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DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

**THE SOCIAL IMPACT AND EFFECTS OF CONFLICT
ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTH SUDAN**

**A Thesis Submitted to the Department of Development Studies, in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of
a Master of Science (M.Sc.) Degree in
Regional Planning and Project Management**

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DEDICATION

This piece of work is dedicated to my immediate family members notably: My beloved wife Mrs. Cecilia Moni Eluzai, and my children Manase Losuk Hakim and Roda Riya Hakim.

It is also dedicated to my deceased parents who already left this world for heaven: Yaba (Mzee) Manase Yatta Lobojo and Yuma (Soso) Ludia Killa Lumaring.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CERTIFICATION	ii
DECLARATION	Error! Bookmark not defined.
DEDICATION	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF ACRONYMS	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
LIST OF TABLES	xiv
ABSTRACT	xv
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.1.1 Brief Socioeconomic History of South Sudan.....	3
1.1.1.1. Social Amenities and Education in Sudan prior to the start of armed conflict6	
1.1.1.2. The erosion of livelihoods during armed conflicts.....	8
1.1.2 Impact of conflicts on people and communities.....	9
1.1.3 General standard of living	11
1.2 Problem Statement.....	11
1.3. Research Questions	12
1.4 General objective.....	12
1.5 Significance of the Study.....	13
1.6 The Organization of the Study	13
1.7 Scope of the Study.....	13
Definition of Terms:	14
CHAPTER TWO	15
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	15
2.1 Literature Review	15
2.1.1Insecurity (weak administration, disrespect for the rule of law)	15
2.1.2 Humanitarian crises (loss of lives & assets, population displacement, food insecurity).....	16
2.1.3 Socioeconomic conditions (poverty, disruption in basic social service delivery)	16
2.1.4 Chronological History of South Sudan Conflict	17
2.1.5 Root causes of conflict between Sudan and South Sudan, and within South Sudan itself	19
2.2 Theoretical Framework.....	26
2.2.1 Conflict and development theory	26
2.2.2 Empirical Literature Review	34
CHAPTER THREE	39
METHODOLOGY OF STUDY	39
3.1 Model Specification.....	39

3.1.1 Description of Variables used in the Model	39
3.2 Study Design	40
3.3 Sampling Strategy	40
3.4 Sample Size	40
3.5 Data Collection Instruments	40
3.5.1 The Questionnaire.....	41
2.5.2 Key Informant Interview	41
3.5.2 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)	41
3.5.3 Non Participant Observation	42
3.6 Data Analysis Techniques	42
CHAPTER FOUR	43
PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA.....	43
4.1 Results and Discussions	43
4.1.1 Demographic Characteristics.....	44
4.1.2 Means of Survival during times of Armed Conflicts	46
4.1.3 Provision of Basic Services	46
4.1.4 Rating the quality of water & sanitation service during Armed Conflicts	47
4.1.5 Rating the quality of health Service during armed conflicts	48
4.1.6 Rating the quality of Educational Service during Armed Conflicts.....	49
4.1.7 Rating the quality of Physical Infrastructure during Armed Conflicts.....	49
4.1.8 House Electrification access in South Sudan	51
4.1.9 Perspective of Institutions Responsible for provision of electricity.....	52
4.1.11 Housing status in South Sudan	53
4.2 Humanitarian crises (loss of lives & assets, population displacement, and food insecurity) Research Question 2.	54
4.2.1 Ownership of agricultural land for farming.....	55
4.2.2 Main staple food crops cultivated on farm land	56
4.2.3 Household Income Sources	57
4.2.4 Household Monthly Average Income	58
4.2.5 Household Yearly Average Income	59
4.2.6 Economic Status	60
4.2.7 Yearly Level of Saving of the Respondents	61
4.2.8 Investment of savings in South Sudan.....	62
4.2.9 Standard of Living 10 – 15 Years Ago.....	62
4.3 Socioeconomic conditions (poverty, disruption of basic services delivery) Research Question 3	63
4.3.1 Identification of Educational Facilities in the Area by the sample population .	64
4.3.2 Identification of Health Facilities in the Area	64
4.3.3 Accessibility to Adequate Portable Water	65
4.3.4 Reasons for No Accessibility to adequate portable Water	65
4.3.5 Road Status in the Area inhabited by the sample population	66
4.3.6 Ways on How Armed Conflicts Affect Households	67

4.3.7 State of Origin and Current State of Residence.....	68
4.4 Implication of the results	68
4.5 Limitations of the study	70
CHAPTER FIVE	72
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
.....	72
5.1 Summary of findings	72
4.2 Conclusions	74
5.3 Recommendations	74
5.4 Suggested Areas for Further Research	76
References	77
Appendices	87
Appendix I: Questionnaire.....	87
Appendix II: Interview Guide for the Key Informants.....	1
Appendix III: Check List for Focus Group Discussions	3

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AAPA	Addis Ababa Peace Agreement
AK-47	Kalashnikov (A Russian assault light machine gun)
AN	Anyar – nya (First South Sudanese Guerrilla Movement)
ANC	African National Congress
ARE	Arab Republic of Egypt
BCM	Billion Cubic Metres
CAR	Central African Republic
CCI	Compagnie de Constructions Internationale
CES	Central Equatorial State
CID	Conflict Induced Displacement
CPA	Comprehensive Peace Agreement
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EARO	East African Regional Organization
EDL	Episcopal Diocese of Lainya
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FRELIMO	Frente de Libertacao de Mocambique (Mozambique Liberation Front)
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GGOS	General Government of Sudan
GOSS	Government of South Sudan
GoSL	Government of Sri Lanka
HEC	Higher Executive Council
ICCA	International Council for Commercial Arbitration

IDPs	Internally Displaced Persons
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
IGADD	Intergovernmental Authority on Drought and Desertification
INGO	International Non- Government Organization
JCC	Juba City Council
JIT	Jonglei Investigation Team
LDCs	Least Developed Countries
LTTE	Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MPLA	Movimento popular de Libertacao de Angola (Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola)
NCP	National Congress Party
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PJTC	Permanent Joint Technical Committee
PRIO	International Peace Research Institute, Oslo - Norway
RENAMO	Resistencia Nacional de Mocambique (Mozambique National Resistance)
RPGs	Rocket propelled Grenades
RSS	Republic of South Sudan
SSCCSE	South Sudan Centre for Census and Statistical Evaluation
SSDA	South Sudan Demining Authority
SSDP	South Sudan Development Plan
SSLM/A	Southern Sudan Liberation Movement / Army
SSUP	Sudanese Socialist Union Party
SPLA/M	Sudan People's Liberation Army / Movement
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

STDs	Sexually Transmitted Diseases
UB	University of Buea– Republic of Cameroon
UJ	University of Juba – Republic of South Sudan
UN	United Nations
UNEP	United Nations Environment Program
UNHCR	United Nations Higher Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children Education Fund
UNITA	Uniao Nacional Para a Independencia Total de Angola (National Union for the Total Independence of Angola)
UNU	Upper Nile University – Republic of South Sudan
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UXO	Unexploded Ordinance
WB	World Bank
WCC	World Council of Churches
WDI	World Development Institute

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LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 The Map of South Sudan (South Sudan Center for Census and Statistical Evaluation).	3
Figure 2.1 Oil Storage Facility in Bentiu, Unity State,	21
Figure 3Figure 2.2 The Sudd Wetlands and Jonglei Canal Project Area, River Nile Basin, South Sudan (John Allen Transboundary Water Resources March 30, 2010)....	26
Figure 4.1 House Electrification access in South Sudan	51
Figure 4.3 Housing status in South Sudan.....	54
Figure 4.4 Ownership of agricultural land for farming	56
Figure 4.6 Household Yearly Average Incomes	60
Figure 4. 8 Yearly Level of Saving	61
Figure 4.9 Standard of Living 10 – 15 years ago	63
Figure 4.10 Accessibility to adequate portable water.....	65
Figure 4.11 Reasons for no accessibility of water.....	66
Figure 4.12 Road status in the area inhabited by the sample population	67
Figure 4.13 State of origin and current state of residence.	68

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Socio _demographic Characteristics of the Sample population	43
Table 4.2 Experience of Armed Conflict (Chronological order of conflicts in South Sudan).....	45
Table 4.3 Rating the quality of water and sanitation during armed conflicts.....	48
Table 4.4 Rating the quality of health service during armed conflict	48
Table 4.5 Rating of educational service during armed conflict.....	49
Table 4.6 Rating of Physical Infrastructure during armed conflicts.....	50
Table 4.8 Perspective of Institutions Responsible for Provision of Electricity in South Sudan	52

ABSTRACT

The world has witnessed and experienced conflicts in several forms, and this has enormously subjected humanity in untold suffering and unprecedented levels of destitutions and deprivation encountered by those who are directly or indirectly affected as a result. Sub-Saharan Africa, for instance, is a region highly plunged into conflicts as a result of either weak institutional governance structures put in place, or the manipulation of the system by the few ruling elites and their associates to retain and maintain power perpetually. This thesis examines the relationship between conflict and the socio-economic under-development of South Sudan as a case study. It is worth noting that, Sudan and South Sudan had been engaged in armed conflicts that lasted nearly forty years (1955-1972) and (1983-2005). The objectives of this study includes: to identify contributing factors to the insecurity in South Sudan, to assess the short, medium and long-term impacts of humanitarian crises on the social development and the affected population / communities, and to examine the socioeconomic conditions, and disruption of basic service delivery to the population of South Sudan. The study used both primary and secondary methods for data collection. The results obtained from the study indicate that, the majority of South Sudanese nationals have experienced various armed conflicts fought between Sudan and South Sudan resulting into general insecurity and therefore, retarded socioeconomic development, poverty, humanitarian crises and disruption of basic service delivery to the people and communities in South Sudan. Additionally, armed conflicts caused an immense destruction of both physical and economic infrastructure, and therefore rendering the economy of the country weak, and the civil population into a state of destitution and impoverishment because their means of survival are either destroyed or left behind due to insecurity. Accordingly, it is recommended that, warring parties in armed conflicts should not convert developmental facilities such as schools and hospitals into military barracks which are used to deliver basic service to the population and by so doing frightened workers who are supposed to manned these facilities, and therefore resulting into abandonment of these professions.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Conflict is a struggle between individuals or collectivities, over value or claims to status, power and scarce resources in which the aims of the opponents are to neutralize, injure or eliminate their rivals (Closier, 1956). In other words, conflict is an escalated competition at any system level between groups whose aim is to gain advantage in the area of power, resources, interests, and needs and at least one of the groups believes that this dimension of the relationship is mutually incompatible. Similarly, Stagner (1967) defines conflict as: A situation in which two or more human beings desire goals which they perceive as being obtainable by one or the other, but not by both; each party is mobilizing energy to obtain a goal, a desired object or situation and each party perceives the other as a barrier or threat to that goal.

Globally, conflicts exist and manifest themselves in various forms. In Africa, for instance the existing literature on conflict revealed that, an overwhelming majority of these conflicts are resource – based. Conflicts (Masari 2006). However, other forms or types of conflicts include the following:

- a) Ethnic and identity conflicts, e.g. Nigeria (Biafran war), Rwanda and Burundi (Hutus – Tutsi), Ivory Coast (North and South)
- b) Religious conflicts, e.g. Nigeria (Boko Haram, Muslims and Christians), Mali (Tuaregs in the North), Sudan (SPLA, Janjaweed and Darfur crises)
- c) Natural resources related conflicts, e.g. Nigeria (the Niger Delta Region), Sierra Leone (Foday Sankoh), and Liberia (Charles Taylor), the Democratic Republic of Congo (M 23 & others) and Angola.
- d) Territorial or boundary conflicts, e.g. Nigeria – Cameroon, Libya – Chad, Eritrea – Ethiopia, and Sudan – South Sudan.
- e) Interwoven conflicts, e.g. the Democratic Republic of Congo – Rwanda and many other conflicts in the Great Lakes Region of Africa and Sierra Leone – Liberia.

- f) Ideological conflicts, e.g. Democratic Republic of Congo (P. Lumumba and Mobutu Seseko), Angola (UNITA & MPLA), South Africa (Apartheid and ANC)
- g) Power struggle related conflicts, e.g. Republic of South Sudan (President Salva Kiir Mayardit – former vice president Dr. Riek Machar Teny Dhurgon), Burundi (President Pierre Nkurunziza – former opposition leader late Zedi Feruzi)
- h) The Arab spring, e.g. Tunisia (the ousting of Ben Ali), Egypt (the ousting of Hosni Mubarak), Libya (the ousting and death of Muammar Gaddafi).

Bissell (1996) identified and analyzed resource issues in relation to conflicts and put them in two main categories: first, the hard resources which he referred to them as strategic minerals such as (Gold, diamond, uranium, oil), and secondly he described water, food and land as neglected or soft resources. People however; sustain their living from land, water and other livelihood - sustaining resources which are derived from the environment. In different parts of the world, however, fierce competition exists for the control and access of these resources eventually leading to conflicts.

Development incorporates the diverse and broad aspirations of what might be called the good life in all its economic, social and political dimensions that each society sets, for itself (Cypher & Dietz, 2004). On the other hand, Streeten (1984), defined development as an attack on the chief evils of the world today: malnutrition, diseases, illiteracy, slums, unemployment, and inequality. Measured in terms of aggregate growth rates, global development has been a great success. But measured in terms of jobs, justice and the elimination of poverty, it has been a failure or only a partial success. Similarly, James D. Wolfensohn, the former World Bank (WB) President described development as a framework that is holistic and integrated approach to development strategies and programs that highlights the interdependence of all aspects of development strategy – social, structural, human, institutional, environmental, economic and financial (Esty & Ivanova, 2002).

In Africa however, the impact of cultural concepts, beliefs, and practices on development cannot be under estimated. Culture goes through an internal evolutionary and revolutionary process involving growth, greater heterogeneity, and coherence. It also goes through a process of change and adaptation as a result of contact with other

cultures, the influence of a dominant culture and the influence of the mass – media or communication technologies (such as the internet), etc. Much of the development thinking on economic progress in the 1950s and 1960s were summarized by the grand modernization vision or Rostow’s stages of economic growth hypothesis

1.1.1 Brief Socioeconomic History of South Sudan

The Republic of South Sudan (RSS) is 640,000 square kilometers, bordered by Sudan to the North, Central African Republic (CAR) to the West, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Uganda, and Kenya to the South and Ethiopia to the East (fig 1.1). South Sudan gained its independence on July 9th, 2011 following an internationally supervised referendum that allowed the people of South Sudan to decide either for South Sudan to become an independent state or remain within a united Sudan. South Sudan has an estimated population of about 11.3 million people distributed across the ten states SSCCSE (South Sudan Centre for Census & Statistical Evaluation, 2008). 90 % of this population is living in rural areas

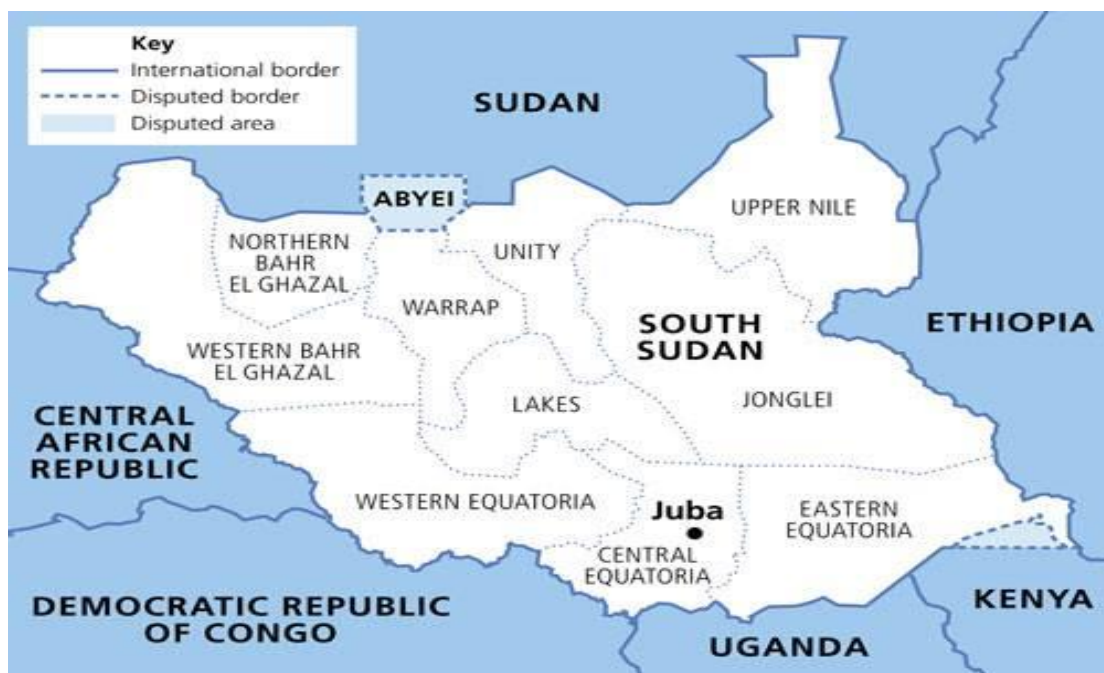


Figure 1.1 The Map of South Sudan (South Sudan Center for Census and Statistical Evaluation).

Before independence, Sudan was engaged in two bloody conflicts within itself. The first conflict erupted eight months before Sudan attained its independence from Britain and lasted for seventeen years (1955 -1972), i.e. it ended in 1972 after the signing of Addis Ababa Peace Accord (AAPA), while the second conflict was from 1983 – 2005 after the late president Jaafar Mohammed Nimeiri declared Sudan as an Islamic country and should therefore be governed by Islamic sharia law. This second conflict was brought to an end by the historic Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) signed in Nairobi, Kenya in July, 2005 by the two principal warring parties in Sudan I.e. Sudan People's Liberation Army / Movement in the South under the leadership of late Dr. John Garang De Mabior, and the National Congress Party in the North under the current president of Sudan General Omar Hassan El- Bashir (SPLA/M & NCP).

With the signing of the AAPA in 1972, and the issuing of the permanent constitution in May 1973, most Southerners expected that an adequate and comprehensive provisions existed whereby a lasting peace, political stability, economic development and social progress could be established for the benefit of all citizens in the South after the ravages of the 17-year civil war (1955 -1972) Poggo, (2009). The Addis Ababa Agreement laid down in clear terms the guidelines for the creation of both political and administrative organs (the People's Regional Assembly and the Higher Executive Council (HEC) respectively for the people of the Southern Region which, for the first time was granted regional autonomy within the framework of the Democratic Republic of Sudan: Juba being the capital of South. Throughout the latter part of 1970s serious discontent with the system began to accumulate particularly from 1981 when President Nimeiri, for the second time in less than two years unconstitutionally dissolved the Southern Region Government.

The Decision in May 1983 by Nimeiri who was the fifth president of Sudan to divide the South into three regions – Upper Nile, Bahr El- Ghazal and Equatoria, each region being headed by a Governor appointed by Nimeiri, and aided by a Deputy Governor and five regional Ministers was seen not only as an act of aggression by the Central Government.

This is not only as lack of respect of the key provisions of AAPA, but also designed to further weaken the South in all aspects, thereby resulting in further social and economic inequality, not only between North and South but also between the three Southern

Regions. Such an act was unwelcomed by the Equatorians, who had long protested that the Dinka of Bahr El- Ghazal and Upper Nile Regions had dominated Southern politics, jobs, and therefore the wealth of the Southern economy. It is now apparent; however, to the original advocate of re-division, General Joseph Lagu, and many Equatorians that re-division was a disastrous mistake with no economic benefits to be gained for the majority of Southerners (Alier, 1973).

