

Sudan University of Science and Technology
College of Graduate Studies
Socio –Economic Situation Analysis of Male Youth Migrants in
Three Markets in Khartoum State
(Omdurman market, SaadGeshra market, Al.Shabee
KhartoumMarket)

تحليل الوضع الاجتماعي والاقتصادي للمهاجرين الشباب في ثلاثة أسواق
بولاية الخرطوم
(سوق أم درمان ، سوق سعد قشرة ، سوق الشعبي الخرطوم)

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الاستهلال

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Dedication

To my parents,
To my husband and my kids
To soul
Of my uncle

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List of Symbols and Abbreviations

AFDB	African Development Bank Group
Bahri	Khartoum North.
CPA	Comprehensive Peace Agreement.
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization.
GDP	Gross Domestic Product.
GNP	Gross National Product.
GNU	Government of National Unity.
GOSS	Government of Southern Sudan.
IDP	Internally Displaced Persons.
ILO	International Labor Organization.
IOM	International Organization for Migration.
LIC	Life Insurance Corporation
MENA	Middle East and North Africa Region countries.
OECD	Organization for Economic Co –operation and Development.
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs.
UNDG	United Nations Development Group.
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Abstract

This study was conducted to investigate the situation of rural youth migrants to Khartoum state who work in the informal sector. The study is explanatory and descriptive in nature which provides numerical description of some part of the population and explains events using comprehensive questionnaire directed to migrant youth work in three local markets in Khartoum State. The study utilized quantitative and qualitative approaches and followed cross-section design. The study area comprises three local markets in Khartoum state, Omdurman market located in Omdurman, SaadGeshra market located in Khartoum North (Bahri) and SouqEL.Shabiee Khartoum located in Khartoum. A sample of 300 male youth migrants were selected based on three informal activities as follows mobilize workers, shops boys and business owner. It was difficult to develop sample frame for this study. We used non random sampling;(Purposive and snow ball techniques.

The study findings indicated that majority of migrant youth were less than 19 years old, 48% of youth before migration were without work while 27.3% were dropped out from education and 22.7% worked as farmers. 88% of the male youth migrated searching for a job for a better life their socio-economic situation characterized by vulnerability, poverty and low skill to get the job outside of the informal sector. Migrant youth were self-employed in informal sector because they did not have the possibility of joining the formal sector. The self-employed identified by the study were three activities mobile workers, shop boys and small business owner.

Results also indicated that youth in informal sector challenged by the lack of protection, low income and no access to capital to improve their self-employed work. 61.4 % of migrant youth still could not integrate with people in Khartoum State.

The study indicated migrants youth have limited integration with host community in Khartoum Sate they limited their friendship with

their counterparts in the markets who migrated from different States. Most of migrant faced the difficulties to live in Khartoum but they did not have planned to go back because of the availability of work.

In conclusion, young migrants are more vulnerable when, in combination with their age and stage of life, they face isolation, exclusion, discrimination, and insecurity. Moreover, in the migration process young people can lose their social networks and may also be without parents or family members to provide guidance and care. The study has added new understanding to explore the determinants of self-employment among rural to urban migrants' youth in Sudan. The study recommended that Given the weak position many migrants youth in informal jobs have – lacking social protection and capital, both monetary and human – policies and related programs should be tailored to create more opportunities for youth to be employed in formal jobs. This is especially the case for those who are at risk of being left furthest behind, such as those with no education, no access to finance, and no contributions to pensions or old-age insurance.

المستخلص

أجريت هذه الدراسة للتحقيق في وضع الشباب الريفيين المهاجرين إلى ولاية الخرطوم في القطاع الخاص. الدراسة تفسيرية وصفية بطبيعتها تقدم وصفاً رقمياً لجزء من السكان وتشرح الأحداث باستخدام استبيان شامل موجه إلى عمل الشباب المهاجر في ثلاثة أسواق محلية بولاية الخرطوم. استخدمت الدراسة مناهج كمية ونوعية واتبعت تصميم المقطع العرضي. تتكون منطقة الدراسة من ثلاثة أسواق محلية بولاية الخرطوم ، وسوق أم درمان الواقع في أم درمان ، وسوق سعد قشرة الواقع شمال الخرطوم (بحري) ، وسوق الشعبي الخرطوم في الخرطوم. تم اختيار عينة من 300 شاب مهاجر من الشباب على أساس ثلاثة أنشطة غير رسمية على النحو التالي البائع المتجول ، العمال بالمحل و أصحاب المحلات التجارية . كان من الصعب تطوير إطار عينة لهذه الدراسة. استخدمنا أخذ العينات العشوائية، (تقنيات هادفة وكرة الثلج).

أشارت نتائج الدراسة إلى أن غالبية الشباب المهاجرين كانوا أقل من 19 عامًا ، و 48% من الشباب قبل الهجرة كانوا بلا عمل ، بينما توقف 27.3% عن التعليم و 22.7% عملوا كمزارعين ، 88% من الشباب الذكور هاجروا بحثاً عن عمل من أجل حياة أفضل لتطوير و تنمية وضعهم الاجتماعي والاقتصادي الذي يتسم بالضعف والفقر والمهارة المتدنية للحصول على وظيفة خارج القطاع الخاص. كان الشباب المهاجرون يعملون لحسابهم الخاص لأنه لم يكن لديهم إمكانية الالتحاق بالقطاع الرسمي. حدد العاملون لحسابهم الخاص في الدراسة ثلاثة أنشطة عاملين متنقلين او متجولين، و عامل بالمحل وأصحاب أعمال صغيرة.

أوضحت النتائج أن الشباب في القطاع الخاص يواجهون تحدياً من نقص الحماية وانخفاض الدخل وعدم الحصول على رأس المال لتحسين عملهم لحسابهم الخاص. 61.4% من الشباب المهاجر لا يزالون غير قادرين على الاندماج مع سكان ولاية الخرطوم. فحدد الشباب المهاجر صداقتهم مع نظرائهم في الأسواق الذين هاجروا من مناطق مختلفة. واجه معظم المهاجرين صعوبات في العيش في الخرطوم لكن لم يكن لديهم خطة للعودة بسبب توفر العمل.

في الختام ، يكون الشباب المهاجرون أكثر ضعفاً عندما يواجهون ، مع عمرهم ومرحلة حياتهم ، العزلة والاستبعاد والتمييز وانعدام الأمن. علاوة على ذلك ، في عملية الهجرة ، يمكن أن يفقد الشباب علاقاتهم الاجتماعية وقد يكونون أيضاً بدون آباء أو أفراد من الأسرة لتقديم التوجيه والرعاية. أضافت هذه الدراسة فهماً جديداً لاستكشاف المحددات للعمالة الذاتية بين شباب المهاجرين من الريف إلى الحضر في

السودان ، ولا سيما ولاية الخرطوم ، حيث السؤال يطرح نفسه، لماذا يهاجر الشباب ، وما طبيعة ونمط الهجرة من الريف إلى الحضر؟ فمعرفة الشباب المهاجر معرفه محدودة بناءً على تجارب مجموعة من الشباب ، فقد وفرت من خلال تجارب الشباب في عملية صنع القرار للشباب العاملين في الريف الهجرة الحضرية. و هذا يتطلب المزيد من البحث في استكشاف تجارب الشباب في القطاع الخاص ، و هل الآثارعلي طول المدى مفيدة ، وتظهر أيضًا التأثيرات طويلة المدى على الشباب وانتقالهم إلى مرحلة البلوغ. الجانب الآخر الذي قد يكون ذا صلة بالاستكشاف هو تجارب الشباب الذين يهاجرون بدون المهارات المناسبة والتعليم التقني المطلوب.

اكتشف الباحث من خلال البحث من خلال استخدام الأساليب الكمية والنوعية ، أن طبيعة الهجرة الريفيه الحضرية في السودان في الآونة الأخيرة نمط جديد أن غالبية المهاجرين هم من الشباب. على الرغم من أن أنماط الهجرة قد تغيرت بشكل كبير على مدار الخمسين عامًا الماضية في العديد من النواحي ، فقد زاد عدد الذين يهاجرون للعمل "إلى أكثر من نصف السكان المهاجرين الداخليين والدولييين مما يجعلهم أكثر عرضة للاستغلال". فقد اصبح المهاجرين هم اهم مساهمين في ترقية و تنمية الحالة الاقتصادية لمنطقتهم التي هاجروا منها من خلال تحويلاتهم الخاصة.

Chapter One

General Framework

1.1. Background

By 2030 it is estimated that all developing regions will have more people living in urban areas than rural areas, with virtually all the world's population growth concentrated in urban areas over the next 30 years (UNHABITAT, 2010:12). Rural urban migration is main cause of growing of urbanization in developing countries. Rural urban migration recently has new pattern that majority of migrants are youth. Although migration patterns have changed dramatically over the past 50 years in many respects, the number of women who migrate for work has increased "to over half the national and international migrant population *making female workers more vulnerable to exploitation*". female migrants are now major contributors to their home country economies through their private remittances. (Tacoli, Cecelia, and Richard Mabala, 2010). Urbanization has been strongly associated with urban poverty and slum growth too. There is some evidence that some sub-Saharan African countries are now stagnating or urbanizing very slowly, perhaps reflecting declining economic opportunities in many urban areas and a rising crisis of urban poverty and livelihood insecurity. Youth (under 18 years old) are predicted to make up 60% of urban populations by 2030 and youth are over-represented among the urban poor. Most rural migrant youths, live in unplanned settlement areas, often in difficult conditions and are vulnerable to high levels of unemployment and underemployment (Sommers, 2010:319). Recently increase of population urban area led to high competition for jobs and expand of informal sectors (UNFPA 2007),(World Bank, 2009). Urban growth has been strongly associated with urban poverty and slum growth too. Africa and Asia currently present the highest rate of urbanization in the world whilst remaining its most impoverished regions. By 2030, an estimated 7 out of every 10 urbanites will live in these two continents (UNFPA: 2007). Global evidence of a

negative relationship between urbanization and per capita income is increasingly contested Rural to urban migration offers a pathway to poverty(Bird and Deshingkar, 2007,). The number of young people (aged 12-24) worldwide stands at 1.3 billion today, and is expected to rise to about 1.5 billion by 2035 (Mabala, 2011:159). This represents one in four people (Bartlett, 2010). Eighty-five per cent of these young people live in low and middle income countries (Miller, 2004, Sommers, 2010), where many are vulnerable to extreme poverty. The absolute number of young people is growing faster in sub-Saharan Africa⁴ than anywhere else. Bartlett, 2010:2). Rural migrants living in urban areas are often young people. Young people tend to make up about half the total African rural to urban migration, with many more migrants being very young indeed (Bartlett, 2010:2). Most urban youth, and particularly youth migrants, live in unplanned settlement areas, often squalid conditions with no social services of amenities. Across Africa, the majority are no longer in school and are unable to get jobs (Mabala, 2011:169). 76 per cent of working age youth are formally unemployed and the majority live in poverty in Nairobi, Kenya (Thieme, 2010:335). Despite this, most youth who migrate to cities never leave.

Sudan is witnessing rapid urbanization from massive rural-urban migration, and continuous IDPs' influxes flooding urban centers. Greater Khartoum (8 million people), Nyala (2 million people), and Damazine, (one million people) are growing extremely fast bearing the rapid urbanization brunt. This event portrays Sudan's experience in addressing rapid urbanization by presenting four experiences: (i) Rural to urban migration have been a national phenomenon in Sudan even before the problems related to political unrest. Over the last 4 decades, the population of Khartoum State has more than quadrupled. It is estimated that 28% of Khartoum's population are IDP's and that 36% of the IDP's will probably become permanent residents, (Assal, 2007). Urbanization is the most important type of internal migration in Sudan. The consequences of

urbanization are increasing unemployment in Khartoum, pressures on housing, material goods, and services, the impact of rural-urban migration on sending areas include a reduction of educated and productive groups and a reduction in the marginal productivity of agricultural workers).The lack of opportunities of education and jobs of rural youth in their place of origin lead them to move to urban area. Unfortunately the situations of rural migrants are become more difficult in urban areas due to the poverty and lack of job. According to (samiasatti, 2007-2011). The needs of rural youth shift to a problems facing the youth because of the lack of satisfaction of the needs. The informal sector can be highly profitable but is more often constrained by lack of capital, lack of access to credit, insufficient demand and non-payment by customers, high supplier costs and tough competition, as well as unreliable staff and low skills levels.

1.2.Rationale:

In most developing countries rural migration represents an important strategy to expand, diversify and vulnerabilities of livelihoods, in urban setting. The reality shows that current majority of rural urban migration patterns in Sudan are complex and a wide articulation of pull-and-push factors, with climate change, draught and conflict represent causes for population movements Moreover migration patterns and dynamics are influenced by a number of social, economic, cultural and political variables. The recent phenomenon of migration in Sudan has migration includes many young girls alone or combined their females seeking job to support their families' .This requires in-depth analysis combining different disciplines and fields of expertise. According to most studies, variables such as rural unemployment, income levels, land and water availability, and access to basic services represent the main determinants of youth choice to migrate from the rural world. . The Rural urban migration of youth creates new types of urban informal sector in which rural youth self -

employed this requires analysis and investigation of this new pattern of informal sectors challenges and opportunities.

1.3. Statement of the Problem:

Researches generally indicate that rural-to-urban migrants usually join the urban informal sector. In a country where there is hardly any social security for the most fragile segment of the population, the informal urban sector provides a welcome route out of poverty. Available statistics tend to indicate that formal sector employment opportunities in Sudan can no more keep pace with the number of entrants into the labor market. The informal sector of the economy has come to the rescue by providing employment and income for the migrant's youth and those retrenched from the formal sector employment. These points to the fact that future employment of youth may be tilted towards their formal sector. Unfortunately, the informal sector activities are characterized by low productivity, poor quality of products, inadequate production equipment, and insufficient technical skills. The issue of technical skills should take a central position if low productivity and poor quality of products must be tackled. Due to rural-urban migration originated by wars and natural crises, the population of Khartoum State has more than quadrupled over the last decades. Employment creation, income generation and re-integration of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) are among the top priorities of the Khartoum State Government. This study examines youth rural urban migration in Sudan. Recent years have produced some studies on internal migration in Sudan particularly focusing on problems and constraints faced by rural families. However, to the best of our knowledge, there has been no research on youth males and females' migration, and the challenges young people face during and after migration. This research intends to contribute to fill this gap by carrying out an in-depth study of the youth migration to Khartoum state that are self employed in informal sector. The migration literature suggests that urban migrants, who are attracted to cities and towns due to higher wage in the formal sector, may end up in a low

paying in informal sector, since there is more labor supply to the 'modern sector' than there is demand to absorb it all. We thus try to examine youth involvement in the informal sector using a sample of youth who are engaged in informal sector activities namely mobile worker, shop boys and business owners.

1.4. Significance of the study

The findings of the study have theoretical as well as practical significance. This micro level study is expected to give insights to understanding the importance of youth work in informal sector in Khartoum state selecting Omdurman market, SaadGeshra market and SouqEL.Shabiee Khartoum market. The study is expected to raise societal awareness of those rural youth, to identify the factors that contribute to this operation and to understand the challenges faced by them. In due course, it is hoped that this study will help to donor communities will provide recent statistical data and research findings. It may also have some contribution to the formulation of appropriate policies for preventing, reducing and controlling the problem of rural youth labors. These policies will help the concerned bodies to focus on the root causes of rural youth labors rather than giving attention to the observed problems. In addition to this, the policies will facilitate to have further studies on the problem since there is little relevant and comprehensive data on the problem of rural youth work in informal sector.

1.5. Objectives of the Study:

Based on the above research questions, the broad objective of this study is to explore the determinants of self-employment among rural to urban migrants' youth in Sudan, Khartoum State in particular:

- To examine the nature and extent of rural-urban migration in Sudan in general and Khartoum state in particular.
- To examine the socio- economic aspects of migrants youth who work in informal sector with respect to their livelihoods, wages, working conditions.
- To identify the factors which are responsible for the choice of location in migration decision.
- To explore the perception of youth on their work of three selected informal activities.
- To investigate challenges and opportunities youth face during in their involvement in informal sector at urban setting.

1.6. Research Questions:

The broad research questions those are attempted to explore in the study are:

- 1) Why do the youth migrate?
- 2) What are the nature and pattern of rural-urban migration?
- 3) Is there any association between skill formation and rural-urban migration?
- 4) What are the determinants of rural-urban migration?
- 5) Does the spread of urban informal sector play any significant role in intensifying rural-urban migration?
- 6) What are the Characteristics of the youth engaged in the informal sector?
- 7) What are the Characteristics of the activities in the informal sector?

1.7. Structure of the Research:

The research composed five chapters, chapter one was introductory chapter presenting the general frame work. Chapter two, reviews literatures discuss by

the study, the chapter is organized into ten parts including recent literature written on the analysis of the socioeconomic situation of the youth male migrants in the informal sector. The chapter also explores some thesis and dissertation similar to the research. Chapter three, the methodology used to collect the data to achieve the research objectives. Chapter four, present the findings of the study and critically discussed the result that was supported by the literature. Chapter five summarized the main result and present related conclusion and recommendation for further actions.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1.Rural Youth:

For most developing countries the last decade has been one of increasing difficulty -declining living standards, unemployment, deteriorating services, social unrest and political instability.

In 1990, the Youth population (15-24 years) of the world was approximately 1.01 billion or 19.1% and the number of children (0-14 years) was reckoned to be about 1.7 billion or 32.2% of the world's population. The projected figures for the year 2000 are 1.19 billion for youth and 2.01 billion for children **(FAO, 2000)**.

Rural youth account for around 55 percent of the world youth population. They are among the most disadvantaged of groups. Often they have limited access to educational programmes that are geared to their situation and needs - not surprisingly, many rural people drop out of school at an early age. Class-work is often geared more toward academic accomplishments and to the urban areas than to learning skills useful to rural life, and preparing for adulthood. In many cases too, there is a genuine need for the young person's labor on the farm or in the home adding yet another reason why parents see little reason to keep their children in school. Rural young women have even greater difficulties than young men as they are often not given the same opportunities in education, training and involvement in rural development activities, un employment and underemployment among young people are critical issues in international development today, and will remain so in years to come. This is particularly the case in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), where the population of young people is increasingly growing. One major problem is that the rate of creation of decent employment opportunities lags far behind the number of young people who are becoming economically active. In recent years the youth employment challenge in Africa has moved up the development agenda, spurred by events and

phenomena such as the Arab Spring and migration from Africa, and by the perceived security challenge posed by 'idle' youth.

Report on Youth and Migration, FAO (2011) has provided arguments explaining the higher propensity of rural youth to resort to internal migration. The most important is undoubtedly the lack of decent employment opportunities for youth in rural areas, and the high incidence of vulnerable employment and poor working conditions among youth. In addition, work in the agricultural sector suffers from a negative perception i.e. it is often associated with low returns, drudgery and demanding work but at the same time low social status (Leavy and Smith, 2010). Ultimately, it is important to note that migration among young adults may be also determined by decisions within the family level, as part of household livelihood strategies. This is particularly true in contexts of lack of social safety nets and weak capital markets, migration is often a strategy to escape situation of distress due to severe livelihood constraints.

Considering the above, there are challenges facing the youth in migration youth constitute the main share of population in many developing countries, accounting for almost half of the rural population. Almost 72% of households living in extreme poverty, on less than US\$ 1.25/day, live in rural areas, where the majority of the working poor and food insecure households are also found in .Sub-Saharan Africa are among the regions with highest shares of rural population, incidence of extreme poverty in rural areas, working poverty, and employment in agriculture.

