sudan (Kristin Lauvstad Tufte, 2012, pp. 31 and 89-90).

**5.2.3 Department for International Development (DFID):** Until December 2013, the United Kingdom (UK) through the Department for International Development's program in South Sudan was the second largest bilateral donor in the country after the United States of America (USA). Despite the events of December 2013 that surprised the international community, the Department for International Development (DFID)'s Operational Plan which was drafted at the time of independence in 2011 indicates that the British Government already extremely concerns about the fragility of the country. It was understood that South Sudan was an expensive and high risk environment for development programs, but the potential return on investments could also be very high, and the human and economic

costs of a return could be enormous. While noting in particular the oil-fuelled overspending and corruption, and the need for wise investment to strengthen government systems, infrastructure and human capacity, the Department for International Development (DFID)'s strategic objective for South Sudan over the period between the years 2011-2015 was to help the country in the establishment of stronger foundations for progress with sustainable peace and development. In 2012 the Department for International Development (DFID) began to support for protected access to health and education, and also to increase its investment in governance-related work. The Department for International Development (DFID) does not channel its money through the government of South Sudan, but routing the funds through non-governmental organizations (NGOs), private sector firms and multilateral agencies that have strong financial management systems. The Department for International Development (DFID)'s support focuses on five areas such as strengthening security and access to justice and prevention of conflict; improving service delivery and health and education to transform opportunities for a generation of girls; supporting the improvement of food security, create jobs and promote wealth creation; building accountable, capable and responsive government with a strong focus on tackling corruption; and standing ready to provide humanitarian assistance in response to needs. The obvious relationship between Department for International Development (DFID) and other partners focuses on education and health, which the Department for International Development (DFID) sought to be achieved by 2015. The Department for International Development (DFID) in South Sudan has supported service delivery through multi-donor funds, and the Department for International Development (DFID)-led Basic Services Fund (BSF), which covering health, education, and water and sanitation; and the Multi-Donor Trust Fund, which covering the same sectors as well as others, managed by the World Bank. Both programs ended in 2012. These programs have trained teachers and health workers, but there are gaps in long-term systematic capacity building to improve government service delivery, especially working to improve the quality of service provision, the management of health and education facilities, and accountability at local level particularly the state and county level.

For the sake of these activities the amount of Sterling 5.9 million was provided over three years to cover 70 volunteers to improve the quality of health and education provision and the development of voice for civil society, especially for women and vulnerable people. The Department for International Development in South Sudan was therefore in a good position to link all the interventions that focus on improvement of quality of provision services with existing and new programs in health and education such as the Department's national girls' education project and the Department-led health pooled fund (HPF) for six states. The intervention also focused on especially increasing women's and vulnerable people's voice in seeking accountability at local level that feeding into Department for International

Development's objectives on gender equity and on wider governance objectives such as securing equitable access to security and justice in South Sudan (Irko, Zuurmond and others, 2014, pp, 15-16).

The Department for International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom (UK) in South Sudan was more active in the provision and development of the following areas.

**5.2.3.1 Education:** The Department for International Development (DFID) notes that South Sudan started at the bottom of the world league table for education. The net enrolment rate at primary level is only 44%, and it is slightly over 9% at the secondary level. School infrastructure and staffing are inadequate. Only 23% of existing classrooms are of permanent construction; fewer than 5% of teachers have pre-service training, and 9% have in-service training. The average pupil to classroom ratio is 134:1 and the pupil to teacher ratio is 194:1.6. Textbooks are in short supply, with one textbook available for every four pupils. The Department for International Development (DFID) intends to spend about Sterling 11 million to print and distribute 12.5 million textbooks by 2013. The Department for International Development (DFID) also has a target to support 240,000 children including 180,000 girls in primary education in South Sudan. This would partly, be achieved through the Department's Sterling 37million South Sudan Education Project, which will construct 33 primary schools and four secondary schools in four states. Concerning funds allocation to its development projects, the Department for International Development (DFID) seeks as far as possible to strengthen and complement the existed limited internal capacity within South Sudan.

**5.2.3.2 Health:** Decades of war have left South Sudan's health system extremely weak. There are only 37 hospitals in South Sudan. It is estimated that fewer than 40% of the population have access to basic primary health care services in South Sudan, and that about 70% of health facilities are reliant on Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) for operational support. South Sudan's health outcomes reflect the weak capacity and infrastructure. It has the highest maternal mortality rates in the world with more than one in fifty women dying during pregnancy or delivery. Immunization rates are still low, with only 20% of one-year olds immunized against measles. The Department's Operational Plan sets a target to reach 762,000 people with malaria prevention or treatment interventions by 2015. The department for International Development (DFID) also aims to provide couples with 143,000 cumulative years of protection from unintended pregnancy. One of the Department's major projects for four years is the Health Pooled Fund (HPF). The Department for International Development (DFID) contributed Sterling 82 million to the Health Pooled Fund (HPF), and mobilizes funds from other donors including Canada, Australia, Sweden and the European Commission to reach a total of Sterling 156 million. The aim of the Health Pooled Fund (HPF) is to increase overall access to regular health services in South Sudan from the current 40% to 60% and intends to focus on capacity building in the Ministry of Health and other institutions. In South Sudan the neglected tropical diseases (NTDs) are a

major public health problem. The Department for International Development (DFID) expects to spend about Sterling 4.7million on the neglected tropical diseases (NTDs) Program in South Sudan over three years, which aims to improve the Ministry of Health's capacity to handle treatment and prevention of the neglected tropical diseases (NTDs). Several neglected tropical diseases (NTDs) are endemic in South Sudan, so the Department for International development (DFID) should ensure that South Sudan receives an adequate share of funds to improve health sector.

**5.2.3.3 Girls and Women:** The Department's Operational Plan states that improving women's and girls' access to basic services, economic opportunities and human rights in South Sudan is the top priority. In South Sudan, only seven girls for ten boys attend school at the primary level; five girls for ten boys at the secondary level. And only 9% of girls who enroll at grade one complete primary education. However, in South Sudan some customs and traditions, particularly in rural areas, could act as a barrier. Teenagers' pregnancy is common and 41% of girls are married before their eighteenth birthday. This is because marriages are often arranged by parents in order to collect the bridal dowry typically, several cows. Women and girls also carry and collect most of the household water, with adult women carrying 60% of the burden and girls 8%. The average time spent collecting water can be up to eight hours in areas without water and sanitation, meaning that girls do not participate fully in education. Schools also did not have separate toilets for girls and boys. The Department for International Development (DFID) aims to promote the equality of girls and women through a planned six years Sterling 52 million Girls' Education project to help in the tackling of the economic, social and cultural barriers that prevent girls from going to school and to support 150,000 girls through primary school and 50,000 girls through secondary school. In the health sector, the department plans to strengthen family planning and support for pregnant women, so that 21,000 women have the help of a trained birth attendant when giving birth. The Department for International development (DFID) has also set a target to improve access to justice services for 250,000 women by 2014. The improvement of equality of girls and women is crucial if South Sudan is to prosper, socially and economically, over the next generation.

**5.2.3.4 Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration:** South Sudan currently spends around 40% of its budget on nonproductive activities and just 7% and 4% allocations to the education and health sectors respectively. A sustainable reduction in the size of the armed forces is essential to release resources for investment in development. The Government of the Republic of South Sudan (GRSS), with support from the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS), is currently developing a program to put 150,000 ex-combatants through a Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) process over the next eight years. The Department for International Development (DFID) has been involved in the development of this

strategy. It expects to spend about Sterling 20 million on the Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR), with a particular focus on the reintegration of former soldiers back into communities.

**5.2.3.5 Governance:** Government capacity in South Sudan is extremely limited. Although basic structures have been established, delivery systems across all sectors are either absent or dysfunctional. There is a significant shortage of skilled people in the civil service and in other areas. Nearly half of all civil servants in South Sudan only have a primary education. Many have poor literacy and information technology (IT) skills. Public financial management capacity is also very low, meaning that the Government of the Republic of South Sudan (GRSS) lacks control over its finance. The department provides direct support to the central executive, through high level mentoring to key personnel within the Ministry of Cabinet Affairs, of the Presidency, and the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. It has employed technical consultants, such as Adam Smith International, to undertake this role. The department also supports work to strengthen South Sudan's management of its public finance, including a Sterling 1.5million contribution to an Overseas Development Institute (ODI) program to create more effective, transparent and accountable budget processes and systems. At the state level, the Department provides about Sterling 5 million to a United Nations Development Program (UNDP)-led project to improve the functioning of state administrations to allow, for example, enhanced interaction between the capital and state administrations. More broadly, the Department incorporates government capacity-building measures within development projects in other sectors. Building the capacity of the administration in South Sudan at all levels is essential because the new country will become less dependent on others. The Department for International Development (DFID) uses its leverage and influence to persuade other key donors to integrate capacity building support within their own development projects. It should not only be the responsibility of the key international donors to build the capacity of the South Sudanese Government, but local and regional entities can play the role.

**5.2.3.6 Private Sector Development:** The private sector is still very small in South Sudan; there are only just more than 7,000 registered businesses in the country. The expansion of South Sudan's private sector is important to diversify its economy and reduce the dependency on oil. The Department for International Development (DFID) particularly notes that the development of agricultural and livestock potential is the best engine to diversify South Sudan's economy in the medium term. Large fertile areas of South Sudan remain untouched and only about 4% of potential agricultural land is presently utilized. The Department contributes to several funds that aim to encourage private sector development. It contributes Sterling 6 million over four years to the Africa Enterprise Challenge Fund (AECF) a United States of America (USA)-led private sector fund which aims to catalyze private sector investment in agriculture. The Department also provides Sterling 6 million to Trade Mark East Africa (TMEA),

which assists the Government of the Republic of South Sudan (GRSS) to establish a customs service. About Sterling 5 million has been spent on the Global Small and Medium Enterprise (SME) Financing Program, a program of support for the Global Small and Medium Enterprise (SME) development channeled through the International Finance Corporation (House of Commons International Development Committee, Fifteenth Report 2012, pp.19-26).

**5.2.4 CIDA and DFAT:** The Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAT) have a significant engagement in South Sudan. In 2005, bilateral assistance was increased and in 2008 a program known as whole-of-government approach which was centered on three key objectives, such as containing violence and enhancing security; reducing vulnerability and saving lives; and building longer-term stability and resilience was proposed. The Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade and Canadian International Development Agency, as well as the Department of National Defense and Royal Canadian Police were involved in the program of whole-of-government. To fulfill these objectives, Canada relied on three key pillars such as humanitarian assistance and early recovery; advocacy and peace-building; and support to United Nations peacekeeping missions. This was to reinforce Canadian foreign policy priorities related to the promotion of human rights, freedom, good governance and democracy, as well as responding to the interests of Canadians and the international community to engage in diplomatic, development and peace efforts in South Sudan. The responsibilities of Canadian departments were organized in particular way. The Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade Task Force in South Sudan was responsible for policy coherence, operational support and programming coordination of Canada's whole-of-government engagement, and Canada's diplomacy and advocacy objectives which focused on support to the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA). The Global Peace and Security Fund was considered as the primary instrument for Canada's peace-building program in South Sudan, and more generally supports efforts to strengthen security, peace, justice and the rule of law. The Stabilization and Reconstruction Task Force (START) had overall responsibility for administering the Global Peace and Security Fund. The Department of National Defense (DND) contributed personnel and equipment to the United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS). Through International Police Peacekeeping Program, Canada has contributed officers to United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) to train and mentor local police officers serving in South Sudan. After the independence of South Sudan in 2011, the Task Force's mandate was modified to include South Sudan. Canada has also contributed to United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) since the beginning of the mission in July 2011, and police officers were sent to support the United Nations Mission in South Sudan as well as the United Nations Development Program (UNDP)'s Community Security and Arms Control Initiative in 2005-2013. In early 2014, Canada

extended the Canada's military mandate in United Nations Mission in South Sudan to March 2015. Canada's mission in South Sudan also supports local Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in small-scale projects focused on local priorities and needs through the Canada Fund for Local Initiatives (CFLI), in relation to Canada's foreign policy objectives and bilateral program goals (CIDA/DFATD, 2015, pp. 24-25).

The Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) is mainly involved into maternal and child health and food security actions in South Sudan. In 2010 the organization made the decision to increase its fund. The improvement of obstetrical care and training of more nurses and midwives was principal part of its strategy. The Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) is the only partner which provides fund for the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) program in the area of training of nurses and midwives in South Sudan. In addition to the support of health training institutions, Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) is supporting eight maternity health wards with new buildings, through the United Nations Population Fund (UNDPF) (Bodil Tveit, and others, 2014, p. 24).

**5.2.5 Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA):** Immediately after the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) begins to provide support for the development of both Northern and Southern Sudan. With the goal of enabling as many people as possible to live in a peaceful society, assistance has been provided for highways, water supply systems, job training, education, health and many other fields. Furthermore, aid programs were implemented not only in the major cities but also in rural areas that suffered damage caused by the long conflicts. The South Sudan comprehensive planning and support for urgent projects on socio-economic infrastructure is a responding program to the greatest needs for nation-building. In 2011 after the independence, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) extends cooperation for socio-economic infrastructure development in Malakal town. These projects make improvements in highways, rivers, water supply systems and other elements of the infrastructure. Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) aims to conduct inclusive development for the purpose of meeting the greatest needs for nation-building that are recognized by the government of South Sudan. To perform such development, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) in February 2012 started a project in Malakal town. Following the peace agreement, there was a clear visible progress with development programs in the capital city of Juba. Roads were paved with asphalt, water supply systems constructed and schools reopened. But Malakal town, one of the country's three major cities, is separated both politically and geographically from Juba. Malakal town is located at distance of 600 km from Juba. Furthermore, there is no highway between the Malakal town and Juba City. There was absolutely no a clear declared development policy in the region after the independence. The provision of the dividends

of independence to residents of this geopolitically important town is critical with respect to assist and establishes peace throughout South Sudan. The project aims to establish a comprehensive infrastructure development plan for this town within six months. Other projects take place to improve community roads, rivers and ports, and water supply facilities. Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) therefore plans to assist in the revitalization of Malakal town with three point support consists of infrastructure projects, training and on-the-job training. In Malakal town a water purification facility which constructed before more than 50 years ago supplies very poor quality water. Residents use water directly from the River Nile. South Sudan needs training programs due to the absence of skilled people as a result of more than 20 years conflict. In 2011, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) invited people from the leadership class of the Upper Nile State to talk about how to proceed with reconstruction and development of South Sudan and of Upper Nile Region in particular and to learn from Japan's own post-war reconstruction and development experience. The Malakal town has almost no paved streets and the city location on black cotton soil makes streets impassable even to four-wheel-drive vehicles and donkeys during the rainy season. This situation turns the town into a land-locked region particularly, during rain seasons. The Malakal port is the main harbor for the entire region in rain time. But the old facilities of the port create difficulties for workers regarding efficiency and safety (JICA, Annul Report, 2012, pp, 50, and 71).

Since the year 2012, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) has been assisting South Sudan Television and Radio, which is a state-run broadcaster, to become a public entity and independent from the government, to provide the public with more accurate, neutral, and impartial information. In 2014, experts from Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) were unable to enter South Sudan due to the ongoing armed conflict that broke out in 2013. Nevertheless, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) continued with the project through the provision of training in Kenya, Uganda, and other neighboring countries. During the training, participants discussed challenges that face the transformation of South Sudan television and Radio (SSTVR) into a public broadcaster and the proper steps could be taken for the transformation. The participants selected a few topics that serve the public benefit, in the areas such as agriculture and inter-ethnic reconciliation. And they produced short bulletin programs on these topics. The training allowed the participants to learn the whole process of production, ranging from proposing and drawing a program table to conducting location shooting and editing. The programs which have been produced were aired on South Sudan television and radio (SSTVR). The participants learned how to propose a news project and produce a news program based on interviews with sources rather than government press releases in order to build their broadcasting capacity. In such way, the project attempts to improve the quality of news broadcasting in South Sudan television and radio (JICA, Annul Report, 2015, pp, 106).



**5.2.6 United States Agency for International Development (USAID):** The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) is the largest bilateral aid agency in the world, which has a long tradition of working with the private sector. The agency concentrates on resource efficiency program which focuses on sustainable development, broad-based economic growth, democratic governance, game-changing innovations, and sustainable systems for the meeting of basic human needs. In the viewpoint of the agency, the economic growth is the only sustainable way to accelerate development and eradicate poverty. The United States of America Government has changed its policy or the way of doing business; by shifting from aid to investment with more emphasis on helping of the hosted nations to build sustainable systems. In addition to the various initiatives being pursued by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the Global Development Alliance (GDA) is one of key mechanisms for the development of partnerships with private sector actors. Since the creation of the program before more than ten (10) years ago, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) becomes a leading agency among development agencies in the world. In 2011, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) becomes a leader in creating public-private partnerships. The approach of the United States Agency for International Development (USIAD) recognizes the importance of the private sector flows to developing countries, and the ways in which official aid can be used as a lever to maximize development benefits. (The Standing Committee in the House of Commons, Report on Foreign Affairs and International Development, 2012, pp. 8-9, and p 50).

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) is one of the most important donors in South Sudan which contributes in many areas and focuses particularly on security and economic growth. The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) activities link the isolated communities and facilitate an enabling environment for the market development, through improvement of roads, assistance in electrification, agricultural support, bolstering of private sector competitiveness, support for improved land policies, and promotion of better environmental management of the Boma area in Jonglei State and its rich biodiversity (Ministry of Environment, Environmental Impacts, Risks and Opportunities Assessment, 2012, pp. 56-57).

In terms of energy power, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) helps South Sudan to build independent electrical systems in cities such as Yei, Kepoeta, Malakal, and Maridi. The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) works with Citibank, the International Finance Corporation (IFC), the Corporate Council on Africa, and others to help the country to market its resources and attract private capital in the key sectors, such as agriculture. Through the partnership with the World Bank, African Development Bank, European Union (EU), and Japan, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) also organized specific

private sector investor conferences, including the conference on agriculture (The Oakland Institute, 2011, p. 18. See [https:// www.oaklandinstitute.org](https://www.oaklandinstitute.org)).

**5.2.7 The Spanish Development Cooperation (AECID):** The year 2006 saw the reopening of the Spanish Embassy in Sudan, and in 2010 a framework cooperation agreement to facilitate the development of new bilateral cooperation programs was signed. The presence of the Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation (AECID) is limited to a satellite office in the capital of the Republic of Sudan, Khartoum, under the Technical Office of Ethiopia. This office consists of two people, one responsible for development and other projects of humanitarian action. Both people are in charge of both the Spanish cooperation projects in the Republic of Sudan and the Republic of South Sudan. In the fact; up-to-date the two officials have not been able to cover the place of the person responsible of the programs created by the Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation (AECID) in South Sudan. At the strategic level the last document approved by the Spanish Cooperation was the Special Action Plan on Sudan for 2006-2008. The Special Action Plan on Sudan highlights the comparative advantage of the cooperation which focuses on the democratic governance, with explicit statement on conflict prevention and peace building in South Sudan. The plan also outlines the support to South Sudan through the Multi-donor Trust Fund, and the regional priorities of the states of Bahr el Ghazal and Bahr el-Jebel (Central Equatoria State). Moreover, the plan recommends the concentration of the work of Spanish Cooperation on Bahr el Ghazal, and Central Equatoria, to increase the impact that has been achieved through the work of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as Oxfam, the African Medical and Research Foundation (AMREF), and the Red Cross in the fields of education, health, and water and sanitation. The current presence of Spanish Cooperation is characterized by lack of development strategy and lack of staff in South Sudan. The lack of field visits affected the key tasks, such as assessment of proposals presented to the Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation (AECID) by Spanish non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and the monitoring of projects. In 2008, the Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation (AECID) requested the participation of all non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to contribute to the process of monitoring and evaluation of the activities of the agency in Sudan, but up-to-date no response has been received from the non-governmental organizations. In coordination with the European Union (EU), the geographical concentration of the Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation (AECID)'s development projects in South Sudan is in the state of Lakes, which gives priority to rural development. The bulk of the Spanish Official Development Assistance (ODA) comes from the Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation (AECID). In 2010, under the infrastructure and social services program, the amount of Euro 2,066,587 (29.7% of total) was allocated to education, Euro 784,698 (11.65%) allocated to health, and Euro 666,938 (9.89%) to water

supply and drainage. The largest allocation was to government and civil society, with 44.70% of the total. The percentages of Spanish Official Development Assistance (ODA) for Sudan and South Sudan that designated for basic social services were 58.01% in 2007, 53.51% in 2008, 74.31% in 2009, and 23.34% in 2010. The large majority of Spanish Official Development Assistance (ODA) to Sudan has been channeled through multilateral organizations. In 2010, the contributions accounted for 84.81% of the total, while the Official Development Assistance (ODA) allocated to non-governmental organizations (NGOs) only accounted to 14.40%. The Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation (AECID) grants to Spanish non-governmental organizations (NGOs) from 2006 to 2011 in Sudan and South Sudan, a significant portion of aid. To the South Sudan, supports have been directed to the areas of education, health, and water and sanitation. The Spanish cooperation has been focused on the priorities of these areas and projects to strengthen professional capacities, increase labor market opportunities, and support to improve security measures in relation to sustainable measures against mines. In economic terms, and in relation to some projects and agreements, amounts have allocated to humanitarian aid to denote significant support. For multilateral aid, the Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation (AECID) has contributed significant amounts of multilateral official development assistance (ODA) between 2009-2011 to Sudan and South Sudan which was channeled through the United Nations (UN) agencies such as United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Development Program (UNDP), and World Food Program (WFP). Humanitarian action has concentrated much on the funds, which have also been directed to other areas such as education, health, rural development, and the fight against hunger, peace-building, and democratic governance. The Spain support to Sudan through multilateral means and its enactment through three key elements contributed in stability of the country by strengthening the institutions of Sudan, consolidating peace, and supporting the effective development of basic social services. Similarly, Spain fully supports the strengthening of Inter-governmental Authority for Development (IGAD) as a key reference source in the region.

At the institutional level, and the cooperation within the scope of democratic governance cooperation, the plan highlights Spain's assistance to South Sudan through the Capacity Building Trust Fund (CBTF) and the Multi-Donor Trust Fund for South Sudan (MDTF). On the other hand, the support of Spain under the Africa Plan to the basic social services sector has been accomplished through projects and partnerships with non-governmental organizations (NGOs) on issues such as water and sanitation, food security, reproductive health, and education. The Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation (AECID) has developed collaborations with non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as Promotion and Development Organization (PROYDE), Clarentian Development Promotion Organization (PROCLADE), Solidarity, Education, and Development

Organization (SED), Youth and Development, Oxfam, and Foundation of Medical Research in Africa (AMREF). The areas of work are to improve primary health care, the education sector, access to water and drainage, and creating a training network for professionals in education and health (The Research Center for Transnational Security and Governance, Report, 2012 pp. 20-22).

**5.2.8 Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA):** In 2008 Danish Demining Group (DDG) entered into a two years agreement with the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) to implement the project of survey for Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) and Mine Risk Education in South Sudan. The main objective of the project was to support the repatriation process for refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) in South Sudan by provision of a safe environment for the returnees and communities, and to facilitate the work of humanitarian organizations. Danish Demining Group (DDG) is one of a number of mine action operators working in South Sudan to address the explosives contamination left from decades of civil war. The mine action program has been operating in South Sudan since the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) signing in early 2005; the United Nations Mine Action Office (UNMAO) has the responsibility of planning, coordination and regulation. The Government of National Unity (GNU) and the Government of South Sudan (GOSS) have also established national mine action authorities in Khartoum and Juba respectively. The South Sudan Demining Commission (SSDC) is scheduled to assume overall responsibility for mine action in South Sudan when the United Nations Mine Action Office (UNMAO) mandate ends in July 2011. South Sudan faces many challenges for mine action operators in terms of vast distances, poor infrastructure, and continued insecurity. Under the leadership of the United Nations Mine Action Office (UNMAO), the mine action sector has formulated a Multi-years Plan, which provides a good outline of the plans until 2011, but a little clarity on the Government of South Sudan (GOSS) vision for mine action in South Sudan once it assumes responsibility for the sector at the end of the United Nations Mine Action Office (UNMAO) mandate. All such uncertainties greatly complicate the task of future planning for Danish Demining Group (DDG). The Danish Demining Group (DDG) began operations in 2006 to facilitate the return of refugees, mainly in the returnee corridors of Central and Eastern Equatoria. The Danish Demining Group (DDG) has adopted a community-centered approach, with priorities defined in a participatory manner in South Sudan, where most mine action activities are under the United Nations Mine Action Office (UNMAO)'s command and control. In 2008, the Danish Demining Group (DDG) formulated a Strategic Planning Document. In line with the objectives of the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA)-funded project, the vision statement in the strategy highlighted the needs of returnees. The overall objective was to create an environment free of the threat of landmines and explosive remnants of war (ERW), where people can live safely and have access to land and natural resources. The strategy also outlined six specific objectives, which are an expansion of the operational area; to investigate the feasibility of the activities; improve human resource management; strengthen policy and program development; strengthen ties to South Sudan Demining

Commission (SSDC) and potential national non-governmental organization (NGO) partners; and to strengthen the cooperation with Danish Refugee Council (DRC). The Danish Demining Group (DDG) provides a range of mine action services of survey and marking; explosive ordnance disposal (EOD); community liaison; mine risk education (MRE) and development of the process of implementing an impact monitoring system to document the outcomes of the activity. The Danish Demining Group (DDG) operations have focused on Magwi County in Eastern Equatoria State, where it has about 75 field personnel working. The Danish Demining Group (DDG) has been given increased responsibility and more attention to capacity building and development of its own national staff and for personnel from South Sudan Demining Commission (SSDC). The capacity development efforts have focused on technical and supervisory skills of individuals rather than the development of broader organizational capabilities in national mine action organizations. The Sweden International Development Agency (SIDA) and a number of other donors created a Joint Donor Team (JDT) comprising of Sweden, Denmark, Canada, the Netherlands, Norway and the United Kingdom (UK) to encourage donor coordination, support to the Multi-donor Trust Funds (MDTFs) and to manage all the programs which cannot be implemented by the Multi-donor Trust Funds (MDTF). The Joint Donor Team (JDT) has responsibility over two small funds, that is, the Technical Assistance Fund and the Small Scale Fund. Above all, the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) formulated its strategy for development cooperation in Sudan for the years 2008-2011, which was featured by peaceful development; respect for human rights; democratic governance; and lasting reconciliation and national unity within Sudan. During this period, total Swedish assistance is expected to amount to Euro 95.8 million, excluding humanitarian support. Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) has provided support to Danish Demining Group (DDG) of around Euro 16.5 million in 2008 and 2009. This funding has been earmarked to the support of operational, personnel and support costs, which often are split proportionately with other donors. Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) funds 75% of the Program Managers, 25% of the Operations Managers, 33% of three originally programs of Survey Explosive Ordnance Disposal; technical advisors; and a similar proportion of regionally recruited positions. In 2008, the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) funded Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) Survey Teams, Mine Risk Education (MRE) Teams, and the Operations Managers program, in addition to the Administration and Finance manager and a full range of support services (Kennet, Korayi, and others (2010), Evaluation Final Report, p. 5 See <https://www.gichd.org>).

The table 5.1 demonstrates some bilateral donor support income and its allocation to different sectors in South Sudan in the period between 2005 and 2009 as under.