Many attempts and controversial decisions were made by the Central Government in the North to frustrate the Regional Government and to annex some vital and strategic locations in the South, this includes: The dissolution of the Regional Assembly and Governments in 1980, 1981 and 1983 as well as Nimeiri's unsuccessful attempts to redefine the boundaries between North and South, so that the oil rich area around Bentiu, the fertile lands of Renk, together with the nickel and uranium deposits all fall into the Northern territory further aggravated the already tense relations between Khartoum and the South. (Said & Breidlid 2014)

Key provisions of AAPA and interim protocols include the following:

- i. The provinces of Bahr el Ghazal, Equatoria and Upper Nile, based on the boundaries as they stood 1 January, 1956, constituted a self- governing within Sudan known as Southern Region.
- ii. The Southern Region had its own legislative and executive organs
- iii. Southerners elected the members of a People's Regional Assembly, an organ that legislated on certain issues set out in the Addis Ababa Agreement
- iv. A High Executive Council (HEC) headed by the president appointed by the president of Sudan on recommendations of the People's Regional Assembly supervised the executive organs of the Southern Region
- v. The President of Sudan appointed and relieved members of the HEC on the recommendation of its President.
- vi. The HEC President and its members were responsible to the president of Sudan and the People's Regional Assembly

- vii. Persons from the Southern Region were to constitute a “sizeable proportion of the People’s Armed Forces in such reasonable numbers as will correspond to the population of the region.
- viii. There was a temporary arrangement covering the first five years whereby the armed forces in the Southern Region would consist of a national force called the Southern Command composed of 12, 000 officers and men of whom 6,000 would come from the South and 6,000 from the North
- ix. Juba was the Capital of the Southern Region and the location of HEC and the People’s Regional Assembly
- x. There was freedom of religious opinion and the right to profess it publicly
- xi. Arabic was the official language for Sudan and English the principal language for the Southern Region without prejudice to the use of other languages
- xii. There was an extensive section dealing with revenue collection and grants for the Southern Region
- xiii. Importantly, the Addis Ababa Agreement specified that, it would be amended only by three- quarters vote in the national assembly and a two- thirds vote in a referendum of the Southern electorate (Beshir, 1975; Wai, 1981; Wondu & Lesch, 2000).

1.1.1.1. Social Amenities and Education in Sudan prior to the start of armed conflict

The educational policy carried out in South Sudan since 1954 was designed to Arabized and Islamized the African black people who reside in the southern part of the Country, which deliberately was used as a means of assimilating them into Arab group through Arabization and Islamization. This policy has frustrated the few elites from the south and has been the cause of stagnation and set-back in the educational advancement of the South. For instance, at young and tender ages of 12 to 16 years students in the South are said to be old and not fit enough to continue with education. The policy has caused irreparable damage to the South, and as a result, education and religion constitute major issues not only in the North – South armed conflict, but also in the socio - economic development of the latter. Young girls from the South who were in school were forced

to be circumcised against their will (Said, & Bredlid, 2014). This has negative impact in school enrollment rate, and therefore increases illiteracy level among women in the South. Women participated actively in the resistance put up against General Abboud's barbaric regime and its policies. The first female martyr, Bakhita Al-Hayfa was shot during a demonstration against Abboud. The women in the South also made significant contributions during the civil war. Some fought alongside with their male counterparts on the front lines while others travelled with the guerrilla groups, carrying supplies and providing medical support and care to the wounded or sick ones. Although some served willingly, others were being coerced into the war activities against their will. After all the years of the civil war most infrastructures were demolished and social institutions dismantled in the South. Schools and hospitals were destroyed, and many qualified teachers were either killed, abducted or became guerrilla fighters or went into exile.

Before the occurrence of these conflicts, the few educational and health facilities that were established by international development partners and missionaries were properly maintained and taken care. Schools and health units in all the states affected by the civil war are either burnt down by the warring parties or left in ruins. The states that were badly affected include: Jonglei, Unity, and Upper Nile States. Teachers, and health workers in those states affected by the conflict were either relocated to conflict free areas or some have abandoned their profession and sought alternative ways and means of making a living. On the other hand, schools and health facilities in government controlled areas lack the basic supplies and the regular monthly remunerations for the personnel working in these vital sectors. The overall picture is that, the general level of education and health delivery system has drastically fallen. The previous and the current conflicts were squarely blamed for these. The civil war was the main reason why two generations in South Sudan were without schooling. According to (UNICEF 2002), during the later stages of the civil war (1983 – 2005), only 12 % of all the pupils in Southern Sudan in grades 1 – 8 were in the top four grades, and 88 % were in grades 1 – 4. Almost 40% of all pupils were in grade 1 and 22% were in grade 2, and the other 38% are either at home with their parents or engaged in the army as child soldiers. According to UNICEF, retention was perceived to be the major problem for these pupils who were in school.

1.1.1.2. The erosion of livelihoods during armed conflicts

The greater proportion of the population in Africa relies heavily on land, water, forestry, and other natural resources for their living and survival. The population in South Sudan is not an exception. South Sudan and Sudan has been engaged in protracted conflicts that have devastated the region and shattered the lives of the majority of South Sudanese people. The first conflict erupted barely eight months before Sudan attained its independence from Great Britain in January 1, 1956, and was settled through the AAPA in 1972, whilst the second conflict broke out on May 16, 1985 and ended in July 2005, through the historic CPA, signed in Nairobi, Kenya by the Sudan People's Liberation Army / Movement (SPLA/M), under the leadership of late Dr. John Garang De Mabior, and the National Congress Party (NCP), under the leadership of current president of Sudan General Omar Hassan El – Beshir. This peace agreement was brokered by the Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD), a Regional body that comprises of Djibouti, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan, Uganda and (starting in 2011) South Sudan , and the international community that allowed the people of South Sudan to secede / separate through an internationally supervised referendum or live within a united Sudan. (Comprehensive Peace Agreement, Nairobi, July 2005)

It's worth noting that, IGAD in Eastern Africa Regional was founded in 1996. Its precursor IGADD (Intergovernmental Authority on Drought and Desertification) had been founded in 1986 with a narrow mandate to response to drought, famine and other natural calamities that hit the region between 1974 and 1984 respectively. The mission of IGAD, however, besides securing food and protecting environment also enhance economic cooperation and promotion and the maintenance of peace and development throughout the entire region.

The vast majority of South Sudanese live on agriculture, livestock keeping, fishing, hunting and gathering of wild fruits for household consumption, bartering and petty business. With the onset of conflicts from (1955 -1972) and (1983 -2005), variety of military hardware (weapons) were used by belligerent parties in the battlefields ranging from light fire – arms such as G-3, G-4, Kalashnikov (AK-47), anti air- craft launchers, rocket propelled grenades (RPGs), ant- personnel mines, and anti - tanks mines, etc. The contamination of fertile agricultural land, grazing areas, fishing sites, water points,

anthills and forestry with land mines prevents farmers from accessing this suitable land for agricultural production and productivity, land mines become a major threat to both livestock and livestock keepers, fishing becomes impossible because fishing sites are mined by both warring parties. Water points for both human beings and animals are no longer accessible because of land mines threat. Women and girls do not feel safe to go and collect fire wood in the forest. The same applies to wild game hunters and wild fruit collection.

1.1.2 Impact of conflicts on people and communities

Livelihoods are referred to as comprising the ways in which people access and mobilize resources to enable them pursue goals necessary for their survival and longer term well-being, and thereby reduce vulnerability created and exacerbated by conflict (Young, 2002 in Seddon & Hussein, 2002). Livelihoods could either be on-farm or off-farm livelihoods and are reinforced by people's capacity in many aspects such as: Social fabrics, safety net capacity, coping mechanism in case there are stresses or shocks, and many others.

The impact of conflicts on the communities and the people of South Sudan vary according to the duration, location and the intensity of the conflict. But the vast majority of South Sudanese bear the brunt of the conflicts. The impact of conflicts can be put into three categories as enumerated below.

i. Insecurity

- **Weak administration:** Administrative institutions at the national, state and the local levels remain weak, under – staffed and under - resourced, resulting in the inability to provide basic social services
- **Law and order remain weak:** There has been a prevalence of violence with the proliferation of small arms and light weapons that exacerbates the impact of disputes. In turn, the laying of land mines has affected economic / agricultural production and productivity, road infrastructure, as well as having long – term humanitarian impact

ii. Humanitarian

- **Loss of life and assets:** The conflict has taken a tremendous toll on people's lives, causing mortality rates to increase. About 1.7 million people died during the first conflict (1955 – 1972), and another 2.5

million in the second conflict (1983 -2005). Estimate for the current conflict which broke out in mid December 2013, are not available. Atrocities committed during the conflict continue up to now, child abduction, forced child recruitment, death of youth and women, torture and maiming, destruction of property, all profound impact on the economy of South Sudan

- **Population displacement:** Approximately, four million people have been internally and externally displaced from South Sudan. One million people returned from the North after independence in July, 2011.
- **Food insecurity:** The majority of the displaced have limited access to land. Of those who have the land, many have not been able to till their land because of insecurity and have been dependent on external food supply. The result of food insecurity is high levels of chronic and acute malnutrition.

iii. Socio – economic

- **Poverty:** South Sudan **remains** one of the world's poorest countries, lagging behind on all socio – economic indicators as presented on this chapter above
- **Disruption of basic social service delivery:** The conflicts have resulted into displacement leading to the loss of access to healthcare services and education.

An entire generation of South Sudanese children has grown up without adequate formal education, the effect of which is only being felt in South Sudan (South Sudan Development Plan 2011 – 2013).

The conflicts in South Sudan had affected livelihoods in several ways, and the most important ones include the following:

- i. **Loss of life:** The capacities and the incomes of households are directly and drastically affected when there is an increment in the number of the people who die because of these conflicts
- ii. Forced migration and particularly, the displacement of men who were perceived to be bread winners of their families and hence rendering them vulnerable because coping mechanisms are lost due to the new environment

- iii. Inability to maintain a disincentive to improve farmland due to insecurity, and hence leading to food insecurity
- iv. Break down of social cohesion (social fabrics), making the weaker members of the community more vulnerable due to lack of support from the well-off members of the community

Due to out – migration, on –farm livelihood or labor will be lost in most areas that were affected by the conflicts again subjecting the area to food insecurity.

1.1.3 General standard of living

Violent conflict causes tragic loss of life and destruction of the infrastructure of the country that erodes the nation's economic resources and causes suffering to the people of South Sudan (CPA, 2005). The country is in poor economic conditions due to the ongoing conflict between the government and the opposition. Food prices have risen sharply especially in major towns and cities across the country. Most health facilities don't have basic drugs and medicines to treat simple sickness. Much of the country's resources are diverted to finance the current civil conflict at the detriment of basic services supposed to be rendered to the citizens.

1.2 Problem Statement

Following years of armed conflict in Sudan, from 1955 – 1972 and from 1983 – 2005 there has been very little opportunity for development planners to formulate and implement suitable development plans due to constant fighting, destruction of both physical and economic infrastructure and migration of the people. The protracted armed conflicts degenerated into: insecurity (weak administration, disrespect for the rule of law), humanitarian crises (loss of lives and assets, population displacement, food insecurity), and socioeconomic conditions (poverty, and disruption of social service delivery).

However, in South Sudan, there is as yet no study undertaken to concretely measure and describe the extent to which conflict has negatively impacted on the development goals and aspirations of the people. The United Nations and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) report of 2004 indicate a high rate of poverty in Southern Sudan at a proportion of 90 percent though no inclusive data has been made available. This fairly reflects the prevalence of insecurity and absence of basic infrastructure for

getting the local economy rolling in that time of war. In war situations however, there is no formal employment although at the current situation where at least a small percentage of the population is engaged in government and business activities.

In education sector for instance, there was a small proportion of 9 % of students in lower secondary school in Southern Sudan in comparison to 91 % northerners. The 1956 census showed 2,783,000 (28 %) South Sudanese and 7,480,000 (72 %) Northern Sudanese respectively. The proportion of girls in schools was 2 percent for South and 98 percent for the north. Other indicators including higher and technical schools were reading zero for the south and University 5 percent probably due to a number of students coming from East Africa (Oduho & Deng 1963.). The literature behind conflict Suhrke (1996), Baechler (1998), Percival and Homer-Dixon (1998), and Gleditsch (2001) has shown that long periods of war prevent development in all facets of life. This is a direct result of the uncertainty of livelihoods; the incapacity to promote sustainable development in the areas of agriculture (Timberlake, 1991). It is in the light of the above that, this study examines the social impact and effect of conflict on the development of South Sudan.

1.3. Research Questions

- i. How has insecurity impeded human development in South Sudan?
- ii. How have the conflicts affected socio-economic conditions and basic service delivery to the people /communities in South Sudan?
- iii. How has the humanitarian crisis affected the social development of South Sudan?

1.4 General objective

Generally, the study was carried out with an objective to explore the impact of conflicts on human development.

1.4.1 Specific objectives

- i. To identify contributing factors to the insecurity that impede the human development in South Sudan
- ii. To assess the short, medium and long-term impacts of humanitarian crises on social development and the affected population / communities

- iii. To examine the socio-economic conditions, and disruption of basic service delivery to the population of South Sudan.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study will cover the activities of conflicts that have been the focus of previous studies on South Sudan. Other entities that will also make use of and benefit from this study will include, but not limited to the following:

Firstly, the findings of this study will inform policy and decision makers, politicians, senior military personnel and other stakeholders on the dangers and consequences of conflicts on social development and service delivery. Policy development and dissemination is also another important area that informs and facilitates policy makers in formulation of sound decisions and strategies.

Secondly, the academic community with special focus on the following areas: Theory-building, teaching which will be assimilated by the recipients, publishing and knowledge creation. All these are meant to reinforce each other and to improve people's lives and their well-being.

Thirdly, information generated from this study will assist development actors in the following areas: formulation of sound initiatives / interventions, strategies, action plans development and implementation mechanisms with clear budgetary allocation.

1.6 The Organization of the Study

All of the study will be organized in the following manner: Chapter Two will cover literature review; Chapter Three is for the methodology of the study, Chapter Four presentation and analysis of data, and finally Chapter Five discussion of findings, conclusion and recommendations.

1.7 Scope of the Study

Due to the vastness of the Republic of South Sudan, this study will be confined to the following areas:

- i. **Geographic:** This study will focus on Central Equatoria State, and three other conflict hotspots in South Sudan. These include Jonglei State, Unity State, and Upper Nile State respectively.

- ii. **Contextual:** The study will cover events that took place from the onset of the first civil conflict that erupted immediately after Sudan attained its independence (1955 – 1972), and the resurgence of the conflict 1983 – 2005. Briefly, the study will also touch the recent conflict that erupted in mid – December 2015.

Definition of Terms:

Conflict: A struggle between individuals or collectivities, over value or claims to status, power and scarce resources in which the aims of the opponents are either to neutralize, injure or eliminate their rivals (Closely 1956).

Development: Incorporates the diverse and broad aspirations of what might be called the good life in all its social, economic, and political dimensions that each society sets, if only implicitly, for itself (Cyphier & Dietz, 2004).

Drought: Is a period of aridness, particularly when protracted, that causes widespread harm or damage to crops or livestock, human beings inclusive, hence prevents their growth and survival. Insufficient rainfall and unfavorable weather conditions are natural causes of drought.

Famine: It is a phenomenon in which a large proportion / percentage of the population is so undernourished that death by starvation becomes common (Jenny, 2000).

Desertification: Is ascribed as land degradation in arid, semi-arid and dry sub-humid areas resulting from adverse human impact (UNEP, 1992).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Literature Review

This Chapter serves to present relevant literature on basic concepts on insecurity (weak administration, disrespect for the rule of law), humanitarian crises (loss of lives and assets, population displacement, food insecurity), and socioeconomic conditions (poverty, disruption in social service delivery).

After the end of World War II (1939 -1945), colonialism (1960s), cold war (1998), and Apartheid (1994) many believed Africa will witness stability and prosperity, however, these expectations and dreams were not nourished by many at the end. The relationship between poverty, conflict and development in analyzing instability in the African continent is very strong.

2.1.1 Insecurity (weak administration, disrespect for the rule of law)

Territorial despotes, armed conflict, civil wars, violence and the collapse of governments all represent greatest challenges to peace, security, and stability. However, Wanyande (1997) argued that, whenever conflict occurs, the development of the society in most time is affected. Similarly, Gurr and Marshall (2003) argued that most African conflicts are caused by the combination of poverty and weak states and institutions and these had a devastating impact on development. Additionally, the exploitation of ethnic differences was a common feature of colonial rule in Africa. In Rwanda (1960 -1964) and Burundi (1970- 74) there were outbreaks of ethnic strife and genocide. In Rwanda alone, the 1994 genocide claimed an estimated 1 million people. The colonizers nationalized that the fair skin color and the economic power of Tutsi were unlike the genuine Negro of African natives and possessed features similar to the Europeans (Shyaka, 2005; Gourevitch, 1998). To further complete social divisions between Hutus and Tutsi, the Belgians began issuing identity cards after conducting a census in 1933 (Gourevitch, 1998). Establishing the practice of identity cards furthered Tutsi superiority that made it easier to discriminate Hutus from Rwandan society.

2.1.2 Humanitarian crises (loss of lives & assets, population displacement, food insecurity)

Between 1998- 2002 about four million people died in the civil war that ravaged the Democratic Republic of Congo (Report of the Commission of Africa (RCA), 2005: 107). The civil war in South Sudan saw the increase of women headed households since the husbands had either died or engaged in the battle fronts. Women were then supposed to take care of the children and look after the field crops, cattle and the poultry, etc. Women walked long distances, carrying children and luggage on their backs, running away from attacks. Agriculture, animal husbandry, fishing, and petty trade are the main source of livelihoods across South Sudan, the majority of people are making a living out of these activities. With the onset of these conflicts, life status has change and some of these activities are drastically disrupted due to insecurity. During the second conflict (1983 – 2005), the warring parties heavily mined fertile agricultural land rendering it unsuitable for farming, grazing land for cattle the same, and the road infrastructure hence making the movement of people, goods and services from one place to another virtually difficult. Therefore, people's livelihoods are eroded and social cohesion between families, and communities are significantly affected by the conflict. The loss of livelihoods affected their socio – economic status (Dava, et al, 2013).

In the Central African Republic, over 207, 000 people have fled to the neighboring countries since December alone; bring the total number the total number of refugees to 462,000 as of June 2014 (UN, 2015). The conflict in CAR is religious- based, and many Muslim traders and shopkeepers have also fled since 2013. Some 369,000 more people are internally displaced within CAR About 2.7 million people almost half of CAR's population reportedly in need of humanitarian assistance. Humanitarian conditions prior to the current conflict were already poor due to the legacy of past conflicts and lack of basic social services. Harvests have decreased by nearly 58 % from pre-conflict levels and food aid is routinely pillaged.

2.1.3 Socioeconomic conditions (poverty, disruption in basic social service delivery)

During the ten years of relative peace (1973 – 1983) few new schools and health facilities were constructed mostly in state capitals and major towns throughout the

South and old and dilapidated ones were rehabilitated as well. South Sudan is a poor region, despite its abundant natural resources, largely attributed to protracted conflict. 51 % of South Sudanese are poor (55 % live in rural areas and 24 % in urban areas). Eighty percent of poor households depend on agriculture for livelihoods. Education and health indicators are among the lowest in the world, reflecting the impact of protracted civil wars and limited provision of social services. Only 27 % of the adult population is literate, compare with 87 % in Kenya, and less than half of all primary school – age children are in school (51 % of boys and 37 % of girls). In 2006, the infant mortality rate was 102 / 1,000 live births, while the maternal mortality rate was 2,054 / 100, 000 live births the highest in the world/region (rates for neighboring Kenya and Uganda were 530 and 430 respectively) South Sudan Development Plan (SSDP 2011 -2013S)

Most South Sudanese are engaged in agriculture and grazing activities, and oil the public sector dominates the formal economy. Unemployment and underemployment are very high with little informal sector employment. Oil provides 98 % of public sector revenue and almost all foreign exchange earnings, thus making South Sudan economy vulnerable to changes in oil prizes and oil production levels. Furthermore, oil production has peaked and is projected to decline sharply over the next ten years. While this oil production provides the much needed revenue, the extreme dependence on oil creates a major challenge for macroeconomic and fiscal management and the pending sharp decline in oil income exacerbates this situation.