Young people leave mostly because of lack of opportunities at home. Unemployment and Under-employment are major issues youth face, along with high economic insecurity, poverty and pronounced decent work deficits. Agriculture is the main sector of employment of rural people. However, rural youth generally are under-represented in development policies and they lack access to adequate education opportunities and productive assets. All this

impedes them accessing decent employment in rural areas and represents a push factor of migration.

Unemployment rates for youth are almost three times higher than adults ones in all regions of the world, ranging from nearly two times in Sub-Saharan Africa (ILO 2010).

In 2008, people aged between 15-24 made up nearly 25% of the working age Population, but accounted for 40% of total unemployment (ILO 2010).

Young workers represent about 24% of the world's working poor and are often employed in Agriculture (ILO 2010). It has been estimated that 152 million young workers were living below the US\$ 1.25 day poverty line in 2008, accounting for about 28% of all young workers (ILO 2010). While unemployment is a major problem for urban youth, rural young people are particularly vulnerable to working under poor conditions. Rural youth are often found in unpaid family work, especially in agriculture, or employed as own - account, wage casual and seasonal workers in the informal economy, where they earn low wages, have limited job security and insufficient access to social protection.

Migration is seen by youth as a strategy to cope with limited employment opportunities, particularly in rural areas. Rural out-migration, particularly migration out of agriculture, is also associated with rural youth aspirations and perceptions. Most youth seems to have a negative perception of farm life, linked to the type of work performed, and to the limited profits, lack of mobility and low status associated to working in agriculture (Leavy And Smith 2010).

In a globalised world, the ability to absorb the growing youth workforce is a crucial challenge, which will affect migration patterns. The failure to address youth employment and entrepreneurship development, particularly in rural areas, may have negative effects on the stability and sustainability of economic development, and the efforts made in reducing Poverty and food insecurity.

According to the World Bank (2006), a third of total migrants from developing countries are aged 12 to 24. The overwhelming majority of international migrants move within the same region or to neighboring countries. This is particularly true for most youth moving out of rural areas, which tend to engage more frequently in temporary forms of migration.

2.2. The characteristics challenges' and opportunities of rural youth in Sudan:

In order to understand the main youth employment challenges in developing countries, it is useful to first discuss the determinants of labor market outcomes. While these determinants are interrelated, they can be grouped into three types: labor demand, labor supply, and the functioning of labor markets. The main determinants can be summarized as Labor demand, Growth of productive yet labor-intensive activities, especially in the formal private sector. Labor supply, Equal access to education Quality of education, Relevance of skills acquired in general education and VET Skill development for self-employment and employment in the informal economy Migration. Labor market functioning Availability and quality of information Transparency in hiring practices Labor market regulation.

2.2.1.Labor demand:

Demand for workers is ultimately driven by growth and structural change: job creation depends on the growth and labor-intensity of production in different sectors. Data on the main productive sectors where young people work are not widely available, but agriculture and the public sector each are particularly relevant. Furthermore, youth employment challenges are closely related to the informal non-agricultural economy, including manufacturing and services.

The majority of young workers in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, especially in low-income countries, work in agriculture in rural areas. Typically, the most vulnerable people in agriculture are the landless, who work for a wage

on the land of others. Agricultural labor demand depends on factors such as the labor-intensity of production technology and land distribution, and varies seasonally. The rural poor increasingly diversify into non-agricultural activities as part of their livelihood strategies, mainly in the form of informal, unpaid or self-employment. In many countries, the urban poor are also concentrated in the informal non-agricultural economy, and are not any better off than the rural population.

In Sub-Saharan African middle-income countries, the services sector accounts for a high and growing share of employment, while the share of agriculture and sometimes even manufacturing declines (IMF 2012). The majority of developing country workers in the services sector are self-employed, for example in retail or transportation services. This kind of structural change, with an increasing share of the workforce in low-productivity activities, can result from a lack of labor demand in high-productivity formal enterprises. In Latin America, for example, productivity growth since the 1990s has been accompanied by a declining share of manufacturing in total employment, with workers moving into lower productivity employment in services (McMillan and Rodrik, 2012).

Most jobs that have been created in North Africa and the Middle East are in low value added sectors, such as construction and the public sector, and little in manufacturing. Furthermore, job growth has not kept pace with growth of the working age population. The public sector accounts for a large share of the total wage bill in countries in the region, due to a high public employment share and especially high wages in the public sector (Ahmed et al., in World Economic Form 2012). Public sector employment, including public administration and publicly owned enterprises, has especially dominated the market for educated labour. In the case of Egypt, this was the outcome of public employment guarantees for secondary and postsecondary graduates. The guarantees proved untenable and have been suspended in the early 1990s (Assad, 1997). An

important development closely related to rising youth unemployment in the region, therefore, is the slowing down of public sector employment growth. With increasing global integration of economies, the structure of (employment) growth is also affected by external factors. The financial crisis impact on GDP and consumption in the developed world, for example, indirectly affected developing countries through reductions in demand for their exports. The global economic and financial crisis has particularly affected youth as they are making the school-to-work transition. Young jobseekers have worse prospects for decent formal sector employment than older generations and have little choice but to settle for part-time work, fixed term contracts, or self-employment (ILO 2013c), if they find any work at all. This way the crisis has also contributed to a slowdown in the reduction of working poverty among those who have jobs (UNDG, 2013).

As discussed in the 2013 World Development Report, countries' employment challenges are further interconnected through the proliferation of production fragmentation. Jobs in manufacturing – and more recently in services as well – have become increasingly mobile. It was mentioned that growing labor costs in Asia, particularly in China, could open up opportunities for other developing countries to jump-start their industrialization (World Bank 2012). Nonetheless, mismatches between labor demand and supply at the sectoral and regional level will keep arising due to the increasing global interconnection of jobs, as well as labor-saving technological change, urbanization, and the transition to more energy efficient production and Consumption, (UNDG, 2013). Finally, it is important to note that when labor demand slows down, self-employment may be the only alternative opportunity. The self-employed thus consist of necessity-driven on the one hand, and voluntary entrepreneurs on the other.

2.2.2.Labor supply:

The main supply side determinants of youth employment outcomes are education and skills, in terms of quantity, quality and relevance. Migration is

another important supply side factor; Skills are built through formal general education, formal vocational education and training (VET) and apprenticeships, and through non-formal education and training. Better cognitive skills are associated with reduced “idleness” and increased school enrolment, with lower incidence of vulnerable employment, and with reduced agricultural employment in low-income countries (Lee and Newhouse 2012). At the same time, lack of non-cognitive skills is often mentioned by employers in the private formal sector as an obstacle to hiring young workers.

Access to primary education is a first requirement for obtaining basic literacy and numeracy skills, which are a precondition for ensuring access to decent work. Poverty is a major barrier to education, because the costs of schooling can be substantial even in absence of tuition fees (due to costs of materials, transportation, the opportunity cost of foregone earnings, etc.). The poor have a high risk of being trapped without basic numeracy and literacy skills and therefore perpetuating limited chances to find decent work. Most developing countries are making progress towards universal primary education, but the transition from primary to secondary education is an important next step. In Sub-Saharan Africa, this transition rate is increasing along with primary enrolment. In South and West Asia, on the other hand, the transition rate to secondary education has declined somewhat with the expansion of primary enrolment. Enrolment rates in secondary education have increased in all developing regions, but remain relatively low in the Arab States (61 per cent), South and West Asia (51 per cent), and especially in Sub-Saharan Africa (29 per cent). These regions also have the largest enrolment gender gaps. Among the poorest, gender gaps in schooling tend to be low because schooling is not affordable for most boys or girls. At the other end of the distribution, gender gaps are also small among the richest household, where boys and girls are equally able to attain primary education. At intermediate income levels, however, girls lag behind boys because in most countries parents

Tend to prioritize investment in boys' education. Gender gaps in education are therefore largest among the relatively rich households in LICs, and among the relatively poor households in MICs (UNESCO 2012).

While it is commonly assumed that it takes four or five years of schooling to become literate, completing primary school is no guarantee for literacy in many low-income countries. Furthermore, evidence shows that education quality gaps are not necessarily decreasing.

Evidence from Demographic and Health Surveys for different Sub-Saharan Africa countries shows that literacy skills of youth with six years of education did not improve between the early and late 2000s. Besides equal and universal access to education, therefore, the quality of primary and secondary education remains an urgent challenge in many developing countries. Net enrolment in higher education is rising across the developing world, but there is very high regional variation. LAC saw enrolment rates increase from 23 to 41 per cent between 2000 and 2010, while in Central Asia and Arab States, the increase was much slower, from around 21 to 24 percent. Sub-Saharan Africa has the world's lowest tertiary education enrolment at 6.8 per cent in 2010, followed by South and West Asia with 16.7 per cent. In most developing regions, the gender gap in higher education enrolment is now slightly in favor of females, but in Sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia, the relatively low enrolment rates are still coupled with a substantial disadvantage for females (UNESCO Institute for Statistics Database).

Besides general education, youth can acquire work-relevant skills through VET. VET can be integrated in compulsory schooling as an alternative to an academically oriented track, or it can be part of several post-compulsory schooling options. Eichhorst et al. (2012) show that in MENA countries, VET has a limited role quantitatively. This is due to weak links between skills provided by the VET system and demanded by private sector, insufficient funding, poor monitoring and evaluation, stigmatization, and lower returns

compared to secondary education. In Sub-Saharan Africa, the expected benefits from VET relative to general secondary schooling are not evident, and many view VET as an inferior alternative. Because the majority of firms and jobs are informal, traditional apprenticeships after primary education seem sufficient to gain access to employment.

The benefits of VET in terms of earning and social promotion vary across countries and influence its attractiveness. Returns to VET are higher than general secondary education in e.g. Cambodia, Indonesia (for older cohorts), Thailand and Turkey. In other countries, such as Egypt, Indonesia (younger cohorts), Iran, Rwanda and Tanzania, returns to vocational secondary are lower than to secondary general education. Cross-country differences may be due to variation in implementation, labor market institutions and employers' willingness to invest in skills on-the-job (Eichhorst et al. 2012). Evidence for OECD countries shows that the returns to vocational education decline with age, in line with the idea that VET limits students' ability to adapt to technological change (Hanushek et al. 2011). VET may thus have limited or negative impacts in countries with fast structural and technological change, even if it improves the school-to-work transition, because the acquired skills become obsolete in later phases of the working life. In these contexts, good quality VET needs to prepare students for adapting to changing technologies. While most young workers in developing countries do not have access to formal sector jobs, available data show that existing technical and vocational training policies in sub-Saharan Africa take no account of the majority of informal workers. Except in a few cases, there are no skill development and certification schemes for youth seeking work in the informal economy (Walther 2013). Exceptions are several professional crafts organizations in West Africa, namely the National Federation of Malian Craftsmen, the Benin National Confederation of Craft workers, and the Cameroon Interprofessional Association of Craftsmen (Walther 2012). The importance of the relevance of education is illustrated by

the fact that higher education is no guarantee for a successful school-to-work transition. Although highly educated youth is less likely to be in vulnerable employment, unemployment tends to increase with education. This may be due to large numbers of youth completing higher education degrees fit for public sector **Development and Cooperation – Europe Aid** Youth Employment in Developing Countries, *October 2013* 20 jobs, while public sector employment is declining. Unemployment can then be accompanied by unmet demand for highly skilled workers in the formal private sector. Such mismatches between young people's skills and the structure of (employment) growth may hamper future economic growth, because new generations of the working age population do not possess the skills demanded by employers. Lack of adequate skills is all the more worrying as the number of years of education attained by youth has been increasing rapidly. Preparing youth for successful entrepreneurship has become increasingly important, as self-employment is often the only opportunity when the private formal sector does not create enough jobs. There is little youth-specific research on self-employment, but evidence from Latin American and Caribbean countries shows that almost 13 per cent of working youth is self-employed.

Most of the young self-employed come from the poorest households and have at most incomplete secondary education. They tend not to hire any employees, thus only creating employment for themselves as owner of a micro-firm (Listerri et al, 2006). Important determinants of self-employment entry and success are a person's basic and entrepreneurial skills, and access to credit. The perceived status of self-employment is also particularly relevant among highly educated youth in middle-income countries: where a majority of self-employed youth has little education and unemployment rises with education, this can be a signal that highly educated youth do not aspire to running their own business.

2.3. Rural Urban Migration:

Migration is a complex phenomenon involving many economic, social and psychological aspects of people's lives. The International Organization for Migration defines migrants as "persons, and family members, moving to another country or region to better their material or social conditions and improve the prospect for themselves or their family" (IOM, 2011). Migration is one of the livelihood strategies available to rural households for diversifying their income sources and risk, facilitate access to goods and services, or invest in income-generating activities (World Bank 2008), and one of the main mechanisms that foster linkages between rural and urban areas (Berdegúe et al., 2014). Over the past few decades, the magnitude and impacts of migration flows have increased worldwide, and with them the relevance of migration as a national and international policy issue. About 243 million people, representing 3.3% of the world population, were international migrants in 2015 (IOM, 2018). Internal migration is even more prevalent, and on the rise: in the first decade of the century, more than 740 million people were living in a different region or city from where they were born (UNDP, 2009). More than a third of all migrants worldwide are under the age of 29 (UNDESA, 2013), and most migrants currently between 25 and 49 years old moved in the first half of their twenties (Young, 2013). Overall, young people (usually defined as people between 15 and 29 years of age) are estimated to be 40% more likely to move from rural to urban areas or across urban areas than older people (World Bank, 2006). Internal migration appears as a massive phenomenon, exceeding international migration as there are around the world 740 million internal migrants compared to 214 million international migrants (UNDP 2009). Many internal migrants originate from rural areas, and one could assume many of them are youth, given their higher propensity to migrate. In fact, the World Bank (2007) notably argues that young people are 40 percent more likely to move from rural to urban areas or across urban areas than older individuals.

Overall, there is a general lack of reliable and comparable data on internal migration which does not allow to fully comprehending the internal migration patterns of youth, neither its determinants nor outcomes. Internal migrants moving across provinces were young people (aged less than 25 years), with a highest migration rate within the 20-24 years old.

Rural-urban migration has its inherent linkages to agricultural development. The prosperity of rural economy depends on the prosperity of agriculture. In rural areas there are low employments opportunities in non-farm sector and thus rural people are compelled to join the agricultural sector. These result into surplus labor in the rural farm sector and trigger the problem of disguised unemployment. Due to the existence of this disguised unemployment, there is a loss in agricultural productivity and efficiency. As a consequence, the rural agricultural labor is underpaid. This has made agriculture sector a less attractive among the rural people. On the other hand, agricultural productivity may get positive impetus if these extra labors are withdrawn from the rural farm sector. The loss of attraction of agricultural sector can be attributed to various other factors too. Some of them are fall in procurement price in some of the major cash crops, unfavorable government policies, rise in labor price, rise in fertilizer and seeds price, lack of warehousing in the form of cold storages etc (Sharma and Bhaduri, 2009). The constraints and bottlenecks of agriculture act as a push factor for migration in search of job in the urban sectors. In other words, urban informal sector acts as a pull factor which attracts rural people while low productive agricultural sector acts as a push factor which throws people out of their rural base and combination of these two forces compel the rural people to migrate to the urban areas.

2.3.1. Migration:

Across the developing world, labor supply in different places is also affected by rural-urban and international migration. Due to rural-urban migration patterns, urban labor supply tends to grow faster than the working age population, further

increasing the pressure on urban labor markets. Globally, about 25% of urban growth is driven by rural-urban migration, though migration accounts for a larger share in countries that are still largely rural (especially East and Southern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, but also the MENA region), (Grant 2012). At the same time, economic crises induce high rates of return-migration when migrants lack social safety nets in the cities, shifting some of the labor supply back to rural areas. Most of the world's international migrants are labor migrants, related to the lack of opportunities for full employment and decent work in many developing countries (IOM 2010). Labor migration is determined by many factors such as existing job opportunities, wage levels, and working conditions. The facilitation of foreign employment is a strategy used by some developing countries for alleviating labor market pressures and increasing remittance receipts and thus household income for families left behind. Evidence suggests that this strategy can be effective if a number of conditions are met in terms of working conditions, access to social protection, portability of benefits, social costs of family disruption or gender-related risks. On the other hand there may be negative effects of brain drain, as normally those having the capacity to leave are the more productive in the labor market (IOM 2010).

Most rural-urban migrants are young people, while young people make up a significant share of international migrants as well. For Youth migration can serve to build human capital if young migrants attend school or gain work experience in the host region or country. In contrast, for some young people migration exposes them to several risks, including lack of access to basic rights and exploitation. This can also be due to weak social networks and limited access of young migrants to information on their rights and entitlements. Little is known about the livelihood opportunities and the risks associated with migration of young people, the policies and measures that help them reap the benefits and contribute to development of both countries of origin and of

destination, and the mechanisms that exist for migrant workers to avoid falling into risky situations. Young international migrant workers tend to be concentrated in a few occupations. For young men, this are mainly in construction and for Youth make up about one third of international migrant flows, especially flows towards developing countries (McKenzie 2008 – based on census data for 12 countries, including 6 developing countries).

2.3.2.Labor market functioning:

Youth employment outcomes are shaped by the institutions governing the matching of job seekers to vacancies, notably information, intermediation, and labor market regulation. Availability and quality of information play a key role in the labor market, for job seekers to identify relevant opportunities and for employers to find adequate workers. Evidence from School-to-Work Transition Surveys in Azerbaijan, Egypt, Iran, Kosovo, Mongolia, Nepal, and Syria (Matsumoto and Elder 2010), shows that the most important channel of job search for youth is the social network: via family and friends. Reliance on informal networks and connections may be efficient when employers find it costly to assess competencies of potential employees, or when there are no formal institutions mediating short notice hiring. However, it does mean that young job seekers are unlikely to find work outside their own network, which limits social and intergenerational mobility. Lack of information about job opportunities can contribute to skill shortages and mismatches, because parents and children are not well able to assess the returns to education. Experimental evidence for India and the Dominican Republic has shown that giving information about job opportunities or returns to education increases children's time spent in school (Jensen 2010 and 2012). Formal sources of information are public employment services and private recruitment agencies. Their services, however, are typically confined to jobs in the public sector and large formal private firms. And even there, their relevance is limited if hiring happens through family and Political connections, which is a major problem according to

young job seekers in the MENA region. The role of information thus also includes providing transparency in hiring practices. Labor market functioning further depends on regulation, such as minimum wages, which exist in all developing countries for which institutional data are available. Unemployment benefit legislation is present in most countries in CIS-Europe, North Africa, and the Latin American and Caribbean middle-income countries, (Aleksynska and Schindler 2011). However, with the majority of workers in informal employment, labor market regulation may have little direct effect on youth employment outcomes. Indirectly, however, regulation could affect aggregate outcomes if there are large spillovers to the informal economy.

2.3.3. Main challenges of youth in Sub-Saharan Africa:

Sub-Saharan Africa has the world's highest youth population growth rate and the highest share of youth in the working age population. Still, the region's youth employment problem should be seen in qualitative rather than quantitative terms. This is especially true in low-income countries and for the most vulnerable groups: young women, youth in rural areas, and youth from poor families, and those with no or little education. Private sector employment creation has been weak, due to a low growth-elasticity of employment, especially in resource-rich countries. Solid growth of the past decade has not led to a significant improvement in labor market outcomes and poverty reduction, although there are positive developments in terms of fast productivity improvement. According to business owners, electricity and finance are the biggest obstacles to growth. There is an urgent need for pro-employment economic and social policies stimulating and building on structural change (ILO 2013).