**Table 5.1: Bilateral-donor Support allocated to different Sectors 2005-2009.**

|                                    | Expenditures in (USD million) | Percentage (%) |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|
| Emergency Relief                   | 1,244.9                       | 31%            |
| Governance and Civil Society       | 0,665.5                       | 16%            |
| Transportation Sector              | 0,349.9                       | 09%            |
| Reconstruction                     | 0,288.1                       | 07%            |
| Health Sector                      | 0,244.0                       | 06%            |
| Multi-Sectoral Aid                 | 0,237.8                       | 06%            |
| Education Sector                   | 0,236.5                       | 06%            |
| Agricultural Sector                | 0,194.8                       | 05%            |
| Humanitarian Aid                   | 0,119.7                       | 03%            |
| Social Service                     | 0,117.0                       | 03%            |
| Support to NGOs                    | 0,066.8                       | 02%            |
| Food Aid                           | 0,057.7                       | 01%            |
| Water and Sanitation               | 0,055.8                       | 01%            |
| Population and Reproductive Health | 0,040.3                       | 01%            |
| Energy Sector                      | 0,024.3                       | 01%            |
| Enterprise                         | 0,021.8                       | 01%            |
| Financial Services                 | 0,021.3                       | 01%            |
| Communication Sector               | 0,017.1                       | 0.4%           |
| Environmental Sector               | 0,015.9                       | 0.4%           |
| Administrative Costs               | 0,010.6                       | 0.3%           |
| DDR                                | 0,009.2                       | 0.2%           |
| Industry                           | 0,003.5                       | 0.001%         |
| Trade                              | 0,001.9                       | 0.0005%        |
| Refugees in donor countries        | 0,001.2                       | 0.0003%        |
| Others                             | 0,006.4                       | 0.002%         |
| Debt Reduction                     | 0,000.2                       | 0.00005%       |
|                                    | <b>4,052.4</b>                | <b>100%</b>    |

Source: *Aiding the Peace: A Multi-donors Evaluation of Support to Conflict Prevention and Peace-building Activities in Southern Sudan 2005-2010.*

**5.3 International Non-Governmental Organizations (INGOs):** A large number of international organizations both inter-governmental and non-governmental organizations have come to South Sudan,

and many of them started their operations following the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), to fill the service gaps in the country. The work of these organizations has focused very much on meeting of primary needs such as food, health and shelter of internally displaced persons (IDPs), as well as on capacity building to enable the different government agencies to fulfill their tasks (MOE, Environmental Impacts, Risks and Opportunities Assessment, 2012, p. 19).

In this section the contribution of some international organizations has discussed in details as bellow.

**5.3.1 International Organization for Migration (IOM):** The International Organization for Migration (IOM) was the spearheading organization of the return of internally displaced persons (IDPs), in collaboration with United Nations (UN), Government of National Unity (GONU) and Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS). According to the organization, the voluntary internally displaced persons (IDPs) return begun in 2006 when the organization has returned 7000 internally displaced persons (IDPs) to South Sudan. The organization extended its assistances to 13000 internally displaced persons (IDPs) in order to prepare themselves for return to their original home areas. The organization returned 55000 internally displaced persons (IDPs) within South Sudan into their original home areas, from south Darfur to northern Bahr el-Ghazal, Western Bahr el-Ghazal, and to Central Equatoria. All these returnees were totaled 81000 internally displaced persons (IDPs). The transportation operation of internally displaced persons (IDPs) return was joint responsibility between the Government of National Unity (GONU), Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) and the international partners. The transportation planning targeted about 300,000 internally displaced persons (IDPs) in 2007. The returnees on their way home received full support in terms of water, food, clothes and healthcare services. In the beginning of 2007, six and eleven convoys were run to Unity State and to northern Bahr el-Ghazal State respectively. The main means for transportation of internally displaced persons (IDPs) were land transports, though air and river transports were other alternatives, they were not favored because of the slowness of the latter and the high cost of the former. The partners have given consideration to air transportation to the Greater Equatoria. The organization has carried air trips during the rainy season. By steamers 451,000 internally displaced persons were transported to Shambe in Lakes State and to Bor in Jonglei State. Other river transport trips were conducted from Kosti to Malakal town. The United Nations (UN) has backed some flights for internally displaced persons with allocating two cubic meters for each returned family. In July 2007, more than 983 internally displaced persons (IDPs) were returned to their original home areas in South Sudan by air and generally, nearly 44,211 internally displaced persons (IDPs) were helped to return back to their original areas in South Sudan through the joint operations of the Government of National Unity (GONU), Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) and United Nations (UN). The voluntary returning cost was estimated at USD

166 million of which the share of the Government of National Unity (GONU) was USD 15 million, of the Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) was USD 24 million and of the United Nations (UN) was USD 100 million. The deficit was decided to be covered by the Government of National Unity (GONU) and the Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) (The Image, 2008, pp. 11-12).

Table 5.2: demonstrates the organized return of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) including those living within South Sudan that conducted by International Organization for Migration (IOM) between the years 2006-2008.

**Table 5.2: Number of IDPs and Refugees who returned to the Ten States 2006-2008**

| Number | State                   | Number of Returnees (in 000) |
|--------|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1      | Northern Bahr el Ghazal | 428,847                      |
| 2      | Western Bahr el Ghazal  | 065,492                      |
| 3      | Warrap State            | 142,130                      |
| 4      | Unity State             | 123,658                      |
| 5      | Lakes State             | 093,400                      |
| 6      | Upper Nile State        | 161,803                      |
| 7      | Jonglei State           | 200,551                      |
| 8      | Western Equatoria State | 137,343                      |
| 9      | Eastern Equatoria State | 101,040                      |
| 10     | Central Equatoria State | 210,454                      |
|        | <b>Total Number</b>     | <b>1,664,718</b>             |

Source: Sarah Bailey and Simon Harragin's Report on Food Assistance, Reintegration and Dependency in Southern Sudan, 2009.

**5.3.2 International Medical Corps (IMC):** The International Medical Corps (IMC) is another non-governmental organization (NGO) in the health area in South Sudan. International Medical Corps (IMC) is a global, humanitarian, nonprofit organization working with health system strengthening as well as relief and development programs. The International Medical Corps (IMC) has been in South Sudan since 1994. Currently the International Medical Corps (IMC) is working with the Ministry of Health (MOH) to strengthen local healthcare capacity and to deliver health services in more than seventy (70) health facilities. By now the organization supports two county hospitals, eleven (11) primary health care centers (PHCC) and sixty three (63) primary healthcare units (PHCU) and three midwifery schools in Juba, Wau and Kajokeji. The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) engages the International Medical Corps (IMC) as an implementing partner for nursing and midwife education. The International Medical Corps (IMC) implements two years and half (2 ½ years program) school training programs for enrolled midwives in Wau and Kajokeji. In addition, it implements a one (1) year bridging program for community midwives (CMWs) to transform them into enrolled and certified



midwives. In Juba College of Nursing and Midwifery (JCONAM) there are three (3) year programs for registered nurses and registered midwives running by the organization. The International Medical Corps (IMC) works close with the Government of Republic of South Sudan (GORSS) especially the Ministry of Health (MOH) and the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) on these health training programs. The Ministry of Health (MOH) selects the students and is responsible for the curriculum. The International Medical Corps (IMC) has funds from Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) through United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) that will last until 2015-2016. The vision is that the Ministry of Health (MOH) will be able to take over the colleges and run them properly after a period of time. The International Medical Corps (IMC) is responsible for recruitment of tutors at the training institutions under its management. At Juba College of Nursing and Midwifery (JCONAM) all teachers are recruited by International Medical Corps (IMC) except only two tutors who are locally recruited, and they may disappear if International Medical Corps (ICM) terminates its involvement. At Juba College of Nursing and Midwifery (JCONAM), the principal is recruited by the Ministry of Health (MOH), and in Kajokeji a person gets training as a principal now. Only in Wau the principal is employed by International Medical Corps (IMC). According to International Medical Corps (IMC), Juba College of Nursing and Midwifery (JCONAM), is the most prepared college to take over management (Bodil Tveit, and others, 2014, p. 22).

**5.3.3 African Medical Research Foundation (AMREF):** The African Medical Research Foundation (AMREF) has been involved in South Sudan since 1974. The African Medical Research Foundation (AMREF) is involved in several research activities and is currently running an international Campaign. One of the goals of the campaign is to train 15,000 midwives by 2015 to reduce maternal deaths in sub-Saharan Africa and to bridge the gap in meeting the Millennium Development Goals. In 1998, the African Medical Research Foundation (AMREF) started training of clinical officers in Meridi in South Sudan. Today 300 clinical officers have been trained in total. In addition African Medical Research Foundation (AMREF) has trained community midwives and enrolled nurses. The education program for community midwives has stopped since the Ministry of Health (MOH) decided to phase out training of this cadre in South Sudan. This is a decision which the African Medical Research Foundation (AMREF) disagrees with. Today African Medical Research Foundation (AMREF) has forty five (45) students in the clinical officer study and thirty (30) midwifery students in Meridi. The African Medical Research Foundation (AMREF) has funding officers in training. For the training program, 50% of the fund for the training institution in Meridi comes from Italia. To scale up the female enrollment in health training institutions, African Medical Research Foundation (AMREF) has embarked on a model called Women in School of Health (WISH). The background for this approach was the observation that women intake in the health training institution was the less compared to the

men intake. The initiative has started a secondary school to allow women to take up science subjects and empower them to enroll in the health training institutions. This program will work in three phases (initial, stabilization and hand over), and in each stage there will be three (3) years of implementation. The school has an enrollment of fifty (50) girls who according to the plans will be absorbed in the Health Training Institutions (Ibid, pp. 22-23).

**5.3.4 Medical Emergency Relief International (MERLIN):** The Medical Emergency Relief International (MERLIN) came to South Sudan in 2004. At the present its major work is in primary health care centers (PHCCs), but it is also running a hospital in Jonglei State. The Medical Emergency Relief International (MERLIN) has a long experience in training of health personnel especially when it comes to in-service training. The Medical Emergency Relief International (MERLIN) puts in a bid for the Health Pool Fund and won the bid for two counties in Eastern Equatoria. The organization is now running all the health facilities from employment to equipment in the two counties. The priority of the Health Pool Fund is to safe motherhood. The existing grant that the Medical Emergency Relief International (MERLIN) has is for three years and half (3 ½ years). According to Medical Emergency Relief International (MERLIN), the problem is that the Health Pool Funds are not providing funds for infrastructure. The Medical Emergency Relief International (MERLIN) has received funds to finance training of two midwives, but according to its view, if there is no maternity wing at the primary health care centers (PHCC), the organization will not attract any midwife cadre. Therefore, the organization is facing problems to meet the expectations of donors for employment of trained midwives. The Medical Emergency Relief International (MERLIN) provides mentorship for the counties and gives guidance to the health personnel at the primary healthcare centers (PHCCs) and primary healthcare units (PHCUs). The Medical Emergency Relief International (MERLIN) has elaborated a work plan to the Health Pool Fund which monitors and evaluates its work after the plan implementation (Ibid, P.23).

**5.3.5 Norwegian Church Aid (NCA):** Norwegian Church Aid has worked in Southern Sudan since 1972. The quality (trait) of Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) emerged out for more than forty (40) years of presence. Its long-term commitment and experience allowed him to have a solid understanding to the local context and good relation building coupled with flexibility to adapt the rapidly changing circumstances. The communities, church partners, community-based organizations (CBOs) and the government institutions express their deep trust towards Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) as it never left South Sudan since the pre-war time, during the war, and in the post-war period as well as throughout it remains close to the communities. The pre-war program (1972-1985) of the Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) in South Sudan was primarily based on emergency delivery, but soon developed into a rural development program to contribute peace dividends to the people of Eastern Equatoria in particular. In its successful (peak) engagements, the organization had evolved into a comprehensive multi-sectorial

program which includes health, education, agriculture, farmer's cooperatives, and road construction. And as a result of its work in South Sudan, well qualified cadres or well-educated South Sudanese professionals who today have a significant contribution in governments, United Nations (UN) Organizations, International Non-governmental Organizations (INGOs) and church institutions in South Sudan, are exist. The major activity of the organization during pre-war period was capacity development of both local organizations and local government staff. The inherited challenge from the pre-war period was the high expectations of the population, the partners and the government institutions for return of Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) in mode of intensive operational profile of the 1980s. During the war-time (1985-2005), Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) worked in both sides of the conflict under the umbrella of Operation Lifeline Sudan (OLS) with bases in Juba and Khartoum to operate in Government of Sudan held territories, and in Nairobi to work within the Sudan Peoples' Liberation Army (SPLA) held territories. The prime objective of the organization was to serve the population regardless the authorities in the area. The strategy of working with, working through, and contributing to was adopted as much as possible in the emergency program, and in the partnership with the church network which had access to reach communities. Working with and through the church institutions in delivery of basic health services was a key component. In 1998, Warrap State was included into the program of the Norwegian Church Aid (NCA), in addition to the existing focus on Eastern Equatoria. The highlighted result of the war-time period was the deep involvement in peace and advocacy activities with support to the processes both within the south-south as well as the north-south through the church networks. During the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) period (2005-2011), the Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) program continued largely on a service delivery mode within education, health and food security to contribute towards the peace dividend. In 2003, Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) made a new policy (decision) to merge the South Sudan program into one base out of Juba. The churches which have traditional partnership with the Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) from the war-time period, experienced difficult times in light of the changing situations as their existing capacity and valuable experience was utilized (tapped) by both the needs of capacity for increased international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) and the United Nations (UN) presence as well as the rightful emerging capacity needs of the government institutions. The Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) partnership strategy came under huge pressure (strain) during the post-war period as the need due to the above merged reasons with the need for upholding a strong service delivery chain to the population in dire need of assistance as the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) opened the gates for return of the citizens who returned after being in internal or external exile during the war. The key experience leant from the post-war period was the experienced difficulties of transition from a conflict to post-conflict situation in balancing the needs based and rights based approaches coupled with the

balancing of the ideals of partnership and local capacity development with the operational mode often adopted to effectively secure the basic needs of the struggling population. The post-independence period (2011-to date) has focused on a strategy of capacity development for active citizenship. The primary geographic focus of the program has been Eastern Equatoria and Warrap States with supplementary focus on the emerging needs of Jonglei State as well as support to issue advocacy at state and national level. While recognizing that within a context of a fragile state it will take time to build governmental capacity, the existing service delivery of churches and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are the lifeline of hope to the population. For this reason the major program of the Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) has been concentrated on the dual strategic programs of capacity development of local government and line ministry functions combined with a continued support to delivery of basic services at local level through church and local government actors. The capacity development of partner churches and local government in alignment (arrangement) to governmental policies and standards within service delivery programs has been a key element in of this approach. The vital elements of women's participation and strengthening of civil society capacity for advocacy at local and national level is seen as a contribution to the implementation of key policies and aspirations of the new nation of South Sudan. The main result of the Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) support to health programs in South Sudan is that the Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) has been critically provided basic health services to marginalized populations through churches and local government. The Key experienced lessons that have been learnt from the implementation of health program during the post-war and independence periods could be summarized as; the difficulty of maintaining an appropriate balancing between continued quality service delivery and development of local capacity and ownership; and that the health needs in South Sudan cannot be adequately met by short-term, and localized project and relief focused interventions. The widespread structural deficit can only be met by working on a systemic and long-term basis, and to scale-up interventions from local projects to national policies (Ibid, pp. 7-8).

**5.3.6 Norwegian Peoples Aid (NPA):** The Norwegian Peoples Aid (NPA) has a long history in South Sudan. It started training of nurses and midwives in 1995 and from 1999 the school has been located in Yei Town in Central Equatoria. At this moment the organization has three different programs at the training institute in Yei especially, in the area of enrolled nurse, enrolled midwife and laboratory technicians. In 2009 the organization wanted to handover the school to the Ministry of Health (MOH), but until today the school is run by the organization. At the beginning, the school was funded by Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Norway, but now the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) has taken over the responsibility and plans for the financial support of the school until 2014. The Ministry of Health (MOH) of South Sudan is responsible for the admission measures in the school.

Before such measures, the Norwegian Peoples Aid (NPA) used to take any sort of educational background and train them in the school. Now the intake has to follow the standards and criteria of the Ministry of Health. The students are accommodated in student full board hostels at the Yei training institute. All the tutors at Yei Institute are South Sudanese nationals. Some of them are paid by the Ministry of Health (MOH). In recent years, some tutors were sent to Tanzania for training (Ibid, p. 23).

**5.3.7 Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC):** The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) contributes in the development of South Sudan particularly, in Central Equatoria State and other States through the following activities.

**5.3.7.1 Microfinance for Women Groups:** Community partnerships and institution building are essential for poor people if they are to change their economic, social and political conditions. The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) delivers microfinance and other programs through organizing groups of poor women who come together to improve their socio-economic status. The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) microfinance office conducts surveys and consults community leaders and local elders to select 25-30 members group. The group is sub-divided into smaller groups of five, each with their own elected leader. The members of the small group take the responsibility to solve peer repayment problems. New borrower group meet four times before any loan disbursement takes place. After that, they meet weekly to discuss credit decisions with their dedicated the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) officer and make their loan repayments. The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) provides training and technical assistance to the members of such groups and others in the community, empowering them to earn more income from existing activities and start new ones. Such micro-loans are exclusively, for women who participate in the group development or they are for group members. The majority of borrowers range in age from 20-50 with little or no education. The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) lends to women who are not served by other microfinance institutions. The borrowers typically, operate businesses that provide products or services to their local communities. Women with seasonal businesses such as farming related activities may also be eligible for shorter-term loans. The Sudan recovery fund was another way to promote financial development. The United Nations Development Program Sudan Recovery Fund for South Sudan (SRFSS) aims to facilitate a transition from humanitarian aid to recovery assistance. In 2010, The Sudan Recovery Fund for South Sudan (SRFSS) awarded the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) the responsibility to implement its small grants fund of USD 2.5 million to as many as seventy (70) national non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and community-based organizations (CBOs) in all ten (10) states. The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) has screened these groups, supported their capacity building and directed implementation of agriculture, education, water, and other initiatives.

The main objective of the projects was to allocate 47% of the fund to agriculture to make quick returns for the community.

**5.3.7.2 Education:** The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) also has Education Program. The goal of Education Program is to educate children who have dropped out of school or never enrolled so they can enter the formal government school system. Its education program follows the government curriculum of the four-year primary cycle. It admits 30-35 pupils per school and employs one teacher to provide a four-year school cycle. Once pupils reach the grade four, they can be mainstreamed into public schools at the grade five levels. All learning materials are provided free of charge. Teachers are recruited locally.

**5.3.7.3 Health Services:** One of the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC)'s primary concerns is to improve reproductive healthcare awareness and service utilization. To fulfill this objective, Community Health Volunteers (CHVs) identify pregnant women during home visits and inform the Community Health Worker (CHW). The community health workers (CHWs) perform antenatal checkups in houses, raising awareness of pregnancy-care and pre-natal danger signs. In the area of malaria control, during household visits, the community health volunteers (CHVs) identify the suspected cases of malaria and refer them to the nearest government health center. They make follow-up to determine test results and see if the patients are taking their anti-malarial medication. Also the community health volunteers (CHVs) implement a well-tested, community-based approach for increasing and sustaining tuberculosis (TB) case detection and treatment. During household visits, the community health volunteers (CHVs) ask simple questions related to suspected tuberculosis (TB) cases (based on symptoms). When a suspected tuberculosis (TB) victim is identified, the community health volunteer (CHV) motivates that person to be tested at a nearby government facility. During regular household visits, the community health volunteer (CHV) mobilizes and motivates women to use modern methods of contraception. They provide the clients with birth control pills. The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) takes a multi-prolonged approach to community health education. It offers community health forums on issues such as malaria, tuberculosis (TB) and Human Immunodeficiency Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (UN-HIV/AIDS) prevention, maternal health, family planning and sanitation. The community health volunteers (CHVs) are trained to diagnose and treat some basic ailments such as diarrhea, dysentery, common cold, anemia, ringworm, and scabies and so on. They refer individuals with suspected conditions to local public health facilities.

**5.3.7.4 Agriculture Activity:** The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) established four collective demonstration farms, each on ten (10) acres of land. Twenty local female farmers were selected from the community to work on each demonstration plot. They are divided into two groups

and each group comes every day to work on the farm. All the produce from the farm goes to the farmer's cooperative (Francis, Sanya Matayo Gale, 2011, pp. 28-30).

**5.4 National Civil Society Organizations (NCSOs):** The term civil society is a very broad concept that involves (entails) many different classifications of organizations. Civil society is the realm of organized social life that is voluntary, self-generating, self-supporting, and autonomous from state, and bound by a legal order or set of shared rules. Under this framework different non-governmental organizations are included such as international; regional and national; faith-based organizations; community-based organizations; and other grass-root organizations like cooperatives, neighborhood associations; and social clubs among others. There are four principal characteristics that define civil society; these include its ability to maintain absolute autonomy from both social interests and state, its capacity for collective action and promotion of the interests and passions or feelings of the broader society, it must be devoid (completely lack) of all intentions to seize power, and finally it must be able to act in concord within civil rules through the conveyance of mutual respect. In terms of classification of civil society organizations, there are several criteria that are used by different experts for their identification. These include time (first and second generations), area of operations (international, multinational, regional and national), political worldview (non-political and political), or religious engagement (religious and secular). In terms of their categorization, civil society organizations can be categorized into two types such as civil society I organizations and civil society II organizations. Civil society I organizations are associations that provide networks of civic engagement within which reciprocity is learned and enforced, trust is generated, and communication and patterns of collective action are facilitated. These organizations include social clubs, cooperatives and cultural associations. They exist for the common good and pose (create) no serious threat to state authorities. Civil society II organizations focus on enhancing democracy and curbing authoritarianism and are usually, a challenge to state authorities. In the context of the role of civil society organizations (CSOs), civil society organizations can play several roles or functions. These include control (with the use of democratic means) the state in exercising its powers, development of democratic norms and attitudes such as tolerance, moderation, compromise, and respect for divergent views. The civil society organizations promote democracy through the mobilization of various groups and especially the disadvantaged groups such as women, people living with disabilities, ethnic minorities and so on. They promote values of diversity. They train political leaders and candidates for political office. They assist in democracy building. They mobilize citizens and other stakeholders against unfair economic policies. In addition to the above roles, civil society organizations (CSOs) fulfill the humanitarian and conflict management roles. In terms of peace-building, the role of different civil society organizations (CSOs) in peace support operations gained considerable concern since the 1990s. The familiarity with conflict

and the level of expertise of some non-governmental organizations (NGOs) staff in operations in war-torn societies can be testified from some non-governmental organizations (NGOs) relief workers who had more battlefield experience than other actors working staff. Another example of the growing significance of civil society in Peace Support Operations (PSOs) can be drawn from the participation of civil society organizations (CSOs) in distributing aid. The active role that civil society organizations play in Peace Support Operations (PSOs) can be summarized in five points. Firstly, in many complex political situations, donors find it impossible or unacceptable to channel funds through the state institutions. Secondly, civil society organizations (CSOs) often have more effective reach, especially at the grass-roots level. Thirdly, many civil society organizations (CSOs) have established themselves in societies that either provide funds or staff for the Peace Support Operations (PSOs). Fourthly, civil society organizations are more likely to attract publicity, and lastly, their operations are relatively cheaper than those of the United Nations (UN) agencies and other stakeholders in the Peace Support Operations (PSOs). While civil society organizations (CSOs) play vital role in Peace Support Operations (PSOs), it should be noted that there are situations where the presence of civil society organizations is not only detrimental to peace-building, but can also contribute to the escalation of the conflict. This is usually the case where the civil society organizations (CSOs) activities are uncoordinated or as a result of inexperienced staff as some civil society actors often lack the necessary training. Civil society organizations can contribute to conflict in many ways, rather than promoting peace. These include manipulating public opinion, using local communities as shield, creating space for military operations, looting and bartering relief aid, allowing criminals to extort aid relief, creating false impression that the state institutions are not needed, creating a false perception of power balance, allowing dual use of infrastructure (military and non military), being part of a legitimizing process for organized criminal groups. Another key threat posed by the civil society organizations (CSOs) in Peace Support Operations (PSOs) stems from the urgency with which activities have to be carried out in conflict and post-conflict situations. As a result, there is usually a flood of civil society organizations (CSOs) into the operational areas and given their different structures and mandates, this presents diverse management and coordination challenges. An even bigger challenge arises from the fact that the civil society organizations (CSOs) are not immune to partisan political influences, a fact that can be a threat to Peace Support Operations (PSOs) missions and overall peace-building in a country. Civil society presence in South Sudan offers valuable lessons especially their operation in extremely fluid and hostile situations. Despite these odds, the civil society organizations (CSOs) are not only able to survive, but have also made valuable contributions in the political, social and economic landscapes in the country. The conflicts in South Sudan have progressively weakened the fabric of society, divided the population and undermined the interpersonal trust among the communities. These situations present



numerous challenges to the work of civil society organizations (CSOs). Actually, the civil society organizations (CSOs) in South Sudan have a long history in facilitation of continue peace and state-building in general. The civil society organizations (CSOs) have played an important role not only leading to the independence of the country but more recently in the National Platform for Reconciliation in 2014, and in the formation of South Sudanese Peace and Reconciliation Commission in 2013. Even if under the given fragility of the country, the civil society organizations (CSOs) carry out their tasks professionally and not being seen political partisan. They also make good use of their coordinating bodies and frameworks such as the South Sudan non-governmental organizations (NGOs) forum to engage the different parties in conflict (M. J. Kimani, 2014, pp. 9-15).

There are more than 200 Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) in South Sudan; many of them are members of the South Sudan Civil Society Alliance. Civil Society Organizations in South Sudan are engaged in a wide range of activities across different sectors, from health, education, food security, gender equality, peace building, youth and sports, and internally displaced persons (IDPs) and returnee's issues. Most of the Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) in South Sudan were formed prior to independence in response to the humanitarian action during the decades of conflict. Due to concentration on services delivery, limited contact between people and their government, and lack of capacity of the government to response to the needs of the people in a transparent and accountable way, the credibility and capacity of civil society organizations in South Sudan have been hindered badly (CIDA/DFATD's Evaluation Profile, South Sudan, 2015, p, 9).

The role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in peace-building in South Sudan has focused and engaged in four areas. The contribution of civil society organizations in peace-building in South Sudan can be highlighted as under.

**5.4.1 Creating an Active Society through enhancing Social Capital:** This factor illustrates role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in creating and sustaining active society through enhancing social capital. The society is not merely a sum of individuals, but also a sum of active networks, that to a large extent, activates its members. The activities and roles of the networks determine the participation of the communities in various activities in the country. In the case of South Sudan, the absence of active formal state institutions let the communities through civil society organizations (CSOs) to take roles that could be performed by the state through the following actions.

(a) Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) enhance the rule of law: Civil society organizations contribute to the enhancement of rule of law in many ways such as lobbying for the creation and implementation of laws. This can be achieved by drawing the international, national and local attention to particular issues. The civil society organizations (CSOs) are also engaging in training of the legal professionals, like lawyers and paralegals among others.

(b) Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) enhance cross cutting networks; coordination between local communities and the state institutions; vertical relations; and coordinate social initiatives: The civil society organizations (CSOs) operate as a platform where occurrence of many social processes is possible. They link decision-makers with the grass-root levels and allow those in power to be constantly in touch with the citizens. This linkage is the key to the successful implementation of policies as well as for the creation of a strong society. In societies which are trying to recover from decades of conflict, fragmentation is often the biggest challenge, as people do not trust each other which stand as an obstacle for post-conflict reconstruction, reconciliation and peace-building. The provision of forums by the civil society organizations (CSOs) for exchanging ideas, projects, and debates helps to overcome animosities between different groups in society and enhances the implementation of different projects as well as creation of a sense of unity and belonging.