Since independence in 1956, the Northern politicians and the various Khartoum governments have not been concerned with political and socio- economic development of the South. When the Regional Government was established after the Addis Ababa Agreement, natural resource exploration became a constant demand from Southern Sudan. The Agreement gave the Southern Regional Assembly authority to legislate on mining and quarrying without prejudice to the right of Central Government in the event of the discovery of natural gas and minerals (Wondu & Lesch, 2000). Although, there was a considerable agricultural potential in the South, but also exist a variety of minerals which if utilized sensibly would bring substantial economic benefits to the Sudanese people.

2.1.4 Chronological History of South Sudan Conflict

- i. 1881 – Revolt against the Turko – Egyptian administration

- ii. 1899- 1955 – Sudan is under joint British – Egyptian rule
- iii. 1955 beginning of first civil war between north and south
- iv. 1956 Independence – end of British – Egyptian condominium rule
- v. 1958- General Abboud military coup which overthrows first civilian government
- vi. 1964 – General Abboud toppled by popular uprising
- vii. 1969 – General Jaafar Nimeiri becomes president through military revolution
- viii. 1972 – Signing of Addis Ababa Peace Agreement, that granted autonomy to the South, and ends 17 years of civil war
- ix. 1978 – First Chevron oil discoveries near Bentiu and Heglig, estimated to be more than Saudi Arabia 15 million barrels per day
- x. 1978 – Joint Sudanese-Egyptian financing project was launched to construct the Jonglei Canal through Sudd marshes of the South, employing the French CCI company's redundant excavator
- xi. 1980 – Jonglei Canal construction begins, despite local and international protest
- xii. 1981 – Chevron discovers commercial oil deposits in Unity (South) field north of Bentiu, with neighbouring Heglig field in South Kordofan, recoverable reserve is estimated at 236 million barrels
- xiii. 1982 – Kosti oil refinery project frozen in favour of pipeline being construction from Bentiu to Port Sudan in the north
- xiv. 1983- Civil war re-ignites and leads to the formation of SPLA/M under the leadership of Col. Dr. John Garang de Mabior
- xv. 1989 – Lt. Gen Al-Beshir and Hassan Al Turabi 's National Islamic Front (NIF) came to power through military coup
- xvi. 1991- Peace negotiations with the regime in Khartoum begins and sponsored by Kenya
- xvii. 1993 – John Garang proposes referendum on South Sudan self-determination.
- xviii. 1994 – IGADD start peace process and establish a Declaration of Principles
- xix. 2005 - Government and Southern rebels sign comprehensive peace agreement
- xx. 2010 – National elections return Al- Bashir as president of Sudan, and SalvaKiir as president of South Sudan
- xxi. 2011 – South Sudan votes overwhelmingly (99 %) in favor of independence in a vote widely regarded as free, fair and credible.

- xxii. 2013 – To date Civil war broke out within the governing party SPLA/M killing thousands and displacing hundreds of thousands internally and externally.

2.1.5 Root causes of conflict between Sudan and South Sudan, and within South Sudan itself

Based on South Sudan's historical chronology, the following are some of the root causes of conflict between Sudan and South Sudan:

- i. **Resources:** Sudan's largest oil reserves are in the South, and the North wants to have control over them
- ii. **Identity:** Ethnic/ religious dimension is a potent factor in an almost civil war that lasts 1955 – 2005 with ten years of relative peace (1973 -1983)
- iii. **History:** The Muslim expansion swept much of North and West Africa stopped short of converting the Christian and Animist blacks of South Sudan. Under British colonization, North and South Sudan were ruled separately, furthering the distinction between the two entities
- iv. The British colonial administration did not promote egalitarianism in Sudan

Immediately after the independence of South Sudan (mid December 2013), violent internal conflict broke out within the country's governing party Sudan People's Liberation Movement, which boiled over into full scale civil war in the nation's capital Juba.

Below are the root causes of the conflict between Sudan People's Liberation Movement in Government (SPLM –IG) and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement in Opposition (SPLM-IO)

- i. Power struggle/competition within the ruling party
- ii. Political and ethnic dimension
- iii. Concentration of power /authority, influence, resources, and decision-making process on the hands of few individuals within the government of South Sudan
- iv. Institutionalized tribalism
- v. Rampant corruption and nepotism within government institutions.

There are two highly political and controversial developmental projects in South Sudan. First, in 1974, the Government of Sudan (GOS) issued an exploration license to

Chevron, an American oil company which discovered oil four years later around Bentiu, a Nuer area in the North Western fringe of Upper Nile, and in 1980 again, Khartoum granted Total another American oil company a concession further South in the former districts of Bor, Pibor and Kapoeta. After the discovery of the oil, the Northern Government attempted to redraw the North- South boundary by placing the oil producing area in a newly created Unity Province attached to the North. This move was met with stiff resistance from the South and the authorities in Khartoum finally dropped the idea, but went on to replace Southern soldiers with Northern soldiers in the Bentiu oil producing area and insisted that, the North retain all concession fees paid by Chevron and other companies operating even deeper in the South. The Government in Khartoum ruled that, oil income should accrue to the central government rather than the Southern Region and all decisions concerning exploration concessions should be made without consulting the Southern government (Lesch, 2000). On the other hand, the Southern Region insisted that, any oil refinery be built near the source of the oil in the South in order to facilitate the local development. To avoid the crises at hand, the Central Government in Khartoum decided to build a pipeline from Bentiu to Port Sudan on the red sea in lieu of refinery. This provided no benefits to the South. The GOS ruled against a pipeline running south from Bentiu to Mombasa on the Kenyan coast as suggested by Southerners on the grounds that, it was not feasible economically or politically (Malwal, 1981; & Malwal 1985; Alier, 1992; Johnson, 1992; Garang, 1992;). The former president of the HEC Mr. Abel Alier concluded by identifying two factors that significantly contributed to the abrogation of Addis Ababa Agreement: Discovery of oil, and the transfer of Southern troops to the North and Northern troops to the production area at Bentiu (Alier, 1992). One of the first areas that came under heavy attack by Southern forces after the abrogation of the Agreement was the Chevron operation near Bentiu. The Anya Nya Iland SPLA jointly shutdown Chevron operations in the South by the end of 1984 (Garang & Woodward, 1984).



***Figure 2.1 Oil Storage Facility in Bentiu, Unity State,
Republic of South Sudan (National Ministry of Petroleum & Mining).***

The second major and controversial development project in the South was the Jonglei Canal Project. Moorhead (2008) described the Sudd of Southern Sudan as a formidable swamp in the world. According to Moorhead, the Nile loses itself into a vast of papyrus ferns and rotting vegetation. From year to year the current along the Nile brings down more floating vegetation that packs into solid chunks about twenty feet thick strong enough for an elephant to walk on. The Sudd area varies in size between (30,000 – 40,000) square kilometers and can expand to double that size during the wet season, making it one of the largest wetlands in the world (Lamberts, 2009). This region is neither land nor water. During the second half of the nineteenth century, the explorers who were looking for the source of the Nile past through the Sudd attested this. (Baker, 2002). The colonial administration (Anglo – Egyptian) Sudan established in 1898, quickly realized the potential of the Sudd as well as other swamps of Southern Sudan to help augment the flow of the Nile. Water resource was needed to expand cotton production in Egypt to meet the growing needs of the textile industry in Lancashire - UK (Tvedt 2004).

With the growing economic interest in the region, Sir William Garstin in 1904, the undersecretary of State for public work in Egypt, published an influential report (Garstin 1904) which commissioned a thorough investigation of the White Nile and its

tributaries. To bypass the Sudd, Garstin recommended the excavation of a new channel of about 340 kilometers to bring water from the upper Nile to (Bahr el Jebel) at Bor directly to the confluence of the White Nile and the River Sobat. This proposal was the origin of what was later known as Jonglei Canal Project. In the early 1920s, Garstin proposal was reconsidered, but could not be implemented due to poor relation between Britain and Egypt in the mid – 1920s associated to the assassination of the governor general of the Sudan, Sir Lee Stack in Cairo (Gaitskell 1959). In mid – 1930s and again in 1946 the colonial administration thoroughly reviewed its interest and eventually established Jonglei Investigation Team (JIT), which produced a report in 1953 (Howell, Lock, and Cobb 1988). By then Egypt was mainly preoccupied with Aswan High Dam and Jonglei Canal took a back seat. The 1959 Nile water Agreement between Egypt and Sudan covered detailed provisions on projects for preserving waters of the swamps of Southern Sudan. This agreement also established the total annual flow of the Nile (measured at Aswan) as 84 bcm, where Egypt was allocated 55.5 bcm while Sudan was allowed to use 18.5 bcm annually. The remaining 10 bcm represents the evaporation and seepage at the large reservoir (Lake Nasser) created by the Aswan High Dam in southern Egypt and northern Sudan. However, planning for the construction of Jonglei Canal will not take off until 1974, after the temporary end of Sudan's civil war and conclusion of the Addis Ababa Peace Accord in 1972. Based on the 1904 Garstin proposal, the newly designed project consisted of 360 – kilometre canal (twice the length of Suez Canal in the Arab Republic of Egypt) from Bahr el Jebel at Kongor district of Jonglei to the junction of White Nile and the River Sobat. The developmental components for the project area included the following:

- A large-scale irrigation scheme for sugar growing and processing,
- All - year road,
- Bridges,
- River transport links, and
- Educational, livestock and health facilities.

In 1974, Sudan established a National Council for the Development of the Jonglei Canal area, nonetheless, the (Sudanese–Egyptian) Permanent Joint Technical Committee (PJTC) established under the 1959 Nile Agreement continued to have

supervisory responsibility for the project. The cost of the project was estimated at US\$ 260 million; costs and benefits were to be divided equally between Egypt and Sudan. Upon completion, the canal was expected to add close to 5bcm of water to the flow to the White Nile. Similar amount of water was expected from the second canal that drains the remaining swamps in the Sudd area of Bahr el Jebel and Bahr el Zeraf. Previous studies indicated that similar quantity of water was drained from Bahr el Ghazal swamps and the Machar marshes. Cumulatively, the four projects could double the flow of the White Nile (Waterbury, 2002).

The contract for the construction of Jonglei canal was awarded to the French Consortium Compagnie de Constructions Internationale (commonly known as CCI), which had excavated similar project in Pakistan. Engineers and technicians from France, Pakistan, and Sudan were employed in addition to the local labourers. The Jonglei canal project encountered major opposition from the start in Southern Sudan because it was viewed as serving the interest of Northern Sudan and Egypt. Local and international actors voiced concerns that the canal could have negative impacts on the Sudd ecosystem and on local livelihoods – specially, on drinking water, pastures, fisheries, and access to either side of the canal by pastoral communities and their herds and wildlife (Yongo – Bure 2007). Opposition to the project was fuelled by an confirm reports indicated that, about two million Egyptian farmers are going to be resettled in the canal area (Collin, 2002, Johnson, 2003; Alier, 1992, & Khalid, 2003) Students across entire Southern Sudan rioted against the project; three people were shot and kill during those riots. Implementation of the project started in 1978 after the situation has calmed down. By November 1983, about 260 kilometers of the canal's 360 were already completed. Following the unpredictable developments in the South, the Sudan People's Liberation Army / Movement which was formed in May 1983 carried out attack on the canal site. In total the SPLA/M carried out three major attacks on the Jonglei canal site – On November 16, 1983, February 6, 1984, and February 10, 1984 – and the final attack brought to a complete halt (ICCA 1988). Since then, the huge excavator had been abandoned there and rusting in the middle of the swamp about 100 kilometers north of Bor, the present Jonglei State capital. The completed portion of the canal had turned into huge ditch which had impeded the movement of human beings, animals and wildlife in the area (Yongo – Bure 2007).

The major complain raised by SPLA/M against the implementation of the project squarely lies on the benefits that Egypt and Sudan would derive once the project is completed, and neglected developmental components of the project intended to help South Sudan develop. Such components had not even being implemented in 1983, although they were perceived to be the integral part of the project (Oduho 1983). Today, many actors were concerned about the Sudd ecosystem and the rights of the people of South Sudan who had live there for so many years. They keep a close eye on any plans for the revival of the project. These actors include: Local, regional and international civil society organizations. It's worth noting that, the Sudd was officially recognized on November 1, 2006 under the Ramsar Convention (Ramsar Convention Secretariat 2012) as an internationally important wetland. It is the third largest Ramsar site in the world after the Okavango Delta in Botswana, and the Queen Maud Gulf in Canada. The following are some of the benefits envisaged by the Jonglei Canal Investigation Team:

- An additional four billion cubic meters of water will be saved for irrigation and power generation purposes in Northern Sudan and Arab Republic of Egypt (A.R.E),
- The project will also reclaim 300, 000 Feddans of land on the west bank of the river in the stage of development, and perhaps as much as 3.7 million Feddans in the long term
- Construction of community services and infrastructure which includes: Opening of new schools, medical and veterinary clinics, in addition to water supply facilities to the existing settlements
- Some of the envisaged projects included were to cover the following areas: Livestock, crops, fisheries, integrated rural development in Kongor District hundred miles north of Bor, headquarters of Jonglei state.

On the other hand, environmentalists, conservationists, sociologists, and economists regarded the following as disadvantages of Jonglei canal once the project once is completed:

- Wildlife would be dying in their thousands every year, especially during dry season. This is because they cannot reach the main Nile as their routes have been cut off or blocked by the canal.
- As for the local people, they remained displaced and many of them have managed to migrate to the cities and towns, because they live in deplorable conditions
- Not only will the swamps and their flood plains contract, but also the quality of the grazing lands will deteriorate more than expected, hence affecting livestock owning communities.
- Conservationists are very concerned that, the project will result in the loss of the region's ecosystem that could lead to a spread of desertification (Africa Events, 1986).

During the interim period (July 2005 – July 2011), the Jonglei Canal project fell under the jurisdiction of the national government in Khartoum as stipulated in the CPA and the interim constitution. However, prior to the early days of the interim period, the government of Southern Sudan (GOSS) raised some concerns that include political, economic, social and environmental effects of the project. It was categorically made very clear by the president of the GOSS that, Jonglei canal was not the priority of his government (Kirr Mayardit, 2010). However, with the subsequent independence of the Republic of South Sudan (RSS) in July, 2011 issues of conservation cropped up and therefore necessitates the use of the waters of swamps which falls fully under the responsibility of RSS. The rapid deterioration of security situation in Jonglei State, and other parts of South Sudan, inter-tribal fights, food shortages, and military clashes had been reported in early 2009 (UNHCR 2009; Schomerus & Allen 2010). The prevailing circumstances are likely certain to make the resumption of work on the Jonglei canal project more difficult if not impossible.

Increasing awareness of the Nile upstream countries may constitute another complicated factor on the future negotiation on the resumption of the work on the Jonglei canal or the other three proposed canals. This is simply because the waters of the Sudd and of the Machar marshes of South Sudan could be perceived in terms of sources of these waters as a wider Nile Basin issue, and not simply as a South Sudanese – Sudanese- Egyptian concern (Salman 2008).



Figure 2.2 The Sudd Wetlands and Jonglei Canal Project Area, River Nile Basin, South Sudan (John Allen Transboundary Water Resources March 30, 2010)

2.2 Theoretical Framework

2.2.1 Conflict and development theory

The concept of development has widely received an international attention especially in the face of conflict, industrialization and the growing scarcity of natural resources. Barbanti & Olympio (2004) have categorized development into three categories: macro, meso and micro perspectives. Accordingly, macro issues pertain to the nation's overall pattern of growth; meso however refers to problems such river basin plans, whereas micro issues are concerned with local community development plans. In summary, these three issues are interrelated and spread out in various dimensions or forms such as economic, cultural, religious, and gender.

Additionally, the current conflict and development theory focuses on the structural changes that are required to implement development efforts, thereby preventing conflict while at the same time managed conflict in the event that it has erupted. This theory does not only look development efforts as they are being implemented, but at the same time look at the structures put in place to manage such efforts.

Similarly, Collier (1999) looked at conflict in relationship to economic advancement either as an offshoot or as cause. He claimed civil war retards development. The retardation brought as a result of war led to more conflict and economic stagnation.

Beshir (1984) explained that in Sudan, ethnicity and national cohesion in Sudan's present civil boundaries, its political, religious, and ethnic divisions were highly centralized and militarized system of governance began to take shape in the 1820s during the first Turko / Egyptian (1821 -1885) colonial regime. The second colonial administration by the Anglo- Egyptian condominium was during (1889 – 1956) also reinforced the previous colonial structure from Khartoum, which the General Government of Sudan (GGOS) was based. On the other hand, Collins (2008) provided a detailed explanation about the first step towards politicization of Sudan's North/South ideological divisions which occurred when the colonial regime administered the North and the South as separate entities; Christianity was encouraged and Arab or Muslim related activities / practices were prohibited in the South (Deng, 2001). This strategy was partly employed because the colonial regime perceived the South to be similar to the East Africa colonies in many aspects, whilst the North was similar to the Middle East, and the second reason was to build bulwark (block) against the spread of Islam and by extension to avoid the return of Mahdi.

The integration of North and South regions as a single administrative region was witnessed following, a decision adopted by British Colonial power to grant Sudan independence in 1956. The line of Demarcation drawn on 1 January, 1956 provided exclusive governmental control to the North (Khartoum) and semi – autonomous rule for the South (Maitre, 2009), however, Johnson (2003) stated that the root causes of Sudan's Civil Wars explained that "Sudanese independence was thrust upon the Sudan by a colonial power eager to extricate itself from its residual responsibilities; it was not achieved by national consensus expressed through constitutional means. The Sudanese therefore, gained independence with a temporary constitution in which two issues arose which were to prevent agreement on a permanent constitution.

- i. Whether Sudan should be a federal or unitary state, and
- ii. Whether it should be a secular or an Islamic constitution.

The majority of Southern politicians favored federalism as the only way to protect the three Southern provinces (Equatoria, Bahr El- Ghazal and Upper Nile) from being

completely subordinated to the Northern – dominated Central government (Malwal, 1981). Most Northerners rejected the idea of federalism, with the perception that it was the first step towards the secession of South from the North.

1955 – 1972, Poggo (2009) provided a detailed account of the first Sudanese war. According to Poggo, the civil war began in 1955 before the Sudan officially became independent, whilst the transfer of power from the British to the mostly Northern administrators was on transit. Due to political uncertainty, Southern insurgents from the Equatoria Corps (from the South) mutinied at Torit (the present capital of Eastern Equatoria State), and this sparked off the separatist movement, Land Freedom Army (better known as Anya – nya (AN) guerrilla movement) which later emerged to form Southern Sudan Liberation Movement / Army (SSLM/A) (Poggo, 2009). Literally Anya –nya means snake venom. AN escalated their attacks and the low-intensity civil war began to gather momentum against the newly established GGOS. The aim was to achieve autonomous government for the South. AN began to burnt down villages, arrest and torture northern administrators who were based in the South as a symbol of increased opposition to the GGOS. This was met with further repressive action by the GGOS, which further fuelled the conflict (Johnson, 2003, DeRouen, 2007). However, Johnson (2003) argued that, it was the 1964 mutation that was seen as the true beginning of Sudan's first civil war.

In 1964, General Ibrahim Abboud an Arab and Muslim military man became the first Sudan's official president. As a reflection of his religious zeal, he was devoted to pursuing programs of Islamization and Arabization in the South, and as part of his policy that rested on the belief that homogenizing the country would ensure national unity (Johnson, 2003, Poggo, 2002). These programs led to open revolts in the South and galvanized the AN into a more effective organization and formed SSLM/A led by General Joseph Lagu at the time, and continued to fight GGOS until the war came to an end after signing of Addis Ababa Peace Accord (AAPA) in 1972.