The informal economy is a structural feature of Sub-Saharan countries economies, employing up to 90% of the working age population in low-income countries (AfDB 2012). Because of its pervasiveness, the informal sector has to be part of any policy addressing youth employment. Low labor productivity and

earnings in self-employment and the informal economy are a limitation to sustained poverty reduction. In countries where the majority of youth is in rural areas, increasing agricultural productivity and non-farm rural activities are crucial. As rural urban migrants are often worse off than urban youth, investing in rural areas is also needed to prepare youth for more successful migration. Low productivity is related to lack of learning opportunities for youth in the informal economy. But also in basic formal education, gender gaps in enrolment and the poor quality of education remain an urgent challenge.

2.4. Rural Urban Migration in Sudan:

The lifetime migrants for the whole country (commonly referred to as inter-state migration) were representing 9.75% of the total population. The number of migrants increased rapidly from 1973 to 1983 and from 1993 to 2008. The sum of the net lifetime gains or net lifetime losses measures the population redistribution due to lifetime migration for the entire country. Thereby, the amount of lifetime migration, which accounted for the population redistribution in 2008, was 5.31% of the total population. Khartoum State had 1,952,650 arrivals from interstate, with the majority of people coming from North Kordufan (310980), Al-Gezira (290888), South Kordufan (219488) and Northern State (211848). Also 154420 people left Khartoum State for other states with the majority going to Al- Gazera (23458), Northern State (12242), North Kordufan (12634), Nahr Al-Neel (11730), Northern Bahr El Ghazal (11056) and South Kordufan (10200). The current migrants for the whole country numbered 304060, and were 0.82% of the total population. According to the 2008 census data, Al-Gadrif and Kassala had negative net migration rate and the largest out-migration rate were experienced by Northern State (-0.93), West Darfur (-0.46) and Al-Gezira (-0.45). Among the states that showed a positive net migration were Khartoum (0.51%), Blue Nile (0.1) and Red Sea (0.09). (Dr. SamiaElnagar, 2011).

2.4.1. Sex selectivity of migration:

Migration differentials can be based on sex, age and other social and economic characteristics. It is also well known in the Sudanese culture that households are headed by males and the head of the household move first and then the rest of the family follows.

2.4.2. Urbanization in Sudan:

Urbanization is generally defined as the convergence process of population to urban areas, and Measured by the indicator of urbanization - level, which is the ratio of urban population to the total? Population in a region or a county. In Sudan, the highest densities are along the river network and more than 70 percent of the population was rural up to 1973. However, since the mid 1970s, as a response to natural and man-made disasters and the inequality of resource distribution most of people migrated to Khartoum, where most of Sudan's economic capital and social services are concentrated. During the 1980s and 1990s urban growth rate has been accelerated due to the effects of a wide variety of climatic or political crises.

Khartoum's urbanization, however, is pathological; in the sense that people increase in number without being fully integrated into the urban system. Migrants always set up rural forms of community; self-help systems to enable them to adapt to new harsh realities. But their economic survival depends on the lowest-end of the labor market, namely unskilled jobs with long hours and often far from their homes. Most of people, lost their rural livelihoods before moving to cities, and were neither empowered to get return to their former livelihoods nor provided with alternative means of sustainable life in the city.

The in-migrants being uninterested is due to the limited capacities of cities to absorb the masses of people. In fact, there will be pressure on the already deprived resources and the process is more likely ruralization of the city. Misdistribution of population among regions affects development; in that

increased population will swallow any savings in the receiving urban centers and agricultural production will decrease as the rural areas had lost the skilled and young people. This will end up with impoverishment of the urban and the rural areas as well. Establishment of city centers in the peripheries, development of rural areas, rehabilitation of the agricultural schemes, equity in distribution of resources between states and ensuring security is essential to encourage migrants to return back home. (Dr. SamiaElnagar, 2011).

2.4.5. Size and Direction of Migration:

Information available from the 2008 census indicates that the volume of migration has been increasing systematically since the second population census in 1973. The number of migrants, which was 0.7 million in the 1973 rose to 1.3 million in 1983 and by 1993 it reached 3.4 million. The number recorded in 2008 3.7 million persons. The figures suggest a rise in the factors that contribute to population movement, since 1973. These factors encouraged internal population movement, especially to Khartoum state, to the extent that the total number involved amounted to about 10% of Sudan population. On top of the factors that caused this intensive movement is the economic factor as migrants more in pursuit of improving their living conditions or in search for jobs in urban areas, as jobs became scarce in rural areas. There are also other factors which push migrants from their home areas including wars, tribal conflicts and drought and desertification, particularly in the western state of Sudan.

Migrants to Khartoum originate from different states but the largest number comes from North Kordofan state that sends about 15.9% of the total number of migrants to Khartoum followed by Gezira 14.9% and South Kordofan 11.2%. the Northern state contributes 10.9% of migrants, the white Nile 9% and River Nile state 7% these six states together contribute about 69% of migrants to Khartoum.

As for balance between in and out migration between states, Khartoum received 49% of net migration while the Red sea, Gedarif, Blue Nile and Kassala

together received 3.9% of all migrants. The remaining states, on balance, are all sending states. Such imbalanced situation in migrants distribution obviously influences the distribution of the labour force, the economic resources and services. Khartoum state that has always been attractive to migrants, not only because of the job opportunities it offers compared to other states, but also because it is the target for external migrants as it house all the processes and producers for external migrants.

2.4.6. Characteristics of Migrants:

The results of the 2008 census, show that Khartoum is the state most attractive to male migrants, receiving about 50% all male migrants moving across Sudanese states, followed the Red sea state 2.2% and Gedarif 1.2%. The five states receiving migrants are those with industrial establishments and development schemes that make it attractive, particularly for male migrants. Because of this, the population policy in the country has to work towards the redistribution of population and their movement in away that can ensure balanced distribution of the labor force, which in turn requires the establishment of development projects in the sending states to generate conditions for stability in those states and to establish economic and demographic balance between the states.

2.4.7. Patterns of Migration:

The results of the 2008 census on mode of living and sex structure of migrants revealed the following, of the total population which moved to urban areas and two thirds of them are in Khartoum state. Thus, from the census it can be said that the prominent pattern of migration in the Sudan is rural – urban migration. Khartoum state is most attractive state to migrants and the percentage of migrants to Khartoum from the total number rose from 39% in 1993 to 42% in 2008, and the number to about two millions. Contrary to its status in the past, the Northern region in 2008 emerged as attracting migrants, receiving about 3%

of the total number of migrants. This could be attributed to the large development projects established in the region and to the large number of migrants involved in informal gold mining activities. Most of the other regions recorded a negative net migration, most of it going to Khartoum, which received 15.9% of migrants from Northern Kordofan and about 10.9 % from each of Gezira, South Kordofan and Northern state.

Khartoum is the one region receiving migrants from all other regions, amounting to 63% of migrants, followed by the eastern region 9.3% and the central region 1.4%. The three regions are the areas where most development projects are concentrated and provide the best opportunities for the job seeking migrants. It is therefore important to initiate development projects and service institutions in the migrants sending regions in order to redistribute population and labor force between the various Sudanese regions.

2.4.8. Migrants in the city:

Before migration, male migrants were mainly engaged in farming, carpentry, daily labor, shepherding, peddling, and helping their family in business, on arrival in the cities, migrants need support for their integration. Relatives and friends mainly provide support when they first arrive, until they get jobs and somewhere to live.

As most migrants do not have jobs awaiting them, one of the economic challenges face the migrants is searching for a job and getting employed. This was a problem that particularly affected construction workers. Construction jobs are unstable, hiring and contracting practices are informal, and the chance of getting a job depends on the area and season. In addition, the costs of living in the cities made it difficult for them to save and remit money to their families. Buying food, paying for transport and housing consumed all or most of their wages.

Migrants in both sectors of employment faced extremely hard working conditions, poor living conditions, long hours, low pay and regular dangers in

their workplaces. For the construction workers the main dangers were unsafe working conditions that led to accidents. For the domestic workers the main danger was usually their employer or exploitative men in powerful positions. Bullying, insults, violence, sexual abuse, rape, sexually transmitted diseases. (World Bank 2010).

Despite the hardships that migrants face in their jobs and lives in the cities, migrant domestic and construction workers revealed that they considered themselves better off in the cities. They felt that their well-being was improved by urban life. They have attained improvements in the types and places of work and the wages that they were able to earn.

Consequently, better income levels, economic independence from families at the place of origin, a measure, however small, of agency, and better and improved quality of services in the cities were found to be the factors for migrants' perception of material improvement and their improved socio-economic status.

2.4.9. Causes of Migration:

Population movement can be attributed to several factors, including the imbalanced development and its concentration in the capital Khartoum and a few other urban centers, the unequal distribution of natural resources, especially water, and the environmental degradation caused by drought and desertification. Besides, the economic deterioration and decline of agricultural production in rural areas have pushed many people to abandon agriculture and other rural activities. Also wars and conflicts have compelled million to leave their homes. Population movement was also made easier by the improvement in means of transport and communication and the expansion of education system is designed mainly for non – rural jobs, thus pushing the educated to towns to seek jobs.

2.4.9.1. The Impact of Migration:

Internal migration has led to fast population growth in Khartoum state where population now amounts to 13.5% of Sudan population. The natural growth rate is also expected to increase as 44% of migrants to the state are children and 48% are in the 15 – 49 years age group. This increase will be matched a deficit in the migrants' home state.

Although the western states are the main migrants – sending regions, they are still the areas of the heaviest population concentration, as Greater Kordofan and Darfur states accommodate about 38% of Sudan population. At the same time, the Northern region with 6% of the total population is becoming one of the migrant receiving regions.

2.4.9.2. Migrants to Khartoum State:

2.4.9.2.1. Demographic Characteristics:

Khartoum received 93% of net migration among all receiving states 96% of migrants to Khartoum are Sudanese and 4 % are foreigners, most of them 1.2% Ethiopian. Males represent 52.7% of migrants and females 47.3%; 51% of migrants are in the productive age 15 – 59 years. Economic dependency ration is 95%; 86% children and 9% aged persons. 41% of migrants never married, 37% are married and 10% are divorces. Age at first marriage within the age group 12- 14 years is about 11% and 38% for the age group 15- 19 years.

2.4.9.2.2. Housing:

91% of migrants reside in urban areas and 9% in rural areas, 50% of migrants own their houses, 39% live in rented houses, 3% in multi story buildings. About 65% live in houses with two or more rooms. Public network is the main source of water for 76% of migrants. 62% depend on public electricity network for lighting, 13% use private generators and 8% without lighting. 74% use gas for cooking and 19% use charcoal. From the above, it is clear that about 11% of migrants still preserve their rural characteristics.

2.4.9.2.3. Education Attainment:

Education and Migration, in the accounts of migrants, there were links between education and the decision to migrate. For many, failing exams and/or dropping out of school were one of a series of reasons why they migrated. For a few migrants, however, migration offered them the opportunity to continue their education, where they might otherwise had not been able. But they offer another non-economic reason why people might migrate and then not send remittances. Many of the young migrants saw migration as an opportunity to access or fund continuing education. The reality of long exhausting shifts as a construction worker or domestic worker in the city and the exploitative conditions of their work militated against this. However, education contributed significantly too many decisions to migrate, to the aspirations of migrants and to the lack of remittances sent. Migration seemed to offer migrants greater returns on their human capital than education. It is a risk taking strategy that has potential returns along with costs. (Gebeyehu, Z.H., 2014).

The 2008 census results showed that 23% of migrants to khartoum state have completed secondary school, compared 22% for non- migrant residents. About 11% of migrants are university graduates compared to about 12% among non-migrants. But the perecentage of migrants with education below secondary level is about 24% compared to 23% for resident population and 7% of migrants have no academic qualifications compared to 5% resident population.

2.4.3. Employment in Sudan:

Economically active population is the fraction of population that is either employed or actively seeking employment. Economic activity participation rate (calculated as the percentage of economically active population of the total population) was 26 percent in 2008 census compared to 30 percent in 1993. This drop may be due to the difference in identification of economically active population between the two censuses. The refined economic activity participation rate (excluding children from the total population) was 37% in 2008.

Labor force had increased from 4.5 million in 1983 to 6.5 million in 1993 and to 8 million in 2008. Nevertheless the labor force growth rate decreased from 3.9 percent between 1983 and 1993 to 1.3 percent between 1993 and 2008. The growth in employment rate also decreased from 3 percent to 0.9 percent during same period.

The percent of population employed was 21.6 percent in 2008 and thereby the economic dependency ratio is 78.4 percent indicating that every working candidate is economically responsible for other 3.6 persons. In line with these findings, the rate of unemployment increased from 8 percent in 1983 to 11 percent in 1993 and to 15.9 percent in 2008.

Participation rate in economic activity of males (55%) is by far higher than that of females (20%). About 13 percent of males and 10 percent of females in the age group (10-14) were engaged in economic activities, putting at stake their education and their normal development to 63 adulthood. The percent of economically employed males for all age groups were higher than that of their female counterparts.

More nomad children tend to begin economic activity at an early age compared to rural and urban ones. 39 percent of those who aged 10-14 years in nomadic areas and respectively 14 percent and 4 percent of their rural and urban counterparts were economically active. As nomadic people are pastoralists and most of rural people are involved in agricultural activities, their children at early age were engaged in animal herding and agricultural activities, whereas the majority of children in urban areas go to school. This is also true for the elders (60+) in that, economic activity participation rates for 59 years of age or above was the lowest in urban areas compared to their counterparts in rural and nomadic areas, indicating that fewer urban people demand for work after retirement age. (Dr. SamiaElnagar, 2011).

2.4.9.2.4. Employment:

According to the 2008 census results, about 27% of migrants were employed one week before the enumeration compared to 30% of the resident population. Job seekers constitute about 4.2% of migrants and 3.5% of resident population. About 51% of migrants are employed, 7% of them work for others, while 19% of them are self employed. For resident population, 50% are employed, 23% are self employed and 7% work for others. About 43% of migrants' households depend on salaries and wages as the main source of livelihood, 41% have their own businesses, 7% rely on other sources of income, 3% on pensions and 3% rely on remittances. Responses of the resident population were largely similar to those of migrants.

2.4.9.2.5. Social Characteristics:

The relationship between migrants and host communities is generally dependent on the nature the host community and the state of uncertainty among migrants about their future and the new home, which usually hampers the social integration process. However, each ethnic group has its own culture, values system and specificities that tend to influence the speed of integration between various ethnic groups.

According to the socio- cultural impact of Migration survey (2001), migrants when asked to compare the sending and receiving areas with regards to livelihood, job opportunities and access to services, about 70% responded that the receiving state is better in terms of health and education services, livelihood and job opportunities. But on the social relationships, only 41% stated that it is better in the receiving area. However, 71% of migrants stated that they have groups from their homes areas who have settled before them in the same place they live in and 32% said that early migrants have a role in their move to the new area. About 53% of migrants socially interact with groups from their home area, 12% interact with other ethnic group and 35% claim to interact with all people. About 29% of migrants stated that they share with some of the resident population electricity 60%, water 33%, and work 20%. In case of conflicts, 67%

of migrants claim that they settle it through mediators (Agaweed) and elders. About 68% of migrants claim that they send children to schools but 32% stated that they do not, 17% of them because they want them to earn money.

2.4.9.3. Poverty and Migration, Rural poverty:

Poverty is declining, but levels of absolute poverty are still high. The proportion who fell below the national poverty line in 2004 and 2005 stood at 36 per cent and reduced to 29.6 per cent in 2011. The national poverty line for 2010/11 was determined to be ETB 3,781 per person per year. The majority of those living under the poverty line were in rural areas, where the proportion below the poverty line stood at 30.4 per cent, in comparison to 25.7 per cent in urban areas. The decline is attributed to pro-poor policies since 2005.

landlessness, lack of productive assets, absence of income, food shortage, marginalization, lack of access to education, health, and other basic services, and an inability to obtain employment. The poverty was a result of the lack of development in rural areas such, which are predominantly engaged in agricultural activities. The lack of development in many rural areas means that there is very limited access to basic needs such as clean water, electricity, health services and education. The main local form of employment is farming. There are few employment options available in many rural areas.

2.5. Youth Rural Urban Migration:

Increasingly, youth in developing countries are diversifying their opportunities through both domestic and international migration (McKenzie 2008; Yaqub 2009). Though data detailing precise estimates by age are absent in most low- and middle-income countries, those younger than 18 years old represent approximately one-fourth of all migrants, and the proportion of youth as migrants is increasing (Global Migration Group 2014; Yaqub 2009). Current research often assumes that youth are either dependent migrants who move alongside parents, or who, like adults, are labor migrants driven by wage differences and diversification of household risk, who will soon provide

economic returns to their families (Tienda, Taylor, and Moghan 2007). Herein, I build on research highlighting the fact that education opportunities—both domestic and international—motivate youth migration (Boyden 2013; Crivello 2011; de Brauw and Giles 2008; McKenzie 2008). When present-day labor opportunities motivate migration, families often expect remittances and relatively quick returns on their investment (Massey et al. 1993; Stark and Bloom 1985; Todaro 1969). In contrast, parents of education migrants undertake a costly, multiyear investment period.

Report on Youth and Migration, FAO (2011) has provided arguments explaining the higher propensity of rural youth to resort to internal migration. The most important is undoubtedly the lack of decent employment opportunities for youth in rural areas, and the high incidence of vulnerable employment and poor working conditions among youth. In addition, work in the agricultural sector suffers from a negative perception for example, it is often associated with low returns, drudgery and demanding work but at the same time low social status (Leavy and Smith, 2010). Ultimately, it is important to note that migration among young adults may be also determined by decisions within the family level, as part of household livelihood strategies. This is particularly true in contexts of lack of social safety nets and weak capital markets, migration is often a strategy to escape situation of distress due to severe livelihood constraints.

Considering the above, there are challenges facing the youth in migration youth constitute the main share of population in many developing countries, accounting for almost half of the rural population. Almost 72% of households living in extreme poverty, on less than US\$ 1.25/day, live in rural areas, where the majority of the working poor and food insecure households are also found in .Sub-Saharan Africa are among the regions with highest shares of rural population, incidence of extreme poverty in rural areas, working poverty, and employment in agriculture.

Young people leave mostly because of lack of opportunities at home. Unemployment and Under-employment are major issues youth face, along with high economic insecurity, poverty and pronounced decent work deficits. Agriculture is the main sector of employment of rural people. However, rural youth generally are under-represented in development policies and they lack access to adequate education opportunities and productive assets. All this impedes them accessing decent employment in rural areas and represents a push factor of migration.

Unemployment rates for youth are almost three times higher than adults ones in all regions of the world, ranging from nearly two times in Sub-Saharan Africa (ILO 2010).

In 2008, people aged between 15-24 made up nearly 25% of the working age. Population, but accounted for 40% of total unemployment (ILO 2010).

Young workers represent about 24% of the world's working poor and are often employed in Agriculture (ILO 2010). It has been estimated that 152 million young workers were living below the US\$ 1.25 day poverty line in 2008, accounting for about 28% of all young workers (ILO 2010). While unemployment is a major problem for urban youth, rural young people are particularly vulnerable to working under poor conditions. Rural youth are often found in unpaid family work, especially in agriculture, or employed as own - account, wage casual and seasonal workers in the informal economy, where they earn low wages, have limited job security and insufficient access to social protection.