(c) Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) enhance peace initiatives and reconciliation: The concept of peace is likely to be understood as positive peace, where absence of violence is accompanied by the realization of the principle of justice. In fact, peace and reconciliation are interdependent and correlated concepts as they rely on each other (one is a condition for the successful realization of the other). Civil society organizations (CSOs) play an important role in promotion of the two concepts despite the fact that the two are not clearly distinguished by communities. Many Faith-based Organizations (FBOs), Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) organize seminars, workshops, and trainings on matters related to peace and reconciliation. This approach leads into achievement of reconciliation and peace among communities at grass-root level.

**5.4.2 Fostering Conflict Management:** The second factor that demonstrates role of civil society organizations is a combined concept of human rights and conflict management. The human rights concept is important as the conflict resolution mechanism can be only achieved in a situation where there is mutual respect by all parties. Indeed, implementation of human rights standard is usually a precondition to any peace process, especially in the country with a history of human rights violation. Where human rights are not observed, ground is laid or prepared for protracted conflict. With this understanding, civil society organizations (CSOs) in South Sudan are actively engaged in promotion of human rights in many ways as below.

(a) Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) contribute to creation of human rights culture, and advocate human rights: The nature of conflict in South Sudan is one of challenges to peace-building, because of lack of acceptance to each other. Conflict management activity is only possible in situations where there is a shared mutual respect of human rights. Thus, the observation of human rights' standard, or promotion of human rights culture is a precondition for a successful peace-building processes.

(b) Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) provide a platform for dialogue and serve as a channel of communication: The lack of communication, negative communication and/or insufficient communication is a significant reason for conflict management failure. By facilitating communication and providing a platform for dialogue, civil society organizations (CSOs) contribute positively to conflict management processes.

(c) Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) participate in conflict management; in negotiations; and mediation between the warring parties: The mediation and negotiations are tools of conflict management, and are applied accordingly to the needs of particular situation. The example of role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in conflict management is their participation in Inter-Governmental Authority for Development (IGAD) mediation process in conflict that broke out in December 2013 in South Sudan.

(d) Civil society organizations (CSOs) contribute to the reconciliation process: The ultimate goal to use conflict management tools such as mediation and negotiations is realization of positive peace. On its part, reconciliation is an indispensable component of peace-building process. Civil society organizations (CSOs) in the country engage in reconciliation by advocating and promoting it at the grass-root levels or by participation in various bodies involved in reconciliation process, like the South Sudan Peace and Reconciliation Commission.

**5.4.3 Advocating Social Justice as a necessary Component for Peace-building:** Social justice is a necessary component for peace-building. The social justice has been incorporated into peace-building and identified as a necessary element for any peaceful society. The concept of social justice was promoted by International Labor Organization (ILO) which believes that lack of social justice will eventually lead to social unrest which in turn transforms into conflict. The concept of social justice assumes that peaceful co-existence can only be achieved when people are able to fulfill their potentials, which usually happens in situations where there is economic stability, just redistribution of national income and wealth, and comprehensive provision of basic human needs. Unfortunately, South Sudan experiences challenges in all of areas and thus, significant role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in bridging gaps comes in the following ways.

(a) Civil society organizations (CSOs) help in claiming of social rights; link local communities and the state institutions; and provide education: In realization of human rights, there is always a dichotomy (separation) between the duty holders and right bearers. In fact, rights that do not correspond with any duty do not qualify as rights, because there is no one who can realize them. However, in the case of South Sudan, identification of the duty bearer is often the first obstacle in the realization of rights, as the majority of the people are not even aware that they are right holders. For this reason, the role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in linking the people to the governance institutions is a key role. The

civil society organizations (CSOs) can advocate for both individual and group rights. In their human rights engagements, civil society organizations (CSOs) use the advantage of their easy accessibility and minimal bureaucratic processes by the communities opposite to the government institutions. Role of civil society organizations (CSOs) is fundamental in South Sudan, as in many cases duty bearer (usually state institutions) do not have capacity to fulfill social rights. Lack of capacity is not deliberate (led to the lack of provision of services in a way that was planned) nor are the government institutions linked to the concept of human rights. All limitations are as a result of decades of violent conflict. While the state institutions may be willing to pursue social rights, they face challenges of capacity. Civil society organizations (CSOs) step in not only to advocate for social rights but also to help in rebuilding of relevant state institutions.

(b) Civil society organizations (CSOs) promote conflict transformation at a personal and relational level: This is linked to neglect and denial of social rights that creates obstacles to process of peace-building. As stated in the theory of frustration and aggression that "human beings as goal-oriented organisms, naturally become aggravated when they are prevented from achieving what they desire". The feeling of frustration arises from the inability to achieve the desired goals, and if the obstacles are not removed, the frustrations lead to conflict. Realization of social rights, or social justice, is therefore a way of removing obstacles that would lead to aggression and conflict. In other words, conflict transformation at personal and relational level is only achieved if individuals and society as a whole are not frustrated. Civil society organizations (CSOs) advocacy on social justice not only improves people's wellbeing but also has a positive impact on people's attitude; and reduces the feeling of frustration, thus it contributes to conflict transformation at the personal and relational level.

(c) Civil society organizations (CSOs) enhance women and children's rights: This point describes role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in empowering communities particularly, the excluded groups in the society such as women, children, migrants among others. Civil society organizations (CSOs) work in terms of advocacy and humanitarian assistance helps to uplift social status of such groups and thus, mitigates potential conflicts.

**5.4.4 Participating in Post-Conflict Reconstruction Process:** This factor demonstrates role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in post-conflict reconstruction process. In situations of protracted conflicts, reconstruction and peace-building are difficult tasks. Indeed, post-conflict phase is a very important one for achieving long lasting peace, and many peace efforts have failed where insufficient attention was paid to post-conflict reconstruction. Once relative peace has been achieved, the process of reconstruction is important to new social environments that aim at enhancement of quality life and improvement of conditions of those affected by conflict. The role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in post-conflict reconstruction is to contribute or restore justice, assist those especially affected by

conflict (combatants, migrants), and assist government in tasks that are key in prevention of conflict reoccurrence by the following methods.

(a) Civil society organizations (CSOs) promote restorative justice: In post-conflict societies, restorative justice is an important condition to peace-building process. The restorative justice usually means more focus on victims and on restoration of what was destroyed by conflict, rather than punishing perpetrators. This is usually necessary in situations where social relationships have been destroyed by the conflict. The process of healing and restoration to pre-conflict situation is not limited to the personal level, but also includes the societal relations. In South Sudan where kinship, cultural, economic, and territorial ties were broken by the conflicts, the civil society organizations (CSOs) play an important role of promoting restorative justice.

(b) Civil society organizations (CSOs) assist in enhancement of migrant rights: This point shows an important role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in post-conflict reconstruction. In South Sudan, the conflicts resulted in large displacements of population. To mitigate any potential conflicts arising from human displacements, civil society organizations (CSOs) engage in the empowerment and advocacy of the migrant's rights.

(c) Civil society organizations (CSOs) assist in reintegration of combatants back to society: This is part of role of civil society organizations (CSOs) to integrate former combatants back into society. The process of reintegration of combatants is complex but critical for peaceful co-existence. Former soldiers or rebels, including former child soldiers, need extensive psychological, legal, and vocational training support. This is a role that civil society organizations (CSOs) are actively involved.

(d) Civil society organizations (CSOs) assist Government in provision of security and disarmament: The provision of security expresses subsidiary role in supporting government efforts towards security, and assistance in disarming illustrates role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in disarmament. The two activities are complementing each other, as the proliferation (sudden increase) of Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) is one of the biggest threats to the peace-building in the country. The existence of arms in the hands of unauthorized persons means that governments lose the monopoly on the use of force and the result is deterioration in security which impacts negatively peace-building process. The process of disarming is complex and can only be successful if all the stakeholders are actively engaged. Civil society organizations (CSOs) are reliable partners in disarmament activities in South Sudan (M. J. Kimani, 2014, pp. 22-29).

# **Chapter Six**

## **Methodological Aspects of the Field and Data Analyses**

- 6.1 Methodological Aspects of the Field of the Study.
- 6.2 Data Analysis.
- 6.3 Research Hypotheses Testing.

**6.0 Introduction:** The chapter is about the methodological aspects of the field of the study; data analyses; and hypotheses testing

**6.1 Methodological Aspects of the Field of the Study:** Methodology is the scientific approach that used for data collection and analysis to answer the questions raised in the research and to meet its objectives. This research has employed a combined methodology composed from quantitative and qualitative approach. The aim to rely on such methodology is to minimize the defects of each single method.

**6.1.1 Quantitative Survey Method:** The researcher believes that quantitative method is systematic, reliable, repeatable, cumulative, descriptive, transparent, useful, and appropriate technique in quantification and analysis of data as well as confirmation or disconfirmation of findings and production of the desired knowledge. Thus he relied on it as the most important technique in assessment and evaluation of developmental situation in South Sudan.

**6.1.2 Qualitative Survey Method:** The qualitative method is a technique that helps in knowledge generation through face-to-face contact with the informants to obtain reliable information on the investigated subject. In this study semi-structured interview and focus group discussion technique has been adopted. The researcher has used such techniques to give room to the respondents to volunteer as many information as they can, and to provide deep qualitative analysis, interpretations, and greater clear understanding to the subject under investigation.

**6.1.3 Sources of Data:** In this study data has collected from two sources notably secondary and primary sources. The researcher has cited many academic books such as textbooks, handbooks, and etc, which found in university libraries, and bookshops; scholarly social science based journals such as well-researched and reviewed papers in the field of economics and development; different monographs produced by government and private organizations; internet which has given huge opportunity to the researcher to assess much free information through search-machine; various compiled conference papers that usually organized and presented at conferences, seminars, and workshops by professional experts, non-governmental organizations, governments, academic departments and research centers; unpublished materials such as research projects, dissertations, theses that have given chance to the researcher to study and review the information on their findings, see how the research problems have been identified, what methodology has been used, and what other sources have been consulted. Also the researcher has relied on primary sources such as close-ended questionnaire forms, semi-structured interview questions, and focus group discussion conversations to generate raw materials which the researcher becomes their first user for the first time.

**6.1.4 Tools of Data Collection:** The main data collection tools that have been used in this study are as under.

**(a) Semi-Structural Interview Technique:** Because the interview serves as rich source of data on respondents' opinions and views in the subject of the research, the researcher in this study has employed semi-structured interview method as one of the tools for data gathering through face-to-face meetings with selected knowledgeable people and experts who have adequate experience on the investigated subject.

**(b) Focus Group Discussion Technique:** In this study, the researcher has used focus group discussion conversations to generate data from respondents through exchanged information. The researcher has made well preparation for semi-structured conversations with a group of six respondents in good and conducive environment, well facilitation, in-dept analysis, good planning, well developed key questions for the start-up of the discussion, and conducting of the sessions on the selected questions to produce responses from the members of the group based on their personal views, knowledge, and experiences.

**(c) Close-ended Questionnaire Forms:** The researcher has developed close-ended questionnaire forms which contain predetermined set of statements with their answers to obtain reliable information from 280 respondents on the subject under the study. These forms have provided statements with answers in the form of scales such as strongly agreed, agreed, neutral, disagreed, and strongly disagreed for the respondents to select. The quality of the questionnaire was reviewed, checked, and examined by well qualified academicians and scholars from various universities in Khartoum. The final development of such questionnaire was made according to their comments and observations.

**6.1.5 Area of the Study:** According to UNESCO South Sudan, Document (2014-2016, pp 5-6), South Sudan geographically, is a land-locked country which covers an area of 644.329 square kilometers and situated in east-central of Africa shares border with Ethiopia to the east, Kenya to the southeast, Uganda to the south, the Democratic Republic of Congo to the southwest, Central Africa Republic to the west and Sudan to the north. Administratively, the country was divided into three great regions namely, Bahr el Ghazal, Equatoria and Upper Nile. Each of the three regions was subdivided into states.

Demographically, the population of South Sudan is 8,260,490 persons according to the fifth Sudan Population and Housing Census in 2008. The majority of this population (83%) lives in rural areas. South Sudan is a country of young aged people in which at least 51% of people are under the age eighteen and 72% of people are under thirty. Economically, the economy of South Sudan is driven primarily by oil production which comprises 98% of total government revenues. In 2010



South Sudan's gross domestic product (GDP) per capita was USD 1,546 making the country one of the low-income countries. The subsistence agriculture and pastoral activity are the main sources of livelihood for 78% of households, and the non-oil economy of the country is based largely on farming and livestock activity. In 2008, 53% of the working population of the country was unpaid family workers and only 12% was paid employees. The decades of war resulted in weak infrastructure, limited skilled labor, and high domestic transport costs, making the production more expensive and the mobility of products to markets and consumption areas so difficult. Due to specific considerations such as vastness of the area of the country, large population, insecurity, and lack of finance, the researcher has selected Juba City as the main area for the study. This is because Juba is the Capital City of the country and possibly majority of the targeted informants could be found.

**6.1.6 Population and Sample of the Study:** In this section the population and size of the sample estimation procedures are explained as under.

**(a) Population of the Study:** In this study, the entire population of the Republic of South Sudan which has estimated 8,260,490 persons according to the Sudanese fifth population and housing census in 2008 is the actual targeted population to be studied. And because the population is quite large, the researcher through quantitative technique has derived a small proportion of 280 respondents as the sample of the study to be directly questioned and investigated.

**(b) Sampling Procedures:** The sample size of this study was determined statistically by this specific equation or formula according to Khadra Hassan Ali Saddig (2013, PhD Thesis No: 459,

pp,136-137)" as following: 
$$S = \frac{X^2 NP(1-P)}{d^2 (N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)}$$
 where: S = the required sample size,  $X^2$  =

is the table value of Chi-square for (1) degree of freedom at the desired confidence level which is (3.841), N = is the population size, P = is the population proportion (unknown) which assumed to be (0.05) since it would provide the maximum sample size, and  $d^2$  = is the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion which assumed to be (0.05)". Based on such formula the sample size of this study was calculated as follow: 
$$S = (3.841)^2 \times 8,260,490 \times 0.05(1-0.05) \div (0.05)^2(8,260,490 - 1) + 3.841 \times 0.05 (1 - 0.05) = (14.753281 \times 8,260,490 \times 0.05 \times 0.95) \div (2.5 \times 8,260,489) + (3.841 \times 0.05 \times 0.95) = 5,788,653,027 \div 20,651,222.5 + 0.1824475 = 5,788,653,027 \div 20,651,222.68 = 280.305583.$$
 This can be approximated to 280. So the sample size of the population under the investigation in this study is 280 respondents.

**6.1.7 Ethical Aspects of the Study:** In this study ethical aspects such as rules and principles of scientific research have seriously been applied. The researcher as a human being did not allow his feelings, conflicting interests, perceptions, and emotions to interfere and influence the objectivity

of the study, or mislead the true nature of the study. Ethical principles of scientific research have been applied to ensure the autonomy/dependency of the research, avoid anything that could harm others, take positive steps to further the legitimate interest of the people of South Sudan, and to avoid discrimination among participants. This work was preceded by a thorough review of literature to ensure as far as possible its originality and to confirm that the study has not already done before by any researcher. In this research, all the citations, sources of information, and ideas/words that have consulted and borrowed/quoted are clearly and fully had acknowledged and shown in the references' list; and the quotations have indicated by putting quotation marks and the exact page or pages, so that they can be crosschecked for future research, or for confirmation. The researcher has thoroughly worked for tangible contribution to the existing knowledge in area of economics and has not allowed him-self to harm the subject and the outcome of the study. The researcher has carefully analyzed the data and avoided the falsification in results, by reporting all results as they are. And for more confidentiality, the researcher has kept all information and data which attained from the respondents with high confidence; this is because some respondents are not interested to appear in the interpretation of information that they supplied or they may be very personal that the respondents might not want to share with others.

**6.2 Data Analysis:** In this study data analysis and interpretation involved the following steps.

**6.2.1 Data Management:** In this study, the term data management refers to orderliness of the research data or putting the data into systematic form. In this research, data management has included identification, correction of errors, coding, and storing the data in computer program such as excel and word office. The steps and procedures that have been taken in data organization are the following:

**(a) Data Preprocessing:** After collection of the data through questionnaire, the researcher has conducted the processing procedure that in which errors have been identified and corrected; interpretation of unnecessary data which appeared in interviewing of individuals or focus group discussion answers have been avoided; and contradictory data or wrong responses related to some questions have been verified and rejected.

**(b) Data Coding:** After the correction of errors which may influence data analysis, the researcher formulated coding process to create codes to the scales. In coding process all possible answers have been treated and numerical codes are assigned to the particular responses. There are five scales in the questionnaire that were used in measurement of responses on the statements. The codes which were assigned are 5= strongly agreed, 4= agreed, 3= neutral, 2= disagreed, and 1= strongly disagreed.

**(c) Data Entry and Storage:** After the data coding, the researcher decided to store the information, both electronically and non-electronically in form of SPSS, Excel spreadsheet, Microsoft Word, and in the coding forms.

**(d) Statistical Technique:** In this study, descriptive statistics have been used to quantify the collected data in form of sum in a few numerical manners; and descriptive statistics measures such as frequencies, percentages, arithmetic means (average) and chi-square test have been employed in the analysis of the collected data to provide statistical summary, significant differences in opinions on a single statement.

**6.2.2 Data Analysis:** In this study two methods of data analysis have been used to reach final findings and conclusions. In this stage, the collected data has been examined; variables have been extracted; and assumptions (hypotheses) have been tested. The researcher has relied on confirmatory (quantitative) and exploratory (qualitative) analyses.

**(a) Quantitative Data Analysis:** in this study, quantitative analysis has been employed to measure numerical values from which descriptions have been made; the degrees of the relationships between the variables have been found out.

**(b) Qualitative Data Analysis:** In this study, descriptive qualitative analysis without calculations has been used to discover the relations between the variables, to summarize the key findings, explanation, interpretation, and to categorize the related topics and issues.

**(c) Missing Values:** In this study, missing values refer to unanswered statements or part of questionnaire forms as result of lack of concentration or due to some personal issue. The unanswered items have not deleted because they are minor cases.

**6.2.3 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents:** In this subsection characteristics or properties of informants such age group, gender category, level of education, attained academic degrees, discipline of the study, field of work, occupation and grade, and regional affiliation have been analyzed statistically and described as under.

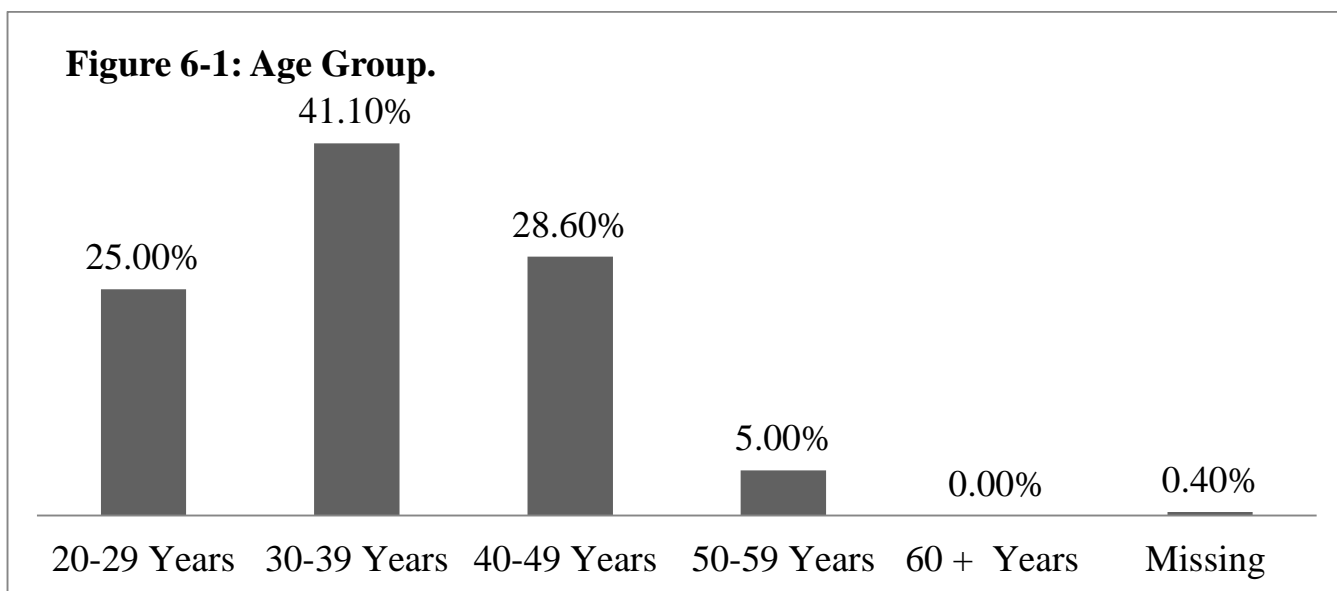
**6.2.3.1 Age group:** In this study, the age of the informants was grouped into five groups as shown in the table below.

**Table 6-1: Age Group (in years):**

| Age Group   | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-------------|-----------|----------------|
| 20-29 Years | 70        | 25.00%         |
| 30-39 Years | 115       | 41.10%         |
| 40-49 Years | 80        | 28.60%         |
| 50-59 Years | 14        | 05.00%         |
| 60+ Years   | 0         | 00.00%         |
| Missing     | 1         | 00.40%         |
| Total       | 280       | 100.00%        |

Source: *Constructed by the researcher from data collected through questionnaire (2018).*

According to the table (6-1), the majority of the respondents fall under age category (30-39) years and constituted 41.10%, followed by (40-49) and (20-29) years with percentages 28.60% and 25.00% respectively. There is even no single informant in the age (60+) year. It is clear from the table that majority of the population of South Sudan are young people. The result of age group analysis is represented in the figure (6-1).



Source: *Constructed by the researcher from the table 6.1*

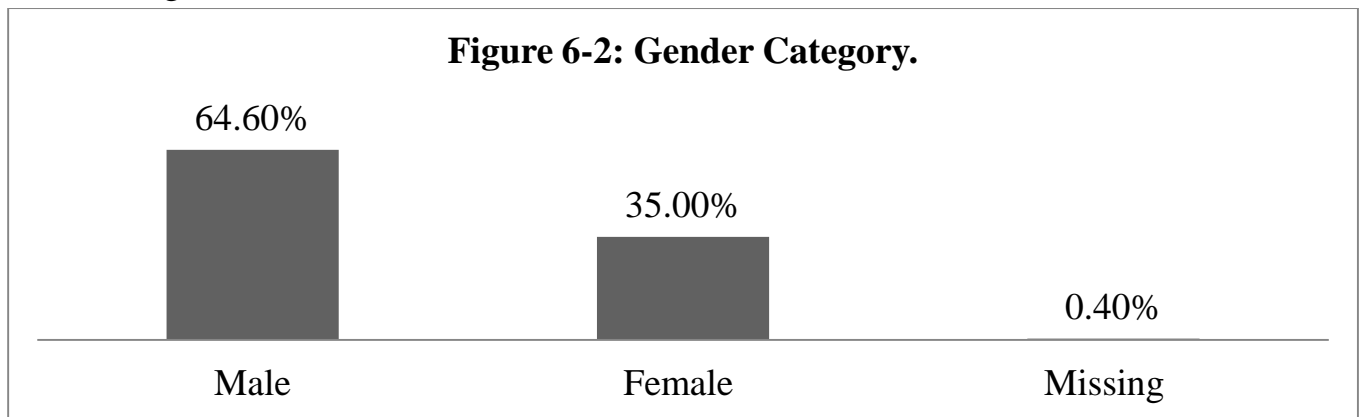
**6.2.3.2 Gender Category:** The gender was conventionally categorized into male and female as appeared in the below.

**Table 6-2: Gender Category:**

| Gender Category | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----------------|-----------|----------------|
| Male            | 181       | 64.60%         |
| Female          | 98        | 35.00%         |
| Missing value   | 1         | 00.40%         |
| Total           | 280       | 100.00%        |

Source: *Constructed by the researcher from the data collected through the questionnaire (2018).*

According to the table (6-2), most of the tested sample is male (64.60%) while female presenting (35.40%) of the whole investigated respondents. The result can be seen obviously from the figure (6-2) bellow.



Source: *Constructed from the table 6.2.*

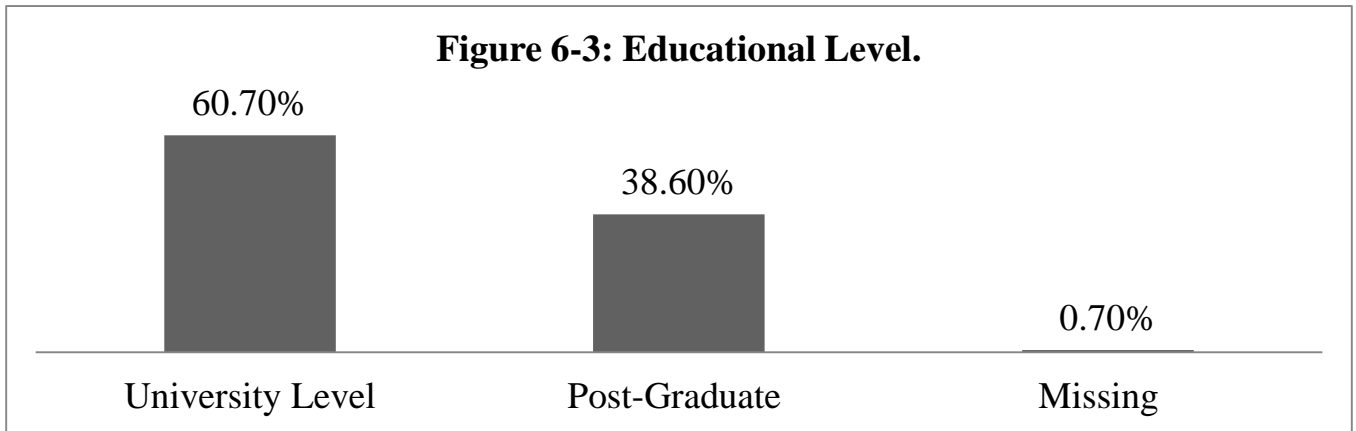
### 6.2.3.3 Education level:

**Table 6-3: Education level:**

| Type Educational Level | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|------------------------|-----------|----------------|
| University             | 170       | 60.70%         |
| Post- graduate         | 108       | 38.60%         |
| Missing value          | 2         | 00.70%         |
| Total                  | 280       | 100.00%        |

Source: *Constructed by the researcher from the data collected through the questionnaire (2018).*

From the table (6-3), the majority of the informants is university graduates with (60.70%) while post-graduate presenting (38.60%) of the whole sample. The result clearly can be seen in the figure (6-3).