Collins (1962) offered a detailed explanation of AAPA signed between GGOS and SSLM/A in 1972. According to Collins, the AAPA was a series of compromises aimed at appeasing SSLM/A leaders after the first civil war proved costly to the GGOS. Initially, the SSLM/A wanted a full federal structure, however, after protracted negotiations, the South were pleased after the GGOS granted autonomy for their

compromising of the three provinces of Equatoria, Bahr El- Ghazal and Upper Nile respectively. The three provinces were to be governed by a regional president, appointed by the national president who should be responsible for all aspects of the government within the region except areas of significant importance such as defense, foreign affairs, currency and finance, economic and social planning and interregional concerns which remained under the GGOS control (Johnson, 1998, Collins, 2008). However, the AAPA did not reach and last long for effective compromise and implementation of development projects / programs conceived between North and South and guaranteed through long – term peace and stability in the entire country. After a decade of relative peace and stability, in 1983 the agreement was cut – off by the late president of Sudan, Jaafar Mohammed Nimeiri (5th president of Sudan and leader of the Sudanese Socialist Union Party (SSUP) whilst in power that imposed Sharia law throughout country including the South as part of his commitment to the spread of Islam.

Described as one of the longest and deadliest civil wars of the 20th century where approximately 1.9 million civilians were killed (U.S. Committee for Refugees, 2001, p. 5), and more than 4 million Southerners have been forced to flee their homes since the war began, the second Sudan's war broke out in May, 1983 between Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army (SPLM /A) under the leadership of Colonel Dr. John Garang De Mabior and the GGOS which took place in most parts of Southern Sudan. Jaafar Mohammed Nimeiri, the then president of the Sudan had infringed the provisions of AAPA by revoking the autonomy of the Southerners when he declared his intension to transform Sudan into Muslim Arab state by imposing sharia law across the country including the South, an action that started the conflict anew. Nimeiri successors continued with his legacies which led the war to continue for years, until diplomatic intervention brokered by the East African Regional Organization (EARO), known as Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) and the international community to persuade GGOS, under President Omar Al – Beshir current president of Sudan and leader of National Congress Party (NCP) eventually leading to the signing of Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in July, 2005 which brought one of the world's deadliest wars to a halt.

The end of the cold war had marked a significant shift of wars from intrastate to interstate especially in the developing countries worldwide (Sollenberg, Wallenstern,

and Jato, 1999). It was however, believed that ethnicity generates hatred, suspicion, discrimination and these can be manifested in several forms that include among others: Nationalism, separatism, or a fight for an ethnic identity (James & Goetze, 2001)

Collier (2000) and Collier and Hoeffler (1998) 2000, however confirmed that, these intrastate wars are either based on greed or grievance and cumulatively, they have negative implications on economic growth that not only felt at home, but also across the neighbourhoods as well. These can be demonstrated through the following factors: Diversion of foreign direct investment (FDI), disruption to trade, destruction of social overhead capital, loss of human capital, massive displacement of people, and the reallocation of resources to less productive activities.

In similar studies carried out by (Murdoch and Sandler, 2002) during 1960 -85, both concluded that, be it in short – term or long – term civil war has direct impact on the economic growth both at home and in the neighborhood through what is known as spillover effects of civil war. The study however, did not reveal or distinguish the consequences of civil wars and their spatial diffusion within a given region.

Murdock & Sandler (2001) carried another study that does not contained the element of spatial diffusion in order to establish the diffusion of civil war's externalities. Distance was used to measure how close a country to civil war and its effects subsequently in that particular country. The study further went on to compare an African sample and a global one and conclude that dispersion is more localized in the short run than in the long run particularly in the African context.

Blattman & Miguel (2010), Goodhand (2003), and Nafziger & Auvinen (2002) studied and analyzed the effects and the relationship that exist among poverty, underdevelopment and conflict. Poverty, as an entity cannot be the root cause of conflict, but it can directly contribute to the built up and subsequent eruption of conflict. When people or communities are poor, they are not able to provide or give necessary support for education of their children, cover basic needs of their healthcare which in turn give them the necessary knowledge and skills in their quest for livelihoods.

Underdevelopment on the other hand, perceived to be caused by variety of factors summarized as below: Institutionalized poor government policies, lack of prioritize economic infrastructure which help to boost economic growth hence raise in per capita

income (GDP), corruption, and by extension lack of human resource capital through training and development programs. Conflict, however, result into the following: Loss of lives, destruction of properties or / and economic infrastructure, diversion of resources from economic activities into military purposes such as purchase of military hardware and equipment.

Dornbusch & Reynoso (1989); Beck et al. (2004), Demirguc-Kunt & Levine, (2009) also examined the impact of finance and financial stability on growth and development. On their study, it was revealed that, civil conflict has far reaching consequences as far as underdeveloped countries are concerned. Civil conflicts destroy physical infrastructure as well as economic infrastructure, and livelihoods subjecting communities into an toll suffering, this is especially so in the underdeveloped countries in the third world which are prone to civil conflicts due to poor leadership and bad governance system put in place without accountable, transparent and credible institutions (Addison et al. 2001).

With the intensity of the civil war in the rural areas in Mozambique for instance, majority of the people are migrating to urban area to seek more protection from the government, and hence leaving behind their livestock and crops in the farms. Life was tough in the urban area as there was this problem of food shortage and accommodation was not adequate enough hence leading to congestion / overcrowding (Timberlake, 1991). These poor living conditions in government protected areas leads to the spread of diseases such as cholera, diarrhea, and bilharzia associated with poor sanitation. The health service available at the government protected area was not sufficient enough to cover the influx of refugees who came in their thousands to receive health service. Nonetheless, government avail land for construction of temporary housing meant for accommodation and farming as well.

According to Sillah et al. (2009) teachers in the rural areas left their places of work because they were being targeted by RENAMO insurgency, as a result teachers and students decided not to go to school anymore for fear of being kidnapped. This situation led to the increase of illiteracy level within the population especially the school going age at that time. According to the District Service of Education, Youth and Technology over 78 % of those who were of school going age during the war are illiterate today.

Other social problems that emerged and identified during the civil war in Mozambique, include prostitution among young girls and women who want to survive through this kind of occupation. These young girls and women normally target youth who were also involved in criminal activities and were able to solicit cash from these illicit activities. On the other hand, prostitution has its associated problems such as sexually transmitted diseases (STDs). According to the District Service of Health, women and social action, sexually transmitted diseases are on the increase and went un noticed because people never visit hospitals to check their health status. The majority of these boys and ladies were orphans while others and their parents were displaced from the rural areas due to RENAMO attacks.

Different schools of thoughts compared the difference between intrastate and interstate wars and again critically look at their effects. Interstate war or war between states attributed to large scale destruction of physical capital, whereas, intrastate wars tend to be associated with destruction of human capital, institutions, and social disorder (Collier, 1999). To gain better understanding between the two perspectives, three different papers were put across and used to compare the micro level data between neighboring areas with different levels of exposure to conflict.

The first paper was jointly put forward by Davis and Weinstein (2002) and indicated that, during Second World War, Japanese cities were bombed and completely destroyed by the US forces, but was able to recover from these damages after 20 years. On the other hand, however, the second paper by Bachman et al (2004) described the bombing of Germany had a significant but temporary impact on post – war city growth in West Germany, but sustained impact in East Germany. The third, and the last paper by Miguel and Roland (2011), studied the effects of the destruction of the physical capital by the bombing carried out in Vietnam had affected the economy in targeted areas finally recovered 30 years after the conflict. Areas that had shown recovery include: Consumption, infrastructure, poverty, literacy and population density.

In summary, the three studies undertaken critically look at the effects of physical capital destruction caused by international conflicts that had lasted for several years and their impact on development.

Substantial and significant amount of evidence suggest that, armed conflict had a strong impact on human capital. With respect to health, Alderman, et al (2009), analyzed data

collected from Zimbabwe and revealed that, greater exposure of children to civil war has negative effect on child height. This could be associated to nutritional status of children experienced by children during conflict hard time. Bundervoet et al. (2009, p.6) conducted similar studies in Burundi, and found out that an additional month of war decreased children's height compared to non-affected children. On the other hand, Arcand and Wouabe (2009) confirmed that, intensity of conflict worsened child health during and after the conflict in Angola. In Rwanda, for instance, Akresh and de Walque (2008, p. 6) conclude that, armed conflict had a negative effect on schooling outcomes, with those children exposed to conflict only completing half a year less. In (2004), de Walque studied how civil conflict in Cambodia impacted on the educational attainment, strongly attributed to the collapse of the education system. Similarly, Shenyanika 2011 generated sufficient evidence on how civil conflicts impacted negatively on the schooling of children in Tajikistan. In Guatemala, there was also strong evidence revealing negative effects of civil war on education of Mayan men and women, and other disadvantaged groups Chamarbagwala and Moran (2011).

In general, conflicts have negative effects especially on the human capital, which directly or indirectly perpetuates poverty hence slow economic recovery.

Scopas (2009), gave a detailed account of the eruption of first Sudanese civil war. In his paper Poggo explained that the war began few months away before Sudan attained its independence in 1956 from Britain and subsequent handling over of power to the Northern administrators based in Khartoum. Because of political uncertainty, and fear of Northern domination of the South, Southern insurgents (Equatoria corps) mutinied from Torit (the present state capital of Eastern Equatoria State), and sparked off the creation of the separatist movement known as Anya – nya (AN) a guerrilla movement which later reorganized itself and formed Southern Sudan Liberation Movement / Army. (O'Balance 1977). SSLM /A escalated their attacks and the low intensity civil war started to gather momentum against the newly establish GGOS with the sole aim of achieving greater autonomy for Southern Sudan. SSLM / A began to burnt villages down arrest and torture Northern administrators in the South as a symbol of increased opposition to GGOS. This was met with further repressive action by the GGOS which further fuelled the conflict (Johnson, 2003, DeRouen, 2007). However, Johnson (2003) argued that, it was in 1964 that the real beginning of the war started in Sudan under General Ibrahim Abboud regime.

Similarly, civil conflicts affect agricultural investments in so many ways. In the poorer countries of the developing world, agricultural issues together with other catalysts can degenerate into civil conflicts as described in the literature (Homer-Dixon 1991; 1994; 1999; Stewart 2000,; Stewart & Fitzgerald 2001; Miguel, Satyanath & Sergenti 2004). A substantial amount of work has been carried out between the two entities and the result revealed positive correlation between the two. Agricultural development ushered in peace for countries that are in conflicts or / and had already experience conflicts (de Soysa, Gleditsch, Gibson & Sollenberg 1999; Addison 2005)

However, during times of conflict, rural agriculture was one of the first casualties targeted by the warring parties (Muggah, 2000). He described the loss of livelihoods in such situation as conflict induced displacement (CID) constitutes a critical factor that could lead to enormous impoverishment. Most of these livelihoods are agriculture based- which include: Farming, livestock farming, and fishing, while the rest of the livelihoods are considered non-agriculture or off – farm livelihoods. In this case, the most critical point to understand was whether livelihoods are being rebuilt or replaced by new ones.

2.2.2 Empirical Literature Review

Great deals of studies have been carried out on the impact of conflict on the socio – economic development in many countries around the globe. The characteristics of these countries which were ravaged by these armed conflicts are similar in many aspects, and similarly the effects inflicted are not quite different.

Studies conducted by (Voors et al. 2010) confirmed that armed conflicts create negative impact, destroys well established institutions, destroys social fabrics and hence weakens communities' abilities to stand and survive because coping mechanisms are either destroyed or lost during armed conflicts hence making them vulnerable to all forms of stress and shocks (Stewart & Fitzgerald, 2000).

Keynesian – theory of expansion explained that, aggregate increase in government military spending could lead to increased output and employment. Benoit (1973, 1978) carried out a study on military spending. The study revealed that military spending significantly affected the economic growth of 44 countries that were sampled in the developing world. The study was conducted from 1950 to 1965. The study further revealed that, military spending not only reduce economic growth, but could as well

disrupt activities such as: Trade and commerce, loss in tourism revenue, death in vulnerable groups (children, woman, ethnic minority& the elderly), loss of infrastructure, and reduction in foreign investment. Other adverse effects of military spending include incapacitation of human capital through education, health care, sanitation and vocational and technical training. Production activities that could be performed by the military to generate income include: agriculture, forestry and poultry keeping. The civil population in turn could buy the produce for their household consumption. However, similar studies on the same subject indicate that defense spending has adverse effects on the economic growth either directly or indirectly. These studies were conducted by Lim (1983), Deger & Sen (1983), Faini, et al (1984), Nissanke (1985), Deger (1986), Chan (1986), Grobas & Gnanaselvam (1993), Roux (1996), Pradhan (2001), Arunatilake et al. (2001), and Ra & Singh (2005).

Similarly, Kalley (1999) conducted a study that looked at the impact of civil war fought between FRELIMO and RENAMO in Mozambique. FRELIMO earned a significant amount of respect and command from the civil population because it was considered as the defender of the people and therefore, gained more sympathy and support than RENAMO which was considered as an aggressor. RENAMO targeted vital economic infrastructure of the country that are central to communication and trade. Such economic infrastructure includes among others: Electricity substations, railways lines, irrigation facilities, canals / dams, bridges, sugar cane plantations and looting of shops just to mentioned a few. These selected RENAMO hostile activities were meant to cripple FRELIMO government and subsequently regime fall. Other horrifying methods employed by the RENAMO insurgency group was the used of child soldiers to maim and killed civilian population. According to (Gerony,1998), RENAMO forces are brutal and barbaric, and sometimes employed crude weapons such as knives, machetes, burning alive, beating to death, forced asphyxiation, forced starvation, and indiscriminate shooting of civilians. RENAMO used various guerrilla tactics such as civilian population as human shield to give them protection from imminent attack by FRELIMO forces, rape of young girls and women, and other abusive methods to inflict mental and psychological trauma to their victims. Towards the end of the cold war in the 1990s, the war became unsustainable to FRELIMO administration and as such the late President of Mozambique Samora Machel and RENAMO backed by white South Africa government signed a peace deal known as Nkomati Agreement on 16 March

1984 (Munslow, 1985). This peace agreement brought back stability and prosperity to Mozambique. The brutal war fought between FRELIMO and RENAMO finally came to an end in 1992 and left the country in tremendous amount of destruction, serious economic problems as a result of the destruction to economic infrastructure. Reconciliation and integration followed immediately to reduced suspicion, hatred and discrimination between FRELIMO and RENAMO fighters. The United Nations country office in Mozambique facilitated and oversaw the disarmament and demobilization of thousands of ex-combatants and the resettlement of refugees. By 1994, election was conducted, and FRELIMO won the presidency and 45% of seats in the parliament (Munslow, 1985).

Exacerbated by the drought of (1991 – 1992), the government of Mozambique was not able to cope with the magnitude of food shortage experienced by the people in the District of Chokwe (Timberlake, 1996). The drought leads to crop failure, livestock either died or gets emaciated due to lack of water and fodder, the disappearance of vegetation, loss of moisture on the soil and eventually leading to migration of the population in search of food and water for themselves and their animals as well. The dry land could not be irrigated because irrigation facilities were destroyed by RENAMO fighters.

Murray, et al (2002) studied two variables, age and sex distribution and their relations to the death in battle fields worldwide. According to him the information generated from his findings revealed that, men aged 15 – 29 are more likely to be killed in the battle fields, but women make up nearly a quarter of all battle deaths. This was so because women were more vulnerable than men. Young men are perceived to be energetic and charismatic and therefore, are capable of doing any energy-demanding task military occupation inclusive. Military academies and other training institutions worldwide are targeting a specific age set based on the reasons stated above.

A study carried out by Coghlan et al. (2006) to establish the number of people who died during the war in the Democratic Republic of Congo between 1998 and 2004 estimated that 3.9 million dead during the conflict. The study revealed that, this was the deadliest war since the end of the Second World War. However, latest estimates put the number of death as 5.4 million as of mid – 2008 excluding battle related deaths. A household survey method was employed to collect the data during the study. Although the study

emphasized on battle-related death, there are other related sources of death which include lack of food, malnutrition, diseases, and poor source of water and sanitation. From the figures explained above, non-battle related deaths are more than battle related deaths. Armed conflicts affect lives and livelihoods directly or indirectly.

In Rwanda, McKay and Loveridge (2005) studied the relationship between national nutritional status as an important aspect of health, and the performance of students in schools throughout the country. The onset of conflict in Rwanda, which led to genocide in 1994, adversely affected the agricultural production and productivity and therefore, had substantial negative impact on the performance of students in various schools throughout the national territory. At a broader context, the study looked at the economic performance of the country that had greatly reduced, hence leading to low income and therefore affected household consumption patterns, and by extension affected the educational and health institutions throughout the areas that were affected by the conflict. The agricultural sector employed over 90% of the Rwandan population and was severely devastated during the conflict, and therefore the economy was brought to its knees subsequently.

Similarly, a study conducted between 1980s and 1990s by the International Peace and Research Institute, Oslo (PRIO, 2002) in twenty- seven out of forty countries in sub-Saharan establish that, human suffering inflicted by civil wars was far greater than any war – related deaths (food insecurity, malnutrition, diseases, and lack of water). Civil conflicts caused both internal and external displacement of hundreds of thousands people from their original settlements (homes), uproot them from social connections, disrupt livelihoods and expose people to adverse and unbearable conditions in their new environment. Sambanis (2001), however, identified an empirical and robust relationship between poverty, slow growth, and an increased likelihood of civil war and prevalence. Poverty is not the prime cause of armed conflicts, but it increases its probability. On the other hand, slow growth rate reduces income and hence GDP per capita.

In Easter Sri Lanka, during the civil war that started in 1983 between the Government of Sri Lanka (GoSL), and the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE), a study was carried out to establish the effects and the destruction of civil conflict, and how it decimates agriculture in particular. The study analyzed information collected from the

internally displaced persons (IDPs) from the village of Sampur in Eastern Sri Lanka revealed the level of destruction caused by the conflict (de Soysa, Gleditsch, et al 1999; Addison 2005). Different categories of on – farm or agriculture-based livelihoods and assets endowments are affected in different ways by the impact of displacement. Agriculture plays a significant role in rural settings: Poverty eradication and development promotion endeavors in many aspects (Chambers 1999, OECD 2006; Bezemer and Headey 2008).

However, Korf's (2004) formulated a framework that highlighted six different types of asset endowments which includes: Natural, physical, human, social, political, and financial. The interaction of these different types of asset endowments with various market and non- market institutions laid down foundation of livelihood concepts and analysis. On the other hand, however, Sen's (1981) concept of entitlements, the approach linked assets and economic activities pursued by individuals or society, as well as the role of social institutions in determining the use of and return to assets.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY OF STUDY

The previous chapter was devoted for the theoretical framework and the empirical literature. It dwelt on deriving the relationship between variables that could affect or cause changes in development and tried to examine studies previously carried out in similar field. The current chapter lays out the methodological issues pertaining to the study.

3.1 Model Specification

This study adopted resource curse theory which basically explained how minerals and fuel abundance generates poor economic performance in less developed countries. The strong idea behind resource curse theory is that, minerals and fuel abundance in less developed countries (LDCs) tends to generate a negative developmental outcome which includes: poor economic performance, growth collapse, high levels of corruption, ineffective governance, and greater political violence. The theory summed up that, natural resources, for poorest countries are more of curse than a blessing.

3.1.1 Description of Variables used in the Model

The variables used for measuring the impact of conflict on development were based on the effects during and after the end of the conflict. In this case insecurity, humanitarian crises, public service delivery and socioeconomic conditions are the variables used in this study. E.g. Insecurity is by weak administrative machinery and breakdown of law and order. Conflicts have adverse and devastating effects as far as human development is concerned. A question such as exposure of respondents to conflicts in Sudan and South Sudan was asked to gauge respondents experience and knowledge of conflicts was put forward. Break down of law and order leads to disruption of basic service delivery, human safety and security. On the other hand, humanitarian crisis has its associated problems notably: Population displacement, food insecurity, diseases, poverty, and erosion of livelihoods. Respondents monthly, yearly, level of saving and standard of living are some of the questions put forward to the respondents to measure how conflicts have affected them. On the public service delivery aspect, question such as identification of educational facilities and health units in the area inhabited by the

respondents are asked. In summary, the three variables stated above were able to highlight in details the issues in the section dealing with the findings of the study.