Migration is seen by youth as a strategy to cope with limited employment opportunities, particularly in rural areas. Rural out-migration, particularly migration out of agriculture, is also associated with rural youth aspirations and perceptions. Most youth seems to have a negative perception of farm life, linked to the type of work performed, and to the limited profits, lack of mobility and low status associated to working in agriculture (Leavy And Smith 2010).

In a globalised world, the ability to absorb the growing youth workforce is a crucial challenge, which will affect migration patterns. The failure to address youth employment and entrepreneurship development, particularly in rural areas, may have negative effects on the stability and sustainability of economic development, and the efforts made in reducing Poverty and food insecurity.

According to the World Bank (2006), a third of total migrants from developing countries are aged 12 to 24. The overwhelming majority of international migrants move within the same region or to neighboring countries. This is particularly true for most youth moving out of rural areas, which tend to engage more frequently in temporary forms of migration. Economic change, labor demands, and migration Opportunities available to youth migrants depend on the social and economic characteristics of the origin and potential destinations. Intra-Caribbean migration patterns follow wage labor opportunities, and Haiti is the region's largest producer of migrant laborers due to its relatively large population, political instability, and poverty (Ferguson 2003). The 2010 Human Development Index, which used indicators observed when the study data were collected, prior to the 2010 earthquake, ranked Haiti 145th of 169 countries—the only country in the Americas to fall into the lowest quartile; this rank has remained similarly low (168th of 187) in more recent years (United Nations Development Programme 2010, 2014). In contrast, nearby countries either rank in the upper range of medium development countries or are territories and overseas departments of wealthy countries. Moreover, an extremely high level of income inequality in Haiti (Gini coefficient = .60) suggests that unequal access to labor and education opportunities also underlies domestic migration (United Nations Development Programme, 2010). In recent decades, as sugar prices dropped and Caribbean countries lost their position as Europe's preferred choice as a source for warm-climate agricultural products, the Caribbean economy was transformed from an agricultural production based economy with reliance on sugar, bananas, and coffee, into a service-based.

Youth migration, general trends Opportunities are often tied to current location and many young Haitians migrate to work or attend school, leaving their parents and natal homes behind (Global Migration Group 2014; Smith and Gergan 2015). Evidence from census data in Argentina, Chile, and South Africa, some of the few countries where nationally representative youth migration data are available, concludes that approximately one-fourth of all migrants are less than 18 years old, and that after age 12, the likelihood of migrating separately from parents begins to increase, with steepest increases between ages 15 and 17 (Yaqub 2009a). In countries where opportunities for youth are few, highly centralized, and costly, migration may begin and escalate at younger ages. Moreover, the increasing demand for education is likely to have increased the number of young people who migrate to attend school, particularly among the poor (Boyden 2013). Despite the prevalence of independent youth migration, representative data have not yet captured young peoples' migration motives or activities, nor has there been substantial research examining the extent to which young migrants receive support or send remittances. On the whole, these data shortcomings limit the development of youth-specific migration theories (Global Migration Group 2014; Yaqub 2009).

2.5.1. Determinants of Rural Youth Migration:

The decision of whether to migrate or not is one of many important decisions that young men and women make throughout the developing world. In this webinar, we will discuss determinants of internal migration by youth within five different countries (Bangladesh, Indonesia, Nigeria, Pakistan, and Tanzania) using recently collected data, investigating both broad and specific hypotheses related to migration (such as whether and how migrants are positively selected on specific human capital characteristics). A key finding is that individual characteristics, like schooling, are more important determinants of migration than household characteristics. We also find little evidence that credit constraints or relative deprivation are correlated with migration at a nationally

representative level, holding other things constant. This is important because previous studies, which were carried out in smaller sub-regions of countries, had found those credit constraints to be important. The webinar concludes with implications for policy in relation to migration, youth and employment, and rural development.

2.7. Migration and growth of informal sectors:

It is now an established fact that there is an intense linkage between migration and informal sector, especially that in the urban sector. Number of literature suggests that there exist a two-way causation between these two factors. While migration helps in booming of urban informal sector, similarly this development of informal sector attracts further migration. Number of studies has been made in this regard. There are various issues through which one can interlink rural-urban migration and informal sector. Regarding the interlink age between rural-urban migration and urban informal sector Banerjee (1983) came up with some interesting findings. The starting point of the study was the applicability of the probabilistic model of Harris-Todaro. In the Harris-Todaro model it was assumed that employment in the urban informal sector is a temporary resting point of the migrated labor force. Harris-Todaro model assumed that the migrating people actually target the formal job prevailing in the urban labor market. This point has been criticized by the author. Providing evidences the author has claimed that the migrating people of Delhi Review of Literature 17 actually target the informal job markets. In support of his view he has shown that almost 59 % of the people who have entered into the urban informal sector didn't even search for any other formal job. One of the major reasons of this immobility from the formal sector to the informal sector, as the author has argued, is that the wage differential in the two sectors is not so very high enough. So, the laborers of the informal sector didn't bother to look for any other formal job. The study also suggested that the movement from informal to formal job market is too low. Once an individual enter into the informal job, he

is trapped into this. The main cause of this, as the author has pointed out, is not that the migrants lack proper skill and technical education required for this move rather it is because of some “institutional barriers on the demand side”. In his article Mukherjee, (2001) has pointed towards the quality of migrating people who are coming into the urban society and their participation in urban sector. The study suggests that majority of the people who are migrating into the urban sector are illiterate and of unskilled type. As a result they become unable to get a formal job in the urban formal job market. A major portion of this unskilled migrated labour force joins to the urban informal job market. Finally this low quality of migration has resulted into low quality urbanization in urban India which ultimately led to an urban decay. Studying the interrelationship between rural-urban migration and urban informal sector Meng (2001) find that “the issue is controversial”. According to some of the studies the informal sector is a temporary employment opportunity for migrants (Todaro, 1969; Fields, 1975), whereas for some other studies found that the informal sector acts as a vital factor in economic development (ILO, 1972; Banerjee, 1983; Bhattacharya, 1993). The study by Meng (2001) found that two groups, namely wage-earner and self-employed, have different role to play for attracting in-migrants. While the wage-earner group provides temporary employment opportunities to migrants, “the self-employed group appears to be a desirable employment choice for the in-migrants”. One of the interesting finding of the study is that migrants having higher human capital choose to be self-employed rather than be wage earner. So there exists a differential among the informal sector as well as regarding wages. Teilhet-Waldorf and Waldrof (1983) put lights on the wages earned by the informal sector labors (vendors, brick people and shop keepers) in the Bangkok city (depending on a longitudinal survey). The study found a number of striking facts. The earnings of the unskilled labor in the urban informal sector were found to be higher than that of the urban unskilled labor in the formal sector.

On-job-experience was found to be helpful for shopkeepers as their profit margin increased with increasing experience in the job. Some persons who started as vendors ended up with opening small restaurants of their own. This nullifies the fact that the informal sector jobs are “dead-end jobs” as has been shown in other studies (Skeldon, 2002; Marlow, 2006) and the concept that enlargement of informal sector adds to the urban poverty (Grant, 2006). On the question of education the study didn’t find any strong association between informal sector jobs and school education. The study didn’t find any differential between male and female earnings, and thus challenges the argument that informal sector jobs neutralize gender discrimination (Sethuraman, 1998). The case that urban informal sector jobs are not dead-end, gets its support from the study made by Tianhong et.al (2000). The study hints that there was scope for those migrants to shift their jobs from informal to formal sector through acquiring skill. It was also found that most of the rural-urban migrants deliberately find jobs in the urban informal sector. The reason is, as the study has stated, the informal labour market in urban was characterized by no or less entry barriers. So the rural-urban migrants could easily enter into those informal labour markets. Review of Literature 19 Similar findings can be seen in a study on Denmark and Sweden (Andersson and Wadensjo, 2004) where it has been found that there has been a tradition among migrants to opt for selfemployment jobs though they have lower income levels than other types of employment. The reason may be that finding jobs in other sector becoming difficult for the migrants. Sometimes migrants themselves prefer informal employment. This is because the option of quitting a job immediately is often migrants’ only and last resort when the situation in urban becomes unbearable. Alternatively speaking, joining in the urban informal sector opens up a chance of return migration. A formal bond would deprive them from this opportunity (Xiang, 1995; Tan, 2002). On the question of role of female population in rural-urban migration in Monterrey Acharya and Cervantes (2009) commented that the cities have

experienced “a constant high flow of female migration to informal sector” and this has an increasing trend after 2001. The study also found that most of the migrants who are engaged in informal sector have little education and are married as well. The result indicates that women in informal sector basically worked as sellers, street vendors, crafts women, working in manufacturing sector and domestic servants which are they vulnerable. For those females who work in the urban informal sector after migration, the study predicts, migration has improved to the living standard for them. The study found that availability of jobs in informal sectors has attracted the middle aged female migrants more compare to younger section. Much contrary to this Marcouiller et al. (1997) show that it is the young and the aged persons who enter into the informal labour market than the middle aged persons. Among the all types of informal sector jobs, as the study found, retail trade is by far the largest single activity in the informal sector workers and both younger section and aged section enters into retail trade. Using a Review of Literature 20 reduced form probit selection model they found that for men the probability of formal sector employment increases with heading a household, with marriage and with number of inactive adults in the family. For female migrants the probability of formal sector employment increases with number of inactive adults in the family and decreases with marriage and children. With the help of different wage regressions it was shown that there exists wage differentiation significantly in formal and informal sectors. In fact this has been one of the primal driving forces of rural-urban migration. A study on the Chinese labour market (Zhao, 1999) has shown the impact of wage differences in rural non farm and farm sector and urban sector. Using a multinomial logit model the study states that if the rural people have access of rural non farm sector employment opportunities, even at lower wages, then they will not think for migration. The major migration deterrent variables as the study identifies are the lack of safety during transportation and in the urban cities along with factors like forced separation

from family. But this finding is mainly restricted to Chinese society where the government discourages the rural-urban migration.

Migration comprises a multitude of physical movements in space and time. It is a process which is spatially subdivided in to sending areas, routes of migration and receiving areas with regard to the motivations of migrants, three types of migration can be distinguished enforced migration, voluntary migration and distress migration. The first is decided upon by external powers. Resettlement programmes of governments for instance fall into this category. The second type of migrants is the outcome of a decision –making process of migrants and their families. It refers to labour migration and to migration for the purposes of education or marriage. The third type of migration is caused by deprivation. In this case the decision to migrate is made in order to escape from environment which is no longer to be felt and grantee survival. Migration due to drought, crop failure and famine is among other causes, covered by this category.

If we take labour migration, which is defined here as a movement of human beings away from home, undertaken with the intention of finding employment. The other fields of voluntary migration (education & marriage). As well as distress migration are considered only in those cases where they are not clearly separated from labour migration.

The definition of labour migration allows a breakdown into distinct components; labour migration includes temporal aspects of movement, which makes it possible to discern seasonal called circulatory, temporary and permanent migration. Seasonal migration comprises a period of a few weeks, or months and implies regular return of the migrants. Temporary migration may last for one or more years. The migrants might come back for holidays from time to time and return to their places of work, but they intend finally to settle at home again. Permanent migration refers to people who leave their homes in search of work and never come back, either because they settle down near their

places of work or because they fail to find regular employment and struggle along among the poorest of the society in the receiving area.

Labour migrants are also characterized by the component away from home; this could refer to the distance or direction of movement. The former differentiates between migrants who move to a neighboring region or town, those who leave for a region which is located in a remote part of the country and those who go abroad. The latter is labeled (international migration). The direction of migration classifies migrants according to the origin and destination that is rural – rural, rural – urban, urban – urban or urban – rural migration.

Therefore, rather than targeting the migration itself, it is preferable to focus on the causative factors. What are the causes of migration, rural inhabitants, when presented with options of earning a living other than from farming, and which may not be as demanding or are financially more rewarding than farming, are very likely to accept the change. Farming offers only seasonal employment, not providing sufficient income to sustain the family households for an entire year. Farming is not looked upon with as much respect as, for example, a low level white collar job in the city. Consequently, policies that do not provide rural inhabitants with viable economic alternatives will likely lead to migration, creating problems of over urbanization in the cities. As long as there is an income differential, people will always move to where there is a greater income.

2.7.1. Poverty and Lack of Opportunities in Rural Areas:

Poverty is still one of the most serious problems in the world. Many existing development policies take poverty alleviation into consideration, which has led to much economic advancement. It is estimated that over 1 billion people in the world still live in poverty. In the developing world, urban poverty is persistent, with the majority of the poor living in rural areas; hence it is in these areas that poverty alleviation policies should be concentrated. So what are the job opportunities for the migrants to engage on immediately upon arrival in the city, and when they do, there is a high likelihood that their wages will be lower than

they expected, resulting in lower than expected income. Educated and skilled migrants may not have to wait as long as unskilled migrants to Find jobs, since often their skills are in demand in the urban sector. However, migration of skilled personnel is a further reflection of inadequate policies as this further weakens the potential of rural areas to develop.

Employment in urban areas can fall under two broad categories, firstly the formal Sector and secondly the informal sector. The formal sector characterizes all activities that are recognized by the government as being legal in nature. Traditional occupations would fall under this category. These jobs tend to pay more than jobs in the informal sector, and they garner a greater deal of respect. Many migrants who move to cities would like to obtain a job in the formal sector, but find it difficult to do so. They need to have a certain level of education to be able to compete with the urban residents for these jobs. Worker productivity and income tend to be higher in the formal sector than the informal sector.

Workers in the formal sector enjoy job security, proper working conditions and retirement pensions. The second category, the urban informal sector. The urban informal sector, unlike its formal counterpart, includes all activities that are unregulated and small scale in nature. Not much attention was given to this unregulated. The majority of the new workers in the urban labor force seemed to create their own employment and start their own businesses, or work for small-scale family run enterprises. The self-employed were engaged in a variety of activities such as hustling, street vending, and knife sharpening, selling fireworks.

Labor migrant expect benefits from the migration in way of, economies of scale arise as a result of economic growth. When suppliers and consumers are in closer proximity to each other, this allows for savings in communications and transportation costs. Large cities also offer a variety of employment opportunities with higher wages, all of which may help accelerate the pace of

technological innovation. But on the other hand, there is a cost of urbanization such as, against these benefits, a major consequence of rural-urban migration is excessive urbanization. There is a very strong link between excessive urbanization and rural-urban migration. Migration has increased urban populations significantly over the years. This view is brought about by the large numbers of unemployed or underemployed young people in many cities.

Most economists however, believe that urbanization is an inevitable consequence of rural stagnation and successful economic development, not an undesirable force that must be suppressed. Migration instead should be recognized as an equilibrating response to disequilibrium elsewhere in the economy. Excessive urbanization leads to high rates of city congestion, crime and poor infrastructure such as proper sewage systems, clean drinking water and other amenities.

There is also the problem of chronic unemployment which is also a key cause of crime, as people need to find ways of putting food on their tables. Excessive urbanization has brought with it the creation of large slums and shanty towns, as new migrants find it difficult to get proper housing. Slum settlements represent over one-third of the urban population; in many cases they account for more than 60% of the urban total. (Ottawa, Ontario, May, 2004).

2.6. Youth rural urban migration in Sudan:

2.6.1. Youth migration:

General trends Opportunities are often tied to current location, and many young Haitians migrate to work or attend school, leaving their parents and natal homes behind (Global Migration Group 2014; Smith and Gergan 2015). Evidence from census data in Argentina, Chile, and South Africa, some of the few countries where nationally representative youth migration data are available, concludes that approximately one-fourth of all migrants are less than 18 years old, and that after age 12, the likelihood of migrating separately from parents begins to

increase, with steepest increases between ages 15 and 17 (Yaqub 2009a). In countries where opportunities for youth are few, highly centralized, and costly, migration may begin and escalate at younger ages. Moreover, the increasing Sudan has a very young population – two thirds of Sudanese are under the age of 34. Over 20 % of young people are unemployed. A quarter of youth living in urban areas and half of those living in rural areas are poor. The roles of young people in social and political life are limited. Although the government has recognized the needs and rights of young people, youth education, training and employment have suffered from very low investment.

The population of Sudan, Sudan has a highly mobile population. Up to 10% of the population is nomadic and there is a long history of major seasonal labor migration. In recent years, major population migrations have also taken place as a result of conflict, and climate change and desertification. Sudan now has over 4 million Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs). Many of those reside in large camps in Darfur or have settled in the margins of urban areas; more recently, there have also been displacements in and out of South Kordofan and Blue Nile states. Sudanese also migrate abroad in large numbers; a significant proportion of skilled workers in the Arab region reflect a serious “brain drain” from the country.

Life expectancy at birth is about 60 years but rural-urban variation is large. Both overall and infant mortality rates remain high in Sudan (17.2 and 118 deaths per 1,000 live births, respectively). Maternal mortality varies widely across regions, typically highest among poor, rural and nomadic populations; the highest MMRatio is 334.9 in South Darfur state and the lowest is 105 in Sinnar state.

In 2010, half of deliveries in the country were assisted only by village midwives; only one fifth of deliveries were attended by skilled health personnel.

2.8. Informal sector in Sudan:

The informal sector and its effects on Sudanese economy and examines its contribution in the gross domestic product and employment, the problem being

discussed is that although the contribution of the informal sector in the Sudan economy by contributing in output and employment, but there was no data and statistics of the informal sector in Sudan and is not included in the GDP account as a separate sector, (HagirElzubeirAbdelmageed, 2009).

The informal sector, informal economy, or grey economy is the part of an economy that is neither taxed, nor monitored by any form of government. Unlike the formal economy, activities of the informal economy are not included in the gross national product (GNP) and gross domestic product (GDP) of a country. The informal sector can be described as a grey market in labor. Other concepts which can be characterized as informal sector can include the black market (shadow economy, underground economy), agorism, and System. Although the informal sector makes up a significant portion of the economies in developing countries it is often stigmatized as troublesome and unmanageable. However the informal sector provides critical economic opportunities for the poor and has been expanding rapidly since the 1960s. As such, integrating the informal economy into the formal sector is an important policy challenge.

2.8.1. Labor Markets:

Labor economics seeks to understand the functioning and dynamics of the markets for wage labor. Labor markets or job markets function through the interaction of workers and employers. Labour economics looks at the suppliers of labour services (workers), the demands of labour services (employers), and attempts to understand the resulting pattern of wages, employment, and income. In economics, labour is a measure of the work done by human beings. It is conventionally contrasted with such other factors of production as land and capital. There are theories which have developed a concept called human capital referring to the skills that workers possess, not necessarily their actual work).

2.8.2. Self Employment:

Self-employment" is earning a persons living through doing something by oneself. In case of business, self employment is the processes of earning living through using own capital or borrowed fund and also using one's own knowledge, intelligence, efficiency and taking minimum risk. Generally, tax authorities will view a person as self-employed if the person chooses to be recognized as such, or is generating income such that the person is required to file a tax return under legislation in the relevant jurisdiction. In the real world the critical issue for the taxing authorities is not that the person is trading but is whether the person is profitable and hence potentially taxable. In other words, the activity of trading is likely to be ignored if no profit is present, so occasional and hobby- or enthusiast-based economic activity is generally ignored by authorities. Self-employed people generally find their own work rather than being provided with work by an employer.

2.9. Review of previous related research:

2.9.1. Rural - urban migrants and urban employment inGhana:

A case study of rural migrants from Northern Region to Kumasi.