Source: *Constructed from the table 6.3.*

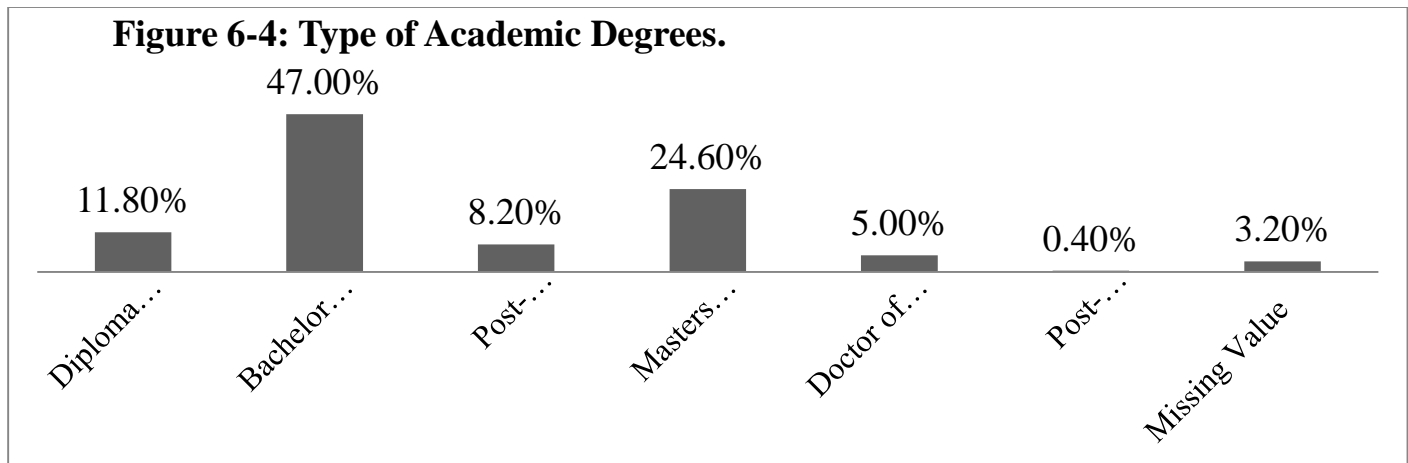
**6.2.3.4 Academic Degrees attained:** The academic degrees obtained by the informants are shown and analyzed as in the table as under.

**Table 6-4: Type of Academic Degrees:**

| Type of Degrees            | Frequency  | Percentage (%) |
|----------------------------|------------|----------------|
| Diploma Degree             | 33         | 11.80%         |
| Bachelor Degree            | 131        | 46.80%         |
| Post-graduate Diploma      | 23         | 08.20%         |
| Masters Degree             | 69         | 24.60%         |
| Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) | 14         | 05.00%         |
| Post-Doctor Fellowship     | 1          | 00.40%         |
| Missing                    | 9          | 03.20%         |
| <b>Total</b>               | <b>280</b> | <b>100.00%</b> |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected through the questionnaire (2018).*

The table (6-4) demonstrates the academic degrees attained by the informants. The majority of the investigated respondents is holding bachelor degree in various disciplines with percentage of (46.8%) followed by masters degree and three years diploma with percentages (24.60%) and (11.80%) respectively. But the respondents who are holding post-graduate diploma and doctor of philosophy (PhD) degree present (8.20%) and (5.00%) respectively out of the total number of the investigated informants. The low percentage is post-Doctoral Fellowship with percentage of (0.40%). The figure (6-4) demonstrates the result.



Source: *Constructed from the table 6.4.*

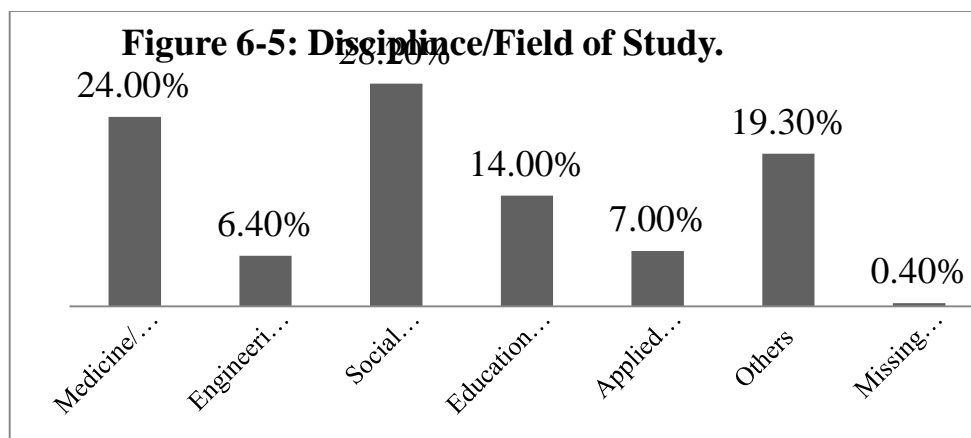
### 6.2.3.5 Discipline or Field of the Study:

**Table 6-5: Discipline or Field of the Study:**

| Type of Discipline/Field of the Study | Frequency  | Percentage (%) |
|---------------------------------------|------------|----------------|
| Medicine/Health                       | 68         | 24.30%         |
| Engineering Science                   | 18         | 06.40%         |
| Social Science                        | 79         | 28.20%         |
| Education/Humanities                  | 40         | 14.30%         |
| Applied Science                       | 20         | 07.10%         |
| Others                                | 54         | 19.30%         |
| Missing value                         | 1          | 00.40%         |
| <b>Total</b>                          | <b>280</b> | <b>100.00%</b> |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected through the questionnaire (2018).*

The table (6-5) shows the different disciplines or fields of the study of the informants who have been investigated by the researcher. According to the table, the majority of respondents have studied social science with percentage (28.20%) followed by different medical sciences and health with (24.30%). Others field of study present (19.30%), and the respondents who completed education and humanities present (14.30%), while those who studied applied science and engineering present (7.10%) and (6.40%) respectively. These percentages are demonstrated by the figure (6-5).



Source: *Constructed from the table 6-5.*

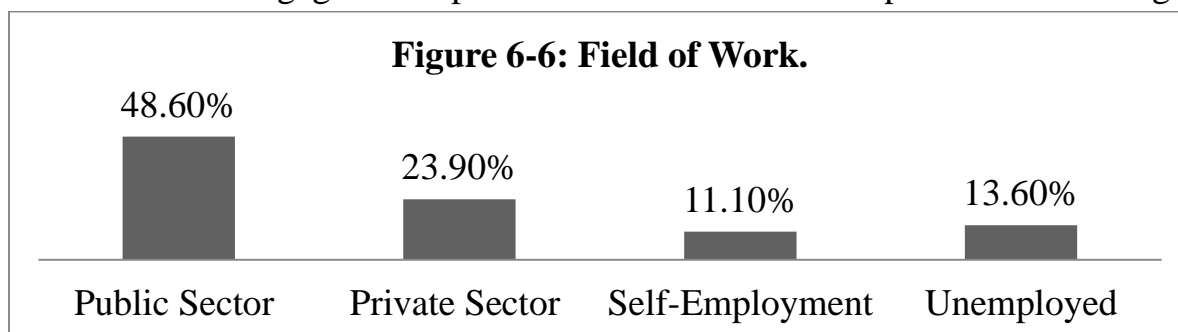
### 6.2.3.6 Field of Work:

**Table 6-6: Field of Work:**

| Type of Field of Work | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Public Sector         | 136       | 48.60%         |
| Private Sector        | 67        | 23.90%         |
| Self-employment       | 31        | 11.10%         |
| Unemployed            | 38        | 13.60%         |
| Total                 | 280       | 100.00%        |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected through the questionnaire (2018).*

According to the table (6-6), the majority of the informants who have investigated is working in public sector (48.60%) followed by those who work with private sector (23.90%). The rest of the informants are unemployed with (13.60%). About (11.10%) of the respondents are just self-employed. It is clear that huge number of the working population in South Sudan is engaged with public sector. The result is represented in the figure (6-6).



Source: *Constructed from table 6-6.*



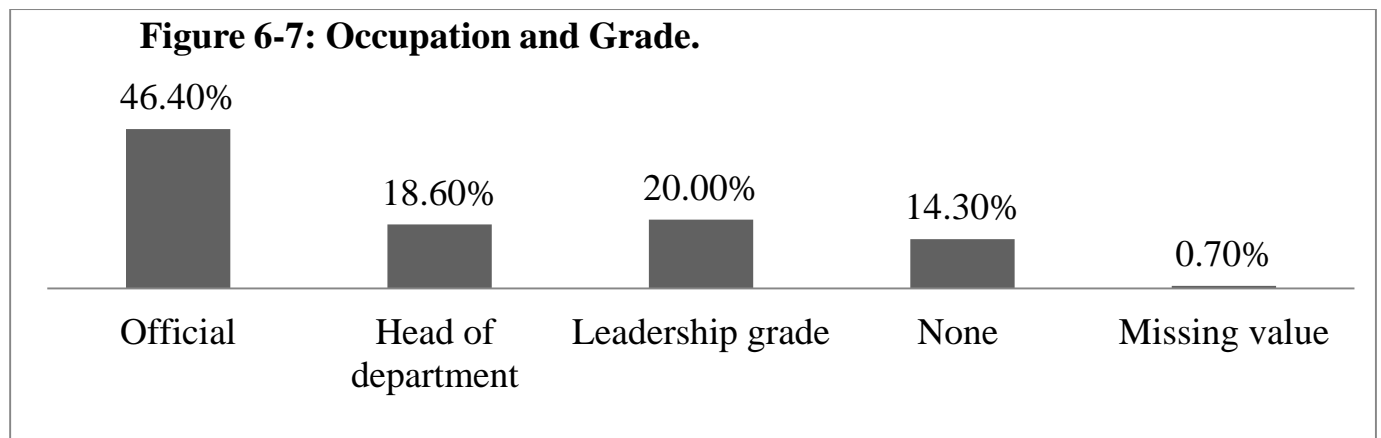
### 6.2.3.7 Occupation and Grade:

**Table 6-7: Occupation and Grade:**

| Type of Occupations and Grades | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|--------------------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Official                       | 130       | 46.40%         |
| Head of department             | 52        | 18.60%         |
| Leadership grade               | 56        | 20.00%         |
| None                           | 40        | 14.30%         |
| Missing value                  | 2         | 00.70%         |
| Total                          | 280       | 100.00%        |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected through the questionnaire (2018).*

From the table (6-7), most of the investigated respondents are officials with percentage (46.40%) of the total number of the tested sample followed leadership grade and head of departments with (20.00%) and (18.60%) respectively. Some of the sample have no (none) occupations and grades (unemployed) with percentage (14.30%). And the result is represented by the figure (6-7).



Source: *Constructed from table 6-7.*

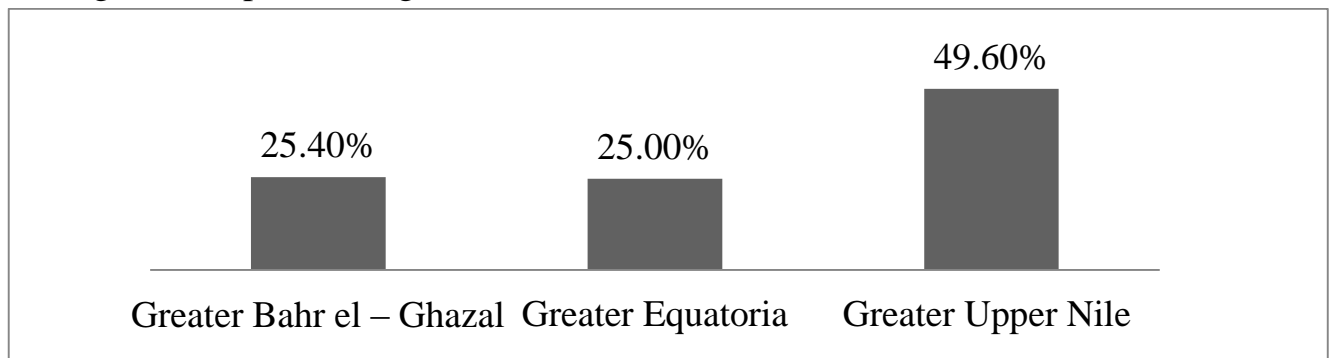
**6.2.3.8 Regional Affiliation:**

**Table 6-8: Regional Affiliation:**

| Name of the Region     | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|------------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Greater Bahr el-Ghazal | 71        | 25.40%         |
| Greater Equatoria      | 70        | 25.00%         |
| Greater Upper Nile     | 139       | 49.60%         |
| Total                  | 280       | 100.00%        |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected through the questionnaire (2018).*

The table (6-8) shows the regional affiliation of the respondents. Based on the table (6-8), most of the tested sample are from Greater Upper Nile (49.60%) followed by Greater Bahr el- Ghazal (25.40%) while informants from Greater Equatoria present (25.00%) of the whole investigated sample. The figure (6-8) demonstrates the result.



Source: *Constructed from table 6-8.*

**6.2.4 Statistical Tests:**

**6.2.4.1 Questionnaire Reliability Test:**

**Table 6-9: Reliability and Truth of the Questionnaire:**

| Name of Section     | Reliability | Truth |
|---------------------|-------------|-------|
| Section One (A)     | 0.91        | 0.92  |
| Section One (B)     | 0.81        | 0.90  |
| Section One (C)     | 0.81        | 0.90  |
| Section Two (A)     | 0.91        | 0.92  |
| Section Two (B)     | 0.81        | 0.90  |
| Section Two (C)     | 0.91        | 0.92  |
| Total Questionnaire | 0.86        | 0.91  |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected through the questionnaire (2018).*

From the table (6-9), the reliabilities of different sections of the questionnaire are high as (0.81-0.91) and its truths are (0.90–0.92). The reliability of the total questionnaire is (0.86) and the truth is (0.91). The percentages of reliability test show the suitability, fitness, relevance and accuracy of the questionnaire for the aims of this study.

### 6.2.4.2 Section One Analysis and Testing: Constraints to Sustainable Economic Development in South Sudan:

6.2.4.2.1 Political, Legal and Administrative Constrains to Sustainable Economic Development in South Sudan in 2005- 2015:

**Table6-10: Political, Legal and Administrative Constraints to Economic Development Test Result:**

| No | Statement   | Appropriate Answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | Average | K <sup>2</sup> -Test | Comment         |
|----|---|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|---------|----------------------|-----------------|
|    |   | Strongly agreed     |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |         |                      |                 |
|    |   | Frequency           | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency          | Percentage |         |                      |                 |
| 1  | Lack of political commitment (will) directly acts as an obstacle to economic development.                                 | 111                 | 39.6       | 158       | 56.4       | 5         | 1.8        | 3         | 1.1        | 3                  | 1.1        | 4.33    | 387                  | Agreed          |
| 2  | Political uncertainty due to armed groups and frequent reshuffling of government negatively affects development programs. | 108                 | 38.6       | 158       | 56.4       | 9         | 3.2        | 3         | 1.1        | 2                  | 0.7        | 4.31    | 376                  | Agreed          |
| 3  | Over-execution of comprehensive peace agreement has indirectly contributed to socio-economic underdevelopment.            | 126                 | 45.0       | 69        | 24.6       | 27        | 9.6        | 50        | 17.9       | 8                  | 2.9        | 3.91    | 147                  | Strongly Agreed |
| 4  | Over-concentration on peace and nation building program in the earlier years has caused negligence in provision of basic  | 108                 | 38.6       | 85        | 30.4       | 28        | 10.0       | 43        | 15.4       | 16                 | 5.7        | 3.81    | 109                  | Strongly Agreed |

|    |  |     |      |     |      |    |     |    |      |   |     |      |     |                 |
|----|--|-----|------|-----|------|----|-----|----|------|---|-----|------|-----|-----------------|
|    | services.  |     |      |     |      |    |     |    |      |   |     |      |     |                 |
| 5  | Lack of good governance has caused incapability of public and private sectors to provide sufficient services.  | 86  | 30.7 | 181 | 64.6 | 5  | 1.8 | 6  | 2.1  | 2 | 0.7 | 4.23 | 438 | Agreed          |
| 6  | Mismanagement of economic instruments (licensing and subsidies) has undermined the role of public institution in productive activities.                              | 103 | 36.8 | 145 | 51.8 | 15 | 5.4 | 12 | 4.3  | 5 | 1.8 | 4.18 | 292 | Agreed          |
| 7  | Lengthy official procedures of cross-borders trading caused unfair distribution of consumer and capital goods.   | 143 | 51.1 | 80  | 28.6 | 23 | 8.2 | 33 | 11.8 | 1 | 0.4 | 4.18 | 228 | Strongly Agreed |
| 8  | Weak and confused operational environment for private sector has contributed to emergence of weak and small-size business firms which cannot facilitate development. | 123 | 43.9 | 126 | 45.0 | 21 | 7.5 | 7  | 2.5  | 3 | 1.1 | 4.28 | 283 | Agreed          |
| 9  | Limited and inefficient institution and human capacities have seriously weakened economic development.   | 117 | 41.8 | 137 | 48.9 | 10 | 3.6 | 12 | 4.3  | 4 | 1.4 | 4.25 | 304 | Agreed          |
| 10 | Weak legal and judicial system leads to emergence of informal commercial firms that has undermined private sector development.                                       | 111 | 39.6 | 131 | 46.8 | 22 | 7.9 | 12 | 4.3  | 4 | 1.4 | 4.19 | 258 | Agreed          |

|    |  |     |      |     |      |    |     |    |     |   |     |      |     |                 |
|----|--|-----|------|-----|------|----|-----|----|-----|---|-----|------|-----|-----------------|
| 11 | Limited access to land and unclear land tenure have limited investment in key infrastructure and basic services. | 127 | 45.4 | 113 | 40.4 | 13 | 4.6 | 23 | 8.2 | 4 | 1.4 | 4.20 | 249 | Strongly Agreed |
| 12 | Lack of property rights has weakened role of women in economic development.                                      | 119 | 42.5 | 106 | 37.9 | 21 | 7.5 | 26 | 9.3 | 8 | 2.9 | 4.08 | 195 | Strongly Agreed |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected by the questionnaire (2018).*

Based on the table (6-10) about political, legal and administrative constraints to sustainable economic development in South Sudan (2005-2015), the result of the tested sample of the study was found as following:

(a) The statements which the majority of the informants strongly agreed with are:

(1) “Over-execution of comprehensive peace agreement has indirectly contributed to socio-economic underdevelopment”. Such statement has strongly agreed with (45%). The average is (4.33) and the chi-square is (387).

(2) “Over-concentration to peace and nation building program in the earlier years has caused negligence in provision of basic services”. The informants have strongly agreed with (38.6%). The average and chi-square are (4.31) and (376) respectively.

(3) “Lengthy official procedures of cross-borders trading cause unfair distribution of consumer and capital goods”. The statement has been strongly agreed with (51.1%). The average is (4.18) and chi-square is (228).

(4) “Limited access to land and unclear land tenure have limited investment in key infrastructure and basic services”. This statement has been strongly agreed with (45.4%). While the average and chi-square of the statement is (3.81) and (109) respectively.

(5) “Lack of property rights has weakened role of women in economic development”. This statement was responded with (42.5%).

(b) The statements which have been agreed with by the majority of respondents are as bellow:

(1) “Lack of political commitment/will directly acts as an obstacle to economic development”. This statement was agreed with (56.4%) of the whole respondents. The average and the Chi-square are (4.33) and (387) respectively.

(2) “Political uncertainty due to armed groups and frequent reshuffling of government negatively affects development programs”. The percentage of responds to this statement is (56.4%). And the average is (4.31) while the Chi-square is (376).

(3) “Lack of good governance has caused incapability of public and private sectors to provide”. The percentage of respondents to this statement is (64.6%). The average is (4.23) and the Chi-square is (438).

(4) “Mismanagement of economic instruments (licensing and subsidies) has undermined the role of public institution in productive activities”. This statement was responded with (51.8%). The average is (4.18) and the Chi-square is (292).

(5) “Weak and confused operational environment for private sector has contributed to emergence of weak and small-size business firms which cannot facilitate development”. Such statement was responded by agreed with (45%). The average is (4.28) and the Chi-square is (283).

(6) “Limited and inefficient institution and human capacities have seriously weakened economic development”. This statement has been responded with (48.9%). Its average is (4.25) and the Chi-square is (304).

(7) “Weak legal and judicial system leads to emergence of informal commercial firms that has undermined private sector development”. The respond to such statement was (46.8%). The average is (4.19) and the Chi-square is (258).

6.2.4.2 Economic, Financial and Technical constrains to Sustainable Economic Development in South Sudan in 2005-2015:

**Table 6-11: Economic, Financial and Technical Constraints to Economic Development**

**Test Result:**

| No | Statement   | Appropriate Answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | Average | K <sup>2</sup> – test | Comment |
|----|---|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|---------|-----------------------|---------|
|    |   | Strongly agreed     |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |         |                       |         |
|    |   | frequency           | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency          | percentage |         |                       |         |
| 1  | Lack of scientific and innovative researching leads to lack of needed information for development.                              | 128                 | 45.7       | 143       | 51.1       | 3         | 1.1        | 5         | 1.8        | 1                  | 0.4        | 4.40    | 378                   | Agreed  |
| 2  | Poor infrastructure hinders mobility of goods and services as well as the development of entire business sector.                | 105                 | 37.5       | 163       | 58.2       | 7         | 2.5        | 3         | 1.1        | 2                  | 0.7        | 4.31    | 392                   | Agreed  |
| 3  | Inadequate investments in major infrastructures such as agriculture, industry, power generation and public social services have | 100                 | 35.7       | 169       | 60.4       | 4         | 1.4        | 5         | 1.8        | 2                  | 0.7        | 4.29    | 409                   | Agreed  |

|    |  |     |      |     |      |    |      |   |     |   |     |      |     |                 |
|----|--|-----|------|-----|------|----|------|---|-----|---|-----|------|-----|-----------------|
|    | weakened development.  |     |      |     |      |    |      |   |     |   |     |      |     |                 |
| 4  | Limited and weak financial sector have caused absence of sufficient commercial services.   | 127 | 45.4 | 141 | 50.4 | 9  | 3.2  | 2 | 0.7 | 1 | 0.4 | 4.40 | 365 | Agreed          |
| 5  | Climate change aggravates natural threats against ecosystems and natural resources that in turn affect economic development.   | 126 | 45.0 | 138 | 49.3 | 9  | 3.2  | 6 | 2.1 | 1 | 0.4 | 4.36 | 346 | Agreed          |
| 6  | Extreme poverty has made irreversible effects on sustainable development.  | 111 | 39.6 | 147 | 52.5 | 17 | 6.1  | 5 | 1.8 | 0 | 0.0 | 4.30 | 332 | Agreed          |
| 7  | Small- size products market has affected economic growth and development.  | 142 | 50.7 | 96  | 34.3 | 33 | 11.8 | 7 | 2.5 | 2 | 0.7 | 4.32 | 265 | Strongly Agreed |
| 8  | Ineffective macroeconomic policies discouraged sustainable development.  | 89  | 31.8 | 169 | 60.4 | 12 | 4.3  | 6 | 2.1 | 4 | 1.4 | 4.19 | 375 | Agreed          |
| 9  | Landlocked nature of South Sudan causes high transports costs, and limits access to global market that causes help in generation of financial resources for development.           | 135 | 48.2 | 130 | 46.4 | 6  | 2.1  | 6 | 2.1 | 3 | 1.1 | 4.39 | 349 | Strongly Agreed |
| 10 | Low level of productivity and production due to lack of advanced technology, skilled human resources, lack of market information system and capital formation affects development. | 114 | 40.7 | 152 | 54.3 | 3  | 1.1  | 8 | 2.9 | 3 | 1.1 | 4.31 | 366 | Agreed          |
| 11 | Absence of planning commission contributes negatively to lack of comprehensive economic development planning.  | 138 | 49.3 | 128 | 45.7 | 11 | 3.9  | 2 | 0.7 | 1 | 0.4 | 4.43 | 355 | Strongly Agreed |
| 12 | Dependency on oil revenues has contributed to lack of economic diversification and inadequate financial resources to finance developmental activities.                             | 98  | 35.0 | 171 | 61.1 | 10 | 3.6  | 1 | 0.4 | 0 | 0.0 | 4.31 | 415 | Agreed          |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected by the questionnaire (2018).*

From table (6-11) about the economic, financial and technical constrains to sustainable economic development in South Sudan in (2005-2015), the sample of the study was responded with statements as the following:

(a) The statements that have responded with strongly agreed by the majority of informants are:

(1) “Small-size products market has affected economic growth and development”. Such statement was responded with (50.7%) of the informants. The average and the Chi-square are (4.32) and (265) respectively.

(2) “Landlocked nature of South Sudan causes high transports costs, and limits access to global market that causes help in generation of financial resources for development”. This statement was responded with (48.2%). Its average is (4.39) and the Chi-square is (349).

(3) “Absence of planning commission contributes negatively to lack of comprehensive economic development planning”. It was responded with (49.3%). The average and the Chi-square are (4.43) and (355) respectively.

(b) The Statements which have been responded with agreed are as the following:

(1) “Lack of scientific and innovative researching leads to lack of needed information for development”. Such statement was responded with (51.1%). The average is (4.40) and the Chi-square is (378).

(2) “Poor infrastructure hinders mobility of goods and services as well as the development of entire business sector”. The informants who respond with agreed to this statement present (58.2%). While the average is (4.31) and the Chi-square is (392).

(3) “Inadequate investments in major infrastructures such as agriculture, industry, power generation and public social services have weakened development”. Such statement was responded with (60.4%). And the average and Chi-square are (4.29) and (409) respectively.

(4) “Limited and weak financial sector have caused absence of sufficient commercial services”. For this statement about (50.4%) of respondents agreed. The average is (4.40) and the Chi-square is (365).

(5) “Climate change aggravates natural threats against ecosystems and natural resources that in turn affect economic development”. (49.3%) of the informants were agreed with such statement. The average is (4.36) and the Chi-square is (346).

(6) “Extreme poverty has made irreversible effects on sustainable development”. To this statement the percentage of respondents who responded with agreed is (52.5%). While the average is (4.30) and the Chi-square is (332).

(7) “Ineffective macroeconomic policies discouraged sustainable development”. (60.4%) of the total number of the respondents was agreed with the statement. The average is (4.19) and the Chi-square is (375).

(8) “Low level of productivity and production due to lack of advanced technology, skilled human resources, lack of market information system and capital formation affects



development”. The percentage of the informants who responded with agreed is (54.3%). The average is (4.31) and Chi-square is (366).

(9) “Dependency on oil revenues has contributed to lack of economic diversification and inadequate financial resources”. This statement was agreed with (61.1%). The average is (4.31) and the Chi-square is (415).