3.2 Study Design

The study employed both primary and secondary methods. In the primary method, both quantitative and qualitative techniques were used, whereas, in the secondary method, desk top review, journal etc were used. The quantitative data were collected through questionnaire covering a sample of 120 respondents, and the qualitative data were collected through five key informant interviews and two focus group discussions. The quantitative data analysis was through the help of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) computer package and presenting the results in terms of percentages and frequencies in form of graphs and tables, while the qualitative data were analyzed through narratives.

3.3 Sampling Strategy

In using the questionnaires, specifically, random sampling method was used to select the number of respondents needed for the study. Members of the general public were randomly selected to sample their views and perceptions on the ground about the effects of conflict and implications on the development in South Sudan. In managing the focus group discussion and in meeting the key informants, a purposive random sampling was used.

3.4 Sample Size

For Central Equatorial State, one hundred and twenty (120) structured questionnaires were administered. Additionally, two focus group discussions (FGDs) were conducted each comprising seven participants and semi-structured interviews were conducted with five key informants

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

The study used a combination of data collection tools / techniques that include structured questionnaires, focus group discussions, and semi-structured interviews meant to answer the research questions.

3.5.1 The Questionnaire

One hundred twenty (120) questionnaires were administered to the general public across Juba city. Being a cosmopolitan city or area, questionnaires were answered by any ethnic group rather than selecting a single ethnic group.

The questionnaires were divided into four sections. Section A was meant to gauge respondent's history of exposure to conflict in South Sudan. Section B aimed at gathering information pertaining to the socio – economic and livelihood status of the respondent, section C was on the effects and the implications of conflict on the development in South Sudan and the last section D was intended to gain insights into personal and household background information (demographic characteristics) of the respondents. Questions composed of both open and close ended measures.

2.5.2 Key Informant Interview

In-depth Interviews were carried out with key personalities that were believed to have sufficient knowledge / information on the effects and implications of conflict for the development in South Sudan. The interview guide contained questions that were derived from the objectives of the study. The interviews were held in Juba, South Sudan from August to September 2015, and lasted for 1 – 1.5 hours. The personalities / discussants were drawn from the following institutions:

- National Legislative Assembly, Republic of South Sudan (one person)
- Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) (two persons)
- National Ministry of Petroleum and Mining, Directorate of Geological Survey (one person)
- State Ministry of Animal Resources and Fisheries, Directorate of Fisheries & Aquaculture, Central Equatorial State (CES) (one person).

3.5.2 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

Focus group discussions were also held to elicit data for the study. Two separate focus group sessions were conducted each comprising seven members and lasting for one – and – a half hour. The participants were drawn from different ethnic groups, and composed of civil servants, students, business persons. The interactions generated by

the different group members during focus group sessions accorded an opportunity and trust between the research team and the respondents in validating information generated on the effects and implications of conflict on the socio-economic development in South Sudan

3.5.3 Non Participant Observation

To guarantee the reliability of the information gathered for the study and to validate the results, the presence of the author in the field managed to improve the quality of the observations. In the field certain events related to the subject matter in the study area were observed. Particular note was taken on infrastructure in the country that includes: income levels, schools, health facilities, roads, bridges, electricity and housing.

3.6 Data Analysis Techniques

The data were analyzed using the SPSS computer package. Summary statistics in terms of percentages were produced in form of bar graphs, pie charts, and tables and the qualitative data were analyzed using narratives of the perceptions of the respondents.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter presents the data generated from the field study. The overall purpose was to provide clear oversight; the data was presented under various themes namely: Armed conflict experienced by the respondent and how the respondent survived during difficult and hard times of armed conflict; linkage of economic activities to household level of income; the impact of war to the State; institutions responsible for provision of basic service during times of armed conflict; rating of basic services by sector; income status and standard of living of respondents; respondent's main food crops cultivated and the size of land planted per season; identification of basic facilities (educational and health) present in different communities; the state of infrastructure; ways on how armed conflict affect households. Where applicable, these themes were further divided into sub – themes in order to make the presentation of the data in sequential and logical manner. Finally, a quick look at the demographic characteristics of the respondent precedes the presentation of the empirical data.

4.1 Results and Discussions

This part of chapter four is used to present the results of the study as they relate to the research questions, and each of these results were presented and discussed here below in turns.

Table 4.1 Socio _demographic Characteristics of the Sample population

Characteristics	Count	Percent	Characteristics	Count	Percent
Gender			Educational Level		
Male	102	85	No formal Education	21	17.5
Female	18	15	Primary Education	15	12.5
Head of Household			Secondary Education	9	7.5
Yes	76	63.3	Tertiary Education	75	62.5
No	44	36.3			
Marital status			Religious status		
Yes	80	66.7	Christian	117	97.5
No	40	33.3	Muslim	3	2.5
Occupation			Age groups		
Students	40	33.3	20 years and below	5	4.2
Teachers	15	12.5	21 - 30 years	49	40.8
Farmers	7	5.8	31 – 40 years	49	40.8
Civil servants	50	41.6	41 – 50 years	10	8.3
Soldiers	4	3.3	51 - 60 years	7	5.8
Business persons	2	1.6	Income status		
Doctors	1	0.8	600 SSP and less	53	44.2
Engineers	1	0.8	601 – 2501 SSP	39	32.5
			2502 - 4402 SSP	12	10.0
			More than 4402 SSP	16	13.3

4.1.1 Demographic Characteristics

The results generated indicated that the demographic characteristics of the respondents who experienced and were affected by various armed conflict in Sudan and South Sudan vary significantly as summarized in (Table 4.1). About 85 % of the sample population were men and 15 % were women. This low percentage of female indicates that, the majority of female population were not willing to participate in answering the questionnaire although the research team made an effort to convince them, but with less success. Some of them indicated that they were frustrated with the current state of affairs in the country. From the study, 66.7 % of the respondents described themselves as married people, while 33.3 % stated that they were not married. This high number of people who are not married is attributed to two reasons: Youth constitute about 72 % of South Sudan population as such most of them are still leaving with their parents as they prepare for life in future. The second reason is that high bride cost scares away youth from venturing into marriage business / life. Similarly, the study revealed that 63.3 % of the respondents indicated that, they are household heads, and 36.7 % of the respondents were not household heads. This is linked to the reasons stated above.

The study showed that 17.5 % of the sample population do not have any formal education, 12.5 % had primary education, 7.5 % had secondary education, and 62.5 % had tertiary education. Although the results indicate a high percentage of the population who had tertiary education, the educational sector country wide had several challenges attributed to the previous and current armed conflicts which resulted into destruction of educational facilities by warring parties, teachers either abandoned their profession for safety and security or sought alternative means of making a living. In addition to the above, delayment of teachers' salaries, unfavorable working conditions, and irregular supply of scholastic materials to facilitate learning by the pupils and students at various levels were cited by some members during focus group discussions. The study further revealed that 97.5 % of the respondents were Christians, and 2.5 % were Muslims. Christianity and Islam are the two dominant religions in South Sudan. Although Christians are the majority in terms of population, yet they co-exist with other religions.

A large proportion of South Sudanese had experienced various armed conflicts that took place in Sudan and South Sudan (Table4.2). The first civil war broke out just before Sudan became an independent Country from Britain in 1956.

Table 4.2 Experience of Armed Conflict (Chronological order of conflicts in South Sudan)

Conflict	Year of Occurrence	Percentage
Anya – nya I	1955 - 1972	0
SPLA Movement	1983 - 2005	5.8
Current conflict	2013- To Date	15.8
All three conflicts	As shown above	7.5
SPLA and the current conflict	1983–2005 & 2013 – Todate	70.8
Total		100.0

In brief, this armed conflict broke out from 1955 - 1972 between the Government of Sudan (GOS) and South Sudan Liberation Movement (SSLM). The South Sudanese were fighting for either federalized system of governance or for the total independence of the South from Arab-dominated government based in Khartoum, northern Sudan. Relative peace and significant level of development was experienced throughout the country for ten years before the second and the longest conflict erupted again from 1983 – 2005.

Knowledge and experience of the armed conflict background by the respondents help to provide a clear or better picture of the overall situation in South Sudan in terms of both the implications / consequences of these armed conflicts and the socio – economic development of South Sudan. The armed conflict background of the sampled population indicate the following results: About (70.8 %) of the respondents indicated that, they have experienced the SPLA and the current armed conflict which broke out on December 15, 2013 between the divided SPLA/M governing party headed by President Salva Kiir Mayardit of SPLA –IG (Sudan People’s Liberation Army –in Government) and the SPLA - IO (Sudan People’s Liberation Army –in Opposition) headed by the former vice-president Dr Riak Machar Teny Dhurgon, (15.8 %) of the respondents revealed that they experienced the current armed conflict stated above, (7.5 %) of the respondents confirmed that, they experienced all the three armed conflict stated above (The Anya nya 1, SPLA movement, and the current armed conflict), and (5.8 %) of the respondents have only experienced SPLA movement (1983 – 2005) referred to as the liberation struggle by most South Sudanese.

4.1.2 Means of Survival during times of Armed Conflicts

During difficult and hard times of armed conflict in South Sudan, the majority of the respondents employed a variety of coping mechanisms to withstand the difficulties and uncertainties they may encounter in life. The following are some of the responses generated by sampled population that represent the views of the entire population throughout South Sudan. About a third of the respondents opted to settle in the rural area(s) because they considered it more peaceful and stable, while (16.7%) of the population stated that, they migrate to the neighboring countries to seek better security and other useful opportunities like education for themselves and their children as well as health care. (15.8 %) of the respondents stated that, they settled in the refugee camps in the neighboring countries where food rations, security, education and other social amenities are available and provided freely by International Non- Governmental Organizations (INGOs) and UN agencies. (12.5 %) of the respondents confirmed that, they settled in the internally displaced persons (IDPs) camps because they had adequate protection in terms of security, shelter, and food rations provided by the aid agencies. A few (4.2 %) respondents shuttled between various ways of survival including Settlement in the IDPs and refugee camps, migration to the neighboring, and settlement in the rural areas that were reported to be more peaceful and stable. Similarly, in focus group sessions a good number of discussants stated that they spent more than ten years in Kakuma and Dabaab refugee camps in North East Kenya and just returned home after South Sudan gained its independence On July 11, 2011. They reported that, at least basic necessities for life were being catered for while they were in the refugee camps. Should there be no war in South Sudan, nobody would have gone and settled in the refugee / IDP camps.

4.1.3 Provision of Basic Services

The sampled population was asked to identify the institutions or entities that are responsible for the provision of basic services to the population during armed conflicts. The institutions or entities identified include the following: Government, Aid agencies / NOGs, individuals who operate private facilities for profit making purposes, and lastly missionary organizations. About (37.5 %) of the respondents confirmed that, Aid agencies and NGOs were responsible for basic service provision to the population during armed conflicts, (20.8 %) of the respondent indicated that, NGOs and

missionary organizations combined their efforts together to provide basic service, whereas, (3.3 %) of the respondents reveal that individuals who operate private facilities for profit making purposes significantly contributed in service delivery during armed conflicts. (5.0 %) of the respondents stated that government provides basic service during armed conflicts. Although government described above to be contributing about 5 % for service delivery, yet in reality government divert much of its funds to financed war activities as indicated in the literature review. Service production sectors suffered serious budgetary problems due to the current crises in the country.

Insecurity (Weak administration, Disrespect for the Rule of Law) (Research Question 1)

Conflicts have adverse and devastating effects as far as human development is concerned. As demonstrated on (Table 4.2), South Sudan has under gone numerous armed conflicts that have eroded human capital in many aspects. This section is devoted to the following sectors as they relate to human development directly or indirectly: Water and sanitation, health, education, road infrastructure, electricity, and housing (Table 4.3). Respondents rated or graded these key basic services in relation to the present situation.

4.1.4 Rating the quality of water & sanitation service during Armed Conflicts

About 43.3 % of the respondents rated the quality of water and sanitation to be very poor; whereas 30.0 % rated that it was poor. 22.5 % said the quality of water and sanitation during armed conflict was average. 3.3% described the quality of water and sanitation as good. A minimal proportion of the sampled population about (0.8 %) stated that, the quality of water and sanitation was very good. Looking at the statistics provided in (Table 4.3), the conclusion drawn was that, during armed conflict basic service delivery is normally neglected by the authorities because resources allocated for the intended purpose are diverted for something else usually war activities, which in turn destroys the existing facilities. In an interview with a key informant, he revealed that the quality of water and sanitation could have been better should there be no war in the country. The government drastically reduced funds that were meant for service production sectors and diverted to the military or financed war activities.

Table 4.3 Rating the quality of water and sanitation during armed conflicts

Rating of water & sanitation service	Percentage
Very poor	43.3
Poor	30
Average	22.5
Good	3.3
Very good	0.8
Total	100.0

4.1.5 Rating the quality of health Service during armed conflicts

Like water and sanitation, health service delivery was equally graded during armed conflicts (Table 4.4) below.

Table 4.4 Rating the quality of health service during armed conflict

Rating of health service	Percentage
Very poor	33.4
Poor	34.2
Average	25.8
Good	5.8
Very good	0.8
Total	100.0

33.4% of the respondents said health service delivery was very poor, 34.2 % of the respondents indicated that it was poor, whereas 25.8 % described it as average. 5.8 % said it was good, and 0.8 % revealed that it was very good as demonstrated on (Table 4.4). In a focus group session, some members stated, the quality of education reduced because of the on- going conflict. They said if war is not there, the quality should be better. Other reasons associated with poor quality of health service include: lack of regular medical supplies, occupation of health facilities by armed groups, health workers were either kidnapped, killed or abandoned their occupation and seek other opportunities in well-secured areas. This finding is in agreement by the work carried

out in Mozambique whereby health workers abandoned their work and ran for safety (Luis Braz, interview, 19 August, 2009).

4.1.6 Rating the quality of Educational Service during Armed Conflicts

Education is one of the key sectors that accelerate the development and the welfare of any given community or country. About 33.3 % of the respondents indicated that, educational service was very poor, 21.7 % revealed that it was poor, whereas, 32.5 % confirmed that it was average, 10.8% described it as good, and 1.7 % said it was very good. Like health workers, teachers were either displaced, killed, kidnapped or abandoned the teaching profession and fled to other peaceful areas. Educational facilities sometimes were used as army barracks by the belligerent parties. In focus group discussions, some members disclose that, the poor service delivery demonstrated in the educational sector was because, key government policy makers and high senior ranking officials, and well to do families preferred to send their children to study abroad and in the neighboring countries like Kenya, Uganda and many other countries within the region which were perceived to be having better educational facilities as compared to the South Sudan, and the children of poor households who do not afford to raise the required fees had their children left behind to study in South Sudan where learning environment is not conducive. Should there be strong institutions mandated to check government resources, the quality of education have been between 55 – 65 percent.

Table 4.5 Rating of educational service during armed conflict

Rating of education service	Percentage
Very poor	33.3
Poor	21.7
Average	32.5
Good	10.8
Very good	1.7
Total	100.0

4.1.7 Rating the quality of Physical Infrastructure during Armed Conflicts

Armed conflicts led to the destruction of both economic and physical infrastructure and subsequently resulted into low level of production and productivity by the industries, and large farming schemes. Consequently, many people lost their jobs and

unemployment rate increases which lead to poverty and hence raise in crimes rates. About 61.7 % of the respondents rated quality of physical infrastructure to be very poor, 28.3 % described it as poor, 5.0 % rated it as average, 3.3 % said the quality of physical infrastructure is good, and 1.7 % stated that it was very good (Table 4.6). From the statistics presented above, the overall situation of physical infrastructure is poor, and this is attributed to poor allocation of funds to key propellers or drivers of the economy. 66 percent of the respondents confirmed that, if war is not there the quality of physical infrastructure could have been better. Another important reason is that funds are diverted to war activities and other sectors are totally neglected. This is in an agreement by a study carried out by Munslow (1985: 26) in Mozambique.

It is always stated that, when road is present other components of development follows immediately. The case is different for South Sudan. The colonial administration and the successive governments in the North did make any meaningful infrastructural development in this part of the country. Throughout the country most of the roads are marram or earth roads THAT sometimes become unmotorable during rainy seasons.

Physical infrastructure refers to the basic physical structures required for an economy to function and survive, such as transport networks, a power grid, sewerage and waste disposal systems among others. Development economists, however, considered it as part of a three – pillar system, along with human capital and good governance. Therefore, physical infrastructure is a prerequisite for trade and other productive activities. In functional sense, a society's physical infrastructure facilitates the production of goods and services to be consumed by the population

Table 4.6 Rating of Physical Infrastructure during armed conflicts

Rating of physical infrastructural services	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Very poor	74	61.7
Poor	34	28.3
Average	6	5
Good	4	3.3
Very good	2	1.7
Total	120	100.0

4.1.8 House Electrification access in South Sudan

Electricity plays a vital role in the socio-economic development of any society / country. It encourages investments in energy-related / driven sectors like manufacturing, tourism and hospitality industry, and so many others. From this study, 33.3% of the respondents confirmed that, they have electricity in their houses, and 66.3% stated that they don't have electricity. The small power grid that supplies electricity to limited number of consumers though on no regular basis was built by the British colonial administration, and inherited by the autonomous Regional Government and the present government in South Sudan. Located at the bank of the River Nile, the power station only provides electricity to key government installations / institutions and very few private residential quarters. The vast majority of the population within Juba City Council has to source their own power either by the use of private generators or installation of solar panels on top of their roof houses and the table below shows various institutions in relation to power provision. 63 percent of the respondents lamented that, if money was not siphoned away by corrupt government officials, the vast majority of the citizens would have access to public electricity, and the government would have also made collected enough revenue generated from power consumption by the population.

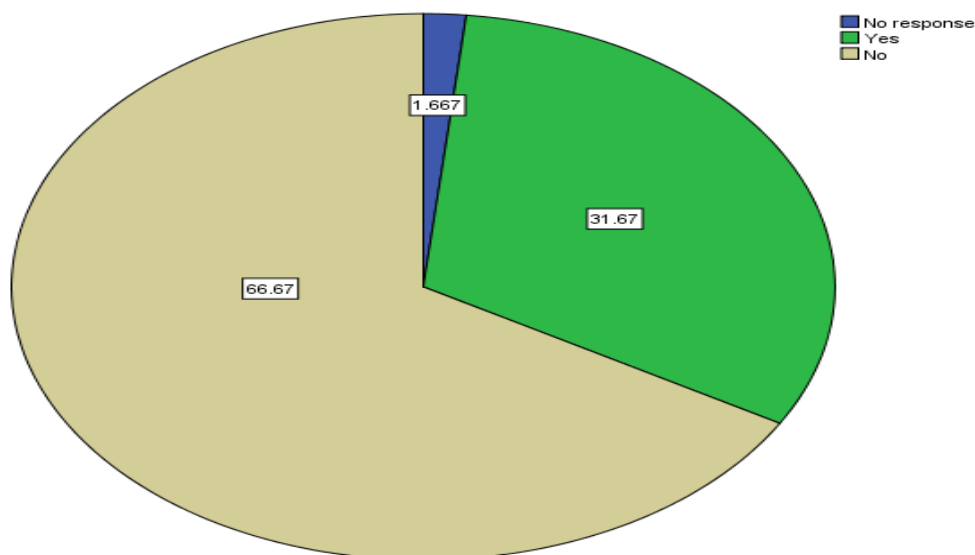


Figure 4.1 House Electrification access in South Sudan

4.1.9 Perspective of Institutions Responsible for provision of electricity

The survey listed some institutions to find out which institutions provide electric service to the people. The institutions listed include: Government; private company, individuals who operate private generators; individuals who installed solar panels on top of their roof houses to supply power / light, and individuals who use both generators and solar panels. About 22.7 % of the respondents stated that, government provides electricity, 1.7 %revealed that, electricity was supplied by private company, 38.3% responded that individuals operate private generators, 15.8 % said individuals installed solar panels on top of their houses to supply light, and 21.6 % confirmed that individuals used both private generators and solar panels in their houses. In real sense government doesn't provide electricity to the entire population. Key government institutions / installations received electricity from the government. The majority of the people privately sourced their own power / electricity. The key informant stated that, as a public utility government has an obligation to render this kind of service to its citizen.