By: AlhassanYakubuAlhassan

Supervisor: Hans KjetilLysgård

This master's thesis is carried out as a part of the education atThe University of Agder and is therefore approved as a part of this education. However, this does not imply that the University answers for the methods that are used or the conclusions that are drawn.

Faculty of Social Science, Department of Global Development and Planning, University of Agder, 2017.

ABSTRACT:

Studies have shown that rural - urban migrants migrate to search for employment opportunities in urban areas. Despite the prominence of this factor, little is known of how rural - urban migrants jostle for employment in the cities.

Using a case study research design and a qualitative research strategy, this study investigates how rural migrants in Ghana jostle for employment in the urban areas. Specifically, the study investigates the factors that influence migrants' decision to migrate to urban areas, their job search strategies, the challenges they face and their coping strategies. Also, the uses of the outcomes of their employment activities on their livelihoods are examined. Data were collected from 89 migrants and 16 opinion leaders in Aboabo, a suburb in Kumasi, Ghana, using interviews, focus group discussions and observations. The study draws from the Social Networks Theory and The Sustainable Livelihood Approach to conduct the study. The results show that the reasons for migration are mostly economic and are linked to unemployment, low incomes, and lack of rural job opportunities, climate change and worsening living conditions in the rural areas. Migrants mostly engage in informal activities in the city because of their low levels of formal education.

The findings reveal that despite being accused as the cause of increasing unemployment in urban Ghana, migrants jostle for employment by engaging in multiple income generating activities, creating their own jobs in the informal sector, employing each other and depending on friends and relatives and using their mobile phones for job - related information. In the process of engaging in their employment activities, they are vulnerable of being victimized , stigmatized, and criminalized and are challenged with physical injuries, indebtedness, and cheating from their customers.

These challenges emanate from their relationship with the native residents, city authorities and law enforcement agencies and the migrant's low level of educational attainment, youthful age structure and the nature of their jobs. The migrants cope with these challenges by seeking the help of friends and relatives and ethnic associations in addition to depending on their spiritual and religious belief systems.

The migrants use the outcomes of their employment activities to improve their livelihoods through investing in agriculture, building houses, establishing businesses and educating their children.

2.9.2. Institutional and Social Factors Influencing Informal Sector Activity in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Nigerian Case Study

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the University of Wolverhampton for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
January 2018**

By: Abinotam Joshua Adike

Supervisor by:

Dr. Paschal U. Anosike

Dr Yong Wang

Abstract:

The extant entrepreneurship literature is replete with competing narratives about the concept of informal sector (IS). Also, IS' potential as a source of income and the behavioral tendencies of operators in the sector remain highly contested but under researched. In particular, not much is known about the incentives and the motivations for engaging in informal economic activity from the perspective of Sub-Saharan African (SSA) context where a significant proportion of all economic activities are informal. Thus, the lack of conceptual clarity and consensus about the underlying factors driving individuals into informal economic activity constitutes a major knowledge gap. To fill this gap, this study seeks to clarify the domain of IS from a SSA viewpoint, and through this paves the way for a more holistic understanding of the behavioral tendencies and motivations of IS operators in SSA. Specifically relying on the institutional, social exclusion, and personality trait theoretical frameworks, the study demonstrates how a combination of separate yet related phenomena of

personality traits, institutional factors, and more importantly, situational factors that manifest as perceptions of social exclusion serve as the incentives and the motivations to engage in informal economic activity in SSA. To achieve its goal, qualitative primary data obtained through thirty-eight semistructured interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed using Nvivo. Firstly, the study found that institutional ambiguity, institutional delinquency, institutional passivity, and institutional incongruence are sources of voids in Nigeria's institutional framework that influence an individual to enter the IS. Secondly, social exclusion regarding lack of access to requirements such as finance and formal education to start and sustainably operate a business influences people to enter into the IS. Lastly, the findings indicate that personality traits' influence regarding the decision to engage in informal economic activities is dependent on individual circumstances. These are valuable contributions to the stock of knowledge about the IS. Particularly, the identification and categorisation of four specific institutional voids and partitioning of the sources of exclusion; the finding that in adverse economic circumstances personality traits could influence potential opportunity entrepreneurs to start-up in the IS; the finding about the role of trade associations; and the new understanding about the collaborative dimension of corruption in the context of IS practice, represent a significant contribution of this study. These contributions are valuable not just in terms of creating new windows of research opportunities, but also for evidence-based policy relating to the IS that is appropriately targeted at relevant groups. This is in addition to facilitating collaborations for business support, enlightenment, improved business practice, and inclusive growth.

2.9.3. YOUNG PEOPLE AND THE INFORMAL ECONOMY UNDERSTANDING THEIR PATHWAYS AND DECISION-MAKING WITHIN THE ECONOMY.

By: NENADI ADAMU, Ph.D2016 .

ABSTRACT

This is a study of a group of young people that explores their journeys into, and experiences within, the informal economy. Evidence has shown that young people have always been more disadvantaged in a context of high levels of unemployment, limited job opportunities and entitlement to welfare benefits. As an alternative to low paying jobs with poor working conditions, and in addition to strict conditions for claiming benefits, some young people are making the decision to engage in criminal ways of generating income. This study examines the experiences of twenty-six young people from Luton and Cambridge who had engaged in begging, drug dealing and sex work as alternative forms of ‘work’ in their transitions to adulthood. It explores the structural, cultural and biographical factors that influence their informal career decision-making processes, by drawing on Bourdieu’s social field theory. By examining the lived experiences of these young people, the study throws more light on the role of structure and personal agency in the decisions the young people made in engaging in the informal economy. These young people wanted to be seen as ‘normal’ young people. Most were hardworking, and ambitious, and their engagement in informal economic activities was often a ‘means to an end’. This study also identifies strategies that were employed by the young people for their successful navigating of the economy, and highlights the importance of elements like trust, respect and knowledge in their negotiations. It assesses how the issue of risk was managed with the help of what was seen to be an unwritten code of conduct in the field. The study also identified a hierarchy within the field, which was determined by the individual participants, depending on their personal perceptions and perspectives.

The data was collected using semi-structured interviews, over a period of a year. The process of collecting data was long and difficult, highlighting the ethical and methodological challenges of conducting research with a 'hidden' population. The findings throw new light on the unique challenges young people face both in the formal job market, and in accessing welfare support, in light of the significant changes to social policy in the UK.

2.9.4. Gendered Strategies Among Migrants From Northern Ghana In Accra: A Case Study Of Madina

Thesis Submitted In Partial Fulfilment For The Award Of Masters Of Philosophy In Resources And Human Adaptations, 2010, By MARIAMA ZAAMI

Abstract:

The high level of migration of people from Northern to Southern Ghana is rooted in historical antecedents. The general objective of this study is to explore the gendered strategies of migrants from Northern to Southern Ghana through social networks for the purpose of gaining access to the informal economy. The specific objectives are to examine (a) gender differences in the reasons for migration from Northern Ghana to the study area in Madina (a suburb of Accra); (b) gender differences in types of, and support from, social networks; and, (c) examine the differences in the economic opportunities and constraints that migrants encounter in the study area of Madina. The conceptual framework I used in this thesis have been derived from theories of gender (Cope 2002; Moore 1988), ethnicity (Barth 1969; Cohen 1969, 2004), and social networks (Granovetter 1983, 1995). From a gender theoretical view, women and men are affected by migration differently. So, with the feminist epistemology the reasons of migration and social network used are looked at. The concept of ethnicity was used to analyze how diverse ethnic groups from the Northern Region support migration process and also help migrant's adapt to their new environment. The concepts of 'strong ties' and 'weak ties' within the social

networks theory is used to identify and analyse the extent to which migrants made use of the strong ties (kinship relations) or weak ties (which includes friendship and ethnic groups). A sample size of 58 migrants, comprising 37 females and 21 males, were interviewed. The emerging findings from the study include the following. There are gender differences in (i) access to social networks; (ii) occupations available to migrants and, (iii) opportunities and constraints opened to women and men. With regards to social networks, the social ties women used were kinship relations (such as parents, cousins, siblings) in migrating.

However, when they arrived in the study area, many of them moved out from these kinship ties to join friendship ties and ethnic group membership. In contrast, the men migrate normally with friends and seek the help of their ethnic groups in Madina to have access to economic opportunities. When it comes to the role of ethnicity in migration, both women and men relied on ethnic ties in getting access to accommodation and jobs in the study area. These and other empirical findings are discussed in the thesis.

2.10. Concluding remarks:

The study gives clear picture on informal sectors in SSA Africa the study demonstrates how a combination of separate yet related phenomena of personality traits, institutional factors, and more importantly, situational factors that manifest as perceptions of social exclusion serve as the incentives and the motivations to engage in informal economic activity in SSA.

The findings indicate that personality traits' influence regarding the decision to engage in informal economic activities is dependent on individual circumstance Explores youth experiences within, the informal economy

The study shades light on the role of structure and personal agency in the decisions the young people made in engaging in the informal economy

Chapter three

Methodology

3.1. Research Design:

The study is explanatory and descriptive in nature which provides numerical description of some part of the population and explains events using comprehensive questionnaire directed to migrant youth work in three local markets Khartoum States. The study utilized quantitative and qualitative approaches and followed cross section design. The choice of this design and approaches was due to the need of intensive investigations to analyze youth migrants' experience in the informal self-employment sector including the challenges they face in improving their occupation and livelihood situation.

3.2. Study area:

The study area comprises three local markets in Khartoum state, Omdurman market located in Omdurman, SaadGeshra market located in Khartoum north (Bahri) and SouqEL.shabiee Khartoum located in Khartoum.

Omdurman is regarded among the towns of distinct character in the country as it has remarkable cultural and historical heritages. *Souk Omdurman* is the oldest market place in Omdurman town since the nineteenth century. It is the beating heart of the town and is one of the dominant features of Omdurman. It acquired this reputation from its influence on the local economy of the National Capital Omdurman, and on the tourism sector as general. *Souk Omdurman* has its unique character and identity, which is honored by all Omdurman inhabitants and the Sudanese as a whole; it represents their cultural and social heritage. *Souk Omdurman* is famous for its traditional products, made by the hands of very skilled artisans, using ebony, ivory, silver, gold and leather to produce their handicraft art pieces. The unique character of these products attracts tourists to *Souk Omdurman*.

Omdurman market further divided and specialized into many sections. Modern shops exhibit, sophisticated goods and services, grocery shops, jewellery, cloth, footwear, handicraft and grain. The center occupied an area of 2.5 km². (Dalal Suliman Mohamed Hussein, 2009).

3.2.1. Historical background

After the defeat of El Khalifa, the British thought of shifting the capital from Omdurman to Khartoum as they thought its continuity in Omdurman was instability to the rule. By the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century, Omdurman market had developed in fast paces. It became the largest bond for the agricultural products markets and the wood trade became more active. Raw materials became more available in the market in which it was manufactured and redistributed all over the country. *Souk Omdurman* kept its traditional and national identity for a long time, the reason for that might be that sons inherited the skills of the fathers and grandfathers. The specialized traditional markets; the artisan and craftsmen sector, in the market remained keeping its mould unchanged for ages. Fear started to crawl to who remained of the ancestors which were keeping their inherited skills, as they were directed towards completing their education rather than keeping their old heritage. The society of the market was an amalgam of different origins and tribes, which had special skills. Here are some of those tribes and nationalities from outside the country; -Egyptians, Syrians, Greek, Ethiopians, Indians, Turkish.

From inside the country, Sudanese tribes: *Jaalyiah, Dinka, Nwair, Falatah, Danaglah, Byjah, Bagarah, Masalyt, Shaygiah*. Most of those who settled in Omdurman were traders in the Market. Only few of officials working in the governmental offices nearby the market place, and they used to visit the market almost daily. The neighborhood surrounding the market habited where and named after each tribe which lived in it; *Almasalmah*, which was inhabited by the Christians who lived in peace with Muslims, *AlKawartah, Hay Alarab, AlRobattah* etc. (Amer, 2004: pg. 25 (Amer, 2005: pg. 10-14).

SaadGeshra market

The second market was SaadGeshra market, which is located in **Khartoum North** or **Khartoum Bahri** is a city in Khartoum State, lying to the north of Khartoum city, the capital of Sudan. It is located on the north bank of the Blue Nile and the east bank of the River Nile, near the confluence of the Blue Nile with the White, and bridges connect it with both Khartoum to its south and Omdurman to its west.

It had a population of 1,012,211 at the last Sudanese census in 2008. It is part of a three-city (with Khartoum and Omdurman) with a combined population of 4,272,728 in 2008.

This market is famous on buying and selling clothes, shoes, women jewelers and accessories as well there is tailors and there is a big part on the market is especially for selling and buying gold shops, as well this market is buying Sudanese perfumes for wedding uses.

Al.shabee Khartoum market

The third market is al shabee Khartoum market, Located in the southern part of Khartoum city, and ground transportation centre, inside this market we found one of the most famous station equipped with all kinds of services from which include the big super jet buses for trips, which characterized by all comfortable means to travel to different states of Sudan.

The Al.shabee Khartoum market is specializing in the sale of various goods such as equipments, electrical, furniture, utensils, clothing and other household and family needs, it is the intent of the average family in Sudan.

3.3. Population of the Study:

The populations of the study were male youth migrants came from their different rural areas to Khartoum state and worked in the three different markets. They came from different culture and backgrounds and work together in one place but with different kinds of informal activities..

3.4. Sample Size:

300 male youth migrants were selected based on three informal activities as follows:

- mobilize workers
- Shops boys.
- business owner .

3.5. Sample Selection:

It was difficult to develop sample frame for this study. We used non random sampling;(Purposive and snow ball techniques) (see Table1)

Table (1) Sample of the study distributed according to types of activities practiced by youth in different three local markets

Three informal sector activities	Omdurman Market Sub samples	SaadGeshraa market Sub samples	SougShabeeKhartoum Sub samples	Total
mobilize workers	50	50	50	150
business owner	25	25	25	75
Shops boys.	25	25	25	75
Total	100	100	100	300

3.6. Method of data collection:

Face to face interview by the use of questionnaire was only the method of data collection.

Description of the instrument of data collection:

The questionnaire is contained of no....open –closed questions, the questionnaire addressed the following point:

- Socio - economic and demographic profile of the youth.
- The condition of youth in the informal sector (involvement in three activities).
- The new livelihood of migrant youth in urban setting.
- The future perspective of the youth.

3.7. Pretest of the questionnaire report:

The researchers framed a pre testquestionnaire and collects a random data from the study area the three markets taking a sample size and make with them a face to face interview, the selection was from the three types of samples mobilize worker, shop boys and business owners. The result was the target group came from different areas in the Sudan and stayed together in Khartoum and working different kind of jobs and selling and buying different goods, also the researcher find out that their needs are common the push factors for migration are the same although the pull factors in Khartoum let them to decide to migrate but they won't want to settle but to improve their economic status and go back to their home as they mentioned. The researcher find out that the age of the target is between 15 -25 or even less than the 15 years old especially who works as mobilize worker.

3.8. Validity and Reliability:

3.8.1. Reliability of research instruments:

Reliability of data is the consistency of measures in a study (Bryman and Bell, 2003). It is the to which research instruments yields consistent results of data after trials. In this study reliability of data was tested by using pilot test method on the questionnaire. A pilot study comprising of five youth that were not included in the initial sample, were selected randomly from the accessible

population and used to carry out the pilot study of the questionnaire before the questionnaire was administered.

3.8.2. Validity of Data:

Data validity refers to the degree to which results obtained from analysis of data actually represents phenomenon under study, Mugenda and Mugenda (1999).

Validity shows whether the research items measures what they are supposed to measure.

Instrument validity was ascertained through consultation with experts, supervisors and review of related literature. To augment face validity, the researcher critically ascertained whether the variables under study were reflected in the items that were in the instruments. The study also ascertained content validity by consulting with supervisors. The researcher took the feedback given by the two supervisors and incorporated them in the study.

3.9. Data Analysis:

The data obtained from this study was explored on the basis of questions and specific objectives by use of both quantitative and qualitative techniques. The data was structured to answer set objectives in the study. Data was then analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

For descriptive statistics, frequency distributions and percentages were used while for inferential statistics regression was used to analyze the quantitative data. The SPSS computer software (Version 21) aided the analysis. The results of the survey were presented using tables.

3.10. Research Ethics:

This study observed research ethics by keeping the information gathered from respondents for the intended academic purpose and informing them of the same. The researcher maintained vigilance in areas the respondent did not wish to be probed on and practiced honesty in the presentation of findings.

3.11. The field work:

The data collected by the researcher, for three months.

First the researcher explores the situation of the market in order to trace the youth according to their three informal activities work in.

The field conducted into three stages as follows:

First stage: Omdurman market.

Second stage: SaadGeshra market.

Third stage: AL.ShabeeKhartoum market.

3.11.1. Selection of the sample:

The data collection started by the mobilized workers, through the snow ball method facilitated to trace them.

The youth who practice small business were identified by the used of purposive and snowball sampling methods.

The third category (shop boys) took time to be identified, but the help of the youth small business owner who facilitated their identification.

3.12. Definition of the research concept:

3.12.1. YOUTH:

Is best understood as a period of transition from the dependence of childhood to adulthood's there is no universally accepted definition of youth. Youth have been described many different ways; sometimes as a particular age group, as a stage of life or as an attitude. For statistical purposes, the United Nations General Assembly in 1985 for the International Youth Year first defined youth as people between the ages of 15 and 24. In 1995, when the General Assembly adopted the World Programmed of Action for Youth to the Year 2000 and beyond, it again defined youth as 15 to 24, but acknowledged that the age range varies among different countries and societies.

There is different definition of youth this study adopted the African definition of the youth, The African Economic Outlook (2012) defines youth as between 15-24 years in its study on youth unemployment in Sudan. Youth remained an

important category among the Sudanese population and their role in social and political life have been well recognized as indicated by the recognition of student unions/associations, youth centers' and the presence of a Ministry of Youth for decades. However, despite the apparent recognition, their specific needs and rights are not yet considered a priority.

There is no consensus on age group representing youth. The Ministry of Youth, Culture and Sports identify youth as those between 15 and 35 years of age. Recently there has been concern to consider the adolescents age 10-19 as a group with different needs from children and other young people.(Dr. SamiaElnagar and etal ,2011).

Youth is a life stage, one that is not finite or linear. Key continuum, beginning with deliberate attention to the critical laterals defines youth as 15 -24 years for statistical purposes, cal years of children entering adolescence and into young yet for policy and programming many countries and organizations adulthood. USAID views early adolescence as the onset of organizations expand this range to reflect the broader range of youth transition with recognition that those under age 18 changes and developmental needs in the transition to adulthood universally considered children and subject of numerous hood, as well as the diversity among cultural and country national and international norms and legal protections this contexts. USAID usesthetermyouthandyoungpeople policy seekstoreinforce.Atthesometime,thispolicyis interchangeably and while youth development programs reflective of youth voices and perspectives.When consulted, often focus on youth in the 15 to 24 year age range, some younger youth have identified themselves as teens or USAID programs also are likely to engage individuals aged youth, rather than as children. Recent research provides 10 -29 as a broader youth cohort.

The transitiontoadultnewunderstandingaboutbraindevelopment,physical hood involves multiple and overlapping physical, cognitive, changes, and social and emotional development that can be emotional, political, social and cultural

changes. Successful used to inform and target programming along the youth life youth engagement and programming is based on a lifecycle span from adolescence through early adulthood.

3.12.2. Rural youth:

Are youth who born and grow up in rural areas, and they have different livelihoods from urban youth, they also faced by problems related to the rural areas.