#### 6.2.4.2.3 Socio-Cultural Constrains to Sustainable Economic Development in South Sudan (2005-2015).

**Table 6-12: Socio-Cultural Constraints to Economic Development Test Result:**

| No | Statement   | Appropriate Answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | Average | K <sup>2</sup> -test | Comment |
|----|---|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|---------|----------------------|---------|
|    |   | Strongly agreed     |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |         |                      |         |
|    |   | frequency           | Percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency          | percentage |         |                      |         |
| 1  | Socially in South Sudan, female is considered just wife, caregiver and child-bearer. This concept limits women participation in productive activities and development.  | 105                 | 37.5       | 152       | 54.3       | 11        | 3.9        | 7         | 2.5        | 5                  | 1.8        | 4.23    | 333                  | Agreed  |
| 2  | All communities in South Sudan see girls as assets and source of wealth. This idea leads to their withdrawal from schools and to early and forced marriage which in turn deny human development.              | 92                  | 32.9       | 178       | 63.6       | 4         | 1.4        | 4         | 1.4        | 2                  | 0.7        | 4.28    | 442                  | Agreed  |
| 3  | Girl-child contribution to household activities eliminates their access to education and skills, contributes to their lower educational performance. Such socio-cultural situation affects human development. | 109                 | 38.9       | 134       | 47.9       | 19        | 6.8        | 12        | 4.3        | 6                  | 2.1        | 4.17    | 262                  | Agreed  |

|    |   |     |      |     |      |    |     |    |     |   |     |      |     |                 |
|----|---|-----|------|-----|------|----|-----|----|-----|---|-----|------|-----|-----------------|
| 4  | Polygamous nature of families in South Sudan is one of widespread cultural acceptance which limits the use of financial resources in development activities.      | 112 | 40.0 | 147 | 52.5 | 12 | 4.3 | 4  | 1.4 | 5 | 1.8 | 4.28 | 333 | Agreed          |
| 5  | Cattle resulting, Inter-tribal, and intra-communal conflicts contribute to insecurity that discourage investments in social infrastructures.                      | 105 | 37.5 | 164 | 58.6 | 4  | 1.4 | 5  | 1.8 | 2 | 0.7 | 4.30 | 398 | Agreed          |
| 6  | Rapid growth of population poses challenges and difficulties in provision of basic services.  | 151 | 53.9 | 93  | 33.2 | 22 | 7.9 | 14 | 5.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 4.36 | 294 | Strongly Agreed |
| 7  | Children's contribution to their families' economics stands as barrier to their schooling and negatively affects human development.                               | 133 | 47.5 | 123 | 43.9 | 15 | 5.4 | 9  | 3.2 | 0 | 0.0 | 4.36 | 312 | Strongly Agreed |
| 8  | Inequality between social groups leads to social instability which can undermine long-term human development.   | 94  | 33.6 | 173 | 61.8 | 8  | 2.9 | 3  | 1.1 | 2 | 0.7 | 4.26 | 414 | Agreed          |
| 9  | Family composition with more unproductive members like children and sick people increases vulnerability and family suffering and in turn discourages development. | 138 | 49.3 | 116 | 41.4 | 17 | 6.1 | 8  | 2.9 | 1 | 0.4 | 4.36 | 307 | Strongly Agreed |
| 10 | Women roles in South Sudan are just subordinate to roles of men. This social status undermines development process.   | 100 | 35.7 | 163 | 58.2 | 10 | 3.6 | 5  | 1.8 | 2 | 0.7 | 4.26 | 375 | Agreed          |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected by the questionnaire (2018).*

According to table (6-12) about the socio-cultural constraints to sustainable economic development in South Sudan in 2005-2015, the sample of the study has responded to the statements of this section as the following:

(a) Three statements were strongly agreed and they are:

(1) "Rapid growth of population poses challenges and difficulties in provision of basic services". The statement was responded with (53.9%). The average is (4.36) and the Chi-square is (294).

(2) "Children's contribution to their families' economics stands as barrier to their schooling and negatively affects human development". (47.5%) of the respondents were strongly agreed with the statement. The average is (4.36) and the Chi-square is (312).

(3) "Family composition with more unproductive members like children and sick people increases vulnerability and family suffering and in turn discourages economic development". The percentage of respondents who responded with strongly agreed for this statement is (49.3%). The average is (4.36) and the Chi-square is (307).

(b) The statements which have been responded with agreed are as the following:

(1) "Socially in South Sudan, female is considered just wife, caregiver and child-bearer. This concept limits women participation in productive activities and development". Such statement was agreed with (54.3). The average is (4.23) and the Chi-square is (333).

(2) "All communities in South Sudan see girls as assets and source of wealth. This idea leads to their withdrawal from schools and to early and forced marriage which in turn deny human development". The respondents agreed with the statement by (63.6). The average is (4.28) and the Chi-square is (442).

(3) "Girl-child contribution to household activities eliminates their access to education and skills, contributes to their lower educational performance. Such socio-cultural situation affects human development". Informants agreed with the statement (47.9). The average is (4.17) and the Chi-square is (262).

(4) "Polygamous nature of families in South Sudan is one of widespread cultural acceptance which limits the use of financial resources in development activities". The percentage of informant who agreed with the statement is (52.5). The average is (4.28) and the Chi-square is (333).

(5) "Cattle resulting, inter-tribal, and intra-communal conflicts contribute to insecurity that discourages investments in social infrastructures". The respondents agreed with the statement (58.6). The average is (4.30) and the Chi-square value is (398).

(6) "Inequality between social groups leads to social instability which can undermine long-term human development". The percentage of informants who agreed with the statement is (61.8). The average is (4.26) and the Chi-square value is (414).

(7) "Women roles in South Sudan are just subordinate to roles of men. This social status undermines development process". The respondents agreed with the statement by (58.2). The average is (4.26) and the Chi-square value is (375).

## 6.2.5 Section Two Analyses and Testing: Prospective Policies and Strategies for Sustainable Economic Development in South Sudan:

### 6.2.5.1 Prospective Political, Legal and Administrative Policies and Strategies for Sustainable Development in South Sudan:

**Table 6-13: Political, Legal and Administrative Policies and Strategies for Economic Development Analysis Result:**

| No | Statement  | Appropriate Answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | Average | K <sup>2</sup> – test | Comment |
|----|--|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|---------|-----------------------|---------|
|    |  | Strongly agreed     |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |         |                       |         |
|    |  | frequency           | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency          | percentage |         |                       |         |
| 1  | Build strong political commitment to facilitate sustainable economic development.  | 94                  | 33.6       | 160       | 57.1       | 9         | 3.2        | 2         | 0.7        | 3                  | 1.1        | 4.09    | 361                   | Agreed  |
| 2  | Create political democratic climate to deepen political system and enhance political stability that will foster sustainable development.   | 94                  | 33.6       | 171       | 61.1       | 8         | 2.9        | 3         | 1.1        | 0                  | 0.0        | 4.23    | 409                   | Agreed  |
| 3  | Distribution of roles and tasks during execution and implementation of national programs.  | 130                 | 46.4       | 132       | 47.1       | 17        | 6.1        | 1         | 0.4        | 0                  | 0.0        | 4.46    | 349                   | Agreed  |
| 4  | All specialized public and private institutions shall focus on management of their tasks and during execution of nation and peace building program to create balance in provision of basic services and program. | 117                 | 41.8       | 141       | 50.4       | 18        | 6.4        | 4         | 1.4        | 0                  | 0.0        | 4.18    | 309                   | Agreed  |
| 5  | Establish efficient and transparent governance to  | 113                 | 40.4       | 156       | 55.7       | 8         | 2.9        | 2         | 0.7        | 1                  | 0.4        | 3.94    | 346                   | Agreed  |

|    |  |     |      |     |      |    |     |   |     |   |     |      |     |                 |  |
|----|--|-----|------|-----|------|----|-----|---|-----|---|-----|------|-----|-----------------|--|
|    | improve capability of public and private sectors in provision of services.   |     |      |     |      |    |     |   |     |   |     |      |     |                 |  |
| 6  | Create sound management for economic regulation instruments to strengthen role of public institution in productive activities.               | 117 | 41.8 | 144 | 51.4 | 16 | 5.7 | 3 | 1.1 | 0 | 0.0 | 4.36 | 342 | Agreed          |  |
| 7  | Develop measures to reduce negative impacts of lengthy official procedures of cross-borders and capital goods.                               | 142 | 50.7 | 119 | 42.5 | 15 | 5.4 | 3 | 1.1 | 1 | 0.4 | 4.39 | 333 | Strongly Agreed |  |
| 8  | Organize the operational environment of private sector to create attractive environment for investments.                                     | 100 | 35.7 | 160 | 57.1 | 13 | 4.6 | 4 | 1.4 | 3 | 1.1 | 4.24 | 365 | Agreed          |  |
| 9  | Strengthen institutional and human capacities and to conduct sustainable economic development.   | 116 | 41.4 | 152 | 54.3 | 8  | 2.9 | 1 | 0.4 | 3 | 1.1 | 4.19 | 364 | Agreed          |  |
| 10 | Strengthen legal system to eliminate financial crimes and minimize informal sector existence that shall boost development of private sector. | 101 | 36.1 | 159 | 56.8 | 13 | 4.6 | 5 | 1.8 | 2 | 0.7 | 4.17 | 350 | Agreed          |  |
| 11 | Develop measures that could increase access of getting land and land tenure to improve investment in key infrastructures.                    | 140 | 50.0 | 120 | 42.9 | 12 | 4.3 | 5 | 1.8 | 3 | 1.1 | 4.10 | 293 | Strongly Agreed |  |
| 12 | Improve women's property rights that can make them to contribute effectively in economic development.  | 102 | 36.4 | 167 | 59.6 | 6  | 2.1 | 3 | 1.1 | 2 | 0.7 | 4.51 | 427 | Agreed          |  |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected through the questionnaire (2018).*

From the table (6-13), about prospective political, legal and administrative policies and strategies for sustainable development in south Sudan, the sample of the study responded with the statements of this section as the following:

(a) The respondents strongly agreed with the statements below:

(1) “Develop measures to reduce negative impacts of lengthy official procedures of cross-borders and capital goods”. The informants strongly agreed with the statement (50.7). The average is (4.39) and the Chi-square value is (333).

(2) “Develop measures that could increase access of getting land and land tenure to improve investment in key infrastructures”. The percentage of respondents who strongly agreed with the statement is (50.0). The average is (4.10) and the Chi-square is (293).

(b) The majority of the informants agreed with the following statements:

(1) “Build strong political commitment to facilitate sustainable economic development”. The percentage of agreed is (57.1). The average is (4.09) and the value of Chi-square is (361).

(2) “Create political democratic climate to deepen political system and enhance political stability that will foster sustainable development”. Most informants agreed with this statement (61.1) and the average and the value of Chi-square are (4.23) and (409).

(3) “Distribution of roles and tasks during execution and implementation of national programs”. Respondents agreed with statement (48.2). The average is (4.46) and Chi-square is (349).

(4) “All specialized public and private institutions shall focus on management of their tasks during execution of nation and peace building programs to create balance in provision of basic services and program”. Respondents agreed with the statement (50.4) and the average is (4.18). The value of Chi-square is (309).

(5) “Establish efficient and transparent governance to improve capability of public and private sectors in provision of services”. Majority of the informants agreed (55.7). The average is (3.94) and the value of Chi-square is (346).

(6) “Create sound management for economic regulation instruments to strengthen the role of public institutions in productive activities”. The investigated sample agreed with the statement (51.4). The average is (4.36) and the Chi-square is (342).

(7) “Organize the operational environment of private sector to create attractive environment for investments”. With this statement respondents agreed (57.1). The average is (4.24) and the Chi-square is (365).

(8) “Strengthen institutional and human capacities and to conduct sustainable economic development”. (54.3) of the tested sample agreed with the statement, the average is (4.19) and the value of Chi-square is (364).

(9) “Strengthen legal system to eliminate financial crimes and minimize informal sector existence that shall boost development of private sector”. Investigated respondents agreed with the statement (56.8). The average is (4.17) and the Chi-square is (350).

(10) “Improve women’s property rights that can make them to contribute effectively in economic development”. According to the table (59.6) of the investigated sample agreed with the statement. The average and the Chi-square are (4.51) and (427) respectively.

#### 6.2.5.2 Prospective Economic, Financial and Technical Policies and Strategies for Sustainable Development in South Sudan:

**Table 6-14: Economic, Financial and Technical Policies and Strategies for Economic Development Analysis Result:**

| No | Statement   | Appropriate Answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | Average | K <sup>2</sup> -test | Comment |
|----|---|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|---------|----------------------|---------|
|    |   | Strongly Agreed     |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |         |                      |         |
|    |   | frequency           | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency          | percentage |         |                      |         |
| 1  | Give much concern to scientific and innovative researching that could provide adequate information for development.                       | 104                 | 37.1       | 170       | 60.7       | 3         | 1.1        | 2         | 0.7        | 1                  | 0.4        | 4.34    | 429                  | Agreed  |
| 2  | Enhance infrastructure (transportation system, and power supply) to encourage business sector growth and development.                     | 105                 | 37.5       | 167       | 59.6       | 6         | 2.1        | 2         | 0.7        | 0                  | 0.0        | 4.34    | 416                  | Agreed  |
| 3  | Increase investments in key infrastructure such as agriculture, industry, power generation and public social services.                    | 76                  | 27.1       | 189       | 67.5       | 7         | 2.5        | 7         | 2.5        | 1                  | 0.4        | 4.19    | 463                  | Agreed  |
| 4  | Development of financial institutions to increase access to financial resources and improve commercial services                           | 106                 | 37.9       | 139       | 49.6       | 15        | 5.4        | 15        | 5.4        | 5                  | 1.8        | 4.16    | 274                  | Agreed  |
| 5  | Reduce the level of extreme poverty to promote economic development.  | 93                  | 33.2       | 146       | 52.1       | 21        | 7.5        | 12        | 4.3        | 8                  | 2.9        | 4.09    | 267                  | Agreed  |
| 6  | Enlarge the scope of market for products by exploring locally, regionally and globally new markets and develop market information system. | 89                  | 31.8       | 147       | 52.5       | 19        | 6.8        | 20        | 7.1        | 5                  | 1.8        | 4.05    | 261                  | Agreed  |
| 7  | Enact applicable regulations and measures to reduce climate change effects on ecosystems and natural resources.                           | 84                  | 30.0       | 119       | 42.5       | 33        | 11.8       | 36        | 12.9       | 8                  | 2.9        | 3.84    | 143                  | Agreed  |
| 8  | Build good relations with costal neighboring countries  | 110                 | 39.3       | 135       | 48.2       | 11        | 3.9        | 18        | 6.4        | 6                  | 2.1        | 4.16    | 270                  | Agreed  |

|    |   |     |      |     |      |    |     |    |     |   |     |      |     |        |  |
|----|---|-----|------|-----|------|----|-----|----|-----|---|-----|------|-----|--------|--|
|    | to minimize the country's landlocked nature effects on access to global market and development.   |     |      |     |      |    |     |    |     |   |     |      |     |        |  |
| 9  | Develop effective macroeconomic policies to remove difficulties on development.   | 95  | 33.9 | 151 | 53.9 | 15 | 5.4 | 17 | 6.1 | 2 | 0.7 | 4.14 | 298 | Agreed |  |
| 10 | Increase the level of productivity and production to stimulate economic growth and development.   | 91  | 32.5 | 166 | 59.3 | 8  | 2.9 | 6  | 2.1 | 9 | 3.2 | 4.16 | 363 | Agreed |  |
| 11 | Establish planning commission (authority) and adopt comprehensive economic planning.  | 103 | 36.8 | 154 | 55.0 | 11 | 3.9 | 9  | 3.2 | 3 | 1.1 | 4.23 | 337 | Agreed |  |
| 12 | Diversify economic and financial resources to reduce dependency on insufficient oil revenues and to increase development financial resources. | 76  | 27.1 | 188 | 67.1 | 14 | 5.0 | 2  | 0.7 | 0 | 0.0 | 4.21 | 458 | Agreed |  |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected by the questionnaire (2018).*

According to the table (6-14) about the opinions of the tested sample of the study on the prospective economic, financial, and technical policies and strategies for economic development in South Sudan; the informants agreed with all the statements as the following:

(1) "Give much concern to scientific and innovative researching that could provide adequate information for development". The respondents agreed with the statement (60.7). The average is (4.34) and the Chi-square value is (429).

(2) "Enhance infrastructure (transportation system, and power supply) to encourage business sector growth and development". A good number of the investigated sample agreed with this statement (59.6). The average is (4.34) and the Chi-square is (416).

(3) "Increase investments in key infrastructure such as agriculture, industry, power generation and public social services". The most investigated sample agreed with the statement (67.5). The average is (4.19) and the Chi-square is (463).

(4) "Development of financial institutions to increase access to financial resources and improve commercial services". The researcher found that (49.6) of respondents agreed with such statement. The average is (4.16) and the value of Chi-square is (274).

(5) "Reduce the level of extreme poverty to promote economic development". According to the table (52.1) of the investigated sample agreed with this statement. The average is (4.09) and the Chi-square is (267).



(6) “Enlarge the scope of market for products by exploring locally, regionally and globally new markets and develop market information system”. Investigated sample agreed with the statement by (52.5). The average is found (4.05) and the value of Chi-square is (261).

(7) “Enact applicable regulations and measures to reduce climate change effects on ecosystems and natural resources”. It has found that the percentage of agreed is (42.5). The average is (3.84) and the calculated Chi-square value is (143).

(8) “Build good relations with costal neighboring countries to minimize the country’s landlocked nature effects on access to global market and development”. (48.2) of the investigated sample was found agreed with such statement. The average is (4.16) and the Chi-square is (270).

(9) “Develop effective macroeconomic policies to remove difficulties on development”. Due to the sample who have been investigated by the researcher, it have found that (53.9) of informants agreed with the statement. The average is found (4.14) and the Chi-square is (298).

(10) “Increase the level of productivity and production to stimulate economic growth and development”. (59.3) of the respondents have found agreed with this statement. The average is (4.16) and the value of calculated Chi-square is (363).

(11) “Establish planning commission (authority) and adopt comprehensive economic planning”. (55.0) of the investigated sample was found agreed with the statement, the average is found (4.23) and the Chi-square is (337).

(12) “Diversify economic and financial resources to reduce dependency on insufficient oil revenues and to increase development financial resources”. (67.1) agreed with the statement. The average is (4.21) and the Chi-square is found (458).

6.2.5.3 Prospective Socio-Cultural Policies and Strategies for sustainable development in South Sudan:

**Table 6-15: Prospective Socio-Cultural Policies and Strategies for Economic Development Analysis Result:**

| No | Statement   | Appropriate Answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | Average | K <sup>2</sup> – test | Comment |
|----|---|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|---------|-----------------------|---------|
|    |   | Strongly agreed     |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |         |                       |         |
|    |   | frequency           | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency          | percentage |         |                       |         |
| 1  | Create pro-female socio-cultural policies to eradicate the concept of a female as just wife, caregiver and child-bearer and enhance women participation in productive activities and development. | 87                  | 31.1       | 157       | 56.1       | 8         | 2.9        | 23        | 8.2        | 5                  | 1.8        | 4.06    | 306                   | Agreed  |
| 2  | Enact laws and regulations to ban   | 66                  | 23.6       | 167       | 59.6       | 23        | 8.2        | 19        | 6.8        | 5                  | 1.8        | 3.96    | 312                   | Agreed  |

|   |  |     |      |     |      |    |      |    |      |    |     |      |     |                 |
|---|--|-----|------|-----|------|----|------|----|------|----|-----|------|-----|-----------------|
|   | withdrawal of girls from schools and early and forced marriage to promote their skills that will increase their capacity and participation in economic development.          |     |      |     |      |    |      |    |      |    |     |      |     |                 |
| 3 | Enact and enforce laws to eliminate young girls' contribution to household activities to increase their access to education that will promote sustainable human development. | 98  | 35.0 | 139 | 49.6 | 24 | 8.6  | 14 | 5.0  | 5  | 1.8 | 4.11 | 251 | Agreed          |
| 4 | Create socio-cultural awareness to reduce the polygamous nature of families that will have positive impact on financial resource uses in economic development.               | 103 | 36.8 | 149 | 53.2 | 14 | 5.0  | 8  | 2.9  | 6  | 2.1 | 4.20 | 311 | Agreed          |
| 5 | Prevent internal conflicts and transitional crimes to improve internal peace and security that will increase investments in social infrastructures.                          | 96  | 34.3 | 165 | 58.9 | 8  | 2.9  | 10 | 3.6  | 1  | 0.4 | 4.23 | 374 | Agreed          |
| 6 | Manage rapid growth of population and entire demographic change through sound and effective population policies and strategies that will improve basic services.             | 126 | 45.0 | 87  | 31.1 | 28 | 10.0 | 29 | 10.4 | 10 | 3.6 | 4.04 | 169 | Strongly Agreed |
| 7 | Introduce pro-child policies to eliminate children's contribution to their household economies that will widen their educational   | 101 | 36.1 | 128 | 45.7 | 20 | 7.1  | 28 | 10.0 | 3  | 1.1 | 4.06 | 216 | Agreed          |

| opportunities. |  |     |      |     |      |    |     |    |     |    |     |      |     |                 |
|----------------|--|-----|------|-----|------|----|-----|----|-----|----|-----|------|-----|-----------------|
| 8              | Take actions to minimize inequality between social groups to improve social stability that will contribute positively in socio-economic development. | 113 | 40.4 | 128 | 45.7 | 25 | 8.9 | 14 | 5.0 | 0  | 0.0 | 4.21 | 255 | Agreed          |
| 9              | Develop measures to reduce households' vulnerability and enhance livelihood of people.   | 77  | 27.5 | 171 | 61.1 | 18 | 6.4 | 9  | 3.2 | 5  | 1.8 | 4.09 | 356 | Agreed          |
| 10             | Take actions and measures to support women to play principal role equal to roles of men to increase their participation in development process.      | 125 | 44.6 | 99  | 35.4 | 19 | 6.8 | 27 | 9.6 | 10 | 3.6 | 4.08 | 195 | Strongly Agreed |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected by the questionnaire (2018).*

From the table (6-15) the sample of the study which has been investigated responded with the statements of this section as the following:

(a) Strongly agreed with the following statement:

(1) “Manage rapid growth of population and entire demographic change through sound and effective population policies and strategies that will improve basic services”. Majority of the sample of the study strongly agreed with statement (45.0), the average is (4.04) and the Chi-square is found (169).

(2) “Take actions and measures to support women to play principal role equal to roles of men to increase their participation in development process”. The sample of the study strongly agreed by (44.6), the average was found (4.08) and the calculated value of Chi-square is (195).

(b) Agreed with the following statement:

(1) “Create pro-female socio-cultural policies to eradicate the concept of a female as just wife, caregiver and child-bearer and enhance women participation in productive activities and development”. With this statement, (56.1) of the sample of the study agreed, the average is (4.06) and the value of Chi-square (306).

(2) “Enact laws and regulations to ban withdrawal of girls from schools and early and forced marriage to promote their skills that will increase their capacity and participation in economic development”. (59.6) of the tested sample agreed with such statement, the average is found (3.96) and the Chi-square is (312).

(3) “Enact and enforce laws to eliminate young girls’ contribution to household activities to increase their access to education that will promote sustainable human development”. The investigated sample agreed with this statement (49.6), the average is (4.11) and Chi-square is (251).

(4) “Create socio-cultural awareness to reduce the polygamous nature of families that will have positive impact on financial resource uses in economic development”. (53.2) agreed with the statement, the average is found (4.20) and the chi-square value is (311).

(5) “Prevent internal conflicts and transitional crimes to improve internal peace and security that will increase investments in social infrastructures”. This statement is agreed by (58.9) of the sample of the study, the average is (4.23) and the chi-square is (374).

(6) “Introduce pro-child policies to eliminate children’s contribution to their household economies that will widen their educational opportunities”. Majority of the sample agreed with this statement (45.7), the average is (4.06) and the chi-square is (216).

(7) “Take actions to minimize inequality between social groups to improve social stability that will contribute positively in socio-economic development”. With this statement (45.7) of the sample strongly agreed, the average is (4.21) and the calculated value of Chi-square is found (255).

(8) “Develop measures to reduce households’ vulnerability and enhance livelihood of people”. A great number of the informants agreed with this statement (61.1). The average is (4.09) and the calculated value of Chi-square is (356).

**6.3 The Research Hypotheses Testing:**

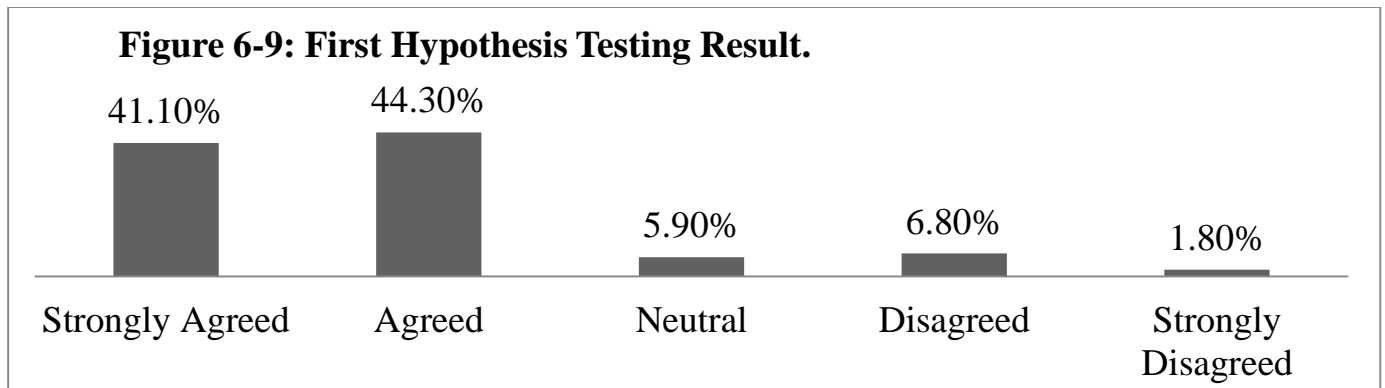
**6.3.1 The First Hypothesis Test:** The first hypothesis states that “the Government of South Sudan and the partners in development failed to achieve development in 2005-2015, due to political, administrative and legal constraints such as political instability; weak institutional and human capacities; lack of good governance (political and administrative corruption); over concentration on execution and implementation of Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) items during interim period, and the nation and peace building programs in post-independence; lack of political will (commitment) and so on”.

**Table 6-16: First Hypothesis Testing Result:**

| Question | Appropriate answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | Average | K <sup>2</sup> – test | Comment |
|----------|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|---------|-----------------------|---------|
|          | Strongly agreed     |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |         |                       |         |
|          | frequency           | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency          | percentage |         |                       |         |
| One      | 1382                | 41.1       | 1489      | 44.3       | 199       | 5.9        | 230       | 6.8        | 60                 | 1.8        | 4.30    | 272                   | Agreed  |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected by the questionnaire (2018).*

From the table (6-16) about the first hypotheses the sample of the study strongly agreed with percentage(41.1%), agreed with percentage(44.3%), neutral with percentage (5.9%), disagreed with percentage (6.8%) and strongly disagreed with percentage (1.8%) and the average is (4.30), the expected frequency is equal to (56) and the value of Chi-Square (K<sup>2</sup>- test) calculated is (272) while the Chi-Square value from the table is equal to (9.488) under truth value (0.05). The percentage accumulated chi-square value from the scales strongly agreed and agreed is (85.4%) and from the scales strongly disagreed and disagreed is (8.6%). Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted by the degree of agreed. The result is represented by the figure (6-9).



Source: *Constructed from table 6-16 (2018).*

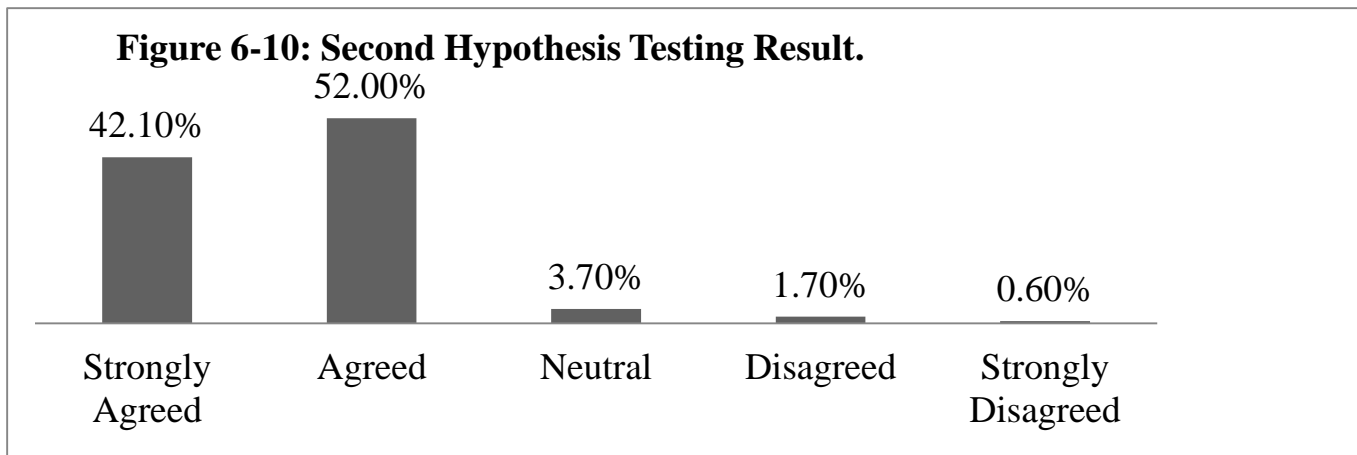
**6.3.2 The Second Hypothesis Test:** The second hypotheses states that “Economic development process did not realize in South Sudan as a result of economic, financial, and technical constraints including underdeveloped financial sector; lack of scientific, innovative and technical researching; poor infrastructure; inadequate investment in major infrastructures; dependency on oil production; landlocked nature of the country; and absence of planning commission to implement developmental policies, plans and strategies in 2005-2015”.