Table 4.8 Perspective of Institutions Responsible for Provision of Electricity in South Sudan

Institutions Responsible for power Provision	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Government	27	22.7
Private company	2	1.7
Individuals operate private generators	46	38.3
Individuals install solar panels at their homes	19	15.8
Individuals provide both generators & solar panels at their homes	26	21.6
Total	120	100.0

4.1.10 Problems associated with electricity supply

As a utility, there are a number of problems commonly associated with electricity supply. About 55.8% of the respondents stated that, electricity cuts were a major problem with electricity supply, 19.2% said that lower voltage was another major problem, 3.3% confirmed rationing of electricity, and 21.7% revealed changing voltage as a problem. All the problems associated with electricity supply above were valid and

were mainly due to the following reasons: Frequent break down of power generators, inadequate supply of fuel, and during rainy season solar panels were not getting enough energy from sunlight as demonstrated by the (table 4.9) above. 65 percent of the respondents stated that if money was not stolen and some diverted to financed war activates, modern power house should have been constructed and therefore, the above problems should have existed

4.1.11 Housing status in South Sudan

The survey tried to establish the housing status of the respondents by offering the following options to the respondents: Ownership status of the house, tenant/ renter, company house, and family house. The following results were generated: 50.8 % of the respondents revealed that, they owned their houses, 29.2 % stated that they were tenants, 3.3 % of the respondents confirmed that their houses were provided by the company where they work, and 16.7 % said they were accommodated in the family house. The majority of the respondents stated that, they owned their houses, and also a significant percentage revealed that, they were tenants.

Linking the economic status of the respondents to their types of house building materials, the survey tried to find out the types of house building materials used by the respondents. The following are some of the materials available: Cement blocks, concrete, wooden, stone, and mud blocks. 45 % of the respondents said they use mud blocks as their building material, 28.3 % of the respondents described cement blocks as their building materials, 12. 5% used wood as their building material, 3.3 % of the respondents applied stone as their building material, and 10.8 % of the respondents stated that, they use concrete as their building materials. Figures presented in the literature above indicate that, majority of the people in South Sudan used soil or mud as their main building material. This is attributed to several factors as described below: Devaluation of South Sudanese Pound as compared to the other regional currencies, the high cost of building materials that are imported from the neighboring counters, and insecurity along the high way linking South Sudan and other countries in the region. Although 50.8 percent of the respondents confirmed that they owned their house, yet their building materials are of low quality because of the reason stated above.

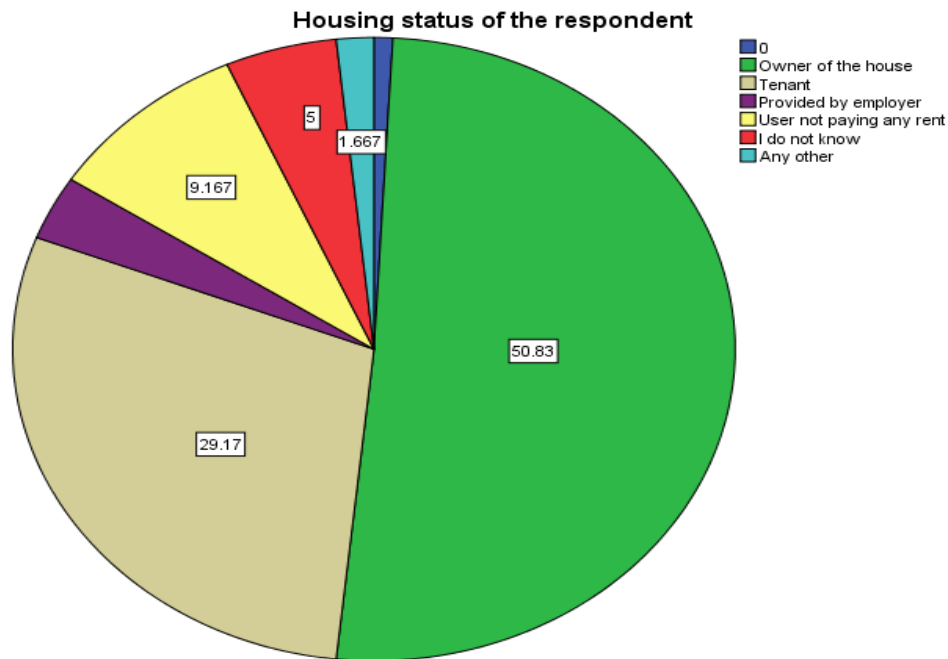


Figure 4.3 Housing status in South Sudan

4.2 Humanitarian crises (loss of lives & assets, population displacement, and food insecurity) Research Question 2.

As shown on (Table 4.2-2) the section that was entirely devoted to respondents' experience of armed conflict, South Sudan has witnessed and under gone numerous armed conflicts resulting into loss of lives and assets, massive displacement of the population and subsequent erosion of people's livelihoods. Assets, capabilities, and safety nets among communities all were destroyed by the various armed conflicts that have taken place since independence of Sudan in 1956 from Great Britain.

Throughout the World, the vast majority of the population derived their livelihoods on natural resources (land, water, forests, rivers, mountains), and as such land becomes an expensive resource / commodity. In Africa however, several conflicts are resource-based, and since land possess or harbors' resources either on top of it (forestry, vegetation, mountains, etc.) or underneath it such as (oil, gold, diamond) etc. Land, therefore, becomes a potential source of conflict given its importance. Livelihoods could be grouped under two categories: On- farm or agriculture - based livelihoods and off- farm or non-agriculture based livelihoods. This section of the study divides the items under livelihoods into four major categories namely: Ownership of agricultural land for farming; land acquisition for production, land size for cultivation each season, and the main staple food crops cultivated on the respondents' farm land.

4.2.1 Ownership of agricultural land for farming

About 71.7 % of the respondents said, they owned agricultural land for farming yet they were not able to do farming because they were being displaced from their home land by war. 28.3 % indicated that, they don't own agricultural land and hence doesn't farm. In theory, although a greater proportion of the respondents stated that they owned agricultural land for farming, but in practice there are no sufficient level of food production and productivity and therefore, no enough commodities in the local markets to meet the local consumption and needs. Insecurity, persistent drought spells, and lack of improved agricultural inputs (seeds and tools), and extension service are responsible for this. In focus group discussion, some members stated that, although the National Ministry of Agriculture, forestry, environment, and rural development have endeavored to import tractors into the country to boost agricultural production, yet the strategy has not yielded any tangible results. This is attributed to lack of selection criterion and prioritization in terms of who qualifies to get the tractor and which regions / states have agricultural potentials. Linked to the respondents' ownership of agricultural land for farming, the study attempted to look on how respondents acquired land production. The survey offered some options to the respondents to choose, and the options are: Renting, buying, leasing, inheritance, and any other option the respondents might think quite appropriate. 59.2 % of the respondents stated that, they acquire land through inheritance, 10.8 % confirmed that, they buy, 7.5% through renting, and 22.5 % stated that, they combined buying, leasing, and inheritance as well.

In regards to the land size for cultivation each season by the respondents, a range of options were also made available to the respondents. This includes: Less than two (2) hectares, 3 – 5 hectares, 6 – 8 hectares, and more than 9 hectares respectively. 66.6 % of the respondents revealed that, they have land size which is less than two (2) hectares for farming each season, 22.5 % of the respondents stated that, the land size they used for cultivation each season was between 3 – 5 hectares, 7.5 % confirmed that, their land size for cultivation each season was between 6 – 8 hectares, and 3.3 % described that, their land size for cultivation each season was more than 9 hectares. Although 71.7 percent of the respondents indicated that they own land for framing, yet they were not able to do farming because they have been displaced from their original home land by the war.

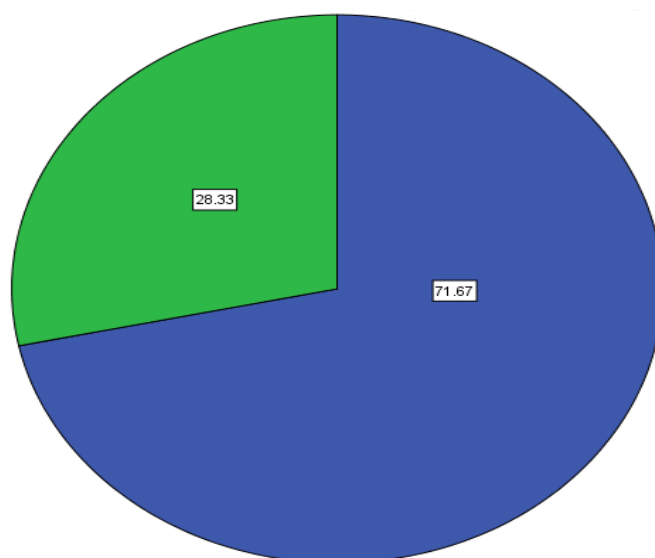


Figure 4.4 Ownership of agricultural land for farming

4.2.2 Main staple food crops cultivated on farm land

In South Sudan, the main staple food crops include: Cassava, sorghum, sweet potatoes, okra, groundnuts, sesame, bull rush millet, and pumpkin. However, in Greater Equatoria Region which comprised of Central Equatoria, Western Equatoria, and Eastern Equatoria states most of those crops stated above are considered main staple food for the communities residing in these states. In Greater Upper Nile region which is made up of Jonglei, Upper Nile proper, and Unity states sorghum, groundnuts, okra, pumpkin and few other vegetable crops are regarded their main food crops. Meanwhile, in Greater Bahr el Ghazal region which is made up of Lakes, Warrap, Northern Bahr el Ghazal, and Western Bahr el Ghazal states the story is the same as it is in greater Upper Nile region.

The results of this study indicated that, 11.7 % of the respondents confirmed that all crops listed above are their main staple food, 12.5 % of the respondents described sorghum as their main staple food, 3.3 % of the respondents said groundnuts are their staple food, another 3.3 % of the respondents considered cassava as their main staple food, 2.5 % of the respondents said all are staple food crops except bull rush millet and sesame, 3.3 % confirmed that all are staple food crops except cassava and sweet potatoes, 4.2 % said all except cassava, sweet potatoes, and bull rush millet, 5.8 % said all except bull rush millet, and 7.5 % of the respondents stated that all are main food crops, except pumpkin.

The physical and climatic settings of South Sudan have resulted to dividing the country into seven different agro-ecological Zones. These are: a) the Greenbelt, b) the ironstone

Plateau, c) the Central and South – eastern Hills and Mountains, d) the Flood Plains, e) the Nile and Sobat River Zone, f) the Arid and Pastoral zone, and g) the Central Range Lands.

The characteristics of these zones determine the pattern of agricultural activity and accordingly the country can be divided into three broad production zones namely: The Central zone, covering the northern part of Upper Nile State, which has modest rainfall and relatively fertile soil, the Flood zone, covering the Southern part of Upper Nile State, most of Jonglei State, a large part of Lakes and Unity States and the extreme northern part of Bahr el Ghazal State, receiving heavy rainfall, and which has heavy impermeable soils; and the Equatorial zone extending over most of the other parts of South Sudan, with more rainfall than the Central zone but poor quality soils.

South Sudan enjoys a sub-humid climate with temperatures ranging from 25 - 35 °C and a favorable rainfall ranging from 500 to 2000 mm per year. The combination of these elements gives South Sudan an agricultural growing season of 130 to 300 days. Both crop and livestock performance varies considerably from zone to zone and year to year (*South Sudan National Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, Animal Resources & Fisheries*)

4.2.3 Household Income Sources

The survey looked at the various ways on how household generate income to meet their immediate household needs and other social obligations. To gauge respondent's means of income sources, some options were listed down for the respondents to choose, and this includes the following: Wage / salary, farming, livestock keeping, trading, wood and wood products, rental income, and lastly assistance from relatives. 33.3 % of the respondent reveals that, their main source of income was derived from wage / salary, 10.0 % get their income from farming, 5.8 % combined wage, farming & livestock keeping as their income source, and again another 5.8 % combined both wage and farming as their income source. 3.3 % described wage and rental income as their main source of income. Minimal percentage of the respondents derives their income from both wood and wood products and assistance from a relative. From the figures presented above, the majority of sampled population indicated that wage / salary was their main source of income, followed by farming. Farming is the main economic activity for the majority of South Sudanese especially for those who are residing in

rural areas. First, it served as a source of food for the household and secondly as a livelihood. Livestock keeping is also another vital source of income for the livestock owning communities across the country. Both farming and livestock keeping are activities that need to be carried out in a peaceful or conflict free environment. Most farmers and livestock keepers have either abandoned their occupation due to insecurity or migrate to other safer areas and learned another trait to making a living. The armed groups killed these animals for their food and forced the owners to flee the area for safety.

To summarize the above points, the survey grouped respondent's perceptions on the following Sub-themes: Household monthly average income, household yearly average income, economic status of the respondent, the yearly level of saving of the respondent and respondent's investment of his / her savings.

4.2.4 Household Monthly Average Income

As shown on the (Bar- chart 4.1), about 44.2 % of the respondents indicated that, their household monthly average income was 600 South Sudanese Pounds (SSPs) and less, 32.5 % of the respondent's falls between 601 – 2501 SSPs, 10 % of the respondents said their monthly average income was between 2502 – 4402 SSPs whereas, 13.3 % described their household monthly average income was more than 4402 SSPs. This statistic indicates that, the majority of South Sudanese earned 600 SSP and less per month on average, and with the current inflation in the country brought in by the current conflict, many households are not able to meet their basic needs and other social obligations. Key informant reveals that without the war, the household monthly average income should have been between 4500 – 5000 SSPs

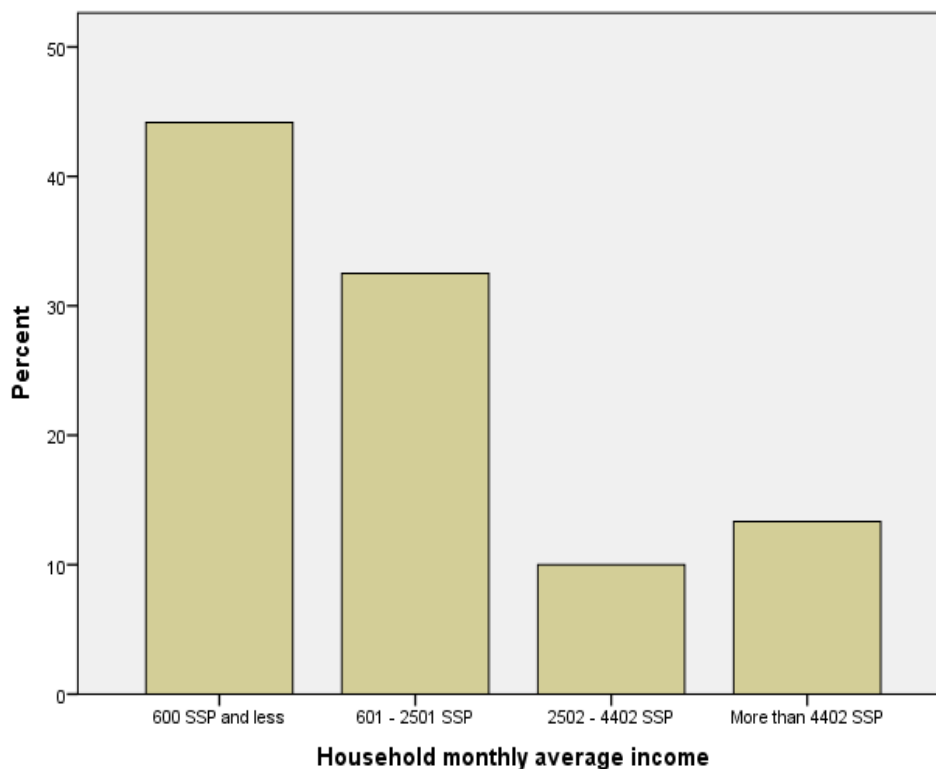


Figure 4.5 Household monthly average income

4.2.5 Household Yearly Average Income

From the (Bar-chart 4.2) below, 54.2 % of the sample population revealed that, their household yearly average income was less than 10, 000 SSPs, 13.3 % said that their yearly average income lie between 10,001 and 15,001, 17.5 % indicated that their yearly income was between 15, 002 and 20,002 SSPs whereas, 11.7 % described their yearly average income was more than 20, 002 SSPs. As indicated by the statistics above, the vast majority of South Sudanese nationals saved less than 10, 000 SSPs yearly. This is attributed to the high cost of living in the country brought about by the current armed conflict which erupted in mid-December, 2013. 69 percent of the respondents said without the war, their household average yearly income should have been 80,000 SSPs.

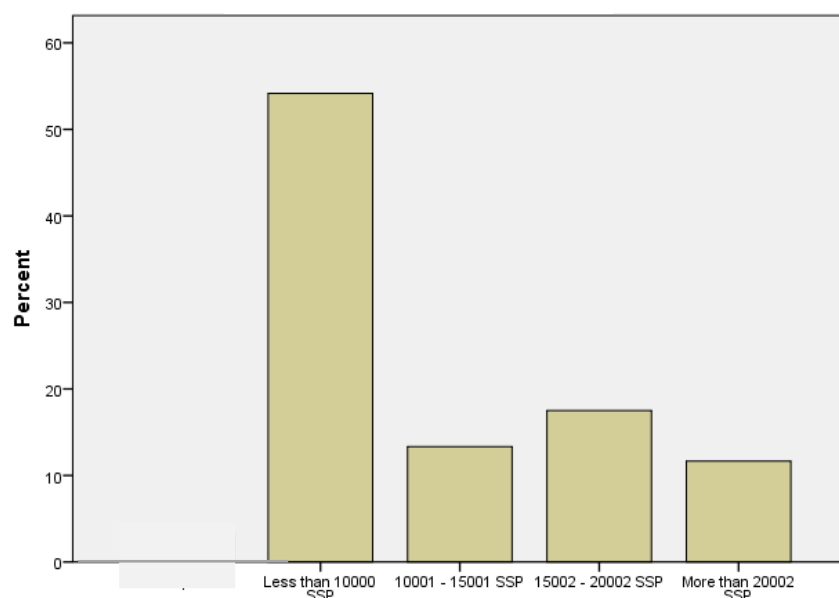


Figure 4.6 Household Yearly Average Incomes

4.2.6 Economic Status

As presented in (Bar chart4.3) above, 10.8 % of the respondents revealed that, they are very poor, 30.8 % said they are poor, 36.7 % of the respondents described themselves as lower middle- income level earners, 19.2 % indicated that they middle- income level earners, and 2.5 % confirmed that they are higher middle-income level earners. Although, the majority of the respondents described themselves as lower middle-income earners with 36.7 %, yet the reality on the ground showed that most South Sudanese are either poor or very poor due to high inflation resulting into high cost of basic commodities such as: food stuff, medicine, clothing and other household goods. The on- going conflict in the country is to blame for all this. The respondents stated that, if there was no war in the country their economic status could have been better (61 %) since the country is well endowed with resources.