Youth are an integral component of the migrant population, both in terms of volume, and the effects they have on both their points of origin and destination. Estimates are that 15 percent (approximately 26 million) of the migrant population are youth (Touray, 2006). Rural youth are particularly disadvantaged; with inadequately developed education and skills, many find limited employment opportunities in the cities. Most face a future of low-wage employment, unemployment, underemployment, poverty, drugs, and crime. (Touray, 2006)

Rural youth are the most disadvantaged of groups. Often they have limited access to educational programmers that are geared to their situation and needs - not surprisingly, many rural people drop out of school at an early age. Class-work is often geared more toward academic accomplishments and to the urban areas than to learning skills useful to rural life, and preparing for adulthood. In many cases too, there is a genuine need for the young person's labor on the farm or in the home adding yet another reason why parents see little reason to keep their children in school. Young people are critical issues in international development today, and will remain so in years to come. This is particularly the case in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), where the population of young people is increasingly growing. One major problem is that the rate of creation of decent employment opportunities lags far behind the number of young people who are becoming economically active. In recent years the youth employment challenge in Africa has moved up the development agenda, spurred by events and

phenomena such as the Arab Spring and migration from Africa, and by the perceived security challenge posed by 'idle' youth, (FAO,2011).

3.12.3. Migrant Youth:

Who are the youth migrated from the rural area for different reasons; they migrated alone or in accompany with their family.

Internal migration appears as a massive phenomenon, exceeding international migration as there are around the world 740 million internal migrants compared to 214 million international migrants (UNDP 2009). Many internal migrants originate from rural areas, and one could assume many of them are youth, given their higher propensity to migrate. In fact, the World Bank (2007) notably argues that young people are 40 percent more likely to move from rural to urban areas or across urban areas than older individuals, the World Bank (2007).

Overall, internal migrants moving across were young people (aged under 25 years),with a highest migration rate within the 20-24 years old category According to the World Bank (2011). Most internal migrants were farmers in their original place of residence.

Through earlier contributions to the preparation of the GMG Joint Thematic Report on Youth and Migration, FAO (2011) has provided arguments explaining the higher propensity of rural youth to resort to internal migration. The most important is undoubtedly the lack of decent employment opportunities for youth in rural areas, and the high incidence of vulnerable employment and poor working conditions among youth. In addition, work in the agricultural sector suffers from a negative perception i.e. it is often associated with low returns, drudgery and demanding work but at the same time low social status (Leavy and Smith, 2010).

Ultimately, it is important to note that migration among young adults may be also determined by decisions within the family level, as part of household livelihood strategies. This is particularly true in contexts of lack of social safety nets and weak capital markets, such as rural areas (NELM, Hoddinott, 1994). In

such contexts, migration is often a strategy to escape situation of distress due to severe livelihood constraints (Waddington and Sabates-Wheeler, 2003). Those who engage in ‘distress migration’ may lack important resources that migration might necessitate, such as economic assets like savings and also various forms of capital such as human capital, social capital i.e. the ability to make use of networks, or cultural capital i.e. language (World Bank, 2011). The poorest are less likely to migrate than individuals from the middle and upper end of the income distribution or might migrate but only to access to activities with lower returns and more risks. For instance, poor and rural migrants may be more likely to migrate to urban areas, (WorldBank, 2011).

3.12.4. The work of rural youth in Informal sector:

Globally, the nexus between migration and development has remained an issue under vigorous academic debate. Therefore, the process of people migrating to other areas in search of a better life is not a novel one. What has however gained currency is the increasing voluntary movement in quest of better quality of life by low-skill and low-wage workers as well as high-skill and high-wage workers from less developed rural areas to more developed urban areas, especially among the poor. (R. H. Adams, 2006).

At the international level, youth unemployment is recognized as an urgent issue. This urgency is evidenced by the United Nations Millennium Development Goal, “develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth” (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa 2005). National governments need to accord a change by incorporating youth within their domestic strategies.

The national governments in Africa, need to provide rural youth with a means to stay in their communities. This can be accomplished by incorporating the youth into national development strategies that promote improved rural living standards in conjunction with national strategies that diminish the current rate of rural-urban migration. The integration of rural youth into agriculture and other

rural-based economic activities will increase the level of labor productivity and deter an exodus from their communities. For example, rural youth can generate increased agricultural production through an investment in innovative, eco-friendly planting practices, and post-harvest methods, a technology that is widely unrecognized. This type of infrastructure support, incentive, and land reform will help young people in rural areas fuel economic growth.

Youth Involvement and Rural Development As customary rules of land use limit access to land for the rural youth, to empower rural young people through improved labor productivity. Mission is to fight food insecurity, reverse environmental degradation, and reduces youth unemployment. Developed a program that established soil and water conservation structures on land and then distributed the land to landless youth, which comprised about 25 percent of the population, to support landless youths in income generating activities through seedling plantation and beekeeping; to contribute to ending soil and land degradation through environmental conservation and natural resource management; and to decrease migration to urban areas. The youth were able to support their families while remaining in their communities, thus, providing them with a sense of dignity and self-respect. Most importantly, the young people did not resort to urban migration as a survival strategy. Despite these encouraging benefits, such as an increasing demand for limited amounts of land, a growing number of landless youths, and severe droughts, the need to build capacity of youth groups, the importance to decrease rural-urban migration. (Catherine et al, 2006).

This supports the argument that agricultural development is one of the most promising sectors for rural youth employment and the optimal means to keep them in their communities. At the local level, governments, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), and the private sector can follow by engaging young people in building rural infrastructure, which provides unemployed youth with valuable, practical skills that could be transferred to other employment

situations. At the same time, the general community could benefit through improved access to food production, water, and markets to sell their goods all of which would combat the shackles of poverty, (Ansell, Nicola and Lorraine Young, 2004).

Engaging youth in poverty reduction policies should embrace a holistic approach to directly tackle the causes and consequences of poverty, including the sectors of demography, economy, education, and health care. A sustainable solution aimed at improving rural youth unemployment and underemployment, especially in the context booming population growth, is imperative to reduce urban migration and its consequential marginalization, (Annabel Bradbury and Trevor Bradbury, 2008). The rural urban migration of youth creates new types of urban informal sector in which rural youth self employed.

Youth employment outcomes are shaped by the institutions governing the matching of job seekers to vacancies, notably information, intermediation, and labor market regulation. Availability and quality of information play a key role in the labor market, for job seekers to identify relevant opportunities and for employers to find adequate workers.

In employment in Sudan, Economically active population is the fraction of population that is either employed or actively seeking employment. Economic activity participation rate (calculated as the percentage of economically active population of the total population) was 26 percent in 2008 census compared to 30 percent in 1993. This drop may be due to the difference in identification of economically active population between the two censuses. The refined economic activity participation rate (excluding children from the total population) was 37% in 2008. Labor force had increased from 4.5 million in 1983 to 6.5 million in 1993 and to 8 million in 2008. Nevertheless the labor force growth rate decreased from 3.9 percent between 1983 and 1993 to 1.3 percent between 1993 and 2008. The growth in employment rate also decreased from 3 percent to 0.9 percent during same period.

The percent of population employed was 21.6 percent in 2008 and thereby the economic dependency ratio is 78.4 percent indicating that every working candidate is economically responsible for other 3.6 persons. In line with these findings, the rate of unemployment increased from 8 percent in 1983 to 11 percent in 1993 and to 15.9 percent in 2008. In the case of Sudan, the informal sector, informal economy, or grey economy is the part of an economy that is neither taxed, nor monitored by any form of government. Unlike the formal economy, activities of the informal economy are not included in the gross national product (GNP) and gross domestic product (GDP) of a country. The informal sector can be described as a grey market in labor. Other concepts which can be characterized as informal sector can include the black market (shadow economy, underground economy), agorism, and System. Although the informal sector makes up a significant portion of the economies in developing countries it is often stigmatized as troublesome and unmanageable. However the informal sector provides critical economic opportunities for the poor and has been expanding rapidly since the 1960s. As such, integrating the informal economy into the formal sector is an important policy challenge. (HagirElzubeirAbdelmageed, 2009).

3.12.5. Rural urban migration of youth:

This study used the recent phenomenon in Sudan that migration includes men young boys, alone or combines with their families seeking jobs in urban areas (Dawoud, etals 2016), (UNFPA, 2012).

3.12.6. Rural Poverty:

Poverty in the Sudan is deeply entrenched and is largely rural. In 2002 some 20 million people were living below the poverty line of less than US\$1 a day. About 19 million people – 85 per cent of the rural population are estimated to be living in extreme poverty.

Most of them struggle to feed themselves and their families and have little or no access to safe drinking water and health services. The United Nations

Development Programme's Human Development Index ranks Sudan 61st among the 77 least developed nations in the world.

The incidence of poverty varies considerably according to region. In part because of economic growth has been unevenly distributed, but also because of the economic and social devastation caused by the conflict in certain parts of the country. Severe inequalities in terms of access to education, sanitation and clean water, to infrastructure and natural resources, income opportunities. People living in areas that have been or continue to be affected by drought and conflict – particularly the south and Darfur – are the most vulnerable to poverty.

A rapidly growing population is putting significant pressure on already fragile ecosystems, a situation which has been exacerbated by the displacement of peoples. There is a rapid urban expansion and poverty in Khartoum State as result of the overwhelming influx of displaced and migrants families into Greater Khartoum the squalor and sprawl of squatter areas around Khartoum are the most marked symptoms of urban poverty, (Abusin, 2005).

3.12.7. Urbanization:

Throughout the first half of the twentieth century Khartoum attracted a growing number of people from rural areas thanks to the economic and educational opportunities it offered. Migration significantly accelerated after Sudan's independence, when colonial restrictions on freedom of movement were lifted. The Passport and Permits Ordinance of 1922, which treated the migration of Southern Sudanese to the North as a punishable offence, was repealed, allowing the movement of large numbers of people from the South to Khartoum. Seasonal migration to Khartoum also brought many thousands to the capital. However, since the 1970s the city's population growth has largely been driven by internal displacement. A series of natural disasters, including a severe drought and famine in the 1970s and early 1980s in the west and east, resulted in the arrival of thousands of IDPs, including as many as 120,000 from Darfur and Kordofan in the mid-1980s. Meanwhile, during the North–South civil wars of 1956–1972

and 1983–2005, millions of IDPs from the South and the Three Areas moved northwards, with many seeking refuge in Khartoum (Assal, 2008). The conflict in Darfur has generated a further influx of IDPs, but little accurate information is available on how many have fled to the city since the outbreak of the war in 2002. The conflict in Eastern Sudan between 1995 and 2006 did not result in large-scale displacement to the capital; most displaced people sought refuge in Eastern urban centers, particularly Port Sudan, Kassala and Atbara in River Nile State.

The signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) on 9 January 2005, ending the conflict between the North and the South, saw intense efforts to help displaced populations in Khartoum return to their areas of origin through a large-scale programme led by the UN, the Government of National Unity (GNU) and the Government of Southern Sudan (GOSS). However, limited access to services, as well as economic and security reasons, meant that many who did return to the South after the CPA have since moved back to Khartoum, or are maintaining multi-spatial families and assets in both Khartoum and their areas of origin (Pantuliano and et al., 2008).

Greater Khartoum today consists of three cities in one: Khartoum, Omdurman and Khartoum North (Bahri). Khartoum, south of the Blue Nile, is often identified as the commercial hub, while Bahri, on the northern bank, is traditionally considered the industrial centre; Omdurman, to the west of the White Nile, is known for its political history and agricultural links. Khartoum's downtown centre, characterized by its colonial architecture, has until recently been the commercial heart of the city. The recent relocation of the central bus station and associated markets further out has diminished its importance and resulted in changing market habits and greater commercial competition in upper-class areas of Amarat and Al Riyadh, as well as in Mayo, El-Salama and Haj Yousif. Omdurman and Bahri are both expanding, with low-level housing, infrastructure development and associated planning challenges. The old Mahdist

capital, Omdurman, with a UNESCO world heritage site marketplace at its centre, retains its traditional character, with narrower streets and houses built with local materials. Around the city, the urban poor and displaced people are concentrated in camps and settlements often referred to pejoratively as Khartoum's 'Black Belt' (de Waal, 2007).

Chapter Four

Findings and Discussion

4.0. Introduction:

The chapter presents findings of quantitative and qualitative data collected from migrant youth who work in informal sector in three markets of Khartoum State. The finding is organized into three sections. Section one describes the migrant youth socio demographic situation before migration. Section two describes the involvement of youth in informal sector in by describing three types of work youth involved in; Sectionthree describes the present social life of youth in urban setting challenges and opportunities.

4.1. Profile of migrant youth:

According to the definition of the age of the youth in United Nations, between 15 – 25 years old, so the sample of the was chosen between this age, 49% percent of them were between the 15 -18 years old, while 51% of them between 19 -25. Uneducated was very few among migrants youth , most educated were finished the primary level are about 38.5%,the high secondary 52.8% as well as those who continue to have a university degree about 7.7%. 48% of migrant youth had brothers and sisters out of the education .Father were the head of the household of most of the sample of migrant youth who are holding different types of job. (See table 2)

Table (2) Frequency Distribution of migrants according to their characteristics:

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Age		
15 -18	147	49.0
19 -25	153	51.0
Total	300	100.0
Education levels		
Uneducated	3	1.0
primary	115	38.5
High secondary	158	52.8
University degree	23	7.7
Total	299	100.0
Brothers in school		
Yes	145	48.3
No	155	51.7
Total	300	100.0
Head of the household		
No one	2	.7
Father	208	70.3
Brother	75	25.3
Other relatives	10	3.4
Total	296	100.0
Type of house hold job		
Without job	9	3.2
Business owners	118	41.7
Farmer	73	25.8
Herder	10	3.5
Tailor	3	1.1
Seller in small shops	31	11.0
Labor	29	10.2
driver	7	2.5
Employer	3	1.1
Total	283	100.0

4.1.1. Livelihood of the youth before migration

48% of youth before migration were without work while 27.3% were dropped out from education and 22.7% worked as farmers (see Table 3)

Table (3) Frequency distribution of respondents according to work before Migration:

Work before Migration	Frequency	Percent
Farmer	68	22.7
Left out school	82	27.3
Un employed	144	48.0
Student	5	1.7
Shop boy	1	.3
Total	300	100.0

92.6 % of respondents had education services in their place of origin. Most the villages of the sample of the study 59.5% have a health services, but 40.5% have lack of health services, this result shows the misdistribution of health services in the country.

Table (4) Frequency distribution of respondents according to Availability of services in the villages of migrant youth

Availability of sevices	Frequency	Percent
Education		
Yes	277	92.6
No	23	7.4
Total	300	100
Health		
Yes	178	59.5
No	122	40.5
Total	300	100

4.1.2. Water sources:

Table (5) Frequency distribution of respondents according to water sources availability:

Type of Water sources	Frequency	Percent
Wells	123	41.0
tanker	21	7.0
Sea	25	8.3
pumps	96	32.0
Donkey car	12	4.0
Canals	6	2.0
Total	283	100.0

Most of them about 41% used wells as a source of water, also the majority, 32% use the pumps as a source of water, in which there are areas their source of

water either direct from the sea or through the donkey car they are about 12%, a few about 9% their source from canals or tankers, were are not a clean water most of it polluted water.

4.1.3. Youth Migration process:

The migration process of youth covered all the Sudan

Most of the sample 64% comes from Al. Gazeera, 16% from White Nile 10% from North and South Kordufan, and the rest covered other Sates.(Seetable 6) .

Table (6) Frequency distribution of respondents according to migration from:

The place comes from	Frequency	Percent
Unidentified	3	1.0
Al.Gazeera	193	64.3
River Nile side	2	.7
Northern side	2	.7
West Darfur	4	1.3
North Kordufan	31	10.3
White Nile	48	16.0
North Darfur	2	.7
Sinnar	1	.3
South Kordufan	3	1.0
East Nile	8	2.7
Gaddariff	2	.7
East Darfur	1	.3
Total	300	100.0

4.1.4.Reasons for Migration:

The majority 88% of the male youth migrated searching for a job for a better life; also others about 10% migrate because of poverty among the family or because of war and conflicts according to states are involved in conflict and wars. Very few about 2% they migrated to continue education. (See table 7)

Table (7) Frequency distribution of respondents according to migration reasons:

Migration Reasons	Frequency	Percent
Searching for a job	264	88.0
Poverty among the family	27	9.0
War and conflicts	3	1.0
Education	6	2.0
Total	300	100.0

Most of the migrants 61% were migrated with their relatives who migrated before them. Also others about 24.4% migrated alone by themselves in this young age, and others about 14.4% migrate with their family who decide to migrate and work in Khartoum state. (See table 8)

Table (8) Frequency distribution of respondents according to with whom they Migrate:

With whom the migration	Frequency	Percent
Alone	73	24.4
With the family	43	14.4
With relatives	183	61.2
Total	299	100.0

4.2. Work of migrant youth in informal sector:

This section presents the involvement of youth in three informal activities of the three markets. The result gives a picture of the situation of migrants youth in informal sectors the intense linkage between migration and informal sector. The urban informal sector, in three markets unlike its formal counterpart, includes all activities that are unregulated and small scale in nature. Not much attention was given to this unregulated. The majority of the migrant youth created their own employment and starts their own businesses, or work for small-scale family run enterprises. The self-employed identified by the study were three activities mobile workers, shop boys and small business owner.

4.2.1. The ways migrant Youth got job in urban informal sector:

The study indicated well linked and network among migrants in urban setting with their counterparts in rural areas. Majority got work through their relatives special the boy shops whom they worked in shops belong to people from their place of origins see figure 1.

Mobilize workers said during group discussion *As youth said in group discussion we have people migrated before us and involved in the same work ,also our friends who accommodated us in the same houses helped us to work as mobilize workers.*

they create for us a job by supporting us economically they give us a loan in way of goods we sell it and give them the profit, they took just the capital and gives us the profit as goods and this become our capital to work with , also our relatives who comes after we do with them the same system.

Business owner said *the people comes from the same place helped us to develop our smallbusiness in a way they come and share with our efforts to develop the business by working extra time then we open our own business*

Other said: *Youth migrant who migrated before us also helped us*

Shop boys said *It was easy to get work in our relatives small shop who migrated also from our area,*

The migrant youth reached Khartoum looking for work got help from different people to get work in informal sector of three markets of Khartoum State .