**Table 6-17: Second Hypothesis Testing Result:**

| Question | Appropriate Answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | Average | K <sup>2</sup> - test | Comment |
|----------|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|---------|-----------------------|---------|
|          | Strongly agreed     |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |         |                       |         |
|          | frequency           | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency | percentage | frequency          | percentage |         |                       |         |
| Two      | 1413                | 42.1       | 1747      | 52.0       | 124       | 3.7        | 56        | 1.7        | 20                 | 0.6        | 4.28    | 362                   | Agreed  |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected by the questionnaire (2018).*

From the table (6-17) about the second hypothesis the sample of the study has strongly agreed with percentage (42.1%), agreed with percentage (52.0%), neutral with percentage (3.7%), disagreed with percentage (1.7%) and strongly disagreed with percentage (0.6%). The average is (4.28) and the expected frequency is equal to (56) while the calculated value of Chi-square (K<sup>2</sup>-test) is (362), the Chi-square value from the table is equal to (9.488) under truth value (0.05). The accumulated percentage of the chi-square value from strongly agreed and agreed is (94.0%) and from strongly disagreed and disagreed is (2.3%). Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted by the degree of agreed, and the result is represented graphically by the figure (6-10).



Source: *Constructed from table 6-17 (2018).*

**6.3.3The Third Hypothesis Test:** The third hypothesis states that “South Sudan Government did not attain significant development in 2005-2015, because of socio-cultural constraints on development, which include such concepts that consider girls as assets and source of wealth and properties for their families that lead to early and forced young girls' marriage and in turn limit their learning and negatively affects sustainable human development; cattle rustling, inter-tribal and intra-communal conflicts that contribute to insecurity; contribution of children to their family economies in forms of house works, agricultural labour, pastoral activities and income generating activities; and concept that consider women as just caregivers and child bearers which denies their participation in economic activities in an effective manner”.

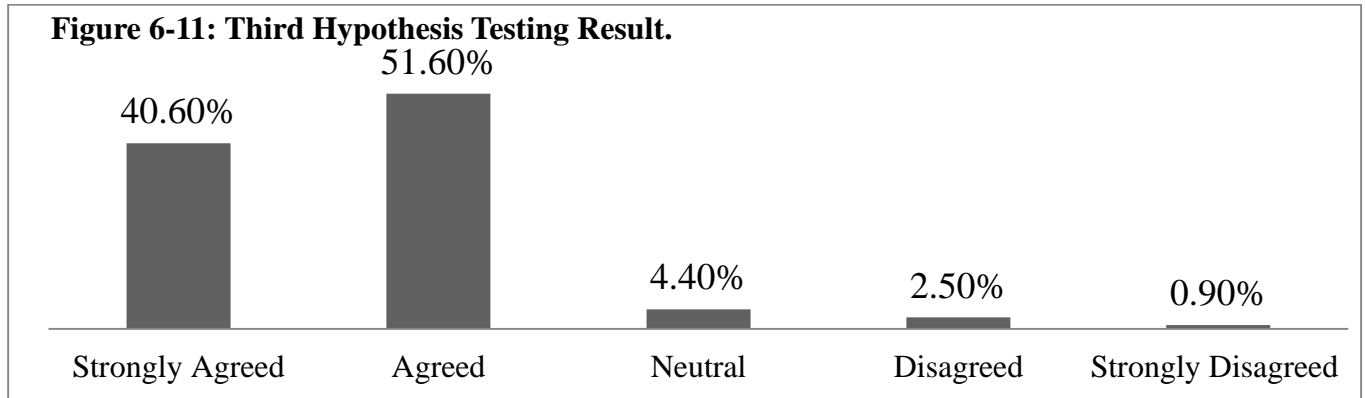
**Table 6-18: Third Hypothesis Testing Result:**

| Question | Appropriate Answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | Average | K <sup>2</sup> – test | Comment |
|----------|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|---------|-----------------------|---------|
|          | Strongly agreed     |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |         |                       |         |
|          | Frequency           | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency          | Percentage |         |                       |         |
| Three    | 1138                | 40.6       | 1444      | 51.6       | 122       | 4.4        | 71        | 2.5        | 25                 | 0.9        | 4.24    | 289                   | Agreed  |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected by the questionnaire (2018).*

From the table (6-18), the result of the third hypothesis test is that the sample strongly agreed with percentage (40.6%), agreed with percentage (51.6%), neutral with percentage (4.4%), disagreed with percentage (2.5%) and strongly disagreed with percentage (0.9%), the average is

(4.24) and the value of expected frequency is equal to (56). The value of calculated Chi-square ( $K^2$ -test) is (289) while the Chi-square value from the table is equal to (9.488) under the truth value (0.05). The accumulated chi-square of the scales strongly agreed is (93.5) and of the strongly disagreed and disagreed is (2.9). Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted by the degree of agreed. The result is represented graphically by the figure (6-11).



Source: *Constructed from table 6-18 (2018).*

**6.3.4 The Fourth Hypothesis Test:** The fourth hypothesis states that “South Sudan can achieve significant economic development (construction, rehabilitation and provision of basic services), due to well formulated political, administrative and legal policies, plans, and strategies such as strong political will; political stability; efficient and transparent governance; attractive operational environment for investment; sound management for public and private sector; and adequate human resource skills development”.

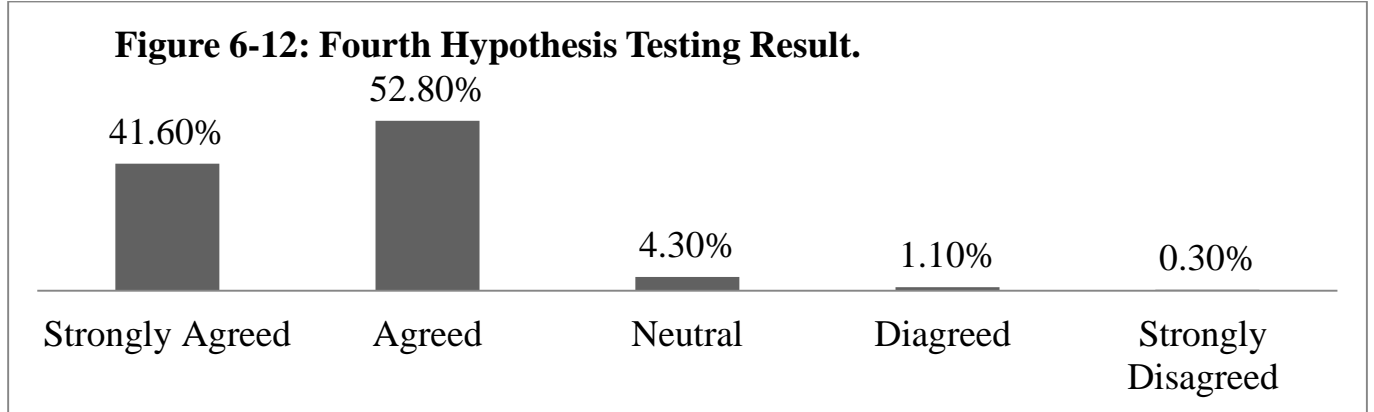
**Table 6-19: Fourth Hypothesis Testing Result:**

| Question | A ppropriate Answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | Average | $K^2$ – test | Comment |
|----------|----------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|---------|--------------|---------|
|          | Strongly agreed      |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |         |              |         |
|          | Frequency            | percentage | Frequency | percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency          | percentage |         |              |         |
| Four     | 1397                 | 41.6       | 1775      | 52.8       | 143       | 4.3        | 36        | 1.1        | 9                  | 0.3        | 4.15    | 354          | Agreed  |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected by the questionnaire (2018).*

The table (6-19) shows the result of the fourth hypothesis test. In this table the researcher found the sample of the study strongly agreed with (41.6%), agreed with percentage (52.8%), neutral with percentage (4.3%), disagreed with percentage (1.1%) and strongly disagreed with percentage (0.3%). The average is (4.15), the expected frequency is equal to (56) and the value of the calculated Chi-square ( $K^2$ - test) is (354), while the Chi-square value from the

table is equal to (9.488) under the truth value (0.05). The accumulated value of chi-square from the scales strongly agreed and agreed is (94.4) and from strongly disagreed and disagreed is (1.4). Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted by the degree of agreed, and the result is represented by the figure (6-12).



Source: *Constructed from table 6-19 (2018).*

**6.3.5 The Fifth Hypothesis Test:** The fifth hypothesis states that “The Government of South Sudan and other developmental partners could maximize socio-economic and physical development, due to well formulated economic, financial, and technical policies, plans, and strategies”.

**Table 6-20: Fifth Hypothesis Testing Result:**

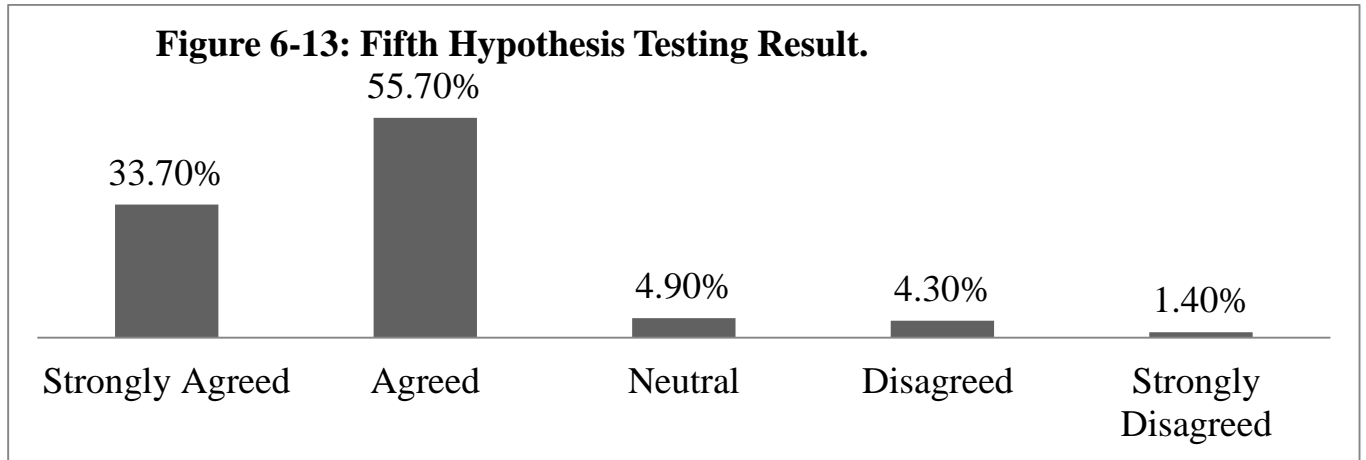
| Q<br>Question | Appropriate Answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | Average | K <sup>2</sup> - test | Comment |
|---------------|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|---------|-----------------------|---------|
|               | Strongly agreed     |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |         |                       |         |
|               | Frequency           | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency          | Percentage |         |                       |         |
| Five          | 1132                | 33.7       | 1871      | 55.7       | 163       | 4.9        | 146       | 4.3        | 48                 | 1.4        | 4.12    | 354                   | Agreed  |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected by the questionnaire (2018).*

The table (6-20) demonstrates the result of the five hypothesis test. The percentage of the sample who strongly agreed is (33.7%), agreed is (55.7%), neutral is (4.9%), disagreed is (4.3%) and the percentage of those who strongly disagreed is (1.4%). The average is (4.12) and the expected frequency is equal to (56). The value of the calculated accumulated Chi-square (K<sup>2</sup>- test) is (354), and the Chi-square value from the table is equal to (9.488) under the truth value (0.05). The accumulated chi-square value of strongly agreed and agreed is (89.4) and from the scales strongly disagreed plus disagreed is (5.7). Therefore, the



hypothesis is accepted by the degree of agreed, and the result is graphically represented by the figure (6-13).



Source: *Constructed from table 6-20 (2018).*

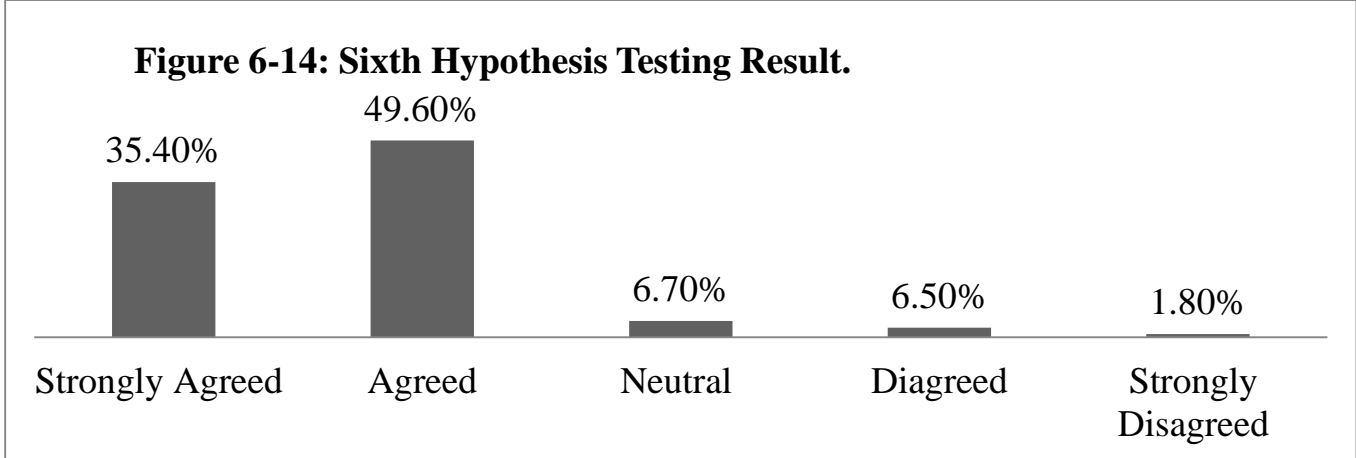
**6.3.6 The Sixth Hypothesis Test:** The sixth hypothesis states that “Economic development could occur in the Republic of South Sudan, if socio-cultural policies and strategies have been adopted and implemented correctly”.

**Table 6-21: Sixth Hypothesis Testing Result:**

| Question | Appropriate Answers |            |           |            |           |            |           |            |                    |            | A Average | K <sup>2</sup> -test | Comment |
|----------|---------------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|--------------------|------------|-----------|----------------------|---------|
|          | Strongly agreed     |            | Agreed    |            | Neutral   |            | Disagreed |            | Strongly Disagreed |            |           |                      |         |
|          | Frequency           | percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | percentage | Frequency          | Percentage |           |                      |         |
| Six      | 992                 | 35.4       | 1390      | 49.6       | 187       | 5.6        | 181       | 6.5        | 50                 | 1.8        | 4.28      | 289                  | Agreed  |

Source: *Constructed from the data collected by the questionnaire (2018).*

The table (6-21) shows the result of the sixth hypothesis test. The percentage of informants who strongly agreed is (35.4%), agreed is (49.6%), neutral is (6.7%), the percentages of disagreed and strongly disagreed are (6.5%) and (1.8%) respectively. The average is (4.28), the expected frequency is equal to (56), the value of calculated Chi-Square (K<sup>2</sup>- test) is (289), and the Chi-Square value from the table is equal to (9.488) under the truth value (0.05). The accumulated value of the chi-square is (85) from strongly agreed and agreed but it is (8.3) from strongly disagreed plus disagreed. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted by the degree of agreed. The result is represented graphically by the figure (6-14).



Source: *Constructed from table 6-21(2018).*

# **Chapter Seven**

## **Concluding Remarks of the Study**

7.1 General and Specific Findings of the Study

7.2 Recommendations of the Study

7.3 Proposed Further Studies

**7.0 Introduction:** In this chapter some issues such as general and specific findings, recommendations, and proposed further studies have explained in details as under.

**7.1 General and Specific Findings:** The general and specific findings of the study are as under.

**7.1.1 Findings (General):**

(1) Economic development sustains competitiveness of an economy; raises the overall productivity and incomes; maintains high level of employment and job quality; provides necessary job opportunities to jobless middle-class and working forces; and generates needed earnings to further investments.

(2) Existence of natural resources in abundance is found as essential and necessary condition for economic development.

(3) To achieve significant economic growth and development, capital formation should at least reach 30% of the gross domestic product (GDP) of a country. And to accumulate capital, per capita savings rate shall be increased by forced savings through taxation policy, deficit financing, public borrowing, foreign aid, loans, grants, use of unemployed and underemployed rural population in construction works; and larger exports to increase productivity of various sectors and enhance national output.

(4) The use of improved techniques in production brings about a significant increase in per capita income; enhances availability of the resources and increases the ability to make their use more effective and fruitful in production; makes it possible to have greater output from given resources or given output be obtained by the use of a smaller quantity of resources.

(5) Rapid economic growth and development requires rapid growth of human talents and smartness in mind through education and training to provide basic skills such as literacy and numeracy, specialized technical knowledge, leadership and example; and dedicated people to high standards of honesty, competency, knowledge and performance that demanded by the modern methods of production and management, as well as economic development.

(6) Division of labor and specialization lead to reduction or saving in time of production, increase in productivity, decrease in costs of production, and less expensive or cheap final product that resulting in large scale economies and help in development of industrial sector.

(7) Sound administration that possesses ability to recognize opportunities for successful introduction of new commodities, new techniques, new sources of supply, and knows how to assemble necessary equipments, managerial and labor force skills, organizes them and ensures their effective and efficient use for certain work process is the brain behind a successful business enterprise; increased productivity of capital and labor, and overall economic growth that gives rise to industrialization and rapid economic development.

(8) Economic growth is possible when the supplies of capital and natural resources are adequately increasing along with the growth of labor force that determined by population growth at optimum size, which increases the level of output through increasing number of the working population/labor force; and leads to increase in demand for goods which means

growing market for goods and services that facilitates the process of economic growth and development.

(9) International trade facilitates the transfer of new ideas exist in the rest of the world to a developing economy, closes the gap of knowledge, boosts output of a country through removal of barriers to trade, and creates greater competitive pressure on domestic firms which seek to acquire foreign knowledge relative to production process and techniques to stimulate economic growth is the easier way to economic development.

(10) Creation of regional economic integration enables the participating countries to achieve more efficient utilization of natural and human resources, and ensures high productivity, growth, and competitiveness in the sphere of international economy that leads to improvements in living standard of the citizens of the integrated countries.

(11) There is a strong relationship between urbanization and economic growth. This is because there is no economic development without urbanization, and there is no a single country in the industrial world that has achieved significant economic growth without urbanization and cities where the vast majority of modern productive activities are concentrated, and the vast majority of paid employment opportunities are located. It is a necessary condition for a long-run economic growth and closely tied up with the long-run development of economies and societies.

(12) Geography through climate, natural resources and topography has a direct impact on the economic growth and development because such factors obviously influence the health of people, agricultural productivity, economic structure of an economy, transport costs and the diffusion of information and knowledge. Geography plays an important role in determining the level and growth of income per capita.

(13) Improved health makes people stronger and less susceptible to diseases, and more productive. Good health and physical strength or fitness of the workers makes them more efficient and leads to economic progress.

(14) Economically, greater inequalities of income and wealth hinder maximization of human welfare; creates inequality in education and training that required for high-paid occupations. And socially cause class conflicts and class struggles; divide the societies into class of haves and class of have not, and leads into exploitation of poor by the rich.

### **7.1.2 Findings (specific) for constraints:**

(1) In South Sudan there is lack of political ability, courage and support to persuade elites and interested groups that development is much important to all citizens of the country; and that its absence is always meet with resistance, frustration, and internal conflict. The lack of political will have caused poor performance and wide gap between economic development planning and implementation, and mainly constrained economic development.

(2) Political uncertainties and risks due to deterioration of internal security, frequent reshufflings of the government, and civil disturbances in neighboring countries have affected

the conditions and attractiveness of South Sudan as a destination for foreign investment and required financial resources from development programs.

(3) The signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in January 2005 has given the government of South Sudan an opportunity to embark on recovery, reconstruction, infrastructure development, and delivery of basic social services to stimulate economic development. But once the unity was made unattractive, the leaders of South Sudan have concentrated their efforts on secession of the South rather than provision of public basic services; thus the concentration on implementation of peace items has negatively affected socio-economic development in the country.

(4) In early years the government of South Sudan has focused and emphasized on peace, state, and nation-building programs and on the policy of development follow peace which have negatively affected the delivery of public services in the country.

(5) Poor governance in South Sudan attributed to administrative and financial corruption, inadequate regulatory and legal frameworks, weak institutional capacity, lack of transparency and accountability that have often constrained private and public investment and business. Corruption in large-scale business, contracts, and speculations in land and resources was a serious issue even after independence. This is because strongmen and high-level individuals were able to access resources of the state and use them privately, channel them onwards to their followers and they were also able to influence the appointment of individuals in public posts along family, clan and ethnic lines.

(6) Weak public sector administration in South Sudan that characterized by weak policy; weak legal and regulatory frameworks; weak institutional structure and system in form of inappropriate organizational structure, inadequate systems, understaffing, overlapping and duplication of roles, inefficient bureaucracy; weak civil society participation; inadequate information; inadequate standards and weak quality infrastructure; lack of social protection and support systems; and weak management of environment and climate change has caused a poor delivery of public goods and services across the country.

(7) The delays in getting clearance for goods coming into and out from South Sudan has constrained the smoothness of cross-border trading with Uganda, Kenya, Ethiopia and Sudan and the distribution of goods on the right time, due to poor and limited customs staff capacities and administrative procedures which considered as the major bottleneck and a source of increased transport that resulting from long waiting times at border crossings. There is because processing of clearances is done manually.

*A owner of constructing company stressed that "A business firm operating in Juba has to submit 11 documents, wait for 60 days and spend USD 9,420 to import a standard container of cargo through the port of Mombasa, and to export through the same port, a Juba-based business needs to submit 9 documents, wait for 52 days and spend USD 5,025".*

(8) In South Sudan, operating environment for private business activities is weak due to poor infrastructure services and incomplete legal and regulatory framework and has limited the

development of domestic private sector which mostly comprised from limited number of small and medium-sized formal enterprises.

(9) Inadequate skilled human resources in South Sudan have shown by limited availability of skilled labor and high number of vacant posts in technical areas. The lack of skilled human resources is associated with the lack of quality educational system, such as low school completion rates, limited capacity in vocational and technical training institutions, and lack of manpower planning. In South Sudan a large proportion of the existing work force lacks basic skills in reading and writing. Weak institutional capacities and conditions in South Sudan are fragile and have caused extremely weak delivery capacities, and an acute need for a professional and accountable public service.

(10) The existing legal system and regulatory framework for businesses organization in South Sudan is incomplete and confusing due to overlapping legal frameworks. Few laws to guide business registration, operation and exit have been drafted and enacted, but there is confusion among national, state and county jurisdictions over business licensing, taxes, customs, and land administration. The lack of coordination has let businesses to deal with each level of government separately. Public authorities lack the needed qualified staff to implement regulations, inspect construction, ensure tax compliance, and to handle commercial cases. The absent of a public credit registry or private credit bureau has caused inadequate information system hence creditors cannot obtain reliable information on debtors thus entrepreneurs have a hard time of using their assets as guarantees for loans.

*A specialist in legal affairs has informed the researcher that “In South Sudan, laws passed by the National Assembly in Khartoum; laws enacted by the Sudan People Liberation Movement before 2005; and the laws enacted by the Legislative Assembly of Southern Sudan after 2005 are functioning along with customary law and traditional justice built upon customs and traditions applied by community chiefs to resolve disputes”.*

(11) In South Sudan, land policy and legal framework on land issues is lacking and unclear, and caused uncertainty and insecurity. This is because land tenure systems are basically statutory in urban and communal in rural areas. The unclear land tenure system makes the inflow of foreign direct investment low and ineffective, and makes the foreign investors to face major obstacles such as difficulty to identify the right people of the land, and the security of title to land especially when they are attempting to invest on communal land.

(12) Although the interim constitution of South Sudan states that “*women have the right to own property and to share in the estates of their husbands...*” the customary laws of many tribes, don’t allow women to own property in their own capacity, nor to keep their own income. Thus the traditional and cultural norms have resulting in discriminated traditional rules and practices that seem to be not supportive to modern approaches of economic development and as the key constraints on women’s empowerment, and their economic participation.

(13) Lack of scientific, technological and innovative researching and application in South Sudan has resulting in low level of productivity and production.

(14) In South Sudan the connectivity between urban and rural areas is inadequate; this is because most roads are difficult or impassable to access during wet seasons due to the major decline in the quality of the existing infrastructure that resulting from internal conflict, facilities damaging, and lack of routine maintenance which hinder the movement of goods from rural to urban centers and markets and raise the transport costs. River transport system is limited due to a range of constraints. Communication is poor because of underdeveloped infrastructure that has caused low use of internet and low consumption of power. Thus the infrastructure deficit in South Sudan is an obstacle to accelerate economic growth and development of the country.

(15) The amount of private investment in basic infrastructure assets in South Sudan was found very low and concentrated in communications and private diesel generation plants for electricity supply in state capitals.

(16) Inadequate financing has faced public sector in South Sudan. It was one of the key constraints to public goods and services delivery. Under-financing of the public priorities and projects has limited the quantity and quality of delivered services. Lack of sufficient financial infrastructure services due to underdeveloped capital and financial market was a major problem to the private sector.

(17) Climate change is a real issue in South Sudan that has significant adverse increased frequent and severe natural impacts and effects such as droughts, floods, disappearance of water streams and some species of plants and animals due to migration and loss, destruction of ecosystems and natural resources like forestry, agriculture and fishery, along with threats to food security. It has serious effects on tourism, human health, and entire socio-economic development.

(18) In South Sudan half of the population is below the national poverty line. Poverty rates are the highest in the rural than in the urban areas. The poverty gap for the total population that shows the average deficit in consumption of each person in the country was so wide below the poverty line, but was more widen among the poor population.

(19) The size of market for products in South Sudan is small due to limited purchasing power of the people. This is because the majority of the population lives in rural areas and depends on subsistence economy; more than half of the population lives under poverty line; in addition, the nature of South Sudan as a land locked country has contributed to the limited market.

(20) The weak macro-economic policy and lack of sound public financial management in South Sudan has brought considerable uncertainties to the economy. The real risk of upward pressure on exchange rate has weakened the competitiveness of the country's exports. The continued upward pressure on exchange rate has weakened the development of land resources which is suitable for production of food and raw material exports. The weak



financial capacities of South Sudan adversely, have affected by weaker oil prices in the international market, which are lower than estimated levels of oil production; sharply high food and raw material prices, weak growth of international demand for raw materials products that are major exports of South Sudan.