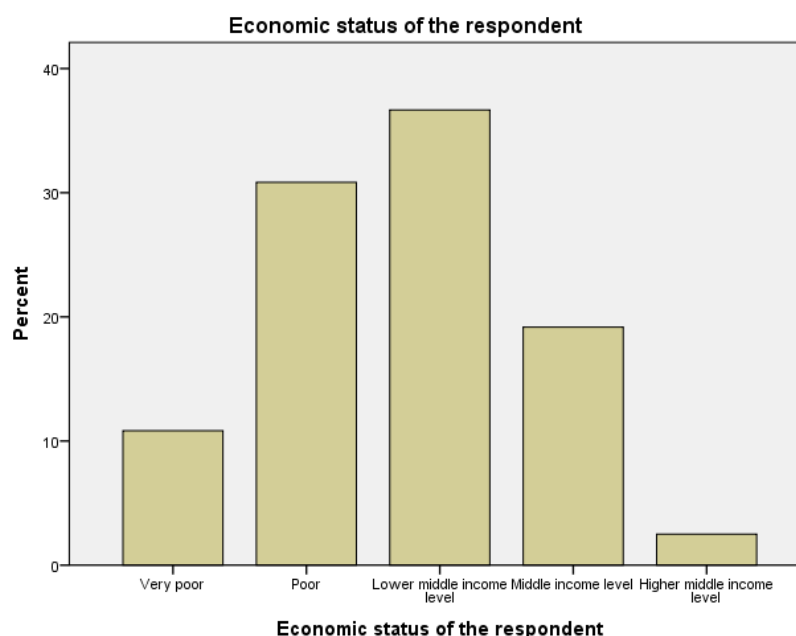


Figure 4.7 Economic Status

4.2.7 Yearly Level of Saving of the Respondents

As described by the (Pie-chart 4.4) below, 76.67 % of the respondents said they save less than 50,000 SSPs yearly, 4.2 % of the respondents described their yearly saving level was between 50,001 and 70,001 SSPs, and 2.5 % of the respondents said they saved between 70,002 and 90,002 SSPs yearly. Due to the hard economic situation in the country, the majority of South Sudanese revealed that, they don't save any money because prizes for basic commodities are four times the normal rate before the onset of the conflict. 48 percent of the respondents stated that if there were no war their yearly savings could have been more than 50,000 SSPs.

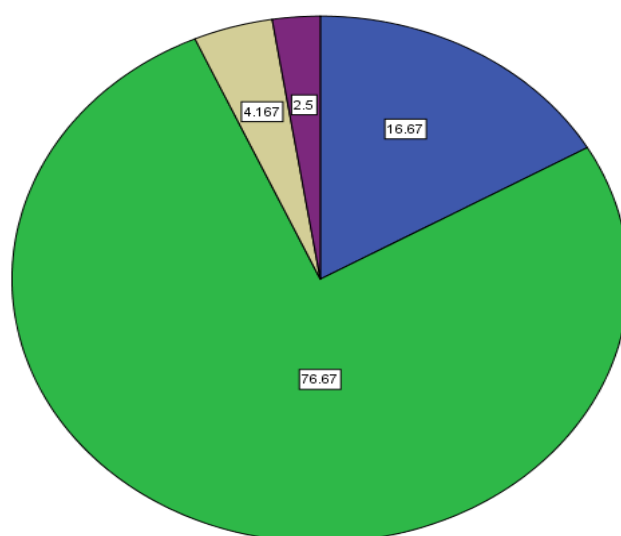


Figure 4. 8 Yearly Level

4.2.8 Investment of savings in South Sudan

During hard and difficult moments of armed conflict in the Sudan, the majority of South Sudanese invest their savings in a variety of ways. The most notable ways for investments include the following: Buying of foreign currency, buying of jewelry sending children to school in the neighboring countries, banking their savings with high- interest rates, and buying of immovable properties such as farm land, houses, commercial & residential plots, and many others. The findings of this study revealed the following outcomes: 39.2 % of the respondents invest their savings by sending their children to school in the neighboring countries, 10 % banked their savings with high interest rate, 9.2 % buy immovable properties, 1.7 % buy foreign currency, and another 1.7 % buy jewelry. Household heads, guardians, and parents normally look into the future of their children, and as such majority of them invest their savings in the education of their children for better future. Some combined both in investing on the education of their children as well as buying of immovable properties to generate more money. The respondents said that, their investments should have been 50 – 60 percent should there be no war in the country.

4.2.9 Standard of Living 10 – 15 Years Ago

Measuring income status and standard of living of the respondents depends on many factors. The most important ones include the following: Production & consumption patterns, and key infrastructural development facilities such as the level of education in the country, nutritional status of the population, and the health care system respectively.

Standard of living of the respondents is directly related to the income status. About 46.67 % of the respondents described themselves as better off between 10 and 15 years ago, 20. 83 % confirmed it was the same as before, whereas 24.17 % said it was worse. In one of the semi -structured interviews with a key informant, the interviewee that, the current civil war in South Sudan is worse than the war that according to him was said to be a war of liberation. The level of destruction in both economic/physical infrastructures during this current conflict is far greater than the previous conflicts fought between the SPLA in the South Sudan and GOS in the north. For instance, the

shutting down of the two oil fields in Unity & Tharjath has negative implication to the economy of the country. The two oil fields have the production capacity of 93, 000 barrels per day; meanwhile there was a substantial reduction on the production capacity in Palougi oil field from 240,000 barrels per day to 168,000 barrels per day (30 % less). This impacted negatively to the economy and to the population in so many ways such as: delay in salary payment for government employees, and implementation of vital government projects.

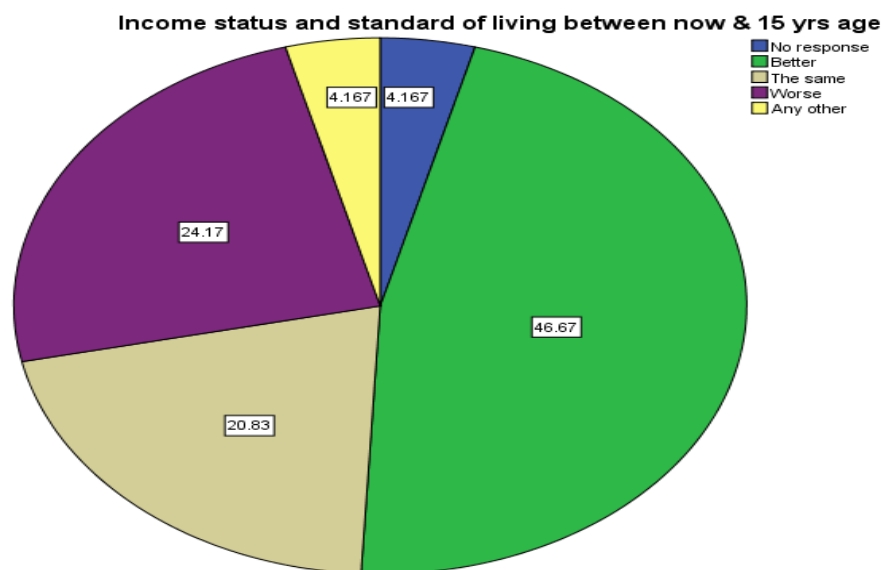


Figure 4.9 Standard of Living 10 – 15 years ago

4.3 Socioeconomic conditions (poverty, disruption of basic services delivery)

Research Question 3

This section is meant to gauge the severity and the impact of armed conflicts on the people and various communities living in South Sudan. Under this section, the study established some infrastructural development facilities to be identified by the respondents if at all they exist in their communities. Items under this section are divided into six categories: Identification of educational facilities by the respondents, identification of health facilities by the respondents, accessibility to adequate portable water by the respondents, road status in the area inhabited by the respondents, ways on how armed conflict affect households, and finally state of current residence of the respondents.

4.3.1 Identification of Educational Facilities in the Area by the sample population

The survey listed the following facilities to be identified by the respondents if at all they exist within various communities / areas. The facilities are: Nursery school, primary school, secondary school, high school, and University respectively. 20% of the respondents confirmed that nursery, primary & secondary schools are present in the area, 18.3 % said all educational facilities are present in the area, 15.0 % confirmed that only primary school was available in the area, 10 % revealed all are present except University, 4.2 % said that, primary, secondary and high schools are present, 6.7 % agreed that, all are present except high school, and 5.8 % said that only nursery and primary schools are available within the area or community. Although figures shown by the statistics above indicated almost all those educational facilities exist in the communities, literally there is no effective learning & teaching in the class rooms because teachers have either fled the area or abandoned teaching profession due to insecurity caused by the present armed conflict in the country. This situation can be experienced in the greater Upper Nile Region (Jonglei, Upper Nile, and Unity States). In greater Equatoria, and Bahr el Ghazal regions, the situation is bit different from that one of greater Upper Nile Region. The respondents stated that, if there was no insecurity, 61 % of the personnel should not have abandoned their profession.

4.3.2 Identification of Health Facilities in the Area

Like the identification of educational facilities, the respondents were given some health facilities to be identified within the area. The facilities include: Health unit, regional hospital, medical store, and pharmacy respectively. About 33.3 % of the respondents indicated that, health unit is present in the area, 20.8 % revealed that all health facilities listed above are present, 10.8 % said that, all are present except medical store, another 10.8 % indicated that only health unit and pharmacy exist in the area, 7.5 % confirmed that health unit and regional hospital are present, 2.5 % said all are present except pharmacy, another 2.5 % revealed that, all are present except regional hospital. Although health facilities exist in some of the areas / communities, they encountered the following problems: Inadequate or no regular medical supplies, delay of monthly salaries for staff, working conditions are not favorable resulting into abandonment of the profession by some staff to seek better opportunities in other sectors elsewhere. 65 percent of the respondents revealed that, if there were no war these health facilities

should have been functioning well, with a regular supply of materials and timely payment of staff salaries.

4.3.3 Accessibility to Adequate Portable Water

About 60 % of the respondents said they don't have access to adequate portable water supply, and 38.3 % of the respondents indicated that, they have access to adequate portable water. A Greater proportion of the population lacks access to portable water resulting into poor health or water related diseases and other ailments. The respondents said that, with no war accessibility to portable water should have been 68 percent.

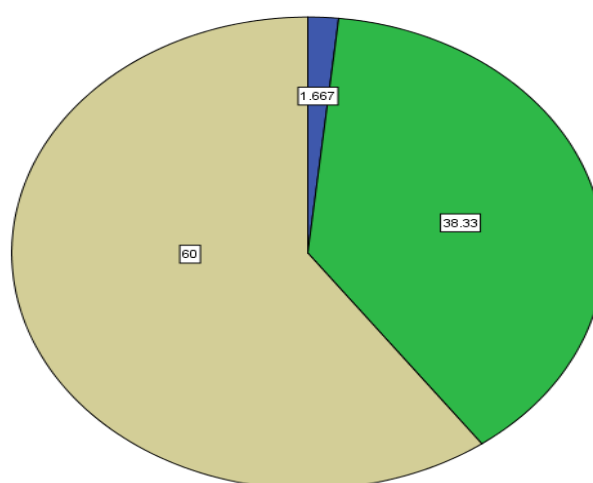


Figure 4.10 Accessibility to adequate portable water

4.3.4 Reasons for No Accessibility to adequate portable Water

About 21.7 % of the respondents stated that the area is heavily mined, 34. 2 % of the respondents cited presence of the armed group (s) around water points, 10.8 % said that water points became polluted by the armed groups, and 33.3 % described water shortage due to the big number of armed groups in the area. Because of those serious threats cited above which are life threatening, majority of the respondents were not able to access water for their daily consumption and need. The respondents stated that, without the war accessibility to portable water should have been 68 percent.

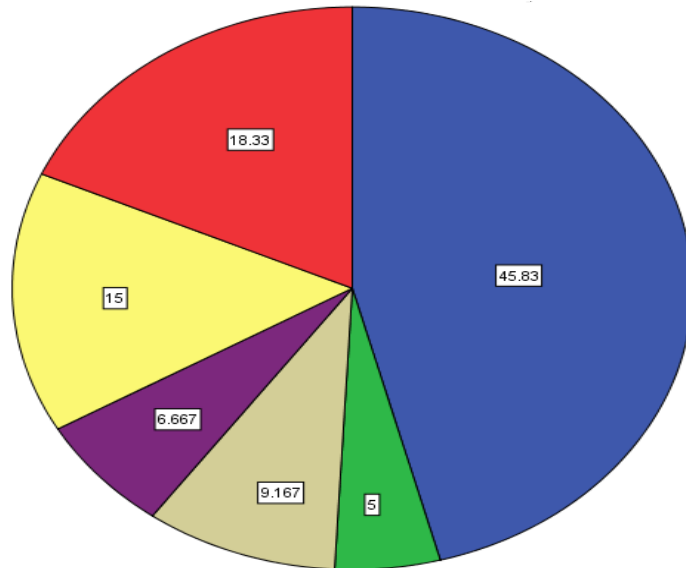


Figure 4.11 Reasons for no accessibility of water

4.3.5 Road Status in the Area inhabited by the sample population

About 15.8 % of the respondents said that the road is paved, 13.4 % described it as stabilized, and 70.8 % of the respondents cited that, the road was unpaved. In real sense, the only paved road was the one linking the Capital of South Sudan, Juba to the neighboring Uganda with funds solicited from a major development partner, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), about 306 KMs in length and only very small portion of the roads with potholes within the Capital; otherwise all the major roads in the country were in bad shape and therefore, need serious work to get fixed.

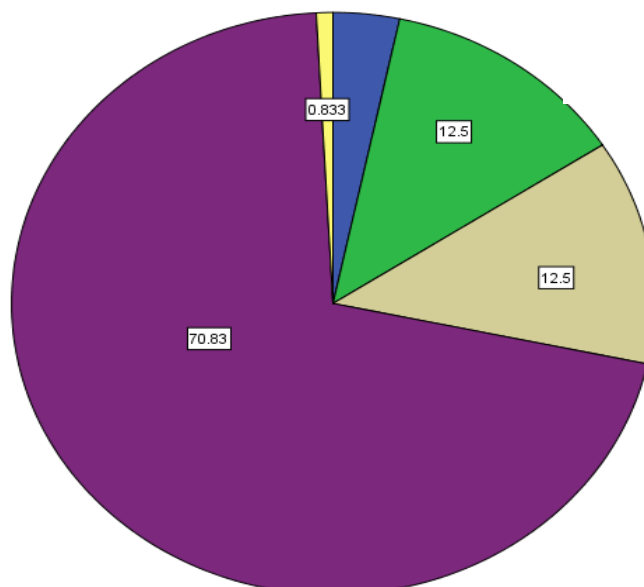
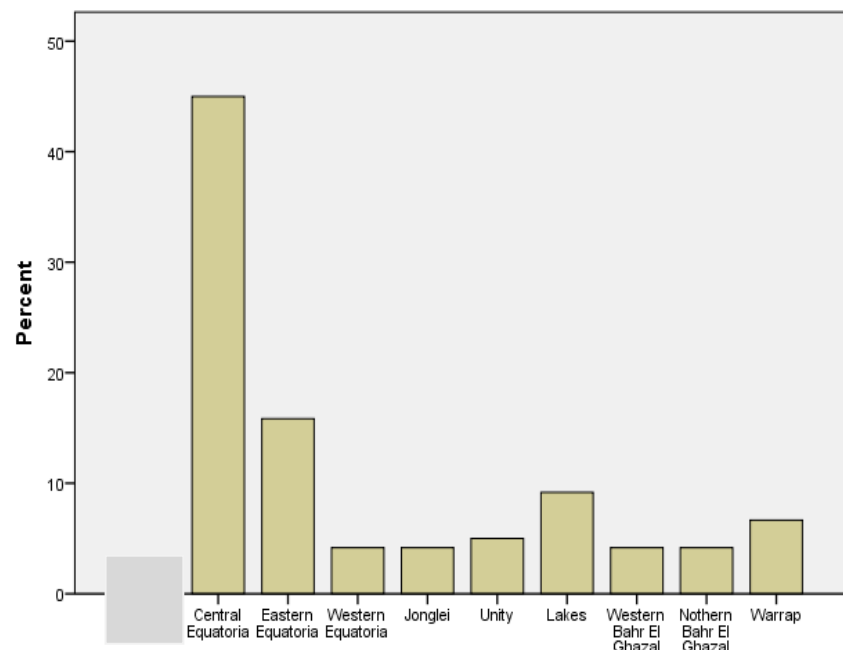


Figure 4.12 Road status in the area inhabited by the sample population

4.3.6 Ways on How Armed Conflicts Affect Households

The study identified the following as some of the ways that affected households during armed conflicts in South Sudan: Reduced household income; reduced household access to education; reduced household access to agricultural land; reduced access to health; reduced access to water and sanitation; and any other possible ways the respondents might think deem necessary. About 47.5 % of the respondents confirmed all the ways listed and identified above adversely affected household during hard and difficult times of armed conflicts, 9.2 % of the respondents categorically stated that armed conflicts reduced household income, 5 % said armed conflict reduced household access to education, 6.7 % stated that all affect household except reduced household income, another 6.7 % stated all affect household except water and sanitation, and 7.5 % confirmed that all affect household except reduced access to agricultural land. In essence, all the five ways identified and listed above adversely affect households. For instance, if the household has limited access to agricultural land, its food production capacity will be reduce hence exposing the household to low food production that leads to: hunger, malnutrition, diseases, and poverty, and on the other hand if children are not allowed to go to school as a result of armed conflict, illiteracy rate will increase and this will exacerbate poverty, and hence promotes ignorance, and backwardness. Should there be no war, 72 percent of the respondents said that household would have adequate access to education, water and sanitation, agricultural land, which resulted to the increase in household income.

Figure 4.13
*State of origin
and current
state of
residence.*



4.3.7 State of Origin and Current State of Residence

Due to the insecurity posed by the current civil war in the country, this study was only carried out within Central Equatoria, but has covered and captured the interest of the other states. Although, 97.5 % of the respondents stated that, their current residence is Central Equatoria, literally it doesn't mean that all of them originated from Central Equatoria. Juba is the capital city of the Republic of South Sudan, and also the state capital of Central Equatoria state. Being the seat of the national government, it attracts a huge population from the other states because it's perceived to be having better social services, huge employment opportunities, presence of foreign diplomatic missions and other social amenities.

For administrative purposes, and for the devolution of power and resources, the Republic of South Sudan was divided into ten decentralized States. The ten States are as follows: Central Equatoria; Eastern Equatoria, Western Equatoria, Jonglei, Upper Nile, Unity, Lakes, Northern Bahr el Ghazal, Western Bahr el Ghazal, and Warrap (table 4.5-4.)

4.4 Implication of the results

The current and the previous armed conflicts in Sudan and South Sudan have far-reaching implications / consequences. For instance, the first civil war (1955 – 1972) has

resulted into the death of about 1.7 million, whereas the second armed conflict that broke out between 1983 – 2005 left 2.5 million deaths and hundreds of thousands displaced beyond the borders of South Sudan. There was no official estimated figure for the deaths during the recent armed conflict which broke out in mid -December 2013 – to date.

A great number of South Sudanese had employed a variety of coping mechanism during the difficult and hard moments they encountered in the phase of these conflicts. The most notable ones include: settlement in the IDPs & refugees' camps where they were catered for by the international Aid agencies, others migrate to the neighboring countries to seek better security and other opportunities they might come across their ways. Because of this protracted periods of armed conflicts in South Sudan, delivery of basic services (education, health, water and sanitation, electricity, roads and bridges, and agricultural production) became a matter of concern. Due to lack of adequate provision of this vital service to the population, the human capital is eroded and therefore resulting into poor quality of life and hence the under development of South Sudan.

Although the vast majority of South Sudanese considered agriculture and livestock rearing as their main occupation, a significant proportion of them have abandoned these traits because their cattle are being killed and consumed by armed groups, fertile agriculture land mined and therefore forcing them to leave the area and either migrate to major towns across the country or leave the country entirely and settled elsewhere as refugees. Because of the reasons stated above, households' income decreased and hence the standard of living deteriorates leaving households destitute and vulnerable. Because of the uncertainties brought in as a result of armed conflicts, majority of South Sudanese invest their savings on the education of their children for better tomorrow / future, few others decided to invest their savings on other things such as buying of immovable properties such as land and housing.