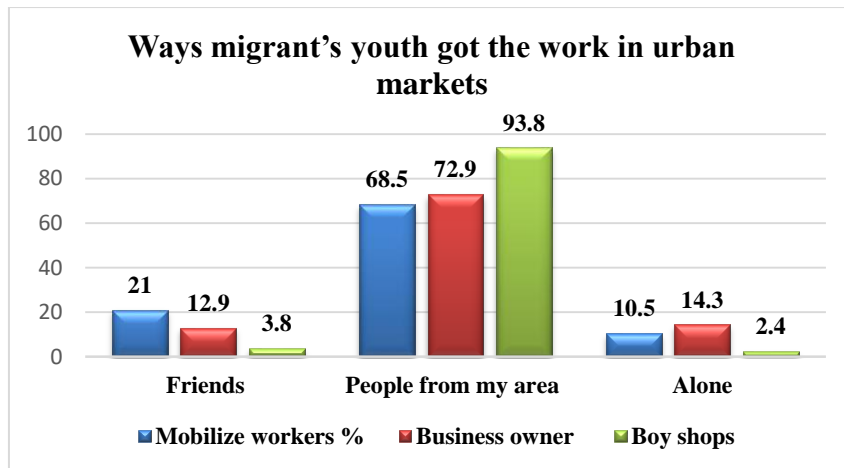


Figure (1)

Business owner said *that people comes from the same place helped us to develop our small business*

Other said: Youth migrant who migrated before us also helped us

Shop boys said it was easy to get work in our relative's small shop that migrated also from our area

4.2.2. Income gained

The work of informal sector is very profit that majority of them got enough income from their work special the shop boys and business owners see figure 2 according to enough of the money they gained from the work

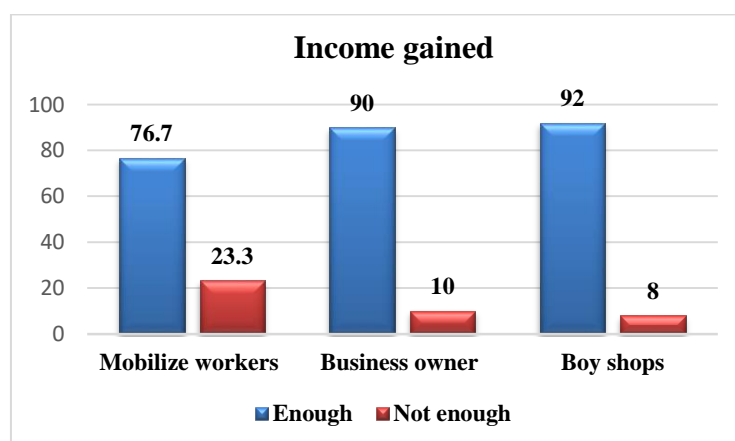


Figure (2)

4.2.3. Spent of income

Migrant youth spent most of their income on their own expenses see figure 3 Spent of income.

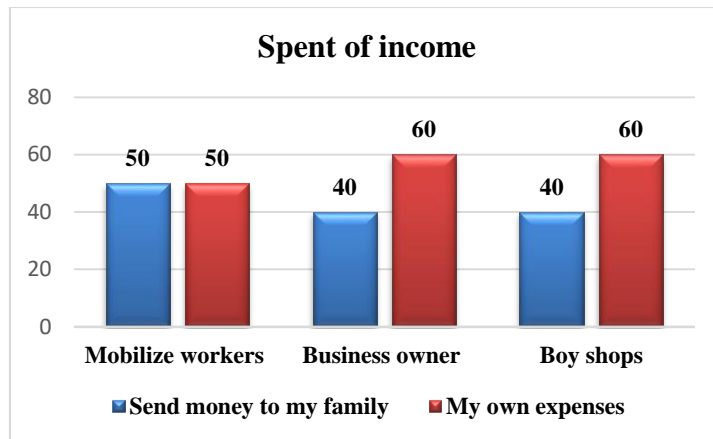


Figure (3)

All the migrant youth mention during group *discussion life is very expensive in Khartoum*

So we spent most of our income on ourselves the rest sent to our families . So was difficult for us to save some money

4.2.4. Challenges and constraints

The Young migrant expressed the hard ship of their work specifically the mobilize workers and boy shops

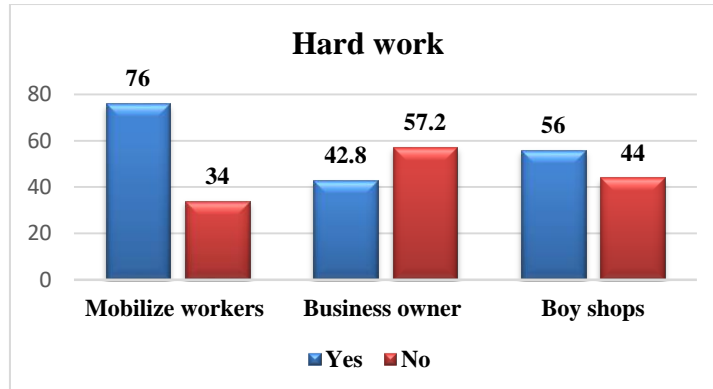


Figure (4)

During in-depth discussion Majority stressed that *“the work in the shop is takes more than 10 hours, in which we open the shop before the owner come, we clean the shop, tide up and put the goods in order, and after the day finished we also close the shop, beside we bring the goods from the store and put it in the shop to sell and we sells the goods for the consumer, all these work with income not enough to our needs and expenses”*.

Mobilize workers said It is very hard job moving and walking long distances running from local authority

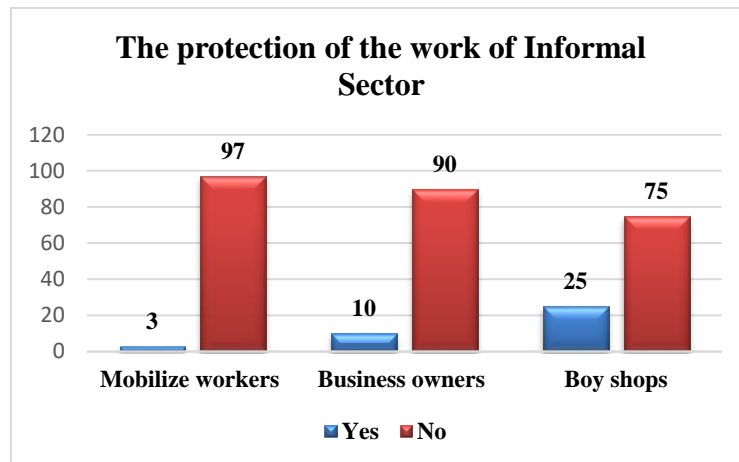


Figure (5)

Mobile workers said, that the local administration is the main constraints they face in their business, During in-depth discussion Majority stressed that *“the local administration come and took monthly fees as taxes from us while it doesn’t safe us from any problems faces us on our work”*.

A Business owner *the local administration come and took monthly fees as taxes from us while it doesn’t safe us from any problems faces us on our work”*.

the business in the informal sector *wasn’t protected from any constrains or problems facing our business as well the local administration don’t protect our business from any natural disasters in spite of they come monthly and took a fees without any services.*

4.3. Description of three Informal activities

This section presents the way the migrant youth handle their business

4.3.1. Mobile workers

Indicates 96% of mobile workers sold Biscuits and juices. Very few (4%) of youth involved in different types goods (see table 9)

During group discussion youth justified their involvement in selling biscuits and juice. 26.7% of youth controlled their own work as mobile workers while

the other controlled by relative of whom. 67.3 were their cousins , The youth during the group discussion explained this issue

These goods are highly demanded of consumers of the market. They got their goods from different place as indicated by

Table (9) frequency distribution of respondents according to description the work:

Describe the work	Frequency	Percent
Biscuits and juices	144	96.0
Women accessories	1	.7
Juices and water	2	1.3
Sweets	1	.7
Chips and crisps	1	.7
Women socks, gloves	1	.7
Total	150	100.0

Table (10) frequency distribution of respondents according to from where you get the goods:

The goods from	Frequency	Percent
SouqBahri (MahtaAlosta)	90	60.0
supermarket	20	13.3
Omdurman Market (Gumla market)	30	20.0
Souq Libya	10	6.7
Total	150	100.0

During the group discussion the youth explain the following,

“We get the goods according to the market area we work in. who works in Souq Omdurman they get their goods from Gumla market inside Souq Omdurman and this are not few, 20% of the total, more than 60% who works in SaadGeshra they get their goods from SouqBahri, and also from the supermarkets near to SaadGeshra market. As well who works in Al.Shabee Khartoum, they get their goods from Souq Libya and Gumla market”.

“We work under supervision to train us how to work and deal with the customers who comes to the market to buy their needs. Our cousins and their elder brothers who comes with us”.

The future plan for the most of them 68.7% is to increase the quality of the work, 11.4% seen that to change the type of goods is better, 6% seen the type of goods is good but. 4.7% see to rent a small shop and sell the goods on it will prevent them from AL.Kasha and this will progress their work, 0.7% of them would like to make cooperation with their friends in the same job. But at the same time 6% don't have any plans to progress their work and seen it as no more to increase it up.

Youth during group discussion mentioned,

“Good quality of goods put suitable prices to sell increase their time duration, We have to increase up our capital to bring more goods to sell Small shop to sell the goods on it will prevent them from AL.Kasha and this will progress their work”.

Table (11) Frequency distribution of respondent s according to Future plans to progress their work:

Plans to progress the work	Frequency	Percent
Increase the quality of the work	103	68.7
Changing the job	2	1.3
Change the type of goods	17	11.4
Increase the capital of the goods	9	6.0
Make cooperation with others	2	1.3
Nothing	9	6.0
Make a small shop	7	4.7
Cooperate with friends and make a shop to sell our goods	1	.7
Total	150	100.0

4.3.2. Business owners

The majority works in selling the women jewelers and accessories about 78.6% and when they were asked why this type of goods they said *“most of the costumers who come to buy from the market are women that why we focus on the women interests of what they buy”* , although 11% they work in selling women clothes and others work in children and infants clothes and accessories those are about 4.3% , a few work as trailer also for women. (See table 12).

Table (12) Frequency distribution of respondents according types of work

Describe the work	Frequency	Percent
Sellingwomen accessories	55	78.6
Trailer	1	1.4
Selling men traditional hats	3	4.3
Children clothes	1	1.4
Infant accessories	2	2.9
Women clothes	8	11.4
Total	70	100.0

4.3.2.1.Source of Fund

Most of the migrants had a fund to make their business and to raise it up and raise their capital about 50% their source of fund to their business is from their family either their cousin or uncle were working outside the country and send for them foreign currency as loan. Also, 28% of them don't take loans from any sources mentioned in the table no 13, others by friends or their fathers whom also works outside the country.(See table 13)

migrant said; “we do not have access to official credit to finance our business. We establish our business in collaboration with our relatives who finance the business and share the profit”.

Others said “ from our profit we create an independent business”.

Table (13) Frequency distribution of respondents according to the source of the fund to their business

Fund from	Frequency	Percent
The father	4	6.7
From the family	30	50.0
Friends	9	15.0
No funds	17	28.3
Missing sample	10	
Total	70	100.0

The future plan for the most of them 92.9% is to increase their business by opening other shops in different markets in Khartoum state, while 5.2% they prefer to separate the co operation between the other partner who cooperate the trade. 2.9% they want to change the goods they sell they argue that the type of the good is the problem that facing them to increase their profit and increase their business. (See table 14)

Table (14) Frequency distribution of respondents according to Future plans to progress their work:

Plans to progress the work	Frequency	Percent
Increasing the job	65	92.9
Changing the goods	2	2.9
Separating the cooperation	3	5.2
Total	70	100.0

4.3.3. Boy shop:

Most of the respondents work in selling women accessories which about 78.6% and others about 21.4% works in different type of jobs like women and children clothes, infants accessories , trailer and men traditional hats, (see table 15)

Table (15) Frequency distribution of respondents according to types of the jobs

Types of the job	Frequency	Percent
Sellingwomen accessories	55	78.6
Trailer	1	1.4
Selling men traditional hats	3	4.3
Children clothes	1	1.4
Infant accessories	2	2.9
Women clothes	8	11.4
Total	70	100.0

It is found from the result 95% of the boy shops their work was controlled by the owner of the business, (see table 16)

Table (16) frequency distribution of respondents according to who controlled their work:

The controller is	Frequency	Percent
The owner of the business	76	95.0
Missing sample	4	5.0
Total	80	100.0

The future plan for the most of them 48.8%% is to make a small shop ,while 25% they prefer to continue in their job as a boy shop cause of social properties one of them said

“I can’t leave my job cause the shop is owned by my elder brother, where can I go and work with whom”,18% they prefer to continue in education to find better jobs, 7.4% either to change their type of job or no plans. (See table 17)

Table (17) Frequency distribution of respondent s according to Future plans to progress their work:

Plans to progress the work	Frequency	Percent
Continuing in the job	20	25.0
Changing the job	2	2.4
Make a small shop	39	48.8
No plans	4	5.0
Continuing my education	15	18.8
Total	80	100.0

4.4. Migrants' life in the urban area:

Most of them 81.9% they rent a house and live together, usually they come from one state, from different villages also they can live together from different states. Others about 13.8% live with their relatives who are settled before as a family, uncle or cousins. Very few 4.4% live with their family those who migrate with their family. (See table 18)

Table (18) Frequency distribution of respondents according to with whom they live:

Live with	Frequency	Percent
Rent with friends	244	81.9
Family	13	4.4
relatives	41	13.8
Total	298	100.0

Most of them 92% visits their area continuously in the festivals and sometimes if there is a family commitments .

Table (19) Frequency distribution of respondents according to visit their area continuously:

Visit the village	Frequency	Percent
Yes	271	91.9
No	24	8.1
Total	295	100.0

4.4.1. The time of settlement in Khartoum:

Some of the migrants were new arrival 18.7% while 69.6 lived in Khartoum for 3 to 6 years

Very few were more than 9 years. (See table 20).

Table (20) Frequency distribution of respondents according to the time of settlement in Khartoum state:

Time of settlement	Frequency	Percent
Less than 2 years	56	18.7
3-6 years	208	69.6
6-9 years	26	8.7
More than 9 years	9	3.0
Total	299	100.0

4.4.2. Integration with people in Khartoum:

61.4 % of migrant youth still could not integrate with people in Khartoum State (see figure 6) The youth gave different reason of lack of integration with people in Khartoum State, most of them they return it to the traditions and values are different from places they came from, also others argue that they don't know them because of the life style of them. A few of them said because of there is no common interest between them; also they don't have extra time to join them. And there are no common activities they can share together. But a very few of them said even the Khartoum community don't want to join them. (See table 21).

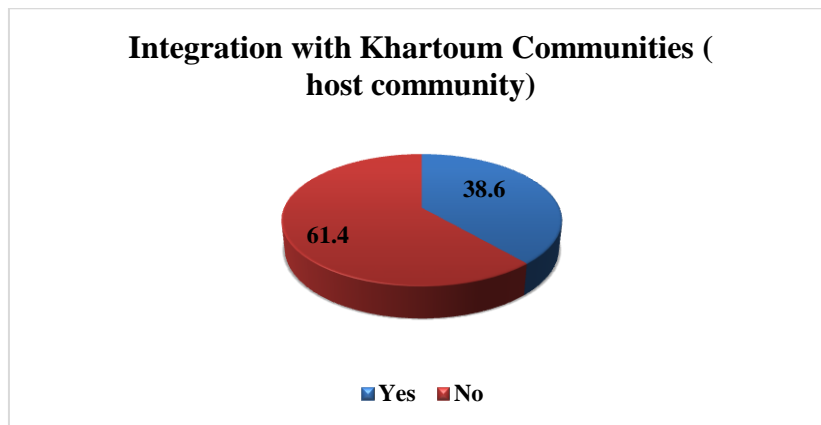


Figure (6)

Table (21) Frequency distribution of respondents according to why don't join Khartoum state community:

Because of	Frequency	Percent
Different traditions and values	38	12.7
We don't know them	73	24.3
No common interest	29	9.7
We don't have time	105	35.0
No common activities	53	17.7
They don't want to join us	2	0.6
Total	300	100.0

4.4.3. Development of Friendship:

85% of the sample developed friendship with people in Khartoum states (see table 22).

They said in group discussion we had friends from the migrant youths who worked with us in the markets and came from different State.

Table (22) Frequency distribution of respondents according to development of friendship:

Friendship	Frequency	Percent
Yes	254	85.2
No	44	14.8
Total	298	100.0

4.4.4. Youth opinion on their livelihood in Khartoum:

The 55.7% of migrant youth prefer their livelihood in their area in their area than to live in Khartoum while other 44.3 found easy to live in Khartoum (see figure 7).

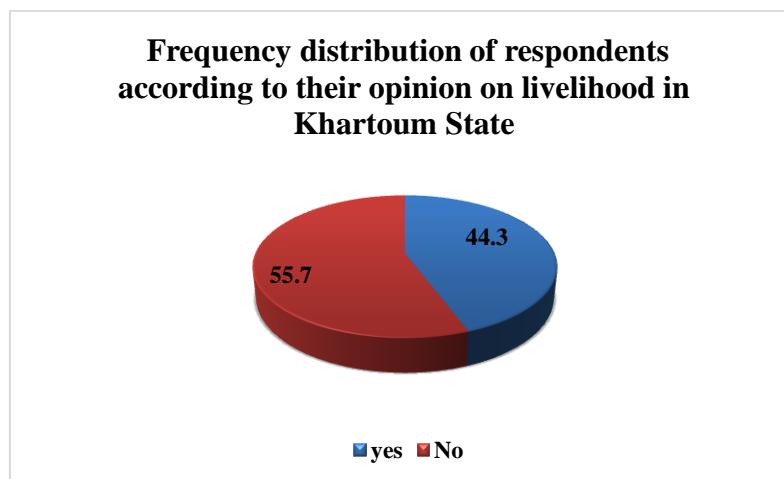


Figure (7)

Migrant youth states in group discussion, *“The live here is very difficult the availability of work encouraged us to continue living on Khartoum, Other said it’s easy for them to live in Khartoum”*.

Table (23): Frequency distribution of respondents according to their opinion on livelihood in Khartoum State

The easier to live in	Frequency	Percent
yes	132	44.3
No	166	55.7
Total	298	100.0

Table (24) Frequency distribution of respondents according to the future plans:

My future plans to	Frequency	Percent
Go back to my area	263	88.3
Settle in Khartoum state	35	11.7
Total	298	100.0

4.4.5. Future plan :

88% of the migrant youth plan to go back to their area . see table some of them planed to travel and work outside Sudan see table

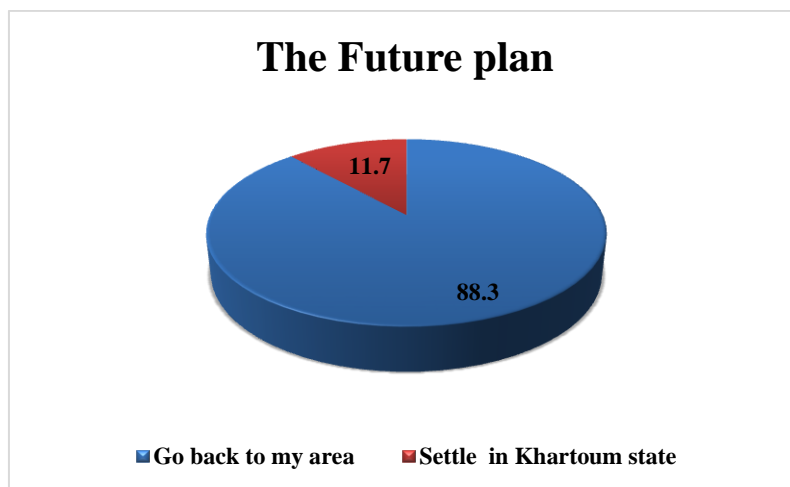


Figure (8)

4.5. Discussion:

4.5.1. Socio demographic characteristics of migrant youth:

The study found the young age of migrant youth some of them on the age group 15-18,

And other on the age 19-25 this goes with definition of the youth of UN. It also supported by the World Bank (2006), a third of total migrants from developing countries are aged 12 to 24..Sudan has a very young population More than a third of all migrants worldwide are under the age of 29 (UNDESA, 2013),

Two thirds of Sudanese are under the age of 34. Over 20 % of young people are unemployed. A quarter of youth living in urban areas and half of those living in rural areas are poor. The result indicated high literacy rate of migrant youth but majority of them could not continue their education for socio economic reasons (poverty). The study indicates high education dropped out among the brothers and sisters of migrant youth. According to ILO 2010, almost 72% of households living in extreme poverty, on less than US\$ 1.25/day, live in rural areas, where the majority of the working poor and food insecure households are also found in .Sub-Saharan Africa. It also indicates rural areas in Sudan lack education services.Rural youth are often found in unpaid family work, especially in agriculture, or employed as own -account, wage casual and seasonal workers in the informal economy, where they earn low wages, have limited job security and insufficient access to social protection.(Leavy And Smith 2010).