(21) Due to the land locked nature of South Sudan; lack of reliable roads; and availability of land mines in most roads that have planted during the war time, the costs of transport are the highest relative to rest of the world. Without reliable roads to link producers to markets there is little chance for economic growth to take place in South Sudan.

(22) The productivity and production of the productive factors in South Sudan is characterized by limited and low amount due to various barriers notably the insecurity, poor infrastructure, inadequate finance resources; poor techniques of production; lack of irrigation system; lack of productive skills; limited electricity supply; and traditional attitudes towards gender. Taking together these constraints contribute to the low production rates of the South Sudan economy.

(23) In South Sudan there is no independent development planning authority to coordinate economic decisions; influence, direct, and control the levels of economic variables such as national income, consumption, employment, investment, saving, exports, and imports; to develop, implement, coordinate, and monitor a comprehensive development plan that covering various aspects of the national economy; to achieve a predetermined set of developmental objectives and specific set of quantitative economic targets to be reached with a stated strategy in a given period of time. The absence of development planning authority in South Sudan was one of the constraints to economic development.

(24) The heavy dependency on a single commodity (oil revenues) has raised a number of basic issues for development programs in the country. The sudden drop in oil prices has caused a fiscal crisis as revenues fell below planned levels and expenditure commitments could not be realized. The changes in oil prices have affected the level of government revenues and its ability to ensure sustainable development programmes. And as a result, the government has focused on short-term interventions and on less emphasis on long-term projects that potentially have high returns, especially the infrastructure sector where large projects typically have long time to be completed.

(25) In South Sudan women are considered weak and their role is confined only in taking care on sick people, children, and the other needed ones. They bear and upbringing children, prepare meal and other home activities. Their contribution in productive activities is limited.

(26) In South Sudan, early marriages before the age 18 years old are common. This is because young women usually have little to say as the decision rests upon the father. The marriage is not understood as an arrangement between two individuals but a social institution that involves whole families, and the bride prices constitute an important source of income for families. The consequences of early marriage are strong pressure on girls and young women to marry a suitor who is able to pay many cows and their withdrawal out of school.

(27) In South Sudan, young girls take part in the community. By the time they reach adolescence, girls fetch water, prepare meals, look after other children, and fulfill many conventional female associated roles. Within the pastoralist communities, girls' education is not only viewed unimportant, but actually being negative. These negative socio-cultural views of communities especially the Nilotic people have a negative impact on human development of the country.

(28) Polygamy in South Sudan is a widespread cultural acceptance. A South Sudanese man can marry many women as well as he can pay the bride price. But due to the extreme poverty and inadequate financial resources, the culture of polygamy has caused lack of financial support. For example, when a family has made a decision to send children to school, the limited financial resources could typically allow a family to invest in a few children and give priority to male than female children. Thus, polygamy culture acts as a constraint on skills development in South Sudan.

(29) Inter-tribal and intra-communal conflicts in South Sudan are frequent, due to cattle raiding; historical tensions; tendency to solve problems through violent means; proliferation of small arms; increased competition to access natural resources such as grazing land and water; extreme poverty and unequal distribution of wealth; declining influence of traditional authorities; weak institutions; culture of impunity; need for bride payments that put young men under pressure to accumulate wealth; and the concept of masculinity. These kinds of conflicts have increasingly played a significant part in increased insecurity, by targeting the civilians, attacking the villages, and destroying the livelihoods.

(30) Following the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005, and the independence in 2011, a significant inflow of returnees has occurred and caused a rapid increase in urban population, as a result of a large number of internally displaced persons (IDPs) that has located in camps around urban centers; and a voluntary movement of rural residents to urban areas due to the violence and conflict in their rural communities, unemployment, and lack of basic services. The rapid urbanization in South Sudan has posed major challenges in provision of basic services to the populated centers and caused problem of informal and unplanned settlements without basic infrastructure such as roads, water and sanitation services, as well as drainage systems.

*An official has stated that "South Sudan is characterized by rapid population growth. The total fertility of women to bear children is 6, and the natural rate of increase in population is 3.5 % a year. Urbanization rate is relatively low (20%), but a critical feature of demographic trends is that urban population has been growing rapidly and will continue for years as it has increased from 1.1 million in 2007 to almost 2 million in 2011 with an average increase of 15% a year".*

(31) The use of children for work is believed as an acceptable practice in South Sudan. This is because child labor is considered norm and not seen as a constraint that could affect the development of children. The factors of high use of child labor are poor access to education,

cultural beliefs which do not recognize the benefits of education, and a complicated situation of their extended families. Children are considered as means to fulfill obligations of their parents, grandparents, uncles and aunts. Children from pastoralist communities confront many of challenges in receiving education, such as pressure to assist family in acquiring income through work or marriage.

(32) In South Sudan, there are large disparities in income and access to education, health and land, as well as to basic needs, such as adequate housing, sufficient food, clean drinking water, and sanitation.

(33) Dependency burdens and ratios are so high in South Sudan. This is because each working adult has many mouths to feed due to availability of a significant proportion of unproductive members of families such as children, unemployed people, orphans, war disabled, and other victims who depend on small number of working force for financial support and feeding. Thus, economic progress at household and national level is difficult or impossible.

(34) In South Sudan, women are seen as inferior to men. Men as heads of household have power to make decisions within their families and women are expected to be subservient (obedient) to their husbands. Women are lacking productive resources and well paid labor. They are disempowered at household, community and national level; and under-represented in social and political leadership. Their capabilities have not developed to full potential due to lack of capital, education, training, and healthcare services.

### **7.1.3 Findings (specific) for prospective policies and strategies:**

(1) Strong political ability (commitment) from the top leadership in South Sudan can facilitate the occurrence of comprehensive economic development.

(2) Development of a democratic political system and climate in South Sudan could enhance political stability that will have greater impact on the occurrence of sustainable development.

(3) Concentration of efforts on recovery programs of the economy, reconstruction, and delivery of basic social services during implementation of national program in South Sudan can stimulate economic development.

(4) Public and private entities in South Sudan shall focus on their tasks and duties during peace, state, and nation-building program to create balancing between the program and provision of basic services.

(5) Good governance that based on transparency and accountability could build politically and economically strong institutions capable to carry out a common vision for the national unity; provide stability and dividends of peace to the citizens; enhance equitable development and democratic management for the diversity and unity of the country.

(6) Sound management for economic regulation can strengthen the role of public institutions in productive activities that will have greater impact on economic growth and development.

(7) Development of measures, training programs, and provision of appropriate equipments can ease administrative procedures; upgrade capacity of customs staff that can reduce the

negative effects of delaying in getting clearance documents for goods coming into and out from South Sudan and to smoothen the cross-border trading with neighboring countries that will make on time distribution of consumer and capital goods.

(8) Institutional arrangements of public sector; especially, the public financial entities that can enter into partnerships with investors; and introduction of high technology could encourage and facilitate private investment; create low-cost, high profit businesses and tackle problems such as lack of sanitation, clean water or affordable healthcare and education which affect socio-economic development.

(9) Expanded, broad-based and equitable education and training with high quality can develop a significant needed proportion of advanced manpower that could have greater impact on human development, social peace, productivity, public health and the overall development. This is because educated working force is an asset that needed and sustained by any development conscious society to improve local livelihoods of the people.

(10) Well established legal system and regulatory framework could reduce legal confusion, overlapping of duties, introduce laws to guide business registration and operation, build good coordination among various levels of the governments, and conduct training programs to sharpen the skills of public authority's staff that will be able to implement regulations, inspect constructions, ensure tax compliances, and handle commercial cases which positively will foster organization and development of formal private businesses in the country.

(11) Development of a unified clear policy, legal framework and measures on land tenure systems and issues rather than being statutory in urban and communal in rural areas could reduce uncertainty and insecurity caused by land tenure system, and encourages effective inflow of foreign direct investment.

(12) Introduction and implementation of gender equality policy in development programs could reduce women's poverty and vulnerability especially the disabled and minority women. This is because strong focus on women's economic empowerment, women's decision making in public and political spheres, on their legal protection, health status, and education can improve women's property right in the country.

(13) Through much consideration to scientific knowledge, the economy of South Sudan could be made a knowledge-led economy. This is because technology and increased scientific knowledge and technology-related activities accelerate the transformation of the economy; remove barriers to the flow of goods, services, capital and labor; reduce the cost of transport and communication; and create new opportunities for business and employment.

(14) Development of adequate and high quality infrastructure in South Sudan such as good transportation, sufficient power generation and good communication networks could bridge the infrastructure gap, link the markets, minimize cost of delivering goods, help people to move around, remove productivity constraints, generate enough electricity for development of manufacturing and industrial sectors, and enhance overall competitiveness of the economy.

(15) Mobilization of adequate amount of private and public investments from potential internal and international financial markets through addressing the potential investor concerns on investment risks due to political instability, environmental risks, and the status of environmental laws and regulations, currency exchange, and social risks where a project may have impacts on local communities could increase the investment in basic infrastructure assets such as irrigation services and water storage for development of large-scale commercial agriculture and farming, power generation, inland water transport; airports, and communications.

(16) Development of entrepreneurship and financial sector form one of the main engines of growth in a healthy economy and act as vital agents of change by developing new products and services, implementing more efficient production methods, and creating new business models and industries. This is because small and growing businesses create jobs to sustain families across the country.

(17) Reduction of the levels of extreme poverty in the country could promote economic growth and development.

(18) Exploration of new markets in local, regional, and global level can enlarge the scope of the market for products and foster the production and productivity of goods and services in South Sudan.

(19) Enactment of applicable regulations and measures can reduce the frequent and severe impacts and negative effects of the climate change such as droughts, floods, disappearance of water streams and some species of plants and animals, destruction of ecosystems and natural resources notably forestry, agriculture and fishing, as well as its threats to food security and socio-economic development.

(20) Regional integration with neighboring coastal countries, especially Sudan, Kenya, and Djibouti could break the structural and geographical location constraints that negatively affect development programs in South Sudan. This is because regional integration is essential policy for prosperity and booming of investment and trade; removable of obstacles to business and creation of markets for products that facilitate economic progress.

(21) Adaptation of more effective macro-economic policies in South Sudan can have significant impacts on removal of difficulties to development of the country.

(22) Introduction of appropriate technology, high training programs, and scientific methods in South Sudan could increase the level of productivity and production and stimulate economic growth and development.

(23) An effective and comprehensive national development plan with a broad, and widely shared national vision plus well natural resources handling, strong economic management, well technical and planning capability, well established planning authority to implement the vision, link it to the everyday policy decisions can overcome obstacles to development and ensure the use of financial resources especially oil revenues for economic growth and real economic progress.

- (24) Diversification of economic and financial resources away from the heavy dependency on oil production through development of resource-based and naturally endowed sector and utilization of comparative advantage could generate adequate financial resources for economic development in South Sudan.
- (25) Development of pro-female policies can promote women's role in economic development. This can be made through vocational and technical training programs, development of their entrepreneurial skills, promotion of their role in public sector through raising sex ratio in public sector and strengthening their ability to pursue leadership.
- (26) Increased female education has a greater impact on empowerment of households and communities' condition, fertility decline, reduced child mortality, child's schooling, higher rates of child survival, reduction of child labor, and peaceful resolution of conflicts, and increases the value of women's time in economic activities, poverty reduction, and on productivity that resulting into higher intergenerational benefits.
- (27) Enactment and enforcement of laws could eliminate young girl's contribution to household activities such as fetching water, preparing meals, looking after other smallest children, and fulfillment of other conventional female associated roles that have negative impacts on their education and skill development.
- (28) Introduction of socio-cultural awareness can reduce the widespread cultural acceptance of polygamy system that exaggerates the level of extreme poverty in the country in general and the family level in particular and acts as a constraint on human development.
- (29) Reduction of the small arms with reconciliation programs, and diffusion of a culture of peace can minimize potential inter-tribal and intra-communal violence and cattle raiding activities that can have positive impact on the level of insecurity in the country and increase investment in socio-economic development.
- (30) Development of sound and effective population policies and strategies can control the rapid growth of the population and create balance between demographic changes and provision of basic social services in the country.
- (31) Introduction of pro-child policies and laws related to their rights can strengthen the role of institutions in children's affairs can eliminate child labor, and promote the welfare and rights of children such as survival rights, development rights, protection rights, and participation rights that will have positive impact on human development process.
- (32) Elimination of the large disparities in income and access to education, health and land, as well as to basic needs, such as adequate housing, sufficient food, clean drinking water, and sanitation can encourage economic growth and development in the country.
- (33) Development and introduction of socio-cultural policy related to modernity can change the attitudes and work ethics of the society, promote dignity of labor, spirit of adventure, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and hard working to reduce the level of dependency and vulnerability and enhance the livelihood of the families in the country.

(34) Development of women's capabilities to full potential through introduction of measures with proper actions could upgrade status of women in making decisions, accessing productive resources and well paid job opportunities; empowering their role at household, community and national level; and increase their representatives in social and political leadership that will increase their participation in development process.

## **7.2 Recommendations of the Study:**

(1) (The Government of South Sudan especially the top leadership shall demonstrate high political commitment and courage through elimination of political instability and insecurity; introduction of good governance and sound management; encouragement of skills development, institutional arrangement, development of domestic financial institutions; enactment and enforcement of laws and orders to organize operational environment of public and private sector for occurrence of comprehensive sustainable development of the country.

(2) South Sudan shall build strong good governance based on transparency and accountability to build politically and economically a strong state capable to articulate a common vision for the national unity, and provide stability and dividends of peace to its citizens. The leaders and intellectuals of the country should learn from other countries which failed throughout the post-independence era to articulate a nationally shared vision for equitable development and democratic management of their diversities, and preserve the unity of the country.

(3) The government shall develop measures, conducts training programmes, and provide equipments to ease administrative procedures and upgrade capacity of customs staff to reduce the negative effects of the delays in getting clearance documents for goods coming into and out from South Sudan and to smoothen the cross-border trading with neighboring countries that will make fairly balanced and on time distribution of consumer and capital goods.

(4) South Sudan shall make institutional arrangements and development of public financial entities that will enter into partnerships with investors; to encourage and facilitate private sector investment. Public sector shall be equipped with high technology to create low-cost, high profit businesses and tackle problems such as lack of sanitation, clean water or affordable healthcare and educational trianing. The organization and development of local enterprise should be a key priority.

(5) South Sudan shall recognize the impact of education and training on human development, social peace, productivity, public health and the overall development. Through expanded, broad-based, and equitable learning opportunities, a significant needed proportion of advanced manpower can be developed. Educated working force is an asset that needed and sustained by any development conscious society to improve local livelihoods.

(6) The government shall strengthen the legal system and regulatory framework for businesses organization in South Sudan and reduce the legal confusion, overlapping of duties, introduce laws to guide business registration and operation. It shall build good

coordination among various levels of the governments, and conducts training programs to sharpen the skills of public authority's staff to implement regulations, inspect construction, ensure tax compliance, and handle commercial cases.

(7) South Sudan shall develop policy, clear legal framework and measures on land issues to reduce uncertainty and insecurity caused by land tenure system. Land tenure systems should be uniform rather than being statutory in urban and communal in rural areas to make the flow of foreign direct investment effective.

(8) The economy of South Sudan shall be made a knowledge-led economy by giving much consideration to scientific knowledge as critical factor for rapid economic growth. Increased science and technology-related activities accelerate the transformation of the economy. This is because technology and scientific knowledge removes barriers to the flow of goods, services, capital and labor, reduce the cost of transport and communication and create new opportunities for business and employment.

(9) South Sudan shall bridge the infrastructure gap by building adequate infrastructure with higher quality. This is because good transportation, sufficient power generation and good communication networks are essential to link markets, reduce cost of delivering goods, help people to move around, remove productivity constraints, generate enough electricity for development of manufacturing and industrial sectors, and enhance overall competitiveness of the economy.

(10) South Sudan shall mobilize adequate amount of new private and public investments from potential internal and international financial markets to be invested in basic infrastructure assets such as irrigation services and water storage for development of large-scale commercial agriculture and farming, power generation, inland water transport, airports, and communications. This could be made by addressing the potential investor concerns on investment risks like political instability, environmental risks, and the status of environmental laws and regulations, currency exchange, and social risks where a project may have impacts on local communities.

(11) South Sudan shall foster development of entrepreneurship and financial sector as a vital factor for development. Entrepreneurs form one of the main engines of growth in a healthy economy and act as vital agents of change by developing new products and services, implementing more efficient production methods, and creating new business models and industries. Small and growing businesses create jobs that sustain families across the country.

(12) South Sudan shall enlarge the scope of the market for products by exploring locally, regionally, and globally new markets to foster the production and productivity of goods and services.

(13) South Sudan shall accelerate regional integration with neighboring coastal countries, especially Sudan to break the structural and geographical location constraints that negatively affects its development programs. Regional integration is essential for prosperity and booming of investment and trade. It is needed to remove obstacles to business and create markets for products. Economic progress is being made with the free trade areas, but much more regional integration is needed more quickly.

(14) South Sudan shall adopt more effective macro-economic policies that will have significant impacts on removal of difficulties on development of the country.



(15) South Sudan needs an effective and comprehensive national development plan with a broad, widely shared, national vision to overcome obstacles to development and ensure the use of oil revenues for a sustained high rate of economic growth. The country shall handle its natural resources well, strong economic management, planning capability, build technical capacity and establish planning authority to implement the vision, link it to the everyday policy decisions, and to monitor its implementation, coordination, and monitoring for the purpose of attainment of real economic progress.

(16) South Sudan needs to take steps to diversify its economy away from the heavy dependency on oil production through development of its resource-based and naturally endowed sector and utilizes its comparative advantage to generate adequate financial resources for economic development.

(17) Increased female education has a greater impact on empowerment of households and communities' condition, fertility decline, reduced child mortality, child's schooling, higher rates of child survival, reduction in child labor, and peaceful resolution of conflicts, increases the value of women's time in economic activities, poverty reduction, and on productivity that resulting into higher intergenerational benefits.

(18) The government of South Sudan needs to reduce the availability of small arms to minimize potential inter-tribal and intra-communal violence, and cattle raiding activities that will have greater influence in reduction of the current insecurity level in the country that should go hand in hand with reconciliation, diffusion of a culture of peace to increase investment in socio-economic development.

(19) South Sudan shall introduce pro-child policies and laws related to their rights; to eliminate child labor, strengthen the role of institutions in children's affairs, and promote the welfare and rights of children such as survival rights, development rights, protection rights, and participation rights.

(20) Policy makers in South Sudan shall develop and introduce socio-cultural policy to change attitudes and work ethics of the society, promote dignity of labor, spirit of adventure, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and hard working to reduce the level of dependency and vulnerability and to enhance the livelihood of the families in the country.

(21) South Sudan shall take actions and measures to upgrade status of women in making decisions within their families, accessing productive resources and well paid labor; empowering them at household, community and national level; and increase their representatives in social and political leadership to develop their capabilities to full potential that will increase their participation in development process.

**7.3 Proposed Further Studies:** In the future, potential researchers particularly in South Sudan can conduct studies on the following areas:

(1) Effect of culture, social norms and traditions, and religion on economic growth and development.

(2) Role of education and training, development of curriculums and training courses in economic growth and progress.

(3) Impact of political stability, security, unity and belongingness on economic growth and development.

## **Bibliography:**

**(A) The Holy Scripture:**

**(B) Academic Books:**

1. Adam, Azzain Mohammed (2008), Scientific Research Methods in Social Sciences, Public Administration and Federalism Studies Institute, University of Khartoum, Khartoum, Sudan.
2. Andrew, Webster (1989), Introduction to the Sociology of Development, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, McMillan, London, UK.
3. Anthony, Clunies-Ross, David, Forsyth and Mozammel, Huq (2009), Development Economics, 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, McGraw-Hill Higher Education, London, UK.
4. Barry, Dalal-Clayton and Stephen, Bass (2002), Sustainable Development Strategies, 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, Earthscan Publications Ltd. London, UK.
5. Benjamin, Leo and Others (2012), Supporting Private Business Growth in African Fragile States: A Guiding Framework for the World Bank Group in South Sudan and Other Nations, Center for Global Development, Washington DC, USA.
6. Brian, Snowdon and Howard, R. Vane (2005), Modern (Guide) Macroeconomics, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd. London, UK.
7. C. B., Gupta and Vijay, Gupta (2001), An Introduction to Statistical Methods, 22<sup>nd</sup> Edition, Vikas Publishing House Ltd. New Delhi, India.
8. Clare, Louise Pollard and Duncan, M. Mitchell (2005), The London Conference for Better Health Services in Southern Sudan, British and American Friends of Southern Sudan, the Medical School, the Imperial College, Sir Alexander Fleming Building, South Kensington Campus, Parchment (Oxford) Ltd. London, England.
9. David, Lewis and Nazneen, Kanji (2009), Non-Governmental Organizations and Development, 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, Routledge Taylor and Francis Group, London, Great Britain.
10. Donald, Kisilu Kombo and Delno, L. A. Tromp (2011). Proposal and Thesis Writing: An Introduction, 11<sup>th</sup> Edition, Paulines Publications Africa, Nairobi, Kenya.
11. E. Wayne, Nafziger (2006), Economic Development, 4<sup>th</sup> Edition, Cambridge University Press, UK.
12. G.R.M, de Beer, R. A, Mmatli, and D. J, Arkwright (2003), Spatial Development Initiatives, Some Lessons of Experience for the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, Regional Integration Research Network Papers, Pilcher Graphics Ltd. and Aquila Printers Ltd. Lusaka, Zambia.
13. H. L. Ahuja (1982), Economic Organization, 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition, S. Chand & Company Ltd. New Delhi, India.
14. Haidar, Abu Ahmed (2014), Guideline for Thesis Writing, 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, Department of Community Medicine, College of Medicine, University of Khartoum, Khartoum, Sudan.
15. Jhingan, M. L. (2004). Monetary Economics, 5<sup>th</sup> Edition, Vrinda Publications (P) Ltd. New Delhi, India.
16. Jhingan, M. L. (2012), Money, Banking, International Trade and Public Finance, 8<sup>th</sup> Edition, Vrinda Publications (P) Ltd., New Delhi, India.

17. Jhingan, M. L. (2010). *Micro-economic Theory*, 7<sup>th</sup> Edition, Vrinda Publications (P) Ltd. New Delhi, India.
18. Jhingan, M. L. (1997). *The Economics of Development and Planning*, 30<sup>th</sup> Edition, Konark Publishers, P.V.T, Ltd, New Delhi, India.
19. Joseph, A. Schumpeter (1963). *The Theory of Economic Development*, Galaxy Book, Oxford University Press, New York, USA.
20. Khalid, Muhammad Farah (2009), *Diplomacy and Africa's Development Challenges (1980-2005)*, 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, Currency Printing Press, Khartoum, Sudan.
21. Michael, P. Todaro and Stephen, C. Smith (2012), *Economic Development*, 11<sup>th</sup> Edition, Addison-Wesley, Pearson Education Ltd. USA.
22. Michael, P. Todaro and Stephen, C. Smith (2009), *Economic Development*, 10<sup>th</sup> Edition, Pearson Education Ltd. Edinburgh Gate, England.
23. Michael, P. Todaro and Stephen, C. Smith (2006). *Economic Development* 9<sup>th</sup> Edition, Pearson Education, Limited, Edinburgh Gate, England.
24. Misra, S.K. and Puri, V.K. (1991), *Economics of Growth and Development*, 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition, Himalaya Publishing House, S.S.S. Printers, New Delhi, India.
25. Mukund, Mahajan (1992), *Economics of Development*, 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, Nirali Prakashan, Jogeshwari Mandir Lane, Pune, India.
26. N., T. Somashekar (2009), *Banking*, 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, New Age International Publications (P) Ltd. New Delhi, India.
27. R., Glenn Hubbard and Anthony, Patrick O'Brien (2011), *Macroeconomics*, 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition, Pearson Education Ltd. England.
28. Robert, J. Carbaugh (2011), *Global Economics*, 13<sup>th</sup> Edition, South-Western, Cengage Learning, UK.
29. Steven, Husted and Michael, Melvin (2010), *International Economics*, 8<sup>th</sup> Edition, Addison-Wesley, Pearson Education Ltd. USA.
30. W. W. Rostow (1969), *the Stages of Economic Growth: A Non-Communist Manifesto*, Cambridge University Press, New York, USA.
31. Yusuf, M. Adamu, Habu, Mohammed and Kabiru, Isa Dandago et al (2006), *Readings in Social Science Research*, 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, Adamu Joji Publishers, Kano, Nigeria.

### **(C) Dissertations, Theses and Studies:**

1. A. Kauffmann, (2008), *Challenges and Future Perspectives for Tourism Development in the Central Rift Valley in Ethiopia*, the unpublished thesis for Master Degree in Tourism and Environment, Wageningen University, The Netherlands.
2. Addis Ababa, Othow Akongdit (2013), *Impact of Political Stability on Economic Development: Case of South Sudan*, unpublished PhD thesis, College of Graduate Studies, Al-Neelain University; Khartoum, Sudan.

3. Ali, Mohammed Ali Khairallah (2015), *Impact of Public Expenditure Policies on Social Development in Sudan (1980-2009)*, unpublished PhD thesis, College Graduate Studies, Sudan University of Science and Technology, Khartoum, Sudan.
4. Amum, Edward Odhuk (2013), *The Effectiveness of Wildlife Law Enforcement in and around Badingilo National Park in South Sudan*, unpublished thesis for Master of Science in Wildlife Management, Department of Wildlife Management, School of Natural Resource Management, University of Eldoret, Eldoret, Kenya.
5. Arif, Naous Zaidan Al-Dalaa (2010), *Impact of Investment Projects on the Development of the Northern Badia of Jordan for the period (2004-2008)*, unpublished PhD. Thesis, College of Graduate Studies, Sudan University, of Science and Technology, Khartoum, Sudan.
6. Einas, El-Mughira Hamad (2007), *The Economic Impact of Intellectual Property Systems on Industrial Development in Sudan*, unpublished PhD thesis, College of Graduate Studies, Sudan University of Science and Technology, Khartoum, Sudan.
7. Francis, Sanya Matayo Gale (2011), *The Role of Non-Governmental Organizations in the Improvement of Livelihood in South Sudan: A case study of BRAC Microfinance Program in Central Equatoria State (Juba)*, unpublished thesis for Post Graduate Degree in Management of Development (Rural Development and Food Security), Van Hall Larenstein University of applied Sciences, Wageningen, the Netherlands.
8. Gore, Liah Teny (2014), *The Effects of Micro-economic Factors on Economic Growth in Kenya*, unpublished research for Master Degree in Banking and Finance, School of Business and Economics, Moi University, Nairobi, Kenya.
9. Hyder, Abbas Hussein (2009), *Impact of Foreign Capital Inflow on Economic Growth in Sudan (1989-2004)*, unpublished PhD thesis, College of Graduate Studies, Sudan University of Science and Technology, Khartoum, Sudan.
10. Ibtisam, Eltayeb Eljack (2012), *The Impact of Human Capital on Economic Growth in Sudan (1970-2005)*, unpublished PhD thesis, College of Graduate Studies, Sudan University of Science and Technology, Khartoum, Sudan.
11. James, Alic Garang (2014), *The Financial Sector and Inclusive Development in Africa: Essays on Access to Finance for Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises in South Sudan and Kenya*, unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, USA.
12. Khadra, Hassan Ali (2013), *Role of Women Small Enterprises in Poverty Alleviation in Urban Sudan (1989-2012)*, unpublished PhD thesis, College of Graduate Studies, Alzaiem Alazhari University, Khartoum, Sudan.
13. Kristin, Lauvstad Tufte (2012), *The "energy leads to development" narrative Norwegian Hydropower Projects in South Sudan*, unpublished thesis for Master degree in development and environmental studies, Department of International Environment and Development Studies, Norwegian University of Life Science, Oslo, Norway.