The few existing infrastructural facilities in the country (educational and health) were not well maintained or not adequately supplied with the basic necessary items that would make the work enjoyable to the workers. For instance, in the educational sector teachers are not regularly paid, kidnapped or forced to join any of the warring parties. Literally teaching & learning cannot be possible under such circumstances. The same

thing is applied to the health sector. Accessibility to adequate portable water also not possible due to the following reason: Some of the areas that contain water were heavily mined, presence of the armed groups around those water points; water points became polluted due to the large population of the armed groups; and shortage of water due to the big number of armed groups in the area.

The destruction of both physical and economic infrastructures by the current armed conflict has crippled both the economy of the country and people's livelihoods. For instance, the oil sector that provides about 98.0 % of South Sudan revenue and for the government operates normally. The shutting down of the two oil fields at Unity and Tharjath whose production capacity was 93, 000 barrels / day and the reduction in the production capacity of Palougi oil field from 240,000 to 168,000 barrels / day has negative implication to the government. Government employees were not able to get their monthly salaries regularly, and the implementation of key government projects / programs becomes impossible if not difficult.

Armed conflicts affect households in different ways. For example, reduced household income leads to changes in consumption pattern, healthcare, education etc. Reduced access to educations leads to increase in illiteracy, poverty, ignorance, and backwardness etc. Reduced access to agricultural land leads to low income, low food consumption pattern, food insecurity, malnutrition, and poverty etc. Reduced access to health leads to diseases, and malnutrition. Reduced access to water and sanitation leads to water related diseases and poor general hygiene.

4.5 Limitations of the study

Although the sampled population for this study represents the ten states that constitute South Sudan, observation was not possible on the ground that would have quantified the level of destruction in both physical and economic infrastructures because of the current conflict in the country, and as such this becomes a limitation or weakness for the study. Additionally, the data for the study were collected at a time of tense war atmosphere in the country making the participants in the focus group discussions to feel reserve in discussing sensitive issues. This has been due to the fact that each of the participants would not be able to know who is who in relation to the government secret agents and as such releasing information especially about government became a matter of concern.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The previous chapter was concerned with the results of the study, implication of the results, and the limitations of the study. The current chapter is devoted to the summary of findings, conclusion, recommendations, and suggested areas for further research.

5.1 Summary of findings

The findings of this study are summarized below:

1. The majority of South Sudanese have experience various armed conflicts fought between Sudan and South Sudan. These armed conflicts generally resulted into general insecurity throughout the entire Southern Region of Sudan and subsequently retarded the socio- economic development of the area in question. Armed conflict caused displacement and migration of the population making them internally or externally displaced persons.
2. Humanitarian aid agencies / NGOs, missionary organizations, and enterprises operated by individuals make an enormous contribution to service provision to the impoverished population affected by armed conflicts. Government played minimal role in service delivery because much of the resources are diverted into war activities which in turn cause more suffering and destitutions. The overall ratings of services such as education, health, water & sanitation, and physical infrastructure are either or very poor attributed the reason stated above.
3. Although the vast majority of the respondents stated that, they were employed either by public or private sectors a sizeable proportion were also engage in other economic activities such as farming, livestock keeping, trading, wood & wood products, rental income, and assistance from relatives to make a living.
4. The current conflict in South Sudan has destroyed both economic and physical infrastructure. The research found out that, 46.7 % of the respondents said they were better off between 10 – 15 years ago. Oil is the major source of revenue for the government of South Sudan, and any interference with the production of

this precious commodity will have negative implication to the government. For instance, the shutting down of the two oil fields in Unity and Tharjath whose production capacity was 93, 000 barrels per day has negatively affected the economy of the country. In Palougi oil field, the production capacity has also fallen from 240, 000 barrels per day to 168, 000 barrels per day because of the on- going conflict in the country.

5. Agriculture is the mainstay of people in South Sudan. Land for farming is acquired through various ways which include: Renting, inheritance, buying, and leasing. Inheritance is the most predominant method of land acquisition for production. Majority of the respondents revealed that, their land size for farming each season is less than two hectares.
6. The economic hardship imposed to the population by several armed conflicts in South Sudan has made the citizens of this young country destitute and vulnerable. Although the vast majority of the respondents stated that they owned their houses, yet most of them used rudimentary materials like mud blocks, wood or local poles as their main building materials, because they don't afford imported modern building materials.
7. The majority of the respondents confirmed that educational facilities such as nursery, primary and secondary schools exist in their communities, and few of them stated that institutions such as high school and University are only found in major towns in the country. On the health aspects, large proportion of the respondents revealed that health units also exist in their communities, but lack regular supplies like medicines and other necessities that may make the facilities function well.
8. Water is a very important commodity for the well – being and survival of humanity. The vast majority of the respondents stated that, they don't have access to adequate portable water supply within their communities. Road infrastructure was also stated to be bad in the country.
9. Although a large proportion of the respondents stated that, they have electricity in their houses, this vital service is not provided by the government. Individuals either operate private generators or installed solar panels on top of their roof houses to supply power. The main problems commonly associated with

electricity supply include: electricity cuts, low voltage, electricity rationing, and changing voltage. Changes in weather could also be another problem especially power sourced from solar panels.

10. Armed conflicts affect households in several ways. E.g. reduced household income, reduced household access to health & education, reduced household access to agricultural land, and it could also reduce household access to water and sanitation. All these have adverse effects to the affected population. For instance, reduced household access to agricultural land could lead to low food production which in turns leads to food insecurity, malnutrition, poverty, diseases etc.

4.2 Conclusions

The results show that conflict has adversely affected the development of South Sudan in several ways. All sides in the conflict have suffered, but the people who celebrated the birth of Africa's newest country when it separated from Sudan have suffered more. The men, women, and children of South Sudan have seen war in the place of peace. The children have had to stay at home rather than go to school and life has become more difficult for everyone including combatants. Only an end to the ongoing conflict will help reverse the trend and allow South Sudanese enjoy their nationhood. Agricultural production and productivity drastically reduced because farmers don't feel safe due to insecurity, and therefore forcing population displacement, migration, food insecurity, loss of lives and assests, poverty, deterioration of socioeconomic condition, and collapse of basic service delivery to the population. The destruction of both physical and economic infrastructures by the warring parties is a major concern and this not only affects the economy of South Sudan, but also has a serious implication on the civil population their means of survival are either destroyed or abandoned due to insecurity in the country.

5.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations serve to minimize the social impact and effects of armed conflicts in Africa generally and South Sudan in particular with respect to the study being undertaken.

- i. Authorities should not encourage armed groups to use developmental facilities such as schools and health facilities to be used by armed groups as their barracks or depots.
- ii. South Sudan Demining Authorities (SSDA) should discourage contamination of roads, fertile agricultural land, and water points used by both human- beings and livestock with deadly weapons such as landmines and un explosive ordinances (UXOs). This will undermine household food security, security and safety of the communities in question.
- iii. Competent institutions such as reputable international aid agencies and government- line departments / ministries should support households to diversify their livelihoods including both material and social resources and activities required for a means of living in order to be able to cope with shocks and stresses as a result of natural or man- made calamities.
- iv. Destitute and vulnerable segment of the population (children, women, elderly and the ethnic minorities) should receive immediate attention from the humanitarian aid agencies and government during periods of civil conflicts. This is also in line with research objective number 2.
- v. During hard and difficult moments of armed conflict, destitute and vulnerable population should seek protection and shelter in neutral places such as: IDPs / refugees' camps in order to receive assistance from humanitarian aid agencies in terms of safety and security, food rations, health, education, water and sanitation. This follows that government and development partners should support conflict areas with more refugee camps that are well serviced with basic livelihood requirements
- vi. Diversification of household income sources should be supported and encouraged by government and development partners because it contributes greatly in alleviating human suffering and therefore, off sets hardship in unforeseen situations.
- vii. Government should Endeavour to expand the coverage of those residential areas within Juba city council which previously not being covered with electricity and water supply. This is not only to provide power & water to various households within the city, but also to ensure adequate water security, human safety, and security through street lighting.

5.4 Suggested Areas for Further Research

Given the limitations in section 4.4 above,

- i. Firstly, the study recommends for further research that will be carried out with the aim of carrying out an observation on the ground specifically in those areas hit hard by the current conflict (i.e. the government and SPLM-O).
- ii. Secondly, the study recommends another study to be carried out in the country during peace time for the study to gain more information from the focus group participants without fear that will improve the results of the study.

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Appendices

Appendix I: Questionnaire



PAN AFRICAN INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT – WEST AFRICA (PAID-WA) BUEA

Dear Respondent,

My name is **Luka Hakim Yatta Lobojo**, a Master of Art (MA) student at the Pan – African Institute for Development, West Africa (PAID-WA), Buea, South West Region of the Republic of Cameroon.

This survey is part of a project to understand the social impact and effects of conflict on the development of South Sudan. Your participation will highly contribute to the conclusions generated in the study. Your privacy is guaranteed and your responses will be used for academic purposes only.

Section A: Respondent's history of exposure to conflict in South Sudan.

Here, we will like to know your history of exposure to conflict in South Sudan

1. Have you ever experienced any armed conflict in South Sudan?
 1. Yes ☐
 2. No ☐
2. If the answer above is yes, which armed conflict did you experience?
 1. Anyanya 1 ☐
 2. SPLA /Movement ☐
 3. The current conflict ☐
 4. All the three conflicts stated above ☐
 5. SPLA and the current conflict ☐
3. How did you and your family survive during the period (s) within which you experienced armed conflicts in South Sudan? (Tick all that apply)
 1. Settled in the IDPs camps to seek protection, shelter and food rations from aid agencies ☐
 2. Settled in the refugees camps in the neighboring countries ☐
 3. Migrate to neighboring countries for better security and other opportunities ☐
 4. Settled in more stable and peaceful rural area ☐
4. During the time (s) of armed conflicts in South Sudan, who provides basic social services (education, health, water and sanitation) to the citizens (Tick all that apply)

1. Government ☐
 2. Aid agencies / NGOs ☐
 3. Individuals who operate private facilities for profit making purposes ☐
 4. Missionary organizations ☐
 5. Any other: Please specify _____
5. On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is very poor, 2 is poor, 3 is average, 4 is good and 5 is very good, rate the quality of services rendered during armed conflicts in South Sudan:

Rate	1	2	3	4	5
(1)Water and sanitation					
(2)Health					
(3) Education					
(4)Physical infrastructure					
(5) Others: Please specify					

Section B: Socio-economic & livelihoods aspects

Here, we will like some information about your living conditions

6. What are the main income sources of your household? (Tick all that apply)
 1. Wage / salary ☐
 2. Farming ☐
 3. Livestock keeping ☐
 4. Trading ☐
 5. Wood and wood products ☐
 6. Rental income ☐
 7. Assistance from relatives ☐
 8. Any other: Please specify _____
7. What is the average monthly income of your household? (Tick one)
 1. 600 SSP and less ☐
 2. 601 – 2501 SSP ☐
 3. 2502 – 4402 SSP ☐
 4. More than 4402 SSP ☐
8. What is the average yearly income of your household? (Tick one)
 1. Less than 10, 000 ☐
 2. 10,001 – 15,001 SSP ☐
 3. 15,002 – 20,002 SSP ☐
 4. More than 20, 002 SSP ☐
9. How do you consider yourself?
 1. Very poor ☐
 2. Poor ☐
 3. Lower middle income level ☐

4. Middle income level ☐
 5. Higher middle income level ☐
 6. Rich ☐
 7. Very rich ☐
10. How much do you save yearly?
1. Less than 50, 000 SSP ☐
 2. 50,001 – 70,001 SSP ☐
 3. 70,002 - 90,002 SSP ☐
 4. More than 90, 002 SSP ☐
11. How do you invest your savings? (Tick all that apply)
1. Buy foreign currency ☐
 2. Buy jewelleries ☐
 3. Send children to school in the neighboring countries ☐
 4. Bank it with an interest rate ☐
 5. Buy immovable properties ☐
 6. Any other: Please specify _____
12. How was your income status and standard of living when compared to 10 – 15 years ago?
1. Better ☐
 2. The same ☐
 3. Worse ☐
 4. Any other: Please specify _____
13. What is the ownership status of your house?
1. Owner of the house ☐
 2. Tenant / Renter ☐
 3. Provided by employer ☐
 4. User not paying any rent ☐
 5. I do not know ☐
 6. Any other: Please specify _____
14. What is the main building material of your house?
1. Cement blocks ☐
 2. Concrete ☐
 3. Wooden ☐
 4. Stone ☐
 5. Soil ☐
 6. I do not know ☐
15. Do you or a member of your household have any agricultural land or do farming?
1. Yes ☐
 2. No ☐
16. How do you acquire land for production? (Tick all that apply)

1. Renting ☐
 2. Buying ☐
 3. Leasing ☐
 4. Inheritance ☐
 5. Grabbing ☐
 6. Any other: Please specify _____
17. What is the size of the land cultivated each season?
1. Less than 2 hectares ☐
 2. 3 – 5 hectares ☐
 3. 6 – 8 hectares ☐
 4. More than 9 hectares ☐
18. What are the main staple food crops cultivated on your farm land? (Tick all that apply)
1. ☐ Cassava
 2. Sorghum ☐
 3. Sweet potatoes ☐
 4. Bull rush millet ☐
 5. Pumpkin ☐
 6. Okra ☐
 7. Groundnuts ☐
 8. Sesame ☐

Section C: Implications and effects of conflict on socio – economic infrastructure and other development related issues.

19. Identify the following educational facilities if present in your community (Tick all that apply)
1. Nursery school ☐
 2. Primary school ☐
 3. Secondary school ☐
 4. High school ☐
 5. University ☐
20. Identify the following health facilities if present in your community (Tick all that apply)
1. Health unit ☐
 2. Regional hospital ☐
 3. Medical store ☐
 4. Pharmacy ☐
21. Is there access to an adequate potable water supply?
1. Yes ☐
 2. No ☐
22. If your answer is “No” please specify the reason (s):
1. The area is / was heavily mined ☐

2. The presence of the armed group around water point (s) frightened us ☐
 3. Water points became polluted by the armed groups ☐
 4. Water shortage due to the big number of the armed group (s) in the area ☐
 5. Any other reason: Please specify _____
23. What is the status of the roads in your area?
1. Paved – made of asphalt / tarmac ☐
 2. Stabilized ☐
 3. Unpaved ☐
 4. Any other: Please specify _____
24. Do you have electricity in your house?
1. Yes ☐
 2. No ☐
25. Who provides this kind of service?
1. Government ☐
 2. Private company ☐
 3. Individuals operate private generators ☐
 4. I do not know ☐
 5. Individuals install solar panels in their homes to supply light ☐
26. Identify any problems you may be experiencing with electricity supply?
1. Electricity cuts ☐
 2. Low voltage ☐
 3. Rationing of electricity ☐
 4. Changing voltage ☐
 5. Any other: Please specify _____
27. In what ways do the current and previous armed conflicts in South Sudan affect you and your family? (Tick all that apply)
1. Reduced household income ☐
 2. Reduced access to education ☐
 3. Reduced access to health ☐
 4. Reduced access to water and sanitation ☐
 5. Reduced access to agricultural land ☐
 6. Any other: Please specify _____

Section D: Demographics

Here, we will like to know some personal details about you

28. Name of respondent: _____
29. State of origin: _____
30. Present location (if different from state) _____
31. Age of the respondent _____
32. Gender: _____

1. Male ☐

2. Female ☐

33. Educational level

1. Primary school. ☐

2. Secondary school. ☐

3. Tertiary institution ☐

4. No formal education ☐

34. Occupation:

1. Student ☐

2. Teacher ☐

3. Nurse ☐

4. Farmer ☐

5. Soldier ☐

6. Business person ☐

7. Civil servant ☐

8. Doctor ☐

9. Politician ☐

10. Engineer ☐

11. Any other: Please specify _____

35. Marital status

1. Married ☐

2. Single ☐

3. Divorced ☐

4. Widow ☐

5. Widower ☐

36. Are you the head of the household?

1. Yes ☐

2. No ☐

37. Religion

1. Christian ☐

2. Muslim ☐

3. Any other: Please specify _____

Thank you for your valued time and cooperation

Appendix II: Interview Guide for the Key Informants



PAN AFRICAN INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMNT WEST AFRICA

(PAID –WA) BUEA

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE KEY INFORMANTS

Rapport Building

Date of interview: -----

Name of interviewee:-----

What is your job title: -----

What primary functions does your job involve?

General Questions relating to the survey

1. How long have you been living in South Sudan as a household /family?

-----Years

2. Have you ever experienced any armed conflict in South Sudan?

If “ yes” explain-----

3. During this period what has been your experience with issues of conflict?

4. What are some of the ways in which the conflict in South Sudan has affected you and your household?

5. In your opinion how have conflicts affected livelihoods in South Sudan?

6. Is the impact of conflicts on livelihoods is as big as impacts on the economy?

7. A) if yes why do you think so?

B) If No what could be the difference in terms of social and economic impact?

8. What are some of the peculiarities between what you have noticed with the conflicts in South Sudan?

9. Do you have some proposals on how livelihoods could be improved in a post – war South Sudan?

10. What are some of the partners you think could work together to bring about growth and development in South Sudan?

11. In what capacities can each of these partners contribute?

12. Is there something you may want to say about conflicts and development in South Sudan that I have not addressed?

13. Do you have any questions for me?

Thank you for your valued time and cooperation

Appendix III: Check List for Focus Group Discussions



PAN AFRICAN INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT WEST AFRICA (PAID-WA) BUEA

FOCUS GROUP CONFIRMATION LETTER

July, 2015

Dear _____,

Thank you for your willingness to participate in our focus group discussion. My name is **Luka Hakim Yatta Lobojo**, a Master of Art (MA) student at the Pan – African Institute for Development, West Africa (PAID-WA), Buea, South West Region of the Republic of Cameroon.

This survey is part of a project to understand the social impact and effects of conflict on the development of South Sudan. Your participation will highly contribute to the conclusions generated in the study. Your responses to these questions will be kept anonymous.

TIME

DATE

PLACE

If you need directions to the focus group or will not be able to attend for any reason, please call the numbers provided below:

+ 211 (0) 955 068 128 or + 211 (0) 928 507 441 at _____. Otherwise, we look forward to seeing you.

Sincerely,

Luka Hakim Yatta Lobojo

Member of project on social impact and effects of conflict on the development of South Sudan.

Focus group discussion / deep interview No:

District / Village / Quarter:

Date:

Moderator and Assistant Moderator:

Description of the person / group:

Total number of people in the meeting:

Participants:

Sex	Age	Marital status and number of children	Education	Occupation	Other notes

Guiding questions:

1. I would like to begin by going around the table and asking each of you to tell us a little about yourself and your family.

2. How long have you been living in South Sudan?
_____years

FOLLOW UP: Did you ever experience any difficulty or rough time during your stay in South Sudan?

3. Why do you think it is important to have developmental infrastructure (education, health, water, electricity, roads and bridges facilities) in your community?

FOLLOW UP: What are some of the roles these developmental infrastructure plays in the community?

4. With the onset of the current and previous armed conflicts in South Sudan, what changes have you observed in your major towns in relation to health, education, water, electricity, roads and bridges facilities?

FOLLOW UP: How can you respond to these changes?

5. In general how satisfied are you with the quality of basic services delivered to you and your household?

6. How did you and your family survive during the period (s) within which you experienced armed conflicts in South Sudan?

FOLLOW UP: Tell us your survival strategies during those periods

7. What do you do in order to make a living in South Sudan?

FOLLOW UP: Any hindrance or obstacles that affect your livelihoods?

8. South Sudan is considered potentially a rich country in terms of natural resources (land, water, forestry, energy and many others). Considering all the above, why do you think the agricultural production has decreased?

9. What happened to the agricultural production in South Sudan in the last 5 – 10 years?

FOLLOW UP: Did you observe any lapses?

10. How was your income status and standard of living when compared to 10 – 15 years ago?

FOLLOW UP: What do you think could be the reason for this change?

11. Do you have any question to the chair?

Thank you for your valued time and cooperation