Livelihood of migrant youth in their place of origin characterized by lack of services Migration process

Majority of youth migrated with their relatives this shows the pattern of rural urban migration in Sudan. The results with definition of migrants as “persons, and family members, moving to another country or region to better their material or social conditions and improve the prospect for themselves or their family” (IOM, 2011)., FAO (2011) has provided arguments explaining the

higher propensity of rural youth to resort to internal migration. youth migration data in Sudan indicated approximately one-fourth of all migrants are less than 18 years old, and that after age 12, the likelihood of migrating separately from parents begins to increase, with steepest increases between ages 15 and 17 (Yaqub 2009a).

The rural youth migrated from scattered areas of rural Sudan majority from Al. Gazeera Sate comes from different villages from which it's a big state near to Khartoum, also from the white Nile they came searching for a better work and good livelihood .

4.5.2. Reasons for Migration:

The decision of whether to migrate or not is one of many important decisions that young men and women make throughout the developing world. **The results indicated majority of youth migrated searching of the jobs as majority before migration were unemployed .**General trends Opportunities are often tied to current location, and many young s migrate to work or attend school, leaving their parents and natal homes behind (Global Migration Group 2014; Smith and Gergan 2015).

The study indicated migration was livelihood strategies available to rural youth .Same results found by (World Bank 2008) Youth migrated to , facilitate access to goods and services, or invest in income-generating activities . Unavailability work of areas where the youth migrated from was reason moved them to urban sector. According to ILO Unemployment rates for youth are almost three times higher than adults ones in all regions of the world, ranging from nearly two times in Sub-Saharan Africa (ILO 2010).FAO (2011) has provided arguments explaining work in the agricultural sector suffers from a negative perception i.e. it is often associated with low returns, drudgery and demanding work but at the same time low social status.

The study findings indicated most of the youth migrated with their families This result supported by study by (Leavy and Smith, 2010).migration among

young adults determined by decisions within the family level, as part of household livelihood strategies. This is particularly true in contexts of lack of social safety nets and weak capital markets, migration is often a strategy to escape situation of distress due to severe livelihood constraints.

4.5.3. Work of migrant youth in informal sector:

The findings of the research indicated migrant youth found work in the informal sectors. Due to rural-urban migration patterns, urban labor supply tends to grow faster than the working age population, further increasing the pressure on urban labor market, (Grant 2012).

There were no data and statistics of the informal sector in Sudan and is not included in the GDP account as a separate sector, (Hagir Elzubeir Abdelmageed, 2009).

The informal sector, informal economy, or grey economy is the part of an economy that is neither taxed, nor monitored by any form of government

The migrants youth involved in three activities as mobilize workers, business owner and shop boys, The study finding indicated that most of migrant youth found job as mobilize workers because is easy job do not need training or official permission had the informal sector can play a role as a safety net in periods of economic stress and crisis (Amir and Barry, 2013). see for example Dimova, Gang and Landon-Lane, 2006) The informal sector in periods of crisis can be flexible enough to quickly handle large numbers of workers displaced from the formal sector and can help mitigate the drop in household income that accompanies such dislocation.

Majority of youth their relatives helped them to get work in the three markets .This indications of the expand of the informal sector as old migrant considered as pull factors to attract youth to migrate to work in informal sectors at urban setting.

Migrant youth indicated that their work in formal sectors was not protected and challenged. At most all of them they were not able to save enough money to improve their self-employed works. The findings also revealed the work of youth in informal sectors challenged by the lack of capital and low access to credit as to improve their work. Despite the challenges migrant encountered they did not plan to return back to their place of origin or even did not have plan to improve their work in the informal sector

The findings of the study have theoretical as well as practical significance. This micro level study gave insights to understanding the importance of youth work in the informal sector in Khartoum state. Socio- economic situation of rural youth characterized by vulnerability, poverty and low skill to get a job outside of informal sector. As indicated by Sommers, (2010). youth are over-represented among the urban poor most rural migrant youths, live in unplanned settlement areas, often in difficult conditions and are vulnerable to high levels of unemployment and underemployment. These results are in line with the UNHABITAT (2010) which indicated that the young age of rural migrant youth and confirmed the argument of the new pattern of rural urban migration that involved the young male. Poverty was the push factor of the rural youth and their families most of them migrated because of poverty of their families and youth who migrants alone were looking for means of living in urban area. This result also in line with the IFAD (2007), which indicated that poverty in the Sudan is deeply entrenched and is largely rural.

The migrant youth interviewed were self-employed because they did not have the possibility of being wage-employees. In this sense, they were self-employed because they had no choice –The migration literature suggests that urban migrants, who are attracted to cities and towns due to higher wage in the formal sector, may end up in a low paying informal sector, since there is more labor supply to the ‘modern sector’ than there is labor demand to absorb it all (Potts, 2007). Urban work is highly competitive and migrant youth are most likely to

be found in a range of vulnerable, informal, irregular and often illegal occupations (World Bank, 2007). The youth migrants face many challenges in their informal self-employed work all the challenges related to their poverty and vulnerability. The youth migrants become more susceptible and less competitive in urban areas because of lower endowment in education, experience, financial capital and social network (Ursula2012). The study also revealed that in spite of the challenges faced the youth have no desire to go back to their place of origin. Surveys with migrants highlighted their uncertainty about and reduced expectations from staying in town as the urban economy declined in recent years (Potts, 2007; Grimm *et al*, (2012 However, migration remains a viable livelihood option for rural youth in many contexts, in the absence of opportunities in the rural areas (Tacoli and Mabala, 2010).

4.5.4. Social life:

Most of youth did not live with their families they rent a house together with as group of youth from different areas and live together, the number of year youth stay in Khartoum ranged between one year and up to ten year .This indicates the continues process of youth migration.

4.5.5. Integration of youth with host community in Khartoum State:

The finding indicates the lack of integration of the youth with Khartoum State community because they did not have time and their livelihood style isolated them from community Some literatures indicated youth commonly face social exclusion, disruption of family, and absence of social protection, Considerable numbers of those migrants in Khartoum State live in the periphery of Khartoum City. (Bello, 2008). Rural youth have good social interaction with their counterparts from their areas and work together in the informal sector. Study conducted by Daoud and Bello (2013) indicated the social capita was high among rural migrant groups used it as strategy to limit their poverty and vulnerabilities.

The youth indicated the life in Khartoum is not easy. These youth are very vulnerable in the city because they have left their parents and their villages where they would have been afforded with a fall back options in times of crisis, while in the city there are no formal institutions that provide support for unemployed youth.

Youth migrating to new places for better job prospects and higher wages is a widely used strategy among youth migrants. In the nature and extent of youth rural urban migration issues in the labor market outcomes of migrants. In which the nature and pattern of rural urban migration is results that Khartoum state is most attractive state to migrants, number of migrants involved in informal activities. In respecting to their livelihood work before migration, male migrants were mainly engaged in farming, carpentry, daily labor, shepherding, peddling, and helping their family in business.

Chapter five

Summarized results Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1. Summarized Results:

49% of migrant youth were between the 15 -18 years old, while 51% of them between 19 -25. Uneducated was very few among migrants youth 7.7%. 48% of migrant youth had brothers and sisters out of the education.

Father was the head of the household of most of the sample of migrant 48% of youth before migration were without work while 27.3% were dropped out from education and 22.7% worked as farmers. (See table 2).

92.6 % of respondents had education services in their place of origin and 59.5% have a health services. (See table 4).

5.1.1. The migration process of youth covered most of Sudan States specifically Elgazera State:

88% of the male youth migrated searching for a job for a better life, 61% were migrated with their relatives Also others about 24.4% migrated alone. The self-employed identified by the study were three activities mobile workers, shop boys and small business owner. Majority of migrant youth got work through their relatives special the boy shops whom they worked in shops belong to people from their place of origins. (See table 6, 7 and 8).

The Young migrant expressed the hard ship of their work specifically the mobilize workers and boy shops.

75% of migrant youth their work were not protected, (See figure 5), 74.3% of business owner's migrant youth took a fund from their relatives or friends are working in other countries, (See table 13). 96% of mobile workers sold Biscuits and juices, (See table 9). 68.7% of mobile workers planned to increase the quality of the work, (See table 11). 92.9% of business owners plan to increase their business by opening other shops in different markets in Khartoum

state.(See table 14).48.8%%of boyshop planned to make a small shop ,while 25% they prefer to continue in their job as a boy shop.(See table 17).81.9% of migrant youth rent a house and live together, (See table 18), Some of the migrants were new arrival 18.7% while 69.6 lived in Khartoum for 3 to 6 years Very few were more than 9 years,(See table 20).

61.4 % of migrant youth still could not integrate with people in Khartoum State. The youth gave different reason of lack of integration with people in Khartoum Sate,(See figure 6). most of them they return it to the traditions and values are different from places they came from, also others argue that they don't knows them because of the life style of them, 85% of the sample developed friendship with people from their areas who worked with them in Khartoum sate, (See table 22).The 55.7% of migranyouth prefer their livelihood in their area than to live in Khartoum, (See figure 7), while other 44.3 found easy to live in Khartoum See table 23, 88% of the migrant youth plan to go back to their area, See table 24.

5.2. Conclusions:

It can be concluded that young age of migrants youth this an indication of high drop out of education and lack of work in rural area Moreover youthmigration was only livelihood strategies available to them .Study concluded that the young age of rural migrant youth confirmed the argument of the new pattern of rural urban migration that involved the young male.

We found that having contacts in the destination city is very helpful and make migration less expensive. We see no evidence of conflicts and tension between migrant youth and local communities. The majority of migrants leave their village with reasonable expectation about life in urban areas and they are now generally satisfied with their life.

It is found that, migration among young adults determined by decisions within the family level, as part of household livelihood strategies.It can be said that

theresult of the study gives insights to understanding the importance of youth work in the informal sector in Khartoum state.

It is found that Poverty was the push factor of the rural youth and their families most of them migrated because of poverty of their families this and indication indicated that poverty in the Sudan is deeply entrenched and is largely rural.

In conclusion, the current rural youth migration to urban areas patterns in Sudan is complex and widely articulated with pull-and-push factors. Most of the rural youth migrants are less educated than urban residents and tend to fill the least skilled jobs available in cities.

The study focuses on migrant youth because they represent a specific category of migrants whose unique needs, rights and challenges are not addressed as part of the larger migration policy debate.

The migrant youth were self-employed because they did not have the possibility of being wage-employees. In this sense, they were self-employed because they had no choice. Moreover it can be said that urban work is highly competitive and migrant youth are most likely to be found in a range of vulnerable, informal, irregular and often illegal occupations.

It is concluded that the lack of integration of the youth with Khartoum State community because they did not have time and their livelihood style isolated them from community.

In conclusion, young migrants are more vulnerable when, in combination with their age and stage of life, they face isolation, exclusion, discrimination, and insecurity. Moreover, in the migration process young people can lose their social networks and may also be without parents or family members to provide guidance and care.

The data indicate that informal self-employment attract youth migrants, mainly because it has relatively less resource requirement than other activities. Almost all of the randomly selected youth engaged in informal self-employment in KhartoumState.

Most of the youth in street-based self-employment aspire to move out of that occupation. The majority of these youth indicate that they have started taking concrete steps to achieve their objective of transiting to a better occupation. The majority of the youth migrants are also vulnerable and food insecure since they do not have the social network that can provide them with informal safety net during crisis. The informal sector plays various economic roles. For some the informal sector is bad in the sense that workers in the informal sector are not covered by legal protections that workers in the formal sector face.

5.3. Recommendations:

- Reducing informal employment by lowering the cost of transitions to formality through the creation of an enabling policy and regulatory environment that reduces barriers to formalization, while protecting workers' rights and increasing the benefits of being formal by promoting a greater awareness of the advantages and protection that come with formalization (business development services access to the market, productive resources, credit programmes, and training and promotional programmes to upgrade informal economy units);
- Increasing decent work in the informal economy by developing a national social protection floor for all, implementing a minimum wage and health and safety incentives, organizing workers from the informal economy [domestic workers, for example] and encouraging informal enterprises to join together in production conglomerates or cooperatives, and supporting the development of social economy enterprises and organizations
- It should be equality of resources distribution where most of Sudan's economic capital and social services are concentrated in Khartoum state this will reduce from the response to natural and man-made disasters by establishing of development projects in the states to generate conditions

for stability in those states and to establish economic and demographic balance between the states.

- Access to finance is fundamental when supporting youth to invest in themselves and their livelihoods or career paths, especially those who wish to engage in entrepreneurial activities
- To take advantage of the opportunities and services available in the cities. Also migrants should be associated with rural youth aspirations and perceptions of farm life, by improving the migrants needs from various services, as water, electricity, housing in their rural areas, which these needs are linked to the type of work performed, and to increase profits, mobility and high status associated to working in agriculture sector belong to their farm life.
 - The migrants should have a proper skills and technical education required for this move on the demand side, towards the quality of migrating people who are coming into the urban society and their participation in labour force joins to the urban informal job market.
 - Peace should cover all the states of Sudan, to make the distributing of resources and facilities and people basic needs affordable for a serious development and reducing the number of rural urban migration among youth.

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بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

جامعة السودان للعلوم و التكنولوجيا

الدراسات الزراعية

قسم الارشاد الزراعي و التنمية الريفية

استبيان لجمع معلومات لبحث بعنوان

**Socio –Economic Situation Analysis of Male Youth Migrants in
Three Markets in Khartoum State
(Omdurman market, SaadGeshra market, Al.Shabee Khartoum
market)**

تحليل الوضع الاجتماعي والاقتصادي للمهاجرين الشباب الذكور في ثلاثة أسواق بولاية
الخرطوم

(سوق أم درمان ، سوق سعد قشرة ، سوق الشعبي الخرطوم)

السؤال الأول :

الحالة الاقتصادية الاجتماعية :

1. العمر :

• 18-15 ()

• 22-19 ()

2. التعليم :

• أمي ()

• المرحلة الابتدائية ()

• المرحلة الثانوية ()

3. لماذا لم تواصل تعليمك ؟

.....

.....

.....

4. من هو عائل الاسرة في المنطقة؟

.....
5. ما هو عمل عائل الاسرة؟

.....
ما هي الموارد المتوفرة للأسرة في المنطقة؟

.....
6. ما هي التحديات التي تواجه الاسرة ؟

.....
.....
.....
7. هل لديك أخوة هربوا من المدارس ؟

نعم () لا () .

8. هل المنطقة توجد بها خدمات صحية ؟

نعم () لا ()

9. هل المنطقة توجد بها خدمات تعليمية ؟

نعم () لا ()

10. ما هو مصدر المياه ؟

11. المكان الذي هاجر منه :

.....

12. أسباب الهجرة :

- بحث عن العمل ()
- فقر في الاسرة ()
- حروب و نزاعات ()

13. الوضع قبل الهجرة :

- مزارع ()
- تركت المدرسة ()
- غير عامل ()

14. مع من هاجرت:

- لوحدك ()
- مع أسرتك ()
- مع الاقارب ()

15. الفترة التي استقرت فيها بالخرطوم ؟

.....

16. السكن مع من؟

- مع مجموعه مهاجرين في بيت ايجار ()
- مع اسرتك ()
- مع الاقارب ()

17. هل تزور المنطقة بصورة مستمرة ؟

نعم () لا ()

السؤال الثاني:

الوضع المهني:

1. أنواع العمل:

• بائع متجول ()

كيف تحصلت على العمل:

• عن طريق الاصدقاء ()

• من اشخاص من نفس منطقتك ()

• بمفردك ()

التدريب للقيام بهذا العمل :

وصف العمل:

.....

.....

نوع البضاعة:

من أين تحصلت على البضاعة ؟

ساعات العمل :

رئيس العمل:

كم من الزمن انت في هذا العمل :

.....

العائد المادي من العمل

كافي

غير كافي

التحديات التي تواجهك :

.....
.....

خطط المستقبلية لتحسين عمالك :

.....
.....

• عامل في محل ()

كيف تحصلت على العمل:

• عن طريق الاصدقاء ()

• من اشخاص من نفس منطقتك ()

• بمفردك ()

التدريب للقيام بهذا العمل:

.....
وصف العمل:

.....
.....

ساعات العمل :

رئيس العمل:

كم من الزمن انت في هذا العمل :

.....

العائد المادي من العمل

كافي

غير كافي

هل العمل شاق؟

نعم () لا ()

إذا كان العمل شاق وضح :

التحديات التي تواجهك :

.....
.....

خطط المستقبلية لتحسين عملك :

.....
.....

• عمل خاص ()

كيف تحصلت على العمل:

• عن طريق الاصدقاء ()

• من اشخاص من نفس منطقتك ()

• بمفردك ()

التدريب للقيام بهذا العمل :

.....

وصف العمل:

.....
.....
.....

ساعات العمل :

.....

كم من الزمن انت فى هذا العمل :

.....

العائد المادى من العمل

..... كافى

..... غير كافى

هل العمل شاق؟

نعم () لا ()

إذا كان العمل شاق وضح :

التحديات التى تواجهك :

.....

.....

.....

خطط المستقبلية لتحسين عملك :

.....

.....

.....

2. كم كان عمرك عندما بدأت تعمل فى السوق ؟

.....

3. هل انت راضى عن عملك:

نعم () لماذا؟

.....

لا () لماذا؟

.....
هل الراتب بسيط
العمل غير منتظم
العمل شاق

4. هل كل فترة تغيير نوع عملك

نعم () ، مثل :

.....

لا ()

5. كيف تصرف راتبك :

- تساعد اسرتك ()
- تصرف و تساعد نفسك ()
- اخرى (.....)

6. ما هي المعوقات التي تواجهك لتطوير عملك :

- هل عملك فى المجال الخاص محمى :
- نعم () ، وضح :

.....

• لا () ، لماذا :

.....

7. هل الحياة غاليه فى المنصرفات مقابل الدخل:

• نعم ()

ماذا تفعل لمقابلة الغلاء ؟

.....

• لا ()

8. هل هناك صعوبه فى التوفير من الراتب :

• نعم ()

• لا ()

9. هل يوجد تمويل للعمل فى المجال الخاص :

• نعم ()

من من ()

(.....)

• لا ()

الحياة الاجتماعية :

10. كيف تقضى اوقات الفراغ :

• هل تنتمي لمجموعة أصدقاء

نعم () لا ()

• هل اندمجت فى مجتمع العاصمة

نعم () ، كيف :

.....

لا () ، لماذا :

.....

11. من هم أصدائك ؟

• من بيئة العمل ()

• من خارج بيئة العمل ()

12. ايهما أسهل الحياة فى العاصمة أم منطقتك

.....
13. الاهداف المستقبلية :

- الرجوع الى موطنى الاصلى بصورة افضل ()
- الاستقرار فى الخرطوم ()

14. هل لديك فكرة لكى تسافر او تعمل فى مكان ابعد من هنا:

- نعم ()
- لا ()

15. هل لديك الرغبة فى العودة الى الدراسه من جديد:

- نعم ()
- لا ()

16. ما هى اقتراحاتك لبقاء الشباب فى الريف و عدم الهجرة ؟

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