14. Manal, Osman Ali Elhaj (2010), *The Causes of Economic Underdevelopment of the Sudanese economy: A Case Study of Kassala State (1956-2005)*, unpublished PhD thesis, College of Graduate Study, Sudan University of Science and Technology, Khartoum, Sudan.
15. Raphael, Koba Badal (ND), *Development Potential of Southern Sudan: Strategies and Constraints*, published study, M. O. B. Centre for Sudanese Studies, Omdurman Ahlia University, Khartoum, Sudan.
16. Remy, Oller Itorang (1995), *Role of Non-Governmental Organizations in Socio-economic Development: A case Study of the Norwegian Church Aid Organization in Eastern Equatoria State in Southern Sudan*, unpublished M.Sc. Dissertation, College of Graduate Studies, University of Khartoum, Khartoum, Sudan.
17. Rens, W. Twijnstra (2014), *On the State of Business: Trade, Entrepreneurship and Real Economic Governance in South Sudan*, unpublished PhD thesis, Wageningen University, The Netherlands.
18. Sami, Mohammed Ibrahim Hassan ((2007), *The Effect of Macro-economic Policies on Social Development in Sudan: A Case study of Kassala State*, unpublished PhD thesis, College of Graduate Studies and Scientific Research, Sudan University of Science and Technology, Khartoum, Sudan.
19. Sanaa, Ibrahim Mohammed Omer (2007), *The Role of the Sudanese Non-petroleum Exports in Economic Development during the period (1995-2005)*, unpublished M.Sc. dissertation, College of Graduate Studies and Scientific Research, Sudan University of Science and Technology, Khartoum, Sudan.
20. Suad, Abd-Elsaid Eltaib Ali (2014), *The Impact of Trade Liberalization and Foreign Direct Investment Flows on Economic Growth: Sudan Experience (1972-2010)*, unpublished PhD thesis, College of Graduate Studies, Sudan University of Science and Technology, Khartoum, Sudan.

#### **(D) Documents, Papers and Reports:**

1. African Development Bank (2013), *South Sudan: An Infrastructure Action Plan, A program for Sustained Strong Economic Growth*, Tunisia, Tunis.
2. African Research and Resource Forum (ARRF), (2013), *State Building in South Sudan, Priorities for Development Policy Research*, Nairobi, Kenya.
3. Aiding the Peace (2010), *A Multi-donor Evaluation of Support to Conflict Prevention and Peace building Activities in South Sudan 2005-2010, Final Report*, the Policy and Operations Evaluation Department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Netherlands.
4. Asylum Research Consultancy (2013), *South Sudan Country Report*, Juba, South Sudan.
5. Bank of South Sudan (BSS) (2013), *South Sudan's Financial Sector*, South Sudan Investment Conference, Juba, South Sudan.
6. Bertelsmann Stiftung's Transformation Index (BTI) (2014), *South Sudan Country Report*.
7. Bodil, Tveit and others (2014), *Developing Nurses and Midwives Education in South Sudan*, Norwegian Church Aid, Juba, South Sudan.

8. Caroline, Gullick (2009), Natural Resource Management, Equity and Conflict Assessment in Jonglei and Eastern Equatoria States, Pact Sudan, Juba, South Sudan.
9. Catholic Advisory Organization for International Health (2016), End-of-Project Evaluation, Misereor Supported Health Program, Final Report, Medical Mission Institute Wurzburg, Torit Diocese, Torit, South Sudan.
10. Cesar, Guvele and others, (2012), Poverty Assessment in Southern Sudan, Poverty Assessment and Mapping in Sudan Part Two, Agricultural Economics and Policy Research Centre (AEPRC), Agricultural Research Corporation (ARC), Sudan, International Center for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas (ICARDA), Aleppo, Syria.
11. Embassy of Netherlands (2011), Multi Annual Strategic Plan for South Sudan (2012-2015), Juba, South Sudan.
12. FAO and WFP (2015), Crop and Food Security Assessment Mission to South Sudan, Special Report, Juba, South Sudan.
13. FAO and WFP (2014), Crop and Food Security Assessment Mission to South Sudan, Special Report, Juba, South Sudan.
14. Greg, Larson (2013), South Sudan: The road from the Paris Declaration to the reality of Juba (2005-2011), Working Paper No. 2013/141, World Institute for Development Economics Research (WIDER), United Nations University (UNU), Helsinki, Finland.
15. Human Rights Watch (2013), 23<sup>rd</sup> Annual World Report on Events of 2012, New York, USA.
16. International Alert (2014), Trading with Neighbors: Understanding Uganda –South Sudan Business Community Trade Relations, London, United Kingdom.
17. International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2013), South Sudan Village Assessment Survey Report, Juba Office, South Sudan.
18. Irko Zuurmond; Bev, Jones and Lydia, Richardson (2014), Volunteering for development in South Sudan: Values for money’ VSO South Sudan, Juba, South Sudan.
19. House of Commons International Development Committee (2012) South Sudan: Prospects for Peace and Development, Fifteenth Report of Session 2010–2012, Volume I: Report together with formal minutes, oral and written evidence, The Stationery Office Limited, London, UK.
20. House of Commons International Development Committee (2012), Driving Inclusive Economic Growth: The Role of the Private Sector in International Development, a Report of the Standing Committee on Foreign Affairs and International Development, London, UK.
21. James, Cust and Torfinn, Harding (2013), Oil in South Sudan: Implications from international experience, working paper, International Growth Centre, London School of Economic and Political Science, London, UK.
22. Japan, International Cooperation Agency (JICA) (2012), Annual Report, Tokyo, Japan.
23. Japan, International Cooperation Agency (JICA) (2015), Annual Report, Tokyo, Japan.

24. Jeanne WARD (2011) Scoping Mission Report, Global Protection Cluster, the Gender Based Violence and Area of Responsibility, the Gender Based Violence Sub-Cluster, Juba, South Sudan.
25. Joost, van der Zwan (2011), Evaluating the European Union's Role and Challenges in Sudan and South Sudan, International Alert, London, UK.
26. Judy, McCallum (2009), Natural Resource Management, Equity and Conflict, Pact Sudan, Juba, South Sudan.
27. L. Guarcello, and others (2011), Labor Market in South Sudan, Working Paper Series, Understanding Children's Work Program, Rome, Italy.
28. M. J. Kimani, et al. (2014), Role of the Civil Society in Peace Support Operations in South Sudan and Somalia: The Component of Peace-building, Occasional Paper Series 5, No 5, International Peace Support Training Centre (IPSTC), Karen, Nairobi, Kenya.
29. Manuel, Carballo (ND). Reproductive Health and Family Planning Service Provision for Returning Populations to South Sudan: Assessment Findings and Recommendations, Geneva, Switzerland.
30. Mark, Lynd (2005), Fast-Track Teacher Training: Models for Consideration for Southern Sudan, written for the American Institutes of Research and the Sudan Basic Education Program, Juba, South Sudan.
31. Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (ND), Policy for Alternative Education Systems, Directorate of Alternative Education, Juba, South Sudan.
32. Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (2015), Girls' Education Strategy for South Sudan 2015-2017, Juba, South Sudan.
33. Ministry of General Education and Instruction (2012), General Education Strategic Plan, 2012-2017, Promoting Learning for All, Part1, Juba, South Sudan.
34. Ministry of Environment (2015), Fifth National Report to Convention on Biological Diversity, Juba, South Sudan.
35. Ministry of Environment (2012), Environmental Impacts Risks and Opportunities Assessment: Natural resources management and climate change in South Sudan, Juba, South Sudan.
36. Ministry of Health (2012), Health Sector Development Plan, 2012-2016, Juba, South Sudan.
37. Ministry of Health (2011), Health Sector Development Plan, 2011-2015, Juba, South Sudan.
38. Ministry of Health and National Bureau of Statistics (2010). The Republic of South Sudan: The Sudan Household Health Survey, Juba, South Sudan.
39. Ministry of state for Planning, National Development and Vision 2030 (2012), Sessional paper of 2012 on Kenya Vision 2030, Office of the Prime Minister, Nairobi, Kenya.
40. Nahuel, Arenas-García (2010), Pro-Poor Growth & Development in South Sudan: Post-Comprehensive Peace Agreement Aid Mechanisms, Poverty Reduction Strategies and

the Role of the World Bank, a document Presented by Kuol Athian Mawien, Minister of Finance and Economic Planning for the Government of South Sudan, at the Third Sudan Consortium, May 2008, Oslo, Norway.

41. National Steering committee (ND), 25 Years Strategic Plan for Health Sector, Federal Ministry of Health, Khartoum, Sudan

42. Norwegian, Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) (2006), Annual Report on Norwegian Bilateral Development Cooperation, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Oslo, Norway.

43. Philip, E. Davis and Miguel, Sanchez-Martinez (2014), A Review of the Economic Theories of Poverty, Discussion Paper no: 435, National Institute of Economic and Social Research, London, UK.

44. Raul, Caruso, and others (2012), The Economic Impact of Peacekeeping: Evidence from South Sudan, Working Paper No: 23, Department of Economics, University of Verona, Rome, Italy.

45. Sarah, Bailey and Simon, Harragin (2009), Food Assistance, Reintegration and Dependency in Southern Sudan, the Humanitarian Policy Group (HPG), the Overseas Development Institute (ODI), London, United Kingdom (UK).

46. South Sudan Center for Census, Statistics and Evaluation (SSCCSE), (2010), Southern Sudan Counts: Tables from the 5<sup>th</sup> Sudan Population and Housing Census 2008, Juba, South Sudan.

47. Statistical Economic and Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries (SESRIC) (2015), Measurement of Poverty in Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) Member Countries, Report, the Publication Department SESRIC, Ankara, Turkey.

48. The Image English Magazine (2008), The Sudanese Sunny Days in Manhattan: A Man on a Challenging Mission, Byader Media Distribution Company Ltd, Sudan Vision News Paper, The Image Magazine, Khartoum, Sudan.

49. The Republic of South Sudan (2005), The Interim Constitution of Southern Sudan, 2005, Juba, South Sudan.

50. The Research Center for Transnational Security and Governance (2012), South Sudan: Past, Present, and Future; the challenges of International Cooperation for its Development, Madrid, Spanish.

51. United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (2008), A Report (Final Report) of the Study on Socio-economic and Cultural Barriers to Schooling in South Sudan, UNICEF, Juba, South Sudan.

52. United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (2015), Situation Assessment of Children and Women in South Sudan, Juba, South Sudan.

53. United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (2012), Education in Emergencies and Post-Crisis Transition, 2011 Program Report, Juba, South Sudan.



54. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2014), Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Policy Review in South Sudan, UNESCO, Paris, France.
55. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (ND), Country Programming Document for South Sudan (2014-2016), UNESCO, Juba, South Sudan.
56. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Office for ECOSOC Support and Coordination (2008), Sustainable Development and Promoting Development Cooperation, Dialogues at Economic and Social Council, United Nations Publications, New York, USA.
57. United Nations Development Program (UNDP) (2015), Human Development Report, New York, USA.
58. United Nations Development Program (UNDP) (2010), Seeds for Development: Livelihood, Empowerment and Peace-building, Khartoum, Sudan.
59. United Nations Development Program (UNDP) (2012), Investing in Agriculture for Food Security and Economic Transformation, Juba, South Sudan.
60. United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (2014), Gender Equality and Sustainable Development, World Survey on the Role of Women in Development Report, the Research and Data Section, RR Donnelly Company, USA.
61. United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) and International Center on Small Hydro Power (2013), World Small Hydropower Development Report, Vienna, Austria.
62. United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA) (2013). South Sudan Consolidated Appeal 2014-2016, Juba, South Sudan.
63. United States Agency for International Development (USAID) (2014), South Sudan Tropical Forests and Biological Diversity Assessment Phase1: Pre-Field Desk Assessment, Juba, South Sudan.
64. World Bank, (2013), South Sudan Education Resilience Case Report, Education Resilience Approaches (ERA) Programs, Washington DC, USA.

**(E) World Wide Websites:**

1. Barbara, Nunberg (2015), South Sudan's Civil Service Challenges: An outside perspective, Working Paper, International Growth Center, London School of Economic and Political Science, London, UK. See <https://www.theigc.org>.
2. Catholic Organization for Relief and Development Aid (Cordaid) (2014), Oil Production in South Sudan: Making it a benefit for all, Baseline Assessment of the Impact of Oil Production on Communities in Upper Nile and Unity States, The Hague, The Netherland. See <https://www.cordaid.org>.
3. Economic development and Growth, New Age International Publications (P) Ltd. New Delhi, India. See <https://www.newagepublishers.com>.

4. European Coalition on Oil in Sudan (ND), South Sudan Oil Almanac: An Open Oil Reference Guide. See <https://www.ecosonline.org>.
5. Ingrid, Kircher (2013), Challenges to Security, Livelihoods, and Gender Justice in South Sudan, The situation of Dinka agro-pastoralist communities in Lakes and Warrap States, Oxfam Research Reports, Juba, South Sudan. See <https://www.oxfam.org>.
6. International Finance Corporation (2014), Enterprise Survey: South Sudan Country Profile, World Bank Group, Washington DC, USA. See <https://www.enterprisesurvey.org>.
7. Joseph, Muvawala and Frederick, Mugisha (2014), African Economic Outlook, South Sudan, African Development Bank Group (AfDB), the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), and United Nations Development Program (UNDP). See <https://www.africaneconomicoutlooks.org>.
8. Kennet, Korayi, Tim Lardner, and Anna Wood (2010), Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) and Danish Demining Group (DDG) Evaluation Final Report, Geneva International Centre for Humanitarian Demining, Geneva, Switzerland. See <https://www.gichd.org>.
9. Mario, Silva (2014), After Partition: The Perils of South Sudan, University of Baltimore, Journal of International Law: Volume no 3, issue no 1, Article 4. See <https://www.scholarworks.law.ubalt.edu/ubjil/vol3/iss1/4>.
10. Nada, Mustafa Ali (2011), Gender and State-building in South Sudan, Special Report, United States Institute of Peace, Washington DC, USA. See <https://www.usip.org>.
11. National Open University of Nigeria (2014), Development Economics1, School of Art and Social Science, Abuja, Nigeria. See <https://www.nou.edu.ng>.
12. Sudan Human Security Baseline Assessment (HSBA) (2013), Small Arms Survey, 47 Avenue Blanc, Geneva, Switzerland. See <https://www.smallarmssurveysudan.org>.
13. The Oakland Institute (2011), Understanding Land Investment Deals in Africa Country Report: South Sudan, Oakland, USA. See <https://www.Oaklandinstitute.org>.

## Appendixes:

### Appendix A: Reviewers of the Questionnaire:

The quality of questionnaire was thoroughly checked and reviewed by the following academicians and scholars.

Table with the names of academicians who have checked the quality of the questionnaire:

| No | Name                          | Title           | Address                                    |
|----|-------------------------------|-----------------|--|
| 1. | Dr. Ahmed Abdullah Ibrahim    | Asst. Prof.     | Al-Neelain University                      |
| 2. | Dr. Ali Farah Ahmed Salah     | Professor       | Sudan University of Science and Technology |
| 3. | Dr. Ibtisam Hassan Mohamed    | Asst. Prof.     | Omdurman Islamic University                |
| 4. | Dr. Mohamedzain Ahmed         | Assoc.<br>Prof. | Al-Zaiem Al-Azhari University              |
| 5. | Dr. Mustafa Nagim Elbushari   | Assoc.<br>Prof. | Sudan University of Science and Technology |
| 6. | Dr. Sakina Mohamed Elhassan   | Assoc.<br>Prof. | Omdurman Islamic University                |
| 7. | Dr. Yousif Elfaki Abdelkariem | Assoc.<br>Prof. | Sudan University of Science and Technology |
| 8. | Dr. Yusuf Khamis Aburafas     | Assoc.<br>Prof. | International University of Africa         |

## Appendix B: Letter to Respondents to fill in the Questionnaire:



# Sudan University of Science and Technology College of Graduate Studies and Scientific Research

To: All Respondents

Dear Sir/Madam/Miss.

## **Subject: Request for filling in the Questionnaire**

I am so excited to inform you that the sole purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data/information for applied part of research program under the title: **Constraints and Planned Future Vision for Sustainable Economic Development in South Sudan (2005-2015)**. This research is conducted to fulfill the requirements for Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Economics. Therefore, I ask your kindness to participate in this philosophical work by filling in the questionnaire. I would like to promise and assure you that there is no any risk related with data/information you will provide, and there is no anything that will directly indicate your participation in discussion and interpretation of data/information. Any single indispensable information you provide will only be used for this scientific study, and will be kept confidentially.

Your participation is highly, deeply, and sincerely appreciated.

"Thanks..."

Researcher

Francis Soria Galuak Garwang  
Mobile No: +249990841091

E-mail: [francisamanda2012@gmail.com](mailto:francisamanda2012@gmail.com).

## Appendix C: Questionnaire Form

### Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies and Scientific Research

## Questionnaire:

**Instructions:** Please read the questionnaire carefully and then put only a single tick to identify the best answer that represents your opinion.

### **Part One:** Personal Data:

**Please put tick (√) to identify the appropriate answer:**

- (1) Age Group (in years): 20-29  30-39  40-49  50-59  60
- (2) Gender Category: Male  Female
- (3) Educational Level: University  Post-Graduate
- (4) Academic Degree attained: Diploma Degree  Bachelor Degree   
Post-graduate Diploma  Masters Degree  Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)   
Post-Doctoral Fellowship
- (5) Discipline/ field of the Study: Medicine/ health  Engineering Sciences   
Social Sciences  Education/Humanities  Applied Sciences  Other
- (6) Field of Work: Public Sector  Private Sector  Self-employment   
Unemployed
- (7) Occupation and Grade: Officer  Head of department  Leadership grade   
N/A
- (8) Regional Affiliation: Greater Bahir el-Ghazal  Greater Equatoria   
Greater Upper Nile

**Part Two:** Constraints, and Prospective Policies and Strategies for Sustainable Economic Development in South Sudan:

**Section One:** Constraints to Sustainable Economic Development in South Sudan:

(A) The following statements are considered as **Political, Legal and Administrative Constraints** to sustainable economic development in South Sudan in 2005-2015. Please put tick (√) to identify the appropriate answers.

| No  | Statement  | Strongly Agreed | Agreed | Neutral | Disagreed | Strongly Disagreed |
|-----|--|-----------------|--------|---------|-----------|--------------------|
| 1.  | Lack of political commitment (will) directly acts as an obstacle to economic development.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 2.  | Political uncertainty due to armed groups and frequent reshuffling of government negatively affects development programs.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 3.  | Over-execution of Comprehensive Peace Agreement has indirectly contributed to socio-economic underdevelopment.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 4.  | Over-concentration on peace and nation building program in the earlier years has caused negligence in provision of basic services.                                   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 5.  | Lack of good governance has caused incapability of public and private sectors to provide sufficient services.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 6.  | Mismanagement of economic instruments (licensing and subsidies) has undermined the role of public institutions in productive activities.                             |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 7.  | Lengthy official procedures of cross-borders trading cause unfair distribution of consumer and capital goods.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 8.  | Weak and confused operational environment for private sector has contributed to emergence of weak and small-size business firms which cannot facilitate development. |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 9.  | Limited and inefficient institutional and human capacities have seriously weakened economic development.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 10. | Weak legal and judicial system leads to emergence of informal commercial firms that has undermined private sector development.                                       |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 11. | Limited access to land and unclear land tenure have limited investment in key infrastructure and basic services.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 12. | Lack of property rights has weakened role of women in economic development.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |

(B) The following statements are considered as **Economic, Financial and Technical Constraints** to sustainable economic development in South Sudan in 2005-2015. Please tick (√) the appropriate answers.

| No  | Statement  | Strongly Agreed | Agreed | Neutral | Disagreed | Strongly disagreed |
|-----|--|-----------------|--------|---------|-----------|--------------------|
| 1.  | Lack of scientific, technical and innovative researching leads to lack of needed information for development.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 2.  | Poor infrastructure hinders mobility of goods and services as well as the development of entire business sector.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 3.  | Inadequate investments in major infrastructures such as agriculture, industry, power generation and public social services have weakened development.                              |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 4.  | Limited and weak financial sector have caused absence of sufficient commercial services.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 5.  | Climate change aggravates natural threats against ecosystems and natural resources that in turn affect economic development.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 6.  | Extreme poverty has made irreversible effects on sustainable development.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 7.  | Small-size products' market has affected economic growth and development.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 8.  | Ineffective macroeconomic policies discourage sustainable development.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 9.  | Landlocked nature of South Sudan causes high transport costs, and limits access to global market that could help in generation of financial resources for development.             |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 10. | Low level of productivity and production due to lack of advanced technology, skilled human resources, lack of market information system and capital formation affects development. |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 11. | Absence of planning commission contributes negatively to lack of comprehensive economic development planning.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 12. | Dependency on oil revenues has contributed to lack of economic diversification and inadequate financial resources to finance developmental activities.                             |                 |        |         |           |                    |

(C) The following statements are considered as **Socio-Cultural Constraints** to sustainable economic development in South Sudan in 2005-2015. Please tick (√) the appropriate answers.

| No  | Statement   | Strongly Agreed | Agreed | Neutral | Disagreed | Strongly Disagreed |
|-----|---|-----------------|--------|---------|-----------|--------------------|
| 1.  | Socially in South Sudan, female is considered just wife, caregiver and child-bearer. This concept limits women participation in productive activities and development.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 2.  | All communities in South Sudan see girls as assets and source of wealth. This idea leads to their withdrawal from schools and to early and forced marriage which in turn deny human development.              |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 3.  | Girl-child contribution to household activities eliminates their access to education and skills, contributes to their lower educational performance. Such socio-cultural situation affects human development. |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 4.  | Polygamous nature of families in South Sudan is one of widespread cultural acceptances which limit the use of financial resources in developmental activities.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 5.  | Cattle rustling, inter-tribal, and intra-communal conflicts contribute to insecurity that discourage investments in social infrastructures.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 6.  | Rapid growth of population poses challenges and difficulties in provision of basic services.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 7.  | Children's contribution to their families' economies stands as barrier to their schooling and negatively affects human development.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 8.  | Inequality between social groups leads to social instability which can undermine long-term human development.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 9.  | Family composition with more unproductive members like children and sick people increases vulnerability and family suffering and in turn discourages development.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 10. | Women roles in South Sudan are just subordinate to roles of men. This social status undermines development process.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |



**Section Two:** Prospective Policies and Strategies for sustainable economic development in South Sudan.

(A) The following statements are considered as **Political, Legal and Administrative Policies and Strategies** for sustainable development in South Sudan. Please put (√) to determine the appropriate answers.

| No  | Statement   | Strongly Agreed | Agreed | Neutral | Disagreed | Strongly Disagreed |
|-----|---|-----------------|--------|---------|-----------|--------------------|
| 1.  | Build strong political commitment to facilitate sustainable economic development.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 2.  | Create political democratic climate to deepen political system and enhance political stability that will foster sustainable development.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 3.  | Distribution of roles and tasks during execution and implementation of national programs.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 4.  | All specialized public and private institutions shall focus on management of their tasks and duties during execution of nation and peace building program to create balance in provision of basic services and program. |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 5.  | Establish efficient and transparent governance to improve capability of public and private sectors in provision of services.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 6.  | Create sound management for economic regulation instruments to strengthen role of public institutions in productive activities.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 7.  | Develop measures to reduce negative impacts of lengthy official procedures of cross-borders trading to create fair distribution of consumer and capital goods.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 8.  | Organize the operational environment of private sector to create attractive environment for investments.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 9.  | Strengthen institutional and human capacities and skills to conduct sustainable economic development.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 10. | Strengthen legal system to eliminate financial crimes and minimize informal   |                 |        |         |           |                    |

|     |   |  |  |  |  |  |
|-----|---|--|--|--|--|--|
|     | sector existence that shall boost development of private sector.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11. | Develop measures that could increase access of getting land and land tenure to improve investment in key infrastructures. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 12. | Improve women's property rights that can make them to contribute effectively in economic development.                     |  |  |  |  |  |

(B) The following statements are considered as **Economic, Financial and Technical Policies and Strategies** for sustainable development in South Sudan. Please put (√) to determine the appropriate answers.

| No  | Statement   | Strongly Agreed | Agreed | Neutral | Disagreed | Strongly Disagreed |
|-----|---|-----------------|--------|---------|-----------|--------------------|
| 1.  | Give much concern to scientific and innovative researching that could provide adequate information for development.                                     |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 2.  | Enhance infrastructure (transportation system, and power supply) to encourage business sector growth and development.                                   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 3.  | Increase investments in key infrastructure such as agriculture, industry, power generation and public social services.                                  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 4.  | Development of financial institutions to increase access to financial resources and improve commercial services.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 5.  | Reduce the level of extreme poverty to promote economic development.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 6.  | Enlarge the scope of market for products by exploring locally, regionally and globally new markets and develop market information system.               |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 7.  | Enact applicable regulations and measures to reduce climate change effects on ecosystems and natural resources.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 8.  | Build good relations with coastal neighboring countries to minimize the country's landlocked nature effects on access to global market and development. |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 9.  | Develop effective macroeconomic policies to remove difficulties on development.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 10. | Increase the level of productivity and production to stimulate economic growth and development.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 11. | Establish planning commission (authority) and adopt comprehensive economic planning.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 12. | Diversify economic and financial resources to reduce dependency on insufficient oil revenues and to increase development financial resources.           |                 |        |         |           |                    |

(C) The following statements are considered as **Socio-Cultural Policies and Strategies** for sustainable development in South Sudan. Please put (√) to determine the appropriate answers.

| No | Statement   | Strongly Agreed | Agreed | Neutral | Disagreed | Strongly Disagreed |
|----|---|-----------------|--------|---------|-----------|--------------------|
| 1. | Create pro-female socio-cultural policies to eradicate the concept of a female as just wife, caregiver and child-bearer and enhance women participation in productive activities and development.     |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 2. | Enact laws and regulations to ban withdrawal of girls from schools and early and forced marriage to promote their skills that will increase their capacity and participation in economic development. |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 3. | Enact and enforce laws to eliminate young girls' contribution to household activities to increase their access to education that will promote sustainable human development.                          |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 4. | Create socio-cultural awareness to reduce the polygamous nature of families that will have positive impact on financial resource uses in economic development.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 5. | Prevent internal conflicts and transnational crimes to improve internal peace and security that will increase investments in social infrastructures.  |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 6. | Manage rapid growth of population and entire demographic changes through sound and effective population policies and strategies that will improve basic services.                                     |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 7. | Introduce pro-child policies to eliminate children's contribution to their household economies that will widen their educational opportunities.   |                 |        |         |           |                    |
| 8. | Take actions to minimize inequality   |                 |        |         |           |                    |

|     |   |  |  |  |  |  |
|-----|---|--|--|--|--|--|
|     | between social groups to improve social stability that will contribute positively in socio-economic development.                                |  |  |  |  |  |
| 9.  | Develop measures to reduce households' vulnerability and enhance livelihood of people.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10. | Take actions and measures to support women to play principal role equal to roles of men to increase their participation in development process. |  |  |  |  |  |

**Notice:** Please, make sure that all statements are answered and there is no any statement left or remain without answer.

Thanks...